

# Mycotoxins: Health Problems and Future Strategies

**Sherif R. Mohamed\***

Food Toxicology and Contaminants Department, National Research Centre, Dokki, Egypt

**Received date:** 20<sup>th</sup> November 2018, **Accepted date:** 25<sup>th</sup> November 2018, **Published date:** 31<sup>st</sup> December 2018

Copyright: ©2018 Mohamed SR. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

\*Corresponding Author: Sherif R. Mohamed, Food Toxicology and Contaminants Department, National Research Centre, Dokki, Egypt, Email: sheriframzy4@gmail.com

## Abstract

Mycotoxins are one of the most hazards toxins for human and animal and the most widespread are aflatoxins, fumonisins, ochratoxins, trichothecenes, zearalenone and patulin. Aflatoxin is the most hazardous contaminated many foods. Numerous studies around the world indicated to the contamination of most foods with one or more types of mycotoxins induce large economic losses and health problem. The survey studies showed that they are contaminating most cereal crops, such as wheat, rice, barley, coffee beans, peanuts, medicinal herbs, etc. Mycotoxins cause many acute and chronic diseases for human and animal due to their accumulation in the body and affect different organs depending on the type of mycotoxin. Mycotoxins may convert to other derivatives, when introduce into the human body, animals and plants or during food processing and not appear in the known detection methods so the advanced detection method should be taken into consideration. Mycotoxins are hepatocarcinogenic, immunosuppressive; induced kidney tumor, carcinogenic, induced oesophageal cancer, etc. For these reasons the prevention or control is necessary to avoid mycotoxin hazards and to find a suitable solution to the factors affecting on the climatic changes as well as good agricultural practices before and after harvest process, good manufacture practices and good storage conditions to ensure the food safety. Awareness of people to mycotoxin hazards will help and decrease the health problem as well as follow up these toxins in food and agriculture commodities.

## Keywords:

Mycotoxins health hazards; Prevention strategies.

## Introduction

Mycotoxins are secondary metabolites of fungi that contaminate many agricultural commodities and induced a wide hazard for

people and animal as well [1]. There are four hundred different mycotoxins identified. The major concern medically and agriculturally are aflatoxins (AFs), fumonisins (FBs), ochratoxins (OTA), trichothecene (TC), zearalenone (ZEA) and patulin (PAT) [1]. The mycotoxins molecular structure represents their toxic effects through the negative effects of oxidative stress and free radical production [2]. The imbalance between the antioxidant and



© The Author(s) 2018. This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons license, and indicate if changes were made. The Creative Commons Public Domain Dedication waiver (<http://creativecommons.org/publicdomain/zero/1.0/>) applies to the data made available in this article, unless otherwise stated.

free radicals can cause damage to DNA, lipids, and proteins due to mycotoxins exposure [3].

A survey of mycotoxin in animal feeds in European and Mediterranean countries as well as Asia-Pacific area was carried out by Binder et al. [4], and the occurrence of DON, ZEA and T2 were the major occurrence in the European samples, while AFs, FBs, DON and ZEA mainly contaminated the Asia and Pacific areas. Herzallah [5] found aflatoxin M1 and M2 in milk and AFB1, B2, G1 and G2 in meat samples in Jordan. Reddy et al. [6] carried out a survey on rice samples in India and found many *Aspergillus* sp (Asp) and AFB1. Rice samples found to be contaminated with (Asp) and AFs in many countries such as Nigeria, United Arab Emirates and China [7]. Corn samples were highly contaminated with fungi, AFB1 and FB1 in Vietnam [8]. Alborch et al. [9] isolated different Asp, fusarium, penicillium, *Mucorales* sp, AFB1 and OTA from corn flour and popcorn. Mycotoxins were detected in solid processed foods in Spain [10].

Different toxicogenic fungi isolated from medicinal herbs was reported from Argentina [11]. AFs, OTA and ZEA found to be contaminated Ginseng [12]. FB1 was reported in different dietary such as *Rumex lanceolatus* and *Zantedeschia aethiopica* etc., and different medicinal such as *Catha edulis*, *Dalbergia obovata* [13]. Different mycotoxins were found in medicinal herbs in Brazil [14]. The presence of AFB1 in *Mentha piperita*, *Piper nigrum*, *Pimpinella anisum* and *Origanum majorana* was reported by Bokhari [15] in Saudi Arabia. In Korea spices, 13.6% of processed spice products were contaminated with aflatoxin [16]. Multi mycotoxins contamination were found in 84 medicinal herbs surveyed in Spain [17].

**Table 1.** Aflatoxins contamination levels in samples from Middle East and some African countries [18].

Country	Aflatoxins
Algeria	
% of positive	0
Mean (ng g)	-
Egypt	
% of positive	19
Mean (ng g)	1
Ghana	
% of positive	72
Mean (ng g)	26
Israel	
% of positive	7
Mean (ng g)	1
Jordan	
% of positive	45
Mean (ng g)	4
Kenya	
% of positive	78
Mean (ng g)	52

In 2009, 324 grain, feed and feed commodity samples were taken directly from animal farms in the Middle East and Africa to evaluate the presence of A- and B-TC, ZEA, FBs, AFs and OTA and found the B-TC up to 87%. The prevalence of FBs in the studied countries was >50%. ZEA was found to be contaminated all tested commodities from the studied countries except three are Algeria, Sudan and Yemen. AFs levels varied from 0 to 94% and OTA was present in 67% of samples from Sudan and in 100% of Nigerian samples [18].

### Major Mycotoxins with Important Impact to Human and Animals

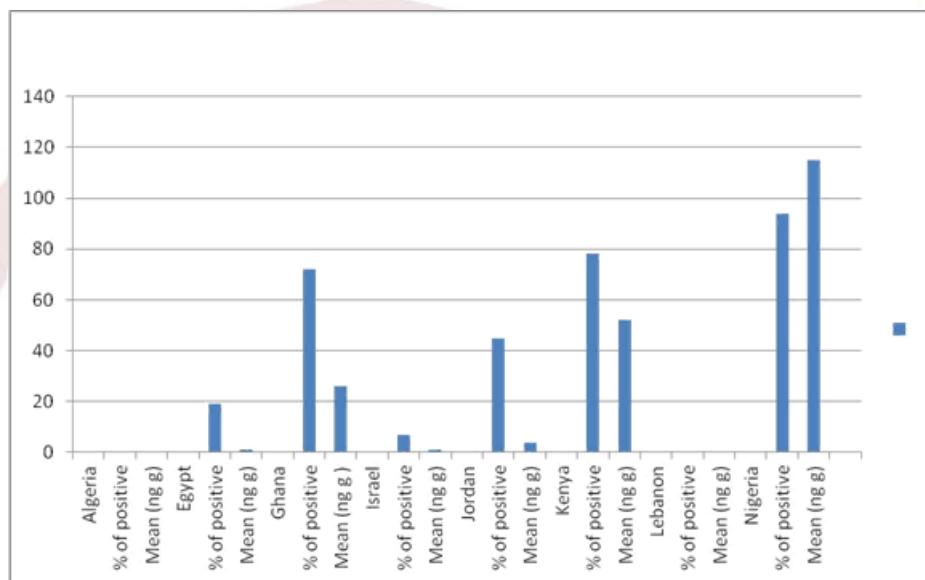
#### Aflatoxins

Source: The major source of AFs are *Asp. falcatus* and *Asp. parasiticus* as well as other *Asp.* sp such as *Emericella* spp. [19].

