



Screening of Aflatoxin and Non-Aflatoxin Producing Strains of *Aspergillus flavus* in Maize

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ABSTRACT

The present study aims to detect aflatoxin and non-aflatoxin producing ability of *A. flavus* isolates which were recovered from district of Punjab Province (Attock, Chakwal, Jhelum and Rawalpindi). The base of aflatoxin production was characterized using Thin Layer Chromatography and were successfully categorized into toxigenic (aflatoxin producing) and atoxigenic (non-aflatoxin producing) strains. Frequency of aflatoxins production of *A. flavus* isolates varied among the four districts of Punjab Province (Attock, Chakwal, Jhelum and Rawalpindi). Out of 212 *A. flavus* isolates, 200 isolates (94.34%) were found positive with aflatoxin B₁ and B₂ and these were classified as aflatoxin producing strains of *A. flavus* while 12 isolates (5.66%) did not show presence of any aflatoxin and these were classified as non-aflatoxin producing strains of *A. flavus*. However, AFG₁ and AFG₂ were not detected in any sample. The percent incidence of B₁ was highest in Rawalpindi region (95.23%) whereas Attock (95.12%), Chakwal and Jhelum

(93.18%) each. While AFB₂ were recorded as the highest in Rawalpindi region (76.19%) followed by Chakwal and Jhelum (68.18%) and Attock (60.97%).

KEYWORDS: Aflatoxin, TLC, Toxigenic, Atoxigenic, Pothwar

INTRODUCTION

Approximately 25-50% of the total crops are contaminated with mycotoxins of total crops harvested because of the environments in tropical areas; about 80% of the crops are damaged by mycotoxins in tropical regions. Among all mycotoxins, aflatoxins (AF) are the major mycotoxins that effect agricultural crops and public health (Mahmoud et al., 2014). Aflatoxins are produced by the *A. flavus* and *A. parasiticus*. These toxins are named from the fungus *A. flavus*, A from *Aspergillus* and 'fla' from *flavus*. There is diversity of aflatoxins that are categorized as aflatoxin B₁ and aflatoxin B₂ as they produce blue fluorescence under Ultra Violet light, aflatoxin G₁ and G₂ as they produce green fluorescence under Ultra Violet light (Richard, 2007).

Under most of the conditions of storage, processing of seeds and feeds made from contaminated seeds, aflatoxins are durable. It is very heat stable. Among aflatoxins, Aflatoxin B₁ is the most carcinogenic and diverse array of compounds. The toxic effects include acute hepatitis, immunosuppression, and hepatocellular carcinoma for human and animals (Richard et al., 2003). Atoxigenic are the isolates which are not able to produce aflatoxin are common within communities of *A. flavus* (Donner et al., 2010). Depending upon the concentration of dose intake, aflatoxins induce three types of effects; (1) lethal, when administered acutely in high amounts (2) histological abnormalities, when intake is sub-acutely in smaller amounts and (3) tumor formation, when administration is chronic (Riba et al., 2008; Qazi & Fayyaz, 2006). In addition to being carcinogens and toxins, aflatoxins are well known as mutagens and immunosuppressants (Yu et al., 2005).

There are major problems in maize, cotton, groundnuts and other nuts with aflatoxin contamination due to infections by *Aspergillus* species, especially *A. flavus* (Lewis et al., 2005). Maize contamination with aflatoxin results from growth of *A. flavus* in maize grains (Reddy and Reddy, 2011). *A. flavus* is frequently found

in crop debris and soil which is the main source for primary inoculum causing infections in maize (Horn, 2007). *A. flavus* isolates differ in the production of aflatoxin, some of them producing numerous amounts while others are not producing (Atehnkeng et al., 2008). During the development of crop, contamination of aflatoxin can occur either when the crop is damaged by the microorganisms or stressed by drought and heat and exposure to high temperature and moisture after maturation either in storage conditions or before harvest (Bhatnagar et al., 2003). For supply of safe food and feed, in many countries, contamination of aflatoxin in maize grain is heavily monitored and regulated for the consumption human and animal feed (Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), 2018). Various factors that affect the aflatoxin production include temperature, humidity, growth, culture medium, pH, carbon source, light, aeration and storage conditions. The optimal temperature for the growth of aflatoxins requires 24-30 °C (Anthony et al., 2012).

