

Decontamination of aflatoxin-contaminated maize by dehulling

Andrew H Siwela,^{1*} Mthulisi Siwela,² Gibson Matindi,¹ Shadreck Dube¹ and Nozipho Nziramasanga³

¹Department of Applied Biology and Biochemistry, National University of Science and Technology, PO Box AC939, Ascot, Bulawayo, Zimbabwe

²Discipline of Dietetics and Human Nutrition, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Private Bag X01, Scottsville 3209, Pietermaritzburg, South Africa

³Special Analysis Laboratory, Chemistry and Soils Research Institute, Agricultural Research and Extension, PO Box CY550, Causeway, Harare, Zimbabwe

Abstract: Dehulling of maize grains as an aflatoxin decontamination method was investigated. Sixty kilograms of maize (whose average moisture content was 110 g kg⁻¹) were thoroughly mixed and divided into two samples. The kernel moisture content of one sample was adjusted to 200 g kg⁻¹ while the other (control) was left at 110 g kg⁻¹. The two samples were kept at ambient temperature (25–30 °C) for 21 days. Twenty sub-samples, ten from each, were further divided into two so that one lot was dehulled while the other was not dehulled. These sub-samples were then milled to pass through a 1 mm screen and the meal was evaluated for aflatoxin contamination. It was found that there was a 92% decrease in aflatoxin levels in dehulled maize meal compared with unde-hulled maize meal. We therefore suggest that dehulling the grain can be used to reduce aflatoxin levels in maize.

© 2005 Society of Chemical Industry

Keywords: aflatoxin; decontamination; dehulling; maize

INTRODUCTION

Aflatoxins are highly toxic and carcinogenic metabolites produced by fungi of the *Aspergillus* genus. They are a serious problem in many countries of the world, especially developing countries. They occur in almost all agricultural produce. A lot of effort, resources and time have been committed to aflatoxin research work since the early 1960s. Consequently, a substantial amount of knowledge has been generated concerning the conditions which predispose grain to aflatoxin contamination, whether in the field or in storage. An equal effort and attention has also been given to possible methods that could be used to prevent contamination of grain by aflatoxin-producing fungi. These include use and/or evaluation of aflatoxin-resistant varieties of seeds,¹ minimizing excess water and/or stress to crops during their various growing stages, good timing of harvest, proper harvesting techniques which minimize damage to grain as well as effecting proper storage conditions of temperature, moisture, pH and gas atmosphere.²

For stored grain lots, approaches to detoxification have included physical methods, eg gamma irradiation of grain and electronic sorting.^{3,4} Segregation of kernels by particle size has also been used. It was shown that larger grains (>4.5 mm) contained significantly lower aflatoxin levels than those smaller than 4.5 mm.⁵

Heat treatment such as cooking⁶ and dry roasting^{7,8} have been reported to reduce aflatoxin concentration. Chemical treatment of grain by hydrogen peroxide,⁹ sodium hypochlorite,¹⁰ ozone,¹¹ sodium bisulfate¹² and aqueous or gaseous ammonia with or without heating¹³ has been used to decontaminate grain and oil seeds. Biological methods have also been used to degrade or remove aflatoxin from ground samples of maize and peanuts. Species of bacteria such as *Flavobacterium aurantiacum*¹⁴ and lactic acid bacteria^{15,16} have been employed.

One of the early practices of African food preparation was manual dehulling of grain before grinding. This practice is no longer in common use except in a few countries,¹⁷ and has been replaced by use of mechanical disc dehullers on a commercial and semi-commercial scale. Dehulling is a milling technique that removes the outer layers of grain by abrasion. As these layers are the regions most susceptible to fungal attack and aflatoxin accumulation,¹⁸ we sought to find out the effect of dehulling maize contaminated with aflatoxins.

EXPERIMENTAL

Sixty kilograms of maize from the 1999/2000 season (moisture content of 110 g kg⁻¹) were obtained from

* Correspondence to: Andrew H Siwela, Department of Applied Biology and Biochemistry, National University of Science and Technology, PO Box AC939, Ascot, Bulawayo, Zimbabwe

E-mail: asiwela@nust.ac.zw

Contract/grant sponsor: Research Board, National University of Science and Technology

(Received 10 February 2004; revised version received 19 July 2004; accepted 14 December 2004)

