

TITLE:

Mycotoxin Detection in Urine Samples from Patients with Chronic Kidney Disease of Uncertain Etiology in Sri Lanka

AUTHOR(S):

Desalegn, Biruck; Nanayakkara, Shanika; Harada, Kouji H.; Hitomi, Toshiaki; Chandrajith, Rohana; Karunaratne, Upul; Abeysekera, Tilak; Koizumi, Akio

CITATION:

Desalegn, Biruck ...[et al]. Mycotoxin Detection in Urine Samples from Patients with Chronic Kidney Disease of Uncertain Etiology in Sri Lanka. Bulletin of Environmental Contamination and Toxicology 2011, 87(1): 6-10

ISSUE DATE:

2011-07

URL:

http://hdl.handle.net/2433/143570

RIGHT:

The final publication is available at www.springerlink.com; この論文は出版社版でありません。引用の際には出版社版をご確認ご利用ください。; This is not the published version. Please cite only the published version.





- **Mycotoxin Detection in Urine Samples from Patients with Chronic Kidney** 1
- Disease of Uncertain Etiology in Sri Lanka 2

3

7

Biruck Desalegn¹, Shanika Nanayakkara¹, Kouji H. Harada¹, Toshiaki Hitomi¹,

5

Rohana Chandrajith², Upul Karunaratne³, Tilak Abeysekera³, and Akio Koizumi¹

- for the Chronic Kidney Disease of Uncertain Etiology Consortium⁴ 6
- ¹Department of Health and Environmental Sciences, Kyoto University Graduate 8
- 9 School of Medicine, Yoshida, Kyoto 606-8501, Japan
- ²Department of Geology, Faculty of Science, University of Peradeniya, Sri Lanka 10
- 11 ³Nephrology Unit, Teaching Hospital, Kandy, Sri Lanka
- ⁴A full list of members is provided in the supplementary note. 12
- Correspondence to: Akio Koizumi M.D., Ph.D. 14
- Department of Health and Environmental Sciences, Graduate School of Medicine, 15
- Kyoto University, Yoshida Konoe, Sakyo, Kyoto 606-8501, Japan 16
- Tel: +81-75-753-4456; Fax: +81-75-753-4458 17
- E-mail: Akio.Koizumi@z06.mbox.media.kyoto-u.ac.jp 18

19

13





A '	•	4		4
Λ.	nc	tr	o	∩t
$\boldsymbol{\Lambda}$	bs	ш	а	·ι

22 This was a screening study that aimed to determine the presence of nephrotoxic mycotoxins in urine samples from patients with chronic kidney disease of 23 uncertain etiology (CKDue) in the North Central Province of Sri Lanka. The 24 25 percentage detection of aflatoxins (AFLs), ochratoxins (OTs) and fumonisins in 31 patients were 61.29%, 93.5% and 19.4%, respectively. Geometric means of 26 urinary AFLs and OTs were 30.93 ng/g Cr (creatinine) and 34.62 ng/g Cr in 27 CKDue stage 1–2 patients and 84.12 ng/g Cr and 63.52 ng/g Cr in unaffected 28 relatives of patients. In CKDue stage 3–5 patients, geometric means of urinary 29 AFLs and OTs were 10.40 and 17.08 ng/g Cr, respectively. Non-affected relatives 30 of patients (n=6) had comparable levels of these mycotoxins, but healthy Japanese 31 individuals (n=4) had lower levels than in Sri Lanka. The higher detection rate of 32 33 urinary OTs in Sri Lankans indicates that exposure is common in the region. **Keywords** chronic kidney disease of uncertain etiology, Sri Lanka, urine sample, 34 aflatoxin, ochratoxin, fumonisin 35