Contaminated crops are destroyed in developed countries (Razzaghi-Abyaneh et al., 2008), but in the case of their entry into the food chain, they impart serious health effects on animals and contaminate their products such as meat and milk; consequently, these toxins provide health threats to humans also (Khlangwiset & Wu, 2010). These issues are even worse in developing countries like Pakistan, where no regulatory system exists for aflatoxin monitoring. For this reason, untested food-items become one of the basic causes of foodborne outbreaks in these countries. For instance, outbreaks due to aflatoxin contamination, such as those which occurred in 1977, 1980 and 1988 in USA, India and Kenya, respectively, are all examples of such food-related calamities (Kensler et al., 2011; Probst and Bandyopadhyay, 20014). Consequently, it can be evaluated that millions of dollars are lost annually as a consequence of the chaos that aflatoxins cause, because of their severe impacts on agriculture, animals and humans (Upadhaya et al., 2010).

Achakzai & Bazai, (2015) described that according to Pakistan Agricultural Research Council (PARC), food contamination issue is the major issue over the past years due to which many countries rejected a significant number of food items. The main reason for rejection of food items is contamination of mycotoxins in 35

cases. For the evaluation of aflatoxin production, various methods like UV based evaluation method, instrumental analysis, culture based method, serological and Thin Layer Chromatography are commonly used (Orsi et al., 2000; Castellari et al., 2010; Giorni et al., 2008). Present study is targeted to examine production of aflatoxin B₁, B₂, G₁ and G₂ in *A. flavus* isolated from maize kernels by using Thin Layer Chromatography.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Preparation of Sample

The 212 *A. flavus* isolates were tested for the production of aflatoxins. *A. flavus* were isolated from maize kernels which were collected from four districts of Pothwar region, Pakistan (in-continuity with Seerat et al., 2022). For the screening of aflatoxin producing and non-aflatoxin producing strains of *A. flavus*, thin Layer Chromatography was used.

Chemicals and standards

The mixed standards of AFB₁, AFB₂, AFG₁ and AFG₂ were purchased from Romer Labs, Austria. The mixture consists of 2.02µg AFB₁, 0.508 µg AFB₂, 2.01 µg AFG₁ and 0.508 µg AFG₂ in 3 ml Acetonitrile. A series of working standards (1-32 ng ml⁻¹) For AFB₁ and AFG₁ and 0.25-8 ng ml⁻¹ for AFG₁ and AFG₂ were prepared. Organic solvents were of analytical grade and were purchased from Fisher-USA.

Aflatoxins analysis

Aflatoxins analysis was carried out according to the protocol of (Probst et al., 2014). Further, 20 g of undamaged kernels was autoclaved at 121 °C for 60 min. Kernels were inoculated with 100 µl of conidial suspension and incubated for 7 days at 31°C in the dark. After incubation, kernels were blended in 50 ml of 80% methanol in a laboratory blender. The homogenized mixture was filtered through Whatman filter paper and the filtrate was spotted directly onto thin-layer chromatography (TLC) plates (Figure 1) together with aflatoxin standards comprising a mixture of aflatoxin B₁, B₂, G₁ and G₂. Plates was developed in ethyl

ether–methanol–water with the ratio of (96:3:1), then air-dried TLC plates and aflatoxins were visualized under 365-nm Ultra Violet light 365nm.

