Full Length Research Paper

Review on Mycotoxins in Feeds: Implications to Livestock and human health

Mekuanint Gashaw

Maddawalabu University, School of Agriculture, Department of Animal and Range Science, Email: Miky.gashew@gmail.com phone: +251(0)932314227 or +251(0)918095071

Accepted 18 November, 2015

The objective of this review was identifying mycotoxins in livestock feeds and effects on livestock as well human health. Mycotoxins are toxic secondary metabolites produced by wide range of fungi (molds) toxic to humans, livestock and plants. There are over 100 species of fungi that can infect plants and forages and produce mycotoxins. Mycotoxins are mainly produced by Aspergillus, Penicillum and Fusarium genera which invade crops in the field and may grow during storage under favorable conditions of temperature and humidity. Aflatoxins, trichothecenes, zearalenone, ochratoxins, and fumonisins are some of mycotoxins that found in feeds. Consumption of a mycotoxins-contaminated diet may induce acute and long-term chronic effects resulting in teratogenic, carcinogenic, and oestrogenic or immune-suppressive effects. Direct consequences of consumption of mycotoxins-contaminated livestock feed include: reduced feed intake, feed refusal, poor feed conversion, diminished body weight gain, increased disease incidence (due to immune suppression), and reduced reproductive capacities. Three fundamental factors exist for the development of fungi and the production of mycotoxicosis are physical, chemical and biological factors are determined. The effect of mycotoxins in human and animal health can be determined by amount of affected feed/ food, length of time, age, species as well as environmental factors. Ruminants such as cattle, sheep and goats are less common for their sensitivity to the negative effect of mycotoxins than non ruminants. Mycotoxins have direct influence on features of specific organs (liver, kidneys, reproductive System). To control mycotoxins in feeds before harvest and post harvest mechanisms are available and these methods include different physical, chemical and biological systems depending on their availability.

Key words: Mycotoxin, feed, livestock, human, health.

INTRODUCTION

Livestock production is an important part of national economy and it plays a significant role in providing the high quality and quantity food for human beings. The role of livestock sector enhancing agricultural productivity is well recognized and its contribution to alleviate poverty in rural areas is enormous (Abedullah *et al.*, 2009). Mycotoxins have long been a concern to livestock producers when environmental conditions during the growing season were conducive to mold growth on the field crop. Mycotoxins have been detected in various food commodities from many parts of the world and are presently considered as one of the most dangerous contaminants of food and livestock feed (Okoli, 2007).

Mycotoxins are now more frequently being associated

with crops like corn silage that include not just grain but a high percentage of stalks and Stover. Differences of opinion exist regarding the role of molds and mycotoxins in livestock problems basically because their effects on animal health and production (Seglar and Mahanna, 1995). They are regularly implicated in toxic syndrome in animal and human (Charoenpornsook and Kavisarasai, 2006). Due to the diversity of their toxic effects and their synergetic properties mycotoxins are considered as a risky to the consumers of contaminated food and feeds (Omed, 2008).

Mycotoxins are toxic, chemically diverse secondary substances or metabolites produced by a wide range of fungi. There are over 100 species of fungi that can infect plants and forages and produce mycotoxins. Mycotoxins are mainly produced by Aspergillus, Penicillum and Fusarium genera which invade crops in the field and may grow on foods during storage under favorable conditions of temperature and humidity (Akande *et al.*, 2006). Infections by mold and mycotoxins production can develop at various stages of crop production: in the field, during harvesting and transportation or storage (Martins *et al.*, 2007). Factors that influence the mycotoxins production include: temperature, moisture, oxygen, substrate aeration, inoculums concentration, microbial interaction, mechanical damage and insect infestation. (CAST, 2003).

Mycotoxins are in general stable and capable of persisting into final products (Sabater Vilar, 2003). Experimental evidence characterizing the potential of mycotoxins and moldy feedstuffs to cause animal disease, definitively linking a disease outbreak in the field to specific mycotoxins can be very difficult. Briefly, the problem is that mycotoxins often do not cause acute disease and, when they do, there are often multiple interacting factors that can modify the expression of toxicity (Morgavi and Riley, 2007).

In the past, most investigations have focused on bacterial or viral diseases in cattle, whereas mycotoxins were only studied in monogastric animal species like poultry and pigs. Another dilemma associated with the effects of mycotoxins in ruminant is based on the paradigm that ruminants are relatively tolerant to adverse effects of mycotoxins, presumably due to ability of rumen micro flora to detoxify the mycotoxins. Rumen metabolites are more toxic than parent mycotoxins i.e. conversion of zearalenone to α -zearanol (Kiessling *et al.*, 1984). Mycotoxins impair ruminal functions by exerting antimicrobial effects on rumen micro flora. Increased rate of passage of feed through the rumen may possibly overwhelm the ability of the rumen to completely denature the toxins (Fink-Gremmels, 2008).

Ruminant's diet generally includes both forages and concentrates (Azam et al., 2009) and may have an increased probability of multiple mycotoxins contamination. Animals vary in their susceptibility to mycotoxins, according to the age and the species of animal and the specific toxin involved (Pier et al., 2007). Mycotoxins can cause damage to organ systems, reduce production and reproduction, and increase diseases by reducing immunity. Some mycotoxins are carcinogens, some target liver, kidney, digestive tract or the reproductive system (Akande et al., 2006). Aflatoxins, fumonisins and zearalenone are most common mycotoxins in Africa (Devegowda et al., 1998).

The Objective of this paper is:- review presence of mycotoxins in feeds, implications to livestock and human health

Definition and types of mycotoxins

What are Mycotoxins?

