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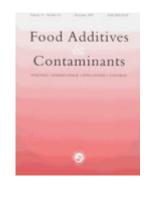
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Estimation of ochratoxin A exposure of Lisbon inhabitants through analysis of bread and urine in winter 2007/2008

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Abstract

A survey on the occurrence of ochratoxin A (OTA) in 41 bread samples was carried out in the Portuguese capital. Maize (5) and wheat bread (36) and 43 representative urine samples from the Lisbon region were assayed for OTA content using immunoaffinity column cleanup (IAC) and HPLC with fluorimetric detection (LC-FD). The percentage of OTA-positive samples was slightly higher for maize bread (80%) than for wheat bread (70.8%), although, due to its higher consumption, the latter contributes more to OTA exposure, featuring a higher estimated daily intake (EDI). In the urine samples analyzed, both female and male residents displayed similar high levels of OTA frequency and average contamination. Therefore, OTA is a food contaminant of concern and may constitute a hazard for public health through consumption of cereal-based products.

Keywords :- Ochratoxin A; bread; urine; LC-FD; Portugal; Lisbon

Introduction

 The attention of public health authorities and toxicologists in the world has recently been focused on systematic control of the presence of xenogenous substances in foodstuffs which might endanger the health of the population. This is the case of mycotoxins, toxic secondary metabolites of mycelial microscopic fungi, moulds (Malir et al., 2001). The mycotoxin OTA is an example. Since its discovery in 1965, several authors and projects were devoted to its study. It is currently regarded as nephrotoxic, immunotoxic, and genotoxic (Schilter et al., 2005). Additionally, since 1993, it is included in the group 2B (possible human carcinogens) by the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) of WHO, based on sufficient evidence for carcinogenicity in animal studies and inadequate evidence in humans. In several areas of Eastern Europe, where chronic exposure to OTA occurs, involvement of this mycotoxin in the cancer etiology of the urinary system, and in kidney pathologies typical of Balkan endemic nephropathy (BEN) has been suspected. Studies on the correlation between OTA and BEN (Vrabcheva et al., 2000; Puntarić et al., 2001) have shown higher OTA contamination level in cereals from endemic areas with respect to cereals from non-endemic areas (Palermo et al., 2002). Hence most countries and organizations have established maximum permitted levels in foodstuffs to reduce the exposure of its citizens to this contaminant. Additionally, tolerable intakes were recommended, specifically of 120ng/kg bw/week (EFSA, 2006), and 100ng/kg bw/week (JEFCA, 2007). For their part, Canadian authorities proposed a TDI of 1.2-5.7ng/kg bw/day (Kuiper-Goodman, 1996). The Nordic Working Group on Food Toxicology and Risk Evaluation (1991) has suggested a maximum TDI of OTA by humans of 5ng/kg body weight, based on carcinogenicity studies with OTA in adult rats. The Scientific Committee on Food also proposed that exposure should be below 5ng/kg bw/day (SCF, 1998).

The importance of OTA is further underlined by its global occurrence, in a large variety of commodities, of both plant and animal origin. Cereals and their derived products, assumed to be the major dietary source of OTA, are some of the most consumed foodstuffs in the world. Of these, bread is the most popular yeast-leavened cereal product by far provides more nourishment for humans than any other food source (FAO, 2002). Even today, the importance of bread is stated by its symbolic power (solidarity), its existence in every civilization, and its major role in many religions, in many popular festivities and in most family meals worldwide (www.world-bread-day.com, 2008).

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This universal product can be made of different types of cereal grain, characterized by the many fermentation processes and the different ways of baking, a wide variety of sizes, shapes, textures and tastes dependent on the agricultural, cultural and feeding habits of the populations (González-Osnaya *et al.*, 2007, <u>www.world-bread-day.com</u>, 2008). By far the most consumed type is wheat bread. In Portugal, the latest estimate of the average bread consumption is from 1994, at a level of 32 kg/person/year. Maize bread, a traditional Portuguese type of bread, is estimated to represent a quarter of the total nationwide bread consumption (Instituto Português do Consumidor, 2005). The famous and traditional 'Mafra' bread is a regional wheat bread type, commercialized in different shapes and sizes, but always with the same dough, which is made of wheat flour, water, yeast and salt. Although typical from a certain region of Lisbon, most of the shops, bakeries and supermarkets of the capital feature this kind of bread.