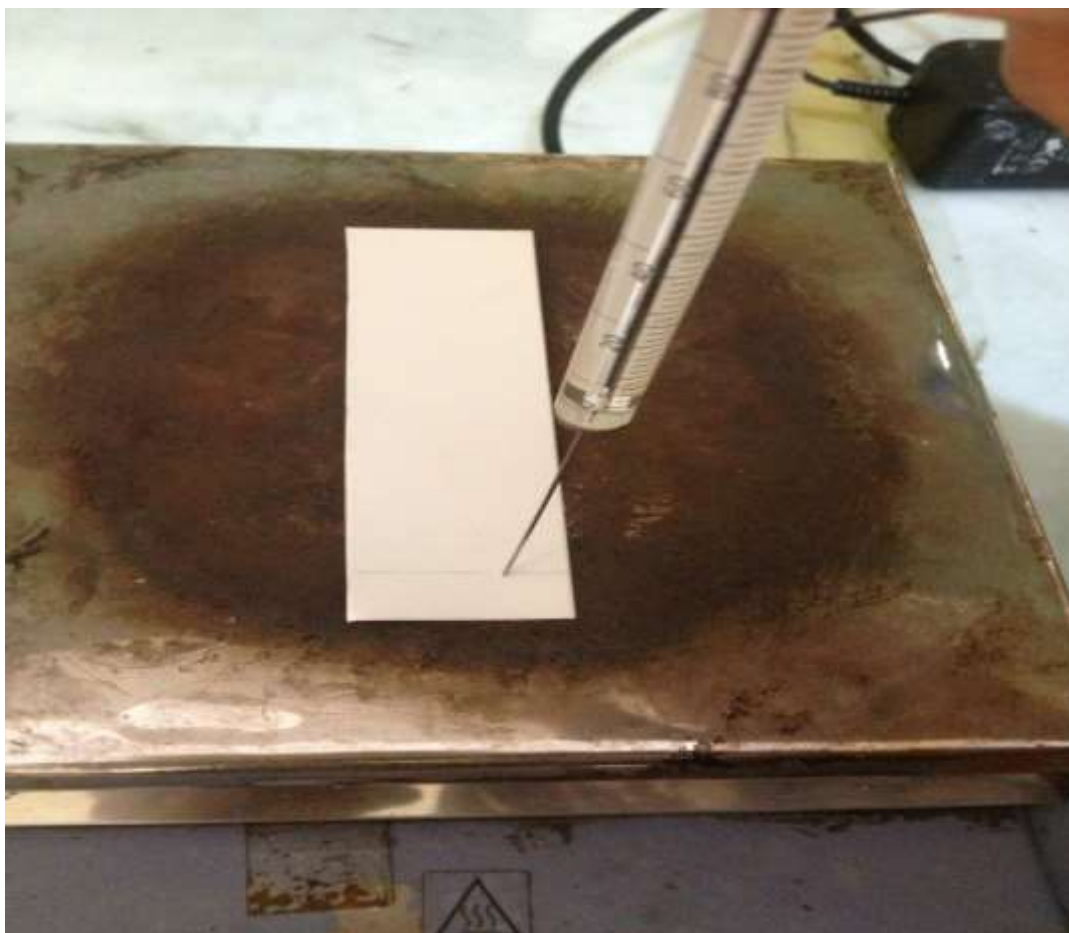


Figure 1: Inoculation of aflatoxins on TLC plate

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In the present study, level of aflatoxins production in *A. flavus* isolates was different among the four districts of Punjab Province (Attock, Chakwal, Jhelum and Rawalpindi). Out of 212 *A. flavus* isolates, 200 isolates were found positive with aflatoxin and these were recognized and characterized as aflatoxin producing strains of *A. flavus* (Figure 2) while 12 isolates did not show presence of any aflatoxin and these were recognized and characterized as non-aflatoxin producing strains of *A. flavus*. In accordance with present study, Khatoon et al. (2012) evaluated contamination of aflatoxins from maize grains collected from seven maize producing areas in Pakistan. They concluded that maize samples collected

from Punjab and Khyber Pakhtunkhwa were (57%) contaminated with aflatoxins. Muhammad et al. (2012) examined 40 maize samples for aflatoxin contamination in Pakistan and 34 out of 40 samples were contaminated with aflatoxin.

