Research article

Fungal Contamination and Characterization of *Aspergillus flavus* on Poultry Feeds and their Ingredients in North Sumatera

Kiki Nurtjahja*, Yurnaliza, Aditiya Bungsu, Juwita Esterina Silalahi, Jesica Simanullang and Betriana Novi Lenta Gultom

Department of Biology, Faculty of Mathematics and Natural Sciences, Universitas Sumatera Utara, Jln. Bioteknologi no. 1, Medan, North Sumatera, Indonesia

Received: 8 December 2021, Revised: 25 April 2022, Accepted: 17 May 2022

DOI: 10.55003/cast.2022.01.23.004

Abstract

Keywords

Aspergillus flavus; aflatoxin; fungal population; poultry feeds; non-toxigenic Poultry feeds mainly consist of cereal grains and crops that are vulnerable to fungal infection. Improper handling of the feeds increases spoilage and contamination by aflatoxigenic fungi. The aim of this study was to determine fungal contamination including characterization of toxigenic and non-toxigenic Aspergillus flavus strains in poultry feed and its ingredients. We collected 200 composite samples of compound poultry feeds and their ingredients sold by retailers at traditional markets. The fungal population was enumerated using a dilution followed by the pour plate in dichloran 18% glycerol agar medium. All isolated A. flavus were identified by culture technique and molecular approach. Aflatoxin production was determined in 10% coconut agar medium with thin layer chromatography. Regulatory (aflR) and structural (nor-1, ver-1, omt-1) genes of A. flavus strains were isolated using four sets of primers (afIR, nor-1, ver-1, omt-1). We found that all feeds were infected by fungi. Aspergillus chevalieri was the most found in all feeds, particularl on chick starter. Of the 200 samples of compound and poultry feed ingredients, 57 isolates of A. flavus were examined and 16 of them (28%) were toxigenic, each strain producing aflatoxin B₁ from <3.01 to 35.50 ppb. Among feeds, layer finisher, pellet starter and grain corn were the most infected by toxigenic A. flavus, respectively. The contamination occurred on feeds that contained corn as the main compound. Routine analysis of compound poultry feeds and their ingredients for aflatoxigenic fungi particularly A. flavus is compulsory.

E-mail: kiki2@usu.ac.id

^{*}Corresponding author: Tel.: (+062) 1533178071 Fax 0618214290

1. Introduction

Mycotoxins are secondary metabolites produced by certain species of fungi particularly Aspergillus, Fusarium, Penicillium, etc. They can contaminate our food chain by indirect contamination from the growth of toxigenic fungi [1, 2]. Among mycotoxins, aflatoxins are highly toxic, mutagenic, and carcinogenic produced by Aspergillus flavus, A. nomius and A. parasiticus which are especially abundant in warm and humid areas. Recently, the problem of food and animal feed contamination with mycotoxins, and in particular aflatoxins, has received attention worldwide [3-5]. Even at low concentrations, aflatoxins are hazardous to humans and livestock [5]. The occurrence of fungal infection on poultry feeds in tropical countries is a primary cause of deterioration. Feeds from cereal grains such as corn and rice bran, as well as crops (soybean, peanut) and the by-products are susceptible to infection by molds [6-8]. Some fungal genera such as Fusarium, Aspergillus, Rhizopus, Penicillium, and Mucor are commonly found contaminating poultry feeds [5-7], with Aspergillus flavus the most predominant species [5, 7]. Infection by molds also spoils and reduces the nutritional content. Among animals, poultry is the most sensitive to the toxic effects of aflatoxins [8]. Exposure to aflatoxins increase maturity in poultry [9]. Several studies have noted the presence of fungal mycotoxins, particularly aflatoxin residues, in the eggs and muscles of chickens that had consumed contaminated feeds, and these were associated with losses in productivity [10-12]. The presence of A. flavus in feeds occurs when toxigenic and non-toxigenic strains colonize the feed ingredients during harvesting and then grow during storage [13]. The potential for A. flavus to produce aflatoxins is determined by genetic analysis and testing for the presence of the enzymes involved in aflatoxin biosynthesis [14]. Culture and molecular techniques have been widely applied to identify aflatoxigenic and non aflatoxigenic A. flavus strains [15, 16].

Here, we aimed to enumerate fungal contamination and to characterize toxigenic *A. flavus* strains isolated from compound poultry feeds and the ingredients sold by retailers at traditional markets in North Sumatera, Indonesia.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1 Sample collection

A total of 200 samples of compound poultry feeds (chick starter, broiler finisher, layer finisher, pellet starter) and ingredients (paddy bran, grain paddy, milled corn and corn grain) were purchased (250 g per sample) from five retailers at five traditional markets in North Sumatera, Indonesia during the dry seasons (months of March and September 2018). The size of laboratory was 1250 g for each sample. Each sample then was packed under vacuum in a polyethylene bag and stored (-4°C) in a refrigerator for further use.

