Presence of ochratoxin A in some food in Al-Jafara region-Libya Preliminary study

A. A. Sassi^{1, 4}, A. R. Sowan², M. A. Barka¹ and F. S. Zgheel³

¹Faculty of Agriculture, Al-Fatah University Tripoli, Libya
²Graduate Studies Academy, Tripoli, Libya
³Biotechnology Research Centre, Tripoli, Libya

⁴Corresponding author: E-mail almahdi_sassi@yahoo.com Received 28/2/2010, Accepted 19/6/2010

Abstract: Eleven food samples and four coffee samples of several kinds and trade marks were collected from different super-markets in Al-Jafara region, Libya and analysed for the presence of ochratoxin A, using immunoaffinity column clean up (Ochra test column) and HPLC. The samples were of different cereal products and coffee consumed regularly and normally. The results indicated that eight food samples (72.72%) were contaminated by ochratoxin A with the lowest concentration (0.59µg/kg) in couscous (national production) and the highest concentration (15.50µg/kg) in couscous (imported). Four food samples (36.36%) contained ochratoxin A above the Libyan and European specifications which allow 3µg/kg. Of the coffee samples, ochratoxin A was found in 2 samples of Arabic coffee (50%) and the highest concentration was present in Arabic coffee (locally processed) with concentration reaching 70.16 µg/kg which is highly above the Libyan and Europe Union regulations which allow 5 µg/kg for Arabic coffee. The other food samples which showed presence of ochratoxin A had concentrations of 10.70, 1.49 and 1.13 µg/kg for macaroni (national production), 3.25 µg/kg for rice (imported), 4.80 µg/kg for wheat flour (National production), 1.89 µg/kg for wheat flour (imported), 3.32 µg/kg for Arabic coffee and 15.50 µg/kg for couscous (imported). The other three samples of food (27.27%) which consisted of one imported macaroni sample, two samples of imported rice and two samples of instant coffee (50%) showed absence of ochratoxin A at the detection limit below 0.02 µg/kg. Presence of ochratoxin A in foods considered a serious problem for human health where this toxin is recognized as possible carcinogenic to both human and animal health by International Agency for Research on Cancer.

Key words: ochratoxin A, food, macaroni, wheat flour, Arabic coffee, couscous, Libya

Introduction

The filamentous fungi grow rapidly on a variety of natural substrates at some stage of growing, harvesting, production, transport or storage (Noonim et al., 2008), under appropriate temperature and moisture condition and produce mycotoxins. These toxins are secondary metabolites with relatively small molecular weight (Turner et al., 2009). They are produced by many species of Aspergillus, Fusarium, Penicillium, Claviceps and Alternaria spp. and known to be associated with human and animal disease (Zinedine and Manes, 2009). Recent studies estimate that mycotoxins contaminate 25% of the food crops and account for more than \$ 1.4 billion in economic losses in the United State alone (Bingham et al., 2004). Ochratoxin A (OTA) is one of the most important mycotoxins of worldwide concern for human health due to its implication in a diverse range of toxicological effect (Kumar et al., 2008; Astoreca et al., 2009). Ochratoxins are secondary metabolites of fungi, containing dihydroisocoumarin moiety linked to a L phenylalanine (Ringot et al., 2006). These toxins are produced by P. verrucosum, A. ochraceus, A. carbonarius and A. niger (Juan et al., 2007; Batista et al., 2009; Duarte et al., 2010) in cereals, cereal derivatives, coffee, dried fruits, spices and beans as well as in animal products by transfer through contaminated feeds (Kabak, 2009; Zaied et al., 2009). The International Agency for Research on Cancer classified ochratoxin A as possible carcinogenic for both humans and animals (group 2B) (IARC, 2002), and also ochratoxin A was suspected to be involved in the Balkan Endemic Nephropathy (BEN), a fatal chronic kidney disease of people observed in rural areas in south eastern Europe (Romania, Bulgaria and Bosnia) and characterized by progressive renal fibrosis in human (Erkekoglu et al., 2010). Ochratoxin A has nephrotoxicity, teratogenic toxicity, immunotoxicity, genotoxicity, and carcinogenic properties and possibly neurotoxic properties (Zinedine et al., 2010). Several studies showed presence of ochratoxin A in food used for human consumption. In analytical study for detection of ochratoxin A levels in 63 samples of infant formulae, follow on formulae and baby foods marketed in Ankara, Turkey, ochratoxin A levels in the baby food samples positive for ochratoxin A were in ranges of 0.06-6.04 µg/kg (Baydar et al., 2007). In analytical study for detection of ochratoxin A levels in 68 samples of breakfast and infants cereals products collected from different supermarkets and pharmacies in Rabat, Morocco by Zinedine et al., (2010) showed that four samples of breakfast cereals (5.8% of total samples) were found contaminated with 5.1 and 224.6 µg/kg OTA. In research work on the presence of several mycotoxins including ochratoxin A in 209 samples of different groups of food widely consumed by the Tunisian population including spices, dried fruit, sorghum and rice

