



# Mycotoxin-induced toxicity; an updated mini-review on the current concepts

Elaheh Jahanian<sup>1\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Animal Sciences, College of Agriculture, Isfahan University of Technology, Isfahan, Iran

## Correspondence to

Elaheh Jahanian, Ph.D; Email: elaheh.jahanian@gmail.com

Received 2 April 2016

Accepted 8 May 2016

Published online 12 May 2016

**Keywords:** Mycotoxins, Immunotoxicity, Hepatotoxicity, Genotoxicity, Nephrotoxicity

## Abstract

Since the secondary fungal metabolites, mycotoxins, are easily the most widespread, hence, it is difficult to delete them. On the other hands, mycotoxins are acutely and chronically toxic to animals and humans. Mycotoxins contamination induced oxidative stress and apoptosis; consequently, they involved in the regulation of gene expression. Additionally, challenging with mycotoxins caused the prevalence of many health problems especially for humans including genotoxicity, immunotoxicity, hepatotoxicity, neurotoxicity as well as nephrotoxicity.

**Citation:** Jahanian E. Mycotoxin-induced toxicity; an updated mini-review on the current concepts. Immunopathol Persa. 2016;2(2):e11.



## Introduction

Molds produce more than 400 different mycotoxins that are toxic to humans (1). Mycotoxins are considered to be the secondary metabolites of fungi that produce in crops and foods in either pre-harvest or post-harvest (2). The most common fungi produced mycotoxins, are *Aspergillus* families (3) including *A. flavus*, *A. parasiticus* and *A. ochraceus*, *Fusarium* species (4), and also *Fumonisin moniliforme* (5). Mycotoxins have been increasingly attracting the concern of health organizations due to their ubiquitous nature of fungi; thus, their occurrence in feeds cannot be ignored (6). Interestingly, it has been estimated that 25% of the world's crop such as nuts, cereals and rice is contaminated by mould and fungal growth, as reviewed by according to the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization (7) and the World Health Organization (8). The effects of mycotoxins on human health depend on dosage, length of exposure, type of mycotoxins, and physiological and nutritional status (9). There are several health problems including gastrointestinal pain, diarrhea and liver cancer (10), as well as retarded growth and development in livestock and humans being (11), as evidenced by several studies. Furthermore, mycotoxins serve as potent immunosuppressive agents negatively affecting immune cells (12).

## Materials and Methods

This mini-review article discusses the patho-

## Key Point

Mycotoxins, the secondary metabolites of fungus, are easily widespread. They negatively affect many organs and systems including liver, immune and nervous systems and also even at the cell "gene". They, therefore, could bind to DNA and consequently produce DNA adducts.

physiological mechanism responsible for cisplatin nephrotoxicity. For this review, we used a variety of sources by searching through Web of Science, PubMed, EMBASE, Scopus, EBSCO and directory of open access journals (DOAJ). The search was performed using combinations of the following key words and or their equivalents such as mycotoxins, immunotoxicity, hepatotoxicity, genotoxicity and nephrotoxicity.

## Mycotoxins

Mycotoxins consisted of aflatoxins (13), fumonisin (5), ochratoxins (14), zeralenon (15) and also deoxynivalenol (16). There are five subfamilies of aflatoxins including B1, B2, G1, G2, and M1 (17), but aflatoxin B1 is considered to be the most mutagenic and carcinogenic metabolites amongst aflatoxins (18).

The toxic effects of mycotoxins on human and animal health are known as mycotoxicosis (19). Fungal secondary metabolites, mycotoxins, have been well known as "silent killers", "invisible thieves", "unavoidable contaminants", and "natural toxicants" (20).

Humans are exposed to mycotoxins via intake of plants and human products contaminated with mycotoxins (2). For instance, a proportion of aflatoxins including M1 and M2 is hydroxylated and excreted in milk, when aflatoxins B1 and B2 are consumed by lactating cows (21). In addition, humans fed on the high levels of deoxynivalenol in china showed gastrointestinal pains (22). Additionally, the outbreak of gastrointestinal problems was observed in people consumed wheat contaminated with deoxynivalenol in India (23). Notably, exposure to mycotoxins elevated the outbreak of infection diseases, which resulted from bacteria, viruses and other fungi, in animals (24).