**Occurrence:** Aflatoxins are very important hazard contaminants due to their ability to invade human food and animal feeds like nuts, cereals, oilseeds, meat and meat products, milk and milk product and eggs [20].

Table 1 and Figure 1 showed the aflatoxins contamination levels in 324 grain, feed and other feed commodity samples that directly sourced from animal farms or animal feed production from the Middle East and some African countries during February and October 2009, and from the results, it is cleared that the most incidence aflatoxin contamination is Nigeria followed by Kenya, Ghana, Jordan, Egypt, Israel, Lebanon and Algeria [18].

Lebanon	
% of positive	0
Mean (ng g)	-
Nigeria	
% of positive	94
Mean (ng g)	115



**Figure 1.** Aflatoxins contamination levels in samples from Middle East and some African countries [18].

**Health hazards: Human:** Aflatoxins specially B1 type is the most carcinogenic mycotoxins in human leading to aflatoxicoses [21]. Aflatoxin bind to the DNA at the N7 guanine base in hepatic cells causing several problems. AFB1 and B2 metabolism in the body are M1 and M2 and then excreted out in the urine [22].

AFs is a potent toxic carcinogen for liver and completely linked to the etiology causing hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) which has increased up to 3.3 folds in the human with detectable AFM1 in the urine [23]. AFB1 is a potent hepato-carcinogen, generate reactive oxygen species and causes oxidative DNA damage, which may play a role in its carcinogenicity [24]. In 1993, IARC have been classified AFB1 as a class 1 carcinogen based on their chemical structures.

AFs caused acute liver and kidney lesions in children in Thailand [25] and was detected in pregnant women. Moreover, AFs at high levels cause hepatic carcinoma [26], and it was responsible for 4.6% to 28.2% of hepatocellular carcinoma worldwide [27]. Studies of AFs exposure on mice noted that mice after birth are prone towards HCC [28].

There is genetic alteration occurring in the body due to aflatoxin, since each person has a unique genetic code. These genetic codes are produced by a different level of enzymes that transform aflatoxin into epoxied. These enzymes, which carry out this

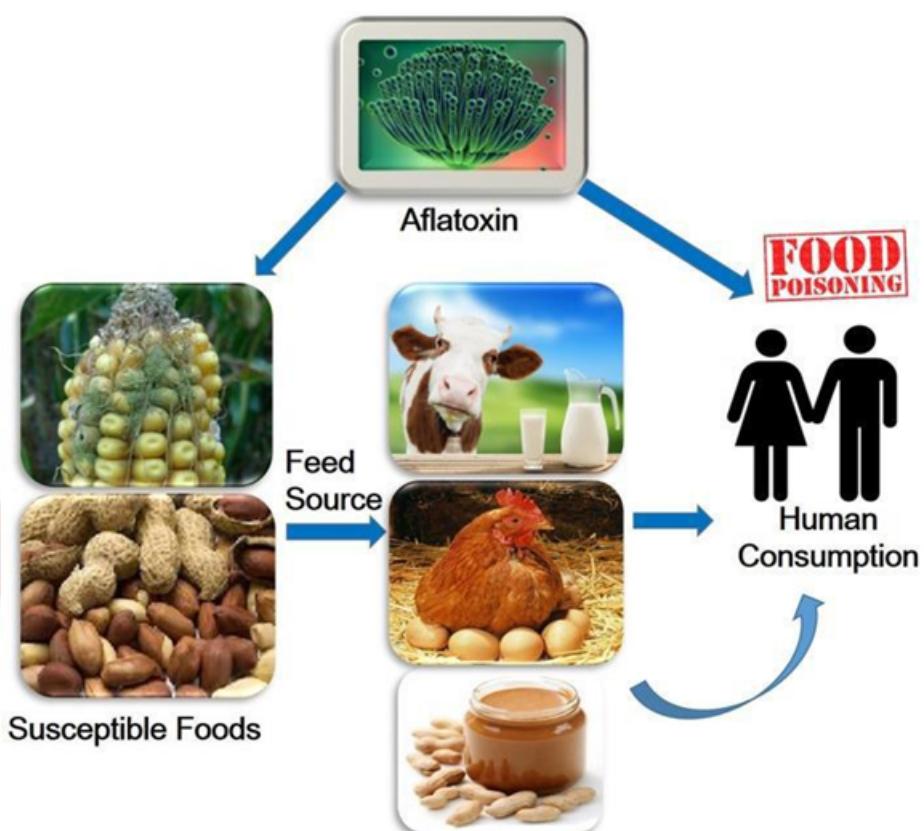
process, include cytochrome P450 enzymes. When AFs epoxied produced in the body it is linked to albumin in the blood serum and adducts are formed [29].

Aflatoxins caused many genetic abnormalities including gene mutations, exchange chromatids, micronucleus formation [30]. From the biological markers during the past ten to fifteen years there are lots people exposed to high levels of AFs [31].

**Animals:** The toxic effects of aflatoxin are similar in all animals and are summarized as appetite loss, weight loss, disease in general, bleeding of the digestive system, lung problems, liver damage, liver clotting and hemorrhage. Aflatoxins also cause death of animals within hours, days or long periods depending on the degree of contamination and exposure to aflatoxins even from animal milk that effect on the growth small animals [32].

AFB1 is a toxic compound, mutagenic, carcinogenic and teratogenic in experimental animals [33] and can inhibit the nucleic acid and protein synthesis in animals [34].

Unhealthy chickens and poor feed intake, low growth rate, decrease egg production, and increased mortality rate and anorexia known as aflatoxicosis were noted due to AFs [35]. The human and animal exposure to aflatoxin from contaminated grains, food and feed is presented in Figure 2.



**Figure 2.** Showing to the source of Afs, animals and human exposure [36].

#### Fumonisin B1 (FB1)

**Source:** Fumonisin B1 elaborating by fungi are *Fusarium verticillioides* (moniliforme) and *F. proliferatum* [37], which possess a morphology shape as shown in Figure 3.



**Figure 3.** The morphology of *Fusarium* sp.

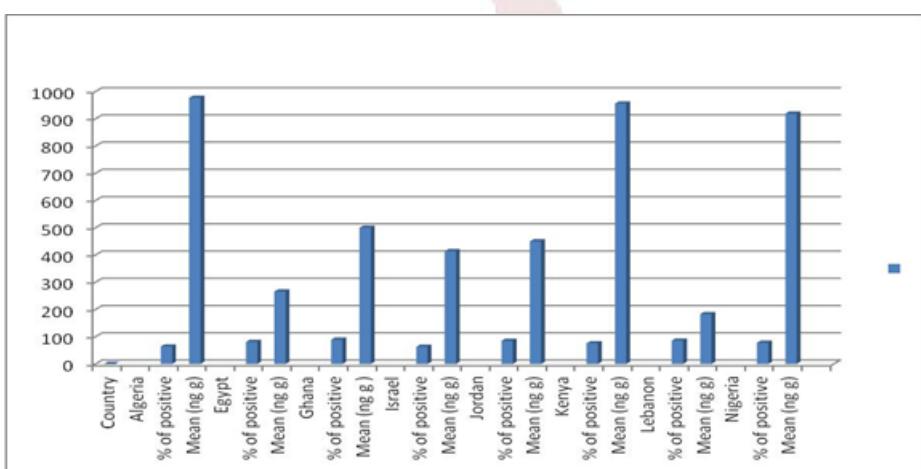
**Occurrence:** FB1 is commonly found in corn grains and other agricultural commodities [38]. Also, FB1 was detected in rice grains, sorghum, wheat bran, poultry feed and soybean meal [39].