showed presence of ochratoxin A in 59.8% of the samples with a mean level of $3.5 \ \mu g/kg$ (Ghali *et al.*, 2008). Other investigation in Tunisia, carried out by Zaid *et al.*, (2009) for the presence of ochratoxin A in widely consumed cereals include 110 wheat samples, 103 barley, 113 sorghum and 96 rice samples during the year 2004-2005 revealed contamination with incidence of 38%, 40%, 38% and 28% with average concentrations of ochratoxin A 55, 96, 44 and117 $\mu g/kg$ respectively.

The aim of this preliminary study is to screen some foods consumed regularly and normally by most people in Al-Jafara area-Libya for the presence of ochratoxin A.

Materials and Methods

Food samples

Eleven (11) food samples and four (4) coffee samples of several kinds and trade marks were collected from different markets in the area of Al-Zahra city-Al-Jafara – Libya. They consist of 3 samples of macaroni of 500 gram each (national production), one sample of macaroni of 500 gram (imported), 3 samples of rice of 3 kg each (imported), one sample of wheat flour of 3 kg (national production), one sample of wheat flour of 3 kg (imported), 2 samples of Arabic coffee of 500 gram each and one sample of couscous of 3 kg (locally processed), 2 samples of instant coffee of 500 gram each and one sample of couscous of 3 kg (imported).

All food samples were collected randomly a few days before analysis with valid expiry date for consumption and available normally for human consumption in different markets.

Food sample preparation and immunoaffinity clean-up

For determination of ochratoxin A in food, 50g of mixed samples were homogenized in a blender with 100 ml methanol: water (80:20) for one min and filtered through Whatman No. 1 filter paper. After filtration, a 10 ml aliquot was completed to a volume of 50 ml with distilled water. This solution was then filtered a second time using filter paper Whatman No 1 and 10 ml of this filtrate was applied to an immunoaffinity column (Ochratest, Vicam) at a flow rate of one drop/second. After passage of the sample, the column was washed twice with 10 ml distilled water and 3 ml of HPLC grade methanol was used to elute ochratoxin bound to monoclonal antibodies in amber glassware, at a flow rate of one drop/second. The elute was evaporated to dryness under nitrogen gas at 40 °C and reconstituted with 200 µl of the HPLC mobile phase for quantification. The mobile phase consisted of а mixture of acetonitrile/water/acetic acid (99:99:2) (Alarcon et al., 2006; Sugita-Konishi et al., 2006).

HPLC determination of ochratoxin A

Ochratoxin A in food samples quantified by reverse phase HPLC with fluorescence detection (Shimadza-LC 10 A series) according to the method of Alarcon et al. (2006). Fifty µl of reconstituted extract were injected into the chromatographic apparatus by full loop injection system. The mobile phase consisted а mixture of of acetonitrile/water/acetic acid (99:99:2) at a flow rate of 0.8 ml/min and temperature of 40 °C. Quantification of ochratoxin A was performed with a fluorescence detector with excitation wavelength 333 nm and emission wavelength 460 nm. A four-point calibration curve (0-2-5-10 µg/L) was established. The calibration curve was linear (0.9996) with precision less than 5%. The Quantification of ochratoxin A concentration was performed by measurement of peak areas at ochratoxin A retention time at 8 min and comparison with the calibration curve.

Recovery experiments were performed in triplicate by spiking blank food samples with ochratoxin A at levels 2-5 and $10\mu g/kg$. Average recoveries ranged from 87 to 93% with the detection limit of $0.02\mu g/kg$. The identification was confirmed by methyl ester derivatization according to the method described by Pena *et al.* (2006).

