Original Research Article

Microbial and Aflatoxins Analysis of Selected Cereal Flours Processed and Sold in Abakaliki Metropolis

Abstract

Aflatoxins are very potent mycotoxins produce by molds. Molds are very common pre-harvest and post harvest contaminant of cereals/cereal products. Despite improved handling, processing and storage of cereals, aflatoxins still remain a major problem in the cereal processing industry causing both health hazards and economic losses. Therefore, some researchers have suggested that in order to avoid the toxicity, the levels of aflatoxins and similar toxic compounds in foodstuffs have to be monitored closely, and to be kept under control continuously. Otherwise, related health effects like acute and chronic intoxications, and even deaths, will still be an issue. Therefore, in this research the microbial and total aflatoxins analysis of selected cereal flours processed and sold in Abakaliki metropolis was carried out. The total aflatoxins were analyzed using Enzyme Link Immunosorbrnt Assay (ELISA) machine. The cereal samples were also analyzed for total fungal count using digital colony counting machine(CCM China). The result showed that all the cereal flours (wheat, sorghum, millet and maize) analyzed were heavily contaminated with fungal cells. The flours also contain unacceptable levels of aflatoxins. The total aflatoxins were above the minimum acceptable limits (10ppm) according to National Agency for Food and Drug Administration and control (NAFDAC). The millet and sorghum have the highest fungal and total aflatoxins concentrations while the wheat flour has the lowest fungal and total aflatoxins concentrations. There were significant difference ($p<0.05$) among the total aflatoxins level of the different cereal flours. The research also revealed that flours have

high moisture content. It is therefore recommended that a more improved process line be put in place to ensure that all cereal flours sold in Abakaliki are produced using Standard Operating Procedure (SOP).

Key words: Cereal Aflatoxins, Mycotoxins, ELISA, NAFDAC

INTRODUCTION

Aflatoxins are potent toxic, carcinogenic, mutagenic, immunosuppressive and teratogenic agents produced as secondary metabolites by *Aspergillus flavus* and *Aspergillus parasiticus* (Krishnamurthy and Shashikala, 2006; Jackson, and Al-Taher, 2008; Williams et al., 2015). These fungi can invade and produce toxins in cereals before harvest, during drying, and in storage (Hom et al., 1995). The aflatoxin problem in cereals is not restricted to any geographic or climatic region. Toxins are produced on cereals, both in the field and in storage; they involve both the grain and the whole plant (Williams et al 2004; Filaz et al., 2010). Cereals and its products are the main foods for human consumption throughout the world. The cereal grains belong to corn, rice, barley, wheat and sorghum are found susceptible to aflatoxins accumulation by aflatoxigenic fungus (Filaz et al., 2010). Aflatoxin is extremely durable under most conditions of storage, handling and processing.

There are four major groups of aflatoxins: B1, B2, G1 and G2. These Aflatoxins occur naturally in most food commodities, including wheat, corn, soybean and peanut and other grains which are consumed by human and animal (Juan et al., 2008). Aflatoxins are of economic and health importance because of their ability to contaminate human food and animal feeds, in particular cereals, nuts and oil seeds. Cheese, almonds, figs and spices have been also associated with aflatoxins contamination (Kaaya and Warren, 2005).