Published online 17 August 2005

the market and subdivided into two 30 kg samples after thorough mixing. One of the samples had its moisture content adjusted to 200 g kg^{-1} to allow colonization by the natural mycoflora of the maize¹⁹ while the other sample (control) was left at 110 g kg^{-1} . After this treatment, the two lots were further subdivided into ten sub-samples each and kept in containers at ambient temperatures ($25\text{--}30^\circ\text{C}$) for 21 days to let fungi grow and produce mycotoxins. The containers were covered with damp jute bags, whose ends were immersed in bowls filled with water, to minimize evaporation and keep the relative humidity high and constant within the sample environment. The relative humidity and temperature were monitored using a Sunbeam hygrometer and thermometer (Sunbeam-Oster Household Products, Laurel, Mississippi, USA) over the period of experimentation. We made sure that the bags were not in direct contact with the samples at any time. Samples were then dried to about 110 g kg^{-1} moisture content. Five sub-samples from each treatment were ground to pass through a 1 mm mesh²⁰ whilst the other five sub-samples from each treatment were dehulled using a dehuller obtained from Rural Industries Innovation Centre, Kanye, Botswana, and the grains similarly ground. The bran and grits were also collected. The samples were then assayed for aflatoxins using HPLC as described by Siwela.²¹ In brief, the method involved the use of aqueous acetone to extract the ground sample. An aliquot of the extract was mixed with lead acetate to precipitate proteins and other materials and then passed through a phenyl-bonded pre-packed column (Bond Elut, Varian, Harbor City, USA). The aflatoxins were then eluted using chloroform. The chloroform was evaporated and the residue derivatized using trifluoroacetic acid (TFA). The TFA was then evaporated and the residue reconstituted in 250 g kg^{-1} acetonitrile. Analyses were performed using a Philips high pressure liquid chromatograph (PU 4100M; Cambridge, UK) with manual injections of $25 \mu\text{L}$ aliquots of sample alongside standard solutions. Aqueous acetonitrile (250 g kg^{-1}) at a flow rate of $16.67 \mu\text{L s}^{-1}$ was used as the mobile phase. The toxins were detected using a Philips PU 4027 fluorescent detector set at wavelength 365 nm for excitation and 418 nm for emission; the signals were recorded on an electronic

integrator (Varian 4400; Walnut Creek, USA). The concentrations of aflatoxins were calculated by comparing peak heights with those of standard solutions.

Statistical analysis

Results were expressed as means $\pm$ standard deviation (SD). Statistical analysis (Student's *t* test and Welch's *t* test) was performed using GraphPad InStat software (Graph Pad Prism, San Diego, California, USA).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

At the end of 21 days, the maize was determined to contain $198.70 \pm 0.22 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ moisture. This represented a statistically non-significant change of 6.5 g kg^{-1} moisture (Welch's *t* test, $P < 0.05$). The relative humidity in the containers remained constant at $98\% \pm 2\%$ and the mean temperature also remained constant at 22°C . Despite observed fungal growth, no gross deterioration of the maize was evident. The grain looked and felt sound. Grain that has suffered gross deterioration as a result of fungal invasion is usually lighter in mass, discoloured, darkened²² and friable. No attempt to systematically identify the fungi was made as the main aim of this study was to assay for aflatoxin contamination in the maize.

Table 1 shows aflatoxin levels in maize before and after dehulling as well as levels of aflatoxins after the moisture levels of maize were elevated from 110 to 200 g kg^{-1} . The high levels of aflatoxin in undehulled dried maize (control) can be attributed to unusually high rainfall and high temperatures towards the end of the 1999/2000 season due to cyclone Elina that affected Zimbabwe. Late season rainfall and cyclones have been shown to contribute significantly to aflatoxin content in maize left standing in the field.^{23,24} The action limit for total aflatoxins is $20 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$ in Zimbabwe as defined by the Food Standards Act of 1971 revised in the Statutory Instrument of 1990.

Elevation of moisture content of the maize from 110 to 200 g kg^{-1} and keeping the grain at $25\text{--}30^\circ\text{C}$ for 21 days led to fungal growth with concomitant production of aflatoxins. The highest increases in aflatoxins were a 19-fold increase of aflatoxin B₁ and

Table 1. Aflatoxin levels^a ($\mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$ dry matter basis) in maize before and after dehulling

Mycotoxin	Maize as received			Maize after moisture elevation		
	Undehulled ^b	Dehulled ^b	Aflatoxin reduction (%)	Undehulled ^c	Dehulled ^c	Aflatoxin reduction (%)
Aflatoxin B ₁	3.39 ± 0.75	0.38 ± 0.06	88.8	65.90 ± 16.43	6.70 ± 4.43	89.8
Aflatoxin G ₁	15.12 ± 3.60	0.96 ± 0.19	93.7	93.30 ± 17.90	6.93 ± 2.28	92.6
Aflatoxin B ₂	5.19 ± 0.68	0.47 ± 0.08	90.9	22.65 ± 10.10	1.92 ± 0.77	91.5
Aflatoxin G ₂	42.20 ± 1.24	2.67 ± 0.25	93.7	43.19 ± 3.38	3.82 ± 1.01	91.2
Total AFT	67.42	4.48	93.4	225.04	19.37	91.4

^a Data represent means and standard deviations for $n = 5$.