Mycotoxins are toxic secondary metabolites produced by fungi (molds) toxic to humans, livestock and plants. Their ingestion, inhalation or dermal absorption may cause different diseases and even death. Mycotoxins are undesirable, but mostly unavoidable, mold produced feed contaminants. Mycotoxicosis is diseases caused by exposure to foods or feeds contaminated with mycotoxins (Nelson et al., 1993). Mycotoxins cause a toxic response (mycotoxicosis) when ingested by livestock. Cereal plants may be contaminated by mycotoxins in two ways: fungi growing as pathogens on plants and/or growing saprophytically on stored plants. Moulds and associated mycotoxins are important factors adversely affecting foods produced using contaminated plant products or animal products derived from animals fed on contaminated feeds (Robens and Cardwell, 2003).

Mycotoxins are toxic to humans and animals, which explains the major concern of food and feed industries in preventing them from entering the food chain (Pierre, 2007). All fungal growth didn't results in mycotoxins formation and detection of fungi does not imply necessarily the presence of mycotoxins. Consumption of a mycotoxins-contaminated diet may induce acute and long-term chronic effects resulting in teratogenic, carcinogenic, and oestrogenic or immune-suppressive effects. Direct consequences of consumption of mycotoxins-contaminated animal feed include: reduced feed intake, feed refusal, poor feed conversion, diminished body weight gain, increased disease incidence (due to immune suppression), and reduced reproductive capacities (Voss and Haschek, 2007).

Toxinogenic (mycotoxins producing) fungi can be distinguished such as *Fusarium* which invade their substrate and produce mycotoxins on the growing plants before harvesting: this is the category of field (preharvest) toxins. Aflatoxins and *Fusarium* toxins are included in this group. And the other group contains fungi which produce toxins after harvesting and during crop storage and transportation. These toxins are named storage (or post-harvest) toxins and ochratoxin A belongs to this group (Te Giffel, 2008).

Types of mycotoxins

More than 300 chemically different mycotoxins formed by more than 350 fungal species and causing diseases (mycotoxicosis) to living organisms (Steyn, 1998) have been documented. Once active growth is no longer possible, they frequently respond by undergoing morphological and biochemical differentiation resulting in the production of a chemically diverse range of

Mycotoxins	Species susceptability	Effects
Aflatoxins	All domestic animals and poultry	Hepatoxic,carcinogenic, immune suppressive
Zearalenone	Mainly pigs and dairy animals	Estrogeni and reproductive disorder
Vomitoxin	Mainly pigs and dairy animals	Dermatotoxic, feed refusal
Ochratoxin	Mainly pigs and poultry	Nephrotoxic, gout
T-2 Toxin	Mainly pigs and poultry	Mouth lesions, loss of appetite
Fumonisins	Mainly pigs and horses	Neurological disorders, liver damage.

Table: Mycotoxins and their effect on different livestock species.

Source:(Ratcliff, 2002).

secondary metabolites (Bhatnagar *et al.*, 2002). Toxigenic fungi have been roughly classified into two groups' field fungi and storage fungi (Pierre, 2007). Most of the known mycotoxins have been recognized as secondary metabolites of *Fungi imperfect*, particularly of the genera *Aspergillus*, *Penicillium*, *Fusarium*, *Claviceps*, *Alternaria*, *Neotyphodium*, *Stachybotrys*, *Myrothecium*, *Phoma* and *Diploidia* (Sabater Vilar, 2003).

Pre- Disposing Factor for Mycotoxins in Livestock Feeds

Substrates differ in their ability to support fungal growth due to differences in their physical and chemical characteristics, which include water activity, oxygen while availability and surface area, chemical characteristic include carbohydrates, fat, protein, trace elements and amino acid composition (Manal et al, 2012). High temperatures and relative humidity provide ideal conditions for growth and/or development of moulds with possible production of mycotoxins (Pitt and Hocking, 1997). Excessive moisture in the field and in storage, temperature extremes, humidity, drought, variations in harvesting practices and insect infestations are major environmental factors that determine the severity of mycotoxins contamination (Hussein and Brassel, 2001)

Most fungi are little affected by pH over a broad range, commonly 3 to 8 at high water activities, fungi compete with bacteria as food spoilers. However, the pH of a medium may exercise important control over a given morphogenic event without remarkably influencing the overall growth of a fungus (Pitt and Hocking, 1997). Oxygen is essential for the growth of fungi, but certain species can also grow under anaerobic conditions with the formation of ethanol and organic acids. Oxygen also influences production of mycotoxins. The production of patulin and penicillic acid decrease sharply at low oxygen concentrations, but fungal growth is not noticeably influenced. *Aspergillus* growth is restricted at an oxygen concentration of less than 1% (Pitt and Hocking, 1997). Three fundamental factor exist for the development of fungi and the production of mycotocosis are physical, chemical and biological factors are determined (Gimeno, 2000).

Mycotoxicosis symptoms depend on the mycotoxins involved, on biological systems interaction and on mutual influence between toxin and stress factors (Whitlow *et al.*, 2002). Infections by mold and mycotoxins production can develop at various stages of crop production: in the field, during harvesting and transportation or storage (Martins *et al.*, 2007).

Aspergillus species normally grow at lower water activities and at higher temperatures than do the *Fusarium* species. Therefore, *Aspergillus flavus* and aflatoxin are more likely in corn grown in the heat and drought stress associated with warmer climates. Aflatoxin contamination is enhanced by insect damage before and after harvest. *Penicillium* species grow at relatively low water activities and low temperatures and are widespread in occurrence. Because both *Aspergillus* and *Penicillium* can grow at low water activities, they are considered storage fungi (Christensen *et al.*, 1999).

