AFLATOXIN AND FUMONISIN CONTAMINATION OF MAIZE AND BEANS ALONG THE FOOD AND FEED VALUE CHAIN IN BABATI DISTRICT, TANZANIA

CHACHA JOSEPH NYANGI

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN PARTIALFULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF SCIENCE IN FOOD SCIENCE OF SOKOINE UNIVERSITY OF AGRICULTURE.

MOROGORO, TANZANIA.

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

The natural occurrence of aflatoxins and fumonisins in maize and beans at harvest, during storage and along the value chain, including processed, feed and marketed products in three villages of Long, Sabilo and Seloto in Babati District, Manyara region, Tanzania, was investigated in the year 2013/14. The villages were chosen as they represents three different climatic zone. Total aflatoxins and fumonisins contamination in 440 at harvest maize samples had levels up to 26.2 µg/kg and 46.2 mg/kg, respectively. Aflatoxins contamination in 38 common beans samples had levels up to 3 µg/kg. The aflatoxin and fumonisin contamination in all beans samples were within the maximum tolerable limit (MTL) of 10 µg/kg and 2 mg/kg respectively, by East African Commission standards (EAC, 2011b). Parameter estimates from the generalised linear model (GENMOD) indicated that medium altitude low rain zone that lies between 1500 and 1850 metre above sea level (m.a.s.l) and representing Sabilo village (0.26) was the major factor predisposing maize to aflatoxin contamination, while early planting (-0.22), hand hoe tillage (-0.59) and ox tillage (-0.55) were the major factor reducing the aflatoxin contamination. High altitude high rainzone (Long village) that lies between 2150 and 2450 m.a.s.l was the most important factor reducing fumonisin contamination in maize with a parameter estimate of -2.93. Total aflatoxin and fumonisin levels were also determined in 574 maize and 106 bean samples stored by 60 farmers over a period of 180 days from august, 2013 to March, 2014. Maize samples from Seloto village were more contaminated (mean value of 3.24 µg/kg) than those from Sabilo village (mean value of 3.12 µg/kg). Factors associated with higher aflatoxin contamination were storage for 0 to 80 days and storage with other crops, while for fumonisin most influential factor was storage of maize in granaries comparing to polypropylene and improved bags. The storage technique or facility that had a higher risk of aflatoxin development was polypropylene bags without any insecticides treatment (control) with a mean contamination value of 3.57 µg/kg and polypropylene bags with insecticides and pesticides treatment (normally used by most of farmers) with a mean value of 3.30 µg/kg. Lower aflatoxin levels were related to the use of traditional storage insecticides, sorting, and storage in improved bags. Among the maize and beans samples collected from the market (vendors) and from processors (small-scale mills) were whole maize grains, maize flour, feed (maize bran and bad-sorted maize not fit for human consumption but normally fed to animals) produced locally from the three villages. Maize bran had highest levels of aflatoxin with a mean value of 2.38 µg/kg and bad sorted portion with fumonisins mean value of 7.42 mg/kg, followed by whole maize with a mean aflatoxin value of 1.73 µg/kg and maize bran with a fumonisin mean value 1.02 mg/kg, while, dehulled maize was least contaminated with fumonisin. During milling mycotoxin become concentrated in bran that most commonly become animal feed. This would reduce the mycotoxins levels in the fraction that is normally used for food (maize flour and dehulled maize). All animal feed grade grain materials had levels lower than MTL of 20 µg/kg for total aflatoxin and a range of 5 to 100 mg/kg for total fumonisin (FAO, 2004; FDA, 2001). The observations made in this study call for use of best practices along the commodity value chain that can reduce contamination in order to improve food and feed safety.

DECLARATION

I, Chacha J. Nyangi do hereby declare to the Senate of	Sokoine University of Agriculture
that this dissertation is my own original work done wi	thin the period of registration and
that it has neither been submitted nor being concurrently	y submitted in any other institution
for a degree award.	
Chacha J. Nyangi	Date
(MSc. Food Science)	
The above declaration is confirmed;	
Prof. J. K. Mugula	Date
(Supervisor)	
Dr. Fen Beed	Date
(Supervisor)	

COPYRIGHT

No part of this dissertation may be reproduced, stored in any retrieval system, or transmitted in any form or by any means without prior written permission of the author or the Sokoine University of Agriculture in that behalf.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My sincere appreciation goes to my supervisors Prof. Jovin K. Mugula and Dr. Fen Beed who tirelessly guided me right from the time of proposal development up to the end of this study. I am grateful to the Innovative Agricultural Research Initiatives (iAGRI) for providing this scholarship, through the support of United States Agency for International Development (USAID). Iam also grateful to International Institute of Tropical Agriculture (IITA) under the support of African research in intensification for the next generation (Africa RISING) Eastern and Southern Africa project on sustainable intensification of farming systems, for provision of technical and working facilities as well as covering part of research cost for this study. I also thank Mr Simon Boniface, Koyano Emmanuel and Grace Michael, staff of IITA-Tanzania for their tireless support, advice and encouragement during research period. Special thanks also go to Prof. Bekunda Mateete of Africa - RISING for visiting Sokoine University of Agriculture (SUA) in collaboration with IITA and iAGRI and gave me an opportunity to be attached at IITA. All my colleagues especially, Winifrida Nyamete you were always there for me whenever things would become tough, but also you gave me encouragement even before the development of the proposal. I thank Mr Godwin Mwamkinga, Principal at the Ministry of Agriculture Training Institute (MATI) Uyole Mbeya, you picked me up when I was down. In fair honesty, it is impossible to mention everyone. I am immensely indebted for their help in and outside of the study, but to those I didn't mention, thank you and may you be blessed with only the best in your lives.

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my mother Mrs. Esther Nyangi Mkono, who has always been my source of inspiration, and to my wife Blanka Bonaventura Minja and our beloved daughter Rhobi Renske Chacha, whose support and perseverance enabled me to conduct and complete this study.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

EXT	ENDED ABSTRACT	ii
DEC	CLARATION	iv
COP	YRIGHT	v
ACK	NOWLEDGEMENTS	vi
DED	DICATION	vii
TAB	SLE OF CONTENTS	viii
LIST	T OF TABLES	xiv
FIGU	URE	xvi
LIST	T OF APPENDICES	xvii
LIST	OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS	xviii
CHA	APTER ONE	1
1.0	INTRODUCTION	1
1.1	Aflatoxins	2
1.2	Fumonisins	4
1.3	Maize and Bean Production and Consumption in Tanzania	5
1.4	Current Status of Mycotoxins in Africa	6
	1.4.1 Maize	6
	1.4.2 Beans	8
	1.4.3 Animal feeds	8
1.5	Factors Affecting the Incidence of Mycotoxigenic Fungi and Mycotoxins	9
	1.5.1 Climatic conditions	9
	1.5.2 Soil conditions and nutrients availability	10
	1.5.3 Tillage method	10
	1.5.4 Pest infestation	11
1.6	Pre Harvest Practices to Mitigate Aflatoxin and Fumonisin Contamination	11

	1.6.1	Time of Planting	11
	1.6.2	Time of harvesting	12
	1.6.3	Crop rotation	13
	1.6.4	Bio-control	13
	1.6.5	Use of resistant varieties	13
1.7	Post-ha	rvest Practices to Mitigate Aflatoxin and Fumonisin Contamination	14
	1.7.1	Drying conditions	14
	1.7.2	Storage factors	15
	1.7.3	Physical separation and hygiene	16
	1.7.4	Lack of awareness about mycotoxins	16
1.8	Problem	Statement and Justification	17
	1.8.1	Objectives	18
		1.8.1.1 Main objective	18
		1.8.1.2 Specific objectives	18
		1.8.1.3 List of manuscripts	18
REF	ERENC	ES	19
CHA	APTER T	WO	32
2.0	Aflatox	in and Fumonisin Contamination at harvest Maize and Beans in three	
	villages	s in Babati District, Tanzania	32
2.1	Abstrac	zt	32
2.2	Introdu	ction	33
2.3	Materi	als and Methods	35
	2.3.1	Study area	35
	2.3.2	Selection of farmers	35
	2.3.3	Sample collection	36
	2.3.4	Quantification of total aflatoxin and fumonisin	36

	2.3.5	Statistical analysis	37
2.4	Results		38
	2.4.1	Characteristics of the farmers and their farming systems.	38
	2.4.2	Agronomic practices used by farmers villages	39
	2.4.3	Total aflatoxin and fumonisin content in maize and beans	39
	2.4.4	Agronomic practices associated with aflatoxin and fumonisin	
		levels in maize and beans	41
2. 5	Discuss	ion	42
	2.5.1	General aflatoxin and fumonisin contamination in maize	42
	2.5.2	General aflatoxin and fumonisin contamination in beans	43
	2.5.3	Effect of Agriculture practices and climatic zones on contamination	
		of maize and beans with aflatoxin and fumonisin	44
		2.5.3.1 Climatic zone	44
		2.5.3.2 Planting time	45
		2.5.3.3 Land tillage method	46
2. 6	Conclus	sion	47
Ackr	nowledgn	nent	47
REF	ERENCE	ES	48
СНА	PTER T	HREE	54
3.0	The Infl	uence of Storage Practices on Aflatoxin and Fumonisin	
	Contam	ination of Maize and Beans in Babati District Tanzania	54
3.1	Abstrac	t	54
3.2	Introduc	ction	55
3.3	Materia	ls and Methods	56
	3.3.1	Study area	56
	332	Selection of farmers	57

	3.3.3	Sample collection	.57
	3.3.4	Quantification of total aflatoxin and fumonisin	.58
	3.3.5	Statistical analysis	.59
3.4	Results		.59
	3.4.1	Characteristics of farmers	.59
	3.4.2	Storage practices used by farmers in the study area	.60
		3.4.2.1 Storage structures	.60
		3.4.2.2 Sorting	.60
		3.4.2.3 Drying	.61
		3.4.2.4 Stores treatment	.61
		3.4.2.5 Grain treatment	.61
		3.4.2.6 Storage pests	.62
		3.4.2.7 Storage with other crops	.62
	3.4.3	Total aflatoxin and fumonisin content in maize and beans	.63
	3.4.4	Storage practices significantly associated with aflatoxin and	
		fumonisin in maize and beans	.67
3.5	Discuss	sion	.68
	3.5.1	Aflatoxin and fumonisin contamination in maize	.68
	3.5.2	Aflatoxin and fumonisin contamination in beans	.69
	3.5.3	Storage factors significantly associated with aflatoxin and	
		fumonisin contamination in stored Maize	.70
		3.5.3.1 Sorting	.70
		3.5.3.2 Storage structure	.70
		3.5.3.3 Storage length	.71
		3.5.3.4 Grain treatment	.72
3 6	Conclus	sion	72

Ack	nowledg	ment	73
REF	ERENC:	ES	74
CHA	APTER F	OUR	78
4.0	Aflatox	sin and Fumonisin Contamination of Maize and Common	
	Bean-E	Based Market, Processed and Feeds in Babati District, Tanzania	78
4.1	Abstrac	et	78
4.2	Introdu	ction	79
4.3	Materia	als and Methods	81
	4.3.1	Study area	81
	4.3.2	Selection of farmers/vendors	81
	4.3.3	Samples collection	82
	4.3.4	Quantification of total aflatoxin and fumonisin	82
	4.3.5	Statistical analysis	83
4.4	Results	S	84
	4.4.1	Descriptive results	84
	4.4.2	Prevalence and mean value for aflatoxin and fumonisin in maize	
		and beans	85
4.5	Discuss	sion	88
	4.5.1	Maize and beans samples from market	88
	4.5.2	Aflatoxin and fumonisin occurrence in maize and maize by	
		products from small-scale mills	89
	4.5.3	Aflatoxin and fumonisin occurrence in animal feeds	91
4.6	Conclu	sion	91
Ack	nowledg	ment	92
REFERENCES		93	

CHA	APTER FIVE	98
5.0	Conclusions and Recommendations	98
5.1	Conclusions	98
5.2	Recommendations	99
APP	ENDICES	.102

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1:	Demographic characteristics of farmers across three villages	38
Table 2.2:	Agronomic practices used by farmers across three villages	39
Table 2.3:	Incidence and mean of total aflatoxin and fumonisin in maize and	
	bean samples across three villages	40
Table 2.4:	Incidence and mean of total aflatoxin and fumonisin contamination	
	in maize and bean samples in each villages.	40
Table 2.5:	Agronomic practices significantly associated with aflatoxin	
	contamination in maize (Y) tested across three villages	41
Table 2.6:	Agronomic practices significantly associated with fumonisin	
	contamination in maize (Y) tested across three villages	42
Table 3.1:	Demographic characteristics of farmers across three villages	60
Table 3.2:	Storage practices practiced by farmers across three villages	63
Table 3.3:	Occurrence/prevalence of aflatoxin and fumonisin in maize and	
	beans across three villages	64
Table 3.4:	Mean total aflatoxin and fumonisin content in maize and beans	
	in each village.	64
Table 3.5:	Mean total aflatoxin and fumonisin content in maize and beans	
	stored in different storage structures across three villages	65
Table 3.6:	Mean total aflatoxin and fumonisin content in maize and beans	
	during storage across three villages	66
Table 3.7:	Mean total aflatoxin and fumonisin content in sorted maize across	
	three villages	66
Table 3.8:	Storage practices/factors significantly associated with aflatoxin	
	contamination in maize (Y) across three villages	67

Table 3.9:	Storage practices/factors significantly associated with fumonisins	
	in Maize (Y) across three villages	68
Table 4.1:	Overall occurrence/prevalence of aflatoxin and fumonisin in	
	maize, maize products and beans across three villages.	86
Table 4.2:	Overall mean total aflatoxin and fumonisin content in maize	
	and maize by products in each village.	86
Table 4.3:	Total aflatoxin contamination in maize and maize products across	87
Table 4.4:	Total fumonisin contamination in maize and maize by-products	87

FIGURE

Figure 4.1: Mean value for maize-based samples from market, processors	
and animal feed	85

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix 1:	Questionnaire administered to farmers, vendors and processors in	
	the three villages for maize and beans samples	102
Appendix 2:	Sampling Protocol for Maize and Beans From Field, Farmers	
	Store, Processors and Market in Long, Seloto and Sabilo villages	
	in Babati. Tanzania	108

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

 AFB_1 Aflatoxin B_1

AFB₂ Aflatoxin B₂

 AFG_1 Aflatoxin G_1

AFG₂ Aflatoxin G_2

EAC East Africa Community

FB₁ Fumonisin B₁

CIAT International Centre for Tropical Agriculture

CRM Certified Reference Materials

DAICO District Agriculture, Irrigation and Cooperative Officer

ELISA Enzyme Linked Immunosorbent Assay

EU European Union

FDA Food and Drugs Authority

FAO Food and Agriculture Organization

GPS Global Positioning System

GSP Good Storage Practices

HCC Hepatocellular Carcinoma

iAGRI Innovative Agricultural Research Initiative

IARC International Agency for Research on Cancer

IITA International Institute of Tropical Agriculture

LC-MS/MS Liquid Chromatography tandem Mass Spectrometer

LOD Limit of Detection

LSMEANS Least Square Means

MATI Ministry of Agriculture Training Institute

μg/Kg Microgram per Kilogram (ppm)

Mg/Kg Milligram per Kilogram (ppb)

MTL Maximum Tolerable Limits

MT Metric Tones

NM-AIST Nelson Mandela African Institute of Science and Technology

NTD Neural Tube Defect

RPM Revoultion per minutes

SAS Statistical Analysis System

SE Standard Error

SUA Sokoine University of Agriculture

UK United Kingdom

USA United States of America

USAID United States Agency for International Development

USDA-ARS Southern Regional Research Center of the United States

UV Ultra Violet

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Mycotoxins are toxic secondary metabolites produced in agricultural crops and food and feed products, by moulds belonging to various genera such as *Aspergillus, Penicillium, Fusarium* and *Byssochlamys* (Aziz *et al.*, 2012; Bosco and Mollea, 2012). They are low molecular weight toxic metabolites, that when ingested, inhaled or absorbed through the skin have the potential to seriously affect human and animal health by acute and chronic effects such as the induction of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC), liver cancer or sudden death due to acute toxicity in the case of aflatoxins (Lewis *et al.*, 2005). This also reduces the efficiency of immunological system and retards growth and development of children (Bandyopadhyay, 2010; Kimanya *et al.*, 2010). Fumonisins produced by *Fusarium* spp. cause oesophageal cancer and neural tube defect leading to abortion (Marasas *et al.*, 2008; Bhat and Miller, 2010; Mahuku and Silla, 2011). Mycotoxicosis has been defined as diseases or physiological abnormalities resulting from exposure to mycotoxins (Piñeiro, 2008). It is estimated that mycotoxins contaminate 25% of agricultural crops worldwide (Zain, 2011).

Exposure of mycotoxins to human can be either through direct consumption of plant products contaminated with the toxins, or indirect through the consumption of animal products containing residual amounts of the mycotoxin ingested by the food-producing animals, through contact of skin with mould infected substrates and inhalation of sporeborne toxins (Boutrif and Bessy, 2001; Bennet and Klich, 2003). Animals' exposure can be through the consumption of feedstuffs contaminated with mycotoxins, contact of skin with mould infected substrates and through inhalation of spore-borne toxins (Bennet and Klich, 2003).

Mycotoxigenic moulds also cause direct economic losses by spoiling grain, which can result in lowered export earnings by most of the developing countries that cannot comply with the stricter lucrative markets' regulations (Hell et al., 2005). Commodities contaminated with aflatoxins have a lower market value and often are consumed locally, since they cannot be exported. At the farm level, animals fed with aflatoxin-contaminated grains have lower productivity and slower growth resulting in serious economic problems (Erick, 2003; Ting, 2010). Levels of mycotoxins acceptable in foods in developed countries have been lowered with the maximum limit for aflatoxin B₁ in the European Union as 5 μ g/kg and 10 μ g/kg for sum of Aflatoxin B_1 , B_2 , G_1 and G_2 in food (European Commission, 2010), while the limit set for total aflatoxin by United States Food and Drug Administration is 20 µg/kg (FDA, 2001) and for East African Commission the limit is 10 μg/kg (EAC, 2011a, b). Maximum tolerated levels for total fumonisins in food intended for direct human consumption in East African Community is 2 mg/kg (EAC, 2011a,b), while for European Union the limit is 1mg/kg (European commission, 2010) and, for USA the limit is 2 mg/kg for maize products and 4 mg/kg for maize grain food (FDA, 2001).

1.1 Aflatoxins

Aflatoxins are acute and chronic toxicity, immunosuppressive, mutagenic, teratogenic, genotoxic and carcinogenic compounds produced by two major *Aspergillus* species; *A. flavus* which produces aflatoxin B₁ and B₂, and *Aspergillus parasiticus* which produce aflatoxin G₁, G₂, B₁ and B₂ (Filazi and Sireli, 2013; Omar, 2013). The "B" and "G" refer to the blue and green fluorescent colors produced under UV light on thin layer chromatography plates, and the subscript numbers 1 and 2 indicate major and minor compounds respectively (Dhanasekaran *et al.*, 2011).

The source of aflatoxins are from agricultural commodities like oil seeds such as groundnut, soybean, sunflower and cotton; tree nuts such as almonds, pistachio, walnuts and coconut; cereals like maize, sorghum, pearl millet, rice and wheat; spices like cumin, cinnamon, clove, black pepper, cardamom, ginger, and coriander; vegetables, milk, meat and dried fruits (Marasas *et al.*, 2008; Wild and Gong, 2010).

Aspergillus contamination can attack crops while in the field and that high moisture, high temperatures, drought and heat stress and low soil moisture content in field usually favour the growth of this fungus and toxin production. (Okoth and Kola, 2012; Milani, 2013), the infection and contamination continue during harvest, transport, processing and storage especially when the storage environment is humid and warm (Okoth and Kola, 2012).

The negative effects of aflatoxins on human health can well be classified as either acute toxicity which results in rapid onset of an adverse effect from a single exposure or chronic toxicity which is the slow or delayed onset of an adverse effect, usually from long-term exposures, depending on the kind of toxin and the amount ingested (Omar, 2013). The order of acute and chronic toxicity is AFB₁>AFG₁> AFB₂> AFG₂ (Filazi and Sireli, 2013). Aflatoxins also are responsible for the malabsorption of various nutrients, modification of micronutrients, and uptake of vitamin A and D leading to nutritional deficiencies, immunosuppressive, malnutrition and stunted growth and hence the development of kwashiorkor and marasmus in infants (Bandyopadhyay, 2010; Bbosa *et al.*, 2013). Lizárraga-Paulín *et al.* (2011) reported that aflatoxins impair growth in animals and are immunosuppressive, with B aflatoxin found to induce liver and kidney tumors in rodents. Aflatoxins can affect almost all the different body systems and hence the health of the affected individuals as it is the case in poor developing nations of south East Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa (Lizárraga-Paulín *et al.*, 2011), where there is poor pre- and post-

harvest practices like poor harvesting, processing and storage which encourage the growth of mold and mycotoxins production (Bbosa *et al.*, 2013).

Among all aflatoxins, the Aflatoxin B₁ (AFB₁) is the most potent carcinogen in human and animals, and may interfere with normal process of protein synthesis as well as inhibition of several metabolic systems thus causing damages to various organs especially the liver, kidney and heart (Mohammed and Metwally, 2009; Zain, 2011). Most of aflatoxin B₁ and B₂ ingested by mammals are eliminated through urine and faeces, however a fraction is bio transformed in the liver and excreted together with milk in the form of aflatoxin M₁ and aflatoxin M₂, respectively (Sadeghi *et al.*, 2009; Mulunda *et al.*, 2013). Aflatoxins have been assessed and classified as class 1 human carcinogen, a highly poisonous toxic substances by the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC, 1993).

1.2 Fumonisins

Fumonisins are well-known mycotoxins first described in 1988 by Gelderblom *et al.* being produced by *Fusarium* spp. of the *Gibberella fujikuroi* complex *by Fusarium verticillioides* and *Fusarium proliferatum*. But could also be produced by *F. anthophilum*, *F. becomiforme*, *F. dlamini*, *F. Globosum*, *F. napiforme*, *F. nygamai*. *F. oxysporum*, *F. polyphialidicum*, *F. subglutinans* and *F. thapsinum* (Sydenham *et al.*, 1997). Fumonisins B₁ and B₂ are of toxicological significance, while the others (B₃, B₄, A₁ and A₂) occur in very low concentrations and are less toxic (Perraica, 1999). Fumonisins occur in maize and infrequently in foodstuffs such as sorghum, asparagus, rice, beans and beer (Creppy, 2002; Zain, 2011), and animal feed from maize sources (Morgensen *et al.*, 2010).

The effect of fumonisin on humans has not been fully established, but much evidence suggests a role in human oesophageal cancer from consumption of fumonisin-contaminated maize and maize based products in South Africa, specifically to regions where maize was their staple food (Marasas *et al.*, 2008), this was also the case in northern Italy (Franceschi *et al.*, 1990) and also cause liver cancer in addition to oesophageal cancer in China (Ueno *et al.*, 1997). Fumonisin were also found to be associated with stunting and underweight in Tanzania (Kimanya *et al.*, 2010). It was also reported that Fumonisin B₁ causes cranial neural tube defects (NTD) a defect of the brain and spinal cord in the embryo that results from failure of the neural tube to close (Blom *et al.*, 2006). In 1990 and 1991, NTD outbreak was reported to occur along Texas-Mexico border and it was suggested that the outbreak might have been caused by high levels of fumonisin B₁ that had been reported in corn in the previous season (Missmer *et al.*, 2006). A similar outbreak was also reported in China and South Africa in regions with high corn consumption (Stockmann-Juvala and Savolaine, 2008).

1.3 Maize and Bean Production and Consumption in Tanzania

Maize is the second agricultural commodity in terms of production after cassava in Tanzania and production was 4 700 000 MT, with a yield of 1 175 Kg/ha and a total of about four million hectares harvested annually and accounting for 511 KCal/Day of dietary calories to Tanzanian (FAOSTAT, 2013). The crop is mainly cultivated during two rain seasons, short-duration rains (*vuli*") and long-duration rains (*masika*) and grown almost in all regions in the country, though the productivity is more in the high rainfall areas of Tanzania, such as, southern highlands, the Lake Victoria zone, and the northern zone (Temu *et al.*, 2010).

Despite the importance of maize as a staple food to most Tanzanians, it is mostly produced by small-scale farmers approximately 80% most of them own farm of up to 10 ha per household and account for about 85% of the maize produced in the country (Amani, 2004). In the study area, maize is commonly used to prepare typical meals such as *uji* (porridge), *ugali* (stiff porridge), *kande* (boiled maize grits and beans mixture).