This naturally occurring toxins have been characterized by the World Health Organization (WHO, 2002) as significant sources of food borne illnesses (Williams et al., 2015). Humans can be exposed to aflatoxins by the periodic consumption of contaminated food, contributing to an increase in nutritional deficiencies, immunosuppression and hepatocellular carcinoma (Williams et al., 2015; Filazi et al., 2010). High moisture and temperature are two main factors that cause the occurrence of aflatoxins at pre-harvest and post harvest stages (Ayciceket al., 2005). Children are particularly affected by aflatoxin exposure, which leads to stunted growth, delayed development, liver damage, and liver cancer. Adults have a higher tolerance to exposure, but are also at risk. In fact no animal species is immune to aflatoxicosis (Hussein, and Brassel, 2001; Hosseini, and Bagheri, 2012; Williams et al., 2015). Aflatoxins are among the most carcinogenic substances known (Azi et al., 2015). Aflatoxins interact with the basic metabolic pathways of the cell disrupting key enzyme processes including carbohydrate and lipid metabolism and protein synthesis (Beyhan et al., 2016; Quist et al., 2000; Williams et al., 2015). After entering the body, aflatoxins may be metabolized by the liver to a reactive epoxide intermediate or hydroxylated to become the less harmful (Hussein, and Brassel, 2001). Aflatoxins are most commonly ingested, but the most toxic type of aflatoxin, is aflatoxin B1, which can permeate through the skin (Williams et al., 2004). The United States Food and Drug Administration (FDA) action levels for aflatoxin present in food or feed is 20 to 300 ppb. The FDA has had at some occasion declared both human and pet food recalls as a precautionary measure to prevent exposure .

The economic impact of aflatoxins is derived directly from crop and livestock losses due to aflatoxins and directly from the cost of regulatory programs designed to reduce risks to human and animal health. The Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO) estimates that 25% of the world's crops are affected by mycotoxins, of which the most notorious are aflatoxins.

Aflatoxin losses to livestock and poultry producers from aflatoxin-contaminated feeds include death and more subtle effects of immune system suppression, reduced growth rates, and losses in feed efficiency (Kaaya and Warren, 2005). Other adverse economic effects of aflatoxins include lower yields for food and fibre crops. The aflatoxin problem has been reported to be more serious in tropical and subtropical regions of the world where climatic conditions of temperature and relative humidity favour the growth of *Aspergillus flavus and A.parisiticus*. Beside human consumption, maize, wheat and sorghum are also a major ingredient in animal feeds. Therefore, contamination of the produce by aflatoxins puts consumers at high health risk and the hazards reduces the export potential of the country. Signs of acute aflatoxicosis include depression, nervousness, abdominal pain, diarrhea and death (Herrman, 2002). Since these toxins have been considered unavoidable contaminants in food chain, the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) of USA has established an action 732 level for total aflatoxins which is at 20 ppb for all foods, including animal feeds (Munkvold et al., 2005).

As of today aabout 4.5 billion people, mostly in developing countries, are at risk of chronic exposure to aflatoxins from contaminated food (Shuaib et al., 2010). Therefore, in order to avoid the toxicity, the levels of aflatoxins and similar toxic compounds in foodstuffs have to be monitored closely, and to be kept under control continuously. Otherwise, related health effects like acute and chronic intoxications, and even deaths, will still be an issue (Becer, U. K., and Filazi, A. (2010). Of the currently identified many types of aflatoxins, aflatoxin B1, B2, G1 and G2 occur naturally and are the most significant contaminants of a wide variety of foods and feeds (Juan et al., 2008). Thus, despite improved handling, processing and storage of cereals, aflatoxins still remain a major problem in the cereal processing industry causing both health hazards and economic losses. Therefore the objective of this work is to determine the microbial

and total aflatoxin levels of the selected cereal flours (wheat, sorghum, millets and corn) milled and consumed in Abakaliki metropolis. Findings of this study will serve the purpose of alerting consumers on the dangers of consuming flours (wheat, sorghum, millets and corn) on sale in selected market within Abakaliki Ebonyi State, Nigeria.

Materials and Methods

Sources of Raw Materials:

All the samples (maize, wheat, millet and sorghum) were sourced at different milling locations at meat market , Kpirikpiri and eke Aba, Abakaliki Ebonyi state.

pH determination

The pH of the samples were determined using highly sensitive digital pH meter (Montini 095, Romania).Two grams of each of the samples (milled cereals) were measured into a Cylindrical glass container containing 20ml of distilled water. The mixture was stirred and allowed to stand for about 1h. The pH was determined at temperature of about $29^{O}C$ by dipping the pH meter tip into the sample solution and the pH of the solution read off.