2.2 Moisture content determination

The moisture content (% wet basis) was determined using standard oven dry method. As much as 40 g of each poultry feed and the ingredients was dried in an oven at 130°C for 2 h with three replicates per sample.

2.3 Fungal population and identification

The fungal population was determined by dilution followed by the pour plate method in dichloran 18% glycerol agar (DG18 medium) (Neogen, Lansing, MI 48912, USA). To the twenty-five grams

of each sample in a 1000 mL erlenmeyer, sterilized distilled water was added until the volume was up to 250 mL. The suspension was homogenized using a shaker (Gallenkamp, orbital shaker SG92, England) at 100 rpm for 2 min. Four dilutions were made (10⁻¹, 10⁻², 10⁻³ and 10⁻⁴) and 1 mL of each dilution was transfered onto a Petri dish (9 cm diameter) and pour plated in DG18 medium. Each sample was cultured in triplicate. The plates were incubated at ambient temperature (29±2°C) for 6 days. All colonies were counted as colony forming unit per gram (CFU g⁻¹) of the sample. Every separate colony was isolated and cultured on Czapex yeast extract agar (CYA) and CYA+20% sucrose (CYA20S) and identified. Macroscopic and microscopic identification of each fungal species were conducted according to Pitt and Hocking [17].

2.4 Aspergillus flavus isolation and toxigenicity determination by culture technique

All separate colonies of *A. flavus* were further isolated on potato dextrose agar (PDA, Oxoid Ltd, Basingstoke, Hants, UK) in a Petri dish (9 cm diameter) and incubated for 7 days at ambient temperature (29±2°C). The toxigenicity of each strain was determined using 10% coconut agar medium (CAM) (36 g L⁻¹ bacto agar and 900 mL distilled water, 100 mL L⁻¹ coconut cream extracted from freshly shredded coconut endosperm) and adjusted to pH 7 using 2 N NaOH [18]. The medium was sterilized for 20 min at 120°C. Each isolate of *A. flavus* was then inoculated and incubated for 5 days at 29±2°C. The presence of yellow pigment on the reverse side of the medium indicates an aflatoxin-producing strain [19]. Each colony was also observed under long wave (365 nm) UV light. The blue fluorescence colonies indicate a positive result. Medium with no colonies and non-toxigenic strains were used as a control. Plates containing aflatoxin-producing strain were further analyzed by thin layer chromatography (TLC).

2.5 Determination of aflatoxin B₁ production by TLC

A colony of *A. flavus* obtained from a CAM plate that showed a yellow pigment on the reverse side of the medium was mixed with 50 mL of ethanol in a waring blender, and the suspension was extracted for 30 min and filtered using Whatman # 1 filter paper. The filtrate was then placed into a 250 mL separating funnel and extracted two times with 50 mL of n-hexane and rinsed with 50 mL of chloroform. The extract was then dehydrated in a vial bottle and filtered using anhydrous sodium sulfate (Na₂SO₄). Ten mL of the residue (using microsyringe) was spotted onto a TLC plate (MERCK # 1.05554, Silica gel 60, F254) and run for 20 min. The developing solvent used was chloroform: acetone (9:1), the commercial aflatoxin standards used was from Sigma-Aldrich). The plate then was observed under UV light (365 nm).

2.6 Sclerotial production

For the sclerotial production, plates (9 cm diameter) containing PDA agar medium were inoculated with each strain of *A. flavus*. The plates were incubated in dark at 29°C for 15 days. Sclerotia were harvested according to Novas and Cabral [20]. Sclerotia were obtained by scraping the surface of the medium and running water containing Tween 20 (100 μ L L⁻¹) over Whatman filter paper No. 2. Sclerotia obtained were then rinsed with tap water and air dried. *Aspergillus flavus* strains producing numerous sclerotia (average diameter < 400 μ m) were assigned to the S (small) type. Those with an average diameter > 400 μ m were assigned to the L (large) type.

2.7 Isolation of the A. flavus genome

Mycelia for genome extraction were obtained by culturing each strain of A. flavus on a PDA plate (Difco Laboratories, Spark, MD, USA) and incubated for 2 days at 29°C. Approximately 40 mg of fungal mycelia in a clean tube containing 600 µL nuclei lysis solution was ground using a micropestle. DNA was extracted using the Mini Kit (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) according to the manufacturer's procedures. The homogenized mycelia were incubated at 65°C for 15 min and cooled at room temperature (29-30°C) for 5 min. About 200 µL of protein precipitation solution was added, vortexed for 5 s, and centrifuged at 13000×g for 3 min. The supernatant was placed in a clean tube containing 600 µL isopropanol. The mixture was then centrifuged at 13000×g for 2 min. The supernatant was decanted and mixed with 600 μL of 70% ethanol and centrifuged at 13000×g for 2 min. The ethanol was aspirated. The air-dried pellet containing DNA was added with 50 µL DNA rehydration solution and vortexed for 5 s. As much as 0.5 µL RNase solution was added and incubated at 37°C for 15 min. The DNA was rehydrated at 65°C for 1 h or overnight at 4°C. The DNA concentration was determined using nanophotometer (IMPLEN, Munich, Germany, serial no. 6042). Subsequently, DNA was examined by agarose gel (1%) electrophoresis (SCIE-PLAS, Ltd, Cambridge, England). The gel was stained with 0.1 mg⁻¹ ethidium bromide. Electrophoresis was visualized using Gel Doc (Uvitec, Cambridge, Serial no. 13 200263) under UV light (303 nm).