Results and Discussion

The present results indicated the presence of ochratoxin A in eight samples (72.72%) with the lowest concentration of 0.59 µg/kg in couscous (national) and the highest of $15.50 \,\mu\text{g/kg}$ in couscous (imported). Four samples (36.36%) of the positive ones were above the Libyan specification (Libyan specification No 683/2009) and EU regulation (Commission Regulation, EC No. 1881/2006) which permit 3 µg/kg for food used for human consumption. The other three samples of food (27.27%) which consisted of one sample macaroni (imported), two samples of rice (imported) show absence of ochratoxin A at the detection limit below $0.02 \mu g/kg$ (Table 1). The presence of ochratoxin in the samples used in this preliminary study could be due to inadequate storage conditions or low quality of food. Our results are in agreement with several studies in the world and North Africa for the presence of ochratoxin A in food used for human consumption. In a study of human exposure to ochratoxin A in selected population in Egypt, a total of 140 samples of cereals (rice and macaroni), legumes, dried fruits, dairy products and meat were collected randomly from Egyptian countryside and the results indicated presence of ochratoxin A in 33.56% of total samples and the highest ochratoxin A levels were found in cereals with the concentration range from 18 to 421 µg/kg (Zohir and Salim, 2006). Evaluation of ochratoxin A exposure degree in two Portuguese cities evaluated by Duarte et al. (2010)

using 168 samples of wheat and maize bread consumption during winter 2007 showed that 84% of samples were contaminated with maximum level of 3.85 μ g/kg. One hundred (100) samples of rice purchased from retail markets in five different cities in Morocco from January to October 2006 were surveyed by Juan *et al.* (2008a) for the presence of ochratoxin A and the analytical result showed a frequency of contamination of 26% of the total rice

Food samples	Origin	Ochratoxin
- 004 Sampio	g	A (μg/kg)
Macaroni	National production	10.70*
Macaroni	National production	1.49
Macaroni	National production	1.13
Macaroni	Imported	<0.2
Rice	Imported	3.25*
Rice	Imported	<0.2
Rice	Imported	< 0.2
Wheat flour	National production	4.80*
Wheat flour	Imported	1.89
Arabic coffee	Locally processed	3.32*
Arabic coffee	Locally processed	70.16*
Instant coffee	Imported	< 0.2
Instant coffee	Imported	< 0.2
Couscous	National production (home-made)	0.59
Couscous	Imported	15.50*

Table 1: Ochratoxin A concentration ($\mu g/kg$) in the food samples

*Above the Libyan and European regulations; Detection limit= $0.02 \mu g/kg$.

Samples analysed and the concentration ranged between 0.08 and 47 µg/kg. Investigation carried out by Juan et al., (2008b) for presence of ochratoxin A in a total of 61 samples of bread from central zone of Portugal showed 12.9% and 70% of wheat and maize bread respectively contaminated with ochratoxin A with concentration range between 0.02 to 1.19 μ g/kg. Samples (180) of high consumption food commodities from various regions of Tunisia were analysed by Ghali et al. (2009) to determine ochratoxin A contamination levels, and performed analysis indicated that 45% of monitored samples were contaminated with levels ranging from 0.11 to 33.9 μ g/kg, and the most contaminated commodities were barley, sorghum and wheat. In 30 samples of wheat flour, 30 samples of corn starch and 31 samples of rice on Chilean market, carried by Vega et al. (2009) revealed about 70%, 63% and 50% of flour, corn starches and rice respectively were positive for ochratoxin A. In Greece, study conducted by Villa and Markaki (2009) in 55 samples of breakfast cereals from Athens markets showed that 60% of samples contained ochratoxin A with the mean concentration $0.18 \mu g/kg$. The natural occurrence of ochratoxin A for 60 samples of cereals in Morocco (20 of each of corn, barley and wheat)

indicated that the average levels of ochratoxin A were 1.08, 0.42 and 0.17 µg/kg for corn, wheat and barley respectively (Zinedine et al., 2006). A total of 100 samples of commercial bread purchased from January to October 2006 from retail baking shops in five cities in Morocco were surveyed for presence of ochratoxin A and the analytical results showed that 48% were positive for ochratoxin A with levels ranged between 0.14 and 149 μ g/kg with average levels of 13 µg/kg and 26% of positive samples exceeded the maximum of 3 µg/kg set by EU (Zinedine et al., 2007). In study conducted by Abdulkader et al. (2004) on mycotoxins in food available in Qatar including ochratoxin A in 106 samples of various kinds of food products collected from the markets, 11 samples were found contaminated with ochratoxin A in the range of 0.20 $-4.91 \mu g/kg$. In wheat bread samples collected in winter 2007 from the city of Algarve and Barganca region-Portugal by Bento et al. (2009), 60% and 50% of the samples contained ochratoxin A with maximum concentration of 0.49 and 0.43 µg/kg respectively.

