

AFLATOXINS: MEDICAL SIGNIFICANCE, VULNERABLE POPULATION GROUPS AND POSSIBLE PREVENTIVE MEASURES

Marina Randelović^{1,2}, Jovana Kostić^{1,2}, Nenad Stošić³, Ivana Đorđević⁴,
Ana Spasić⁵, Gordana Randelović^{1,2}

Aflatoxins are widely distributed in nature as common contaminants of a number of staple foods, including maize, oilseeds, spices, groundnuts, tree nuts, rice, milk and dried fruit. Although the aflatoxin parent molecule is harmless, it is converted by members of the cytochrome p450 superfamily into electrophilic intermediates that are toxic, mutagenic, teratogenic and carcinogenic.

The aim of this manuscript is the examination of aflatoxin relevance observed from a clinical standpoint, its influence on public health, critical groups and the measures for prevention of food contamination by this toxin. The data used in the research are obtained from books and relevant literature by means of PubMed browser. Acute hepatitis is the manifestation of acute aflatoxicosis while chronic exposure to it can lead to malnutrition, suppressed immune response and hepatocellular carcinoma. Reye syndrome and kwashiorkor are considered to be pediatric forms of aflatoxicosis. Children and individuals with viral hepatitis B infection are especially susceptible to aflatoxin effects. Aflatoxin contamination depends on the genotype of the crop planted, soil type, climate of the region, weather conditions, timing of harvest, insect activity, and the way of drying of the crop before storage. Control of aflatoxin contamination could be achieved by implementation of adequate screening methods, agricultural strategies and biological methods.

The most important preventive measures include realization of aflatoxin regulatory programs, proper information to the farmers, traders and other important groups, and vaccination against hepatitis B virus. Promotion of multidisciplinary approach and better funding in further researches will help in designing effective and novel strategies to eliminate aflatoxin contamination for a safer, nutritious and sustainable food and feed supply and public health improvement. *Acta Medica Medianae* 2017;56(2) :51-56.

Key words: aflatoxin contamination, public health, prevention

Center of microbiology, Institut for public Health, Niš, Serbia¹
University of Niš, Faculty of Medicine, Niš, Serbia²
University of Niš, Faculty of Medicine, Department of Dentistry,
Niš, Serbia³
University of Niš, Center for pathology, Faculty of Medicine, Niš,
Serbia⁴
University of Niš, Faculty of Medicine, Department of Pharmacy,
Niš, Serbia⁵

Contact: Marina Randelović
Boul.Nemajića 76/28, 18000 Niš, Serbia
E-mail: marina87nis@gmail.com

Introduction

There is approximately 250 known species of genus *Aspergilli* which belong to the class of imperfect filamentous fungi. Many of them produce beneficial secondary metabolites, such as antibiotics and other pharmaceuticals (1). However, they can produce many secondary metabolites which are not always beneficial and some of them are even toxic and/or carcinogenic. These metabolites called mycotoxins, are structurally very diverse chemical

compounds with diverse toxic effects and a variety of biological activities (2). Within the genus *Aspergillus*, the following species have a greater economic impact: *Aspergillus flavus*, *Aspergillus parasiticus* and *Aspergillus niger* which produce aflatoxins. These toxins can be produced under certain environmental conditions and in a variety of substrates, and are common contaminants of a number of staple foods, including maize, oilseeds, spices, groundnuts, tree nuts, rice, milk and dried fruit (3). They are widely distributed in nature and although the aflatoxin parent molecule is harmless, it is converted into electrophilic intermediates that are toxic, mutagenic, teratogenic and carcinogenic and may cause serious health hazards to animals and humans (4-6).

The aim of this manuscript is the examination of relevance of aflatoxin, observed from a clinical standpoint, its influence on public health, critical groups and the measures for prevention of food contamination by this toxin. The data used in the research are obtained from books and relevant literature by means of PubMed browser.

Medical significance of aflatoxins

The four major aflatoxins are aflatoxin B1, B2, G1 and G2. Aflatoxin B1 and aflatoxin B2 are typically produced by toxigenic strains of *Aspergillus flavus*, whereas most strains of *Aspergillus parasiticus* produce all of the aflatoxins. Damage of the liver which is the primary target organ has been documented in rodents, birds, fish, poultry, and nonhuman primates after the ingestion of aflatoxin B1, the most toxic and abundant member of the family.