2.8 Amplification of A. flavus genes to determine aflatoxin biosynthesis

Quadruplex-PCR was performed according to Criseo et al. [21]. The GeneAmp PCR Labcycler Gradient System (Sensoquest, Germany, Serial no. 1123280105) was used to amplify structural (nor-1, ver-1, omt-1) and regulatory (aflR) genes with fragments sizes of 400, 895, 1232, 1032 bp, respectively. The specific primer sets (Integrated DNA Technologies, Singapore) used were: nor-1-F (5'-ACCGCTACGCCGGCACTCTCGGCAC-3'), nor-1-R (5'-GTTGGCCGCCAGCTTCGACACTC CG-3', ver-1-F (5'-TGTCGGATAATCACCGTTTAGATGGC-3', ver-1-R (5'-CGAAAAGCGCCACC ATCCACCCAATG-3', omt-1-F (5'-GGCCCG GTTCCTTGGCTCCTAAGC-3', omt-1-R (5'-CGCC CCAGTGAGACCCTTCCT CG-3', aflR-F (5'-TATCTCCCCCGGGCATCTCCCGG-3', and aflR-R (5'-CCGTCAGACAGCCACTGGACACGG-3'). The amplification mixture consisted of 12.5 µL PCR Mix, 2.5 μL each of 10 μm F and R each primer, 2.5 μL nuclease free water, and 5 μL DNA template, in a final reaction volume of 25 µL. The PCR cycling parameters were: initial denaturation at 94°C for 10 min followed by 35 cycles of denaturation at 94°C for 1 min, annealing at 65°C for 2 min, extension at 72°C for 2 min, and a final extension at 72°C for 7 min. A 10 µL aliquot of PCR products were subjected to electrophoresis (SCIE-PLAS, Ltd, Cambridge, England) on 1.2% agarose gel stained with ethidium bromide (0.1 mg⁻¹) and photographed under UV light (303 nm) (Uvitec, Cambridge, Serial no. 13 200263) adjacent to a 100 bp ladder.

2.9 Statistical analysis

The experiment was conducted using a factorial completely randomized design. The observed data were analyzed using analysis of variance (ANOVA) for statistically significant differences, followed by Duncan's multiple range test at the 5% probability level. Statistical analysis SPSS software version 22 (IBM Inc. New York, USA) was used.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Feeds moisture content and fungal population

The compound feeds and the ingredients sold by retailers in traditional markets are typically packaged in 50 kg polypropylene bags and stored in the open air. The moisture content of the feeds was presented in Table 1. It indicated that the moisture content of mashed feeds such as chick starter had the highest moisture content (12.81%) followed by broiler finisher (11.37%) and milled corn (11.02%). While pelleted feed, i.e. pellet starter had the lowest moisture content (7.5%). According to BSN [22], the moisture contents of poultry feeds for layer finisher and broiler were 13 and 14%, respectively. The moisture content of the feeds is related to fungal population (Table 2). Based on feed composition, it indicates that compound feeds (chick starter, broiler finisher, layer finisher, pellet starter) (Figure 1a) had more fungal populations than that of their ingredients (Figure 1b). Our results were in agreement with the findings of Ghaemmaghami et al. [23], who reported that mashed feeds had more fungal infection than pelleted feeds. Previous studies by Boroojeni et al. [24] and Ghaemmaghami et al. [25] reported that the compacted structure of pellet feeds that resulted from pressing and heating during processing reduced microbial contamination. Among the fungi, Aspergillus was the most common and found on all feeds. Recent studies by Monson [9] and Ochieng et al. [12] showed that Aspergillus and other mycotoxigenic fungi were the most commonly found on poultry feeds. Mokubedi et al. [26] studied molds and mycotoxins in poultry in South Africa. They reported that Aspergillus and Fusarium were the most frequent mycotoxin producers and were found in all samples. The results of our study further agreed with the reports of Ibrahim et al. [27], who studied the occurrence of mycotoxigenic fungi in poultry feeds at live-bird markets in Nigeria. They found that 78% of 300 feeds samples were infected by Aspergillus. A previous study by Nurtjahja et al. [28] showed that storage fungi, particularly Aspergillus and Penicillium, are able to grow at low moisture content. The presence of fungal populations at low moisture content points to the concerning potential for spoilage and mycotoxins contamination of feeds and their ingredients.