The common bean (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.) is the most important food legume in the world (CIAT, 2001). Production levels in Tanzania was 1 150 000 MT, with a yield of 8846 Kg/ha and a total of about 1 300 000 hectares harvested annually (FAOSTAT, 2013). Tanzania is a major common bean producing country in East Africa (Fivawo and Msola, 2011), with a quarter to one third of the households sell their beans and retain the remaining portion for household consumption, and in some of the beans producing regions like Iringa, Kilimanjaro and Arusha, commercial bean production for export is taking place, due to suitable climate and access to an international airport (Ronner and Giller, 2012).

1.4 Current Status of Mycotoxins in Africa

1.4.1 **Maize**

Among crops used as food and feed, maize is a good substrate for the growth of aflatoxins and fumonisins producing moulds above others, while groundnuts is an excellent substrate for aflatoxin contamination (Bankole and Adebanjo, 2003). Maize is a suitable substrate as it acts as a good source of energy in the form of carbohydrates, water activity (available moisture) for growth and toxin production (Atanda *et al.*, 2013), which are potentially dangerous to both humans and animals (Kpodo *et al.*, 2000).

From Tanzania the incidence and extent of fumonisins contamination of home-stored maize for human consumption was reported with levels up to 11.048 mg/kg (Kimanya et al., 2008), also fumonisin levels of up to 3.201 mg/kg in complementary foods (Kimanya et al., 2010) and levels up to 2.283 mg/kg in maize based complementary food (Kimanya et al., 2013). In Uganda Atukwase et al. (2009) reported an overall contamination levels for total fumonisin in pre-harvest maize from different climatic zone to be between 0.27 and 10 mg/kg. Similar results were also reported in Uganda by Kaaya et al. (2006). In Benin Sétamou et al. (1997) reported an overall contamination levels for total aflatoxin in pre-harvest maize to be between 5-2500 μ g/kg and 5-2200 μ g/kg in 1994 and 1995 respectively. Warth et al. (2012) found maize from Mozambique to be contaminated by aflatoxin with a mean value of 2.4 μ g/kg (n = 168). Ncube et al. (2011) reported fumonisins contamination of maize to be between 0 to 21.8 mg/kg in South Africa.

In Kenya, one of the largest known aflatoxicosis outbreaks occurred in 2004, with 317 reported cases and 125 deaths (Lewis *et al.*, 2005; Probst *et al.*, 2010). Food samples collected from households in the affected areas contained high levels of aflatoxin B_1 (20 to > 1000 µg/kg). The outbreak resulted from aflatoxin contamination of locally grown maize that was stored under damp conditions (Okioma, 2005). Bii *et al.* (2012) conducted a study in eastern province of Kenya on 86 stored maize samples and found mean fumonisin contamination in maize samples ranging from 0.912 mg/kg in Kitui to 1.17 mg/kg in Makueni. Another study was conducted by Lewis *et al.* (2005) where maize samples (n = 350) were collected from markets and vendors in the four most affected districts as identified by the 2004 outbreak. Mahuku and Sila (2011) conducted a study in 2010 and found the level of aflatoxin in maize stored by farmers in Kenya to be 1776 µg/kg while in the markets the concentration was 1632 µg/kg. These higher levels are likely to cause acute toxicity when contaminated products are consumed.

1.4.2 Beans

There are very few reports on beans contamination with mycotoxin producing moulds in Africa. A study conducted by Aiat (2006) in Egypt found the levels of total aflatoxins to be 1463 μ g/kg. Another study was conducted in Rwanda by Nyinawabali (2013) and reported the levels of aflatoxins to range between $0.2 - 154.9 \mu$ g/kg with a mean value of 28.1 μ g/kg, while the level of fumonisin ranged between 0.4 - 7.1 mg/kg with a mean value of 3.0 mg/kg. The contamination of the beans samples with aflatoxin and fumonisin has also been reported by Tseng *et al.* (1995)

1.4.3 Animal feeds

McDonald *et al.* (1995) defined animal feeds as any material provided to an animal as part of its daily ration and when ingested is capable of being digested, absorbed and utilised by the body of the animal to meet its nutritional need. Aflatoxin and fumonisin occur in many animal feed concentrates including cereal grains, soybeans products (soybeans meal), oil cakes (from groundnuts, cottonseed, sunflower, palm and copra), and fishmeal; Brewers grains, a by-product from the production of cereal-based alcoholic drinks (Grace, 2013)

The most susceptible animals to aflatoxin contamination are rabbits, turkeys, chickens, pigs, cows and goats (Lizárraga-Paulín *et al.*, 2011), and for fumonisins the most susceptible animals are horses, pigs and rats (Voss *et al.*, 1995; Smith *et al.*, 1996; Segvic and Pepeljnjak, 2001). Grace (2013) reported that the effects of aflatoxins to animals depend on various factors such as genetic (species and breed strain), physiological (age, nutrition, and exercise) and environmental (climatic and husbandry). Foetuses are very susceptible to even low levels and young and fast growing animals are more affected than adults, Males are more susceptible than females, while old ruminants with a well-

functioning rumen are very resistant (Grace, 2013). It was also reported that livestock in intensive systems are at higher risk of dietary exposure than animals in more extensive systems. With high and increasing proportion of dairy cattle, poultry, and swine being kept in intensive systems, aflatoxins are thus likely to be an increasing problem (Grace, 2013). The total permissible aflatoxin levels in animal feeds range from 0 to 50 μ g/kg with an average of 20 μ g/kg (FAO 2004), and for fumonisin the range is 5 to 100 mg/kg in animal feeds (FDA, 2001), especially to countries where regulations exists.

1.5 Factors Affecting the Incidence of Mycotoxigenic Fungi and Mycotoxins

1.5.1 Climatic conditions

Temperature and humidity influence which fungi infect damaged crops. Aflatoxin producers are favoured by warm conditions; thus, global warming, particularly in currently temperate climates, poses a potential problem is this regard (Milani, 2013). Optimum conditions for aflatoxin production is a temperature of 33°C and water activity of 0.99 while that for growth is 35°C and water activity of 0.95 (Milani, 2013). Therefore, *Aspergillus flavus* and aflatoxin are more likely in corn and crops grown in the heat and drought stress associated with warmer climates (Milani, 2013).

Fumonisin are usually found in temperate zones (Atanda *et al.*, 2013), hence maize grown in temperate regions is an appropriate substrate for *F. verticillioides* colonization and production of fumonisins. Climatic conditions during the growing season, is among the determinant factors for *F. verticillioides* infection and fumonisin accumulation in maize in the field. Higher temperatures during kernel maturation, and more rainfall before harvest are the factors that increase ear rot levels and fumonisin content at harvest (Fandohan *et al.*, 2003). *Fusarium* is favoured by a temperature of 15 - 30°C and water activity of 0.9 - 0.995 as an optimum condition for toxin secretion (Sanchis and Magan,

2004), and usually produce fumonisins in the field and, if the crop is harvested at high moisture content, conducive to fungal growth and mycotoxin production. Fumonisins can also affect storage crops especially when the storage conditions of water activity and temperature become favourable (Fandohan *et al.*, 2003; Omar, 2013).

1.5.2 Soil conditions and nutrients availability

Soil is a natural factor that exerts a powerful influence on the incidence of fungi. Crops grown in different soil types may have significantly different levels of mycotoxin contamination (Atanda *et al.*, 2013). This was the case with peanuts grown in light sandy soils which was found to support rapid growth of the fungi, particularly under dry conditions, while heavier soils result in less contamination of peanuts due to their high water holding capacity which helps the plant to prevent drought stress. The toxigenic (toxin producing) strains require enough nutrients for fungal growth and mycotoxin production (Atanda *et al.*, 2013). Fungi also require a source of energy in the form of carbohydrates or vegetable oils in addition to a source of nitrogen either organic or inorganic, they also require trace elements and water activity for growth and toxin production (Atanda *et al.*, 2013).

1.5.3 Tillage method

Tillage method is one of the major management practices affecting soil physical parameters (Janusauskaite *et al.*, 2013). Several studies have been conducted to study the effect of tillage on soil microbial population by comparing microbial numbers, the soil microbial community, enzyme activities and microbial biomass (Gil-Sortes *et al.*, 2005). Helgason *et al.* (2009) found that both bacteria and fungi were more abundant under no tillage than conventional tillage. This indicates that there is a high possibility of fungal growth and mycotoxins production in no tillage than in conventional tillage.

1.5.4 Pest infestation

Insect feeding activity has been found to be associated with fungal infection of maize grain and the subsequent production of mycotoxins (Beti *et al.*, 1995; Hell *et al.*, 2000; Avantaggiato *et al.*, 2003; Fandohan *et al.*, 2005). Both *A. flavus* and *F. moniliforme* are known to be facilitated in their infection process of maize grain by insect feeding (Beti *et al.*, 1995). Setamou *et al.* (1997) reported maize ears with less than 2% insect feeding damage had a mean aflatoxin contamination level considerably lower in both 1994 and 1995 than ears with more than 10% damage

Insect infestation in the field and in storage causes deterioration of grains as it predisposes them to fungal infection through increasing ease of access for infection through wounds (Alakonya and Monda, 2013), especially when loose-husked maize hybrids are used (Hell and Mutegi, 2011).

1.6 Pre Harvest Practices to Mitigate Aflatoxin and Fumonisin Contamination

1.6.1 Time of Planting

Time of planting has shown to have direct influence on the contamination of grain by aflatoxins, fumonisins and other mycotoxins. A study conducted by Abbas *et al.* (2007) found that maize planted in mid-April resulted in lower aflatoxin and fumonisin contamination and in significantly less frequent contamination above a regulatory action level than did the early-May planting date. Jones *et al.* (1981) reported that lower levels of aflatoxin B_1 contamination occurred in maize grain produced by April plantings as compared to May plantings. In another study it was found that maize planted in June has higher incidence of aflatoxin B_1 compared to maize planted in April and May (Lillehoj *et al.*, 1978).

Parsons and Munkvold (2012) reported that earlier planting consistently resulted in lower ear rot severity, low fumonisin B₁ levels and less insect damage. Early planting was also reported to shifts the period between when the flower is fully open and functional (anthesis) and dough development in maize to a time frame in growing season when maize are less susceptible to drought and heat stress as compared to late plantings (Zuber and Lillehoj, 1979).

1.6.2 Time of harvesting

Harvest is the first stage in the production chain where moisture content becomes the most important parameter in terms of the management and protection of the crop (Bruns, 2003). Optimal harvest time is necessary as it ensures that crops are not left in the field exposed to environmental factors that predispose crops to pathogen infection. The general recommendation is to harvest maize grain after they attain physiological maturity and then artificially dried to a moisture content of below 13% for safe storage (Bruns, 2003), this is recommended since aflatoxin level can increase with delayed harvest interval (Kahaya and Kyamuhangire, 2006).

Bankole and Adebanjo (2003) found that early harvesting reduces fungal infection of crops in the field and consequent contamination of harvested produce. Kaaya *et al.* (2006) observed that aflatoxin levels increased by about four times by the third week and more than seven times when maize harvest was delayed for four weeks. However, if products are harvested early, they have to be dried to safe moisture levels (10-13%) to stop fungal growth.

1.6.3 Crop rotation

From his study Atukwase *et al.* (2009) found that crop rotation is significantly associated with fumonisin production in maize. There was a report that produce harvested from land on which groundnuts has been planted the previous year were infested more by *Aspergillus flavus* and contained more aflatoxin than crops grown on land previously planted with rye, oats, melon or potatoes indicating that crop rotation influences mycotoxigenic mould growth, and hence care must be taken to avoid rotation of crops that can influence contamination (Alakonya and Monda, 2013; Atanda *et al.*, 2013).

1.6.4 Bio-control

One of the promising and potential strategies to mitigate mycotoxin contamination is biological control. A biological control technique greatly reduced aflatoxins in all the susceptible crops in a cost-effective manner and over a broad geographic area (Bandyopadhyay, 2010). Native strains of *A. flavus* that do not produce aflatoxins ("atoxigenic strains") are used to competitively exclude aflatoxin-producing strains from the crop environment, this has been successfully implemented in the Southern US, Northern Mexico, Nigeria and West Africa under the commercial names AF36TM, AflasafeTM and AflaGuardTM to reduce aflatoxin contamination in various crops such as cotton, maize and groundnut (Donner *et al.*, 2010). Competition occurs when two or more micro-organisms require the same resources in excess of their supply, these resources can include space, nutrients, and oxygen (Bandyopadhyay, 2010).

1.6.5 Use of resistant varieties

The use of resistant hybrids like AO901-25 a yellow maize varieties with high yield of 7115 kg/ha, good resistance to *Aspergillus* and low aflatoxin level could be very promising, but commercial hybrids are not always available (Abbas *et al.*, 2009). Menkir

et al. (2008) reported the registered six tropical maize (Zea mays L.) germplasm lines with resistance to aflatoxin contamination developed by the International Institute of Tropical Agriculture (IITA) through a collaborative breeding project with Southern Regional Research Center of the USDA-ARS. Field tests of the six lines under artificial inoculation with an African strain of Aspergillus flavus in Nigeria revealed that these lines had lower levels of aflatoxin compared with elite tropical commercial inbred lines used as control.

1.7 Post-harvest Practices to Mitigate Aflatoxin and Fumonisin Contamination

The post-harvest practices are those practices following harvest and leading up to primary processing such as milling, they include; rapid drying on platforms to avoid direct contact with soil, proper shelling methods to reduce grain damage and fumonisin level in maize by 56 – 68% (Fandohan *et al.*, 2005). Dehulling of maize prior to milling was also found to remove significant amounts of aflatoxins and fumonisins in maize and maize products, with a reduction of 92% aflatoxins (Fandohan *et al.*, 2005; Siwela *et al.*, 2005), sorting to remove bad/moulded grain from the lot, use of clean and aerated storage structures, controlling insect damage, good transportation practices and avoiding long storage periods, 8- 10 months (Hell *et al.*, 2005).

1.7.1 Drying conditions

Fungal growth and mycotoxin production can take place in a matter of days if maize grain is not properly dried and cooled before storage (Setamou *et al.*, 1997). Rapid drying of agricultural products to safe moisture levels of 10-13% for cereals is very critical as it creates less favourable conditions for fungal growth, proliferation, and insect infestation (Hell *et al.*, 2005). It helps keep products longer, since the free water required for their development is not available (Lanyasunya *et al.*, 2005). Aflatoxin contamination was

found to increase 10 fold in a three day period, especially when field harvested maize is stored with high moisture content (Hell *et al.*, 2005).

Atukwase *et al.* (2009) reported that drying maize on bare ground was found to be positively associated with fumonisin contamination, this may be attributed to drying harvested maize without husks. This practice brings maize grains into direct contact with soil which is a primary source of *Fusarium* (Odogora and Henricksson, 1991). In addition, drying maize on bare ground may cause an increase in water activity of the grains due to absorption of moisture from the soil and re-wetting by rain (Kaaya *et al.*, 2006). Maize cobs which are dried on bare ground are therefore vulnerable to fungal infection and subsequent contamination with mycotoxins (Atukwase *et al.*, 2009).

1.7.2 Storage factors

Storage is a critical stage where infection and mycotoxin accumulation occur. Care must be taken to store grains that are wholesome and apparently healthy. It is well known that aflatoxins contamination of foods increase with storage period (Hell *et al.*, 2000), while Fandohan *et al.* (2003) found that fumonisin level overall, was decreasing over the storage period. Storage prior and during marketing has to be done in appropriate bagging, preferably sisal bags, as this kind of material facilitates aeration especially during transit and bagged commodities should be stored on pallets (Lizárraga-Paulín *et al.*, 2013). Many farmers store their grains in bags, especially polypropylene which are not airtight, with evidence that this method facilitates fungal contamination and aflatoxin development (Udoh *et al.*, 2000; Hell and Mutegi, 2011). The use of traditional storage facilities made from plant materials (wood, bamboo, thatch) or mud placed on raised platforms and covered with thatch or metal roofing sheet is another way to prevent contamination. The stores should be constructed to exclude fungal growth, should include dry and well-

ventilated structures, provide protection from rain, drainage of ground water, prevent entry of rodents and birds, should allow minimum temperature fluctuations, and prevent moisture from getting into the grains (Lizárraga-Paulín *et al.*, 2013).

1.7.3 Physical separation and hygiene

Sorting out physically damaged and infected grains (based on their coloration, odd shapes, shriveled and reduced size) from the intact commodity can reduce aflatoxin levels by 40-80% (Park, 2002). Okioma (2005) reported that moldy and discoloured (sorted) grain was fed to livestock or sold at a price that is about half that for the clean grain. But during a severe famine in Kenya, sorted grain was in some cases mixed with clean grain and cooked for consumption by the family. The highest concentrations of aflatoxin and fumonisins usually are found on heavily molded and/or damaged kernels (Park, 2002; Afolabi *et al.*, 2006). Shetty and Bhat (1999) found that broken maize kernels contain nearly 10 times higher levels of fumonisins.

Physical method can also involve basic sanitation measures such as removal and destruction of debris from previous harvest both in the field and store which would help in minimizing infection and infestation of produce both in the field and in storage (Hell *et al.*, 2005).

1.7.4 Lack of awareness about mycotoxins

Awareness creation and sensitisation on the dangers posed by mycotoxin contamination of produce can be the most practical and fundamental intervention strategy to mitigate mycotoxins. Majority of the farmers are not aware of the major factor responsible for high incidence of mycotoxins in their areas. Also majority of farmers, foodhandlers and processors are illiterate with virtually no knowledge of the implications of toxigenic

mould growth. Most of the stake holders in Nigeria for example believe that the powdery substance can be easily dusted off or rinsed with water before the food material is eaten or processed for consumption with no associated risks (Alakonya and Monda, 2013). Hell and Mutegi (2011) recommended that farmers should be educated on proper use of lowenergy technologies for food preservation, proper food handling and storage methods.

1.8 Problem Statement and Justification

Mycotoxin contamination of various foodstuffs and agricultural commodities is a major problem in the tropics and sub-tropics, due to lack of regulations on mycotoxins such as testing and setting of limit in some countries, and where climatic conditions, agricultural and storage practices are conducive to fungal growth and toxin production (Wagacha and Muthoni, 2008). Considering that maize is a staple food for the majority of Tanzanians, it is necessary to estimate the magnitude of the mycotoxin contamination (Kimanya et al., 2008). Tanzania is also a major common bean producing country in East Africa (Fivawo and Msola, 2011), with commercial bean production for export taking place in major beans producing regions like Iringa, Kilimanjaro and Arusha (Ronner and Giller, 2012). A study conducted by Nyinawabali (2013) in Rwanda found beans to be contaminated by both aflatoxins and fumonisins. Ghosia and Arsha (2012) conducted a study in Pakistan and observed that 10% of red kidney beans were contaminated above the suggested limit (4μg/kg) set by European Union regulations for total aflatoxins (European Commission, 2010). Tseng et al. (1995) from Taiwan and Ontario Canada reported fumonisin B₁ levels of 1.8 mg/kg. These findings indicated the presence of mycotoxins in maize and common beans and a need for surveillance on contamination with mycotoxins especially, aflatoxins and fumonisins in Tanzania.

The aim of this study was to establish the levels of aflatoxins and fumonisins contamination in naturally contaminated maize and beans along the commodity value chain, including at harvest, during storage in processed and marketed products in Tanzania by using Babati district, Manyara region as a case study.

1.8.1 Objectives

1.8.1.1 Main objective

To establish the prevalence of aflatoxins and fumonisins in maize and beans along the food and feed value chains in Babati District.

1.8.1.2 Specific objectives

- (i) To quantify total aflatoxins and fumonisins in pre-harvest maize and beans.
- (ii) To quantify total aflatoxins and fumonisins in maize and beans during storage.
- (iii) To quantify total aflatoxins and fumonisins in processed and marketed maize and beans products including those used in animal feed formulation.
- (iv) To identify pre- and post-harvest management practices, that influence aflatoxin and fumonisin contamination of maize and beans along food and feed value chains.

1.8.1.3 List of manuscripts

- Aflatoxin and Fumonisin Contamination at harvest Maize and Beans in three villages in Babati District, Tanzania.
- ii. The Influence of Storage Practices on Aflatoxin and Fumonisin Contamination of Maize and Beans in Babati District Tanzania.
- iii. Aflatoxin and Fumonisin Contamination of Maize and Common Bean-BasedMarket, Processed and Feeds in Babati District, Tanzania.

REFERENCES

- Abbas, H. K., Shier, W. T. and Cartwright, R. D. (2007). Effect of temperature, rainfall and planting date on aflatoxin and fumonisin contamination in commercial Bt and non-Bt corn hybrids in Arkansas. *Phytoprotection* 88 (2): 41 50.
- Abbas, H. K., Wilkinson, J. R., Zablotowicz, R. M., Accinelli, C., Abel, C. A., Bruns, H.
 A. and Weaver, M. A. (2009). Ecology of *Aspergillus flavus*, regulation of aflatoxin production and management strategies to reduce aflatoxin contamination of corn. *Toxin Reviews* 28: 142 153.
- Afolabi, C. G., Bandyopadhyay, R., Leslie, J. F. and Ekpo, E. J. A. (2006). Effect of Sorting on Incidence and Occurrence of Fumonisins and *Fusarium verticillioides* on Maize from Nigeria. *Journal of Food Protection* 69(8): 2019 2023.
- Aiat, N. (2006). Genetic Variability among Three Species of Aspergillus. Seed born
 Aspergillus spp. And Aflatoxins Associated with Dry Beans (Phaseolus Vulgaris
 L.). Journal of Applied Sciences Research 2(11): 874 878.
- Alakonya A. E. and Monda, E. O. (2013). A New Approach in Aflatoxin Management in Africa: targeting aflatoxin/sterigmatocyst in biosynthesis in *Aspergillus* species by RNA silencing technique. In: *Aflatoxins Recent Advances and Future*. (*Edited by Razzaghi-Abyaneh, M.*), InTech Janeza Trdine, Croatia. pp. 41 57.
- Amani, H. K. R. (2004). Agricultural Development and Food Security in Sub-Saharan

 Africa Tanzania Country Report. Economic and Social Research Foundation,

 Dar es Salaam, Tanzania. 43pp.
- Atanda, O., Makun, H. A., Ogara, I. M., Edema, M., Idahor, K. O., Eshiett, M. E. and Oluwabamiwo, B.F. (2013). Fungal and mycotoxin contamination of Nigerian foods and feeds. In: *Mycotoxin and Food Safety in Developing Countries*. (*Edited by Makun, H.A.*), InTech Janeza Trdine Rijeka, Croatia. pp.15 50.

- Atukwase, A., Kaaya, A. N. and Muyanja, C. (2009). Factors associated with fumonisin contamination of maize in Uganda. *Journal of Science and Food Agriculture* 89: 2393 –2398.
- Avantaggiato, G., Quaranta, F., Desiderio, E. and Visconti, A. (2003). Fumonisin contamination of maize hybrids visibly damaged by Sesamia. *Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture* 83(1): 13 18.
- Azizi, I. G., Ghadi, H. and Azarmi, M. (2012). Determination of Aflatoxin B₁ levels of the feedstuffs in traditional and semi-industrial cattle farms in Amol, Northern Iran. *Asian Journal of Animal and Veterinary Advances* 7: 528 534.
- Bandyopadhyay, R. (2010). Aflatoxins the Invisible threat in foods and feeds. SP-IPM secretariat. [www.spipm.cgiar.org] site visited on 5/3/2013.
- Bankole, S. A. and Adebanjo, A. (2003). Mycotoxins in food in West Africa: Current situation and possibilities of controlling it. *African Journal of Biotechnology* 2:254 263.
- Bbosa, G. S., Kitya, D., Lubega, A., Ogwal-Okeng, J., Anokbonggo, W. W. and Kyegombe, D. B. (2013). Review of the Biological and health effects of aflatoxins on body organs and body systems. In: *Aflatoxins Recent Advances and Future*. (*Edited by mehdirazzaghi-abyaneh*.) InTechJanezaTrdine Rijeka, Croatia. pp. 249 274.
- Bennett, J. W. and Klich, M. (2003). Mycotoxins. *Clinical Microbiology Reviews* 16(3): 497 516.
- Beti, J. A., Philips, T. W. and Smalley, E. B. (1995). Effects of maize weevils (*Coleopteracurculionidae*) on production of aflatoxin B₁ by Aspergillus flavus in stored corn. *Journal of Economic and Entomology* 88:1776 1782.