Acute hepatitis is the manifestation of acute aflatoxicosis in humans (7). After consumption of maize that was heavily contaminated with aflatoxin, in India in 1974, 100 people died of hepatitis and aflatoxin B1 was detected in high concentration in their livers (8, 9). It has been hypothesized that Reye syndrome, marked by encephalopathy and fatty degeneration of the viscera, and kwashiorkor, a severe malnutrition disease, are forms of pediatric aflatoxicosis. Although aflatoxins have been found in the livers of children with kwashiorkor and in Reye syndrome patients, a strong cause-and-effect relationship between these disease conditions and aflatoxin exposure has not been established (7).

Chronic exposure to aflatoxins can lead to malnutrition, suppressed immune response, proliferation of the bile duct, centrilobular necrosis and fatty infiltration of the liver and hepatic lesions. Firstly, it has been experimentally shown that such an exposure produce cancer in many animal species and further researches correlated increased aflatoxin ingestion with increased risk of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) in humans (7). When Aflatoxin B1 contribution to the pathogenesis of HCC was definitely proven, World Health Organization classified it as a "group A" carcinogen (10, 11).

It has been considered that mechanism of aflatoxin-induced carcinogenesis involves tumor promotion or progression. There is evidence that aflatoxin takes part in the activation of protooncogenes and in mutations of the tumor suppressor gene p53. Aflatoxin exposure and p53 mutations have been tightly linked in epidemiologic studies in Africa and China (12). The p53 gene encodes a transcription factor which is involved in cell cycle regulation. This gene is commonly mutated in liver cancers in humans (13). In animal models, cytochrome P450 monooxygenase in the liver modifies aflatoxin B1 into a more toxic and carcinogenic by-product during detoxification (14, 15). The epoxide form of aflatoxin binds to guanine residues in DNA, forms guanyl-N7 adducts, and induces mutations. At the third base of codon 249, a G to T transversion is a mutation hot spot of the p53 tumor suppressor gene (16). It is generally believed that this is the mechanism for initiating hepatocarcinoma formation (17-19).

There is also a suggestion that aflatoxin is connected with various chromosomal aberrations, unscheduled DNA synthesis and chromosomal strand breaks in human cells (17, 20).

Environmental influence and sensitive population groups

A wide range of commodities such as cereals, oilseeds, tree nuts, spices, dried fruit, milk and meat can be contaminated by aflatoxins. The foods which are most susceptible to contamination and consumed in the greatest amounts are maize and groundnuts. These groceries are the major staple food source in developing countries located in the tropical regions. Individuals who live in these regions are in the greater risk of aflatoxin exposure because of the poverty and lack of food diversity. Growth of *Aspergillus* fungi and level of aflatoxin contamination in food depends on many factors. Any stage of food production is susceptible to contamination, from pre-harvest to storage (3, 21).

Aflatoxin contamination is affected by the genotype of the crop planted, soil type, climate of the region, minimum and maximum daily temperatures, and daily net evaporation. Other important factors are also stress or damage to the crop due to drought, poor timing of harvest, insect activity, heavy rains at harvest and post-harvest, and inadequate drying of the crop before storage which can be contributed by unfavourable humidity, temperature, and aeration values (3).

Lower body weights and immature neurologic and immune systems in children can lead to illness and complications that might not affect adults. Children reaction to environmental toxins may not be proportional to their state of development.

To analyse the influence of aflatoxin exposure on growth in humans two separate epidemiologic studies in West Africa were conducted by Gong et al (22, 23). The results showed a conspicuous association between the exposure to aflatoxin in children with both acute and chronic malnutrition states. It has also been shown that aflatoxin exposure is an important factor in modulating the rate of recovery from kwashiorkor in children, but the exact mechanism is not completely explained yet (24, 25).

In endemic areas, pregnant women are often exposed to aflatoxin contaminated food. Research is needed to better understand the effects of aflatoxin exposure in utero and early childhood. This knowledge is fundamental in identification and design of preventive strategies (12).