Table 1. Moisture content (percentage wet basis) of poultry feeds and their ingredients sold by retailers at traditional markets

Poultry feeds	Traditi	Average				
and their ingredients	TM1	TM2	TM3	TM4	TM5	MC*
Chick starter	12.95	12.73	12.73	12.78	12.85	12.80 ^a
Broiler finisher	11.81	11.25	11.0	11.48	11.32	11.37^{ab}
Layer finisher	10.05	9.32	9.00	9.30	9.25	9.38^{bc}
Pellet starter	8.35	8,15	6.21	7.50	7.35	7.51 ^d
Paddy bran	9.27	8.50	7.80	8.75	8.80	8.62°
Grain paddy	9.95	9.25	8.85	9.35	9.35	9.35^{bc}
Grain corn	11.50	11.25	10.22	11.50	10.55	11.00^{ab}
Milled corn	11.35	11.25	10.65	11.00	11.00	11.05 ^{ab}

^{*}Numbers followed by same letters are not significantly different (P<0.05) according to Duncan's multiple range test (DMRT)

3.2 Fungal population

A total of 13 different species of field and storage fungi were isolated and identified (Table 2). The highest number of the fungal isolates in compound feeds were found in chick starter (8 species), followed by layer (7 species) and broiler (5 species). Among feed ingredients, grain corn was the most infected by mold (5 species) (Table 2). A recent study by Shehu *et al.* [29] showed that stored corn was susceptible to contamination by fungi. *Aspergillus chevalieri* was the most frequent population found on chick starter (log 5.49 CFU g⁻¹) and milled corn (log 5.27 CFU g⁻¹), and *A. flavus*, *A. chevalieri*, *A. fumigatus*, and *R. stolonifer* were found in all feeds.

Among strorage fungi, *A. chevalieri* (formerly *Eurotium chevalieri*) had the highest population, particularly in chick starter (log 5.49 CFU g⁻¹) and milled corn (log 5.27⁴ CFU g⁻¹). Our results were in agreement with the findings of Greco *et al.* [30], who studied mycotoxigenic fungi on commercial poultry feeds for food-producing animals, and found that 52.2% of the samples were infected by *Eurotium*, a storage fungi. *Aspergillus chevalieri* is capable of rapid growth above about 0.77 water activity (a_w) and slow growth at 0.75 a_w [31]. High moisture content both chick starter and milled corn may promote the growth of the fungus.

3.3 Toxigenicity A. flavus strains

A total of fifty seven strains of A. flavus were isolated from all feeds. All strains are biseriate at conidial heads and produce large (L) sclerotia (>400 µm in diameter). Sixteen of the A. flavus strains were toxigenic (aflatoxin producer) (Table 3). Based on the culture technique in 10% coconut agar medium (CAM), toxigenic A. flavus were indicated by the presence of yellow pigment on the reverse side of the medium and showed blue fluorescence under UV light (365 nm) around the colonies. As shown in Table 3, about 28% (16 of 57) of compound feeds and the ingredients were infected by toxigenic A. flavus. The most infection occurred on paddy grain (18 strains) followed by grain corn (17 strains). The most infection by toxigenic A. flavus occurred on layer finisher (5 strains) followed by grain corn (4 strains).

Based on aflatoxin B_1 (AFB₁) analysis, it showed that each toxigenic A. flavus produced aflatoxin B_1 (AFB₁) at different levels (Table 4). Strain Afll₄ isolated from layer finisher (35.50 ppb) and Afl_{c3} from grain corn (35.50 ppb) were the highest aflatoxin producers. Quadruplex PCR analysis showed similar results to qualitative toxigenicity determination using 10% CAM medium (Figure 2 and Table 4). Compound feeds, particularly layer finisher, were the most infected by toxigenic A. flavus which was followed by grain corn and pellet starter.