- Bhat, R. V. and Miller, J. D. (2010). Mycotoxins and food supply. FAO Corporate Document Repository. http://www.fao.org/docrep/u3550t/u3550t0e.htm] site visited on 28/05/2013.
- Bii, F., Wanyoike, W., Nyende, A. B., Gituru, R. W. and Bii, C. (2012). Fumonisin Contamination of Maize (*Zea mays* L.) in aflatoxin 'hot' zones in Eastern Province of Kenya. *African Journal of Health Science* 20: 28 36.
- Blom, H. J., Shaw, G. M., den Heijer, M. and Finnell, R. H. (2006). Neural tube defects and folate: case far from closed. *Nature Reviews Neuroscience* 7(9): 724 731.
- Bosco, F. and Mollea, C. (2012). Mycotoxins in Food. In: *Food Industrial Processes-Methods and Equipment*. (*Edited by Valdez B.*) InTech Janeza Trdine Rijeka, Croatia. pp. 169 200.
- Boutrif, E. and Bessy, C. (2001). Global significance of mycotoxins and phycotoxins. In: *Mycotoxins and phycotoxins*. In: *Perspective at the Turn of the Millennium*. (*Edited by Koe, W. J., Samson, R.A., van Egmond, H. P., Gilbert, J. and Sabino, M.*), Ponsen and Looyen, Wageningen, The Netherlands. pp. 3 16.
- Bruns, H. A. (2003). Controlling aflatoxin and fumonisin in maize by crop management.

 **Journal of Toxicology Toxin Reviews 22(3): 153 173.
- Creppy, E. E. (2002). Update of survey, regulation and toxic effects of mycotoxins in Europe. *Toxicology Letters* 127: 19–28.
- Dhanasekaran, D., Shanmugapriya, S., Thajuddin, N. and Panneerselvam, A. (2011).

 Aflatoxins and Aflatoxicosis in Human and Animals. In: *Aflatoxin Biochemistry and Molecular Biology. (Edited by Guevara-González, R.)*, InTech Janeza Trdine Rijeka, Croatia. pp. 231 264.

- Donner, M., Atehnkeng, J., Sikora, K. A., Bandyopadhyay, R. and Cotty, P. J. (2010).

 Molecular characterization of atoxigenic strains for biological control of aflatoxins in Nigeria. *Chemistry, Analysis, Control, Exposure and Risk Assessment* 27: 576 590.
- East African Community (2011a). East African Standards Maize grains EAS 2/2011 of 2011 [https://law.resource.org/pub/eac/ibr/eas.2.2011.html] site visited on 25/09/2014.
- East African Community (2011b). Final Draft East African Standards FDEAS No. 46/2011 of 2011 specifying requirements and methods of sampling and test for dry common beans (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L) intended for human consumption. [https://law.resource.org/pub/eac/ibr/eas.46.2011.html] site visited on 18/10/2014.
- Erick, D. (2003). Mycotoxin hazards, regulation and impacts on food and Animal feed crop trade. *International Trade and Food Safety* 828: 97 108.
- European Commission. (2010). Setting maximum levels for certain contaminants in food stuffs as regards aflatoxins. *Official Journal of the European Union* I(50): 8 12.
- Fandohan, P., Ahouansou, R., Houssou, P., Hell, K., Marasas, W. F. O. and Wingfield,
 M. J. (2005). Impact of mechanical shelling and dehulling on *Fusarium* infection and fumonisin contamination in maize. *Food Additives and Contaminants* 23: 451 421.
- Fandohan, P., Hell, K., Marasas, W. F. O. and Wingfield, M. J. (2003). Infection of maize by *Fusarium* species and contamination with fumonisins in Africa. *African Journal of Biotechnology* 12: 570 579.
- Fivawo, N. C. and Msolla, S. N. (2011). The diversity of common bean landraces in Tanzania. *Tanzania Journal of Natural and Applied Sciences* 2:337 351.

- Filazi, A. and Sireli, U. T. (2013). Occurrence of Aflatoxins in Food. In: *Aflatoxins Recent Advances and Future*. (*Edited by Razzaghi-abyaneh, M.*), InTech Janeza Trdine Rijeka, Croatia. pp. 153 180.
- Food and Agriculture Organization (2004). Worldwide regulations for mycotoxins in food and feed. Rome, Italy. [http://www.fao.org/docrep/007/y5499e/y5499e00.HTM] site visited on 18/10/2014.
- Food and Agriculture Organization (2013). FAOSTAT database: [http://faostat3. fao.org/faostat-gateway/go/to/download/Q/QC/E] site visited on 4/8/2014.
- Food and Drug Administration (2001). Guidelines for industry: Fumonisin levels in human foods and animal feeds. [http://www.fda.gov/OHRMS/ DOCKETS/98fr/110901c.htm] site visited on 18/05/2014.
- Franceschi, S., Bidoli, E., Baron, A. E. and La Vechhia, C. (1990). Maize and the risk of cancers of theoral cavity, pharynx, and oesophagus in north-eastern Italy. *Journal of National Cancer Institute* 82:1407–1410.
- Gelderblom, W. C. A., Jaskiewicz, K., Marasas, W. F. O., Thiel, P. G., Horak, R., Vleggaar, M. and Kriek, N. P. J. (1988). Fumonisins novel mycotoxins with cancer promoting activity produced by *Fusarium moniliforme*. *Applied Environmental Microbiology* 54: 1806 1811.
- Ghosia, L. and Arsha, H. (2012). Studies on contamination level of aflatoxins in some cereals and beans of Pakistan. *Food Control* 23: 32 36.
- Gil-Sotres, F., Trasal-Cepeda, C., Leiros, M. C. and Seoane, S. (2005). Different approaches to evaluating soil quality using biochemical properties. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry* 37: 877.
- Grace, D. (2013). Animals and Aflatoxins: finding solutions for improved food safety;

 International Food Policy Research Institute. [http://www.ifpri.org/sites/default/files/publications/focus20.pdf] site visited on 03/03/2014.

- Helgason, B. L., Walley, F. L. and Germida, J. (2009). Fungal and bacteria abundance in long term no till and intensive till soil of the Northern Great Plains. *Soil Science Society of America Journal* 73(1): 115 120.
- Hell, K., Cardwell, K. F., Setamou, M. and Poehling, H. M. (2000). The influence of storage practices on aflatoxin contamination in maize in four climatic zones of Benin West Africa. *Journal of Stored Products Research* 36: 365 382.
- Hell, K., Fandohan, P., Bandyopadhyay, R., Kiewnick, S., Sikora, R. and Cotty, P. J. (2005). Pre- and Post-harvest Management of Aflatoxin in Maize: An African Perspective. In: *Mycotoxins: Detection methods, Management, Public Health and Agricultural Trade.* (Edited by Leslie, J.F. Bandyopadhyay, R. and Visconti, A.), Cromwell press, Townbridge, UK. pp. 219 229.
- Hell, K. and Mutegi, C. (2011). Aflatoxin control and prevention strategies in key crops of Sub-Saharan Africa. *African Journal of Microbiology Research* 5(5): 459 466.
- International Agency for Research on Cancer (1993). Ochratoxin A. monographs on the evaluation of carcinogenic risks to humans, some naturally occurring Substances.

 Food Items and Constituents, Heterocyclic Aromatic Amines and Mycotoxins 56: 489 521.
- International Centre for Tropical Agriculture (2001). Annual report, Strategies developed for management of diseases and pests in bean based cropping systems [ciat.cgiar.org/wp-content/uploads/2012/12/ciat_in_perspective_2000_2001.pdf] site visited on 02/03/2014.
- Janusauskaite, D., Kadziene, G. and Auskalniene, O. (2013). The effect of tillage system on soil Microbiota in relation to soil structure. *Polish Journal of Environmental Studies* 22(5): 1387 1391.

- Jones, R. K. and Duncan, H. E. (1981). Effect of nitrogen fertilizer, planting date, and harvest date on aflatoxin production in corn inoculated with *Aspergillus flavus*.

 Plant Diseases 65: 741 744.
- Kaaya, A. N. and Kyamuhangire, W. (2006). The effect of storage time and climatic zone on mould incidence and aflatoxin contamination of maize from traders in Uganda. *International Journal of Food Microbiology* 110: 217 223.
- Kaaya, A. N., Kyamuhangire, W. and Kyamanywa, S. (2006). Factors affecting aflatoxin contamination of harvested maize in the three climatic zones of Uganda. *Journal of Applied Science* 11: 2401 2407.
- Kimanya, M., Tiisekwa, B., Devlieghere, F., Ndomondo-Sigonda, M., Van Camp, J. and Kolsteren, P. (2008). Co-occurrence of fumonisins with aflatoxins in home stored maize for human consumption in rural villages of Tanzania. *Food Additives and Contaminants* 25: 1353 1364.
- Kimanya, M. E., De Meulenaer, B., Roberfroid, D., Lachat, C. and Kolsteren, P. (2010). Fumonisin exposure through maize in complementary foods is inversely associated with linear growth of infants in Tanzania. *Molecular Nutrition and Food Research* 54: 1659 –1667.
- Kimanya, M. E., Shirima, C. P., Magoha, H., Shewiyo, D. H., De Meulenaer, B., Kolsteren, P. and Gong, Y. Y. (2013). Co-exposures of aflatoxins with deoxynivalenol and fumonisins from maize based complementary foods in Rombo, Northern Tanzania. *Food Control (Accepted manuscript)*.
- Kpodo, K., Thrane, U. and Hald, B. (2000). *Fusaria* and fumonisins in maize from Ghana and their co-occurrence with aflatoxins. *International Journal of Food Microbiology* 61: 147–157.

- Lanyasunya, T. P., Wamae, L. W., Musa, H. H., Olowofeso, O. and Lokwaleput, I. K. (2005). The risk of mycotoxins contamination of dairy feed and milk on smallholder dairy farms in Kenya. *Pakistan Journal of Nutrition* 4: 162 169.
- Lewis, L., Onsongo, M., Njapau, H., Schurz-Rogers, H., Luber, G., Kieszak, S., Nyamongo, J., Backer, L., Dahiye, A.M., Misore, A., Decoct, K., Rubin, C. and the Kenya Aflatoxicosis Investigation Group. (2005). Aflatoxin contamination of commercial maize products during an outbreak of acute aflatoxicosis in Eastern and Central Kenya. *Environmental Health Perspectives* 113: 1763 1767.
- Lillehoj, E. B., Fennell, D. I., Kwolek, W. F., Adams, G. L., Zuber, M. S., Horner, E. S., Widstrom, N. W., Warren, H., Guthrie, W. D., Sauer, D. B., Findley, W. R., Manwiller, A., Josephson, L. M. and Bockholt, A. J. (1978). Aflatoxin contamination of corn before harvest: Aspergillus flavus association with insects collected from developing ears. *Crop Science* 18: 921 924.
- Lizárraga-Paulín, E. G., Moreno-Martínez, E. and Miranda-Castro, S. P. (2011).

 Aflatoxins and Their Impact on Human and Animal Health: An Emerging Problem. In: *Aflatoxins-Biochemistry and Molecular Biology.* (*Edited by Guevara-González, R.*), InTech Janeza Trdine Rijeka, Croatia. pp. 255 282.
- Lizárraga-Paulín, E. G., Miranda-Castro, S. P., Moreno-Martínez, E., Torres-Pacheco I. and Lara-Sagahón A. V. (2013). Novel Methods for Preventing and Controlling Aflatoxins in Food: A Worldwide Daily Challenge. In: *Aflatoxins Recent Advances and Future.* (Edited by Razzaghi-abyaneh, M.), InTech Janeza Trdine Rijeka, Croatia. pp. 103 138.
- Mahuku, G. and Sila, H. (2011). Prevalence of aflatoxin along the maize value chain in Kenya. [http://www.slideshare.net/pchenevixtrench/prevalence-of-aflatoxin-along-the maize-value-chain-in-kenya-10402612] site visited on 22/07/2013.

- Marasas, W. F. O., Gelderblom, W. C. A., Shephard, G. S. and Vismer, H. F. (2008).
 Mycotoxins: A Global Problem. In: Mycotoxins: Detection methods,
 Management, Public Health and Agricultural Trade (Edited by Leslie, J.F.
 Bandyopadhyay, R. and Visconti, A.) Cromwell press, Townbridge, UK.
 pp. 29 39.
- McDonald, P., Edward, R. A., Greenhalgh, J. F. D. and Morgan, C. A. (1995). *Animal Nutrition*. Longman Publisher, UK. pp. 101 115.
- Menkir, A., Brown, R. L., Bandyopadhyay, R. and Cleveland, T. E. (2008). Registration of six tropical maize germplasm lines with resistance to aflatoxin contamination.

 *Journal of Plant Registration 2: 246 250.
- Milani, J. M. (2013). Ecological conditions affecting mycotoxin production in cereals: a review. *Veterinarni Medicina* 58(8): 405–411.
- Missmer, S. A., Suarez, L., Felkner, M., Wang, E., Merrill Jr, A. H., Rothman, K. J. and Hendricks, K. A. (2006). Exposure to fumonisins and the occurrence of neural tube defects along the Texas–Mexico border. *Environmental Health Perspectives* 114(2): 231 237.
- Morgensen, J. M., Larsen, T. O. and Nielsen, K. F. (2010). Wide spread Occurrence of the Mycotoxin Fumonisin B₂ in Wine. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry* 58 (8): 4853–4857.
- Mohammed, A. M. and Metwally, N. S. (2009). Anti-aflatoxicogenic activities of some aqueous plant extracts against Aflatoxin B_1 induced Renal and Cardiac damage. *Journal of Pharmacology and Toxicology* 4(1): 1 – 16.
- Mulunda, M., Ngoma, L., Nyirenda, M., Motsei, L. and Bakunzi, F. (2013). A decade of aflatoxin M₁ surveillance in milk and dairy products in developing countries (2001-2011): A Review. In: *Mycotoxin and Food Safety In Developing Countries*. (*Edited by Makun, H.A.*) InTech Janeza Trdine Rijeka, Croatia. pp. 51 72.

- Ncube, E., Flett, B. C., Waalwijk, C. and Viljoen, A. (2011). *Fusarium* spp. and levels of fumonisins in maize produced by subsistence farmers in South Africa. *South Africa Journal of Science* 107: 1 2.
- Nyinawabali, F. (2013). A survey of fungi and mycotoxins in selected food commodities from Rwanda. Dissertation for Award of MSc Degree at University of Johannesburg, South Africa, 105pp.
- Odogora, W. R. and Henricksson, R. (1991). *Postharvest Management and Storage of Maize, In Technical Systems for Agriculture*. Regional programme on agricultural operations technology for small holders in East and Southern Africa.

 United Nation Development Programme, Harare, Zimbabwe. pp. 27–48.
- Okioma, M. N. (2005). Aflatoxin Tragedies in Kenya A Case Studyin 2004 and 2005.

 In: *Mycotoxins: Detection methods, Management, Public Health and Agricultural Trade.* (Edited by Leslie, J. F. Bandyopadhyay, R. and Visconti, A.),

 Cromwell Press, Townbridge, UK. pp. 127 131.
- Okoth, S. A. and Kola, M. A. (2012). Market samples as a source of chronic aflatoxin exposure in Kenya. *African Journal of Health Science* 20:56 61.
- Omar, H. E. M. (2013). Mycotoxins-Induced Oxidative Stress and Disease. In: *Mycotoxin* and Food Safety in Developing Countries (Edited by Makun, H. A.), InTech Janeza Trdine Rijeka, Croatia. pp. 75 104.
- Park, D. L. (2002). Effect of processing on aflatoxin. *Advances in Experimental Medicine* and *Biology* 504: 173–179.
- Parsons, M. W. and Munkvold, G. P. (2012). Effects of planting date and environmental factors on *Fusarium* ear rot symptoms and fumonisin B₁ accumulation in maize grown in six North American locations. *Plant Pathology* 61: 1130 1142.
- Peraica, M., Radic, B., Lucic, A. and Pavlovic, M. (1999). Toxic effects of mycotoxins in humans. *Bulletin of World Health Organization* 77: 754 766.

- Piñeiro, M. (2008). Program on Mycotoxin Management. In: Mycotoxins, Detection Methods, Management, Public Health and Agricultural Trade. (Edited by Leslie, J.F. Bandyopadhyay, R. and Visconti, A.), Cromwell Press, Townbridge, UK. pp. 387 401.
- Probst, C., Schulthess, H. and Cotty, P. J. (2010). Impact of *A. Flavus* community structure on the development of lethal levels of aflatoxins in Kenyan maize (*Zea mays* L). *Journal of Applied Microbiology* 108: 600 610.
- Ronner, E. and Giller, K. E. (2012). Background information on agronomy, farming systems and ongoing projects on grain legumes in Tanzania. [http://www.n2africa.org/sites/n2africa.org/files/images/images/N2Africa_Characterization% 20Tanzania%20final.pdf] site visited on 03/04/2014.
- Sadeghi N., Oveisi, M. R., Jannat, B., Hajimahmoodi, M., Bonyani, H. and Jannat, F. (2009). Incidence of Aflatoxin M₁ in human breast milk in Tehran, Iran. *Food Control* 20: 75 78.
- Sanchis, V. and Magan, N. (2004). Environmental conditions affecting mycotoxins. In:

 Mycotoxins in Food Detection and Control. (Edited by Magan, N. and Olsen,
 M.), CRC Press, Boca Raton. 496pp.
- Šegvić, M. and Pepeljnjak, S. (2001). Fumonisins and their effects on animal health a brief review. *Veterinars kiArhiv* 71(5): 299 323.
- Sétamou, M., Cardwell, K. F., Schulthess, F. and Hell, K. (1997). *Aspergillus flavus* infection and aflatoxin contamination of pre-harvest maize in Benin. *Plant Diseases* 81: 1323 1327.
- Shetty, P. H. and Bhat, R. V. (1999). A physical method for segregation of fumonisin-contaminated maize. *Food Chemistry* 66(3): 371 374.

- Siwela, A. H., Siwela, M., Matindi, G., Dube, S. and Nziramasanga, N. (2005).

 Decontamination of aflatoxin-contaminated maize by dehulling. *Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture* 85(15): 2535 2538.
- Smith, G. W., Constable, P. D. and Bacon, C. W. (1996). Cardiovascular effects of fumonisins in swine. *Fund Applied Toxicology* 31: 169 172.
- Stockmann-Juvala, H. and Savolainen, K. (2008). A review of the toxic effects and mechanisms of action of fumonisin B_1 . Human and Experimental Toxicology 27(11): 799 809.
- Sydenham, E. W., Shephard, G. S., Stockenstrom, S., Rheeder, J. P., Marasas, W. F. O. and van der Merwe, M. J. (1997). Production of fumonisin B analogues and related compounds by *Fusarium globosum* a newly described species from corn. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry* 45: 4004 4010.
- Temu, A. E., Manyama, A. and Temu, A. A. (2010). Maize Trade and Marketing Policy Interventions in Tanzania. Food Security In Africa: Market and Trade Policy for Staple Foods in Eastern, Southern Africa. 317pp.
- Ting, Z. (2010). Mycotoxins in food safety and their control strategies. *Journal of Food,*Agriculture and Environment 9(4): 163 182.
- Tseng, T. C., Tu, J. C. and Tzean, S. S. (1995). Mycoflora and mycotoxins in dry bean (*Phaseolus vulgaris L*) produced in Taiwan and in Ontario, Canada. *Botanical Bulletin of Academia Sinica* 36: 229 234.
- Udoh, J. M., Cardwell, K. F. and Ikotun, T. (2000). Storage structures and aflatoxin content of maize in five climatic zones of Nigeria. *Journal of Stored Products**Research 36(2): 187 201.

- Ueno, Y., Iijima, K., Wang, S. D., Sugiura, Y., Sekijima, M. and Tanaka, T. (1997).
 Fumonisins as a possible contributory risk factor for primary liver cancer: A
 3-year study of corn harvest in Haimen, China, by HPLC and ELISA. Food
 Chemistry Toxicology 35: 1143 1150.
- Voss, K. A., Chamberlain, W. J., Bacon, C. W., Herbert, R. A., Walters, D. B. and Norred, W. P. (1995). Subchronic feeding study of the mycotoxin fumonisin B₁ in B6C3F1 mice and Fischer 344 rats. *Toxicological Sciences* 24(1): 102 – 110.
- Wagacha, J. M. and Muthomi, J. W. (2008). Mycotoxin problem in Africa: Current status, implications to food safety and health and possible management strategies.

 International. Journal of Food Microbiology 124: 1 12.
- Warth, B., Parich, A., Atehnkeng, J., Bandyopadhyay, R., Schuhmacher, R., Sulyok, M. and Krska, R. (2012). Quantitation of Mycotoxins in Food and Feed from Burkina Faso and Mozambique Using a Modern LC-MS/MS Multitoxin Method.

 **Journal of Agriculture and Food Chemistry 60: 9352 9363.
- Wild, C. and Gong, Y. (2010). Mycotoxins and human disease: a largely ignored global health issue. *Carcinogenesis* 31: 71 82.
- Zain, M. E. (2011). Impact of mycotoxins on humans and animals. *Journal of Saudi Chemical Society* 15: 129–144.
- Zuber, M. S. and Lillehoj, E. B. (1979). Status of the aflatoxin problem in corn. *Journal of Environmental Quality* 88: 1 5.

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 Aflatoxin and Fumonisin Contamination at harvest Maize and Beans in three villages in Babati District, Tanzania

Chacha J. Nyangi^{1, 2*}, Jovin K. Mugula¹, Fen Beed², Simon Boniphace², Koyano Emmanuel²

¹Department of Food Science and Technology, Sokoine University of Agriculture,

P.O.Box 3006, Morogoro, Tanzania

²International Institute of Tropical Agriculture, P.O.Box 34441, Dar es salaam,

Tanzania.

2.1 Abstract

A survey was conducted on the natural occurrence of aflatoxins and fumonisins in 440 maize and 38 beans samples from three villages in Babati District. Quantification for total aflatoxin and fumonisin was done using ELISA (Reveal AccuScan®Neogen, USA), and the results were confirmed by using LC-MS/MS. Maize samples from Sabilo village had aflatoxin levels up to 26.2 μg/kg (mean, 3.32 μg/kg), while maize from Long and Seloto village had maximum contamination below the maximum tolerable limits (MTL) of 10 μg/kg. For fumonisin contamination, Seloto village had levels up to 46 mg/kg (mean, 6.6 mg/kg), followed by Long village with levels up to 14 mg/kg (mean, 6.75 mg/kg) and Sabilo village 14 mg/kg (mean, 3.17 mg/kg). Beans samples had aflatoxin and fumonisin contamination levels below MTL. The incidence of aflatoxin and fumonisins in the subsistence farming systems of Babati district call for intervention strategies including awareness creation programmes in order to enhance food and feed safety.

Keywords: aflatoxins, fumonisins, pre-harvest, maize, beans mycotoxins, contamination, food safety

^{*}Corresponding author. Tel: +255-764-775727. Email dress: nyangichacha@yahoo.com

2.2 Introduction

Mycotoxins are chemically and biologically active by-products of mould growth occurring naturally in a range of plant products. Mycotoxins have received considerable attention due to their significance in agricultural loss (because of lack of acceptance post harvest of contaminated foods and feeds), negative impacts on livestock and human health. It is estimated that mycotoxins contaminate 25% of agricultural crops worldwide (Zain, 2011), with 4.5 billion people living in developing countries exposed to chronic toxicity (Williams *et al.*, 2004). There are two important mycotoxigenic moulds associated with maize and beans. These are *Aspergillus flavus* that produce aflatoxins (Wagacha and Muthoni, 2008; Okoth *et al.*, 2012) and *Fusarium verticillioides* (previously known as *F. moniliforme*), which produces fumonisins (Omar, 2013; Nyinawabali, 2013).

Aflatoxins can cause acute and chronic toxicity depending on the concentrations present, are immunosuppressive, mutagenic, teratogenic, genotoxic and carcinogenic compounds produced mainly by *Aspergillus flavus* (Filazi and Sireli, 2013; Omar, 2013). The source of aflatoxins are from agricultural commodities like oil seeds such as groundnut, soybean, sunflower and cotton; tree nuts such as almonds, pistachio, walnuts and coconut; cereals like maize, sorghum, pearl millet, rice and wheat; spices like cumin, cinnamon, clove, black pepper, cardamom, ginger, and coriander; vegetables, milk, meat and dried fruits (Marasas *et al.*, 2008; Wild and Gong, 2010).

Aflatoxin B₁ (AFB₁) is the most potent carcinogen in humans and animals, and has been classified as Class 1 human carcinogen, a highly poisonous toxic substance (IARC, 1993). The accepted threshold for total aflatoxin in foodstuffs intended for direct human consumption is 10µg/kg by European Union and East Afican Community standards

(European Commission, 2010; EAC, 2011a,b) and 20 μg/kg for the USA standards (FDA, 2001). Optimum conditions for aflatoxin production is a temperature of 33°C and water activity of 0.99 while that for growth is 35°C and water activity of 0.95 (Milani, 2013). Therefore, *Aspergillus flavus* and aflatoxin are more likely in corn and crops grown in the heat and drought stress associated with warmer climates (Milani, 2013).