In the coffee samples used in this study, ochratoxin A was found in 2 samples of Arabic coffee (50%) and one of them showed a concentration of 70.16 µg/kg which is highly above the Libyan specification (Libyan specification No 683/2009) and European Union regulation which allow 5 µg /kg for Arabic coffee (Commission Regulation, EC No 1881/2006). The presence of this toxin could be due to the inadequate roasting process or bad storage conditions of the coffee or heavy contamination of coffee seed before roasting. Coffee roasting can remove a very significant percentage of ochratoxin A, depending on the roasting process, destruction can be from 8% to 98% (Ferraz et al., 2010) where the instant coffee was found free from ochratoxin A. In 64 samples of coffee beans collected in 2006-2007 from Thailand, by Noonim et al. (2008) showed that 98% of the samples were contaminated with ochratoxin A in levels of 0.6 - 5.5µg/kg. Ochratoxin A was detected in 89 of coffee samples (31%) at concentrations of $0.1-5.0 \,\mu g/kg$ and 25% of the samples at concentrations above 5.0 µg/kg. Of the 40 bean samples collected from farms of southern Minas Gerais municipalities, Brazil, and analysed, 58% were infected with potentially ochratoxigenic fungi but only 22% of them were contaminated with ochratoxin A at levels that varied from 0.47 to $4.82\mu g/kg$, with an average contamination level of 2.45 µg/kg (Batista et al 2009).

Consumption of food products contaminated with toxigenic fungi can possess serious health hazards to human and animals. Since the consumption of mycotoxins-contaminated diet may induce acute and chronic effects resulting in a teratogenic, carcinogenic (mainly for liver and kidney), estrogenic or immunosuppressive effect on animals and man (Erkekoglu *et al.*, 2010). Molecular toxicity would result from competition with phenylalanine for protein synthesis, promotion of lipid peroxidation, inhibition of mitochondrial ATP production as well as production of DNA adducts (Marin-Kuan *et al.*, 2008).

References

- Abdulkader AHW, Al-Ali AA, Al-Kildi AM and Al-Jedah JH (2004): Mycotoxins in food products available in Qatar. Food cont 15: 543-548.
- Alarcon SH, Palleschi G, Compagnone D, Pascale M, Visconti A and Barna-Vetro I (2006): Monoclonal antibody based electrochemical immunosensor for the determination of ochratoxin A in wheat. Talanta 69: 1031-1037.
- Astoreca A, Barberis C, Magnoli C, Combina M and Dalcero A (2009): Influence of ecophysiological factors on growth, lag phase and ochratoxin A production by Aspergillus niger aggregate strains in irradiated corn grains. Int J Food Microbiol 129: 174-179.
- Batista LR, Chalfoun SM, Silva CF, Cirillo M, Verga EA and Schwan RF (2009): Ochratoxin A in coffee beans (*Coffea arabica* L.) processed by dry and wet methods. Food Cont 20: 784-790.
- Baydar T, Erkekoglu P, Sipahi H and Sahin G (2007): Aflatoxin B1, M1 and ochratoxin A levels in infants formulae and baby foods marketed in Ankara, Turkey. J Food and Drug Anal 15: 89-97.
- Bento JMV, Pena A, Lino CM and Pereira JA (2009): Determination of ochratoxin A content in wheat bread samples collected from the Algrave and Barganca regions, Portugal: Winter 2007. Microchemical J 91: 165-169.
- Bingham AK, Huebner HJ, Philips TD and Bauer JE (2004): Identification and reduction of urinary aflatoxin metabolites in dogs. Feed and Chemical Toxicol 42: 1851-1858.
- Commission Regulation (EC) No. 1881 (2006): Setting maximum levels for certain contaminants in foodstuffs.
- Duarte SC, Tanello A, Pena A, lino CM, Matos CM, Oliveira MB PP and Alves MR (2010): Evaluation of ochratoxin A exposure degree in two Portuguese cities through wheat and maize bread consumption during winter 2007. Food Cont 21: 702-707.
- Erkekoglu P, Sabuncuoglu S, Aydin S, Sahin G and Giray B (2010): Determination of seasonal variations in serum ochratoxin A levels in healthy population living in some region of Turkey by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay. Toxicon 55: 507-513.