Proximate Analysis

Determination of Moisture Content

Moisture content was determined by the Gravimetric method. A measured weight of each sample (5g) was weighed into a cleaned, dried Petri dish. The dish and samples were dried in an oven at $105^{O}C$ for 3 h at the first instance. It was then cooled in a desiccator and reweighed. The weight

was recorded while the samples were returned to the oven for further drying. The drying, cooling and weighing continued repeatedly until a constant weight was obtained. By the difference, the weight of the moisture loss was determined and expressed as a percentage.

It was calculated as shown below;

$$\% \text{ Moisture Content} = \frac{W_2 - W_3}{W_2 - W_1} \times \frac{100}{1}$$

Where; W_1 = Weight of the empty Petri dish

W_2 = Weight of the dish and sample before drying

W_3 = Weight of the dish and sample after drying to a constant weight

Determination of crude Protein

The protein content of the sample was determined using the Kjeldahl method. The total Nitrogen was determined and multiplied by the factor 6.25 to obtain the protein content. Five grams (5g) of the grounded cereal floor was weighed into the Kjeldahl digestion flask. A tablet of Selenium catalyst was added to it. Concentrated H_2SO_4 (10 ml) was then added to the flask and digested by heating it under a fume cupboard until a clear solution was obtained. Then it was carefully transferred to a 100ml volumetric flask and made up to mark. A 100ml of the digest was mixed with equal volume of 45% NaOH solution in Kjeldahl distillation apparatus. The mixture was distilled and the distillate collected into 10ml of 4% boric acid solution containing mixed indicator methyl red bromocressol. A total of 50ml distillate was collected and titrated against

0.02N H_2SO_4. The crude protein was obtained by multiplying the nitrogen value by a factor of 6.25.

$$\% \text{ Crude Protein} = \frac{\text{Titre value} \times 50 \times 5.46}{\text{Weight of the sample}} \times \frac{100}{1}$$

Determination of Ash and crude fibre

The method of AOAC, (1995) was used to determine the ash and crude fibre contents of the sample.

Determination of Carbohydrate

The carbohydrate content of sample was determined by estimation using the arithmetic difference method. The carbohydrate content was calculated and expressed as the Nitrogen free extract as shown below:

$$\% \text{ CHO} = 100 - \% (a + b + c + d + e)$$

Where; a = Protein

b = Ash

c = Fat

d = Crude fibre

e = Moisture content

Total viable fungal count

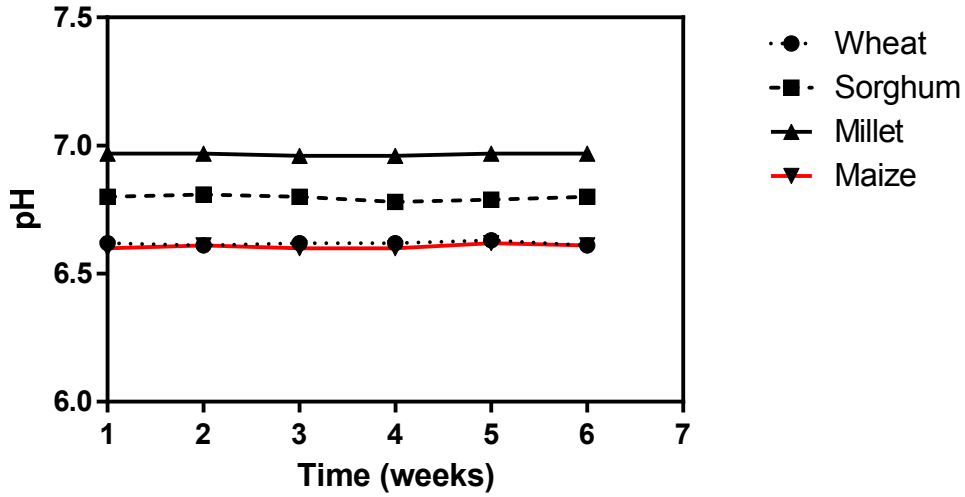
Ten- fold serial dilution and pour plate method were used for the fungal count. The medium used (Saboraud Dextrose Agar) were prepared according to manufacturer‘s instruction (BIOTECH India) and autoclave for 15minutes at 121’C and 15psi. The prepared medium was allowed to cool to about 40°C in a water bath and was then poured into sterile petri- dishes containing 1 ml aliquot of the appropriate dilutions (normal saline as diluents) prepared from the samples. The samples solutions were prepared by adding 1 g of the sample into 10 ml of normal saline. The plates were incubated for 3 days at room temperature and colonies formed were counted using digital colony counter and expressed in colony forming unit per gram CFU/g.