Fumonisins is produced by Fusarium spp. mostly by Fusarium verticillioides (previously known as F. moniliforme), (Omar, 2013; Nyinawabali, 2013) and occur in maize and in frequently in other foodstuffs such as sorghum, asparagus, rice, beans and beers (Creppy, 2002; Zain, 2011), as well as in feeds especially those formulated using maize (Morgensen et al., 2010). Evidence suggests a role of fumonisin in human oesophageal cancer in South Africa (Marasas et al., 2008), Northern Italy (Franceschi et al., 1990), and China (Ueno et al., 1997). Fumonisins were also associated with liver cancer in certain endemic areas of the People's Republic of China (Ueno et al., 1997), poor child growth in Tanzania (Kimanya et al., 2010) and, cranial neural tube defects along the Texas-Mexico border, China and South Africa (Missmer et al., 2006; Stockmann-Juvala and Savolaine, 2008). The International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) has classified fumonisin as a group 2B toxin, considered as possibly carcinogenic to humans (IARC, 1993). MTL for fumonisins in food intended for direct human consumption is 2 mg/kg by the USA and East African standards (FDA, 2001; EAC, 2011a,b) and 1 mg/kg by the EU standards (European Commission, 2010). Very little has been reported on the relationship between production, handling practices and the occurrence of aflatoxins and fumonisins in maize and beans in Tanzania. The aim of this study was to investigate the effect of pre harvest field management (agronomy) practices and climatic zones on aflatoxin and fumonisin contamination of maize and beans in Tanzania.

2.3 Materials and Methods

2.3.1 Study area

The study was conducted in three villages namely, Long, Sabilo and Seloto, representing different climatic zones in the year 2013. The high altitude high rain zone representing Long village, that lies between 2150 and 2450 metres above sea levels (m.a.s.l) with a relatively high annual rainfall of 1200 mm. The mid altitude low rainfall zone representing Sabilo village, that lies between 1500 and 1850 m.a.s.l and has a production season characterised by relatively low rainfall of 900 – 1100 mm, and the mid altitude high rain zone represented by Seloto village that lies between 1850 – 2150 m.a.s.l and has the production season; characterised by relatively annual rainfall of 1100 – 1200mm. The villages were selected as they fall under USAID's Feed the Future priority research area, where the Africa RISING Eastern and Southern Africa project on sustainable intensification of farming systems is being implemented in collaboration with International Institute of tropical Agriculture (IITA). Maize and beans are also the major staple food in the study site and Tanzania as a whole.

2.3.2 Selection of farmers

The farmers who participated in the study were randomly selected using a list provided by the respective village leaders and extension officers. A total of 450 farmers, 150 farmers from each village, were randomly selected for maize sampling and, a total of 38 farmers for beans sampling, based on prior evidence that beans were not considered to be as much at risk as maize so a smaller sub-set was selected and if shown to be contaminated then a larger number of samples would be collected. The maize and beans sample from the same farmers was followed up to the post harvest but with only 20 farmers per village.

2.3.3 Sample collection

A total of 450 physiologically mature maize samples were collected at harvest in the year 2013 from the three villages. The 150 randomly sampled farmers per village were interviewed using a semi-structured questionnaire (Appendix 1). Responses were elicited on farmers' planted variety, previous crops, pest problems in the field, planted and harvested date, tillage method, planting pattern (flat, on ridges, on mounds), harvested condition (wet or dry), condition of harvested crop (clean or spoiled) and intended use of the harvested crops. Global Positioning System (GPS) coordinates and basic demographic details of farmers/producer were also collected. Responses from the farmers were used to evaluate farming practices and handling techniques.

The samples in the field were taken by walking in two diagonal directions and stopping at regular intervals to pick a sample so as to have as representative sample as possible. A total of five stops were chosen in each field and five maize cobs or beans pods were randomly taken from each stop making a total of 25 cobs/pods per field, these were then hand shelled, well mixed and approximate 1kg sample was randomly selected. The collected samples were packaged in a clean A4 envelope and transported to the Plant Pathology Laboratory at International Institute of Tropical Agriculture (IITA), Tanzania. The samples were then dried at 65°C/72 h in a cabinet drier to < 13% moisture content.

2.3.4 Quantification of total aflatoxin and fumonisin

The samples were ground using a Bunn grinder (Man: Bunn-O-Matic Corporation Springfield, Illinois, U.S.A), homogenized, and sub divided to obtain a representative sub-sample for analysis (https://www.extension.iastate.edu/NR/rdonlyres/52E2F1B9-AC0C-4AE5-8096-25B9921348AB/0/USDAAflatoxinHandbook.pdf). A 50g sub-sample was taken from each of the ground samples and extracted with 250 mL mixture of

ethanol/water (65:35, v/v) and shaken vigorously at 150 revolution per minute (rpm) for 3 minutes using a laboratory shaker (IKA® Werke, Germany). Extracts were filtered through Whatman No. 1 filter paper (Whatman International Ltd., Maidstone, UK). Then total aflatoxin (μ g/kg) and fumonisin (mg/kg) were quantified following the manufacturer's protocol using Reveal AccuScan® III reader (Neogen, USA), a quantitative ELISA-based analytical test kits designed specifically for either aflatoxins or fumonisin (http://www.gipsa.usda.gov/lawsandregs/bulletins/pn12-03.pdf). The detection limit for total aflatoxin was 2 μ g/Kg with a quantitation range of 2 - 150 μ g/Kg and that for total fumonisin was 0.3 mg/Kg with a quantitation range of 0.3 - 6 mg/Kg. The analytical quality of the ELISA methods was assured by the use of certified reference material (CRM), a naturally contaminated maize sample with certified total aflatoxin content of 18.1 \pm 3.6 μ g/kg and total fumonisin content of 4.2 \pm 0.6 mg/kg supplied by Neogen, USA. For the purpose of data analysis, non-detect levels were based on the detection limits (LOD) of the test method for each toxin.

Confirmatory test was done using Liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) at the Interuniversity Department of Agro biotechnology (IFA-Tullin, Austria), on 60 highly contaminated samples previously analysed using Reveal AccuScan® III reader (Neogen, USA) at the plant pathology laboratory of IITA-Tanzania. The results indicated a correlation between the two methods for both total aflatoxin and total fumonisin.

2.3.5 Statistical analysis

Data were analysed using StatisticalAnalysis System (SAS® Version 9.4, SAS Institute Incorporation, USA). A generalized linear model (GENMOD) was run to identify the factors that significantly affect contamination of maize and beans with aflatoxin and

fumonisins. The differences between means were detected using least square means (LSMEANS) to establish differences in mean total aflatoxin and fumonisin amongst the climatic zones and agricultural practices. Aflatoxin and fumonisin levels were transformed using the natural log to normalise the data before analysis.

2.4 Results

2.4.1 Characteristics of the farmers and their farming systems.

Seventy two percent of the sampled farmers in the study area were male and 28% female. Seventy seven percent completed primary education, while 15% either did not have any formal education, or did not complete primary education. Sixty two percent of the farmers were aware of mycotoxins, and 2%, all from one village, Sabilo had experienced health problems associated with consuming food that they believed to be contaminated either with mycotoxins or other food poisoning agents (Table 2.1).

Table 2.1: Demographic characteristics of farmers across three villages

Characteristics		Surveyed villa	nges	
	Total samples (n = 442) (%)	Long (n=154) (%)	Sabilo (n=145) (%)	Seloto (n=143) (%)
Sex				
Male	318 (72)	134 (87)	71 (49)	113 (79)
Female	124 (28)	20 (12)	74 (51)	30 (21)
Education				
Primary	340 (77)	125 (81)	108 (74)	107 (75)
Secondary	26 (6)	6 (4)	6 (4)	14 (10)
Tertiary	7(2)	2(1)	0(0)	5 (3)
None	69 (15)	21 (14)	31 (22)	17 (12)
Awareness				
Yes	276 (62)	55 (36)	112 (77)	109 (76)
No	166 (38)	99 (64)	33 (23)	34 (24)
Health problem				
Yes	10(2)	0(0)	10 (7)	0 (0)
No	432 (98)	154 (100)	135 (94)	143 (100)

n = number of farmers visited which is equal to the number of samples collected.

^{(%) =} percentage of farmers responded

2.4.2 Agronomic practices used by farmers villages

Four tillage methods were identified in the study area, as well as two planting dates (categorised as early planting for those who planted maize in November or December and late planting for those who planted in January or February). Farmers planted both improved (purchased) and local (saved) maize varieties. The various agronomic practices in the study area are shown in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Agronomic practices used by farmers across three villages

		Surveyed villages		
Practices	Total samples (n=442) (%)	Long (n= 154) (%)	Sabilo (n= 145 (%)	Seloto (n= 143) (%)
Planting date				
Early planting	329 (74)	149 (97)	59 (41)	121 (85)
Late planting	113 (26)	5(3)	86 (59)	22 (15)
Tillage method				
Hand hoe	28 (6)	4 (3)	5 (3)	19 (13)
Ox	346 (78)	144 (94)	95 (66)	107 (75)
Hand hoe, ox	57 (13)	4 (3)	42 (29)	11 (8)
Hand hoe, ox, tractor	11 (2)	2(1)	3 (2)	6 (4)
Variety				
Improved seed	432 (98)	152 (99)	139 (96)	141 (99)
Local seed	10(2)	2(1)	6 (4)	2(1)

n = number of farmers visited which is equal to the number of samples collected.

2.4.3 Total aflatoxin and fumonisin content in maize and beans

Nineteen percent and 35% of the maize sampleswere contaminated with aflatoxin and fumonisin, respectively. Eighteen percent of the bean samples were contaminated with aflatoxin (Table 2.3).

^{(%) =} percentage of farmers responded positively to each of the agronomic practices listed.

Table 2.3: Incidence and mean of total aflatoxin and fumonisin in maize and bean samples across three villages

Maize		Positive samples	Maximum	
	N	(%)	concentration	Mean ±SE
Aflatoxin (µg/kg)	440	84 (19)	26.2	2.94 ± 0.28
Fumonisin (mg/kg)	440	153 (35)	46.0	5.15 ± 0.63
Beans				
Aflatoxin (µg/kg)	38	7 (18)	3.0	2.49 ± 0.11
Fumonisin (mg/kg)	38	n.d	n.d	n.d

- Values are means of total aflatoxin and fumonisin levels of maize and beans for positive samples across three villages.
- Positive samples are all analysed samples with value > Limit of detection (LOD)
- n is the total number of analysed samples
- n.d means fumonisin levels were below LOD

The highest aflatoxin mean value for maize samples was found in Sabilo village and for fumonisin the highest mean value was found in Long village, while for beans the aflatoxin and fumonisin contamination was found only in Long village, with aflatoxin and fumonisin level below LOD in Sabilo and Seloto village (Table 2.4).

Table 2.4: Incidence and mean of total aflatoxin and fumonisin contamination in maize and bean samples in each villages

		Aflatoxin	(μg/kg)		Fumonisin	n (mg/kg)	
Village	n	Positive sample (%)	Range	Mean ± SE	Positive sample (%)	Range	Mean ± SE
Maize							
Long	153	26 (17)	2.10 - 3.6	$2.58^{a} \pm 0.08$	6(4)	0.90 - 14.00	$6.75^{a} \pm 2.41$
Sabilo	144	40 (28)	2.20 - 26.2	$3.32^{b} \pm 0.59$	65(45)	0.40 - 14.00	$3.17^{b} \pm 0.43$
Seloto	143	18 (13)	2.10 - 4.0	$2.62^{a} \pm 0.11$	82 (57)	0.40 - 46.00	$6.60^{a} \pm 1.08$
Beans							
Long	13	12 (92)	2.4	1.53 ± 0.15	10 (77)	0.1	0.1 ± 0.00
Sabilo	13	n.d	n.d	n.d	n.d	n.d	n.d
Seloto	12	n.d	n.d	n.d	n.d	n.d	n.d

- Values are means of total aflatoxin and fumonisin levels of positive maize and beans samples from each village.
- Positive samples are all analysed samples with value > Limit of detection (LOD)
- n is the total number of analysed samples
- Means with different letters (by column) are significantly different (P<0.05)
- n.d means aflatoxin and fumonisin levels were below LOD

2.4.4 Agronomic practices associated with aflatoxin and fumonisin levels in maize and beans

The occurrence of aflatoxin in maize was significantly associated with four practices; namely, early planting (Nov- December), medium altitude low rain zone, hand hoe tillage and ox tillage (Table 2.5). Results of parameter estimate from the regression model indicated that medium altitude low rain zone (Sabilo village) was positively associated with aflatoxin contamination (0.26), whereas early planting (-0.22), hand hoe tillage (-0.59) and ox tillage (-0.55) were negatively associated with aflatoxin contamination.

Occurrence of fumonisin in maize was negatively associated with three factors; high altitude high rain zone (Long village), medium elevation low rain (Sabilo village), hand hoe and ox tillage. Parameter estimates from the regression model indicate that the high altitude high rain zone was the major factor reducing fumonisin contamination (-2.93) followed by medium altitude low rainfall (-1.69) and hand hoe and ox tillage (-0.79) (Table 2.6). For aflatoxin and fumonisin contamination in beans, the results indicated that no climatic zone or agronomic practice was statistically significant for effects on aflatoxin or fumonisin levels.

Table 2.5: Agronomic practices significantly associated with aflatoxin contamination in maize (Y) tested across three villages

Practices	Estimates (standard error)	P value
Intercept	1.678(0.261)	0.0001*
X_1	-0.216(0.108)	0.0457*
X_2	0.260(0.115)	0.0243*
X_3	-0.587(0.288)	0.0417*
X_4	-0.548(0.252)	0.0297*

For Aflatoxin Y = 1.68 - 0.22 X_1 + 0.26 X_2 - 0.59 X_3 -0.55 X_4 ; where X_1 represents early planting; X_2 represents medium attitude low rain zone (Sabilo); X_3 represents hand hoe tillage; X_4 represents ox tillage. * = Statistically significant at P < 0.05

Table 2.6: Agronomic practices significantly associated with fumonisin contamination in maize (Y) tested across threevillages

Practices	Estimates (standard error)	P value
Intercept	3.8592(1.5375)	0.0121*
X_1	-2.9297(0.5664)	0.0001*
X_2	-1.6876(0.5910)	0.0043*
X_3	-0.7946(1.5773)	0.0031*

For Fumonisin $Y = 3.86 - 2.93 X_1 - 1.69 X_2 - 0.79 X_3$; where X_1 represents high altitude (Long); X_2 represents medium altitude (Sabilo) and X_3 represents hand hoe and ox tillage.

2. 5 Discussion

2.5.1 General aflatoxin and fumonisin contamination in maize

The maximum concentration of 26.2 μg/kg total aflatoxin (Table 2.3) was higher than MTL of 10 μg/kg by East African standards (EAC, 2011a). The same concentration was lower than 158 μg/kg reported by Kimanya *et al.* (2008) from other areas of Tanzania. It was also lower than the overall levels of 136.8 and 139.8 μg/kg reported in 1994 and 1995 respectively by Setamou *et al.* (1997) from Benin and 138 μg/kg reported by (Bankole *et al.*, 2003) from Nigeria. The higher aflatoxin concentration observed in samples from high altitude high rain zone (Long village) to mid altitude high rain zone (Seloto village) could be due to environmental characteristics of the different climatic zones that affect mycotoxin contamination (Section 2.3.1 and Section 2.5.3.1). Relatively low levels of aflatoxins in this study may be due to high fertiliser appplications, particularly sufficient levels of nitrogen (N), which are known to be important in reducing the risks of fungal infection and the development of mycotoxins in the field crops by reducing plant stress and improving immunity against fungal infection and mycotoxin production (Bruns, 2003).

The maximum concentration of 46 mg/kg total fumonisin (Table 2.3) was higher than the maximum tolerable limit in East African Community of 2 mg/kg (EAC, 2011a) and also higher than 11.048 mg/kg reported by Kimanya *et al.* (2008) from other areas of Tanzania

^{* =} Statistically significant at P < 0.05

and 21.8 mg/kg reported by Ncube *et al.* (2011) in South Africa, 1.78 mg/kg reported by (Bankole *et al.*, 2003) in Nigeria and 10 mg/kg by Atukwase *et al.* (2009) in Uganda. Thus, 35% (153/440) of the samples were not fit for human consumption because they contained fumonisin above the MTL. The high levels of contamination of the samples with fumonisin might also be attributed to environmental conditions of low temperature as previously recorded temperature in the study area was found to range from 12°C to 25°C, this low tempereature was reported to favour growth of *F. verticillioides* (Fandohan *et al.*, 2003).

2.5.2 General aflatoxin and fumonisin contamination in beans

The maximum concentration of 3 μg/kg total aflatoxin (Table 2.3) was lower than MTL of 10 μg/kg set by East African Community for dry beans (EAC, 2011b) and 4 μg/kg set by European Union regulations, this maximum concentration was also lower than 1463 μg/kg one of the highest levels recorded and reported by Aiat (2006) from Egypt, and 154.9 μg/kg reported by Nyinawabali (2013) from Rwanda. It was higher than 0.02 μg/kg reported by Tseng *et al.* (1995) from Taiwan and Ontario, Canada. Ghosia and Arsha (2012) from Pakistan observed that 10% of red kidney beans were contaminated above the suggested limit set by European Union regulations for total aflatoxins (European Commission, 2010).

The fumonisin concentration was below the LOD of 0.3 mg/kg (Table 2.3), this value was much lower than MTL of 2 mg/kg by East African Standards (EAC, 2011b), also lower than 7.1 mg/kg reported in Rwanda by Nyinawabali (2013) and 1.8 mg/kg for FB₁ reported by Tseng *et al.* (1995) from Taiwan and Ontario Canada. All samples were considered fit for human consumption because they contained aflatoxin and fumonisin below the permissible levels.

The low aflatoxin and fumonisins levels could be attributed to environmental characteristics of the different climatic zones and different agricultural practices which have shown to have an impact on aflatoxin development (Section 2.3.1 and Section 2.5.3.1). Stössel (1986) reported that soy bean seed coat and integrity acts as a barrier against fungal attack and hence mycotoxins contamination, other factors being constant, this might be the reason for low levels of aflatoxin and fumonisin reported in beans samples from this study.

2.5.3 Effect of Agriculture practices and climatic zones on contamination of maize and beans with aflatoxin and fumonisin.

2.5.3.1 Climatic zone

High altitude high rain zone was identified as the most important factor reducing fumonisin contamination in maize with a parameter estimate of -2.93, this means that per each one unit decrease in the predictor/independent variable (in this case high altitude high rain zone) there was a decrease in response/dependent variable (in this case fumonisin levels) by -2.93. This was followed by mid altitude low rain zone with a parameter estimate of -1.69 and hand hoe and ox tillage with a parameter estimate of -0.79 (Table 2.6). Maize from the high altitude high rain zone had significantly lower aflatoxin and higher fumonisin content. The findings from this study are comparable to those reported by Kaaya *et al.* (2006) that maize from mid altitude moist zone had highest mean aflatoxin levels of 9.7 µg/kg, followed by mid altitude dry zone with a mean level of 7.7 µg/kg and high altitude zone with a mean level of 3.9 µg/kg, the findings were also comparable to the findings reported by Atukwase *et al.* (2009) with high mean fumonisin levels of 4.93 mg/kg from the high altitude and 4.53 mg/kg from mid altitude moist zone.

All maize samples were found to have aflatoxin levels below the maximum permissible levels of 10 µg/kg (European commission, 2010; EAC, 2011a), while 35% (153/440) of the maize samples had fumonisin levels above the maximum permissible levels of 2 mg/kg (FDA, 2001; EAC, 2011a). These levels of aflatoxins and fumonisins in maize obtained from the study area could be due to the prevailing environmental conditions during the production period (as per climatic data obtained from Babati District office), which consisted of relatively high rainfall, high altitude and relatively low temperatures favourable for the growth of *Fusarium* and production of fumonisin and unfavourable for the growth of *Aspergillus* and production of aflatoxin. Optimum conditions for aflatoxin production is a temperature of 33 °C and water activity of 0.99 (Milani, 2013), while for fumonisins production is a temperature of 15-30°C and water activity of 0.9 - 0.995. The previously recorded temperature in the study area was found to range from 12°C in Long village to 25°C in Seloto village. Magan *et al.* (2014) showed that high temperatures favoured the proliferation of *A. flavus* and the elaboration of aflatoxin in maize prior to harvest.

2.5.3.2 Planting time

Time of planting had direct influence on the contamination of grain by aflatoxin, fumonisin and other mycotoxins. Maize planted at the end of November to December (early planting) had low levels of aflatoxin contamination with a parameter estimate of -0.22 (Table 2.5) compared to the maize planted in early January to February (late planting). A study conducted by Abbas *et al.* (2007) in Arkansas USA found that maize planted in mid-April resulted in lower aflatoxin and fumonisin contamination than did the early-May planting date, with the average temperature and rainfall during early planting of 33.0°C and 680 mm respectively, while for late planting the average was 30.5°C and 500 mm respectively. Several other studies on the effect of planting date

reported the same trend (Jones *et al.*, 1981; Lillehoj*et al.*, 1978). This is due to the fact that early planting reduce the levels of aflatoxin and fumonisin contamination by shifting the period between when the flower is fully open and functional (anthesis) and dough-development in maize to a time frame in growing season when maize are less susceptible to drought and heat stress as compared to late plantings (Zuber and Lillehoj, 1979).

2.5.3.3 Land tillage method

Tillage methods especially a hand hoe and ox was found to reduce the levels of aflatoxin contamination in maize compared to combination of hand hoe and tractor tillage, practiced by very few farmers. Parameter estimates from the regression model indicated that hand hoe tillage (-0.59) and ox tillage (-0.55) (Table 2.5) were the major factors reducing the aflatoxin contamination of maize, this means that for each one unit change in the predictor/independent variable (hand hoe tillage and ox tillage) there was a decrease in response/dependent variable (aflatoxin) by -0.59 and -0.55 respectively. While a combination of hand hoe and ox was found to reduce fumonisin levels in comparison to combination of hand hoe and tractor (Table 2.6). This is due to the fact that soil quality highly depends on factors such as soil structure, natural productivity and human influence, and tillage method is one of the major management practices affecting soil physical parameters (Janusauskaite et al., 2013), as A. flavus sits on soil surface and jumps up to maize ears due to rain splash or wind, if this population is submereged due to tillage it is not able to contaminate the crop. The same also applies to Fusarium inoculum which is pushed deeper in soil and cannot contaminate grains or pods as cannot reach soil surface. Helgason et al. (2009) found that both bacteria and fungi were more abundant under no tillage than conventional tillage. This indicates that there is a high possibility of fungal growth and mycotoxins production in a poorly administered tillage or under no tillage than in a conventional tillage. Steinekellner and Langer (2004) observed that the

deeper the tillage the lower was the number of the isolated *Fusarium* spp. They also reported higher diversity of *Fusarium* spp in conservation tillage than in moldboard plough-based tillage system.

2. 6 Conclusion

Results indicated that some of the production practices used by farmers as well as environmental conditions prevailing in the production area predisposed maize and beans to aflatoxin and fumonisin contamination. Since it is not easy to control the environmental conditions, maize and bean farmers should adopt good agricultural practices that can reduce fungal colonization and mycotoxins contamination; these include timely planting, proper land tillage, fertilizer applications, weeding, pest and disease control practices, use of aflatoxin biocontrol, and removal of any visible unhealthy crops to protect the remaining healthy ones and good crop residue management.

Acknowledgment

We thank the Innovative Agricultural Research Initiatives (iAGRI) for providing this scholarship through the support of United States Agency for International Development (USAID). The authors are also grateful to International Institute of Tropical Agriculture (IITA) under the support of Africa RISING Eastern and Southern Africa project on sustainable intensification of farming systems, for provision of technical and working facilities as well as covering part of the research cost for this study.

REFERENCES

- Abbas, H. K., Shier, W. T. and Cartwright, R. D. (2007). Effect of temperature, rainfall and planting date on aflatoxin and fumonisin contamination in commercial Bt and non-Bt corn hybrids in Arkansas. *Phytoprotection* 88(2): 41 50.
- Aiat, N. (2006). Genetic Variability among Three Species of Aspergillus. Seed born
 Aspergillus spp. And Aflatoxins Associated with Dry Beans (Phaseolus Vulgaris
 L.). Journal of Applied Sciences Research 2(11): 874 878.
- Atukwase, A., Kaaya, A. N. and Muyanja, C. (2009). Factors associated with fumonisin contamination of maize in Uganda. *Journal of Science, Food and Agriculture* 89: 2393 2398.
- Bankole, S. A., Mabekoje, O. O. and Enikuomehin, O. A. (2003). Fusarium spp. and fumonisin B₁ in stored maize from Ogun State, Nigeria. *Tropical Science* 43: 76–79.
- Bruns, H. A. (2003). Controlling aflatoxin and fumonisin in maize by crop management.