With respect to several studies, mycotoxins contamination led to the outbreak of immunotoxicity, genotoxicity, hepatotoxicity, nephrotoxicity and neurotoxicity (Figure 1). Evidence showed that membrane-active properties of mycotoxins manifest their toxicity; because alterations of fatty acid composition in the membrane lead to detrimental effects (25). Since mycotoxins has the detrimental effects on human health and on the other hand, amongst all adverse effects of mycotoxins, immunotoxicity is known to be the most widespread consequence of mycotoxicosis (12), so, the aim of this study was to evaluate the effects of mycotoxins on health and highlighted immunotoxicity effects.

### Hepatotoxicity

Liver is considered to be biologically active organs in metabolism, excretion and detoxification (26,27). When mycotoxins absorb in the gastrointestinal tract, they transfer to liver; thereby, injuring the liver (28). Hepatocellular carcinoma is known to be the most common disease and the forth cause of death (29). It was reported that there is high correlation between the occurrences of hepatocellular carcinoma and aflatoxin B1 challenge (13). Notably, it is estimated that 5%-30% of liver cancer is caused by aflatoxin intake (30). The highest outbreak of liver cancer approximately 40% is reported to be in Africa (30). In this regard, the incidence of hepatocellular carcinoma is logarithmically raised as the level of aflatoxins intake is elevated (13,31).

Furthermore, some studies have been showed that exposure to mycotoxins induced hepatic histopathology alter-

ations including bile duct proliferation, periductal fibrosis and cholestasis (32). In this case, Bakeer et al (33) studied the effects of mycotoxins (aflatoxin, and ochratoxin) on hepatic histopathology in broilers. They found that aflatoxin challenge induced Kupffer cells activation, sinusoidal dilation and periacinar hepatic necrosis and hepatocellular vacuolations in broiler chicks. Additionally, Ortatatlı et al (31) reported that feeding diets containing 100 ppb aflatoxin displayed hydropic degeneration and fatty vacuoles in hepatocytes when compared to control. Also, Krishnamoorthy et al (34) exhibited pale, enlarged liver, hepatocytes necrosis and also bile duct hyperplasia in chicks exposed to T-2 toxin.

### Nephrotoxicity

Many studies have been demonstrated that long time exposure to mycotoxins is account for nephropathies and urinary tract tumors (35). High levels of ochratoxin A in the serum is an indicative of chronic nephropathy (36). Ochratoxin A binds to a serum macromolecule of low relative molecular weight accounting for the nephrotoxic effects in mammals due to its accumulation in the kidney (37). Ali and Abdu (38) studied the effect of ochratoxin A on rats' kidney. They found that ochratoxin A treatment caused the declines in kidney weight and its relative weight and the increases in serum urea and creatinine levels. Furthermore, animal study reported that ochratoxin A treatment increased renal disease followed by proximal tubular atrophy and also cortical interstitial fibrosis (39).

### Genotoxicity

Mycotoxins seem to interact with DNA and other macromolecules; as the consequence, mycotoxins are referred to be carcinogenic, mutagenic, teratogenic (40). Combinations of T-2 toxins and aflatoxin B1 are the strongest mutagens (41). Sehata et al (42) studied the alterations in gene expression induced by T-2 toxin in the fetal brain of pregnant rats. In this case, 2 mg/kg T-2 toxin are orally administered in rats on day of 13 of gestation. They found that the expression of oxidative stress-related gene including heat shock protein 70 and apoptosis-related genes including caspase-2 and insulin-like growth factor-binding pro-