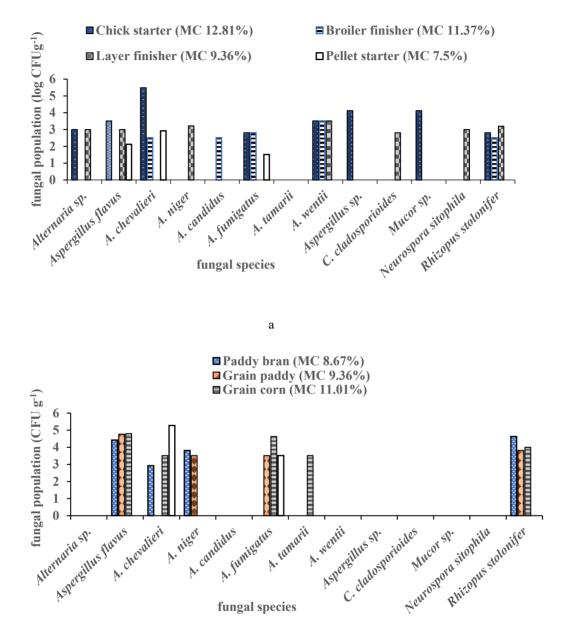
All A. flavus isolated were L (large) tipe sclerotia with > 400 μ m in diameter. The present study also agrees with Okoth et al. [32] who observed sclerotial formation and aflatoxins production of A. flavus isolated from corn kernels. They conclued that L type A. flavus produces low aflatoxin level or non-toxigen, whereas S (small) types are toxigenic and produce high aflatoxin levels. The results related to A. flavus infection and high aflatoxin production in grain corn and layer finisher obtained in this study indicate that corn as main component of the feed promotes AFB₁ production. The results of this study were in line with Liu et al. [33], Nakavuma et al. [34] and Ghaemmaghami et al. [23] who reported that grains and in particular corn contain nutrients that promote mycelial growth of A. flavus and AFB₁ production.

Table 2. The average fungal population (CFU g⁻¹) isolated from compound commercial poultry feeds (chick starter, broiler finisher, layer finisher, pellet starter) and their ingredients (paddy bran, grain paddy, grain and milled corn) collected from retailers at traditional markets

Fungal genera	Fungal population (log CFU g ⁻¹)								
	Type of commercial commercial compound feeds					Feed ingedients			
	Chick starter (n=25)	Broiler finisher (n=25)	Layer finisher (n=25)	Pellet starter (n=25)	Paddy bran (n=25)	Grain paddy (n=25)	Grain corn (n=25)	Milled corn (n=25)	
Alternaria sp.	3.0°	0^{d}	3.0°	0^{d}	0^{d}	0^{d}	0^{d}	0^{d}	
Aspergillus flavus	3.51bc	0^{d}	3.0°	4.12 ^b	4.42^{b}	4.77^{ab}	4.80^{a}	0^{d}	
A. chevalieri	5.49 ^a	2.31^{cd}	0^{d}	2.92°	3.81^{bc}	0^{d}	3.5 ^{bc}	5.27 ^a	
A. niger	0^{d}	0^{d}	3.22°	0^{d}	3.81^{bc}	3.51 ^{bc}	$0^{\rm d}$	0^{d}	
A. candidus	0^{d}	2.51 ^{cd}	0^{d}	0^{d}	0^{d}	0^{d}	0^{d}	0^{d}	
A. fumigatus.	2.81°	2.81°	0^{d}	1.51 ^{cd}	0^{d}	4.12 ^b	4.63^{ab}	3.51 ^{bc}	
A tamarii	0^{d}	0^{d}	0^{d}	0^{d}	0^{d}	0^{d}	3.51 ^{bc}	0^{d}	
A. wentii	3.51bc	3.51bc	3.51 ^{bc}	0^{d}	0^{d}	0^{d}	0^{d}	0^{d}	
Aspergillus sp.	4.12 ^b	0^{d}	0^{d}	0^{d}	0^{d}	0^{d}	0^{d}	0^{d}	
Cladosporium cladosporioides	$0^{\rm d}$	$0_{\rm q}$	2.81°	$0^{\rm d}$	$0_{\rm q}$	$0^{\rm d}$	0^{d}	$0_{\rm q}$	
Mucor sp.	4.12 ^b	0^{d}	0^{d}	0^{d}	$0^{\rm d}$	0^{d}	0^{d}	0^{d}	
Neurospora sitophila	0^{d}	0^{d}	3.0^{c}	0^{d}	$0^{\rm d}$	0^{d}	0^{d}	0^{d}	
Rhizopus stolonifer	2.81°	2.51 ^{cd}	3.20°	0^{d}	4.63ab	3.81^{bc}	4.0^{b}	0^{d}	

n = number of samples examined; CFU = colony forming unit

Numbers followed by same letters are not significantly different (P < 0.05) according to Duncan's multiple range test (DMRT)



b

fungal species

Figure 1. Fungal population in relation to moisture content a. compound poultry feeds, b. feed ingredients, MC = moisture content

Table 3. Aspergillus flavus strains isolated from compound commercial poultry feed and the ingredients collected from retailers at five traditional markets (TM)

Poultry feed	Toxigenicity of Aspergillus flavus						
ingredients	strains	TM1	TM2	TM3	TM4	TM5	- Total
Chick starter	toxigenic	1	0	0	0	0	1
	non-toxigenic	0	0	0	0	0	0
Broiler finisher	toxigenic	0	0	0	0	0	0
	non-toxigenic	0	0	0	0	0	0
Layer finisher	toxigenic	2	0	2	0	1	5
	non-toxigenic	1	1	2	0	0	4
Pellet starter	toxigenic	0	1	1	0	1	3
	non-toxigenic	0	0	0	0	1	1
Paddy bran	toxigenic	0	0	1	0	0	1
	non-toxigenic	1	3	3	0	0	7
Paddy grain	toxigenic	0	0	2	0	0	2
	non-toxigenic	1	5	3	4	3	16
Grain corn	toxigenic	1	1	1	0	1	4
	non-toxigenic	4	2	3	4	0	13
Milled corn	toxigenic	0	0	0	0	0	0
	non-toxigenic	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total		11	13	18	8	7	57