Implications of Mycotoxins in Livestock and Human Health

The effects of mycotoxicosis in livestock's are diverse, varying from immune suppression to death in severe cases depending on: toxin-related (type of mycotoxins consumed, level and duration of intake), animal-related (animal species, sex, age, breed, general health, immune status, nutritional standing) and environmental (farm management, hygiene, temperature) factors. The consumption of multiple mycotoxins contaminated diet may induce hematological, biochemical and liver physiological changes and growth depression in livestock (Gowda *et al.*, 2008), and thus the presence of mycotoxins in poultry feeds causes significant economic losses to animal industries (Awad *et al.*, 2006).

Ruminants such as cattle, sheep and goats are less

common for their sensitivity to the negative effect of mycotoxins than are non ruminants. However, production (milk, beef or wool) reproduction and growth can be ruminants consume alerted when mycotoxins contaminated feed for extended periods of time (Hussien and Brasel, 2001). Mycotoxins in combination appear to exert greater negative impact on the health and productivity of livestock in comparison to their individual effect (Smith and Seddon, 1998). The impact of reduced animal productivity, increased incidence of disease due to immune suppression, damage to vital organs and interference with reproductive capacity is many times greater than the impact caused by death due to mycotoxins poisoning (Akande et al, 2006).

Consumption of low levels of mycotoxins through the feeds do not cause overt mycotoxicoses, but often predisposes to various infectious diseases and especially to secondary bacterial infections or to a heavy progression of some often encountered parasitic diseases (Koynarski *et al.*, 2007).

Many of these metabolites show some form of biological activity including antibiosis, phytotoxicity and toxicity to livestock and humans. The subset of low-molecular weight secondary metabolites proven to exert significant toxic effects in livestock and humans is defined as mycotoxins (Biro, 2003). Besides having a direct negative impact on animal performance directly related with the molecules' toxicity, mycotoxins have a negative effect in the nutrient uptake, or in other words, they inhibit the absorption of nutrients by the animals (Awad *et al*, 2004). A given fungus may be capable of producing more than one toxin; a given toxin may be produced by different genera of fungi (Fink – Gremmels, 1999). The mycotoxins are in general stable and capable of persisting into final products (Sabater Vilar, 2003).

Prolonged exposure results in an increased susceptibility to secondary diseases caused by viruses, bacteria, and fungi. Frequently, there are synergistic effects between several mycotoxins multiplying adverse influences on the animal's health and production potential. Today, even though there is great experimental evidence characterizing the potential of mycotoxins and moldy feedstuffs to cause animal disease, definitively linking a disease outbreak in the field to specific mycotoxins can be very difficult. Briefly, the problem is that mycotoxins often do not cause acute disease and, when they do, there are often multiple interacting factors that can modify the expression of toxicity (Morgavi and Riley, 2007).

In dairy cows Follicular fluid mycotoxins concentration varies accordingly to the duration of follicular exposition to zearalenone: follicular cysts present a higher concentration of zearalenone than normal follicles (detection rate 35% and 18.8%) (Takagi *et al.* 2008). In an *in vitro* experiment, oocytes were exposed to high concentration of zearalenone for 21 days in order to

simulate acute exposure to zearalenone and it was found that ZEA levels in follicular fluid were often high ,and it reduction of the conception rate. This symptom of infertility can be attributing to prolonged zearalenone intake in dairy cows (Minervini *et al.*, 2008).

Witte et Hooser (2003), zearalenone have various effects on reproductive symptoms: abnormal estrus cycle, vulva wetness, reduced milk production and increased udder size. In monogastrics, kidney damage, dehydration, reduce immune response, lower dry matter intake and lower production may be caused by ochratoxin-A but have no on direct effect on dairy cows (Yiannikouris et Jouany, 2002). T2-toxin effects on heifers' fertility (Huszenicza *et al.*, 2000).

Fumonisins cause neurological disease in horses, indicating multifocal CNS (central nervous system) involvement. The initial clinical signs include depression; in appetence after a period of eating contaminated feed, horses become lethargic and, as neurotoxin effects become apparent, develop uncoordinated movement (blind staggers) (Wilson *et al.*, 1992). Hepatic lesions are less common than CNS lesions in horses exposed to fumonisis. Ruminant's diet generally includes both forages and concentrates (Azam *et al.*, 2009).

In animals, their effects vary with the dose, length of exposure, species, breed, diet or nutritional status. Generally, calves are more susceptible than older animals. It exerts carcinogenic, teratogenic, hepatotoxic and mutagenic effects and also suppresses the immune system of cattle. Aflatoxins exert acute and chronic effects in animals (Aydin *et al.*, 2008). Aflatoxins can cause liver damage, gastrointestinal dysfunction ,reduced productivity, decreased feed utilization and efficiency, decreased reproductive performance , reduced milk or egg production embryonic death, tetratogenicity (birth defects), tumors and suppressed immune system function, even when low level are consumed (Cortyl, 2008).

Among animals, pigs are the most susceptible to vomitoxin, while poultry and ruminants are less susceptible. Clinical signs include gastrointestinal problems, soft stools, diarrhea, increased susceptibility to other diseases and decreased performance. In pigs, mild renal nephrosis, reduced thyroid size, gastric mucosal hyperplasia, increased albumin/alphaglobulin ratio, and sometimes mild changes in other haematological parameters have been reported (JEFCA, 2001). Aflatoxin can decrease egg production and increase liver fat (fatty liver syndrome) (Komesli *et al.*, 2012).