 Journal of Toxicology 22(3): 153 173.
- Creppy, E. E. (2002). Update of survey, regulation and toxic effects of mycotoxins in Europe. *Toxicology Letters* 127: 19 28.
- East African Community. (2011a). East African Standards Maize grains EAS 2/2011 of 2011. [https://law.resource.org/pub/eac/ibr/eas.2.2011.html] site visited on 25/09/2014.
- East African Community (2011b). Final Draft East African Standards FDEAS No. 46/2011 of 2011 specifying requirements and methods of sampling and test for dry common beans (*Phaseolus vulgaris L*) intended for human consumption. [https://law.resource.org/pub/eac/ibr/eas.46.2011.html] site visited on 18/10/2014.

- European Commission. (2010). Commission Regulation (EC) No. 165/2010 of November 2010 setting maximum levels for certain contaminants in food stuffs as regards aflatoxins. *Official Journal of the European Union* I(50): 8 12.
- Fandohan, P., Hell, K., Marasas, W. F. O. and Wingfield, M. J. (2003). Infection of maize by *Fusarium* species and contamination with fumonisins in Africa. *African Journal of Biotechnology* 12: 570 579.
- Food and Drug Administration (2001). Fumonisin levels in human foods and animal feeds. Guidelines for Industry, Rockville. [http://www.fda.gov/OHRMS/DOCKETS/98fr/110901c.htm] site visited on 18/05/2014.
- Filazi, A. and Sireli, U. T. (2013). Occurrence of aflatoxins in food. In: *Aflatoxins Recent Advances and Future*. (*Edited by Razzaghi-abyaneh, M.*), InTech Janeza Trdine Rijeka, Croatia. pp. 153 180.
- Franceschi, S., Bidoli, E., Baron, A. E. and La Vechhia, C. (1990). Maize and the risk of cancers of the oral cavity, pharynx, and oesophagus in North Eastern Italy.

 **Journal of National Cancer Institute 82: 1407 1410.
- Ghosia, L. and Arsha, H. (2012). Studies on contamination level of aflatoxins in some cereals and beans of Pakistan. *Food Control* 23: 32 36.
- Helgason, B. L., Walley, F. L. and Germida, J. (2009). Fungal and bacteria abundance in long term no till and intensive till soil of the Northern Great Plains. *Soil Science Society of American Journal* 73(1): 115 120.
- International Agency for Research on Cancer (1993). Ochratoxin A. monographs on the evaluation of carcinogenic risks to humans, some naturally occurring Substances.

 Food Items and Constituents, Heterocyclic Aromatic Amines and Mycotoxins 56: 489 521.

- Janusauskaite, D., Kadziene, G. and Auskalniene, O. (2013). The effect of tillage system on soil Microbiota in relation to soil structure. *Poland Journal of Environmental Studies* 22(5): 1387 1391.
- Jones, R. K. and Duncan, H. E. (1981). Effect of nitrogen fertilizer, planting date, and harvest date on aflatoxin production in corn inoculated with *Aspergillus flavus*.

 Plant Diseases 65: 741 744.
- Kaaya, A. N., Kyamuhangire, W. and Kyamanywa, S. (2006). Factors affecting aflatoxin contamination of harvested maize in the three climatic zones of Uganda. *Journal of Applied Science* 11: 2401 2407.
- Kimanya, M., Tiisekwa, B., Devlieghere, F., Ndomondo-Sigonda, M., Van Camp, J. and Kolsteren, P. (2008). Co-occurrence of fumonisins with aflatoxins in home stored maize for human consumption in rural villages of Tanzania. *Food Additives and Contaminants; Part A* 25: 1353 1364.
- Kimanya M. E., De Meulenaer B., Roberfroid D., Lachat C. and Kolsteren, P. (2010). Fumonisin exposure through maize in complementary foods is inversely associated with linear growth of infants in Tanzania. *Molecular Nutrition and Food Research* 54: 1659 1667.
- Lillehoj, E. B., Fennell, D. I., Kwolek, W. F., Adams, G. L., Zuber, M. S., Horner, E. S., Widstrom, N. W., Warren, H., Guthrie, W. D., Sauer, D. B., Findley, W. R., Manwiller, A., Josephson, L. M. and Bockholt, A. J. (1978). Aflatoxin contamination of corn before harvest: *Aspergillus flavus* association with insects collected from developing ears. *Crop Science* 18: 921 924.
- Magan, N., Medina, A. and Rodriguez, A. (2014). Effect of climate change on *Aspergillus* flavus and aflatoxin B₁ production. *Frontiers in Microbiology* 5: 331 348.

- Marasas, W. F. O., Gelderblom, W. C. A., Shephard, G. S. and Vismer, H. F. (2008).
 Mycotoxins: A Global Problem. In: *Mycotoxins: Detection methods, Management, Public Health and Agricultural Trade.* (Edited by Leslie, J. F., Bangyopadhay, R. and Viscont, A.), Cromwell Press, Townbridge, UK.
 pp. 29 39.
- Milani, J. M. (2013). Ecological conditions affecting mycotoxin production in cereals: a review. *Veterinarni Medicina* 58(8): 405 411.
- Missmer, S. A., Suarez, L., Felkner, M., Wang, E., Merrill Jr, A. H., Rothman, K. J. and Hendricks, K. A. (2006). Exposure to fumonisins and the occurrence of neural tube defects along the Texas–Mexico border. *Environmental Health Perspectives* 114(2): 233 237.
- Morgensen, J. M., Larsen, T. O. and Nielsen, K. F. (2010). Widespread Occurrence of the Mycotoxin Fumonisin B₂ in Wine. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry* 58 (8): 4853 4857.
- Ncube, E., Flett, B. C., Waalwijk, C. and Viljoen, A. (2011). *Fusarium* spp. and levels of fumonisins in maize produced by subsistence farmers in South Africa. *South African Journal of Science* 107: 1 2.
- Nyinawabali F. (2013). A survey of fungi and mycotoxins in selected food commodities from Rwanda. Dissertation for Award of MSc Degree at University of Johannesburg, South Africa, 105pp.
- Okoth, S. A. and Kola, M. A. (2012). Market samples as a source of chronic aflatoxin exposure in Kenya. *African Journal of Health Science* 20: 56 61.
- Omar, H. E. M. (2013). Mycotoxins-Induced Oxidative Stress and Disease. In: *Mycotoxin* and Food Safety in Developing countries. (Edited by Makun, H.A.), InTech Janeza Trdine Rijeka, Croatia: pp. 75 104.

- Setamou, M., Cardwell, K. F., Schulthess, F., and Hell, K., (1997). Aspergillus flavus infection and aflatoxin contamination of pre harvest maize in Benin. *Plant Disease* 81: 1323 1327.
- Steinkellner, S. and Langer, I. (2004). Impact of tillage on the incidence of *Fusarium* spp. in soil. *Plant and Soil* 267: 13 22.
- Stockmann-Juvala, H. and Savolainen, K. (2008). A review of the toxic effects and mechanisms of action of fumonisin B_1 . Human and Experimental Toxicology 27(11): 799-809.
- Stössel, P. (1986). Aflatoxin contamination in soybeans: role of proteinase inhibitors, zinc availability, and seed coat integrity. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 52: 68 72.
- Tseng, T. C., Tu, J. C. and Tzean, S. S. (1995). Mycoflora and mycotoxins in dry bean (*Phaseolus vulgaris L*) produced in Taiwan and in Ontario, Canada. *Botanical Bulletin of Academia Sinica* 36: 229 234.
- Ueno, Y., Iijima, K., Wang, S. D., Sugiura Y., Sekijima, M. and Tanaka, T. (1997). Fumonisins as a possible contributory risk factor for primary liver cancer: A 3-year study of corn harvest in Haimen, China, by HPLC and ELISA. *Food Chemistry and Toxicology* 35: 1143 1150.
- Wagacha, J. M. and Muthomi, J. W. (2008). Mycotoxin problem in Africa: Current status, implications to food safety and health and possible management strategies.

 International Journal of Food Microbiology 124: 1–12.
- Wild, C. and Gong, Y. (2010). Mycotoxins and human disease: a largely ignored global health issue. *Carcinogenesis* 31: 71 82.

- Williams, J. H., Phillips, T. D., Jolly, P. E., Stiles, J. K., Jolly, C. M. and Aggarwal, D. (2004). Human aflatoxicosis in developing countries: a review of toxicology, exposure, potential health consequences, and interventions. *American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*. 80:1106 –22.
- Zain, M. E. (2011). Impact of mycotoxins on humans and animals. *Journal of Saudi Chemical Society* 15: 129 144.
- Zuber, M. S. and Lillehoj, E. B. (1979). Status of the aflatoxin problem in corn. *Journal* of Environmental Quality 88: 1-5.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 The Influence of Storage Practices on Aflatoxin and Fumonisin

Contamination of Maize and Beans in Babati District Tanzania

Chacha J. Nyangi, ^{1,2*} Jovin K. Mugula¹, Fen Beed², Simon Boniphace², Koyano

Emmanuel²

¹Department of Food Science and Technology, Sokoine University of Agriculture,

P.O.Box 3006, Morogoro, Tanzania

²International Institute of Tropical Agriculture, P.O.Box 34441, Dar es salaam,

Tanzania.

3.1 **Abstract**

Aflatoxin and fumonisin levels were determined in a total of 574 maize and 106 beans

samples collected from 60 farmers' stores in three villages over a period of 180 days in

Babati district of Tanzania. Quantification for total aflatoxin and fumonisin was done

using ELISA (Reveal AccuScan®Neogen, USA), and the results were confirmed by LC-

MS/MS. Maize samples from mid altitude high rain zone (Seloto village) had the highest

aflatoxin mean value of 3.24 µg/kg. Factors associated with higher aflatoxin and

fumonisin levels were storage duration and storage facilities. Polypropylene bags without

any storage treatment had higher risk of aflatoxin development with a mean value of 3.57

µg/kg, while the use of improved storage bags lowered aflatoxin levels. Aflatoxins levels

were below the acceptable limit for human consumption, while 11% of the maize samples

had fumonisin levels above the acceptable limit, implying a risk to consumers' health.

Key words: aflatoxins, fumonisins, maize, beans storage practices

3.2 Introduction

Mycotoxins are secondary metabolites elaborated by moulds in a range of plant products. In study area maize is generally harvested late and is stored in grain form in wooden granaries, mud silos, or in polypropylene bags. Most of these systems create inadequate storage conditions unfavourable for good drying of maize, particularly in humid and semi-humid zones, consequently this promote fungal infection and subsequent production of mycotoxins. Most important mycotoxigenic fungi mostly found associated with stored maize and other products are *Aspergillus flavus* that produces aflatoxins (Wagacha and Muthoni, 2008; Okoth *et al.*, 2012), and *Fusarium verticillioides* (previously known as *F. moniliforme*), which produces fumonisins (Omar, 2013; Nyinawabali, 2013).

Mycotoxins production depends on climate, plant and storage-associated problems, the bio-availability of micronutrients, insect damage, and other attack from other pests, as well as storage length, type of storage structure, hygiene and insect infestation. All these factors interact and influence fungal infection and mycotoxin contamination hat are in turn determined by climatic conditions (Orsi *et al.*, 2000; Fandohan *et al.*, 2005; Milani, 2013).

At the post-harvest stage, proliferation of aflatoxin and fumonisin can be exacerbated in susceptible commodities under storage conditions such as hot and humid storage environment (Omar, 2013). Hell *et al.* (2000) found higher aflatoxin levels when maize was stored under or on top of the roof of farmers' houses, than in ventilated granaries. Aflatoxin contamination during storage has been related to insect infestation (Udoh *et al.*, 2000), long-term storage (Orsi *et al.*, 2000; Egal *et al.*, 2005), high temperature and drought conditions (Kaaya and Kyamuhangire, 2006). Hell *et al.* (2010) found the

improved bags to control mycotoxins levels and insect infestation without the use of chemicals.

The aim of this study was to establish the effect of storage facilities, storage condition and post-harvest handling practices on the occurrence of aflatoxins and fumonisins in maize and beans cultivation and consumption areas in a bid to recommend storage facilities and practices that can be adopted by subsistence farmers to reduce aflatoxin and fumonisin and enhance food safety.

3.3 Materials and Methods

3.3.1 Study area

The study was conducted in three villages namely Long, Sabilo and Seloto in Babati District, Manyara Region, Tanzania. The high altitude high rain zone representing Long village lies between 2150 and 2450 metres above sea levels (m.a.s.l) and characterised by relatively high annual rainfall of 1200 mm. The mid altitude low rainfall zone representing Sabilo village lies between 1500 and 1850 m.a.s.l characterised by relatively low rainfall of 900 – 1100 mm, while the mid altitude high rain zone representing Seloto village lies between 1850 – 2150 m.a.s.l and characterised by relatively annual rainfall of 1100 – 1200 mm. The villages were purposively selected as they represented different climatic zones and also they fall under USAID's Feed the Future priority research area, where the Africa RISING Eastern and Southern Africa project on sustainable intensification of farming systems is being implemented in collaboration with International Institute of Tropical agriculture (IITA). Maize and beans are also the major staple food in the study sites and Tanzania as a whole.

3.3.2 Selection of farmers

Twenty farmers were randomly selected from a list of 150 farmers generated by respective village's extension officers and previously used in collecting at harvest maize and beans samples, this ensured that the same samples were followed to the post harvest stage (storage steps). The selected farmers were supposed to provide 350 kg of maize to be stored in their household for at least 6 months. They were also required to store beans. Each farmer provided three maize samples per survey as each had three different storage facilities to collect samples from, these were; improved bags (Super grain safe bags), traditional storage (cribs/polypropylene bags) and control facilities (polypropylene bags) in which no treatment was applied. Each farmer also provide one bean sample from own storage facilities.

3.3.3 Sample collection

Samples were collected from farmers' traditional storage facilities (i.e., farmers' own storage facilities, either granary or polypropylene bags), improved storage facilities (promoted by International Institute of Tropical Agriculture, IITA-Tanzania) and control (polypropylene bags in which no any storage treatment was applied). Samples were collected at an interval of 0, 40, 80 and 180 days. The 20 randomly sampled farmers per village were interviewed using a semi-structured questionnaire (Appendix 1). Responses were elicited on farmers' storage practices, storage structures, pest problems in storage, storage treatment, storage form, length of storage, sorting, source of samples and farmers' solutions to these problems. Global Positioning System (GPS) coordinates and basic demographic details of farmers/producer were also collected. Responses from the farmers were used to evaluate storage practices and handling techniques.

One sub-sample was drawn from each storage facility, if there was more than one package of the same lot as explained by the interviewee, then the sub-samples were mixed to have approximately 1kg of each sample that will be a good representative of samples. Farmers with two lots of crop, say a good lot for human consumption as food and another lot of especially bad/sorted for livestock or other uses, two separate samples were taken. The samples were then placed in a clean paper bag (A4 envelope) provided, this was then well sealed, labelled and immediately transported to plant pathology laboratory of IITA-Dar es salaam, Tanzania. The collected samples were then dried at 65°C for 72 hours in a cabinet drier to attain a moisture content of less than 13%.

3.3.4 Quantification of total aflatoxin and fumonisin

The samples were ground using a Bunn grinder (Man: Bunn-O-Matic Corporation Springfield, Illinois, U.S.A), homogenized, and sub divided to obtain a representative sub-sample for analysis (https://www.extension.iastate.edu/NR/rdonlyres/52E2F1B9-AC0C-4AE5-8096-25B9921348AB/0/USDAAflatoxinHandbook.pdf). A 50g sub-sample was taken from each of the ground samples and extracted with 250 mL mixture of ethanol/water (65:35, v/v) and shaken vigorously at 150 revolution per minute (rpm) for 3 minutes using a laboratory shaker (IKA® Werke, Germany). Extracts were filtered through Whatman No. 1 filter paper (Whatman International Ltd., Maidstone, UK). Then total aflatoxin (μg/kg) and fumonisin (mg/kg) were quantified following the manufacturer's protocol using Reveal AccuScan® III reader (Neogen, USA), a quantitative ELISA-based analytical test kits designed specifically for either aflatoxins or fumonisin (http://www.gipsa.usda.gov/lawsandregs/bulletins/pn12-03.pdf). The detection limit for total aflatoxin was 2 μg/Kg with a quantitation range of 2 - 150 μg/Kg and that for total fumonisin was 0.3 mg/Kg with a quantitation range of 0.3 - 6 mg/Kg. The analytical quality of the ELISA methods was assured by the use of certified reference

material (CRM), a naturally contaminated maize sample with certified total aflatoxin content of 18.1 ± 3.6 µg/kg and total fumonisin content of 4.2 ± 0.6 mg/kg supplied by Neogen, USA. For the purpose of data analysis, non-detect levels were based on the detection limits (LOD) of the test method for each toxin

Confirmatory test was done using Liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) at the Interuniversity Department of Agro biotechnology (IFA-Tullin, Austria), on 60 highly contaminated samples previously analysed using Reveal AccuScan® III reader (Neogen, USA) at the plant pathology laboratory of IITA-Tanzania. The results indicated a correlation between the two methods for both total aflatoxin and total fumonisin.

3.3.5 Statistical analysis

Data were analysed using Statistical Analysis System (SAS® Version 9.4, SAS Institute Incorporation, USA). A generalized linear model (GENMOD) was run to identify the factors that significantly affect contamination of maize and beans with aflatoxin and fumonisins. The differences between means were detected using least square means (LSMEANS) to establish differences in mean total aflatoxin and fumonisin amongst the villages, storage facilities and agricultural practices. Aflatoxin and fumonisin levels were transformed using the natural log to normalise the data before analysis.

3.4 Results

3.4.1 Characteristics of farmers

Overall 94% and 6% of the farmers interviewed were males and females respectively. Eighty percent completed primary education, 8% had secondary education, and five percent had tertiary education, with 7% having no formal education. Results for demographic data of all respondents are presented in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Demographic characteristics of farmers across three villages

Characteristics			Surveyed villages	<u> </u>
	Total samples (n = 576) (%)	Long (n = 196) (%)	Sabilo (n = 194) (%)	Seloto (n = 186) (%)
Sex				
Male	544 (94)	164 (84)	194 (100)	186 (100)
Female	32 (6)	32(16)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Education				
Primary	457 (80)	159 (81)	176 (91)	122 (66)
Secondary	48 (8)	10 (5)	8 (4)	30 (16)
Tertiary	27 (5)	17 (9)	0 (0)	10 (5)
None	44 (7)	10 (5)	10 (5)	24(13)
Awareness				
Yes	517 (90)	196 (100)	135 (70)	186 (100)
No	59 (10)	0 (0)	59 (30)	0 (0)
Health problem				
Yes	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)
No	576 (100)	196 (100)	194 (100)	186 (100)

n = Number of samples collected.

3.4.2 Storage practices used by farmers in the study area

3.4.2.1 Storage structures

Traditional storage structures in all three villages were almost similar, the commonly used being locally made granaries known as 'Vihenge' in Kiswahili. It is made of wooden and woven with twigs or bamboo from surrounding forests and covered with thatch grass or iron sheets and sometimes kept inside a house, and also polypropylene bags. The improved storage facilities known as Super grain safe bag is a penetration-resistant model and gas-tight storage solution for a vast range of dry agricultural commodities was also used (Table 3.2).

3.4.2.2 Sorting

Sorting was another postharvest handling practiced by farmers in all three villages. Sorting was done manually by removing physically damaged and infected grains based mainly on coloration, physical damage and those infected with mold from the intact

^{(%) =} percentage of farmers responded

commodity. Most of the famers sorted their maize before shelling and after they were properly dried. The sorted bad portion was mainly used as animal feeds and few farmers were using the portion for food after they dehull and mill the bad sorted portion mixed with sorghum to obtain flour (Table 3.2).

3.4.2.3 Drying

Drying of maize and beans was mainly done on the bare ground or on a raised platform. The raised platform was constructed with medium sized pieces of trees and at a height of approximately one metre above the ground, and constructed outside and well protected against animals. Ninety nine percent of farmers dried their maize on bare ground and 1% dry the maize on platform (Table 3.2).

3.4.2.4 Stores treatment

Twenty three percent of the farmers in the study area treated their stores against insects' infestation before introducing crops to be stored. Store treatment was done by using either chemical pesticides or natural protectants. Chemical pesticides were sprayed in the store especially on walls, floor and ceiling before introducing crops to be stored, this was done by 16% of the responded farmers. The common pesticides used were Actelic (pirimiphosmethyl) and Bami force (permethrin and malathion). An alternative treatment involved the use of natural protectants to smear the granaries/cribs prior to introduction of crops, and this comprised a mixture of dried, ground plant leaves combined with burnt cowdung and sometimes ashes, this was found to be practiced by 7% of the farmers (Table 3.2).

3.4.2.5 Grain treatment

Grains ready to be stored, whether maize or beans, were treated before being introduced into the storage facilities. Seventeen percent of the farmers used chemical pesticides which were specific formulation for stored grains such as Super Shumba (pirimiphos-

methyl and permethrin), Actellic (pirimiphos-methyl), Bami force (permethrin and malathion) or zinc phosphate, in most cases chemical pesticides were applied once during the storage period and in few cases it was applied twice depending on the length of storage and the extent of insects infestation. Seven percent of the farmers applied traditional protectants (Table 3.2).

3.4.2.6 Storage pests

There was no insect infestation in the maize stored in improved bags (Super grain safe bags) during the entire storage period, while the control storage facility had the highest levels of insect infestation as no insecticides or other storage treatment like regular sundrying was applied. In all three study villages the common pest infesting maize was identified as *Sitophillus zeamaiz* (Table 3.2).

3.4.2.7 Storage with other crops

The most common crops that are usually stored alongside maize were beans and few farmers stored maize with wheat, sunflower and pigeon pea. All farmers in the three villages usually cleaned their stores and removed all previous crop residues from the store before introducing new harvest (Table 3.2).

Table 3.2: Storage practices practiced by farmers across three villages

			Surveye	Surveyed villages		
Practices	Total samples	Long	Sabilo	Seloto		
	(n = 576) (%)	(n = 196) (%)	(n = 194) (%)	(n = 186) (%)		
Storage structures						
Improved bags	179 (31)	60 (31)	60 (31)	59 (32)		
Polypropylene bags	167 (29)	71 (36)	43 (22)	53 (28)		
Cribs/granaries	54 (9)	6 (3)	32 (17)	16 (9)		
Control	176 (31)	59 (30)	59 (30)	58 (31)		
Storage pests						
Insects	92 (16)	36 (18)	26 (13)	30 (16)		
Insects and rodents	79 (14)	14 (7)	37 (19)	28 (15)		
No pests	405 (70)	146 (75)	131 (68)	128 (69)		
Remove crop residue						
Yes	573 (99)	196 (100)	191 (98)	186 (100)		
No	3 (1)	0 (0)	3 (2)	0 (0)		
Storage with other						
crops						
Yes	270 (47)	76 (39)	89 (46)	104 (56)		
No	306 (53)	119 (61)	105 (54)	82 (44)		
Stores treatment						
Chemical spray	93 (16)	32 (16)	11 (6)	50 (27)		
Traditional pedticides	40 (7)	7 (4)	24 (13)	9 (5)		
Not treating stores	443 (77)	157 (80)	159 (81)	127 (68)		
Grain treatment						
Chemical pesticides	74 (13)	43 (22)	15 (8)	16 (9)		
Traditional pesticides	39 (7)	6 (3)	26 (13)	7 (4)		
No use of pesticides	463 (80)	147 (75)	153 (79)	163 (87)		
Drying method						
On bare ground	568 (99)	188 (96)	194 (100)	186 (100)		
On platform	8 (1)	8 (4)	0 (100)	0 (0)		
Sorting						
Yes	501 (87)	188 (96)	136 (70)	177 (95)		
No No also of contract to	75 (13)	8 (4)	58 (30)	9 (5)		

n = Number of samples collected.

3.4.3 Total aflatoxin and fumonisin content in maize and beans

Results obtained from farmers storage structures during the storage period indicated that 27% and 45% of maize samples were contaminated with aflatoxin and fumonisin, while for beans it was 34% and 7% respectively. The range of aflatoxins and fumonisins

^{(%) =} percentage of farmers responded.

concentrations for maize and beans is reported in Table 3.3. The highest aflatoxin mean value of 3.24 μ g/kg was found in Seloto village and for fumonisin the highest mean value of 3.11 mg/kg was found in Sabilo village while for beans the highest aflatoxin mean value of 3.74 μ g/kg was found in Sabilo village and for fumonisin the highest mean value of 9 mg/kg was found in Long village (Table 3.4).