Aflatoxins B₁ producing strains

The percent incidence of aflatoxin B₁ (94.34%) was highest as compare to B₂ (66.98%) (Figure 4). In Rawalpindi region, highest percentage was observed (95.23%) followed by Attock (95.12%), Chakwal 93.18% and Jhelum 93.18% region (Figure 5). It was found that even small concentrations of AFB₁ halt mitotic divisions in lung cells of the human embryo. Moreover, about 2-6 mg/day ingestion of aflatoxins can lead to death by causing acute hepatitis (Lanyasunya et al., 2005).

Similar to our study, Shah et al. (2010) reported AFB₁ contamination in maize samples collected from areas of Swat district. They revealed the occurrence of AFB₁ in 83.33% maize samples. Similarly, Sabahat et al. (2010) found high ratio of aflatoxins 80%, 87% and 90% collected from central Punjab region. Waliyar et al. (2003) reported high level of contamination of AFB₁ from the maize collected from super markets and retail shops in Andhra Pradesh, Hyderabad, India. Rahimi et al. (2016) also reported highest amount of aflatoxin B₁ in 10 species of *A. flavus*.

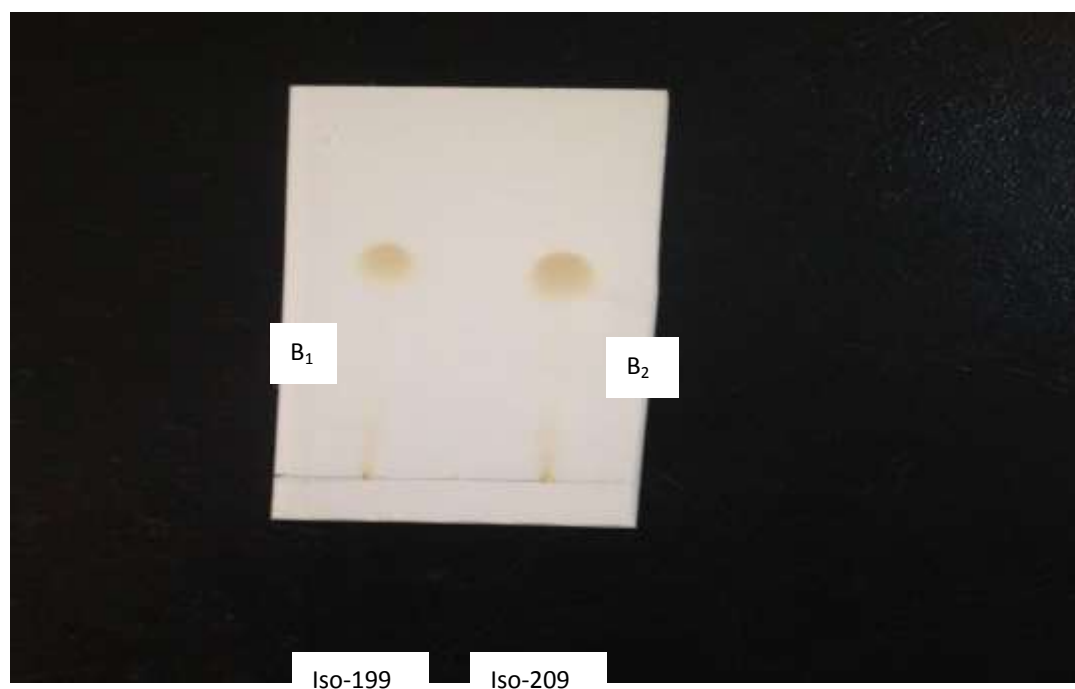


Figure 2: TLC plate showing aflatoxin B₁ and B₂

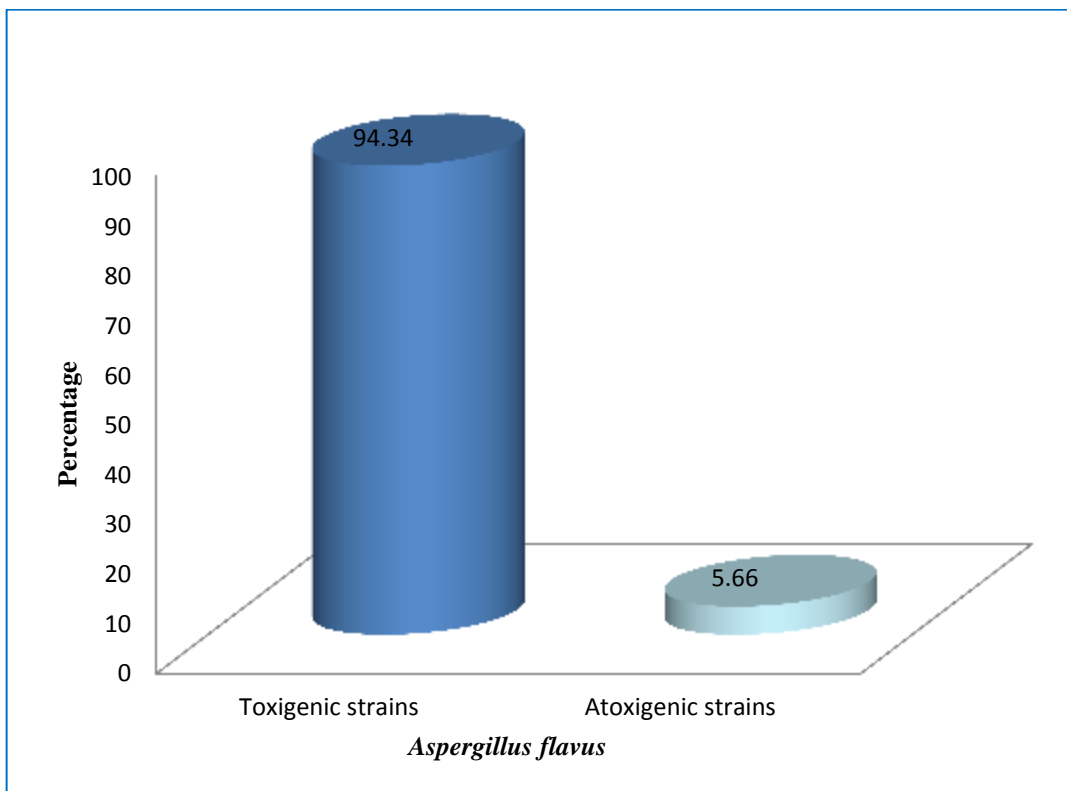


Figure 3: Overall percentage of toxigenic (aflatoxin producing) and atoxigenic (non-aflatoxin producing) strains of *A. flavus*