Control measures of mycotoxins in livestock feeds

Mycotoxins can contaminate agricultural product, both in the field as well as during storage. The use of pre-harvest control strategies for such resistance varieties, field 0141

management, the use of biological and chemical agents, harvest management and postharvest applications, including improving drying and storage conditions, together with the use of natural and chemical agents and irradiation have clearly been shown to be important in the prevention of mycotoxigenic mould growth and mycotoxins formation (*CAC*, 2002). The prevention of contamination of corn with fumonisins may be achieved by the use of resistant corn varieties, insect control and seed treatment (Marasas, 1995). At present, the most potent dietary approach to prevent mycotoxicoses in poultry is the use of adsorbents (Surai, 2005).

The use of physical or chemical methods may accomplish detoxification. The effect of heat on fumonisin aqueous solution to 150 °C or higher, or heating moist corn kernels, indicate a significant reduction of fumonisin concentration. However, heating causes hydrolysis of the primary amine group of the fumonisins, leaving the backbone of the molecule intact. Chemical detoxification of fumonisin-contaminated corn can be achieved by treating it with Ca (OH)₂, and significant reductions of FB1 (up to 95%) have been reported (Munkvold and Desjardins, 1997).

Pre-harvest control has involved using agronomic practices, which minimize mycotoxins accumulation in the field. These include proper irrigation, pesticide application in some cases, resistant or adapted hybrids, tillage type, and proper fertilization. Unfortunately, breeding for mycotoxins-resistant hybrids has been only partially successful. Fungicides have shown little efficacy in controlling pre-harvest aflatoxin contamination in corn (Duncan *et al.*, 1994). Improved screening techniques are needed for monitoring mycotoxins occurrence, for diagnosing toxicities, and for prevention and treatment (CAST, 2003).

Detoxification of mycotoxins by chemical applications was not an acceptable practice in some regions, physical separation of contaminated crops was a very important option for the producer . When contamination cannot be prevented at pre-harvest or during the post-harvest stage, decontamination/ detoxification procedures played an important role in helping prevent exposure to the toxic and carcinogenic effect of mycotoxins through the physical separation and physical, chemical and biological inactivation and/or Any detoxification procedure to reduce the toxic and economic impact of mycotoxins needs the following basic criteria : It must destroy, inactivate or remove the mycotoxins in foods and feeds, It must not produce or leave toxic and/or carcinogenic residues in the final products. It should not alter significantly the nutritional and technological properties of the product, It must be capable of destroying fungal spores and mycelia in order to avoiding new toxin forming under favorable conditions, It had to be technically and economically feasible (Kabak et al., 2006).

Cleaning of the maize removed 26.6 to 69.4% of the

fumonisins (Sydenham *et al.*, 2004), while a 40 to 80% reduction in aflatoxin levels were reported after physical cleaning and separation of mould-damaged kernels and seeds (Park, 2002). Cleaning grains removed kernels with extensive mold growth, broken kernels and fine materials, which reduced mycotoxins concentration (Bullerman and Bianchini, 2007).

Extraction with a variety of solvents including ethanol, aqueous isopropanol, methanol-water, and acetonitrilremoved aflatoxins water from contaminated commodities such as cottonseed and peanuts. On the other hand, high cost and problems related to disposal of the toxic extracts restrict its use for large scale application (Rustom, 1997). Chemical compounds (fungicide, herbicide, and surfectant) are known to prevent both mycotoxigenic mould growth and mycotoxins formation during post-harvest season. In addition to application of plant extracts and chemical agents as well as antagonistic microorganisms, such as lactic acid bacteria with their antifungal properties, seem to be potentially very effective in the prevention of mycotoxins formation. The precise antifungal properties of lactic acid bacteria are still largely unresolved but may involve microbial competition (El-Gendy, 1981), as Many strategies to prevent mycotoxins contamination of food and animal feed have been developed (Yılmaz, 2001).

The fluorescence sorting of maize, cottonseed and figs by examination under UV light is known to be the cheapest and the simplest acceptable way for the screening of aflatoxins. It is clear that no single currently available physical or chemical detoxifycation method will be suitable for all foods and animal feeds. The effectiveness of a method in the detoxification of mycotoxins depends on the nature of the food, environmental conditions such as moisture content, temperature, as well as the type of mycotoxins, its concentration and the extent of binding between mycotoxins and constituents (Bata, 1999). Any management practice to maximize plant performance and decrease plant stress will decrease aflatoxin contamination (Widstrom 1996).

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Livestock production is a major source of income in most sub-Saharan countries and they have different source of feed for their livestock depending on their environment and way of production system. Mycotoxins are ubiquitous and have been detected in many parts of the world and are presently considered as one of the most dangerous contaminants of food and animal feeds. Different mycotoxins such as Aflatoxins, Zearalenone, Vomitoxin, Ochratoxin, Fumonisins and T-2 Toxin are produced by fungal genera aspergilus , fusarium and pencillin. Mycotoxins formed before harvesting or post harvesting (storage) of plants or forage materials. Formation of mold as a result mycotoxins in feeds are a major barrier for livestock production as it reduce feed and food availability, risk for health of animal as well human, decrease product and productivity of livestock.

Adverse effect on animal health and production have been recognized in intensively farmed animals such as poultry, swine and cattle as a consequence of the consumption of high level of cereals and oilseeds in the diet. Animals have varying susceptibility to mycotoxins depending on physiological, genetic and environmental factors. Different factors affects for mycotoxins in feeds like physical (water activity, oxygen availability and surface area), chemical (carbohydrates, fat, protein, trace elements and amino acid composition) and environmental (Excessive moisture in the field and in storage, temperature extremes, humidity, drought, variations in harvesting practices and insect infestations).