38

39

40

41

42

43

44

45

46

47

48

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59



High prevalence of chronic kidney disease of uncertain etiology (CKDue) in the North Central Province of Sri Lanka has been reported. The disease predominantly affects male farming communities. Several hypotheses have been made to explain the causal associations between the high prevalence of the disease in the region and existing environmental factors (Chandrajith et al. 2010; Illeperuma et al. 2009). Mycotoxins, such as aflatoxins (AFLs) (Glahn et al. 1994), ochratoxins (OTs) (Sauvant et al. 2005) and fumonisins (FBs) (Badria et al. 1996) are dietary contaminants that are known to possess nephrotoxicity. Detection of OT associated with the incidence of endemic nephropathy in some regions has been reported (Castegnaro et al. 2005; Domijan et al. 2009). A recent study by Wanigasuriya et al. (2008) has reported that the concentration of OT A in selected food items in the study region was low. Food analysis, in some instances, might not be sufficient to establish a relationship with occurrence of diseases because heterogeneity of toxin distribution over time, and even within a particular food product, casts doubt on the feasibility of sampling plans (Parson et al. 2007). In an attempt to overcome this problem and to validate the actual exposure, we screened urinary excretion levels of AFL, OTs and FBs in patients and their relatives living in a CKD endemic community. **Materials and Methods** Ethical approval for this study was obtained from the Ethical Committee of Kyoto University, Japan and the Ethical Review Committees of the Faculty of Medicine,





University of Peradeniya, Sri Lanka. The urine samples were originally collected
at Medawachchiya and Girandrukotte, Sri Lanka in August 2009 (106 patients and
87 unaffected relatives of CKDue patients) and stored at -30°C in the Kyoto
University Human Specimen Bank (Koizumi et al. 2009). A total of 41 urine
samples, 31 from stage 1-5 CKDue patients, six from unaffected relatives, and
four from healthy Japanese individuals as controls, were randomly selected from
each stratum. Definition of CKD and further classification of the stages were
made according to the Kidney Disease Outcomes Quality Initiative (KDOQI)
guidelines. Patients with a history and current treatment of diabetes mellitus,
severe hypertension, urological disease of known etiology, glomerulonephritis, or
snake bite were excluded. Creatinine concentration in urine sample was measured
by enzyme assay using creatinine amidohydrolase (SRL, Tokyo, Japan).
Urine samples were thawed and centrifuged at 15,000 rpm for 10 min to
remove any cellular debris, and the supernatant was used for the determination of
mycotoxin level. One milliliter of urine was diluted with 3 mL PBS (pH 7.4). The
mixed sample was directly passed through analyte-specific immunoaffinity
columns (R-Biopharm AG, Darmstadt, Germany) at a flow rate of 1–2 drops/s.
The column was washed with 20 mL PBS and air was passed through the column
for 1 min. The bound mycotoxin was eluted with 3 mL methanol and the eluate
was evaporated to dryness using a nitrogen evaporator. The residue was
reconstituted with 100 μL 10% methanol in water, and analyzed for each
mycotoxin with the specific competitive ELISA kits (RIDASCREEN FAST
Mycotoxins; R-Biopharm AG) using a microplate spectrophotometer (infinite





M200 Pro; Tecan, Tokyo, Japan) at 450 nm. ELISA kits for AFL, OTs and FBs 83 84 recognized aflatoxins B1, B2, G1, G2 and M1; ochratoxins A, B and C, and fumonisins B1, B2 and B3, respectively. External standards of different 85 concentrations and all urine samples were run in duplicate. 86 87 Mean recovery (CV) of fortified samples was 79% (11) for AFLs, 105% (13) for OTs and 92% (15) for FBs. Detection limits were 0.005 ng/mL, 0.005 88 ng/mL and 0.035 ng/mL for AFLs, OTs and FBs, respectively. For values below 89 the detection limit, half of the limit of detection value was assigned. Mycotoxin 90 concentrations are presented in ng/mL and ng/g Cr (creatinine). Statistical 91 significance of differences was tested by using non-parametric methods (χ^2 test 92 and Wilcoxon two-sample test; P < 0.05). 93 94 95 **Results and Discussion** Study subjects comprised 20 men and 21 women (Table 1). The mean (range) age 96 regardless of disease stage (31, stage 1–5) was 41.32 ± 15.55 (9–65) years, 97 whereas that of unaffected relatives and Japanese controls was 20.67 (6-34) years 98 and 45.25 (42–53) years, respectively. 99 100 Results of urinary AFL, OT and FB levels are shown in Table 2. The percentage detection of AFLs, OTs and FBs in patients was 61.29%, 93.5% and 101 19.4%, respectively. The detection rate of all mycotoxins in stage 1 disease was 102 the highest. Disease stages were classified as early (stage 1 and 2) and late (stage 103 3–5) for examination of concentration differences during disease progression. 104 Detection rates of AFLs in the early and late stages were 78.57% and 47.06%, 105