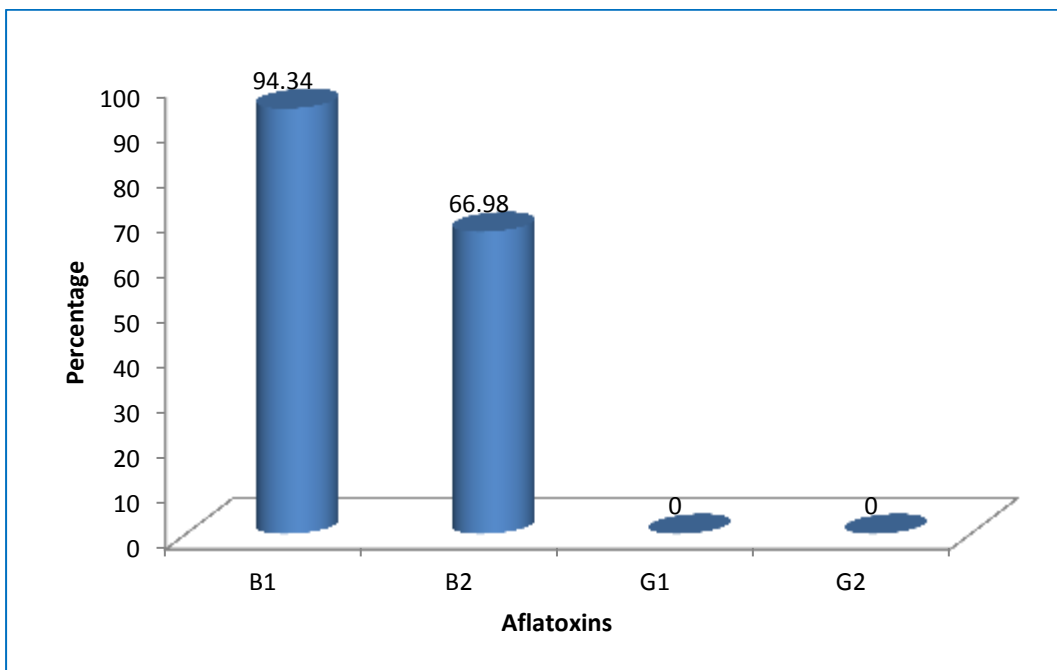


Figure 4: Overall percentage of aflatoxins B₁, B₂, G₁, G₂

Khatoun et al. (2012) reported AFB₁ with contamination level in 27% maize samples by using HP-TLC detection method. According to Iqbal et al.

(2019), aflatoxin B₁ contamination level was 0.04-3.5 µg/kg in maize products like breakfast cereal products. In continuity with this, Garcia-Cela et al. (2019) reported that aflatoxin contamination caused due to poor storage of maize grains. AFB₁ contamination was 56% in *A. flavus*.

Applications of TLC have been reported in areas of food composition, intentional additives, adulterants, contaminants, etc. (Sherma, 2000). Fuch et al. (2010) used TLC and HPTLC to check the ability of *A. flavus* for aflatoxin production. Similarly Klich (2007) used TLC technique for aflatoxin determination. In continuity to this, Lagogianni et al. (2019) tested aflatoxin production by toxigenic *A. flavus* in maize ear rots. They reported AFB₁ severity about 21.9% in maize kernels. Similarly, Choochuay et al. (2018) determined AFB₁ by using rapid method and reported highest level of contamination of AFB₁ in maize grains. Manzoor et al. (2018) determined toxigenic AFB₁ from maize samples by using High-Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC) with 61.1% aflatoxin contamination.