Table 2 and Figure 4 showing the fumonisin contamination levels in 324 grain, feed and other feed commodity samples that directly sourced from animal farms or animal feed production from the Middle East and some African countries during February and October 2009, and the results indicated that the most incidence

aflatoxin contamination is Ghana, Lebanon, Jordan, Egypt, Nigeria, Kenya, Algeria and Israel, respectively [18].

**Table 2.** Fumonisins contamination levels in samples from Middle East and some African countries [18].

Country	Fumonisins
Algeria	
% of positive	64
Mean (ng g)	977
Egypt	
% of positive	81
Mean (ng g)	266
Ghana	
% of positive	89
Mean (ng g)	500
Israel	
% of positive	63
Mean (ng g)	414
Jordan	
% of positive	85
Mean (ng g)	450
Kenya	
% of positive	76
Mean (ng g)	956
Lebanon	
% of positive	86
Mean (ng g)	183
Nigeria	
% of positive	78
Mean (ng g)	919

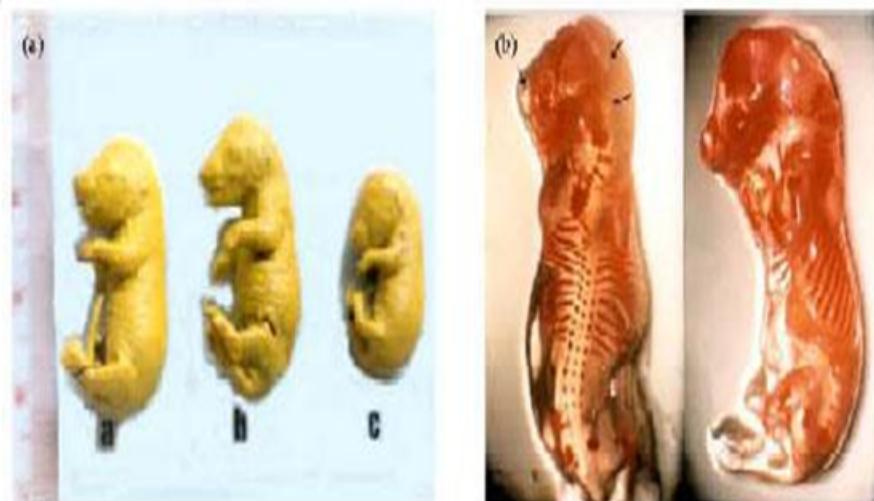


**Figure 4.** Fumonisins contamination levels in samples from Middle East and some African countries [18].

**Health hazards: Human:** FB1 possesses a clear structure like sphingolipids of cell tissues, leading to disturb of sphingolipids metabolism through inhibiting the enzyme ceramide synthase and therefore, accumulation of sphinganine in tissues and cells [38].

Epidemiologic studies in various countries of the world showed the correlation between human esophageal cancer incidence and the occurrence of *F. verticillioides*. Thus, esophageal cancer incidence has been associated with a poor socioeconomic status and less varied diets, consisting mainly of wheat or corn [40].

Comparative studies achieved in some areas in South Africa and China showed that higher levels of *F. verticillioides*, as well as concentrations of FB1 and FB2, occur in corn grains in the areas with high esophageal cancer incidence in comparison with corn grains in low risk areas [41]. Moreover, a high corn intake seems to be at a higher risk of developing esophageal cancer than those with a low corn intake. Similar ways were noted in the United States, Iran, Italy, Kenya, Zimbabwe, and Brazil with a high incidence of esophageal cancer [40].



**Figure 5.** Rats fetuses exposed to FB [46].

Exposure of rat fetuses to FB caused several fetal growth defects as in the Figure 5a and skeletal malformation as shown Figure 5b.

Studies indicate its toxicity in animals as it is a carcinogen in different animals and causes liver poisoning, liver cancer and kidney poisoning, problems in the immune system, causes pulmonary complications in pigs, leukemia, and causes fatty acid abnormalities. It has also been found to have negative effects on mice, rabbits and chickens [47].

**Ochratoxin A:** *Source:* Ochratoxin A (OTA) is a mycotoxin produced by several fungal species, including *Aspergillus ochraceus* (Figure 6), *Penicillium verrucosum*, *A. carbonarius* and *A. niger*.

*Occurrence:* Exposure to ochratoxin A (OTA) occurs principally in Europe and Canada, where people consumed processed food from barley, wheat and coffee bean. Minor sources include meat, especially pork, from animals fed contaminated grain. OTA has been the subject of an environmental health criteria document [49] and JECFA evaluations [50, 51].

**Health hazards: Human:** The target organ for OTA is kidney since it causes nephrotoxicity, renal tumors and adverse health effects [52]. OTA is a widely-spread all over the world, causing major health risks. The mode of action of OTA is not clearly

In 1990-1991, outbreak of neural tube defects (NTD) in the brain and spinal cord resulting from failure of the NT occurred in the Texas Mexico border might have been due to the high levels of FB1 occurred in corn grains [42], the same NTD detected in certain areas in China and South Africa, due to high maize consumption [43].

The reactive oxygen species (ROS) caused by FB1 was studied in human and rat cell line and mouse hypothalamic cells and noted from the results an increase of ROS production due to exposure to 10-100  $\mu$ M FB1 for 48-144 h [44]. The effect of FB1 on cell viability have been studied and cytotoxic effects have been observed [45].

*Animals:* FB is known as a toxic and has a carcinogenic effect in different animals in cells through induction of oxidative stress [45].

understood yet and seems to be very complex. Inhibition of protein synthesis and energy production, induction of oxidative stress, DNA adduct formation, as well as apoptosis/necrosis and cell cycle arrest are possibly involved in its toxic action. Since OTA binds very strongly to human and animal albumin, a major emphasis is done regarding OTA-albumin interaction [53].

*Animals:* The toxic effects include cardiac and hepatic lesions in rats, lesions of the GIT and lymphoid tissues in hamsters and kidney lesions in chickens. Pigs appeared to be the most sensitive species to the nephrotoxic effects. Degeneration alteration in the proximal kidney tubules is the most common effects shown in animal species [50].

### Trichothecene (TC)

*Source:* The main fungal genera that produce TC are *Fusarium*, *Myrothecium*, *Spicellum*, *Stachybotrys*, *Cephalosporium*, *Trichoderm* and *Trichothecium* [54].

*Occurrence:* Trichothecene toxicosis on human was reported due to ingestion of moldy rice contaminated with it in China [55], in processed foods such as wafers, biscuits, and rusks in Italy [56] and at high level in Poland [57] as well as in maize grains in Pakistan [58].

**Health hazards: Human:** All trichothecenes contain epoxide at the C12, C13, which is responsible for their toxicological effects [59]. Wang. et al. [55] reported that 65% of patients developed food poisoning symptoms such as dizziness, vomiting, abdominal pain, nausea, abdominal distension, and diarrhea.