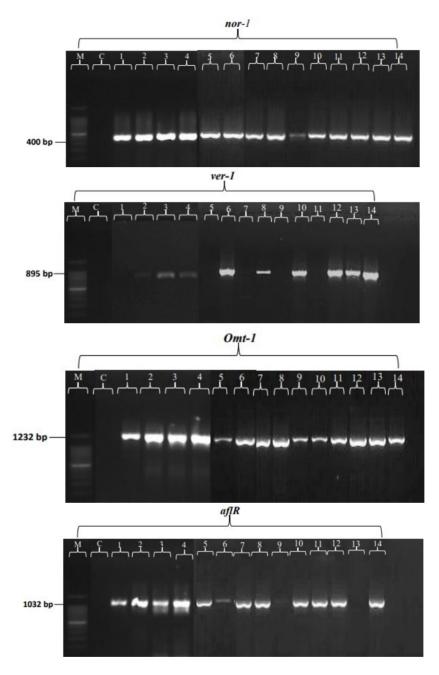


Figure 2. Quadruplex PCR of structural (*nor-1*, *ver-1*, *omt-1*) and regulatory (*aflR*) genes of 14 *Aspergillus flavus* strains isolated from compound feeds and their ingredients. M = 100 bp DNA marker, C = control; Afldoc (line 1); Afll₁ (line 2), Afll₂ (line 3); Afll₃ (line 4); Aflb₁ (line 5); Aflb₂ (line 6); Aflc₁ (line 7); Aflc₂ (line 8); Aflp₁ (line 9); Aflp₂ (line 10); Afll₄ (line 11); Afll₅ (line 12); Aflpel₁ (line 13); Aflpel₂ (line 14). *nor-1* = 400 bp; *ver-1* = 895 bp; *omt-1* = 1232; *aflR* = 1032 bp

Table 4. Representative toxigenicity and non-toxigenicity of *A. flavus* strains isolated from poultry feeds and the ingredients based on the presence of structural and regulatory genes

Aspergillu	Poultry feed	Structural and regulatory genes				Culture technique	AFB ₁ production (ppb) by TLC	
s flavus code		nor-1	ver-1	Omt-1	aflR	in CAM	analysis	
Afldoc	chick starter	+	=	+	+	negative	0.00	
$Afll_1$	layer finisher	+	+	+	+	positive	< 3.01	
$Afll_2$	layer finisher	+	+	+	+	positive	12.90	
$Afll_3$	layer finisher	+	+	+	+	positive	< 3.01	
$Aflb_1$	paddy bran	+	-	+	+	negative	0.00	
$Aflb_2$	paddy bran	+	+	+	+	positive	27.50	
$Aflc_1$	grain corn	+	-	+	+	negative	0.00	
$Aflc_2$	grain corn	+	+	+	+	positive	35.50	
$Aflp_1$	paddy grain	+	-	+	-	negative	0.00	
$Aflp_2$	paddy grain	+	+	+	+	positive	< 3.01	
$Afll_4$	layer finisher	+	+	+	+	positive	35.50	
$Afll_5$	layer finisher	+	+	+	+	positive	< 3.01	
$Aflpel_1$	pellet starter	+	+	+	-	negative	0.00	
$Aflpel_2$	pellet starter	+	+	+	+	positive	30.50	

⁺ = positive for an amplicon; - = negative for an amplicon. Positive and negative in CAM (coconut agar medium) is the toxigenicity of A. flavus as indicated by the presence of yellow pigment in the reverse side of the medium

4. Conclusions

Compound commercial poultry feeds and their ingredients that are sold by retailers at traditional markets can potentially be infected with molds and lead to deterioration and contamination by aflatoxin B_1 . Therefore, steps to prevent fungal growth on feeds and their ingredients mut be taken and routine aflatoxin analysis of the poultry feeds and ingredients must be performed before consumption by poultry.

5. Acknowledgements

The study was funded by Universitas Sumatera Utara, contract TALENTA Research Grant no. 136/UN5.2.3.1/PPM/KP-TALENTA USU/2018 and SEAMEO BIOTROP Bogor-West Jawa for aflatoxins analysis.

References

[1] Alshanaq, A. and Yu, J.-H., 2017. Occurrence, toxicity and analysis of major mycotoxins in food. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 14(6), DOI: 10.3390/ijerph14060632.