Table 3.3: Occurrence/prevalence of aflatoxin and fumonisin in maize and beans across three villages

Maize		Positive sample	Range	Mean ±SE
	n	(%)		
Aflatoxin (µg/kg)	574	155 (27)	2.1 - 10.1	3.12 ± 0.09
Fumonisin (mg/kg)	574	257 (45)	2.1 - 90	0.68 ± 0.20
Beans				
Aflatoxin (µg/kg)	106	36 (34)	2.1 - 14.2	3.34 ± 0.34
Fumonisin (mg/kg)	106	7 (7)	0.4 - 9.00	3.81 ± 1.47

- Values are means of total aflatoxin and fumonisin levels for positive maize and beans samples stored in different storage structures.
- n = total number of samples analysed
- Means values are for all analysed samples.
- Positive samples are all analysed samples with values > Limit of detection (LOD)

Table 3.4: Prevalence, range and mean total aflatoxin and fumonisin content in maize and beans in each village

		Aflatoxin (μg/kg)			Fumonisin (mg/kg)			
Village	n	Positive sample (%)	Range	Means ± SE	Positive sample (%)	Range	Means ± SE	
Long	196	75 (38)	2.1 - 4.9	$3.04^{a}\pm 0.09$	10 (0.05)	0.10 - 3.30	$1.02^{a} \pm 0.27$	
Sabilo	193	28 (15)	2.1 - 4.6	$3.12^{a} \pm 0.17$	97(50)	0.4 - 90.00	$3.11^{b} \pm 1.16$	
Seloto	185	52 (28)	2.1 - 10.1	$3.24^{a} \pm 0.20$	49 (26)	0.4 - 5.20	$1.01^{a} \pm 0.13$	
Beans								
Long	36	36 (100	0.4 - 4.6	$2.22^{a} \pm 0.21$	1(3)	0.90 - 9.00	$9.0^{a} \pm 0.25$	
Sabilo	37	10 (27)	2.10-3.00	$2.64^{a} \pm 0.09$	27 (57)	0.00 - 0.2	$0.08^{a} \pm 0.01$	
Seloto	33	11 (33)	2.10 - 14.2	$3.74^{b} \pm 1.07$	6 (18)	0.40 - 7.90	$2.95^{a} \pm 0.31$	

- Values are means of total aflatoxin and fumonisin levels for positive maize and beans samples from each Village.
- Means with different letters (by column) are significantly different (P<0.05).
- Positive samples are all analysed samples with value > Limit of detection (LoD)
- n is the total number of analysed samples

Maize samples collected from polypropylene bags used as control storage facility had the highest levels of aflatoxins with a mean value of 3.57 µg/kg while those collected from Super grain safe bags (Improved) had the lowest mean levels of 2.38 µg/kg. For Fumonisins, samples collected from traditional cribs/granaries (*Vihenge*) had the highest mean value 5.71 mg/kg while those collected from polypropylene bags used by farmers had the lowest levels of 1.19 mg/kg. There were statistical significant differences in aflatoxins and fumonisins levels from maize samples collected in different storage facilities as shown in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5: Prevalence, range and mean total aflatoxin and fumonisin content in maize and beans stored in different storage structures across three villages

			Aflatoxin (µg	/kg)	Fumonisin (mg/kg)		
Maize Storage structure		Positive sample (%)	Range	Means ± SE	Positive sample (%)	Range	Means ± SE
	n						
Improved	178	41 (23)	2.1 - 4.7	$2.38^{a} \pm 0.11$	46 (26)	0.40 - 11.00	$1.42^{a} \pm 0.25$
POP bags	166	41 (25)	2.2 - 10.1	$3.30^{b} \pm 0.22$	43 (25)	0.40 - 5.20	$1.19^{a} \pm 0.17$
Granaries	54	11 (20)	2.10 - 4.7	$2.76^{a} \pm 0.24$	23 (43)	0.40 - 90.00	$5.71^{b} \pm 3.88$
Control	176	62 (35)	2.10 - 6.7	$3.57^{b} \pm 0.13$	45 (26)	0.40 - 70.00	$2.53^{c} \pm 1.54$
Beans							
POP bags	106	36 (34)	2.10 - 14.2	3.34 ± 0.34	7 (7)	0.40 - 9.00	3.81 ± 1.47

- Values are means of total aflatoxin and fumonisin levels for positive maize and beans samples stored in different storage structures.
- Means with the different letters (by column) are significantly different (P<0.05).
- Positive samples are all analysed samples with value >Limit of detection (LOD)
- POP represents polypropylene bags commonly used as a storage facility.
- n is the total number of analysed samples

The results from the storage duration for maize indicated that the mean aflatoxin levels increased from day 0 to day 180. The observed increase was statistically significant in day 180 from the rest of the storage period (P< 0.05). The mean fumonisins level decreases during the entire storage period (day 0 to day 180) and the decrease was statistically significant (Table 3.6).

Table 3.6: Prevalence, range and mean total aflatoxin and fumonisin content in maize and beans during storage across three villages

			Aflatoxin (μg/kg)	Fumonisin (mg/kg)			
Maize storage in days	n	Positive sample (%)	Range	Means ± SE	Positive sample (%)	Range	Means ± SE	
Day 0	60	9 (15)	2.1 - 4.4	$2.69^{a} \pm 0.25$	28(46)	0.40 - 90.00	$4.42^{a} \pm 3.17$	
Day 40	178	60 (33)	2.1 - 4.7	$2.92^{a} \pm 0.09$	51(29)	0.40 - 70.00	$3.03^{b} \pm 1.36$	
Day 80	176	46 (26)	2.1 - 4.9	$2.92^{a} \pm 0.12$	48 (27)	0.40 - 14.00	$1.24^{\circ} \pm 0.29$	
Day 180	174	19 (11)	2.1 - 10.1	$3.89^{b} \pm 0.46$	35 (20)	0.40 - 3.10	$0.80^{d} \pm 0.09$	
Beans								
Day 120	55	7 (13)	2.1-4.50	$2.73^{a} \pm 0.32$	4(7)	0.40 - 7.90	$3.93^{a} \pm 1.99$	
Day 160	51	29 (57)	2.1 - 14.2	$3.49^{b} \pm 0.41$	3(6)	0.90 - 9.00	$3.67^{a} \pm 2.67$	

- Values are means of total aflatoxin and fumonisin levels for positive maize and beans samples
- Means with different letters (by column) are significantly different (P<0.05).
- Positive samples are all analysed samples with value >Limit of detection (LOD)
- n represents total number of all analysed samples

Effect of sorting of bad or moulded maize in the stored lot indicated that the bad portion had higher levels for both aflatoxins and fumonisins with means of 3.23 μ g/kg and 14.45 mg/kg, respectively, compared with the good portion which had a mean aflatoxin and fumonisins levels of 2.69 μ g/kg and 5.30 mg/kg respectively (Table 3.7).

Table 3.7: Mean total aflatoxin and fumonisin content in sorted maize across three villages

			Aflatoxin (μg/kg)	Fumonisin (mg/kg)			
Sorting	n	Positive sample (%)	Range	Means ± SE	Positive sample (%)	Range	Means ± SE	
Good portion	52	9 (17)	2.1 - 4.4	$2.69^{a} \pm 0.25$	22 (42)	0.40 - 90.00	$5.30^{a} \pm 4.04$	
Bad portion	40	11 (28)	2.1 - 4.7	$3.23^a \pm 0.31$	21 (52)	0.20 - 62.00	$14.45^{b} \pm 3.69$	

- Values are means of total aflatoxin and fumonisin levels for positive maize samples
- Means with different letters (by column) are significantly different (P<0.05).
- Positive samples are all analysed samples with value >Limit of detection (LOD)
- n represents total number of all analysed samples

3.4.4 Storage practices significantly associated with aflatoxin and fumonisin in maize and beans

Occurrence of aflatoxin in maize during storage was correlated with only four practices/factors that were storage at day 0, day 40, day 80 and storage with other crops. Sorting, storage of maize in improved storage bags, and the use of traditional protectant as pesticides were the practices/factors negatively associated with aflatoxin contamination. Parameter estimates from the regression model indicated that sorting (-0.24) was the major factor reducing the contamination of maize to aflatoxin (Table 3.8).

Occurrence of fumonisin in maize was associated with three practices/factors; sorting, use of chemical pesticides, storage in cribs/granaries and storage of maize with other crops in the same store (Table 3.9). Parameter estimates from the regression model indicated that sorting (-0.53) was the major factors reducing fumonisins levels. For aflatoxins and fumonisins contamination in beans, the results indicated that there was no any predictors from the regression model that was statistically significant.

Table 3.8: Storage practices/factors significantly associated with aflatoxin contamination in maize (Y) across three villages

Practices/variables	Estimates (standard error)	P value
Intercept	0.16 (0.08)	0.0339*
X_1	-0.24 (0.11)	0.0310*
X_2	-0.11 (0.16)	<0.0001*
X_3	0.17 (0.03)	<0.0001*
X_4	0.20 (0.02)	< 0.0001*
X_5	0.25(0.13)	< 0.0001*
X_6	-0.08 (0.04)	0.0288*
X_7	0.04 (0.02)	0.0153*

For Aflatoxin Y = 0.16 - 0.24 X_1 - 0.11 X_2 + 0.17 X_3 + 0.20 X_4 + 0.25 X_5 - $0.08X_6$ + $0.04X_7$; where X_1 represents sorting; X_2 represents storage in improved facilities; X_3 , X_4 and X_5 represents storage days at 0, 40, and 80 respectively; X_6 represents traditional pesticides; X_7 represents storage with other crops.

^{*} Statistically significant at P < 0.05

Table 3.9: Storage practices/factors significantly associated with fumonisins in Maize (Y) across three villages

Practices/variables	Estimates (standard error)	P value
Intercept	0.0026(0.08)	0.9728
X_1	-0.5322(0.2682)	0.0472*
X_2	0.1128 (0.0431)	0.0088*
X_3	-0.0902 (0.0283)	0.0015*
X_4	-0.0391 (0.0163)	0.0166*

For Fumonisin $Y = 0.0026 - 0.532X_1 + 0.1128X_2 - 0.0902 X_3 - 0.0391X_4$; where X_1 represents sorting; X_2 represents storage in granaries; X_3 represents the use of chemical pesticides; X_4 represents storage of maize with other crops.

3.5 Discussion

3.5.1 Aflatoxin and fumonisin contamination in maize

Total aflatoxins levels in maize ranged from 2.1 to 10.1 μg/kg with a mean of 3.12 μg/kg. Thus, only one sample, according to the East African Community standards was not fit for human consumption because the measured aflatoxin concentration was above the MTL of 10 μg/kg. This maximum concentration of 10.1 μg/kg aflatoxins was, however, lower than 221 μg/kg reported by Hell (1997) and 355 μg/kg reported by Kpodo *et al.* (1996) in Ghana.

The maximum concentration of total fumonisin in maize was 90 mg/kg. It was observed that 1% (8/574) of the maize samples were not fit for human consumption according to **USA** the and EAC standards of 2mg/kg (FDA, 2001; EAC, 2011a). This maximum concentration of fumonisin in maize was higher than the 6.54 mg/kg reported by Queiroz et al. (2012) in Brazil; 2.4 mg/kg reported by Fandohan et al. (2005) in Benin; 49.31 mg/kg reported by Orsi et al. (2000) in the State of São Paulo, Brazil; in 86 stored maize samples in the eastern province of Kenya Bii et al. (2012), and exceeded the maximum permitted level of 2 mg/kg (EAC, 2011b). The observed low levels of aflatoxin and higher fumonisin levels could be attributed to environmental and climatic

^{*} Statistically significant at P < 0.05

conditions of low temeperature and high rain from the different climatic zones and different storage practices in the three villages.

3.5.2 Aflatoxin and fumonisin contamination in beans

Total aflatoxin and fumonisin was quantified in 106 beans samples. The highest concentration for total aflatoxin was 14.2 µg/kg. Only one sample had aflatoxin levels above permitted levels by USA and EAC standards of 10 µg/kg (FDA, 2001; EAC, 2011b). Thus about 99.1% of the samples were fit for human consumption according to the EAC and US standards. However, the highest level observed in this study was lower than 21.48 µg/kg reported by Tseng et al. (1995) in Ontario, Canada and Taiwan; 154.9 μg/kg reported by Nyinawabali (2013) in Rwanda and 0.02 μg/kg reported by Aiat (2006) in Egypt.

The observed maximum concentration of total fumonisins in beans was 9 mg/kg, this was higher than the limit of 2 mg/kg set by EAC standards (EAC, 2011b). Thus, about 3% (3/106) of samples were not fit for human consumption according to the EAC and USA standards. The observed maximum fumonisin level was higher than 1.8 mg/kg of fumonisin B₁ reported by Tseng *et al.* (1995) in Ontario, Canada and Taiwan; and 7.1 mg/kg reported by Nyinawabali (2013) from Rwanda.

The low aflatoxin levels could be attributed to environmental characteristics of low temperature and high rain which do not favour aflatoxin formation, but favourable to fumonisin. Also different agricultural practices have shown to have an influence on aflatoxin and fumonisin development (Milani, 2013). Stössel (1986) reported that soy bean seed coat and integrity acts as a barrier against fungal attack and hence mycotoxins

contamination, other factors being constant, this might be the reason for low levels of aflatoxin and fumonisin reported in beans samples from this study.

3.5.3 Storage factors significantly associated with aflatoxin and fumonisin contamination in stored Maize

3.5.3.1 Sorting

Parameter estimates (coefficient) from the regression model used indicated that sorting was one of the practices that reduced aflatoxins (-0.2411) and fumonisins (-0.5322) levels in maize (Table 3.8, 3.9), this means that for each one unit change in the predictor/independent variable (sorting) there was a decrease in response/dependent variable (aflatoxin and fumonisin levels) by -0.2411 and -0.5322 respectively. This observation was comparable to that made by Park (2002) and Afolabi *et al.* (2006) who reported that sorting reduced aflatoxin levels by 40-80%. Kedera *et al.* (1999) reported that poor quality maize grains were correlated with higher levels of fumonisins. Hell and Mutegi (2011) also reported that sorting reduced toxin concentrations to safe levels without the production of toxin degradation products or any reduction in the nutritional value of food. Almost all farmers in the study area cleaned their stores and removed residue from the previous harvest before loading new harvest. This might also help in the management of mycotoxins. Hell *et al.* (2000) observed that cleaning of stores before loading new produce reduced aflatoxins concentration in Benin.

3.5.3.2 Storage structure

The parameter estimate (coefficient) from the regression model (-0.11) indicated that the improved bags were associated with reduction of aflatoxin levels (Table 3.8). These observations were similar to those reported by Hell *et al.* (2010) in Senegal that the improved bags controlled insect infestation and mycotoxins levels without using

chemicals. The Parameter estimate (regression coefficient) from the regression model (0.11) indicated that storage in cribs or granaries was associated with the increase in fumonisin levels (Table 3.9), this means that for each one unit change in the predictor/independent variable (storage in granaries) there was an increase/change in response/dependent variable (fumonisin levels) by 0.11. However, the results are contrary to those reported by Fandohan *et al.* (2005) in Benin who observed a significant decrease in fumonisins in granaries. This might be due the poor ventilation in the structures as some farmers covered the granary with cow dung mixed with mud.

3.5.3.3 Storage length

The parameter estimate from the regression model indicated that short term storage at day 0 (0.17, P<0.0001), day 40 (0.20, P<0.0001) and day 80 (0.25, P<0.0001) predisposed maize to aflatoxin contamination (Table 3.8). These findings were similar to those reported by Hell *et al.* (2000) in Benin that higher aflatoxins levels were associated with short storage period of 3 – 5 months and lower level with longer storage duration of 8 - 10 months. The results of this study were contrary to findings by Liu *et al.* (2006) in China who reported a significant increase in aflatoxins with storage duration, from 0.84 μg/kg in 12 months to 1.17 μg/kg in 24 months. Fandohan *et al.* (2005) reported an increase in aflatoxins levels in all storage systems throughout the storage period (8 months) in Benin. Hell *et al.* (2003) also reported that higher incidence of aflatoxins contamination was observed in maize stored for 6 months compared to the fresh harvested maize at 0 month of storage. Egal *et al.* (2005) reported that aflatoxin contamination was facilitated by long-term storage under unhygienic and non-ventilated conditions in Benin and Togo. Ninety nine percent of farmers in the study area removed residue from the previous crops in the store and 100% % of farmers cleaned the stores before introducing new harvest.

These practices improve hygiene and, in combination with environmental condition may be among the reasons for low levels of aflatoxins and fumonisins during storage.

3.5.3.4 Grain treatment

From the regression model, it was found that local plants mixed with burnt cow dung decreases aflatoxins levels (parameter estimate of -0.08 and P value of 0.0288) (Table 3.8). These results are contrary to those reported by Hell *et al.* (2000) who observed that the mixing of plant substances with stored cobs may increase the risk of aflatoxin development instead of controlling it. Farmers in the study area were using plant materials in a powder form, as natural protectant. Some of the plant parts might prevent mould growth and mycotoxin elaboration. Application of chemical/commercial pesticides such as Super Shumba (pirimiphos-methyl and permethrin), Actellic (pirimiphos-methyl), Bami force (permethrin and malathion) or zinc phosphate reduced fumonisins levels (parameter estimate of -0.0902 and P value of 0.0015).

3.6 Conclusion

Mycotoxin contamination of maize and beans increased with storage duration. Several factors that might facilitate reduction of aflatoxin and fumonisins levels in stored maize and beans in the study area were identified. These included control of storage insects and mycotoxins levels (aflatoxins and fumonisins) through the removal of damaged cobs, sorting, the use of appropriate storage insecticides and use of storage structures (improved bags) which were found to control the levels of aflatoxin, also avoiding long term storage.

Acknowledgment

We thank the Innovative Agricultural Research Initiatives (iAGRI) for providing this scholarship through the support of United States Agency for International Development (USAID). The authors are also grateful to International Institute of Tropical Agriculture (IITA) under the support of Africa RISING Eastern and Southern Africa project on sustainable intensification of farming systems, for provision of technical and working facilities as well as covering part of the research cost for this study. Thanks to Grace Michael of IITA Tanzania for her concerted effort during the survey. We also Thanks Sylivester Temba, Lydia Munuo, Siha Koka and Samson Lyimo of Nelson Mandela African Institute of Science and Technology (NM-AIST) for their support during survey and sample handling.

REFERENCES

- Afolabi, C. G., Bandyopadhyay, R., Leslie, J. F. and Ekpo, E. J. A. (2006). Effect of sorting on incidence and occurrence of fumonisins and *fusarium verticillioides* on Maize from Nigeria. *Journal of Food Protection* 69(8): 2019 2023.
- Aiat, N. (2006). Genetic variability among three species of *Aspergillus*. Seed born *Aspergillus* spp. and Aflatoxins Associated with Dry Beans (*Phaseolus Vulgaris* L.). *Journal of Applied Sciences Research* 2(11): 874 878.
- Bii, F., Wanyoike, W., Nyende, A. B., Gituru, R. W. and Bii, C. (2012). Fumonisin Contamination of Maize (*zea mays* L.) in aflatoxin 'hot' zones in Eastern Province of Kenya. *African Journal of Health Science* 20: 28 36.
- East African Community (2011a). East African Standards Maize grains 2/2011 of 2011. [https://law.resource.org/pub/eac/ibr/eas.2.2011.html] site visited on 25/09/2014.
- East African Community (2011b). Final Draft East African Standards FDEAS No. 46/2011 of 2011 specifying requirements and methods of sampling and test for dry common beans (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.) intended for human consumption. [https://law.resource.org/pub/eac/ibr/eas.46.2011.html] site visited on 18/10/2014.
- Egal. S., Hounsa, A., Gong, Y.Y., Turner, P. C., Wild, C. P., Hall, A. J., Hell, K. and Cardwell, K. F. (2005). Dietary exposure to aflatoxin from maize and groundnut in young children from Benin and Togo, West Africa. *International Journal of Food Microbiology* 104: 215 224.
- Fandohan, P., Ahouansou, R., Houssou, P., Hell, K., Marasas, W. F. O. and Wingfield,
 M. J. (2005). Impact of mechanical shelling and dehulling on *Fusarium* infection and fumonisin contamination in maize. *Food Additives and Contaminants* 23: 451 421.

- Food and Drug Administration (FDA). (2001). Guidelines for industry: Fumonisin levels in human foods and animal feeds. [http://www.fda.gov/OHRMS/DOCKETS/98fr/110901c.htm] site visited on 18/05/2014.
- Hell, K. (1997). Factors contributing to the distribution and incidence of aflatoxin producing fungi in stored maize in Benin. Thesis for Award of PhD Degree at University of Hannover, Germany, 176pp.
- Hell, K., Cardwell, K. F. and Poehling, H. M. (2003). Distribution of fungal species and aflatoxin contamination in stored maize in four climatic zones of Benin, West-Africa. *Journal of Phytopathology* 151: 690 698.
- Hell, K., Cardwell, K. F., Setamou, M. and Poehling, H. M. (2000). The influence of storage practices on aflatoxin contamination in maize in four climatic zones of Benin West Africa. *Journal of Stored Products Research* 36: 365 382.
- Hell, K., Ognakossan, K. E., Tonou, A. K., Lamboni, Y., Adabe, K. E. and Coulibaly, O. (2010). Maize Stored Pests Control by PICS-Bags: Technological and Economic Evaluation. Presentation at the 5th World Cowpea Conference, Saly, Senegal. [http://www.sciencedomain.org/uploads/Revised-manuscript_version1_10704. pdf] site visited on 16/05/2014.
- Hell, K. and Mutegi, C. (2011). Aflatoxin control and prevention strategies in key crops of Sub-Saharan Africa. *African Journal of Microbiology Research* 5(5): 459 466.
- Kaaya, A. N. and Kyamuhangire, W. (2006). The effect of storage time and climatic zone on mould incidence and aflatoxin contamination of maize from traders in Uganda. *International Journal of Food Microbiology* 110: 217 – 223.
- Kedera, C. J., Plattner, R. D. and Desjardins, A. E. (1999). Incidence of *Fusarium spp*. and levels of fumonisins B_1 in Maize in Western Kenya. *Applied Environment Microbiology* 65: 41 44.

- Kpodo, K., Sorensen, A. K. and Jakobsen, M. (1996). The occurrence of mycotoxins in fermented maize products. *Food Chemistry* 56: 157 153.
- Liu, Z., Gao, J. and Yu, J. (2006). Aflatoxins in stored maize and rice grains in Liaoning Province, China. *Journal of Stored Products Research* 42(4): 468 479.
- Milani, J. M. (2013). Ecological conditions affecting mycotoxin production in cereals: a review. *Veterinarni Medicina* 58(8): 405 411.
- Nyinawabali, F. (2013). A survey of fungi and mycotoxins in selected food commodities from Rwanda. Published Dissertation for award of MSc Degree at University of Johannesburg, South Africa, 105pp.
- Okoth, S. A. and Kola, M. A. (2012). Market samples as a source of chronic aflatoxin exposure in Kenya. *African Journal of Health Science* 20:56 61.
- Omar, H. E. M. (2013). Mycotoxins induced oxidative stress and disease. In: *Mycotoxin* and Food Safety in Developing countries. (Edited by Makun, H.A.), InTech Janeza Trdine Rijeka, Croatia. pp. 75 104.
- Orsi, R. B., Corrêa, B., Possi, C. R., Schammass, E. A., Nogueira, J. R., Dias, S. M. C. and Malozzi, M. A. B. (2000). Mycroflora and occurrence of fumonisins in freshly harvested and stored hybrid maize. *Journal of Stored Products Research* 36: 75 87.
- Park, D. L. (2002). Effect of processing on aflatoxin. *Advances in Experimental Medicine* and *Biology* 504: 173 –179.
- Queiroz, V. A. V., Alves, G. L. D., da Conceição, R. R. P., Guimarães, L. J. M., Mendes, S. M., Ribeiro, P. E. D. and da Costa, R. V. (2012). Occurrence of fumonisins and zearalenone in maize stored in family farm in Minas Gerais, Brazil. *Food Control* 28: 83 86.