TC targets the ribosomal subunit, suggesting that the major mechanism of toxicity is translational inhibition. TC has multiple effects on eukaryotic cells, the most effect is inhibition of protein, RNA and DNA synthesis [60]. Moreover, alteration of membrane structure and mitochondrial function, stimulation of lipid peroxidation, induction of apoptosis, activation of cytokines and chemokines, activation of mitogen activated protein kinases-alteration at neurotransmitter levels [61]. TC is known to cause immune suppression, neurotoxicity and renal toxicity. Several studies have shown that TC can cause adverse effects in humans

consuming grain-based foods and in animals ingesting contaminated grain, including in chronic low-level exposure like neuroendocrine changes, immune suppression, gastroenteritis emesis, nausea, anorexia, growth retardation, and gastrointestinal toxicity [62].

**Animals:** The toxic effects of TC in animals like swines, dairy cattle and rats including decrease of plasma glucose, reduce of blood cell, loss of weight and alteration in histology picture for both liver and stomach [2].

Using an animal experiment, TC did induce necrotic lesions in the GIT [63]. Also, a shortening of villi height was detected due to TC treated animals. The changes on villi were due to activation of the apoptotic pathway by TC, which in turn leads to nutritional malabsorption [64].



**Figure 6.** Colony surface of *Asp. ochraceus* [48].

### Zearalenone (ZEA)

**Source:** Zearalenone is a mycotoxin that mainly produced by *Fusarium culmorum* and *Fusarium graminearum* [65].

**Occurrence:** ZEA has been linked to scabby grain toxicosis found in the USA, China, Japan and Australia [66]. Zearalenone occurred in different commodities such as wheat grains, barley, maize, corn silage, sorghum, rice, and sometime in the feed.

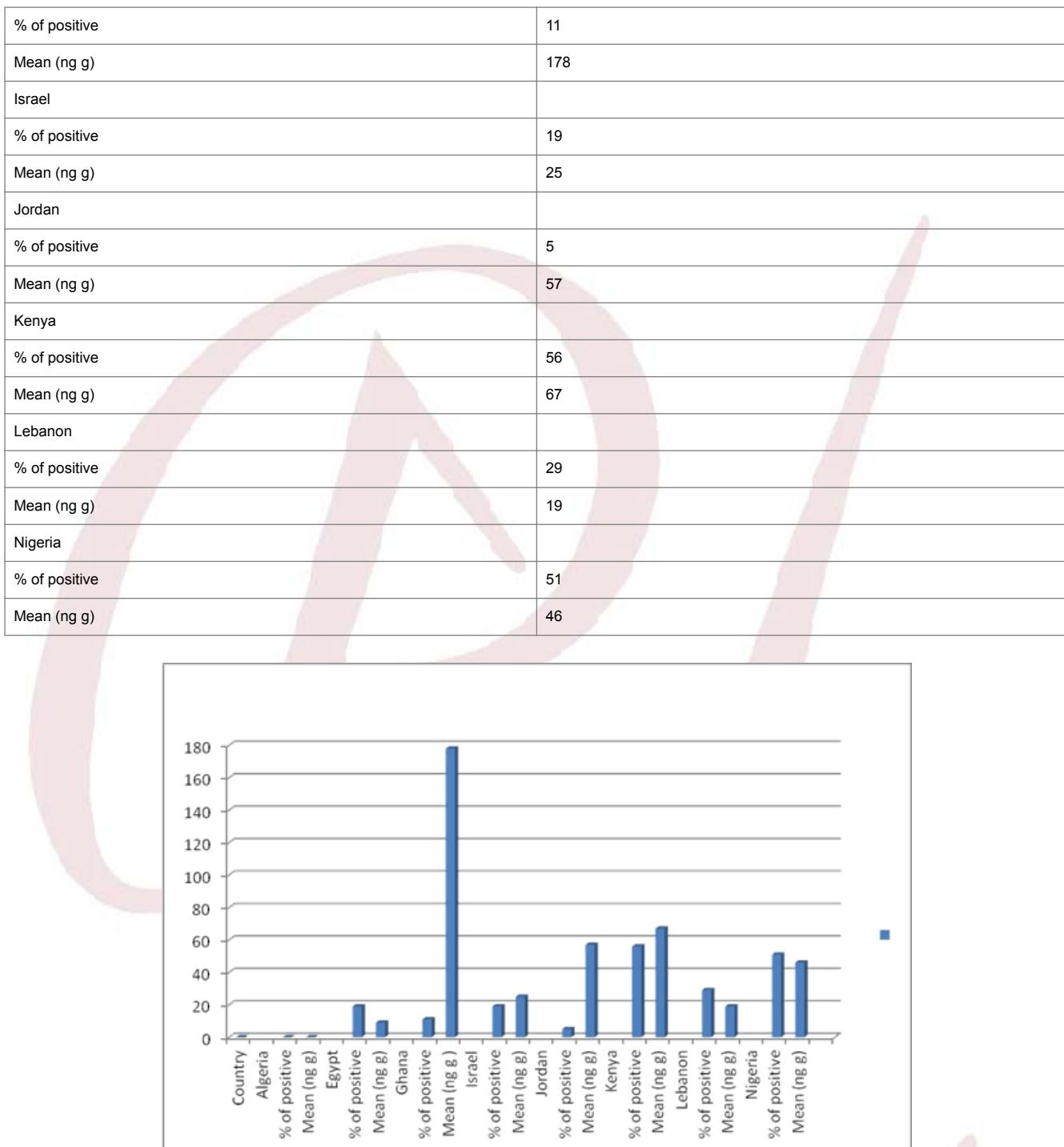
Table 3 and Figure 7 showing zearalenone contamination levels in 324 grain, feed and other feed commodity samples that directly

sourced from animal farms or animal feed production from the Middle East and some African countries during February and October 2009.

**Health hazards: Human:** Toxicological studies reported its effects on the reproductive system, such as alteration of reproductive tract, decrease of fertility and abnormal level of progesterone. Also, the ingestion of ZEA during pregnancy reduced fetal weight and survival rate of embryo [67].

**Table 3.** Zearalenone contamination levels in samples from Middle East and some African countries [18].

Country	Zearalenone
Algeria	
% of positive	0
Mean (ng g)	-
Egypt	
% of positive	19
Mean (ng g)	9
Ghana	



**Figure 7.** Zearalenone contamination levels in samples from Middle East and some African countries [18].

This phenomenon could explain through the structure of ZEA which allows it to bind to the mammalian estrogen receptor, although with lower affinity compared to the naturally-occurring estrogens [68]. Also, ZEA has been shown to be hepatotoxic, haematotoxic, immunotoxic and genotoxic [69].

The main target organ of ZEA is the reproductive organ; but the adverse effects of ZEA on GIT have been noted. Studies using intestinal epithelial cells showed that ZEA induced cell death without altering the cell integrity as indicated by transepithelial electrical resistance [70].

**Animals:** Several *in vitro* studies reported that exposure to ZEA leading to decrease of feed intake, refuse of feed, malnutrition in animals, diminished body weight gain and increase incidence of disease [71].

Zeralenone is particularly toxic to the reproductive system, induce uterine enlargement, alteration of the reproductive tract, decrease fertility, as well as a change of the progesterone levels in laboratory animals [72].

## Patulin

**Source:** Patulin is a secondary metabolite of certain *Penicillium*, *Aspergillus*, and *Byssochlamys* sp., but more specifically, *P. expansum* fungus mainly responsible for production of Patulin [73].