Individuals with chronic hepatitis B virus infection exposed to aflatoxin are at up to 30 times greater risk for liver cancer development than individuals exposed to aflatoxin alone (26, 27). Aflatoxin and hepatitis B virus as two HCC risk factors are mainly characteristic of poor nations worldwide (27,28). The synergistic effect of aflatoxin also appears to be present in hepatitis C virus induced liver cancer, but the quantitative relationship in inducing HCC is not yet established (27, 29).

Preventive measures and intervention strategies

Control of aflatoxin contamination

Potential medical and economic impact of aflatoxins clearly implicate the need for elimination or at least minimization of its presence in food and feedstuff. This includes monitoring, managing and controlling their levels in agricultural products from preharvest to post-harvest and from farm to market. The first step in this strategy is legal regulations which include mandatory statutory procedures in order to ensure food safety.

Screening

Numerous analytical techniques have been developed in order to detect aflatoxin levels in food samples which should reduce the risk of its consumption in animals and humans. Those methods include high pressure liquid chromatography (HPLC), thin layer chromatography (TLC), gas chromatography (GC), rapid immuno-assay (RIA) and serum assay (ELISA) (30-32). Various agricultural commodities can also be tested with commercial test kits.

Agricultural strategies

Interventions in agricultural production for reducing aflatoxin levels in food are the methods which can be used either in pre-harvest or in post harvest period (33).

Appropriate practices on pre-harvested crops such as proper irrigation and pest management can reduce aflatoxin contamination. Crops should be chosen according to its resistance to drought, disease, and pests and advantage should be given to the strains of that crop which are genetically more resistant to the growth of the fungus and the production of aflatoxins. Infected debris from the previous harvest may cause infection of the current crop, so its elimination can also prevent contamination. (3).

Post harvest fungal growth and aflatoxin contamination can be caused by inadequate drying of crops especially in the countries with hot and wet climates (34, 35). Contamination can be reduced by sorting and disposing of visibly moldy or damaged kernels before storage as well as moisture, insect, and rodent control during storage (3, 36, 37). Aflatoxin contamination of maize depends on storage time, facilities used for storage, and the form of maize stored (3,38). Another strategy in corn and peanuts include detoxification of aflatoxin contaminated grains (39). Thorough drying and proper storage of groundnuts as simple and inexpensive measures can also have significant influence on aflatoxin levels, as shown in a community-based intervention study in Africa (37).

Biological Control

Germplasm is any living tissue (seed, leaf or another plant part) from which new plant can be grown. Their genetic diversity gives plant breeders the sustained ability to develop high quality varieties that can resist constantly evolving pests and diseases. Unfortunately, no highly resistant varieties or germplasm lines have been identified so far for the major crops such as cotton, corn, and peanut. Some low to medium resistant lines

in corn are under testing and development (40, 41). Progress has been made in identifying the genes in corn that shows resistance to aflatoxin producing fungus (42).

Aflatoxin contamination could be controlled to a considerable degree by the introduction of germplasms which are resistant either to fungal invasion or toxin production or both. Along with naturally resistant germplasms, a novel pool of germplasms that demonstrate the desired characteristics can be identified, which could be very important for the success of the current marker-assistance breeding programs. Resisting levels of existing germplasms could be enhanced by the identification of specific biochemical factors linked to the resistance against *Aspergillus flavus*. Application of nonaflatoxigenic, biocompetitive, native *Aspergillus flavus* strains to outcompete toxigenic isolates in the fields could also manage aflatoxin contamination (43).

Information spreading

Numerous information have been gathered about aflatoxin contamination during growing, harvesting and storage of crops, as well as the health hazards of aflatoxin exposure. However, this information rarely gets to traders, farmers, and all those who need to be informed. If the value of different interventions and useful information is disseminated in a proper way, much could be done for safer storage, handling and transportation practices of agricultural commodities (44). In Kenya in 2005, for example, people who were informed about maize drying and storage had lower serum aflatoxin levels than those who did not receive this information (3).