respectively ($\chi^2 = 9.323$; $P < 0.001$). OTs were detected in all of the urine samples
from 14 patients with early stage disease, whereas the rate of detection at the late
stage was 88.24% ($n = 17$) ($\chi^2 = 23.516$, $P < 0.001$). Both AFLs and OTs were
detected in all of the relatives of CKDue patients, but only OTs were detected in
the Japanese controls.
The highest AFL concentration in urine samples from CKDue patients was
0.8 ng/mL, whereas 90% of the samples had a concentration <0.044 ng/mL (397.1
ng/g Cr). The 90th percentile for OTs was 0.098 ng/mL (60.85 ng/g Cr). The
geometric means of urinary AFLs and OTs were 0.033 ng/mL (30.93 ng/g Cr) and
0.037 ng/mL (34.62 ng/g Cr) in the early stage, and 0.008 ng/mL (10.40 ng/g Cr)
and 0.012 ng/mL (17.08 ng/g Cr) in the late stage of the disease. Mean
concentration difference for urinary OT level was observed between the early and
late stages of the disease (Wilcoxon test, $P = 0.008$). In contrast, comparable
concentrations of OTs and AFLs were also observed in the unaffected relatives of
CKDue patients ($P > 0.05$ compared with all patients). Healthy Japanese
individuals, however, had lower levels of OTs (0.007 ng/mL, 8.14 ng/g Cr) than
Sri Lankan individuals had.
The small sample size of the control subjects and their characteristic
differences with the patients limit the comparability of the results. However, the
high detection frequency and urinary levels of OTs and AFLs among CKDue
patients and their relatives demonstrated the potential human exposure in the
region. Findings were also discussed in relation to similar studies in other
countries (Table 3). The average AFL concentration in urine samples from



130

131

132

133

134

135

136

137

138

139

140

141

142

143

144

145

146

147

148

149

150

151



CKDue patients was markedly higher, by over an order of magnitude, than the level of 0.391 ng/g Cr in the Czech Republic (Malir et al. 2004). An FB exposure study in two Portuguese populations has shown no detectable level in urine samples (Silva et al. 2008) and in Mexico 75% detection frequency was observed (Gong et al. 2008), whereas some level of FBs was detected at the early stage of the disease in the present study. Higher detection of OTs was observed compared with the 61% detection rate among healthy individuals in Hungary and 43% in the endemic nephropathy area in Croatia (Domijan et al. 2009), whereas the detection was comparable with the 88–97.8% in the endemic nephropathy region of Bulgaria (Castegnaro et al. 2005). Although the mean OT level in CKDue patients in our study was higher than the 0.007 ng/mL in Croatia (Domijan et al. 2009) and 0.013 ng/mL in Hungary (Fazekas et al. 2004), and was comparable to the 0.022 ng/mL in Portugal (Duarte et al. 2010), the urine concentration levels in half of our CKDue patients were <0.017 ng/mL (n = 15). The potential sources of exposure to OTs in the region need to be clarified. Animal studies have demonstrated the possibility of higher concentrations of OT A in kidney tissues and low levels in the urine (Zepnik et al. 2003). Likewise, an increase in OT A intake in humans in the region of endemic nephropathy did not result in an immediate increase in its elimination (Castegnaro et al. 2005). OT A is characterized by high plasma protein binding potential, therefore, its removal efficiency might be low (Petzinger et al. 2000; Ringot et al. 2006), and it is possible that OT A accumulates in renal tissue. It is worth noting