The effects of mycotoxicosis in livestock's are diverse. varying from immune suppression to death in severe cases, depending on toxin-related (type of mycotoxins consumed, level and duration of intake), animal-related (animal species, sex, age, breed, general health, immune status, nutritional standing) and environmental (farm management, hygiene, temperature). Ruminants such as cattle, sheep and goats are less common for their sensitivity to the negative effect of mycotoxins than are non ruminants. However, production reproduction and growth can be alerted when they consume mycotoxins contaminated feed for extended periods of time. Mycotoxicosis produce a variety of clinical signs, depending on factors such as type and concentrations of mycotoxins, the duration of exposure, and the species, gender, age, and health status of the animal.

Mycotoxins can contaminate agricultural product, both in the field as well as during storage. The use of preharvest control strategies for such resistance varieties, field management, the use of biological and chemical harvest management and postharvest agents. applications, including improving drying and storage conditions, together with the use of natural and chemical agents and irradiation have clearly been shown to be important in the prevention of mould growth and mycotoxins formation. Chemical compounds (fungicide, herbicide) are known to prevent both mould growth and mycotoxins formation during post-harvest season. The effectiveness of a method in the detoxification of mycotoxins depends on the nature of the food, environmental conditions such as moisture content, temperature, as well as the type of mycotoxins. Therefore presences of mycotoxins in feeds have great impacts in livestock and human health.

So to prevent and control their negative impact the following points are forwarded:

Feeds have to be kept hygienically and prevent molds formation by using available methods that is accessible

for them in their environment Aware Extension workers and owner's of livestock on impact of mycotoxins in feeds: implications to livestock and human health.

REFERENCES

- Abbas HK, Mirocha CJ, Pawlosky RJ, Pusch DJ. (1985). Effect of cleaning, milling and baking on deoxynivalenol in wheat. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*. 50:482–486.
- Abedullah NM, Khalid M, Kouser S (2009) The role of agricultural credit in the growth of livestock sector: A case study of Faisalabad. Pakistan Vet. J., 29(2):81-84.
- Akande KE, MM Abubakar, TA Adegbola, Bogoro SE (2006). Nutritional and health implication of mycotoxins in animal feeds: A review. Pak. J. Nutr., 5:398-403
- Ames Iowa USA (2003). Mycotoxins: Risks in Plant, Animal, and Human Systems Council for Agricultural Science and Technology. *Task Force Report* No. 139
- Awad WA, J Böhm, E Razzazi-Fazeli, K Faukal, J Zentek (2006a). Effect of addition of a probiotic microorganism to broiler diets contaminated with deoxynivalenol on performance and histological alterations of intestinal villi of broiler chickens. *Poult. Sci.* 85:974-979.
- Awad WA, Bohm J, Razzazi-Fazeli E, Hulan HW, Zentek J (2004). Effects of deoxynivalenol on general performance and electrophysiological properties of intestinal mucosa of broiler chickens. *Poult. Sci.* 83: 1964–1972.
- Aydin A, U Gunsen, S Demirel (2008). Total aflatoxin B1 and ochratoxin A levels in Turkish wheat flour. J. Food and Drug Analysis, 16(2): 48-53.
- Azam MB, ZH Khan, S Yaqoob, RA Khan (2009). Nature and extent of problems of agrograziers in Bhawalpur district, Pakistan. Pakistan Vet. J., 29(1): 32-34.
- Bata A, L'asztity R, (1999). Detoxification of mycotoxins contaminated food and feed by microorganisms. *Trends Food Sci.Technol.*, 10:223–228, with permission from Elsevier;
- Bennett JW, Klich M (2003). Mycotoxins. Department of Cell and Molecular Biology, Tulane University, New Orleans, Louisiana 70118, USA. Pp: 497-516
- Bhatnagar D, Yu J, Ehrlich KC (2002). Toxins of filamentous fungi. *Chem Immunol.* 81: 167-206.
- Binder EM (2007): Managing the risk of mycotoxins in modern feed production. *Anim. Feed Sci. Technol.*, *133*:149–166.
- Biro KK (2003): Adverse Effects of Deoxynivalenol and Ochratoxin A in Farm Animals. Comparative *in vivo* and *in vitro* studies. Dissertation University of Utrecht, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Department of Veterinary Pharmacology, Pharmacy and Toxicology.
- Bullerman LB, Bianchini Á. (2007): stability of mycotoxins during food processing. *Int J food microbial* 119:140-146
- CAST (2003): Mycotoxins: risks in plant, animal, and human systems. In: J.L. Richard, G.A. Payne (Eds.), Council for Agricultural Science and Technology Task Force Report No. 139, Ames, Iowa, USA.
- Cast, (1989): Mycotoxins: economic and health risk. Council for agricultural science and technology Ammes IA, Casteel SW (2006): "Reproductive toxicants - Mycotoxins" in Current Therapy in Large Animal Theriogenology, ed. Saunders-Elsevier, pag. 425
- Christensen CM, CJ Mirocha, RA Meronuck (1999): "Molds Mycotoxins and Mycotoxicoses". Agricultural Experiment Station Miscellaneous Report 142. University of Minnesota, St. Paul, MN.
- Chroenpornsook K, P Kavisarasai (2006): Mycotoxins in animal feed staff of thialand. KMILT Sci. Tech.J., 6:25-28
- Codex Alimentarius Commission (2002). Proposed draft code of practice for the prevention (reduction) of mycotox in contamination in cereals, including annexes on ochratoxin A, zearalenone, fumonisins and trichothecenes, CX/FAC 02/21, *Joint FAO/WHO Food Standards Programme*, Rotterdam, The Netherlands.
- Čonkova E, Laciakova A, Kovač G, Seidel H (2003). Fusarial Toxins and their Role in Animal Diseases. Vet J 165: 214 – 220.