Vaccination against hepatitis B virus

The risk of HCC in individuals exposed to aflatoxins is increased exponentially if those individuals also have hepatitis B virus infection. Hepatitis B vaccination in infancy has been shown to be safe and effective (28, 45). It has no impact on aflatoxin levels alone, but prevents the synergistic impact of hepatitis B virus and aflatoxin in inducing liver cancer (46). This is particularly important for developing countries where both the incidence of hepatitis B virus and exposure to aflatoxins are high (28, 47).

Conclusions

Aflatoxin contamination of food and feed supply and its influence on human health, especially HCC development, are serious global public health issues. Elimination or at least minimization of aflatoxin presence in food and feedstuff could be achieved through proper monitoring, managing and controlling its levels in agricultural products from preharvest to post-harvest period. Human diet modulated by substances which reduce or prevent aflatoxin toxicity would have a great potential in reducing the incidence of aflatoxin induced HCC in endemic areas (12). Aflatoxin regulatory programs are already in place in most countries although

not all information are still spreaded in the proper way. Promotion of multidisciplinary approaches and better funding of further researches will help in designing effective and novel strategies to eliminate

aflatoxin contamination for a safer, nutritious and sustainable food and feed supply and public health improvement.

References

1. Brakhage AA, Schuemann J, Bergmann S, Scherlach K, Schroeckh V, Hertweck C. Activation of fungal silent gene clusters: A new avenue to drug discovery. *Prog Drug Res* 2008; 66: 3–12. [[CrossRef](#)][[PubMed](#)]
2. Sweeney M.J, Dobson A.D. Mycotoxin production by *Aspergillus*, *Fusarium* and *Penicillium* species. *Int J Food Microbiol* 1998; 43: 141–58. [[CrossRef](#)][[PubMed](#)]
3. Strosnider H, Azziz-Baumgartner E, Banziger M, Bhat RV, Breiman R, Brune MN, et al. Workgroup report: public health strategies for reducing aflatoxin exposure in developing countries. *Environ Health Perspect* 2006; 114: 1898–1903. [[CrossRef](#)][[PubMed](#)]
4. Wild CP, Turner PC. The toxicity of aflatoxins as a basis for public health decisions. *Mutagenesis* 2002; 17: 471–81. [[CrossRef](#)][[PubMed](#)]
5. Sudakin DL. Dietary aflatoxin exposure and chemoprevention of cancer: a clinical review. *J Toxicol Clin Toxicol* 2003; 41: 195–204. [[CrossRef](#)][[PubMed](#)]
6. Williams JH, Phillips TD, Jolly PE, Stiles JK, Jolly CM, Aggarwal D. Human aflatoxicosis in developing countries: a review of toxicology, exposure, potential health consequences, and interventions. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2004; 80: 1106–22. [[PubMed](#)]
7. Mycotoxins and Mycotoxicoses. In: Murray PR, Rosenthal KS, Pfaller MA, editors. *Medical Microbiology*, 6th ed. New York, NY: Elsevier; 2009. pp. 211–216.
8. Krishnamachari KA, Bhat RV, Nagarajan V, Tilak TB. Investigations into an outbreak of hepatitis in parts of western India. *Indian J Med Res* 1975; 63: 1036–49. [[PubMed](#)]
9. Pitt JI. Toxicogenic fungi and mycotoxins. *Br Med Bull* 2000; 56: 184–92. [[CrossRef](#)][[PubMed](#)]