153

154

155

156

157

158

159

160

161

162

163

164

165

166

167

168

169

170171

172

173

174

175176



that the cumulative effect of long-term consumption of products that contain low levels of mycotoxins could contribute to a gradual deterioration of organ function. This study is believed to be the first to determine the presence of AFLs, OTs and FBs in urine samples from CKDue patients and their relatives living in communities with CKDue. The higher detection rate of OTs in Sri Lanka has led to a working hypothesis that this mycotoxin could be common in the region, which corroborates the need for further exposure assessment, associated with disease occurrence. Acknowledgments This work was supported by special coordination funds for promoting science and technology sponsored by the Japan Science and Technology Agency. The funder had no role in the study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript. The authors have declared that they have no competing interests. References Badria FA, Li S, Shier WT (1996) Fumonisins as Potential Causes of Kidney Disease. Toxin Reviews 15:273-292 Castegnaro M, Canadas D, Vrabcheva T, Petkova-Bocharova T, Chernozemsky IN, Pfohl-Leszkowicz A (2006) Balkan endemic nephropathy: Role of ochratoxins A through biomarkers. Mol Nutr Food Res 50:519 – 529 Chandrajith R, Nanayakkara S, Itai K, Aturaliya TNC, Dissanayake CB, Abeysekera T, Harada K, Watanabe T, Koizumi A (2010) Chronic kidney diseases of uncertain etiology (CKDue) in Sri Lanka: geographic distribution and





- environmental implications. Environ Geochem Health. Doi:10.1007/s10653-010-
- 178 9339-1
- Domijan A-M, Peraica M, MArkov K, Fuchs R (2009) Urine Ochratoxin A and
- sphinganine/sphingosine ratio in residents of the endemic nephropathy area in
- 181 Croatia. Arh Hig Rada Toksikol 60:387-393
- Duarte S, Bento J, Pena A, Lino CM, Delerue-Matos C, Oliva-Teles T, Morais S,
- 183 Correia M, Oliveira MB, Alves MR, Pereira JA (2010) Monitoring of ochratoxin
- A exposure of the Portuguese population through a nationwide urine survey -
- Winter 2007. Science of the Total Environment 408:1195-1198
- Fazekas B, Tar A, KOVÁCS M (2005) Ochratoxin A content of urine samples of
- healthy humans in Hungary. Acta Veterinaria Hungarica 53: 35-44
- 188 Glahn RP, Van Campen D, Dousa TP (1994) Aflatoxin B1 reduces Na(+)-P(i) co-
- transport in proximal renal epithelium: studies in opossum kidney (OK) cells.
- 190 Toxicology 92:91–100
- 191 Gong Y, Hounsa A, Egal S, Turner PC, Sutcliffe AE, Hall AJ, Cardwell K, Wild
- 192 CP (2004) Postweaning Exposure to Aflatoxin Results in Impaired Child Growth:
- 193 A Longitudinal Study in Benin, West Africa. Environ Health Perspect 112:1334-
- 194 1338
- 195 Illeperuma OA, Dharmagunawardhane HA, Herarh KPRP (2009) Dissolution of
- aluminium from substandard utensils under high fluoride stress: A possible risk
- 197 factors for chronic renal failures in the North-Central Provice. Journal of the
- 198 National Science Foundation of Sri Lanka 37:219-222
- 199 Koizumi A, Harada K, Inoue K, Hitomi T, Yang H-R, Moon C-S, Wang P, Hung
- 200 N, Watanabe T, Shimbo S, Ikeda M (2009) Past, present, and future of
- 201 environmental specimen banks. Environ Health Prev Med 14:307-18
- Malir F, Ostry V, Cernia M, Kacerovsky J, Roubal T, Skarkova J, Brndiar M,
- Fixa P (2004) Monitoring the important mycotoxin biomarkers (ochratoxin A,
- aflatoxin M1) in the Czech population. Cas Lek Cesk 143:691-6
- Parsons D, Casado MR, Magan N, Dyer C, Weightman R (2007) Development of
- 206 representative sampling plans for mycotoxins in foods using distribution modeling.
- Final report to the UK Food Standards Agency Project CO3055: Wolverhampton,
- 208 ADAS UK Ltd.
- 209 Petzinger E and Weidenbach A (2002) Mycotoxins in the food chain: the role of
- 210 ochratoxins. Livestock Production Science 76:245-250