Total Aflatoxin analysis

Determination of total aflatoxin on the cereal flours samples were done by the use of Enzyme link immunosorbent assay (ELISA) Method. Extraction of the aflatoxin was done with Tween-ethanol. Twenty five mililitre of Tween- ethanol was added to 5 g of the sample and mixed properly. The sample solution was then centrifuged at 250 rpm for 3 mins. The centrifuged sample was filtered with Watman1 filter paper. Aflatoxin conjugate (200 micro liter) was dropped in a clean mixing wall and 100 microliter of the sample analyte was added. The mixture of the aflatoxin conjugate and the sample was then transferred into antibody incubated micro-walls and incubated under dark cover at room temperature for 15 mins. This process was allowed for the antibody/antigen reaction to take place. After the incubation the solution was then washed off 5 times using deionized water and then 100 microliter of the substrate was added and allowed to stand for 5mins. Finally a stop solution was added and the result read with ELISA machine.

172 *Results*

173



174

175

176 Fig 1: The pH of the different cereal flour

177

178

179

180

181

182

183

184

185

186

Table 1: Shows the proximate composition of the different cereal flour

	Samples(%)			
	Wheat	Sorghum	Millet	Maize
Protein	11.2 ± 0.14 [a]	9.9 ± 0.22 [b]	12.1 ± 0.13[c]	11.1± 0.21[d]
CHO	68.9 ± 0.12[a]	63.4 ± 1.61[b]	64.3 ± 0.21[c]	63.8± 0.01[d]
Moisture	13.8 ± 0.21[a]	13.0 ± 0.17[b]	12.3 ± 0.50 [c]	12.9± 0.31[d]
Ash	2.6 ± 1.03[a]	3.1 ± 0.25[b]	2.7 ± 0.71[c]	2.8± 0.12[c]
Fat	2.0 ± 0.41[a]	5.0± 0.17[b]	5.8 ± 1.09[c]	6.2± 0.13[d]
Fibre	2.5 ± 0.15[a]	5.6± 0.12 [b]	2.8 ± 0.14 [c]	3.2 ± 0.21[d]

Values are mean of triplicate determination and standard deviation (±SD). Means with different superscript along the row are significantly different ($p<0.05$)

Table 2: Moisture Content of the cereal flour

Weeks	Samples (%)			
	Wheat	Sorghum	Millet	Maize
1	13.8 ± 0.13[a]	13.0 ± 0.12 [b]	12.3 ± 0.13[c]	12.9 ± 0.71[d]
2	13.5 ± 0.15 [a]	13.2 ± 1.61 [b]	12.5 ± 0.21 [c]	12.8 ± 0.60 [d]
3	13.7 ± 0.91 [a]	13.1 ± 0.17 [b]	12.3 ± 0.50 [c]	12.9 ± 0.41 [d]
4	13.8 ± 1.01 [a]	13.0 ± 0.25 [b]	12.2 ± 0.71 [c]	12.7± 0.11 [d]
5	13.5 ± 0.3 [a]	3.1 ± 0.17 [b]	12.9 ± 1.09 [c]	12.9± 0.14 [d]

Values are mean of triplicate determination and standard deviation (±SD). Means with different superscript along the row are significantly different ($p<0.05$)