**Occurrence:** Patulin can contaminate fruits and vegetables, but specifically contaminated apples and its juice are considered the main source of patulin toxin. However, patulin was firstly proposed as a drug due to its antibiotic properties [74].

**Health hazards: Human:** Patulin is classified as a group C or as not carcinogenic for human [75]. PAT has been related to DNA damage in human cell line and has apoptotic activity [76], also PAT induced DNA strand breaks, micronuclei formation in mammalian cells and chromosome aberrations [77]. It also causes carcinogenicity, mutagenicity, developmental and reproductive toxicity and immunotoxicity [74].

**Animals:** Most sensitive effectual signs of patulin at high doses (>16 mg/kg bw/d) in experimental animals include toxicity of GIT and lung. In the only available 2 y toxicity study, the most sensitive toxic effect of patulin was a decrease body weight in male rats at oral doses above 0.1 mg/kg bw. Patulin at oral dose of 1.5 mg/kg bw/d caused an increase the mortality in both sexes of experimental animals [78].

## Modified Mycotoxins

Modified mycotoxins are secondary metabolites normally found in the substrate, but undetectable when parent mycotoxin analysis and the modified form can generate by fungi or by infected plants or during food processing and therefore the chemical structure of toxins might change and called masked mycotoxin. The new form of mycotoxins can be even more toxic than the parent mycotoxin [79]. The change in chemical structure of mycotoxins due to modification process demand to advance in the development of extraction techniques, detection and production of reference materials [80]. Mycotoxins react with food components through the covalent bond, it is conjugated mycotoxin, while, when bind with food components through noncovalent bond it is called hidden [81].

Modification processes for mycotoxins carried out through many ways are chemical process or biological (animals, plants, microorganisms) [80].

## Modified mycotoxins by plants

Plants when infected with mycotoxins producing fungi can alter the chemical structure of mycotoxin due to their defense mechanism, mycotoxin can modify through conjugate with organic molecules or by hydrolysis, (reduction and oxidation reaction). The derivatives may incorporate into the cell wall components [82].

## Modified mycotoxins by microorganisms

Some strains of bacteria, yeast, and fungi can alter the mycotoxin structure as a defense mechanism through the enzymatic activity, or by the adducts which strongly reported in fermented products like beer and wine through the microorganisms used in the fermentation process [82,83].

## Modified mycotoxins by yeast

*Trichomonascus* clade species showed to have the ability to biotransform T2 into T2 toxin- $\alpha$ -glucoside (by glycosylation); into 3-acetyl T-2 toxin (through acetylation action of acetyltransferases). The defense mechanism of microorganisms acts on a C-3 hydroxyl group of the parent mycotoxin, reducing its toxicity [84]. ZEN mycotoxin has been converted to  $\alpha$ -ZEL,  $\beta$ -ZEL, ZEN-14G and ZEN-16G by a strain of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* [85]. *Clonostachys rosea* is also able to detoxify ZEN by the action of enzyme lactonohydrolase.

## Modified mycotoxins by fungi

Some fungal sp. don't produce mycotoxin but can modify the parent mycotoxin leading to conjugate glucosides and sulfates like the formation of ZEN glucoside by *Rhizopus* and *Thamnidium* spp [86]. The new conjugate can be reconverted to ZEN by the enzymatic action (sulfatases) or chemical hydrolysis, and therefore the food processing, digestive process in human and animals can lead to the release of a ZEN molecule [87].

## Effect of food processing on mycotoxins

Mycotoxins considered heat stable when exposed to heat or during food processing, but partially may remove or alter through physical treatments like peeling and milling, or by chemical treatment such as alkali and acid, also by biological process such as fermentation [88].

## Future Strategies

### Control of mycotoxins

The number of strategies to control and prevention of mycotoxins has been considered in various regions in the world including African countries.

The use of innovative processing techniques to control of mycotoxins (such as roasting using infrared, cold atmospheric pressure plasma, non-ionizing radiations, and neutral electrolyzed water) will greatly improve the safety of different food/feed [89].

Pre and post-harvest process strategies are very important to manage the toxicogenic fungi in food commodities. Detoxification of mycotoxin using natural agents can suppress or reduce the absorption and promote excretion or modify the mode of action. The feed additives transform mycotoxins into less toxic metabolites either by reducing their bioavailability or by degrading them. Therefore, it can define at least two main categories; including first various mycotoxin adsorbing agents and second biotransforming agents lead to degradation of mycotoxins into non-toxic metabolites. Also, advanced detection techniques are helping in ultra-trace amount of mycotoxin in food products such as; bio-sensors (1) electrochemical biosensors, 2) optical biosensors 3) electronic biosensors, 4) piezoelectric biosensors, 5) gravimetric biosensors, 6) pyroelectric biosensors [90].

## Integrated mycotoxin management programmes

Strategies to ensure the food safety and avoid the economic losses include both preharvest and post-harvest process to decrease the hazard of mycotoxin risk in food and feed.

Preharvest process includes good agriculture practices, biocontrol and advancement of resistant varieties of the crops via new biotechnologies. Application of the good manufacture practices in

all stages of food production. Application of hazard analysis critical control point (HACCP) system in all stages of food processing from the farm to the consumer.

Postharvest process such as good storage, detection and detoxification and continuous monitoring of potential contamination during processing and handling of food and feed. Selected feature of an integrated mycotoxin control program should involve different phases such as the ones outlined below:

**Preharvest procedure:** The mycotoxin producing fungi can contaminate the food crops in the field, some strategies for control in the field are

1-Reduction of plant stress through irrigation, mineral nutrition and avoid the insect damage.

2-Avoid the unsuitable infection in the field eg. delay of harvesting etc. environmental condition that encourages the drought, insect infestation, primary inoculum.

**Potentially effective:** 1-Application the good agricultural practices through applying the crop rotation, irrigation, timely planting and harvesting and use the biopesticides that reduce the mycotoxin contamination in the field crops.

2- Development of breeding resistant cultivars to fungal growth.

3-Use of antifungal chemical agent that protect against fungal growth and mycotoxin contamination.

4-Identification of plant constituents that suppress mycotoxin biosynthesis of fungal growth to use in new biocontrol-based breeding strategies to improve resistance in crops.

**Developmental:** 1-Development of resistant plant to fungal infection.

2-Development of transgenic cultivars capable of catabolism/ interference with toxin production.

3-Improve the genetically modified crops to resist insect damage.

4-Improve of crop grains containing endophytic microorganisms that exclude toxigenic fungi.

5-Supress of toxigenic fungi using pre-infection with bio competitive non toxigenic fungal strains.

6-The genome sequence of *A. flavus* has been known to help to understand the regulation of aflatoxin production by environmental factors and the obtained information can be used in improving the host resistance against aflatoxin contamination by studying the effects of various physiological parameters eg. drought stress on gene expression in toxigenic fungi.

**Harvesting procedure:** 1-Avoid the mechanical damage of the grains to incur during the harvesting and storage process.

2-The field crops must be harvested at the suitable time to decrease the moisture content and water activity to avoid the mycotoxin producing fungi.

**Post-harvest procedure strategies:** 1-Sorting the grains and remove the damaged and drying to minimal moisture content to avoid the fungal growth.

2-Monitoring of insect and rodent activity and maintenance of appropriate moisture content and temperature.