^{bc} Differences in aflatoxin levels between undehulled and dehulled maize significantly different from each other (Student's *t* test, $P < 0.001$).

Table 2. Distribution ratios of aflatoxins in grits and bran before and after moisture treatment

Mycotoxin	Maize as received		Maize after moisture elevation	
	Grits	Bran	Grits	Bran
Aflatoxin B ₁	1	28	1	24
Aflatoxin G ₁	1	26	1	21
Aflatoxin B ₂	1	13	1	12
Aflatoxin G ₂	1	17	1	12

a six-fold increase of aflatoxin G₁ in the maize whose moisture levels were artificially elevated compared with controls. No significant changes in aflatoxin G₂ levels were noted while the levels of aflatoxin B₂ increased four-fold.

At the end of the incubation period (21 days) and subsequent drying, assay for aflatoxin in the maize showed a significant reduction of aflatoxin levels in dehulled maize compared with controls (Table 1). Dehulling effected an average of 92% reduction in aflatoxin levels. This figure relates to a level of dehulling resulting in 20% loss in weight of the grain due to the abrasion process. The presence of 92% of the total aflatoxin in the 20% residue obtained as a result of dehulling can be explained by the fact that although fungi are capable of penetration into the grains, surface colonization and hence aflatoxin production is more prevalent than internal infection.¹⁹ The presence of aflatoxins in the dehulled maize indicates that the fungal mycelia do also penetrate the endosperm. This is in agreement with laboratory studies that have shown that *Aspergillus flavus* growth is distributed according to germ > tip cap > endosperm.²⁵

The bran fraction of both the control maize kernels and those kernels whose moisture levels had been elevated contained the highest levels of aflatoxins (Table 2), while grits contained lower levels. Our results are in agreement with those of Trenholm *et al*²⁶ who reported high concentrations of deoxynivalenol and zearalenone toxin in bran of four dehulled cereals.

As cooking and steaming under pressure has been shown to reduce aflatoxins by up to 50%,⁶ a combination of dehulling and cooking seems an attractive way of decontamination of maize-based foods and feed, particularly in Southern Africa where maize meal forms the staple food for humans. We therefore recommend dehulling of grains either manually or mechanically before preparation of food. Not only does dehulling remove aflatoxins from the outer layer of maize as we have shown in this report, but Hosney²⁷ has also stated that dehulling removes antinutritional factors such as phytate and reduces the lipid content of the seed, thus improving the storage quality of the resulting meal.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work was supported by funds provided by the

Research Board, National University of Science and Technology.