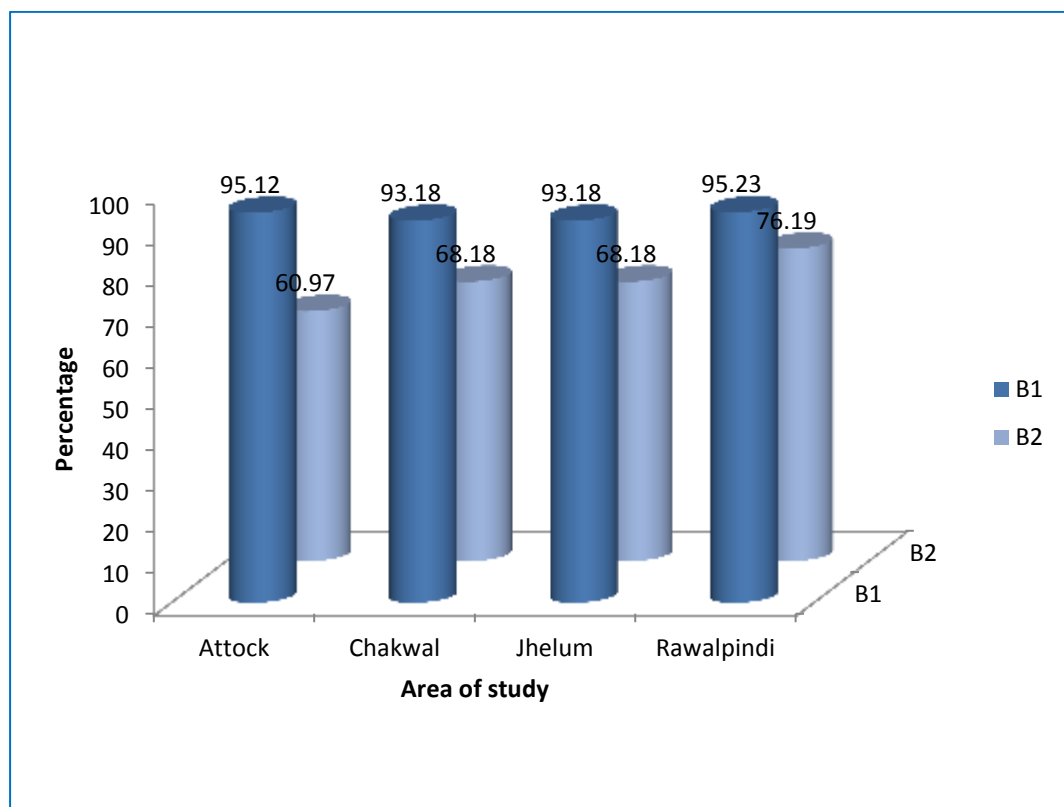


Figure 5: Percentage of aflatoxins B₁, B₂ in pothwar region

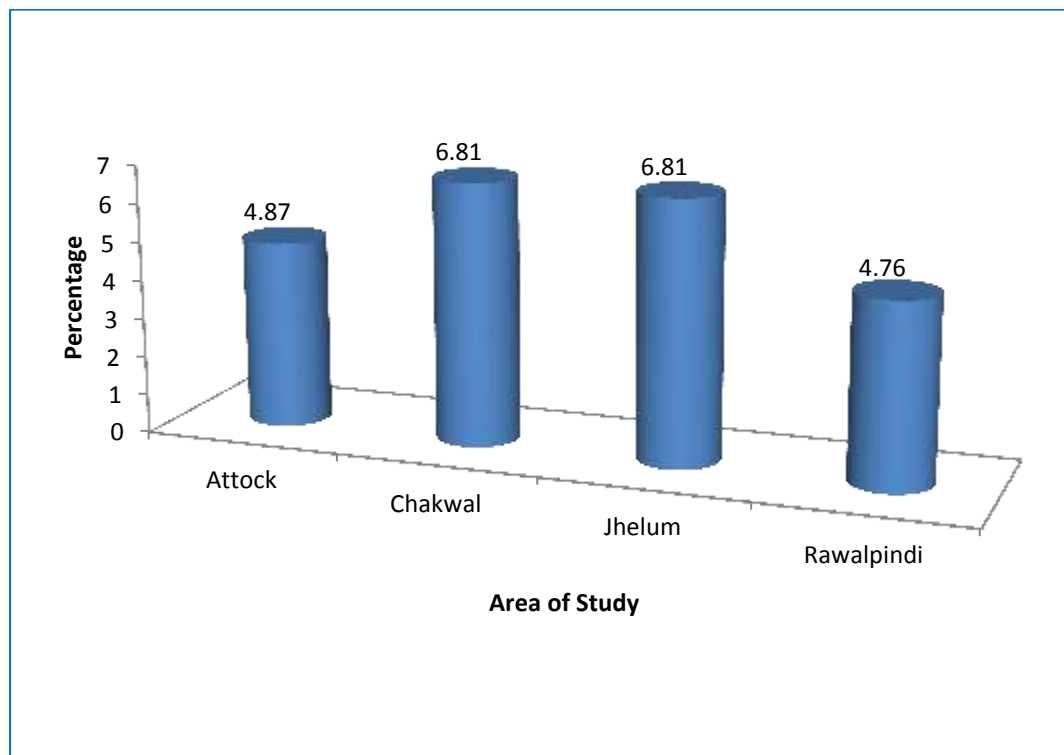


Figure 6: Percentage of non-aflatoxin producing strains of *A. flavus* in pothwar region.