3. Select the appropriate packaging is often a successful way of excluding insects and fungi.

4. Cleaning of food/feed delivery systems and short-term storage.

5-Use of antifungal activity agents like propionic and acetic acid.

6-Use of thermal inactivation that normally used in some food processing since the FBs and OTA have been shown to be lower in thermally processed corn and wheat products [91].

## Conclusion

Mycotoxins are a global problem that poses a great hazard to human and animal health. It also causes great economic losses in agricultural crops, food and feed. Therefore, the solutions should be developed to avoid these toxins. These solutions are in the pre-harvest process such as harvesting on suitable time and drying crops to be unavailable to fungi growth, the other solution is post-harvest such as good handling and good storage of crops and raise awareness of citizens the hazard of these toxins as well as applying the good manufacture practices in food processing.

## Future Trends

- Adapting to the climatic changes, which is a major cause of fungal growth and the emergence of more toxic fungal strains, unlike the past, through reducing the thermal emissions and factories exhausts that effect on the climate in general.
- Application of non-conventional solutions to control these toxins through the use of good manufacturing practices, either after harvesting the crops or during food processing and trying to apply the Hazard Analysis Critical Control Point (HACCP) system in all stages of food processing.
- Continue to conduct surveys to determine the proportions and presence of these toxins in food commodities.
- Working on the development of cultivars resistant to fungi growth and thus avoid their toxicity.
- Development of detection technique to determine the derivatives of mycotoxins in food and feed.
- An attempt to analysis of toxins in human blood within the routine analyses performed in human medical examinations.
- Conduct an awareness program for citizens on the hazard of these toxins and how to avoid them in the daily food using simple ways through the media readable, audio and visual or by holding training courses for citizens in different regions.

## References

1. Wu QH, Wang X, Yang W, Nüssler AK, Xiong LY, et al. (2014) Oxidative stress-mediated cytotoxicity and metabolism of T-2 toxin and deoxynivalenol in animals and humans: an update. *Arch Toxicol* 88: 1309-1326.
2. Adhikari M, Negi B, Kaushik N, Adhikari A, Al-Khedhairy AA, et al. (2017) T-2 mycotoxin: toxicological effects and decontamination strategies. *Oncotarget* 8: 33933-33952.
3. Assi M (2017) The differential role of reactive oxygen species in early and late stages of cancer. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol* 313: 646-653.
4. Binder EM, Tan LM, Chin LJ, Handl J, Richard J (2007) Worldwide occurrence of mycotoxins in commodities, feeds and feed ingredients. *Anim Feed Sci Technol* 137: 265-282.
5. Herzallah SM (2009) Determination of aflatoxins in eggs, milk, meat and meat products using HPLC fluorescent and UV detectors. *Food Chem* 114: 1141-1146.
6. Reddy KR, Reddy CS, Muralidharan K (2009) Detection of *Aspergillus* spp. and aflatoxin B1 in rice in India. *Food Microbiol* 26: 27-31.
7. Hussain AM, Timothy AG, Olufunmilayo HA, Ezekiel AS, Godwin HO (2007) Fungi and some mycotoxins contaminating rice (*Oryza sativa*) in Niger state, Nigeria. *Afr J Biotechnol* 6: 99-108.
8. Trung TS, Tabuc C, Baily S, Querin A, Guerre P, et al. (2008) Fungal mycoflora and contamination of maize from Vietnam with aflatoxin B1 and fumonisin B1. *World Mycotoxin J* 1: 87-94.