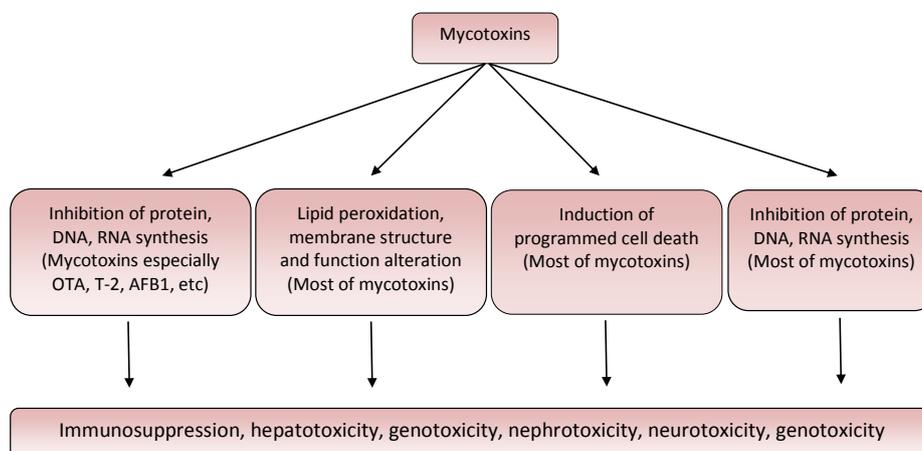


Figure 1. Major mechanisms of mycotoxin toxicity (adapted from References 12 and 26).

tein 3 were upregulated by T-2 toxin treatment. Islam et al (43) searched the effects of the deoxynivalenol on expression of interleukin-8 gene in cloned human monocytes and peripheral blood mononuclear cells. They showed that deoxynivalenol treatment (250-1000 ng/mL) caused an increase in interleukin 8 mRNA abundance. Luhe et al (44) found the increased apoptosis, inflammation and oxidative stress gene expressions in rat kidney as the consequence of ochratoxin A treatment.

### Immunotoxicity

The immune system is considered to be a crucial defensive mechanism against invading pathogenic bacteria and foreign cells (45). The specialized cells of immune system interact with each other to produce the desired consequents (45).

It has been found that the effect of mycotoxins on immune system is either suppressive or stimulator depending on the time, duration and dose of exposure (46). Previous study has been found that there is a potent association between aflatoxins contamination and immunosuppression, reflecting that intake of aflatoxins increased the susceptibility of humans to infections (47). Girish and Smith (48) found that mycotoxin induce immunosuppression through several mechanisms, as evidenced by the decreased antibody production against antigens, the retarded hypersensitivity response, the decreased systemic bacterial clearance, the depressed lymphocyte proliferation, the suppressed macrophage phagocyte ability, the altered CD4+/CD8+ ratio, and also the decreased immune organ weights. Many studies have indicated that mycotoxins especially aflatoxin B1 interact with biomolecules namely DNA; in turn, altering their actions (40). Mycotoxins always inhibit protein synthesis; consequently, they adversely influence immune cell proliferation (49). In addition, mycotoxins are cytotoxic especially lymphocytes due to their impacts on membranes (50). Immune cells have the high level of polyunsaturated fatty acids on their membrane and receptors; thus, free radicals-induced by mycotoxins impose these cells to damage (50). On the other hand, mycotoxins negatively affect the receptors on the surface of macrophages, neutrophils and lymphocytes; as the results, they induce miscommunication between immune cells resulting in immunosuppression (20).

It has been also demonstrated that the susceptibility of immune system to immunotoxicity resulted from mycotoxins is probably related to the sensitivity of immune cells to proliferation and differentiation that interfere with immune-mediated activities and consequently affect cellular and humoral immunity (51). Mycotoxins not only are cytotoxic to macrophage, but also they suppress humoral immunity (51). In this regards, ochratoxin A is considered to suppress natural killer cell activity via inhibition of interferon production (52). Gliotoxin is known to inhibit the lymphocyte stimulation, cytotoxic T cell activation and gamma interferon production (53). Deoxynivalenol exposure causes the inhibition in protein biosynthesis and consequently the alteration in pro-inflammatory cytokine

production (54). Deoxynivalenol intoxication predisposed the animals to infectious diseases (54). Moreover, deoxynivalenol challenge negatively affects the production of TNF- $\alpha$  from the macrophages (55). Chronic exposure to 10 mg deoxynivalenol/ kg feed suppressed the plasma TNF- $\alpha$  level responsible for inflammation (55). The levels of mRNA of interleukins 1 $\beta$ , 6 and 12 were increased after oral challenge with 5 to 25 mg of deoxynivalenol/ kg body weight (56).

### Conclusion

Taken together, mycotoxins are widespread and their controls are approximately impossible due to their natures. Many studies have indicated that mycotoxins have several adverse effects (including immunotoxicity, hepatotoxicity, nephrotoxicity and also genotoxicity) on animal and human health. Amongst mycotoxins toxicities, immunotoxicity is more dangerous than other their effects.