- Cook WO, Richard JL, Osweiler GD, Trampel DW (1986). Clinical and pathologic changes in acute bovine aflatoxicosis: Rumen motility and tissue and fluid concentrations of aflatoxin BI and MI' *Am J Vet Res.*, 47:1817-1825.
- Cortyl M(2008). Mycotoxins in animal nutrition problems and solutions. http://www.aquafeed.com/does/fiaap2008/cortyl.pdf.
- Coulombe RA (1993). "Biological action of mycotoxins" *Journal of Dairy Science*, vol. 76: Pp. 880-891
- D'mello JPF, AMC Macdonald (1997). .mycotoxins.animal feed sciencetechnology 69: 155-166
- Davis ND, UL Deiner (1983). Some characteristics of toxigenic and nontoxigenic isolates of *Aspergillus flavus* and *Aspergillus parasiticus*.
- Devegowda G, MVL Radu, A Nazar, HVLM Swamy (1998). mycotoxins picture worldwide: novel solutions for their counteraction. Proceeding of alltech's 14th annual symposium on biotechnolohgy in feed industry: passport of the year 2000, (BFI'98), Nottingham university press, Pp: 241-255
- Dorner JW, Cole RJ (2002). Effect of application of nontoxigenic strains of Aspergillus flavus and A. parasiticus on subsequent aflatoxin contamination of peanuts in storage. J. vol.38: Pp 329–339.
- Duncan HE, M Hagler (2008). Aflatoxins and other mycotoxins. Oklahoma Cooperative Extension. Fact Sheet (CR-2105-1203), Oklahoma, USA.
- El-Gendy SM, Marth EH (1981). Growth of aflatoxin production by *Aspergillus parasiticus* in the presence of *Lactobacillus casei*, J *.Food Prot.*, 44:211–212, with permission from Journal of Food Protection;
- Fink-Gremmels J (1999). Mycotoxins: their implications for human and animal health. Vet Q 21 (4): 115-20.
- Fink-Gremmels J (2008). "The role of mycotoxins in the health and performance of dairy cows" *The Veterinary Journal*, vol. 176: Pp. 84-92
- Gareis M, J Ceynowa (1994). Influence of the fungicide Matador (tebuconazole/triadimenol) on mycotoxins production by *Fusarium culmorum*. 198:244- 248.
- Gelderblom WCA, Jaskiewicz K, Marasas WFO, Thiel PG, Horak RM, Vleggaar R, Kriek NPJ (1988). Fumonisins — Novel mycotoxins with cancer-promoting activity produced by *Fusarium moniliforme. Appl. environ. Microbiol.*, 54:1806–1811
- Gimeno A (2000). loshongosylas mycotoxinas enlaalimentaction animal;coceptos, problemas, controle y recomendaciones Pp. 1-49
- Gowda NKS, DR Ledoux, GE Rottinghaus, AJ Bermudez, YC Chen (2008). Efficacy of turmeric (Curcuma longa), containing a known level of curcumin, and a hydrated sodium calcium aluminosilicate to ameliorate the adverse effects of aflatoxin in broiler chicks. *Poult. Sci.* 87:1125-1130.
- Gromadzka K, Waskiewicz A, Golinski P, Swietlik J (2009). Occurance of estrogen mycotoxin-zearalenone in aqueous environmental samples with various NOM content. *Water research* 43:1051-1059
- Haschek WM, Haliburton JC (1986). "Fusarium moniliformis and zearalenone toxicoses in domestic animal: a review" in Diagnosis of Mycotoxicoses, ed. *Richards J.L. and Thurston J.R.*, Pp. 239-245
- Hussein HS, Brasel JM (2001). "Toxicity, metabolism and impact of mycotoxins on human and animals" *Toxicology*, vol. 67: Pp. 101-134
- Huszenicza G, Fakete S, Szigeti M, Febel H, Kellems RO, Nagy P, Cseh S, Veresegyhazy T, Hullar I (2000). "Ovarian consequence of low dose peroral fusarium (T-2) toxin in a ewe and heifer model" Theriogenology, vol. 53: Pp. 1631-1639
- International Agency for Research on Cancer. (1993): Some Naturally Occurring Substances: Food Items and Constituents, Heterocyclic Aromatic Amines and Mycotoxins— Fumonisin B1. *IARC Monogr. Eval. Carcinog. Risks Hum.*, *56*: 245–395.
- Joint Expert Committe on Food Adiitves 56th. (2001): Safety Evaluation of Certain Mycotoxins in Food. WHO Food additives Series, No. 47, Geneva, Switzerland.
- Joffe AZ (1986). "Fusarium Species: Their Biology and Toxicology". John Wiley and Sons, Inc., New York
- Kabak B, Alan D, Var I (2006). Strategies to Prevent Mycotoxin Contamination of Food and Animal Feed: A Review. *Critical*