Table 3: Total fungi counts of the cereal flour

Weeks	Samples (CFU/g)			
	Wheat	Sorghum	Millet	Maize
1.	$4.8 \times 10^6 \pm 0.12^a$	$6.3 \times 10^7 \pm 0.12^b$	$6.2 \times 10^7 \pm 0.11^b$	$3.6 \times 10^6 \pm 0.0^c$
2.	$4.9 \times 10^6 \pm 0.12^a$	$6.4 \times 10^7 \pm 1.02^b$	$6.2 \times 10^7 \pm 1.21^b$	$3.8 \times 10^6 \pm 0.0^c$
3.	$4.6 \times 10^6 \pm 0.29^a$	$6.0 \times 10^7 \pm 0.19^b$	$6.3 \times 10^7 \pm 0.5^b$	$3.9 \times 10^6 \pm 0.6^c$
4.	$4.3 \times 10^6 \pm 1.02^a$	$6.5 \times 10^7 \pm 0.23^b$	$6.5 \times 10^7 \pm 0.7^b$	$3.6 \times 10^6 \pm 0.2^c$
5.	$3.5 \times 10^6 \pm 3.10^a$	$6.4 \times 10^7 \pm 0.17^b$	$6.2 \times 10^7 \pm 1.9^b$	$3.6 \times 10^6 \pm 0.4^c$
6.	$4.6 \times 10^6 \pm 0.14^a$	$6.1 \times 10^7 \pm 0.12^b$	$6.6 \times 10^7 \pm 0.14^b$	$3.8 \times 10^6 \pm 0.3^c$

Values are mean of triplicate determination and standard deviation (±SD). Means with different superscript along the row are significantly different ($p<0.05$)

Table 4: Total aflatoxins content of the cereal flour as analyzed

Weeks	Samples (ppb)			
	Wheat	Sorghum	Millet	Maize
1	8.4 ± 0.14[a]	17.3 ± 0.22[b]	18.4 ± 0.13[a]	23.3 ± 0.33[d]
2	8.3 ± 0.12 [a]	18.0 ± 1.61 [b]	19.4 ± 0.21 [c]	24.6 ± 1.00 [d]
3	8.0 ± 0.21 [a]	17.2 ± 0.17 [b]	17.3 ± 0.50 [c]	23.3 ± 0.61 [d]
4	7.3 ± 1.03 [a]	17.2± 0.25 [b]	17.3 ± 0.71 [c]	23.6± 0.32 [d]
5	9.0 ± 0.41 [a]	17.0 ± 0.17 [b]	18.4± 1.09 [c]	23.3± 0.14 [d]
6	8.2 ± 0.15 [a]	19.3± 0.12 [b]	18.4 ±0.14 [c]	23.3 ± 0.35 [d]

Values are mean of triplicate determination and standard deviation (±SD). Means with different superscript along the row are significantly different ($p<0.05$)

Discussion

Cereal flours are prone to both pre-harvest and post harvest fungal contamination and spoilage. This study revealed that the severity of the postharvest fungal contamination and spoilage varied among the different cereal flour studied. Thus the total fungal population and the concentrations of total aflatoxins varied among the cereal flours.

The pH analysis showed that the different cereal flour has different pH that ranges from 6.55 to 6.89 (Fig.1). The variation in the pH content of the cereal could be as a result of the varied chemical composition of the cereal flours. According to Peter Koehler and Herbert Wieser (2013), the pH of any cereal grain is significantly affected by the chemical composition of the cereal grain. The variety of the cereal flour studied could also be factor that might have influenced the pH as genetic composition of cereal grains have been found to determine the chemical composition of the cereal and thus it pH (Shibanuma *et al.,* 1994).