- Ferraz MBM, Farah A, Jamanaka BT, Perrone D, Copetti M, Manques VX, Vitali AA and Taniwaki MH (2010): Kinetics of ochratoxin A destruction during coffee roasting. Food Cont (In press).
- Ghali R, Hmaissia-khlifa K, Ghorbel H, Maaroufi K and Hedili H (2008): Incidence of aflatoxins, ochratoxin A and zearalenone in Tunisian foods. Food Cont 19: 921-924.
- Ghali R, Hmaissia-khlifa K, Ghorbel H, Maaroufi K and Hedili H (2009): HPLC determination of ochratoxin A in high consumption Tunisian foods. Food Cont 20: 716-720.
- IARC- International Agency for Research on Cancer (2002): Some traditional herbal medicines, some mycotoxins, naphthalene and styrene. In: Monographs on the evaluation of carcinogenic risks to humans. Lyon (France): IARC Press.
- Juan C, Lino CM, Pena A, Molto JC, Manes J and Silveira I (2007): Determination of ochratoxin A in maize samples by LC with fluorescence detection. Talanta 2: 246-250.
- Juan C, Zinedine A, Idrissi L and Manes J (2008a): Ochratoxin A in rice on the Moroccan retail market. Int J Food Microbiol 126: 83-85.
- Juan C, Pena A, Lino C, Molto JC and Manes J (2008b): Levels of ochratoxin A in wheat and maize bread from central zone of Portugal. Int J Food Microbiol 127: 284-289.
- Kabak B (2009): Ochratoxin A in cereal-derived products in Turkey: Occurrence and exposure assessment. Food Chem Toxicol 47: 348-352.
- Kumar V, Basu MS and Rojendran TP (2008): Mycotoxin research and mycoflora in some commericially important agricultural commodities. Crop Protect 27: 891-905.
- Libyan specification No. 683 (2009): Maximum permissible level of Mycotoxins (Ochratoxin A) in food, animal feed. Libyan Center for Standardization and Metrology.
- Marin-kuan M, Cavin C, Delatour T and Schilter B (2008): Ochratoxin A carcinogenicity involves a complex network of epigenetic mechanisms. Toxicon 52: 195-202.
- Noonim P, Mahakarnchanakul W, Nielsen KF, Frisvad JC and Samson R (2008): Isolation, identification and toxigenic potential of ochratoxin A-producing Aspergillus species from coffee beans grown in two regions of Thailand. Int J Food Microbiol 128: 197-202.
- Pena A, Seifrtová M, Lino CM, Silveira MIN and Solich P (2006): Estimation of ochratoxin A in Portuguese population: new data on the occurrence in human urine by high performance liquid chromatography with fluorescence detection. Food Chem Tox 4: 1449–1454.
- Ringot D, Chango A, Schneider Y-J and Larondelle Y (2006): Toxicokinetics and toxicodynamics of ochratoxin A, an update. Chemico-Biol Interact 159: 18-46.

- Sugita Konishi Y, Tanaka T, Nakajima M, Fujita K, Norizuki H, Mochizuki N And Takatori. K (2006): The Comparison of two clean up procedures, multifunctional column and immunoaffinity column for HPLC determination of ochratoxin A in cereals, raisins and green coffee beans. Talanta 69: 650-655.
- Turner NW, Subrahmanyam S and Piletsky SA (2009): Analytical methods for determination of mycotoxins: A review. Analyt Chem Acta 632: 168-180.
- Vega M, Munoz K, Sepulveda M, Aranda M, Campos V, Villegas R and Villarroel O (2009): Solid phase extraction and HPLC determination of Ochratoxin A in cereals products on Chilean market. Food Cont 20: 631-634.
- Villa P and Markaki P (2009): Aflatoxin B1 and ochratoxin A in breakfast cereals from Athens market: Occurrence and risk assessment. Food Cont 20: 455-461.
- Zaied C, Abid S, Zorgui L, Bouaziz C, Chouchane S, Jomaee M and Bacha H (2009): Natural occurrence of ochratoxin A in Tunisian cereals. Food Cont 20: 218-222.

- Zinedine A and Manes J (2009): Occurrence and legislation of mycotoxins in food and feed from Morocco. Food Cont 20: 334-344.
- Zinedine A, Blesa J, Mahnine N, El Abidi A, Montesano D and Manes J (2010): Pressurized liquid extraction coupled to liquid chromatography for the analysis of ochratoxin A in breakfast and infants cereals from Morocco. Food Cont 21: 132-135.
- Zinedine A, Brera C, Elakhdari S, Catano C, Debegnach F, Angeline S, De Santis B, Faid M, Benlemlih M, Minardi V and Miraglia M (2006): Natural occurrence of mycotoxin in cereal and spices commercialized in Marocco. Food Cont 17: 868-874.
- Zinedine A, Juan C, Idrissi L and Manes J (2007): Occurrence of ochratoxin A in bread consumed in Morocco. Microchemical J 87: 154-158.
- Zohir A and Salim B (2006): A study of human exposure to ochratoxin A in selected population In Egypt. American-Eurasian. J Agric and Environ Sci 1: 19-25.

This paper was presented orally in the First Conference of Basic and Applied Mycology held in Assiut University, and organized by The Assiut University Mycological Centre (AUMC) in collaboration with Society of Basic & Applied Mycology (SBAM).