Reviews in Food Science and Nutrition, Vol.46: Pp. 593-619,

- Kan CA (2005). Chemical residues in poultry and eggs produced in free-range or organic systems. In: Proceedings of the XVII European Symposium on the Quality of Poultry Meat and X European Symposium on the Quality of Eggs and Egg Products, Pp. 28–36.
- Kan CA, Traag WA, Hoogenboom LAP (2003). Voorkomen van PAK's in voer, omgeving van dieren, melk en zuivelproducten alsmede een ori enterende studie inmelkvee. ASG *Report* 03/0027745.
- Kennedy DG, Hewitt SA, McEvoy JD, Currie JW, Cannavan A, Blachflower WJ, Elliot CT (1998). "Zeranol is formed from fusarium spp. toxins in cattle in vivo" Food Additives and Contaminats, vol. 15: Pp. 393-400
- Kiessling K, Pettersson H, Sandholm K, Olsen M (1984). "Metabolism of aflatoxin, ochratoxin, zearalenone and three trichothecenes by intact rumen fluid, rumen protozoa and rumen bacteria" Applied and EnvironmentalMicrobiology, vol.47: Pp. 1070-1073
 Klang DT, BJ Kennedy, SV Pathre, CJ Mirocha. (1978): Binding
- Klang DT, BJ Kennedy, SV Pathre, CJ Mirocha. (1978): Binding characteristics of zearalenone analogs to estrogen receptors. *Cancer Research* 38:3611
- Klich MA, Arthur KS, Lax AR, Blang JM (1994). Iturin A: a potential new fungicide for soared grains. *Mycopathologia*, 127: 123 127.
- Komesli O et al. (2012). Aflatoxin species: their health effects and determination methods in different foodstuffs. *Cent.Euro. Jour. of Chem.*,10(3): 675-85.
- Kuiper-Goodman T (2004). Risk assessment and risk management of mycotoxins in food. In: Magan N, Olsen M, editors. Mycotoxins in food. Cambridge, England.
- Kuiper-Goodman T, Scott PM, Watanabe H (1987). Risk assessment of the mycotoxin zearalenone. Regul. Toxicol. Pharmacol. 7: 253–306.
- Kurtzman CP, Horn BW, Hesseltine CW (1987). Aspergillus nomius, a new aflatoxin- producing species related to Aspergillus flavus. Antonie van Leeuwenhoek 53: 147–158.
- Lacey J (1991). Natural occurrence of mycotoxins in growing and conserved forage crops. *In:* Mycotoxins and Animal Foods JE. Smith and R. E. Henderson (eds.), CRC Press, Boca Raton, Florida.
- Lynch (2005). Mycotoxins management. African farming and food processing. 46:12-13 (January/ February, issue).
- Manal M Zaki, SA. El-Midany, HM Shaheen, Laura Rizzi (2012). Mycotoxins in animals: Occurrence, effects, prevention and management Journal of Toxicology and Environmental Health Sciences Vol. 4(1): Pp. 13-28.
- Marasas WFO (1995). Fumonisins: Their implications for human and animal health. *Nat.Tox.* 3: 193-198.
- Martins HM, Mendes Guerra, MM d'Almeida Bernardo FM (2007). Occurrence of aflatoxin B1 in dairy cow's feed over 10 years in Portugal (1995–2004). *Rev. Iberoam. Micol.*, *24*: 69–71
- Minervini F, Dell'Aquila ME (2008). "Zearalenone and reproductive function in farm animals" *International Journal of Molecular Sciences*, vol. 9: Pp. 2570- 2584
- Morgavi DP, Riley RT (2007). An historical overview of field disease outbreaks known or suspected to be caused by consumption of feed contaminated with Fusarium toxins. *Anim. Feed Sci. Technol.*, 137: 201–212.
- Munkvold GP, AE Desjardins (1997). Fumonisins in maize: can we reduce their occurrence? *Plant Dis.* 81:556-565.
- Nelson PE, AE Desjardins, RD Plattner (1993). Fumonisins, mycotoxins produced by *Fusarium* species: Biology, chemistry and significance. In: R.J. Cook, (Ed) Ann. *Rev. Phytopathol.* 31:233-249.
- Okoli IC, AA Omed, IP Ogbuewu,IC.Ekwuagana, GE Ndujihe *et al.*, (2007a). frequency of mycoflora from commercial poultry feeds and feed raw material in the humid tropical environment of Imo state, Nigeria. Proceeding of 12th annual conference of animal science association Nigeria, Pp: 115-115
- Omed AA (2008). Critical issues in poultry feed quality evualation in Nigeria. Proceedings of the 23 rd worlds poultry congress, june 29-july 4, Brisbane, Austrlia, Pp: 455-455
- Osweiler GD (2000). Mycotoxins contemporary issues of food animal health and productivity. Vet *Clin North Am Food Anim Pract*
- 16: 511–530.
- Park DL (2002). Effect of processing on aflatoxin. *Adv Exp Med Biol* 504:173–179.