The cereal flours studied consist of mainly carbohydrate making up between 63 to 68% of the total proximate composition of the cereal flours (Table 1). This is consistent with the findings of

other researchers. (Franz, M. and Sampson, L. 2006; Goesaert, *et al*., 2005). The protein content of the cereals ranged from 9.9 – 12.1 (Table 1). The significant differences at ($p<0.05$) in the protein content of the cereal flours studied could be as a result of the cereal genotype (species and variety) and growing conditions (soil, climate and fertilization) as stated by Peter Koehler and Herbert Wieser, (2013), in a similar study. The moisture content of the cereals flours were found to be between 12.3 and 13.8%. This suggest that the cereal grains were not sufficiently dried before milling and this affected the overall chemical composition of the cereal flours.This result is similar to the finding of Fox et al.(1992) in which the variation in moisture content of maize flour significantly affected the overall chemical composition of the maize flour studied.

The result also further showed that the cereals were low in ash, fat and fibre (Table 1). Cereals are generally known to be low in ash, fat and fibre by their genetic nature (Steadman et al., 2001; Fox et al., 1992).

The finding of this research shows that the different cereal flours studied were heavily contaminated by fungi (Table 3). The wheat flour has the lowest average fungal populations while millet flour had the highest fungal cells during the study period. There was significant difference among the fungal populations of the cereal flours. The level of fungal load in cereal flours is used to determine the extent of storage stability of cereal flour. Flours with high fungal populations tend to spoil faster than those with lower fungal populations. This is because with higher fungal population the rate of metabolic activities of the fungal cells on the flour becomes faster resulting in production in high proportion of certain undesirable metabolites which subsequently lead to off-flavors and general change in the chemical composition of the flour. This high fungal population seen in these flours could be due to poor processing resulting in cross-contaminations of the flours from both the milling machines and the personnel. These high fungal populations may be as a result of high moisture content of the cereal flours. Cereal grains with high moisture content have been reported to witness high fungal invasion according to a research conducted by Reddy *et al*. (2013). According to their research cereal grains (rice) with a moisture content higher than the desired level (>14%) that entered the storage system witnessed high fungal invasion. The harmful effects of such fungal invasion are discoloration of the grain, loss in viability, loss of quality, and toxin contamination (Ayhan Filazi and Ufuk Tansel Sireli, (2013); Reddy *et al*., 2009). The finding of this research is also similar to that of

Adriana *et al.* (2006) and Enyisi *et al. (*2015) in which they reported post- harvest fungal contamination of millet grains stored for over six month before processing. They further explained that some of the fungal contaminant is potential aflatoxins producer thus represent significant public health risk. It is therefore imperative from the finding of this study that an urgent and comprehensive review of the storage and processing methods of cereal flours in milled and sold in Abakaliki metropolis in order to avert aflatoxins epidemic which often characterized by jaundice, rapidly developing ascites, and portal hypertension (Ayhan Filazi and Ufuk Tansel Sireli, 2013).

The finding of this research showed that were also contaminated with different concentrations of aflatoxins with maize flours having the highest aflatoxins concentration while wheat flour has the lowest aflatoxins level Table4. The level of aflatoxins is one of the key safety and quality indicator parameter in cereal products. Cereal products with total aflatotins level beyond 10ppm are designated as unfit for human consumption according to National agency for Food and Drug Administration and Control. This is because consumption of foods with such high levels of aflatoxins contaminations has been linked with both acute and chronic heart diseases including cancer (Azi et al., 2016). It has been established that about 4.5 billion people, mostly in developing countries, are at risk of chronic exposure to aflatoxins from contaminated foods; cereal and cereal based products inclusive (Shuaib *et al.,* 2010). This high concentration of aflatoxins revealed in this study could be as results of high fungal contamination of the cereal flours. The high fungal populations and subsequent aflatoxins production could be as a result of high moisture content together with storage temperature. High moisture and temperature are two main factors that have been established to be responsible for occurrence of aflatoxins at pre-harvest and post harvest stages cereal products (Ayciceket al., 2005). While According to SGoldblatt, (1969), moisture content <12 per cent aflatoxin synthesis can commence with 12 per cent substrate humidity. The finding of this research is similar to the investigative report of FAO and FDA risk assessment report on aflatoxins in foods in which they discovered different concentrations of aflatoxins in the different foods assessed including cereals and cereal products.