10. López C, Ramos L, Bulacio L, Ramadán S, Rodríguez F. Aflatoxin B1 content in patients with hepatic diseases. *Medicina (B Aires)* 2002; 62: 313–6. [[PubMed](#)]
11. Tseng TC. Recent aspects of aflatoxin Research in Taiwan. *J Toxicol Toxin Rev* 1994;13:229–41. [[CrossRef](#)][[PubMed](#)]
12. Magnussen A, Parsi M. Aflatoxins, hepatocellular carcinoma and public health. *World J Gastroenterol* 2013;19(10):1508–12. [[CrossRef](#)][[PubMed](#)]
13. Groopman JD, Wogan GN, Roebuck BD, Kensler TW. Molecular biomarkers for aflatoxins and their application to human cancer prevention. *Cancer Res* 1994; 54: 190–1. [[PubMed](#)]
14. Eaton D, Gallagher E. Mechanisms of aflatoxin carcinogenesis. *Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol* 1994; 34: 135–72. [[CrossRef](#)][[PubMed](#)]
15. Lewis L, Onsongo M, Njapau H, Schurz-Rogers H, Lubber G, Kieszak S, et al. Aflatoxin contamination of commercial maize products during an outbreak of acute aflatoxicosis in eastern and central Kenya. *Environ Health Perspect* 2005; 113: 1763–67. [[CrossRef](#)][[PubMed](#)]
16. Bressac B, Kew M, Wands J, Ozturk M. Selective G to T mutations of p53 gene in hepatocellular carcinoma from southern Africa. *Nature* 1991; 350: 429–31. [[CrossRef](#)][[PubMed](#)]
17. Hsu IC, Metcalf RA, Sun T, Welsh JA, Wang NJ, Harris CC. Mutational hotspot in the p53 gene in human hepatocellular carcinomas. *Nature* 1991; 350: 427–8. [[CrossRef](#)][[PubMed](#)]
18. Ozturk M. p53 mutation in hepatocellular carcinoma after aflatoxin exposure. *Lancet* 1991; 338: 1356–9. [[CrossRef](#)][[PubMed](#)]
19. Coursaget P, Depril N, Chabaud M, Nandi R, Mayelo V, LeCann P, et al. High prevalence of mutations at codon 249 of the p53 gene in hepatocellular carcinomas from Senegal. *Br J Cancer* 1993; 67: 1395–7. [[CrossRef](#)][[PubMed](#)]
20. Soini Y, Chia SC, Bennett WP, Groopman JD, Wang JS, DeBenedetti VM, et al. An aflatoxin-associated mutational hotspot at codon 249 in the p53 tumor suppressor gene occurs in hepatocellular carcinomas from Mexico. *Carcinogenesis* 1996;17:1007–12. [[CrossRef](#)][[PubMed](#)]
21. Wilson DM, Payne GA. Factors affecting *Aspergillus flavus* group infection and aflatoxin contamination of the crops. In: Eaton DL, Groopman JD, editors. *The Toxicology of Aflatoxins: Human Health, Veterinary, and Agricultural Significance*. San Diego, CA: Academic Press; 1994. pp. 309–25. [[CrossRef](#)]
22. Gong YY, Cardwell K, Hounsa A, Egal S, Turner PC, Hall AJ, et al. Dietary aflatoxin exposure and impaired growth in young children from Benin and Togo: cross sectional study. *BMJ* 2002; 325: 20–1. [[CrossRef](#)][[PubMed](#)]
23. Gong Y, Hounsa A, Egal S, Turner PC, Sutcliffe AE, Hall AJ, et al. Postweaning exposure to aflatoxin results in impaired child growth: a longitudinal study in Benin, West Africa. *Environ Health Perspect* 2004; 112: 1334–8. [[CrossRef](#)][[PubMed](#)]
24. Adhikari M, Gita-Ramjee P. Aflatoxin, kwashiorkor, and morbidity. *Nat Toxins* 1994; 2: 1–3. [[CrossRef](#)][[PubMed](#)]
25. Mahoud B. Aflatoxin and kwashiorkor. *Acta Paediatr* 2001; 90: 103. [[PubMed](#)]
26. Groopman JD, Kensler TW, Wild CP. Protective interventions to prevent aflatoxin-induced carcinogenesis in developing countries. *Annu Rev Public Health* 2008; 29: 187–203.