### Author's contribution

EJ is the single author of the manuscript.

### Conflicts of interest

The author declared no competing interests.

### Ethical considerations

Ethical issues (including plagiarism, data fabrication, double publication) have been completely observed by the author.

### Funding/Support

None.

### References

- Schatzmayr G, Zehner F, Taubel M, Schatzmayr D, Klimitsch A, Loibner AP, et al. Microbiologicals for deactivating mycotoxins. *Mol Nutr Food Res*. 2006;50:543-551.
- CAST. Mycotoxins: Risks in Plant, Animal and Human Systems. Report No. 139. Ames, Iowa, USA: Council for Agricultural Science and Technology; 2003.
- Pitt JJ, Hocking AD. *Fungi and Food Spoilage*. 2nd ed. London: Blackie; 1997.
- Miller JD, Trenholm HL, eds. *Mycotoxins in Grain*. Eagan: St Paul MN; 1996.
- Marasas WF, Wehner FC, Van Rensburg SJ, van Schalkwyk DJ. Mycoflora of corn produced in human esophageal cancer areas in Transkei, southern Africa. *Phytopathology*. 1981;71:792-796.
- Azarakhsh Y, Sabokbar A, Bayat M. The frequency of the most potentially toxigenic fungi in broiler feed in Kermanshah province, west of Iran. *Am-Eur J Toxicol Sci*. 2011;3:11-16.
- FAO. Safety evaluation of certain mycotoxins in food. Prepared by the fifty-sixth meeting of the Joint FAO/WHO Expert Committee on Food Additives (JECFA). FAO Food and Nutrition Paper No. 74. Rome, Italy, 2001.
- WHO. Hazardous Chemicals in Humans and Environmental Health: International Programme on Chemical safety, Geneva, Switzerland. [http://whqlibdoc.who.int/hq/2000/WHO\\_PCS\\_00.1.pdf](http://whqlibdoc.who.int/hq/2000/WHO_PCS_00.1.pdf).
- Whitlow LW, Hagler WM. Mycotoxins in feeds. *Feedstuffs*. 2005;77:69-79.
- Lye MS, Ghazali AA, Mohan J, Alwin N, Mair RC. An outbreak of acute hepatic encephalopathy due to severe aflatoxicosis in Malaysia. *Am J Trop Med Hyg*. 1995;53:68-72.
- Dersjant-Li Y, Verstegen MW, Gerrits WJJ. The impact of low concentrations of aflatoxin, deoxynivalenol or fumonisins in diets on growing pigs and poultry. *Nutr Res Rev*. 2003;16:223-39.
- Bondy GS, Pestka JJ. Immunomodulation by fungal toxins. *Journal of Toxicology and Environmental Health. Part B, Critical Reviews* 2000;3:109-143.
- Henry SH, Whitaker T, Rabbani I. Aflatoxin M1: Joint