*Conclussion and recommendation***.**

The finding of this research showed that wheat, sorghum, millet and maize flour processed in Abakaliki is heavily contaminated with molds with potential for aflatoxins production. The

aflatoxins analysis also revealed unacceptable levels of aflatoxins in the cereal flours. It is therefore recommended that urgent review of the entire process line for cereal flours sold in Abakaliki be carried out to ensure that all flours sold in Abakaliki are produced following standard operating procedures (SOP). Also the cereal grain should be stored at dry and cool environment (temperature preferably below 20°C and relative humidity below 80%), to reduce the chance of fungal contamination and proliferation during storage.

References

Adriana Laca, Zoe Mousia, Mario Díaz, Colin Webb and Severino S. Pandiella, (2006). Distribution of microbial contamination within cereal grains. *Journal of Food Enginering.* 72(4): 332–338

Peter Koehler and Herbert Wieser (2013). Chemistry of Cereal Grains. German Research Center for Food Chemistry , Lise-Meitner-Strasse 34 , 85354 Freising , Germany

Shibanuma K, Takeda Y, Hizukuri S, Shibata S (1994) Molecular structures of some wheat starches. Carbohyd Polym 25:111–116.

Goesaert H, Brijs C, Veraverbeke WS, Courtin CM, Gebruers K, Delcour JA (2005) Wheat constituents: how they impact bread quality, and how to impact their functionality. Trends Food Sci Tech 16:12–30.

M. Franz, & L. Sampson, Challenges in developing a whole grain database: Definitions, methods and quantification. J. Food Compos. Anal ., 19. (2006) S38–S44.

Steadman, K. J. , M. S. Burgoon, B. A. Lewis, S. E. Edwardson, R. L.Obendorf, Buckwheat seed milling fractions: description, macronutrient composition and dietary fibre. J. Cereal Sci., 33. (2001) 271–278.

S.A. Fox, L.A. Johnson, c.r. hurburgh, C.DORSEY READING and T.B. Bailey (1992). Relation of grain proximate composition and physical proterties to wet-milling characteristics of maize. Journal of cereal chemistry: 69(2);191 -197.

Reddy, K. R. N., Abbas, H. K., Abel, C. A., Shier, W. T., Oliveira, C. A. F., & Raghavender, C. R. (2009). Mycotoxin contamination of commercially important agricultural commodities. Toxin Reviews, 28(2-3), 154-168.

387 Horn, B. W., Greene, R. L., & Dorner, J. W. (1995). Effect of corn and peanut cultivation on soil
388 populations of Aspergillus flavus and A. parasiticus in southwestern Georgia. Applied and
389 Environmental Microbiology, 61(7), 2472-2475.

390 Shuaib, F. M. B., Ehiri, J., Abdullahi, A., Williams, J. H., & Jolly, P. E. (2010). Reproductive
391 health effects of aflatoxins: A review of the literature. Reproductive Toxicology,29, 262-270.

392 Becer, U. K., & Filazi, A. (2010). Aflatoxins, Nitrates And Nitrites Analysis In The Commercial
393 Cat And Dog Foods. Fresenius Environmental Bulletin, 18(11), 2523-2527.

394 Jackson, L. S., & Al-Taher, F. (2008). Factors Affecting Mycotoxin Production in Fruits. In:
395 Barkai-Golan R, Paster N. (Ed), Mycotoxins in Fruits and Vegetables, Academic Press is an
396 imprint of Elsevier, 75-104.

397 Hussein, S. & Brassel, J. (2001). Toxicity, metabolism, and impact of mycotoxins on humans
398 and animals.Toxicology, 167, 101-134. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0300-483X(01)00471-1

399 Hosseini, S., & Bagheri, R. (2012). Some major mycotoxins and their mycotoxicoses in nuts and
400 dried fruits. International Journal of Agronomy and Plant Production, 3(5), 179-184

401 Williams, I.O., Ugbaje, S. A., Igile G. O. and Ekpe, O. O. (2015) Occurrence of Aflatoxin in
402 Some Food Commodities Commonly Consumed in Nigeria. Journal of Food Research; 4(5); 1-
403 7.