- [2] Jayashree, M. and Wesely, E.G., 2019. Effect of moisture content on aflatoxin production in field infected and farmer saved sorghum (FSS) grains. *The International Journal of Analytical and Experimental Modal Analysis*, 11(11), 2505-2513.
- [3] Brown, L.R., 2018. *Aflatoxins in Food and Feed, Impact, Risks, and Management Strategies, GCAN Policy Note 9.* Washington, D.C.: International Food Policy Research Institute.
- [4] Thuita, F.N., Tuitoek, J.K., King'ori, A.M. and Obonyo, M.A., 2019. Prevalence of aflatoxins contamination in commercial broilers feeds in Kenya. [online] Available at: http://www.lrrd.org/lrrd31/1/jtuit31003.html.
- [5] Mahato, D.K., Lee, K.E., Kamle, M., Devi, S., Dewangan, K.N., Kumar, P. and Kang, S.G., 2019. Aflatoxins in food and feed: An overview in prevalence, detection and control strategies. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, 10, DOI: 10.3389/fmicb.2019.02266.
- [6] Okun, D.O., Khamis, F.M., Muluvi, G.M., Ngeranwa, J.J., Ombura, F.O., Yongo, M.O. and Kenya, E.U., 2015. Distribution of indigenous strains of atoxigenic and toxigenic *Aspergillus flavus* and *Aspergillus parasiticus* in maize and peanuts agro-ecological zones of Kenya. *Agriculture and Food Security*, 4(1), 2-10.
- [7] Krnjaja, V., Stojanović, A., Stanković, S., Lucić, M., Bijelić, Z., Mandić, V. and Mićić, N., 2017. Fungal contamination of maize grain samples with a special focus on toxigenic genera. *Biotechnology in Animal Husbandry*, 33(2), 233-241.
- [8] Kehinde, M.T., Oluwafemi, F., Itoandon, E.E., Orji, F.A. and Ajay, O.I., 2014. Fungal profile and aflatoxin contamination in poultry feeds sold in Abeokuta, Ogun State, Nigeria. *Nigerian Food Journal*, 32(1), 73-79.
- [9] Monson, M.S., Coulombe, R.A. and Reed, K.M., 2015. Aflatoxicosis: Lessons of toxicity and responses to aflatoxin B₁ in poultry. *Agriculture*, 5(3), 742-777.
- [10] Herzallah, S.M., 2013. Aflatoxin B₁ residues in eggs and flesh of laying hens fed aflatoxin B₁ contaminated diet. *American Journal Agriculture Biological Science*, 8(2), 156-161.
- [11] Pleadin, J., 2015. Mycotoxins in grains and feed contamination and toxic effect in animals. *Biotechnology in Animal Husbandry*, 31(4), 441-456.
- [12] Ochieng, P.E., Scippo, M.-L., Kemboi, D.C., Croubels, S., Okoth, S., Kang'ethe, E.K., Daupovec, B., Gathumbi, J.K., Lindahl, J.F. and Antonissen, G., 2021. Mycotoxins in poultry feed and feed ingredients from Sub-Saharan Africa and their impacts on the production of broiler and layer chickens: A review. *Toxins*, 13(9), DOI: 10.3390/toxins13090633.
- [13] Hassane, A.M.A., El-Shanawany, A.A., Abo-Dahab, N.F., Abdel-Hadi, A.M., Abdul-Raouf, U.M. and Mwanza, M., 2017. Influence of different moisture contents and temperature on growth and production of aflatoxin B₁ by a toxigenic *Aspergillus flavus* isolate in wheat flour. *Journal of Ecology of Health Environment*, 5(3), 77-83.
- [14] Caceres, I., Khoury, A.A., Khouri, R.E., Lorber, S., Oswald, I.P., Khoury, A.E., Atoui, A., Puel, O. and Bailly, J.-D., 2020. Aflatoxins biosynthesis and genetic regulation: A review. *Toxins*, 12(3), DOI: 10.3390/toxins12030150.
- [15] Rahimi, A., Sasani, E., Rezaie, S., Dallal, M.M.S., Mahmoudi, S., Ahmadi, A., Ghaffari, M., Aala, F. and Khodavaisy, S., 2021. Molecular identification of aflatoxigenic *Aspergillus* species in dried nuts and grains collected from Tehran, Iran. *Journal of Environmental Health Science and Engineering*, 19(2), 1795-1799, DOI: 10.1007/s40201-021-00734-6.
- [16] Nagur, K.S., Sukarno, N. and Listyowati, S., 2014. Identification of *Aspergillus flavus* and detection of its aflatoxin genes isolated from peanut. *Biotropia*, 21(1), 64-75.
- [17] Pitt, J.I and Hocking, A.D., 2009. Fungi and Food Spoilage. 3rd ed. New York: Springer.
- [18] Lin, M.T. and Dianese, J.C., 1976. A coconut-agar medium for rapid detection of aflatoxin production by *Aspergillus* spp. *Phytopathology*, 66, 1466-1469.
- [19] Davis, N.D., Iyer, S.K. and Diener, U.L., 1987. Improved method of screening for aflatoxin with a coconut agar medium. *Applied Environmental Microbiology*, 53(7), 1593-1595.