- ExpeCommittee on Food Additives (JECFA). Hamilton, Ontario Canada; 2001.
14. Peraica M, Radic B, Lucic A, Pavlovic M. Toxic effects of mycotoxins in human health. *Bull World Health Organ*. 1999; 77:754-766.
  15. Hagler WM Jr, Towers NR, Mirocha CJ, Eppley RM, Bryden WL. Zearalenone: mycotoxin or mycoestrogen? In: Summerell BA, Leslie JF, Backhouse D, Bryden WL, Burgess LW, eds. *Fusarium: Paul E. Nelson Memorial Symposium*. Paul, Minnesota: APS Press; 2001:321-31.
  16. Miller JD, ApSimon JW, Blackwell BA, Greenhalgh R, Taylor A. Deoxynivalenol: a 25 year perspective on a trichothecene of agricultural importance. In: Summerell BA, Leslie JF, Backhouse D, Bryden WL, Burgess LW, eds. *Fusarium: Paul E. Nelson Memorial Symposium*. Paul, Minnesota: APS Press; 2001:310-20.
  17. Sengstag C. The molecular mechanism of aflatoxin B1-induced liver cancer: is mitotic recombination involved. *Mol Carcinog*. 1997;19:147-52.
  18. Henry SH, Bosch FX, Troxell TC, Bolger PM. Reducing liver cancer – global control of aflatoxin. *Science*. 1999;286:2453-4.
  19. Schneider DJ, Miles CO, Garthwaite I, Van Halderen A, Wessels JC, Lategan HJ. First report of field outbreaks of ergot alkaloid toxicity in South Africa. *Onderstepoort J Vet Res*. 1996; 63:97-108.
  20. Surai PF, Mezes M. Mycotoxins and immunity: theoretical consideration and practical applications. *Praxis Veterinaria*. 2005;53:71-88.
  21. Frobish RA, Bradley BD, Wagner DD, Long-Bradley PE, Hairston H. Aflatoxin residues in milk of dairy cows after ingestion of naturally contaminated grain. *Food Protect*. 1986;49:781-785.
  22. Luo XY. Outbreaks of moldy cereals poisoning in China. In: *Issues in Food Safety*. Washington DC: Toxicology Forum Inc; 1988:56-63.
  23. Bhat RV, Beedu SR, Ramakrishna Y, Munski KL. Outbreak of trichothecene mycotoxicosis associated with consumption of mould-damaged wheat production in Kashmir Valley. *Lancet*. 1989;1:35-37.
  24. Robens JF, Richard JL. Aflatoxins in animal and human health. *Rev Environ Contam Toxicol*. 1992;127:69-94.
  25. Fink-Gremmels J. Mycotoxins: their implications for human and animal health. *Vet Q*. 1999;21:115.
  26. Surai PF. *Selenium in Nutrition and Health*. Nottingham, UK: Nottingham University Press; 2005.
  27. Shaker E, Mahmoud H, Mnaa S. Silymarin, the antioxidant component and Silybummarianum extracts prevent liver damage. *Food Chem Toxicol*. 2010;48:803-6.
  28. Dalezios JI, Hsieh DP, Wogan GN. Excretion and metabolism of orally administered aflatoxin b1 by rhesus monkeys. *Food Cosmet Toxicol*. 1973;11:605-16.
  29. Eaton DL, Groopman JD. *The Toxicology of Aflatoxins: Human Health, Veterinary, and Agricultural Significance*. San Diego, CA: Academic Press, INC; 1994.
  30. Liu Y, Wu F. Global burden of aflatoxin-induced hepatocellular carcinoma: a risk assessment. *Environ Health Perspect*. 2010;118:818-24.
  31. Ortatalli M, Oguz H, Hatipoglu F, Karaman M. Evaluation of pathological changes in broilers during chronic aflatoxin (50 and 100 ppb) and clinoptilolite exposure. *Res Vet Sci*. 2005;78:61-8.
  32. Javed T, Bennett GA, Richard JL, Dombrink-Kurtzman MA, Côté LM, Buck WB. Mortality in broiler chicks on feed amended with *Fusarium proliferatum* culture material or with purified fumonisin B1 and moniliformin. *Mycopathologia*. 1993;123:171-184.
  33. Bakeer AM, Frid AS, GadElKarim ME. The Hepatotoxic and Nephrotoxic Effects of Mycotoxin in Broiler Chickens. *Benha Veterinary Medical Journal* 2013;25:29-45.
  34. Krishnamoorthy P, Vairamuthu S, Balachandran C, Muralimanohar B. Pathology of chlorpyrifos and T-2 toxin on broiler chicken. *Veterinarski Arhiv*. 2007;77:47-57.
  35. Radovanovic Z, Jankovic S, Jevremovic I. Incidence of tumors of urinary organs in a focus of Balkan endemic nephropathy. *Kidney Int*. 1991;34:S75-6.