404 WHO. (2002). World Health Organisation Global strategy for food safety: safer food for better
405 health, food safety programme, Geneva, Switzerland.

406 Williams, J. H., Phillips, T. D., Jolly, P. E., Stiles, J. K., Jolly, C. M., & Aggarwal, D. (2004).
407 Human aflatoxicosis in developing countries: a review of toxicology, exposure, potential health
408 consequences and interventions. American Journal of Clinical Nutrition, 80, 1106-1122.

409 AOAC. (2006). Natural toxins. In Official methods of analysis of AOAC International. (18th ed.,
410 pp. 1-89). AOAC. International, Gaithersburg.

411 Quist, C. F., Bounous, D. I., Kilburn, J. V., Nettles, V. F., & Wyatt, R. D. (2000). The Effect of
412 dieteray aflatoxin on wild turkey poults. Journal of Wildlife Diseases, 36(3), 436-444.

413 Aycicek, H., Aksoy, A., & Saygi, S. (2005). Determination of aflatoxin levels in some dairy and
414 food products which consumed in Ankara, Turkey. Food Control, 16,263-266.

415 Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations/World Health Organization
416 (FAO/WHO). (1998). Evaluation of certain veterinary drug residues in food. Forty seventh
417 report of the joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives (JECFA), World Health
418 Organization Technical Report Series, 876, 1-85.

419 European Food Safety Authority (EFSA). (2007). Opinion of the scientific panel on
420 contaminants in the food chain on a request from the commission related to the potential increase
421 of consumer health risk by a possible increase of the existing maksimum levels for aflatoxins in
422 almonds, hazelnuts and pistachios and derived products. The EFSA Journal, 446, 1-127.

423 . Filazi, A., Ince, S., & Temamogullari, F. (2010). Survey of the occurrence of aflatoxinM1 in
424 cheeses produced by dairy ewe's milk in Urfa city, Turkey. Veterinary Journal of Ankara
425 University, 57(3), 197-199.

426 Goldblatt, L. A. (1969). Aflatoxin scientific background, control and implications, p. 23,
427 Academic Press, New York, London

428 Ayhan Filazi and Ufuk Tansel Sireli, (2013) Occurrence of Aflatoxins in Food
429 http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/51031

430 Reddy, K. R. N., Abbas, H. K., Abel, C. A., Shier, W. T., Oliveira, C. A. F., & Ragha-

431 vender, C. R. (2009). Mycotoxin contamination of commercially important agricultural
432 commodities. Toxin Reviews, 28(2-3), 154-168

433 Shuaib, F. M. B., Ehiri, J., Abdullahi, A., Williams, J. H., & Jolly, P. E. (2010). Repro-

434 ductive health effects of aflatoxins: A review of the literature. Reproductive Toxicology,

435 29, 262-270.

436 FAO. 2001. Safety Evaluation of Certain Mycotoxins in Food. Prepared by the Fifty-sixth
437 meeting of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives (JECFA). FAO Food

and Nutrition Paper No. 74. Rome, Italy.

FDA. 2002. Investigative Operations Manual. Food and Drug Administration, Washington DC, USA (available at www.fda.gov/ora/inspect_ref/iom/Contents/ch4_TOC.html).

Enyisi, Sule .I, Orukotan, A. Ado, A and Adewumi, A.A.J. (2015).Total aflatoxin level and fungi contamination of maize and maize products. *African Journal of Food Science and Technology*. 6(8): 229-233.

Bilgrami, K. S. and Misra, R. S. (1980).Aflatoxin production by *Aspergillus flavus* in storage and standing maize crops. Advances Mycology *Plant Patho*logy, 26; 67 - 78.