9. Alborch L, Bragulat MR, Castella G, Abarca ML, Cabanes FJ (2012) Mycobiota and mycotoxin contamination of maize flours and popcorn kernels for human consumption commercialized in Spain. *Food Microbiol* 32: 97-103.
10. Mushtaq M, Sultana B, Anwar F, Khan MZ, Ashrafuzzaman M (2012) Occurrence of aflatoxins in selected, processed foods from Pakistan. *Int J Mol Sci* 13: 8324-8337.
11. Rizzo I, Vedoya G, Maurutto S, Haidukowski M, Varsavsky E (2004) Assessment of toxicogenic fungi on Argentinean medicinal herbs. *Microbiol Res* 159: 113-120.
12. Trucksess MW, Weaver CM, Oles CJ, Ovidio K, Rader JI (2006) Determination of aflatoxins and ochratoxin A in ginseng and other botanical roots by immunoaffinity column clean-up and liquid chromatography with fluorescence detection. *J AOAC Int* 89: 624-630.
13. Sewram V, Shephard GS, Merwe LV, Jacobs TV (2006) Mycotoxin contamination of dietary and medicinal wild plants in the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa. *J Agric Food Chem* 54: 5688-5693.
14. Bugno A, Almodovar AA, Pereira TC, Pinto TJ, Sabino M (2006) Occurrence of toxicogenic fungi in herbal drugs. *Braz J Microbiol* 37: 47-51.
15. Bokhari FM (2007) Spices mycobiota and mycotoxins available in Saudi Arabia and their abilities to inhibit growth of some toxicogenic fungi. *Mycobiology* 35: 47-53.
16. Cho SH, Lee CH, Jang MR, Son YW, Lee SM, et al. (2008) Aflatoxin contamination in spices and processed spice products commercialized in Korea. *Food Chem* 107: 1283-1288.
17. Santos L, Marin S, Sanchis V, Ramos AJ (2009) Screening of mycotoxin multicontamination in medicinal and aromatic herbs sampled in Spain. *J Sci Food Agric* 89: 1802-1807.
18. Rodrigues I, Handl J, Binder EM (2011) Mycotoxin occurrence in commodities, feeds and feed ingredients sourced in the Middle East and Africa. *Food Addit Contam Part B* 4: 168-179.
19. Reiter E, Zentek J, Razzazi E (2009) Review on sample preparation strategies and methods used for the analysis of aflatoxins in food and feed. *Mol Nutr Food Res* 53: 508-524.
20. Iqbal SZ, Mustafa HG, Asi MR, Jinap S (2014) Variation in vitamin E level and aflatoxins contamination in different rice varieties. *J Cereal Sci* 60: 352-355.
21. Aniket L, Roch-Chui Y, Cheng-Chun C, Je-Ruei L, Kuan-Chen C (2018) Protective and detoxifying effects conferred by dietary selenium and curcumin against AFB1-mediated toxicity in livestock: a review. *Toxins* 10: 25.
22. Farhud DD, Yazdanpanah L (2008) Glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase (G-6-D) deficiency. *Iranian J Publ Health* 37: 1-18.
23. Sun Z, Lu P, Gail MH, Pee D, Zhang Q, et al. (1999) Increased risk of hepatocellular carcinoma in male hepatitis B surface antigen carriers with chronic hepatitis who have detectable urinary aflatoxin metabolite M1. *Hepatol* 30: 379-383.
24. Abdel-Wahhab MA, Aly SE (2003) Antioxidants and radical scavenging properties of vegetable extracts in rats fed aflatoxin-contaminated diet. *J Agric Food Chem* 51: 2409-2414.
25. Shank RC, Bourgeois CH, Kescharnas N, Chandavimol P (1971) Aflatoxins in autopsy specimens from Thai children. *Food Cosmet Toxicol* 9: 501.
26. Wogan GN, Newberne PM (1968) Dose response characteristics of aflatoxin B1 carcinogenesis in the rat. *Cancer Res* 23:27: 2370.
27. Liu Y, Felicia W (2010) Global burden of aflatoxin-induced hepatocellular carcinoma: a risk assessment. *Environ Health Perspect* 118: 6.
28. Leslie LW, Egner PA, Crystal L, Wattanawaraporn R, Trudel LJ, et al. (2011) Aflatoxin B1-DNA adduct formation and mutagenicity in livers of neonatal male and female B6C3F1 mice. *Toxicol Sci* 122: 38-44.
29. Chi WJ, Doong SI, Lin-Shiau SY, Boone CW, Kelloff GJ, et al. (1998) Oltipraz, a novel inhibitor of hepatitis B virus transcription through elevation of p5 protein. *Carcinogenesis* 19: 2133-2138.
30. I.A.R.C. (2002) Aflatoxins. In *Traditional Herbal Medicines, Some Mycotoxins, Naphthalene and Styrene*. IARC Monographs on the Evaluation of Carcinogenic Risks to Humans, Lyon, France: International Agency for Research on Cancer 82: 171-366.
31. Groopman DJ, Kensler TW (2008) Protective interventions to prevent aflatoxin induced carcinogenesis in developing countries. *Annu Rev Public Health* 29: 187-203.
32. Denli M, Perez JF (2006) Contaminación por Micotoxinas en los piensos: Efectos, tratamiento y prevención. XXII Curso de ESpecialización FEDNA 1-18.
33. Abdel-Wahhab MA, Hassan NS, El-Kady AA, Khadrawy YA, El-Nekeety AA, et al. (2010) Red ginseng extract protects against aflatoxin B1 and fumonisins-induced hepatic pre-cancerous lesions in rats. *Food Chem Toxicol* 48: 733-742.
34. Sumit R, Kim JE, Coulombe JR (2010) Aflatoxin B1 in poultry: toxicology, metabolism and prevention. *Res Vet Sci* 89: 325-331.
35. Bryden WL (2012) Mycotoxin contamination of the feed supply chain: Implication for animal productivity and feed security. *Anim Feed Sci Technol* 173: 134-158.
36. Kumar P, Mahato DK, Kamle M, Mohanta TK, Kang SG (2017) Aflatoxins: a global concern for food safety, human health and their management. *Front Microbiol* 7: 2170.
37. John MC, Margaret J, Stalker, Kennedy, Palmer (2016) Liver and biliary system. *Pathol Domestic Animals* 2: (6th Edn.).
38. Marasas WFO (2001) Discovery and occurrence of fumonisins: a historical perspective. *Environ Health Perspect* 109: 239-243.
39. Beg MU, Al-Mutairi M, Beg KR, Al-Mazeedi HM, Ali LN, et al. (2006) Mycotoxins in poultry feed in Kuwait. *Arch Environ Contam Toxicol* 50: 594-602.
40. WHO (2001) Safety evaluation of certain mycotoxins in food (WHO food additives series 47). International program on chemical safety. Geneva: World Health Organization 103-279.
41. Chu FS, Li GY (1994) Simultaneous occurrence of fumonisin B1 and other mycotoxins in moldy corn collected from the Peoples Republic of China in regions with high incidences of esophageal cancer. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 60: 847-852.
42. Missmer SA, Suarez L, Felkner M, Wang E, Merrill JR, et al. (2006) Exposure to fumonisins and the occurrence of neural tube defects along the Texas-Mexico border. *Environ Health Perspect* 114: 237-241.
43. Moore CA, Li S, Li Z, Hong S, Gu H, et al. (1997) Elevated rates of severe neural tube defects in a high-prevalence area in northern China. *Am J Med Genet* 73: 113-118.
44. Stockmann-Juvala H, Mikkola J, Naarala J, Loikkanen J, Elovaara E, Savolainen K (2004) Oxidative stress induced by fumonisin B1 in continuous human and rodent neural cell cultures. *Free Radic Res* 38: 933- 942.
45. Hassan AM, Mohamad SR, El-Nekeety A, Hassan NS, Abdel-Wahhab MA (2010) *Aquilegia vulgaris* L. extract counteracts oxidative stress and cytotoxicity of fumonisin in rats. *Toxicol* 56: 8-18.
46. Abdel-Wahhab MA, Hassan AM, Amer HA, Naguib KM (2004) Prevention of fumonisin-induced maternal and developmental toxicity in rats by certain plant extracts. *J Applied Toxicol* 24: 469-474.
47. Maja S, Stjepan P (2001) Fumonisins and their effects on animal health-a brief review. *Veterinarski ARHIV* 71: 299-323.
48. Pratiksha P, Prakash P, Tika BK (2014). Isolation of *Aspergillus ochraceus* and production of ochratoxin in coffee samples. *Nepal J Sci Technol* 15: 133-138.
49. WHO (1990) Environmental health criteria: selected mycotoxins: ochratoxins, trichothecenes, Ergot. Geneva: United Nations Environment Program, International Labor Organization, World Health Organization 105.
50. WHO (2008) Safety evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants: prepared by the Sixty-eighth meeting of the joint FAO/WHO expert committee on food additives (JECFA). Geneva: World Health Organization, Food Additives Series 59.
51. Taradol Sirithitkul P, Sirisomboon P, Sirisomboon C (2017) Qualitative and quantitative analysis of ochratoxin A contamination in green coffee beans using Fourier transform near infrared spectroscopy. *J Sci Food Agric* 97: 1260-1266.
52. Travis RB, Felicia W (2016) Ochratoxin A and human health risk: a review of the evidence. *Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr* 55: 1860-1869.
53. Tamas K, Miklos P (2016) Ochratoxin A: molecular interactions, mechanisms of toxicity and prevention at the molecular level. *Review Toxins* 8: 111.
54. Shentu XP, Liu WP, Zhan XH, Xu YP, Xu JF (2014) Transcriptome sequencing and gene expression analysis of *Trichoderma brevicompactum* under different culture conditions. *PLoS One* 9.
55. Wang J, Fitzpatrick D, Wilson J (1993) Effect of dietary T-2 toxin on biogenic monoamines in discrete areas of the rat brain. *Food Chem Toxicol* 31: 191-197.
56. Lattanzio VM, Solfrizzo M, Visconti A (2008) Determination of trichothecenes in cereals and cereal-based products by liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry. *Food Addit Contam Part A Chem Anal Control Expo Risk Assess* 25: 320-330.
57. Aniolowska M, Steininger M (2014) Determination of trichothecenes and zearalenone in different corn (*Zea mays*) cultivars for human consumption in Poland. *J Food Compos Anal* 33.
58. Khatoon S, Hanif NQ, Tahira I, Sultana N, Sultana K, et al. (2012) Natural occurrence of aflatoxins, zearalenone and trichothecenes in maize grown in Pakistan. *Pak J Bot* 44: 231-236.
59. Nathanail AV, Varga E, Meng-Reiterer J, Bueschl C, Michlmayr H, et al. (2015) Metabolism of the fusarium mycotoxins T-2 toxin and HT-2 toxin in wheat. *J Agric Food Chem* 63: 7862-7872.
60. Yazar S, Omurtag, GZ (2008). Fumonisins, trichothecenes and zearalenone in cereals. *Int J Mol Sci* 9: 2062-2090.
61. Escrivá L, Font G, Manyes L (2015) In vivo toxicity studies of fusarium mycotoxins in the last decade: a review. *Food Chem Toxicol* 78: 185-206.