211	Ringot D, Changoa A, Schneider YJ, Larondelle Y (2006) Toxicokinetics and
212	toxicodynamics of ochratoxin A, an update. Chemico-Biological Interactions
213	159:18-46
214	Sauvant C, Holzinger H, Mildenberger S, Gekle M (2005) Exposure to
215	nephrotoxic ochratoxin A enhances collagen secretion in human renal proximal
216	tubular cells. Mol Nutr Food Res 49:31-7
	C'I LLD ALL CME LANEM LANGUE
217	Silva LJ, Pena A, Lino CM, Fernandez MF, Manes J (2010)Fumonisin
218	determination in urine by LC-MS-MS. Anal Bioanal Chem 396:809-16
219	Wanigasuriya KP, Peiris H, Ileperuma N, Peiris-John RJ, Wickremasinghe R
220	(2008) Could ochratoxin A in food commodities be the cause of chronic kidney
221	disease in Sri Lanka? Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg 102:726-728
222	Zepnik H, Volkel W, Dekant W (2003) Toxicokinetics of the mycotoxin
223	ochratoxin A in F 344 rats after oral administration. Toxicology and Applied
224	Pharmacology 192:36-44
225	
226	



Table 1. Baseline characteristics of CKDue patients in Sri Lanka, 2009

Disease stages	Sex	Age (yr)
	male/female	mean (range)
	(Total)	
Stage 1 (slight)	3/4	24.14 (9–40)
Stage 2 (mild)	6/1	48 (39–59)
Stage 1–2 (early stage)	9/5 (14)	$36.07 \pm 15.19^{\ddagger}$
Stage 3 (moderate)	3/3	41 (11–60)
Stage 4 (severe)	3/3	47.5 (35–58)
Stage 5 (end stage)	3/2	49.00 (30–65)
Stage 3–5 (late stage)	9/8 (17)	45.65 ± 14.90
Total (CKDue	18/13	41.32 ± 15.55 (9–65)
patients)		
Relatives of CKDue	2/4	20.67 (6–34)
patients		
Japanese controls	0/4	45.25 (42–53)





Table 2. Urine concentration of AFL, OT and FB in CKDue patients in Sri Lanka,
2009.