- [20] Novas, M.V. and Cabral, D., 2002. Association of mycotoxin and sclerotia production with compatibility groups in *Aspergillus flavus* from peanuts in Argentina. *Plant Disease*, 86(3), 215-219.
- [21] Criseo, G., Bagnara, A. and Bisignano, G., 2001. Differentiation of aflatoxin-producing and non-producing strains of *Aspergillus flavus* group. *Letters in Applied Microbiology*, 33, 291-295, DOI: 10.1046/j.1472-765X.2001.00998.x.
- [22] BSN, Badan Standardisasi Nasional Indonesia, 2016. *Pakan Ayam Petelur-Bagian 5: Masa Produksi (Layer)*. Jakarta: Badan Standardisasi Nasional.
- [23] Ghaemmaghami, S.S., Nowroozi, H. and Moghadam, M.T., 2018. Toxigenic fungal contamination for assessment of poultry feeds: mashed vs. pellet. *Iranian Journal of Toxicology*, 12(5), 5-10.
- [24] Boroojeni, F.G., Svihus, B., von Reichenbach, H.G. and Zentek, J., 2016. The effects of hydrothermal processing on feed hygiene, nutrient availability, intestinal microbiota and morphology in poltry-A review. *Animal Feed Science and Technology*, 220, 187-215, DOI: 10.1016/j.anifeedsci.2016.07.010.
- [25] Ghaemmaghami, S.S., Modirsaneii, M., Khosravi, A.R. and Razzaghi-Abyaneh, M., 2016. Study on mycoflora of poultry feed ingredients and finished feed in Iran, *Iranian Journal of Microbiology*, 8(1), 47-54.
- [26] Mokubedi, S.M., Phoku, J.Z., Changwa, R.N., Gbashi, S. and Njobeh, P.B., 2019. Analysis of mycotoxins contamination on poultry feeds manufactured in selected provinces of South Africa using UHPLC-MS/MS. *Toxins*, 11(8), DOI:10.3390/toxins11080452.
- [27] Ibrahim, M.J., Kabir, J., Kwanashie, C.N., Salawudeen, M.T. and Joshua, Z., 2017. Occurrence of mycotoxigenic fungi in poultry feeds at live-bird markets, Zaria, Nigeria. *Sokoto Journal of Veterinary Sciences*, 15, 53-59.
- [28] Nurtjahja, K., Zuhra, C.F., Sembiring, H., Bungsu, A., Simanullang, J., Silalahi, J.E., Gultom, B.N.L. and Sartini, S., 2019. Fungal contamination spices from Indonesia with emphasis on *Aspergillus flavus*. *Czech Journal of Food Sciences*, 37(5), 338-344, DOI: 10.17221/18/2019-CJFS.
- [29] Shehu, K., Salau, I.A. and Salisu, N., 2020. Fungal and mycotoxin contamination of stored maize grains in Kebbi State, North-Western Nigeria. *Journal of Advance Botany and Zoology*, 8(1), DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.4074249.
- [30] Greco, M.V., Franci, M.L., Golba, S.L.R., Pardo, A.G. and Pose, G.M., 2014. Mycotoxins and mycotoxigenic fungi in poultry feeds for food-producing animals. *The Scientific World Journal*, 2014, DOI: 10.1155/2014/968215.
- [31] Nurtjahja, K., Dharmaputra, O.S., Rahayu, W.P. and Syaiful, R., 2017. Fungal population of nutmeg (*Myristica fragrans*) kernels affected by water activity during storage. *Agritech*, 37(3), 288-294.
- [32] Okoth, S.A., Nyongesa, B., Joutsjoki, V., Korhonen, H., Ayugi, V. and Kang'ethe, E.K., 2016. Sclerotial formation and toxin production in large sclerotial *Aspergillus flavus* isolates from Kenya. *Advances in Microbiology*, 6(1), 47-56.
- [33] Liu, J., Sun, L., Zhang, N., Zhang, J., Guo, J., Li, C., Rajput, S.A. and Qi, D., 2016. Effects of nutrients in substrates of different grains on aflatoxin B₁ production by *Aspergillus flavus*. *BioMed Research International*, 2016, DOI: 10.1155/2016/7232858.
- [34] Nakavuma, J.L., Kirabo, A., Bogere, P., Nabulime, M.M., Kaaya, A.N. and Gnonlonfin, B., 2020. Awareness of mycotoxins and occurrence of aflatoxins in poultry feeds and feed ingredients in selected regions of Uganda. *International Journal of Food Contamination*, 7(1), DOI: 10.1186/s40550-020-00079-2.