- [CrossRef][PubMed]
27. Liu Y, Wu F. Global burden of aflatoxin-induced hepatocellular carcinoma: a risk assessment. *Environ Health Perspect* 2010;118:818–24. [CrossRef][PubMed]
 28. Plymoth A, Viviani S, Hainaut P. Control of hepatocellular carcinoma through hepatitis B vaccination in areas of high endemicity: perspectives for global liver cancer prevention. *Cancer Lett* 2009; 286: 15–21. [CrossRef][PubMed]
 29. Wild CP, Montesano R. A model of interaction: aflatoxins and hepatitis viruses in liver cancer aetiology and prevention. *Cancer Lett* 2009; 286: 22–8. [CrossRef][PubMed]
 30. Wilson DM. Analytical methods for aflatoxins in corn and peanuts. *Arch Environ Contam Toxicol* 1989; 18: 308–14. [CrossRef][PubMed]
 31. Xiulan S, Xiaolian Z, Jian T, Zhou J, Chu FS. Preparation of gold-labeled antibody probe and its use in immunochromatography assay for detection of aflatoxin B1. *Int J Food Microbiol* 2005; 99: 185–94. [CrossRef][PubMed]
 32. Chu FS, Fan TS, Zhang GS, Xu YC, Faust S, McMahon PL. Improved enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay for aflatoxin B1 in agricultural commodities. *J Assoc Off Anal Chem* 1987; 70: 854–7. [PubMed]
 33. Wu F, Khlangwiset P. Health economic impacts and cost-effectiveness of aflatoxin-reduction strategies in Africa: case studies in biocontrol and post-harvest interventions. *Food Addit Contam Part A Chem Anal Control Expo Risk Assess* 2010; 27: 496–509. [CrossRef][PubMed]
 34. Cleveland TE, Yu J, Bhatnagar D, Chen ZY, Brown R, Chang PK, et al. Progress in Elucidating the Molecular Basis of the Host Plant-Aspergillus flavus Interaction: A Basis for Devising Strategies to Reduce Aflatoxin Contamination in Crops. In: Abbas H.K., editor. *Aflatoxin and Food Safety*. CRC Press; Boca Raton, FL, USA: 2005. pp. 167–93. [PubMed]
 35. Cleveland TE, Cary JW, Brown RL, Bhatnagar D, Yu J, Chang PK, et al. Use of biotechnology to eliminate aflatoxin in preharvest crops. *Bull Inst Compr Agric Sci Kinki Univ* 1997; 5: 75–90.
 36. Fandohan P, Zoumenou D, Hounhouigan DJ, Marasas WF, Wingfield MJ, Hell K. Fate of aflatoxins and fumonisins during the processing of maize into food products in Benin. *Int J Food Microbiol* 2005; 98: 249–59. [CrossRef][PubMed]
 37. Turner PC, Sylla A, Diallo MS, Castegnaro JJ, Hall AJ, Wild CP. The role of aflatoxins and hepatitis viruses in the etiopathogenesis of hepatocellular carcinoma: A basis for primary prevention in Guinea-Conakry, West Africa. *J Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2002; 17: 441–8. [CrossRef][PubMed]
 38. Hell K, Cardwell KF, Setamou M, Poehling H. The influence of storage practices on aflatoxin contamination in maize in four agroecological zones of Benin, west Africa. *J Stored Prod Res* 2000; 36: 365–82. [CrossRef][PubMed]
 39. Lillehoj EB, Wall JH. Decontamination of Aflatoxin-Contaminated Maize Grain; Proceedings of US Universities-CIMMYT Maize Aflatoxin Workshop; El Batan, Mexico. 1987; pp. 260–79.
 40. Tubajika KM, Damann KE. Sources of resistance to aflatoxin production in maize. *J Agric Food Chem* 2001; 49: 2652–56. [CrossRef]
 41. Brown RL, Chen ZY, Cleveland TE, Russin JS. Advances in the development of host resistance in corn to aflatoxin contamination by *Aspergillus flavus*. *Phytopathology* 1999; 89: 113–7. [CrossRef][PubMed]
 42. Chen ZY, Brown RL, Damann KE, Cleveland TE. PR10 expression in maize and its effect on host resistance against *Aspergillus flavus* infection and aflatoxin production. *Plant Pathol* 2010; 11: 69–81. [CrossRef][PubMed]
 43. Cotty PJ, Bayman DS, Egel DS, Elias KS. Agriculture, Aflatoxins and *Aspergillus*. In: Powell K., editor. *The Genus Aspergillus*. Plenum Press; New York, NY, USA: 1994. pp. 1–27. [CrossRef]
 44. Wild CP, Gong YY. Mycotoxins and human disease: a largely ignored global health issue. *Carcinogenesis* 2010; 31: 71–82. [CrossRef][PubMed]
 45. Mansoor OD, Salama P. Should hepatitis B vaccine be used for infants? *Expert Rev Vaccines* 2007; 6: 29–33. [CrossRef][PubMed]
 46. Khlangwiset P, Wu F. Costs and efficacy of public health interventions to reduce aflatoxin-induced human disease. *Food Addit Contam Part A Chem Anal Control Expo Risk Assess* 2010; 27: 998–1014. [CrossRef][PubMed]
 47. Henry SH, Bosch FX, Bowers JC. Aflatoxin, hepatitis and worldwide liver cancer risks. *Adv Exp Med Biol* 2002; 504: 229–33. [CrossRef][PubMed]