REFERENCES

- 1 Windham GL and Williams WP, Evaluation of corn inbreds and advanced breeding lines for resistance to aflatoxin contamination in the field. *Plant Dis* **86**:232–234 (2002).
- 2 Pitt JI and Hocking AD, Significance of fungi in stored products, in *Fungi and Mycotoxins in Stored Products: Proceedings of an International Conference*, ed by Champ BR, Highley E, Hocking AD and Pitt JI. ACIAR, Canberra, pp. 16–21 (1991).
- 3 Van Dyck PJ, Tobback P, Van de Voorde H and Feys M, Study on sensitivity of aflatoxin B₁ to ionizing radiation. *Appl Environ Microbiol* **43**:1313–1319 (1982).
- 4 Aziz NH and Moussa LA, Influence of gamma radiation on mycotoxin producing molds and mycotoxins in fruits. *Food Control* **13**:281–288 (2002).
- 5 Piedade FS, Fonseca H, Gloria EM, Calori-Domingues MA, Piedade SMS and Barbin D, Distribution of aflatoxin in contaminated corn fractions segregated by size. *Brazil J Microbiol* **33**:12–16 (2002).
- 6 Basappa SC and Rehana F, Detoxification of aflatoxin B₁ in maize by different cooking methods. *J Food Sci Technol* **27**:397–399 (1990).
- 7 Conway HF, Anderson RA and Bagley EB, Detoxification of aflatoxin contaminated corn by roasting. *Cereal Chem* **55**:115–117 (1978).
- 8 Siwela AH and Nziramasanga N, Regulatory aspects of aflatoxin control in Zimbabwe—a review. *J Appl Sci Southern Africa* **5**:141–147 (1999).
- 9 Conzane RS, Stenzel WR and Kroh LW, Reducing the aflatoxin content in peanuts. *Deutsche Lebensmittel Rundschau* **98**:321–325 (2002).
- 10 Draughon FA and Childs EA, Chemical and biological evaluation of aflatoxin after treatment with sodium hypochloride, sodium hydroxide and ammonium hydroxide. *J Food Prot* **45**:703–706 (1982).
- 11 Mackenzie KS, Kubena LF, Denvir AJ, Rogers TD Hitchens GD, Bailey RH, Harvey RB, Buckley SA and Phillips TD, *Aflatoxicosis in turkey poult is prevented by treatment of naturally contaminated corn with ozone generated by electrolysis*. [Online]. Available: <http://www.poultryscience.org/ps/abs/98/Aug98ab1094.html> [29 August 2005].
- 12 Hagler WM, Hutchins JE and Hamilton PB, Destruction of aflatoxin in corn with sodium bisulfite. *J Food Prot* **45**:1287–1291 (1982).
- 13 Coker RD, Jewers K and Jones BD, The destruction of aflatoxins by ammonia: Practical possibilities. *Trop Sci* **25**:139–154 (1985).
- 14 Line JE and Brackett RE, Factors affecting aflatoxin B₁ removal by *Flavobacterium aurantiacum*. *J Food Prot* **58**:91–94 (1995).
- 15 Gourana H and Bullerman LB, Antimycotoxic and antiaflatoxic effect of lactic acid bacteria: a review. *J Food Prot* **58**:1275–1280 (1995).
- 16 El-Nezami H, Kankaanpää P, Salminen S and Ahokas J, Ability of dairy strains of lactic acid bacteria to bind a common food carcinogen, aflatoxin B₁. *Food Chem Toxicol* **36**:321–326 (1998).
- 17 Mukuru SZ, Traditional technologies in small grain processing, in *Utilization of Sorghum and Millets: Proceedings of the International Conference*, ed by Gomez MI, House LR, Rooney LW and Dendy DAV. ICRISAT, India, pp. 47–56 (1992).
- 18 Payne GA, *Aspergillus flavus* infection of maize, in *Aflatoxin in Maize: Proceedings of the Workshop*, ed by Zuber MS, Lillehoj EB and Renfro BL. CIMMYT, Mexico, pp. 119–129 (1986).
- 19 Lopez LC and Christensen CM, Effect of moisture content and temperature on invasion of stored corn by *Aspergillus flavus*. *Phytopathology* **57**:588–590 (1967).

- 20 Davis ND, Dickens JW, Freil RL, Hamilton PB, Shortwell OL and Wyllie TD, Protocols for surveys, sampling, post collection handling and analysis of grain samples involved in mycotoxin problems. *J AOAC* **63**:95–120 (1980).
- 21 Siwela AH, Combined use of phenyl-bonded phase clean-up and HPLC for the determination of aflatoxins. *Trop Sci* **36**:197–200 (1996).
- 22 Blainey BJ and Williams KC. Effective use of mould-damaged commodities, in *Fungi and Mycotoxins in Stored Products: Proceedings of an International Conference*, ed by Champ BR, Highley E, Hocking AD and Pitt JI. ACIAR, Canberra, pp. 157–167 (1991).
- 23 Jones RK, Duncan HE and Hamilton PB. Planting date, harvest date and irrigation effects on infection and aflatoxin production by *Aspergillus flavus* in field corn. *Phytopathology* **71**:810–816 (1981).
- 24 Bhat RV, Aflatoxins: successes and failures of three decades of research, in *Fungi and Mycotoxins in Stored Products: Proceedings of an International Conference*, ed by Champ BR, Highley E, Hocking AD and Pitt JI. ACIAR, Canberra, pp. 80–85 (1991).
- 25 Fennell DL, Bothas RJ, Lillehoj EB and Peterson RE, Bright greenish yellow fluorescence and associated fungi in white corn naturally contaminated with aflatoxin. *Cereal Chem* **50**:404–414 (1973).
- 26 Trenholm HL, Charmley LL, Prelusky DB and Warmer RM, Two physical methods for the decontamination of four cereals contaminated with deoxynivalenol and zearalenone. *J Agric Food Chem* **39**:356–360 (1990).
- 27 Hosney RC, *Principles of Cereal Science and Technology*. American Association of Cereal Chemists, St Paul, pp. 21–24 (1994).