62. Marin S, Ramos AJ, Cano-Sancho G, Sanchis V (2013). Mycotoxins: occurrence, toxicology, and exposure assessment. *Food Chem Toxicol* 60: 218-237.

63. Kolf CM, Sassa M, Lucioli J, Rubira-Gerez J, Alassane-Kpembi I, et al. (2013) The emerging mycotoxin, enniatin B1, down-modulates the gastrointestinal toxicity of T-2 toxin in vitro on intestinal epithelial cells and ex vivo on intestinal explants. *Arch Toxicol* 87: 2233-2241.

64. Alizadeh A, Braber S, Akbari P, Garssen J, Fink-Gremmels J (2015) Deoxynivalenol impairs weight gain and affects markers of gut health after low-dose, short-term exposure of growing pigs. *Toxins* 7: 2071-2095.

65. Ramesh CG (2007) Veterinary toxicology. Basic and Clinical Principles. Chapter 15. Placental Toxicity 245-262.

66. Liao CD, Chiueh LC, Shih DYC (2009) Determination of zearalenone in cereals by high-performance liquid chromatography and liquid chromatography-electrospray tandem mass spectrometry. *J Food Drug Anal* 17: 52-58.

67. Zhang Y, Jia Z, Yin S, Shan A, Gao R, et al. (2014) Toxic effects of maternal zearalenone exposure on uterine capacity and fetal development in gestation rats. *Reprod Sci* 21: 743-753.

68. Hueza IM, Raspantini PCF, Raspantini LER, Latorre AO, Górnjak SL (2014) Zearalenone, an estrogenic mycotoxin, is an immunotoxic compound. *Toxins* 6: 1080-1095.

69. Zhou H, George S, Hay C, Lee J, Qian H, et al. (2017) Individual and combined effects of aflatoxin B1, deoxynivalenol and zearalenone on HepG2 and RAW 264.7 cell lines. *Food Chem Toxicol* 103: 18-27.

70. Marin DE, Motiu M, Tararu I (2015) Food contaminant zearalenone and its metabolites affect cytokine synthesis and intestinal epithelial integrity of porcine cells. *Toxins* 7: 1979-1988.

71. Morgavi DP, Riley RT (2007) Fusarium and their toxins: mycology, occurrence, toxicity, control and economic impact. *Anim Feed Sci Technol* 137: 299-325.

72. Koraichi F, Videmann B, Mazallon M, Benahmed M, Prouillac C, et al. (2012) Zearalenone exposure modulates the expression of ABC transporters and nuclear receptors in pregnant rats and fetal liver. *Toxicol Lett* 211: 246-256.

73. Saladino F, Manyes L, Luciano FB, Manes J, Fernandez-Franzon M (2016) Bioactive compounds from mustard flours for the control of patulin production in wheat tortillas. *LWT Food Sci Technol* 66: 101-107.

74. Puel O, Galtier P, Oswald I (2010) Biosynthesis and toxicological effects of patulin. *Toxin* 2: 613-631.

75. I.A.R.C (1987) Aflatoxins. In Overall Evaluations of Carcinogenicity. IARC Monographs on the Evaluation of Carcinogenic Risk of Chemicals to Humans 7: 83-87.

76. Ferrer E, Juan-Garcia A, Font G, Ruiz MJ (2009) Reactive oxygen species induced by beauvericin, patulin and zearalenone in CHO-K1 cells. *Toxicol Vitro* 23: 1504-1509.

77. Alves I, Oliveira NG, Laires A, Rodrigues AS, Rueff J (2000) Induction of micronuclei and chromosomal aberrations by the mycotoxin patulin in mammalian cells: role of ascorbic acid as a modulator of patulin clastogenicity. *Mutagenesis* 15: 229-234.

78. WHO (1996) Evaluation of certain food additives and contaminants: thirty-seventh report of the joint FAO/WHO expert committee on food additives. Geneva: World Health Organization (WHO Technical Report Series, No. 806). *Environmental Health Criteria* 219.

79. Luisa F, Anderson S (2018) Review modified mycotoxins: an updated review on their formation, detection, occurrence, and toxic effects. *Food Chem Toxicol* 111: 189-205.

80. Rychlik M, Humpf HU, Marko D, Danicke S, Mally A, et al. (2014) Proposal of a comprehensive definition of modified and other forms of mycotoxins including masked mycotoxins. *Mycotoxin Res* 30: 197-205.

81. Berthiller F, Adama G (2015) A versatile family 3 glycoside hydrolase from *Bifidobacterium adolescentis* hydrolyzes  $\beta$ -glucosides of the *Fusarium* mycotoxins deoxynivalenol, nivalenol, and HT-2 toxin in cereal matrices. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 81: 4885-4893.

82. Berthiller F, Crews C, Dall'Asta C, De Saeger S, Haesaert G, et al. (2013) Masked mycotoxins: a review. *Mol Nutr Food Res* 57: 165-186.

83. Brodehl A, Moller A, Kunte H, Koch M, Maul R (2014) Biotransformation of the mycotoxin zearalenone by fungi of the genera *Rhizopus* and *Aspergillus*. *FEMS Microbiol Lett* 359: 124-130.

84. McCormick SP, Price NPJ, Kurtzman CP (2012) Glucosylation and other biotransformations of T-2 toxin by yeasts of the *Trichomomascus* clade. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 78: 8694-8702.

85. Paris MPK, Schweiger W, Hametner C, Stuckler R, Muehlbauer GJ, et al. (2014) Zearalenone-16-O-glucoside: a new masked mycotoxin. *J Agric Food Chem* 62: 1181-1189.

86. Jard G, Liboz T, Mathieu F, Guyonvach A, Andre F, et al. (2010) Transformation of zearalenone to zearalenone-sulfate by *Aspergillus* spp. *World Mycotoxin J* 3: 183-191.

87. Berthiller F, Dall'Asta C, Corradini R, Marchelli R, Sulyok M, et al. (2009) Occurrence of deoxynivalenol and its 3- $\beta$ -D-glucoside in wheat and maize. *Food Addit Contam* 26: 507-511.

88. Suman M, Generotti S (2015) Transformation of mycotoxins upon food processing: masking, binding and degradation phenomena. *Masked Mycotoxins in Food: Formation, Occurrence and Toxicological Relevance*. RSC Publishing, London 73-96.

89. Yousef I, Ting Z (2018) Promising detoxification strategies to mitigate mycotoxins in food and feed. *Toxins* 10: 2-5.

90. Shravan K, Asha S, Shweta M, Mukesh K, Vimla S, et al. (2018) Mycotoxins monitoring device and their management strategies through detoxifying agents in feed. *Int J Curr Microbiol App Sci* 7: 3410-3426.

91. Ajoy KC, Priyanka K (2010) Management of mycotoxin contamination in preharvest and post-harvest crops: present status and future prospects. *J Phytol* 2/7: 37-52.

Ready to submit your research ? Choose RN and benefit from:

- Fast, convenient online submission.
- Thorough peer review by experienced researchers in your field.
- Rapid publication on acceptance.
- Support for research data, including large and complex data types.
- Global attainment for your research.
- At RN, research is always in progress.
- Learn more: [researchnovelty.com/submission.php](http://researchnovelty.com/submission.php)