AFLATOKSINI: MEDICINSKI ZNAČAJ, RIZIČNE GRUPE I MOGUĆE PREVENTIVNE MERE

Marina Randelović^{1,2}, Jovana Kostić^{1,2}, Nenad Stošić³, Ivana Đorđević⁴,
Ana Spasić⁵, Gordana Randelović^{1,2}

Centar za mikrobiologiju, Institut za javno zdravlje Niš, Srbija¹
Univerzitet u Nišu, Medicinski fakultet, Niš, Srbija²
Univerzitet u Nišu, Medicinski fakultet, Odeljenje stomatologije, Niš, Srbija³
Univerzitet u Nišu, Centar za patologiju, Medicinski fakultet, Niš, Srbija⁴
Univerzitet u Nišu, Medicinski fakultet, Odeljenje farmacije, Niš, Srbija⁵

Kontakt: Marina Randelović
Bul. Nemanjića 76/28, 18000 Niš, Srbija
E-mail: marina87nis@gmail.com

Aflatoksini su široko rasprostranjeni u prirodi kao česti kontaminanti brojnih osnovnih životnih namirnica uključujući kukuruz, razne žitarice, začine, kikiriki, orahe, pirinač, mleko i sušeno voće. Iako je molekul aflatoksina bezopasan, njegov metabolit nastao pod dejstvom citohroma p450 ima toksični, mutageni, teratogeni i kancerogeni efekat.

Cilj ovog rada bio je sagledavanje kliničkog značaja aflatoksina, njegovog uticaja na javno zdravlje, rizičnih grupa, kao i preventivnih mera kojima bi se izbegla kontaminacija namirnica ovim toksinom. Korišćeni su podaci iz knjiga i referentne literature obezbedene primenom PubMed pretraživača. Manifestacija akutne aflatoksikoze je akutni hepatitis, dok hronično izlaganje može da dovede do razvoja malnutricije, supresije imunskog odgovora i hepatocelularnog karcinoma. Rejev sindrom i kvašiorkor se smatraju pedijatrijskim formama aflatoksikoze. Deca i osobe inficirane virusom hepatitisa B su posebno osetljivi na aflatoksin. Kontaminacija aflatoksinima zavisi od genotipa zasađenih biljaka, tipa zemljišta, klime, vremenskih uslova, termina žetve, aktivnosti insekata i načina sušenja biljaka pre skladištenja. Kontrola kontaminacije aflatoksinima se može postići uvođenjem adekvatnih metoda skrininga, efiksnijim strategijama u poljoprivrednoj proizvodnji i biološkim metodama.

Najvažnije preventivne mere podrazumevaju sprovođenje regulatornih programa za aflatoksine, širenje korisnih informacija farmerima, trgovcima i svima koji mogu da imaju korist ili daju doprinos kao i vakcinacija protiv hepatits B virusa. Primena multidisciplinarnog pristupa i adekvatno finansiranje budućih istraživanja mogu pomoći u dizajniranju novih i efektivnih strategija za eliminisanje kontaminacije aflatoksinima u cilju proizvodnje sigurnije, hranjivije i održivije hrane i poboljšanja javnog zdravlja. *Acta Medica Medianae* 2017;56(2):51-56.

Ključne reči: : aflatoksin, kontaminacija, javno zdravlje, prevencija