- Stössel, P. (1986). Aflatoxin contamination in soybeans: role of proteinase inhibitors, zinc availability, and seed coat integrity. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 52: 68 72.
- Tseng, T. C., Tu, J. C. and Tzean, S. S. (1995). Mycoflora and mycotoxins in dry bean (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.) produced in Taiwan and in Ontario, Canada. *Botanical Bulletin of Academia Sinica* 36: 229 234.
- Udoh, J. M., Cardwell, K. F. and Ikotun, T. (2000). Storage structures and aflatoxin content of maize in five climatic zones of Nigeria. *Journal of Stored Products**Research 36(2): 187 201.
- Wagacha, J. M. and Muthomi, J. W. (2008). Mycotoxin problem in Africa: Current status, implications to food safety and health and possible management strategies.

 International Journal of Food Microbiology 124: 1 12.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 Aflatoxin and Fumonisin Contamination of Maize and Common Bean-Based

Market, Processed and Feeds in Babati District, Tanzania

Chacha J. Nyangi, ^{1, 2 *}, Jovin K. Mugula¹, Fen Beed², Simon Boniphace², Koyano Emmanuel²

¹Department of Food Science and Technology, Sokoine University of Agriculture,

P.O.Box 3006, Morogoro, Tanzania

²International Institute of Tropical Agriculture, P.O.Box 34441, Dar es salaam,

Tanzania.

4.1 Abstract

Aflatoxin and fumonisin contamination in maize and common bean-based market, processed and feeds was investigated in three different villages in Babati District, Tanzania. Quantification for total aflatoxin and fumonisin was done using ELISA (Reveal AccuScan®Neogen, USA), and the results were confirmed by using LC-MS/MSMaize bran hadhighestlevels of aflatoxins (2.38 μg/kg) and sorted bad portion for animal feeds had the highest fumonisin mean value of 7.42 mg/kg, followed by maizegrains from mills with a mean value of 1.73 μg/kg aflatoxins and maize from market with a mean value of 0.34 mg/kg fumonisins, maize flour had a mean value of 1.42 μg/kg aflatoxins and maize from mills with a mean value 0.3 mg/kg fumonisins. Dehulled maize and maize flour were less contaminated with the mycotoxins. All animal feeds were found to have levels less than the total permissible levels for animal feeds.

Key words: aflatoxins, fumonisins, market, processors, feed, maize, flour, Tanzania

^{*}Corresponding author. Tel: +255-764-775727. Email address:nyangichacha@yahoo.com

4.2 Introduction

Mycotoxins are toxic secondary metabolites produced by various molds frequently contaminate food and feed worldwide (Warth *et al.*, 2012). Their incidence depends on various factors, such as the commodity, climatic conditions, agricultural practices, storage conditions, and seasonal variances (Warth *et al.*, 2012; Milani, 2013). Two most important mycotoxigenic fungi mostly found associated with stored maize and other products are *Aspergillus flavus* that produces aflatoxins and *Fusarium verticillioides*, which produces fumonisins (Fandohan *et al.*, 2003; Wagacha and Muthoni, 2008; Okoth *et al.*, 2012; Omar, 2013; Nyinawabali, 2013).

Aflatoxins are acute and chronic toxicity, immunosuppressive, mutagenic, teratogenic, genotoxic and carcinogenic compounds (Filazi and Sireli, 2013; Omar, 2013) with potential to seriously affect human health by induction of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) or sudden death (Lewis *et al.*, 2005), the source of aflatoxins are from agricultural commodities like cereals such as maize, sorghum, pearl millet, rice and wheat; oil seeds such as groundnut, soybean, sunflower and cotton, milk, meat and dried fruits (Marasas *et al.*, 2008; Wild and Gong, 2010). Fumonisins have been linked with esophageal cancer in South Africa (Marasas, *et al.*, 2008), stunting and underweight in Tanzania (Kimanya *et al.*, 2010), cranial neural tube defects (NTD) a defect of the brain and spinal cord in the embryo that results from failure of the neural tube to close (Blom *et al.*, 2006). Fumonisins occur in maize and infrequently in foodstuffs such as sorghum, asparagus, rice, beans and beers (Creppy, 2002; Zain, 2011), as well as feeds especially those formulated using maize (Morgensen *et al.*, 2010).

It is estimated that mycotoxins contaminate 25% of agricultural crops worldwide (Zain, 2011), with 4.5 billion people living in developing countries exposed to chronic

toxicity (Williams *et al.*, 2004). This higher exposure is because the population is often consume affected crops as a staple diet and because crops in tropical and subtropical regions are more susceptible to contamination due to favorable climatic conditions (Bankole and Adebanjo, 2003).

Aflatoxins and fumonisins are not uniformly distributed in maize kernels and higher concentrations tend to be found in germ and bran fractions in dry milling due to the presence of the pericarp. The pericarp is the first part of the kernel colonized by moulds because of its peripheral location and also the part to which kernel dusts adhere (Katta *et al.*, 1997; Park, 2002; Brera *et al.*, 2004). Katta *et al.* (1997) reported that during the dry milling of corn, fumonisin B₁ was found in highest amounts in the bran fraction that is used as animal feed, followed by the germ fraction, which may be used as animal feed or for oil extraction. The same results were also reported by Vanara *et al.* (2009).

The maximum thorelable limit (MTL) for total aflatoxin levels in animal feeds range from 0 to 50 μ g/kg with an average of 20 μ g/kg (FAO, 2004), while MTL for total aflatoxins in foodstuffs intended for direct human consumption in East African Commission and the European Union is 10 μ g/kg (European Commission, 2010; EAC, 2011a, b) and for USA is 20 μ g/kg (FDA, 2001). While for total fumonisin by East Africa standards is 2 mg/kg (EAC, 2011a,b), and for European Union standards is 1 mg/kg (European Commission, 2010), in the USA the limit for total fumonisin is 2 mg/kg for maize products and 4 mg/kg for maize grain food. And for animal feeds the range is from 5 to 100 mg/kg (FDA, 2001).

Very little is known in Tanzania on the levels of contamination of maize and beans with aflatoxins and fumonisins on the market, processed or in animal feeds. The aim of this study was to investigate the level of contamination in these products. The findings of this study might contribute to interventions to be adopted by subsistence farmers and processors to reduce aflatoxin and fumonisin contamination in the products in order to improve food safety of the products.

4.3 Materials and Methods

4.3.1 Study area

The study was conducted in three villages namely, Long, Sabilo and Seloto in Babati District, Manyara Region, Tanzania. The high altitude high rain zone representing Long village lies between 2150 and 2450 metres above sea levels (m.a.s.l) and characterised by relatively high annual rainfall of 1200 mm. The mid altitude low rainfall zone representing Sabilo village lies between 1500 and 1850 m.a.s.l characterised by relatively low rainfall of 900 – 1100 mm, while the mid altitude high rain zone representing Seloto village lies between 1850 – 2150 m.a.s.l and characterised by annual rainfall of 1100 – 1200 mm. The villages were purposively selected as they represented different climatic zones and also they fall under USAID's Feed the Future priority research area, where the Africa RISING Eastern and Southern Africa project on sustainable intensification of farming systems is being implemented in collaboration with International Institute of Tropical agriculture (IITA). Maize and beans are also the major staple food in the study sites and Tanzania as a whole.

4.3.2 Selection of farmers/vendors

The vendors and small scale mill from which samples were collected were selected from two villages of Long and Seloto, as Sabilo village shared the same market and small scale mill with Seloto village. Five vendors were randomly selected from each of the two market one from Long and one from Seloto village. Samples were also collected from one small scale mill from each of the two villages of Long and Seloto.

4.3.3 Samples collection

Maize and beans samples were randomly collected from the markets, farmers' stores (bad sorted maize) and small scale mills in the three villages. Sampling was carried out in a way that ensured the analytical sample effectively represented the product. Maize grain samples (44) were obtained from the market, sorted/bad portion for animal feed (41) from farmers' households. From the small scale mill the following samples were collected; maize grain (29), maize flour (24), maize bran (20) and dehulled maize (3) making a total of 161 maize based samples. A total of 10 bean samples were also collected from the two villages of Long and Seloto. Animal feed was obtained from sub-samples of bad/sorted portion from farmer's household and maize bran from small-scale mills. Multiple samples were taken from different parts of one bag or several bags belonging to one vendor and combined to produce a 1-kg sample for analysis, using the respective vendor's sampling tools (i.e., scoops). Samples were then placed in a clean paper bag (A4 envelope) provided, this was then well sealed, labelled and transported to IITA plant pathology laboratory, Dar es salaam, where samples were then dried in a cabinet drier at 65°C/72 h to < 13% moisture content.

4.3.4 Quantification of total aflatoxin and fumonisin

The samples were ground using a Bunn grinder (Man: Bunn-O-Matic Corporation Springfield, Illinois, U.S.A), homogenized, and sub divided to obtain a representative sub-sample for analysis (https://www.extension.iastate.edu/NR/rdonlyres/52E2F1B9-AC0C-4AE5-8096-25B9921348AB/0/USDAAflatoxinHandbook.pdf). A 50 g sub-sample was taken from each of the ground samples and extracted with 250 mL mixture of

ethanol/water (65:35, v/v) and shaken vigorously at 150 revolutions per minute (rpm) for 3 min using a laboratory shaker (IKA® Werke, Germany). Extracts were filtered through Whatman No. 1 filter paper (Whatman International Ltd., Maidstone, UK). Then total aflatoxin (μ g/kg) and fumonisin (mg/kg) were quantified following the manufacturer's protocol using Reveal AccuScan® III reader (Neogen, USA), a quantitative ELISA-based analytical test kits designed specifically for either aflatoxin or fumonisin (http://www.gipsa.usda.gov/lawsandregs/bulletins/pn12-03.pdf). The detection limit for total aflatoxins was 2 μ g/Kg with a quantitation range of 2 - 150 μ g/Kg and that for total fumonisins was 0.3 mg/Kg with a quantitation range of 0.3 - 6 mg/Kg. The analytical quality of the ELISA methods was assured by the use of certified reference material (CRM), a naturally contaminated maize sample with certified total aflatoxin content of $18.1 \pm 3.6 \mu$ g/kg and total fumonisin content of $4.2 \pm 0.6 m$ g/kg supplied by Neogen, USA. For the purpose of data analysis, non-detect levels were based on the detection limits (LOD) of the test method for each toxin

Confirmatory test was done using Liquid chromatography tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) at the Interuniversity Department of Agro biotechnology (IFA-Tullin, Austria), on 60 highly contaminated samples previously analysed using Reveal AccuScan® III reader (Neogen, USA) at the plant pathology laboratory of IITA-Tanzania. The results indicated a correlation between the two methods for both total aflatoxin and total fumonisin.

4.3.5 Statistical analysis

Data were analysed using Statistical analysis System (SAS® Version 9.4, SAS Institute Incorporation, USA). A generalized linear model (GENMOD) was used. The differences between means were detected using least square means (LSMEANS) to establish

differences in mean total aflatoxin and fumonisin amongst the climatic zones (villages), market and small scale mill as well as animal feed. Aflatoxin and fumonisin levels were transformed using natural log to normalise the data before analysis.

4.4 Results

4.4.1 Descriptive results

Two markets, one each in Long and Seloto village and within each market, a total of 5 vendors were interviewed and a total of 43 maize and 10 beans samples were collected. For the samples collected from the small scale mills (processors), all 76 samples (whole maize-29, maize bran - 20, maize flour - 24 and dehulled maize – 3) had a total aflatoxins levels below the maximum tolerable levels (MTL) for East African Community (EAC) and European Union of 10 μg/kg, and fumonisin levels below MTL of 2 mg/kg. Maize bran samples had a mean fumonisin concentration of 1.02 mg/kg, a level lower than the MTL for animal feeds of 20 mg/kg (FAO, 2004). Whole maize grains collected from the small-scale mills, 10% (3/29) of the samples had fumonisins levels above the MTL of 1 mg/kg by EU standards (European Commission, 2010) and 4% (1/29) of the samples had fumonisins level above the MTL of 2 mg/kg for US and EAC standards (FDA, 2001; EAC, 2011a) as indicated in Fig.4.1.

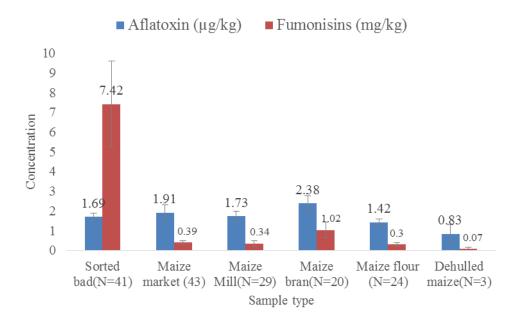


Figure 4.1: Mean value for maize-based samples from market, processors and animal feed

Only 2% (1/43) of market maize samples had a total aflatoxin greater than the MTL of 10 μ g/kg (European commission, 2010; EAC, 2011a), while all samples had aflatoxin levels below the MTL of 20 μ g/kgby US standards (FDA, 2001). About 5% (2/43) of the samples had levels above the MTL of 2 mg/kg (EAC, 2011a). All of the 41 (100%) sorted bad portion maize samples collected from farmers household and 20 (100%) maize bran samples from posho mill, both as animal feed had levels below the MTL for aflatoxin in animal feeds which range from 0 to 50 μ g/kg, and average of 20 μ g/kg (FAO 2004) and, also had levels below the MTL for fumonisins in animal feeds which range from 5 to 100 mg/kg (FDA, 2001).

4.4.2 Prevalence and mean value for aflatoxin and fumonisin in maize and beans

The overall contamination with total aflatoxins was 32% and 39% for total fumonisins in maize and maize products collected in all three villages, while for beans it was 10% for both total aflatoxin and total fumonisin respectively (Table. 4.1). Maize and maize

product samples collected from Seloto village had the highest mean aflatoxin level of 4.15 µg/kg and for fumonisin the highest mean levels of 31.43 mg/kg was found in Sabilo village (Table. 4.2). Significant differences were found in the mean aflatoxin levels of maize and maize products samples between Long and Seloto village as well as between Sabilo and Seloto village. For fumonisins there was significant differences among the samples from all three villages (Table 4.2).

Table 4.1: Overall occurrence/prevalence of aflatoxin and fumonisin in maize, maize products and beans across three villages

Maize	n	Positive sample (%)	Range	Mean ±SE
Aflatoxin (µg/kg)	160	51(32)	2.10 - 16.20	3.40 ± 0.30
Fumonisin (mg/kg)	160	62 (39)	0.40 - 62.00	5.66 ± 1.48
Beans				
Aflatoxin (µg/kg)	10	1 (10)	2.60 - 2.60	2.60
Fumonisin (mg/kg)	10	1 (10)	12.0 - 12.0	12.00

- Values are means of total aflatoxin and fumonisin levels in all analysed positive samples
- Positive samples are all analysed samples with value > Limit of detection (LOD)
- n is total number of all analysed samples

Table 4.2: Overall mean total aflatoxin and fumonisin content in maize and maize by products in each village.

			Aflatoxin (µ	g/kg)	Fumonisin (mg/kg)		
Village	n	Positive sample (%)	Range	Means ± SE	Positive sample (%)	Range	Means ± SE
Long	85	22 (26)	2.10-4.70	$2.66^{a} \pm 0.12$	19 (22)	0.4 - 2.7	$0.86^{a} \pm 0.14$
Sabilo	8	4 (50)	2.10 - 3.90	$2.75^{a} \pm 0.40$	7 (88)	10.0 - 62	$31.43^{\text{b}} \pm 7.67$
Seloto	67	25(37)	2.30 - 16.2	$4.15^{b} + 0.28$	36 (54)	0.4 - 14	$3.18^{c} + 0.61$

- Values are means of total aflatoxin and fumonisin levels in all analysed samples
- Positive samples are all analysed samples with value > Limit of detection (LOD)
- n represents total number of samples analysed

Maize bran samples obtained from the small-scale mills across all three villages had the highest aflatoxin contamination (Table 4.3). For fumonisin, the highest levels was found from the sorted bad portion for animal feed from Sabilo village (Table 4.4). Significant differences were found in the mean aflatoxin levels of maize bran compared with maize flour from the samples collected across all three villages and from Long village,

significant differences were found for samples collected in maize from mills compared with maize bran, maize bran compared with maize from market, as well as maize bran compared with dehulled maize. Total aflatoxin and fumonisin levels in all samples collected in each village and across all villages with their significant differences are shown in Table 4.3 and 4.4.

Table 4.3: Total aflatoxin contamination in maize and maize products across three villages

Concentration (µg/kg) Mean ±S.E										
Sample type	n	Overall*	Long	Sabilo	Seloto					
Sorted Bad	41	1.69± 0.19 ^a	1.38± 0.21 ^a	1.85 ± 0.41	1.89± 0.37 ^a					
Maize mills	29	1.73 ± 0.24^{a}	1.18 ± 0.21^{ab}	-	2.69 ± 0.42^{a}					
Maize bran	20	2.38 ± 0.38^{ab}	2.18 ± 0.27 acd	-	2.62 ± 0.81^{a}					
Maize flour	24	1.42 ± 0.17^{ac}	1.08 ± 0.16 abeh	-	1.82 ± 0.27^{a}					
Maize	43	1.91 ± 0.38^{a}	1.45 ± 0.23 abfh	-	2.45 ± 0.78^{a}					
market										
Dehulled	3	0.83 ± 0.45^{a}	0.83 ± 0.45^{abgh}	-	-					

- Values are means of total aflatoxin levels for all analysed samples across three villages
- Means with different letters (by column) are significantly different (P<0.05)
- n is the total number of samples analysed
- * represents samples from all three villages.

Table 4.4: Total fumonisin contamination in maize and maize by-products across three villages

	Concentration (mg/kg) Mean ±S.E				
Sample type	n	Overall*	Long	Sabilo	Seloto
Sorted Bad portion	41	$7.42 \pm 2.19a$	0.09 ± 0.07^{a}	27.50 ± 7.71	5.16 ± 1.12^{a}
Maize from mills	29	0.34 ± 0.15 ba	$0.17\pm\ 0.09^{ac}$	-	$0.65 \pm 0.36^{\rm bf}$
Maize bran	20	$1.02 \pm 0.39a$	0.39 ± 0.09^{bde}	-	$1.79 \pm 0.81^{\rm cfg}$
Maize flour	24	$0.3 \pm 0.07b$	0.16 ± 0.04^{acef}	-	0.45 ± 0.13^{dfgi}
Maize from market	43	$0.39 \pm 0.08b$	0.41 ± 0.14^{bdefg}	-	0.37 ± 0.08^{efhi}
Dehulled Maize	3	$0.07 \pm 0.07ab$	0.07 ± 0.07^{acefg}	-	-

- Values are means of total fumonisin levels for all analysed samples across three villages
- Means with different letters (by column) are significantly different (P<0.05)
- n is the total number of samples analysed and (%) for positive samples
- * represents samples from all three villages

4.5 Discussion

Maize is the primary dietary staple in the study area. Aflatoxin and fumonisin contamination were found in maize and maize products from market, small scale mills and those intended for animal feed (bran and sorted bad portion) as well as beans from market, This is an important observation as far as food safety or public health is concerned. Several studies of aflatoxin poisoning in human have shown that low-level chronic intake may be more devastating than one-time high-level intake leading to hepatocellular carcinoma (McGlashan, 1982; Okoth and Kola, 2012). Williams *et al.* (2004) reported that 4.5 billion of people living in developing countries are exposed to chronic toxicity.

4.5.1 Maize and beans samples from market

The mean concentration of 1.91 µg/kg for total aflatoxins from the maize collected in market in all three villages was lower than the MTL of 10 µg/kg in East Africa (EAC, 2011a). It was also lower than 45 µg/kg reported by Saleemullah *et al.* (2006) on aflatoxin content of cereals (wheat, maize and rice) from local markets of North-West Frontier Province in Pakistan; 62 µg/kg as reported by Ahsan *et al.* (2010) in Pakistan; In Kenya, the very high level up to 46400 µg/kg reported by Lewis *et al.* (2005) where, was due to prolonged drought and food shortages that were followed by off season rains during harvest, which probably favoured the growth of aflatoxigenic aspergilli in household stored maize. The mean concentration of 0.39 mg/kg total fumonisins observed in this study was lower than MTL of 2 mg/kg by East African standards (EAC, 2011a). It was also lower than a mean value of 2.9 mg/kg reported by Nikiema *et al.* (2004) from Bukina Faso. The low levels for aflatoxin and fumonisin was due to low levels observed from harvested samples.

The results from the beans samples collected from the market, indicated a maximum aflatoxin value of 2.6 μ g/kg, this value was below the MTL of 10 μ g/kg by EAC standards (EAC, 2011b). While for fumonisin maximum contamination value was 12 mg/kg, this value was above MTL of 2 mg/kg by EAC standards (EAC, 2011b). These results were lower than those reported by Aiat (2006) in Egypt who found the levels of total aflatoxins to be 1463 μ g/kg, and also lower than those reported from a study conducted in Rwanda by Nyinawabali (2013) and found the maximum levels of aflatoxins to be 154.9 μ g/kg with a mean value of 28.1 μ g/kg, while the maximum level for fumonisin was 7.1 mg/kg with a mean value of 3.0 mg/kg.

The low contamination of the beans samples with fumonisin may be attributed to the fact that beans contamination with mycotoxins has been reported to occur in low concentration as reported by various researchers (Tseng *et al.*, 1995; Aiat, 2006; Nyinawabali, 2013). Stössel (1986) reported that soy bean seed coat and integrity acts as a barrier against fungal attack and hence mycotoxins contamination, other factors being constant, this might be among the reasons for low levels of aflatoxin and fumonisin reported in beans samples from this study.

4.5.2 Aflatoxin and fumonisin occurrence in maize and maize by products from small-scale mills

The results from Table 4.3 and 4.4 underline the interaction between different maize products obtained from the small scale mill with aflatoxin and fumonisin content. The results from this study indicated that all whole maize, maize flour and dehulled maize samples had aflatoxin and fumonisin levels below the MTL of 10 μ g/kg and 2 mg/kg respectively by East African standards (EAC, 2011a). Maize bran was found to have higher levels for both aflatoxin and fumonisins with a value of 2.38 μ g/kg and 1.02 mg/kg

respectively (Table 4.3, 4.4), although the levels were still lower than total MTL for both aflatoxins and fumonisin in animal feed. The results were comparable to Katta *et al.* (1997) who reported that during the dry milling of corn, fumonisin B₁ was found in highest amounts in the bran fraction that is used as animal feed, followed by the germ fraction, which may be used as animal feed or for oil extraction. Vanara *et al.* (2009) reported the same results from the samples derived from maize kernel in a dry-milling and found high fumonisin concentration in germ and bran.

Similar results were also reported by Broggi *et al.* (2002), in a study in commercial drymill in Argentina, who found a three times higher fumonisin contamination level in germ and bran than in whole corn. The results from this study were also comparable to that by Brera *et al.* (2004) who reported highest amounts of aflatoxin and fumonisin in a fractions of the commodity that are less likely to be used for food production (germ and bran fractions), while fractions used for food production, including flaking grits and flour, had the least amount of contamination. The aflatoxin levels from whole maize grain and grain flour reported in this study are lower than those reported by Ramesh *et al.* (2013) who conducted a study in India and found that 68.18% of the food grains and grain flour samples were contaminated with aflatoxin B_1 with a mean concentration of 75.18 and 60.41 μ g/kg respectively.

Aflatoxin and fumonisin are not uniformly distributed in maize kernels and the high content tend to be found in germ and bran fractions in dry milling due to the presence of the pericarp, the first part of the kernel colonized by fungi because of its peripheral location and also the part to which kernel dusts adhere (Katta *et al.*, 1997; Park, 2002; Brera *et al.*, 2004).

4.5.3 Aflatoxin and fumonisin occurrence in animal feeds

Feed samples collected during this study were not typical mixed-feed formulations, but consisted of bad sorted portion of maize which were obviously of bad quality and, therefore, intended for animal feeding and maize bran from the small scale mills intended for the same use. The bad sorted portion was a result of sorting of maize from the whole lot before storage. All of the bad sorted portion maize samples collected from farmers' household and maize bran samples from small scale mill (Table 4.3, 4.4), had levels less than the MTL for animal feeds which range from 0 to 50 μg/kg with an average of 20 μg/kg (FAO, 2004) and also had levels below the MTL for fumonisins in animal feeds which range from 5 to 100 mg/kg (FDA, 2001). The aflatoxin levels reported from this study were lower than those reported by Njobeh *et al.* (2012) who found that feed samples in South Africa were contaminated with aflatoxin (30% of samples) in the range of 0.2–71.8 μg/kg. Oruç *et al.* (2012) reported 100% feed material contamination with aflatoxin B₁, with mean level of 8.29 μg/kg in Turkey.