- Petska JJ (2007). "Deoxynivalenol: toxicity, mechanisms and animal health risks" *Animal Feed and Science Technology*, vol. 137: Pp. 283-298
- Pierre AC, JL Richard, SJ Cysewski (2007). The implication of mycotoxin in animal diseases J. Amer. Vet. Med. Assoc., 176(8): 719-722.
- Pitt JI, Hocking AD (1997). Fungi and food spoilage, 2nd edn. London: blackie academic and professional
- Ratcliff J (2002). The role of mycotoxins in food safety and feed safety. Presented at AFMA (Animal feed manufacturers association) on the 16th August, 2002. http://www.facs.org.Uk
- Ray AC, Abbitt B, Cotter SR, Murphy MJ, Reagor JC, Robinson RM, West JE, Whitford HW (1986). "Bovine abortion and death associated with consumptionof aflatoxin-contaminated peanuts" Journal of AmericanVeterinaryMedical Association, vol. 188: Pp. 1187-1188
- Richard JL (2007). Some major mycotoxins and their mycotoxicoses an overview. Int J Food Microbiol 119: 310.
- Robens J, Cardwell K (2003). The costs of mycotoxins management to the USA: management of aflatoxins in the United States. *J Toxicol Toxin Rev* 2–3: 143–156.
- Rustom IYS (1997). Aflatoxin in food and feed: occurrence, legislation and inactivation by physical methods. Food Chem 59(1):57–67.
- Sabater Vilar M (2003). Assessment and Intervention of Food- and Feed-borne mycotoxicoses. Dissertation University of Utrecht, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Departement of Veterinary Pharmacology, Pharmacy and Toxicology.
- Saforza S, C Dall'Asta, R Marcheli (2006). Recent advances in mycotoxin determinaton in food and feed by hyphenated chromatographic techniques/ mass spectrometry. Mass Spectrom. Rev., 25: 54- 76.
- Samapundo S, F Devliehgere, B De Meulenaer, J Debevere (2005). Effect of water activity and temperature on growth and the relationship between fumonisin production and the radial growth of fusarium verticillioides and fusarium proliferatum on corn. J. Food Prot. 68: 1054-1059.
- Santin E (2005). Mould growth and mycotoxin production. In: Diaz DE, eds. The Mycotoxin Blue Book.
- Scott PM, T Delgado, DB Prelusky, HL Trenholm, JD Miller (1994). Determination of fumonosin in milk. J. Environ. Sci. Health, 29: 989-998.
- Seglar WJ, Mahanna WC, (1995). Mold and Mycotoxin Update. Pioneer Hi-Bred Intl. Sharma R.P. (1993): "Immunotoxicity of mycotoxins" Journal of Dairy Science, vol. 76: Pp. 892-897
- Smith TK, IR Seddon (1998). Toxicological synergism between Fusarium mycotoxins in feeds. In: biotechnology in the feed industry. Lyons, T.P. and K,A. Jacques, (Eds.). Nottingham university press, Loughborough, Uk., Pp: 257-269
- Steyn PS (1998). The biosynthesis of mycotoxins. Revuede medicine Veterinaire 149: 469–478.
- Sudakin DL (2003). Trichothecenes in the environment: Relevance to human health. Toxicol. Lett. 143:97-107.
- Surai PF, Diorska JE (2005). effects of mycotoxins on antioxidant status and huminity, in: the mycotoxins blue book, Diaz D.E(ed.),Nottingham, UK,university press, Pp 93-137
- Sydenham EW, Shephard GS, Thiel PG, Marasas WFO, Stockenström S (1991). Fumonisins contamination of commercial maize-based human foodstuffs. Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry 39: 2014–2018.
- Takagi M, Mukai S, Kuriyagawa T, Takagaki K, Uno S, Kokushi E, Otoi T, Budiyanto A, Shirasuna K, Miyamoto A, Kawamura O, Okamoto K, Deguchi E (2008). "Detection of zearalenone and its metabolites in naturally contaminated follicular fluids by using LC/MS/MS and in vitro effects of zearalenoneon oocyte maturation in cattle" Reproductive Toxicology, vol. 26: Pp. 164-169
- Te Giffel MC, Driehuis F, Spanjer MC, Scholten JM (2008). " Occurrence of mycotoxins in feedstuffs of dairy cows and estimation of total dietary intakes.

- Trenholm HL, DB Prelusky, JC Young, JD Miller (1988). "Reducing Mycotoxins in Animal Feeds, Publication 1827E, Cat. No. A63-1827/1988E, Agriculture Canada, Ottawa.
- Voss KA, Haschek WM (2007). Fumonisins: toxicokinetics, mechanism of action and toxicity. In: Morgavi DP, Riley RT (Eds.), *Fusarium* and their toxins: Mycology, occurrence, toxicity, control and economic impact. Anim. Feed Sci. Technol.
- Whitlow LW, Hagler WM (2002). "Mycotoxin contamination of feedstuff -An additional stress factor for dairy cattle"http://www.cals.ncsu.edu/an sci/ extension/dairy/mycoto~1.pdf
- Widstrom NW (1996). The aflatoxin problem with corn grain. Pp 219– 280. In D. Sparks (Ed.). *Advances in Agronomy*. Academic Press, New York.
- Wilson TM, PF Ross DL Owens, LG Rice. SA Green, SJ Jenkins, HA Nelson (1992). Experimental reproduction of ELEM. A study to determine the minimum toxic dose in ponies. *Mycopathologia* 117:115-120.
- Witte C, Hooser S (2003). "The presence, effect and diagnosis of zearalenone in dairy cattle" http://www.micotoxinas.com.br/boletim48.pdf
- Yiannikouris A., Jouany J. (2002). "Mycotoxins in feeds and their fate in animals: a review" Animal Research, vol. 51, Pp. 81-99
- Yılmaz A., Ozay G (2001). Gıda ve yemlerde mikotoksinlerin detoksifi kasyonu, Gıda Dergisi, 7:80-84;
- yumbe-Guevara BE, Imoto T, Yoshizawa T (2003). Effects of heatingprocedures on deoxynivalenol, nivalenol and zearalenone levels innaturally contaminated barley and wheat. Food Addit. Contam., 20:1132 –1140.
- Zinedine A, Soriano JM, Moltò JC, Manes J (2007). "Reviw on the toxicity, occurence, metabolism, detoxification, regulation and intake of zearalenone: an oestrogenic mycotoxin" Food and Chemical Toxicology, vo. 45: Pp. 1-18
- Zinedine A, J Manes (2008). Occurrence and legislations of mycotoxin in food and feed from morocco. Food Control, 20: 334-344.