Subjects		AFL		OT		FB	
		ng/mL	ng/g Cr	ng/mL	ng/g Cr	ng/mL	μg/g Cr
Stage 1 (<i>n</i> = 7)	Range (n>MDL)	ND-0.800(6)	ND-734.00	0.013–0.360 (7)	17.63– 93.90	ND- 0.042 (4)	ND- 0.14
	Mean	0.359	230.21	0.044	39.67	<mdl< td=""><td><mdl< td=""></mdl<></td></mdl<>	<mdl< td=""></mdl<>
	GM	0.092	87.41	0.035	33.33	<mdl< td=""><td><mdl< td=""></mdl<></td></mdl<>	<mdl< td=""></mdl<>
Stage 2 (<i>n</i> = 7)	Range (n>MDL)	ND-0.037 (5)	ND-53.05	0.006–0.058 (6)	11.87– 74.81	ND- 0.036 (1)	ND- 0.07
	Mean	0.018	19.58	0.085	65.07	-	-
	GM	0.012	10.95	0.039	35.95	-	-
Stage 1–2	GM	0.033	30.93	0.037	34.62*	-	-
Stage 3 (<i>n</i> = 6)	Range (n>MDL)	ND-0.039 (4)	ND-44.74	ND-0.028 (5)	8.57–41.25	ND- 0.130 (1)	ND- 0.19
	Mean	0.023	25.57	0.022	21.76	-	-
	GM	0.022	18.75	0.016	19.36	-	-
Stage 4 (<i>n</i> = 6)	Range (n>MDL)	ND-0.800 (4)	ND-991.57	ND-0.019 (4)	ND-34.27	-	-
	Mean	0.140	174.82	0.016	18.75	ND	ND
	GM	0.009	12.71	0.012	17.07	-	-
Stage 5 (<i>n</i> = 5)	Range (n>MDL)	ND	ND	0.010 (4)	ND-27.06	ND	ND
	Mean	-	-	0.044	16.56	-	-
	GM	-	-	0.080	14.72	-	-
Stage 3–5	GM	0.008	10.40	0.012	17.08*	-	-
Stage 1–5	GM	0.012	17.01	0.020	23.50	-	-
Relatives controls (<i>n</i> = 6)	Range (n>MDL)	0.020–0.800 (6)	5.9–1000.00	0.032–0.223 (6)	28.63– 278.00	ND- 0.093 (1)	ND- 0.14
~/	Mean	0.298	249.09	0.104	88.95	-	-
	GM	0.112	84.12	0.085	63.52	-	-
Japanese controls (n =	Range (n>MDL)	ND	ND	0.005-0.012	4.4–19.40	ND	ND
4)	Mean	-	-	0.007	9.69	-	-
	GM	-	-	0.007	8.14	-	-

ND: not detected; MDL: method detection limit; GM: geometric mean

236

237

^{*}Wilcoxon test for mean OT concentration difference between early and late stages (P = 0.008)





Table 3. Urine mycotoxin level in other countries

Mycotoxin	Detection	Mean (range)	Study subjects	Country	Reference	
Type	rate					
AFL	61.29%	17.0 (ND–991.6) ng/gCr	CKDue patients	Sri Lanka	Present study	
	58%	391.0 (19.0– 19,219.0) pg/g Cr	General population	Czech Republic	(Malir et al. 2004)	
OT A	100%	37.1 (12.4–360.0) pg/mL	CKDue patients (early stage)	Sri Lanka	Present study	
	88.24%	12.0 (ND-58.2) pg/mL	CKDue patients (late stage)	Sri Lanka	Present study	
	100%(n=6)	85.0 (32.0–223.0) pg/mL	Relatives of CKDue patients	Sri Lanka	Present study	
	61%	13.0 (6.0–65.0) pg/mL	Healthy individuals	Hungary	(Fazekas et al. 2004)	
	43%	7.0 (5.0–15.0) pg/mL	Endemic nephropathy	Croatia	(Domijan et al. 2009)	
	92.20%	22.0 (ND–69.0) pg/mL	General population	Portugal	(Duarte et al. 2010)	
	88%	50.8 (1.0–330.0) pg/mL	Endemic nephropathy	Bulgaria	(Castegnaro et al. 2005)	
	97.6%	191.7 (1.0–191.0) pg/mL	Endemic nephropathy	Bulgaria	(Castegnaro et al. 2005)	
FB	19.4%	(ND-130.0 pg/mL)	CKDue patients	Sri Lanka	Present study	
	0% (LOD =	5 ng/mL)	General population	Portugal	(Silva et al. 2008)	
	75%	70.1 (ND-9312.0) pg/mL	General population	Mexico	(Gong et al. 2008)	