  36. Abid S, Hassan W, Achour A, Skhiri H, Maaroufi K, Ellouz F, et al. Ochratoxin A and human chronic nephropathy in Tunisia: is the situation endemic? *Hum Exp Toxicol*. 2003;22:77-84.
  37. Stojković R, Hult K, Gamulin S, Plestina R. High affinity binding of ochratoxin A to plasma constituents. *Biochem Int*. 1984;9:33-8.
  38. Ali A, Abdu S. Antioxidant protection against pathological mycotoxins alterations on proximal tubules in rat kidney. *Functional Foods in Health and Disease*. 2011;4:118-34.
  39. Bayman P, Baker J. Ochratoxins: a global perspective. *Mycopathologia*. 2006;162:215-23.
  40. Riley RT. Mechanistic interactions of mycotoxins: Theoretical considerations. In: Sinha KK, Bhatnagar D, eds. *Mycotoxins in Agriculture and Food Safety*. New York: Marcel Dekker, Inc; 1998:227-53.
  41. Smerak P, Barta I, Polivkova Z, Bartova J, Sedmikova M. Mutagenic effects of selected trichothecene mycotoxins and their combinations with aflatoxin B1. *Czech J Food Sci*. 2001;19:90-6.
  42. Sehata S, Kiyosawa N, Sakuma K, Ito K, Yamoto T, Teranishi M, et al. Gene expression profiles in pregnant rats treated with T-2 toxin. *Exp Toxicol Pathol*. 2004;55:357-66.
  43. Islam Z, Gray JS, Pestka JJ. p38 Mitogenactivated protein kinase mediates IL-8 induction by the ribotoxin deoxynivalenol in human monocytes. *Toxicol Appl Pharmacol*. 2006;213:235-44.
  44. Luhe A, Hildebrand H, Bach U, Dingermann T, Ahr HJ. A new approach to studying ochratoxin A (OTA) - induced nephrotoxicity: expression profiling in vivo and in vitro employing cDNA microarrays. *Toxicol Sci*. 2003;73:315-28.
  45. Sharma RP. Immunotoxicity of mycotoxins. *Journal of Dairy Science*. 1993;76:892-897.
  46. Pestka JJ. Mechanisms of deoxynivalenol-induced gene expression and apoptosis. *Food Addit Contam Part A Chem Anal Control Expo Risk Assess*. 2008; 25:1128-40.
  47. Turner PC, Moore SE, Hall AJ, Prentice AM, Wild CP. Modification of immune function through exposure to dietary aflatoxin in Gambian children. *Environ Health Persp*. 2003;111:217-220.
  48. Girish CK, Smith TK. Impact of feed-borne mycotoxins on avian cell-mediated and humoral immune responses. *World Mycotoxin Journal*. 2008;1:105-121.
  49. Gelderblom WC, Snyman SD, Abel S. Hepatotoxicity and carcinogenicity of the fumonisins in rats a review regarding mechanistic implications for establishing risk in humans. In: Jackson LS, DeVries JW, Bullerman LB, eds. *Fumonisin in Food*. New York: Plenum; 1996:251-64.
  50. Surai PF. *Natural Antioxidants in Avian Nutrition and Reproduction*. Nottingham, UK: Nottingham University Press; 2002.
  51. Corrier DE. Mycotoxicosis: mechanisms of immunosuppression. *Vet Immunol Immunopathol*. 1991; 30:73-87.
  52. Luster MI, Germolec DR, Burleson GR, Jameson CW, Ackermann MF, Lamm KR, et al. Selective immunosuppression in mice of natural killer cell activity by ochratoxin A. *Cancer Res*. 1987;47:2259-2263.
  53. Wichmann G, Herbarth O, Lehmann I. The mycotoxins citrinin, gliotoxin, and patulin affect interferon-gamma rather than interleukin-4 production in human blood cells. *Environ Toxicol*. 2002;17:211-8.
  54. Oswald IP, Marin DE, Bouhet S, Pinton P, Taranu I, Accensi F. Immunotoxicological risk of mycotoxins for domestic animals. *Food Add Contam*. 2005;22:354-360.
  55. Awad WA, Ghareeb K, Chimidtsen S, Strasser A, Hess M, Böhm J. Chronic effects of deoxynivalenol on plasma cytokines and vaccine response of broiler chickens. *Proceedings of the 34th Mycotoxin-Workshops der Ges; Für Mykotoxin Forschung e.V., Braunschweig, Germany; 14-16 May 2012; p. 29*.
  56. Zhou HR, Yan D, Pestka JJ. Differential cytokine mRNA expression in mice after oral exposure to the trichothecene vomitoxin (Deoxynivalenol): dose response and time course. *Toxicol Appl Pharmacol*. 1997;144:294-305.