Mean of 1.69 μg/kg aflatoxin level for bad sorted portion and 2.38μg/kg from maize bran both as animal feed reported from this study were higher than the maximum level of 0.61 μg/kg reported by Grajewski*et al.* (2012) from Poland. Rezaei *et al.* (2014) from Iran reported that among 40 samples collected from eight centres, the total aflatoxin ranged from 0.9 to 4.2 μg/kg which was comparable to the results of this study.

4.6 Conclusion

The results from this study showed that maize bran had highest levels for both aflatoxin and fumonisin compared to other maize products from the milling. This showed that during milling process mycotoxin contamination may be redistributed and concentrated in certain mill fractions, but there is no step or operation that destroys mycotoxins. Processes

that can reduce mycotoxins levels are; cleaning to removes broken and moldy grain kernels, milling process itself which include dehulling and that dilute and distribute mycotoxins into certain fractions that most commonly become animal feed. However, some toxins in animal feed fractions may have the potential to become residues in animal products (i.e. aflatoxins) and still enter the human food chain. The results from the samples collected as animal feed indicated that the levels for both aflatoxin and fumonisin are below the maximum tolerable limit. It is very important to undertake further research that will help small-scale farmers to meet international quality standards and continue to profitably market their crops, as well as to adopt to those practices that minimize risks to mycotoxin contamination.

Acknowledgment

We thank the Innovative Agricultural Research Initiatives (iAGRI) for providing this scholarship through the support of United States Agency for International Development (USAID). The authors are also grateful to International Institute of Tropical Agriculture (IITA) under the support of Africa RISING Eastern and Southern Africa project on sustainable intensification of farming systems, for provision of technical and working facilities as well as covering part of the research cost for this study. Thanks to Grace Michael of IITA Tanzania and Sylivester Temba, Lydia Munuo, Siha Koka and Samson Lyimo of Nelson Mandela African Institute of Science and Technology (NM-AIST) for their concerted effort during the survey.

REFERENCES

- Ahsan, S., Bhatti, I. A., Asi, M. R., Bhatti, H. N. and Sheikh, M. A. (2010). Occurrence of aflatoxins in maize grains from central areas of Punjab, Pakistan. *International Journal of Agriculture Biology* 12(4): 571 575.
- Aiat, N. (2006). Genetic Variability among Three Species of *Aspergillus*. Seed born *Aspergillus* Sp. and aflatoxins associated with dry beans (*Phaseolus Vulgaris* L.). *Journal of Applied Sciences Research* 2(11): 874 878.
- Bankole, S. A. and Adebanjo, A. (2003). Mycotoxins in food in West Africa: Current situation and possibilities of controlling it. *African Journal of Biotechnology* 2: 254 263.
- Blom, H. J., Shaw, G. M., den Heijer, M. and Finnell, R. H. (2006). Neural tube defects and folate: case far from closed. *Nature Reviews Neuroscience* 7(9): 724 731.
- Brera, C., Debegnach, F., Grossi, S. and Miraglia, M. (2004). Effect of industrial processing on the distribution of fumonisin B_1 in dry milling corn fractions. *Journal of Food Protection* 67(6): 1261 – 1266.
- Broggi, L. E., Resnik, S. L., Pacin, A. M., Gonzalez, H. H. L., Cano, G. and Taglieri, D. (2002). Distribution of fumonisins in dry-milled corn fractions in Argentina. Food Additives and Contaminants 19(5): 465 – 469.
- Creppy, E. E. (2002). Update of survey, regulation and toxic effects of mycotoxins in Europe. *Toxicology Letters* 127: 19 28.
- East African Community (2011a). East African Standards Maize grains 2/2011 of 2011. [https://law.resource.org/pub/eac/ibr/eas.2.2011.html] site visited on 25/09/2014.
- East African Community. (2011b). Final Draft East African Standards FDEAS No. 46/2011 of 2011 specifying requirements and methods of sampling and test for dry common beans (Phaseolus vulgaris Linn) intended for human consumption. [https://law.resource.org/pub/eac/ibr/eas.46.2011.html] site visited on 18/10/2014.

- European Commission (2010). Commission Regulation (EC) No. 165/2010 of November 2010 setting maximum levels for certain contaminants in food stuffs as regards aflatoxins. *Official Journal of the European Union* I(50): 8 12.
- Fandohan, P., Hell, K., Marasas, W. F. O. and Wingfield, M. J. (2003). Infection of maize by *Fusarium* species and contamination with fumonisins in Africa. *African Journal of Biotechnology* 12: 570 579.
- Filazi, A. and Sireli, U. T. (2013). Occurrence of Aflatoxins in Food. In: *Aflatoxins Recent Advances and Future*. (*Edited by Mehdirazzaghi, A.*), InTech Janeza Trdine Rijeka, Croatia. pp. 153 180.
- Food and Drug Administration (2001). Guidelines for industry: Fumonisin levels in human foods and animal feeds. *Rockville*.[http://www.fda.gov/Food/Guidanc eRegulation/GuidanceDocumentsRegulatoryInformation/ChemicalContaminants MetalsNaturalToxinsPesticides/ucm109231.htm] site visited on 18/10/2014.
- Food and Agriculture Organization (2004). Worldwide regulations for mycotoxins in food. [http://www.fao.org/docrep/007/y5499e/y5499e00.HTM] site visited on 18/10/2014
- Grajewski, J., Błajet-Kosicka, A., Twarużek, M. and Kosicki, R. (2012). Occurrence of mycotoxins in Polish animal feed in years 2006 2009. *Journal of Animal Physiology and Animal Nutrition* 96(5): 870 877.
- Katta, S. K., Cagampang, A. E., Jackson, L. S. and Bullerman, L. B. (1997). Distribution of Fusarium molds and fumonisins in dry-milled corn fractions. *Cereal Chemistry* 74: 858–863.
- Kimanya M. E., De Meulenaer B., Roberfroid D., Lachat C. and Kolsteren P. (2010). Fumonisin exposure through maize in complementary foods is inversely associated with linear growth of infants in Tanzania. *Molecular Nutrition and Food Research* 54: 1659 1667.

- Lewis, L., Onsongo, M., Njapau, H., Schurz-Rogers, H., Luber, G., Kieszak, S., Nyamongo, J., Backer, L., Dahiye, A. M., Misore, A., Decoct, K., Rubin, C. and the Kenya Aflatoxicosis Investigation Group. (2005). Aflatoxin contamination of commercial maize products during an outbreak of acute aflatoxicosis in Eastern and Central Kenya. *Environmental Health Perspectives* 113: 1763 1767.
- Marasas, W. F. O., Gelderblom, W. C. A., Shephard, G. S. and Vismer, H. F. (2008).
 Mycotoxins: A Global Problem. In: Mycotoxins: Detection methods,
 Management, Public Health and Agricultural Trade. (Edited by Leslie, J.F.
 Bandyopadhyay, R. and Visconti, A.), Cromwell Press, Townbridge,
 UK. pp. 29 39.
- McGlashan, N. D. (1982). Primary liver cancer and food-based toxins. A Swaziland review. *Ecological Diseases* 1(1): 37 44.
- Milani, J. M. (2013). Ecological conditions affecting mycotoxin production in cereals: A review. *Veterinarni Medicina* 58(8): 405 411.
- Morgensen, J. M., Larsen, T. O. and Nielsen, K. F. (2010). Widespread occurrence of the mycotoxin fumonisin B_2 in Wine. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry* 58(8): 4853 4857.
- Nikiema, P. N., Worrillow, L., Traoré, A. S., Wild, C. P. and Turner, P. C. (2004). Fumonisin contamination of maize in Burkina Faso, West Africa. *Food Additives* and Contaminants 21: 865–870.
- Njobeh, P. B., Dutton, M. F., Aberg, A. T. and Haggblom, P. (2012). Estimation of multi-mycotoxin contamination in South African compound feeds. *Toxins Basel* 4(10):836 848.
- Nyinawabali, F. (2013). A survey of fungi and mycotoxins in selected food commodities from Rwanda. Dissertation for Award of MSc Degree at University of Johannesburg, South Africa, 105pp.

- Okoth, S. A. and Kola, M. A. (2012). Market samples as a source of chronic aflatoxin exposure in Kenya. *African Journal of Health Science* 20: 56 61.
- Omar, H. E. M. (2013). Mycotoxins-Induced Oxidative Stress and Disease. In: *Mycotoxin* and Food Safety in Developing countries (Edited by Makun, H.A.), InTech Janeza Trdine Rijeka, Croatia. pp. 75 104.
- Park, D. L. (2002). Effect of processing on aflatoxin. *Advances in Experimental Medicine* and *Biology* 504: 173 179.
- Ramesh, J., Sarathchandra, G. and Sureshkumar, V. (2013). Survey of market samples of food grains and grain flour for Aflatoxin B₁ contamination. *International Journal of Current Microbiology and Applied Science* 2(5): 184 188.
- Rezaei, M., Mohammadpourfard, I., Malekirad, A. A., Ghasemikhah, R. and MehranSayadi, M. (2014). Aflatoxin Contamination of Feed Materials in Qom Province, Iran. *Iranian Journal of Toxicology* 8(24): 1 4.
- Saleemullah, A., Iqbal, I. A., Khalil, H. and Shah, H. (2006). Aflatoxin contents of stored and artificially inoculated cereals and nuts. *Food Chemistry* 98(4): 699 703.
- Stössel, P. (1986). Aflatoxin contamination in soybeans: role of proteinase inhibitors, zinc availability, and seed coat integrity. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 52: 68 72.
- Tseng, T. C., Tu, J. C. and Tzean, S. S. (1995). Mycoflora and mycotoxins in dry bean (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.) produced in Taiwan and in Ontario, Canada. *Botanical Bulletin of Academia Sinica* 36: 229 234.
- Oruç, H., Sorucu, A., Türkmen, I. and Arslan, E. (2012). Determination of Various Mycotoxin Concentrations in the Feedstuffs and Feed Produced by a Feed Manufacturer in Turkey. *Kafkas Universitesi Veteriner Fakultesi Dergisi* 18(4): 658 633.

- Vanara, F., Reyneri, A. and Blandino, M. (2009). Fate of fumonisin B₁ in the processing of whole maize kernels during dry-milling. *Food Control* 20: 235 238.
- Wagacha, J. M. and Muthomi, J. W. (2008). Mycotoxin problem in Africa: Current status, implications to food safety and health and possible management strategies.

 International Journal of Food Microbiology 124: 1–12.
- Warth, B., Parich, A., Atehnkeng, J., Bandyopadhyay, R., Schuhmacher, R., Sulyok, M. and Krska, R. (2012). Quantitation of Mycotoxins in Food and Feed from Burkina Faso and Mozambique Using a Modern LC-MS/MS Multitoxin Method.

 **Journal of Agriculture and Food Chemistry 60: 9352 9363.
- Williams, J. H., Phillips, T. D., Jolly, P. E., Stiles, J. K., Jolly, C. M. and Aggarwal, D. (2004). Human aflatoxicosis in developing countries: a review of toxicology, exposure, potential health consequences, and interventions. *American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*. 80:1106 –22.
- Wild, C. and Gong, Y. (2010). Mycotoxins and human disease: a largely ignored global health issue. *Carcinogenesis* 31: 71 82.
- Zain, M. E. (2011). Impact of mycotoxins on humans and animals. *Journal of Saudi Chemical Society* 15: 129 144.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 Conclusions and Recommendations

5.1 Conclusions

The results of this study demonstrated that maize and beans produced and sold in the study area are contaminated with both aflatoxin and fumonisin. All analysed beans samples were found to be contaminated with both aflatoxin and fumonisin below the maximum permitted levels by East African Community, European Community and United States of America standards.

Major agricultural practices found to reduce aflatoxin and fumonisin contaminations in maize in the field were; early planting, hand hoe tillage and ox tillage, environmental conditions of the production region especially those prevailing in Long village (high altitude high rain zone) and in Sabilo village (Mid altitude high rain zone). Since it is not easy to control the environmental conditions, maize and beans farmers should adopt production practices (good agricultural practices) that reduce contamination of maize with aflatoxin and fumonisin.

The study also investigated several storage factors that may help to reduce aflatoxin and fumonisins levels in stored maize and beans in the study area, the identified factors/practices were; control of storage insects and mycotoxins levels (aflatoxins and fumonisins) through the sorting out of damaged cobs, the use of appropriate storage insecticides and use of a storage structures that can help to control toxins levels. The results showed that improved storage structures (Super grain safe bags) were found to control the insect's infestation and the levels of aflatoxin and fumonisin contamination as compared to other storage structures in this study. To avoid mycotoxin contamination,

maize should be monitored regularly to assure safe storage conditions. As maize and beans contaminated by fungi and moulds not only render grains unfit for human consumption by discoloration, but can also lead to toxin production such as aflatoxins and fumonisins. Farmers should be encouraged to adopt Good Storage Practices (GSP) as recommended from this study.

From this study, it was also observed that marketed, processed (small scale mill) and feed samples were contaminated by aflatoxin and fumonisin to various extent. Processes that can reduce mycotoxins as reported from this study are therefore; cleaning/sorting to removes broken and moldy grain kernels and milling process which include dehulling and that dilute and distribute mycotoxins into certain fractions that most commonly become animal feed. There is no step or operation that destroys mycotoxins, however, some toxins in animal feed fractions may have the potential to become residues in animal products and still enter the human food chain.

Mycotoxin contaminated products cause significant economic and trade problems at almost every stage of production and marketing. Maize and maize products as well as beans are also affected by these mycotoxins, and standards are becoming progressively stricter. It is very important to undertake further research that will help small-scale farmers to meet international quality standards and continue to profitably market their crops, as well as to adopt to those practices that minimize risks to mycotoxin contamination.

5.2 Recommendations

The presence of aflatoxins and fumonisins cannot be completely eliminated in various food products. However, mycotoxins can be controlled in order to avoid ill-health effects

and economic loss. Preventive practices along the maize and beans value chain can help reduce the risks faced by farmers and consumers. The way forward with mitigation strategies is therefore:-

- i. Applying proper agronomic and management practices to reduce the damage of the crops by insects and fungi which are the major source of infection and contamination. Toxigenic fungi often infect plants that are subject to stress, such as drought or pests, however several field practices can reduce fungal colonization and mycotoxins contamination; these include timely planting, proper crop rotation, adequate irrigation, proper tillage, fertilizer applications, weeding, pest and disease control practices and removal of any visible unhealthy crops to protect the remaining healthy one and good crop residue management.
- ii. There should be extensive awareness programmes across all regions in the country.

 Awareness of aflatoxin and fumonisin problem and management strategies should be extended to inform farmers, traders, processors, extension officers, other agriculture research partners, private sector, government regulatory agencies and the Ministry of agriculture about the risk of toxin contamination.
- iii. The International Institute of Tropical Agriculture- Tanzania have already identified local atoxigenic strains that can compete and exclude toxigenic strains in crops and the field test and development of a package for legal registration for use in aflatoxin management and develop capacity for manufacturing the strains is underway. The Government should provide incentives to resource poor farmers to access non-toxigenic strains that should be available in small packages, especially after it has been tested and verified.
- iv. To avoid deterioration of maize in tropical and subtropical regions, maize should be dried to moisture contents below 13% immediately after harvest.

- v. Hygiene and sanitation from harvest to storage are key factors in eliminating sources of infection and reducing levels of contamination; this includes sorting or separating foreign materials and broken corn kernels produced during harvesting from clean maize; removal of residues from the previous harvest or separate old grain from new grain to avoid contamination and transfer of pests from one lot to another as well as milling process itself which include dehulling and that dilute and distribute mycotoxins into certain fractions.
- vi. Maize and other crops should be stored in a sealed, airtight container or structure, to reduce oxygen concentration, which will limit the presence of aerobic organisms (Improved storage facilities).
- vii. Use of maize cultivars less susceptible to insects and reducing insect infestation in field and during storage are also very important recommendations for farmers.
- viii. Frequent analytical surveillance program by food control agencies is highly recommended to control the incidence of mycotoxin contamination. This can be achieved by having a sensitive technique for routine assay of mycotoxins in foods, that can be cheaper and easy to use and can be well adapted by agricultural research institute that are working close with farmers. The application of immunoassays, especially Enzyme-Linked Immunosorbent assay (ELISA) such as Neogen accuscan is recommended.
- ix. Further studies are also needed to understand the interaction between different agronomic and storage practices and the contamination of maize with aflatoxins and fumonisins, as well as the influence of storage practices and different processing methods on contamination of maize with aflatoxin and fumonisin.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Questionnaire administered to farmers, vendors and processorsin the three villages for maize and beans samples

FARM INFORMATION			
Interviewee (Farmhead) name:	Date:		
Sex: M \square F \square	Interviewer name and institution:		
Telephone number:			
Sample code:	GPS latitude:		
Region: District:	GPS longitude:		
Village:	GPS altitude:		
Education: primary secondary terti	ary Money received:		
none			
Wealth status:	Signature:		
bicycle motorcycle car tractor truck			
oxen donkey power tiller none			
Have you heard of mycotoxins?	Have you ever been sick after eating		
yes 🔲 no 🔲	food made from the crop you gave		
	us? yes no		
Comments, if any:			
MAIZE AND BEAN			
Sample type (MAIZE):	Sample type (BEANS):		
pre-harvest post-harvest	pre-harvest post-harvest		

cob ☐ entire grain ☐ flour ☐ polished	with pods grains grains
grainBran	
	Spoiled beans for livestock:
	grains with pods
Variety:	
Previously grown crop(s):	Planting date:
Harvested date (post-harvest):	Harvest date (expected if pre-harvest):
Tillage method:	Planting pattern:
none hand/hoe ox	flat on ridges on mounds
Other:	
Pre-harvest treatment (name(s) and	Post-harvest treatment (name(s) and
quantity):	quantity):
Harvested wet or dry?	
wet dry do not know	
Drying methods: mats roof floor s	moke Others
Storage (MAIZE):	Storage (BEANS):
on cob as grains in sacks not in	with pods grains in sacks not in
sacksopen crib mud house	sacksopen crib mud house brick
brick sheltered	sheltered
Other:	Other:
Intended use for human Maize, Bean:	Intended use for livestock Maize,
household market	Bean:household market
Condition of Maize: clean spoiled	Condition Bean: clean spoiled spoiled
If spoiled, intended use: brewing	If spoiled, intended use: livestock

livestock	stock	
Others:	Others:	
Storage information		
• Storage type; Traditional ☐ Improved	Specify (list)	
• Source of grain; Within the village	Outside If outside give name	
or approximate distance (in	form of <5km_5-10km_>10km_	
• Any sorting before storage; Yes \(\square\) No		
If yes How do you sort: Manually (Ha	and picking) Other	
What criteria do you use when sorting:	Colour size shape insect infested	
Physical damaged mould o	other (specify)	
• The use of defective Maize/ Beans: an	imal feed brews human food	
If it is for livestock, which animal(s):		
cattle goat sheep pig chicken [Rabbit duck dog cat	
• For how many seasons have you used	the store?	
• Do you store maize/beans in the store of	every season? No why?	
Yes		
• Do you store other products in the store	e, together with maize? No \(\subseteq \text{Yes} \subseteq	
If yes list?		
To whom are you selling your products	s; Local residents retail traders	
Small scale millers other merchant	ts specify	
Length of storage period		
• % MC		
• General storage condition: Good [fai	ir □poor □leaking roof □; poor	
Aeration good aeration Others_		

mpl	e from processors.
•	Source of grain for processing; Within the village Outside If outside give
	name or approximate distance (in form of <5km5-10km >10km
•	Any sorting before processing; Yes \(\square\) No \(\square\)
	If yes How do you sort: Manually (Hand picking) Other
•	What criteria do you use when sorting: Colour size shape insect infested
	Physical damaged mould other (specify)
•	The use of defective Maize/Beans: animal feed raw material for local brews
hu	ıman food
If	it is for livestock, which animal(s):
ca	ttle goat sheep pig chicken Rabbit duck dog cat
•	For how many years have you used the store?
•	Do you store maize/beans in the store every season? No why?
	Yes
•	Do you store other products in the store, together with maize? No \(\subseteq \text{Yes} \subseteq \)
	If yes list?
•	To whom are you selling yourproducts; Local residents retail traders
oth	ner merchants specify
•	Length of storage period
•	% MC
•	Level of processing: dehulling \(\square \) dehulling and milling \(\square \)
•	Type of processed products (e.g Flour, dehulled maize)
•	How processed products are stored: packaging type: polyethylene bags
p	lastic containers metallic containers others

•	General storage condition: Good fair poor leaking roof aeration; poor
	good_Others
C: Sai	mple from market
•	Source of grain; Within the village Outside If outside give name
	or approximate distance (in form of <5km5-10km>10km
•	Any sorting before marketing; Yes \[\subsetence No \[\subsetence \]
	If yes How do you sort: Manually (Hand picking) Other
•	What criteria do you use when sorting: Colour size shape insect infested
	Physical damaged mould other (specify)
•	The use of defective/sorted maize/ beans: animal feed for local brews
hı	uman food
If	it is for livestock, which animal(s):
ca	attle goat sheep pig chicken Rabbit duck dog cat
•	For how many years have you used the store?
•	Do you store maize/beans in the store every season? No why?
	Yes
•	Do you store other products in the store, together with maize? No \subseteq Yes \subseteq
	If yes list?
•	Who purchase your maize; Local residents small scale millers other
	merchants; specify
•	Length of storage period
•	% MC
•	General storage condition: Good fair poor leaking roof aeration; poor
	good Others

C.	taraga problems agrees starage structures, market and processors
31	torage problems across storage structures, market and processors
•	Do you have storage problems? Yes \(\square\) No \(\square\)
	Which storage problem is the most important? Insects Birds Mould
	Rodents Others (specify)
	What did you do to solve this problem? List
	Does the grain germinate in storage? Yes No
	Do you clean the storehouse before storage? Yes \(\square \) No \(\square \)
	Do you remove old grains? Yes No
	What else did you do to clean the store before storage?
	List
	If you treated the storehouse before storage, what methods did you use? Ash
	Insecticides (specify)Smoke
	(specify)
	How did you store your maize? As grain □ In the husk □ Dehusked □
	Other
	Do you use pesticides during storage No Yes If yes, give
	name rate of application and
	quantity
	Did you take any other precautions? List
	Comments/Remarks

Appendix 2: Sampling Protocol for Maize and Beans from Field, Farmers Store, Processors and Market in Long, Seloto and Sabilo villages in Babati, Tanzania

Villages Survey Planning Meeting

The District Agriculture, Irrigation and Cooperative Officer (DAICO) was consulted to provide village map to facilitate planning for the villages to be visited. He/she also provided phone numbers of the local Extension Officers located in the villages to be visited. The sampling unit was randomly selected from the village register provided by the DAICO and extension officers.

Sampling methods and procedures

In order to provide representative samples and consistence in sampling method for all villages and all surveys (there was several surveys to collect the required samples per village per crop), the following points were taken into account:

- i. Samples were collected at harvest in the field, after physiological maturity (about a week before harvest).
- ii. When sampling from storage structures, small numbers of samples were collected from different areas of a container and then mixed to produce a representative sample of approximately 1 kg.
- iii. Samples were also collected from the processors (small scale posho millers) and vendors (market), at an interval similar to that of samples collected from farmers stores (0, 40, 80 and 180 days).
 - Clear and detailed explanation was given to farmers about what is needed and for which purpose. This was intended to minimize farmers' suspicions.
 - Both good and bad sorted portion were collected from farmers prior to storage

Sampling procedures

- 1. The interviewee was brief and clearly explained the intention and reason of collecting from him/her the sample of the crop in question.
- The questionnaire provided was well filled with all information needed as indicated.
- 3. Coloured-printed photographs (fact sheet) of crops infected with mycotoxins was shown and given to the interviewee and ask if he/she has seen such symptoms in his/her crop. Fill in his/her answer on the appropriate space in the questionnaire.
- 4. For samples from the field: samples were taken following the two diagonals of the field and stop at regular intervals (5 stops) and five cobs/pods were picked at each stop to make a total of 25 cobs/pods These were then hand shelled, mixed and approximately 1kg was randomly picked.
- 5. For stored/market sample: Multiple samples were taken from different parts of one bag or several bags belonging to one farmer/vendor and combined to produce a 1-kg sample for analysis, for market samples the respective vendor's sampling tools (i.e., scoops) was used.
- 6. If the farmer had two lots of crop, say a good lot for human consumption as food and another lot of especially spoiled crop for livestock or other uses, two separate samples were taken. In this case, the sample code was the same for each sample except that the one for human food was marked "A" and the one for livestock was marked "B".
- 7. The collected samples were kept in the paper bag (envelope) provided and well labelled using pencil by copying the sample code already filled in on the questionnaire.

8. All samples were kept dry in the vehicle and all the time; avoid any moisture risk.

Samples were well kept in a moisture-free environment while waiting for dispatch to IITA laboratory in Dar es salaam.