Aflatoxins B₂ producing strains

Overall percentage of aflatoxin B₂ was (66.95%) (Figure 4). Aflatoxin B₂ were recorded highest in Rawalpindi (76.19%) followed by Chakwal and Jhelum (68.18%) each and Attock region (60.97%) region (Figure 5). Similar to our study, Zhou et al. (2019) detected aflatoxin B₁ and B₂ by using HPLC. In their work, high contamination level was detected by AFB₁ and AFB₂. In continuity to this, Ouakhssase et al. (2019), detected aflatoxin B₂ by using LC-MS/MS method and HPLC. Similarly, Iram et al. (2016), described aflatoxin contamination from maize grains of ecological zones of Punjab, Pakistan. Their results indicated that contamination of aflatoxin B₁ and B₂ was 78.9% and 97.3%. In continuity to this, Rahimi et al. (2016) reported presence of aflatoxin B₂ in all *A. flavus* species. Rocha et al. (2009) analyzed 200 corn samples for aflatoxin contamination. They concluded that 21 out of 200 (10.5%) were contaminated with AFB₁, 7 out of 200 (3.5%) contaminated with AFB₂ and only 1 out of 200 (0.5%) contaminated with G₁ and G₂.

Non-aflatoxigenic strains of *Aspergillus flavus*

Out of 212 isolates, 12 strains (5.66%) (Figure 3) did not show presence of any aflatoxin and these were classified as non-aflatoxin producing strains of *A. flavus* because they did not show any fluorescence under 365nm UV light. From Chakwal and Jhelum 3(6.81%) strains, Rawalpindi 2(4.76%) and Attock 4(4.87%) strains were observed as non-aflatoxin producing (Figure 6). Similar to our study, Aikore et al. (2019) reported atoxigenic *A. flavus* strains as biocontrol product from maize crop. This study was done in Nigeria where atoxigenic (non-aflatoxin producing) strains were used as biocontrol agents against toxigenic *A. flavus* strains. Hua et al. (2019) also described atoxigenic strains's application against toxigenic strains of *A. flavus* strains to compete each other. They identified aflatoxigenic and non-aflatoxigenic strains of *A. flavus* by using biosynthetic gene clusters and exposure under Ultra Violet light. Lanubile et al. (2017) described application of atoxigenic *A. flavus* strains in maize fields for controlling contamination of aflatoxins. They used defense genes against toxigenic strains of *A. flavus* in maize fields. Similar to our study, Teja et al. (2017) described non-aflatoxigenic strains of *A. flavus* in maize and groundnut samples in India.

Ruiqian et al., (2004) reviewed the biocontrol and degradation of *A. flavus* and aflatoxins, respectively. They demonstrated the significant role of atoxigenic strains of *A. flavus*, *Bacillus subtilis* and *Trichoderma* species in inhibiting the growth and *A. flavus*. Brown et al. (2003) have suggested using non-toxigenic strains of *A. flavus* to outcompete their aflatoxigenic relatives, as well as employing bioengineered resistant crops to prevent aflatoxin infestation. In addition, they have also provided certain useful antagonistic biocontrol approaches as a solution to this predicament of aflatoxins. Antagonistic and biodegradation strategies using harmless and useful microorganisms, isolated from different food matrices, and their enzymes can provide the best way to purge aflatoxins and aflatoxigenic *A. flavus* (Guan, 2011; Velmourougane et al., 2011).

Scherm et al. (2005) described that all the *A. flavus* isolates are not able to produce aflatoxins. Aflatoxigenic strains further encouraged screening for aflatoxin production abilities on the basis of presence of blue and green fluorescence on the undersides of the colonies ultra violet light, while non-aflatoxigenic strains do not

produce fluoresce under UV light.

CONCLUSION

Screening through Thin Layer Chromatography revealed the presence of 94.34% aflatoxin producing strains and 5.66% non-aflatoxin producing strains of *A. flavus*. High percentage of aflatoxin B₁ as compared to aflatoxin B₂ was observed from all regions of Pothwar plateau. Aflatoxin B₁ percentage was highest in Rawalpindi region followed by Attock, Chakwal and Jhelum. Further investigations are required on the molecular identification of aflatoxin producing and non-aflatoxin producing strains of *A. flavus*.

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