To study the OTA exposure, different approaches have been attempted. OTA levels in plasma and urine are considered as typical biomarkers of exposure, and no other appropriate effect-related biomarkers have as yet been identified (Pacin *et al.*, 2008). Although elimination in urine has been considered the main route of OTA excretion from the human body, the urinary monitoring is relatively unexplored due to the lower concentrations involved (Pena *et al.*, 2006) and due to the fact that, conversely to its content in plasma, it is not possible to relate concentrations or total amount of OTA excreted in urine to exposure. Recent developments in analytical methodology resulted in a more practical urinary monitoring, which has the advantage of being less invasive than blood monitoring. However, data on the frequency and concentration of OTA in human urine remain scarce (Pena *et al.*, 2006). In a one-month duplicate diet study in the UK OTA in urine was found to be a better indicator of OTA consumption than OTA in plasma, although levels in urine were two orders of magnitude lower; there was no good correlation between plasma concentrations and consumption of OTA (Gilbert *et al.*, 2001). It is thus suggested that urine could provide a more useful marker of OTA intake than plasma (Pascale & Visconti, 2001).

When compared to food products, urine has an additional advantage as a target for OTA exposure quantification. The large variability in contamination levels and sampling difficulties means that large numbers of individual food samples need to be analyzed. Estimates of exposure based on determining OTA in food products will thus inevitably be vulnerable to large sources of error. Further, the fact that estimated exposure levels use methods based on food intake/analysis, which are inherently inaccurate, appears to indicate that exposures close to the TDI require a better approach for assessing OTA exposure. Initial

studies have used plasma levels to estimate intake, but the study of Gilbert *et al.* (2001) suggests that this may not be the most suitable method. A disadvantage of urine analysis to assess OTA exposure is the need to define further the relationship between consumption and excretion to estimate actual intake levels. So, further work needs to be done to verify if urine concentrations are a short- or a long-term indicator of exposure to this mycotoxin (Manique *et al.*, 2008). According to Gilbert *et al.* (2001), the correlation might be stronger if comparisons were made between urine excretion and previous day intake.

The present study aims to estimate the OTA contamination levels of different types of bread, a widely consumed foodstuff, in the Lisbon region during the Winter of 2007/2008. Moreover, Lisbonians' exposure to OTA was evaluated, based on bread intake and the toxin's presence in urine.

Materials and Methods

Bread and urine sampling

The present study was carried out with samples collected in the Portuguese capital city, Lisbon, located in the country's central western coast. The samples were collected during the Winter of 2007/2008, between November 2007 and March 2008.

The bread samples, consisting of 24 units of regular wheat bread, 12 units of regional Mafra wheat bread, and 5 units of maize bread, were commercially acquired from random bakeries and supermarkets located in the Lisbon region. After purchase, the samples were brought to the laboratory under ambient condition for milling. All of the information on the samples was obtained from the respective labels. Each milled sample, stored in sealed plastic bags, was frozen at -20°C, and kept in this condition until analysis.

The 43 urine samples were collected from healthy individuals residing in the same area where the bread samples were commercialized. From the 43 local participants involved, 48.8% (n=21) were female, aged 18-69 years old, and 51.2% (n=22) were male, aged 23-75 years old. The sampled population is characterized in Table I.

Reagents

HPLC grade acetonitrile (Carlo Erba, Milan, Italy), methanol (Panreac Química Sau, Barcelona, Spain), toluene (Barker Analyzed, J. T. Barker, Holland) and benzene (HACH Company, USA) were used. Of analytical grade were used boron-trifluoride-methanol 14%

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solution and acetic acid purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Laborchemikalien, Germany), hydrochloric acid, sodium hydroxide, potassium chloride, potassium dihydrogenphosphate and anhydrous disodium hydrogenphosphate supplied by Merck (Darmstadt, Germany), and sodium chloride purchased from Baker Ltd., Pagenham, England.

The OTA standard was acquired from Sigma Chemical Co. (St. Louis, MO, USA) with \geq 98% purity. The OTA standard stock solution was prepared by diluting 1mg of OTA from *A. ochraceus* in 4mL of toluene:acetic acid (99:1) at 250µg/mL, and stored at -20°C. The intermediate solutions were prepared at 10µg/mL and 1µg/mL, in toluene:acetic acid, and working standard solutions at 0.1µg/mL and 0.01µg/mL, in mobile phase. The calibration curve standard solutions were prepared in mobile phase, at concentrations between 0.001 and 0.01µg/mL.

Water was obtained daily from a Milli-Q System (Millipore, Bedford, MA, USA).

Equipment

Filter paper Whatman N°4 (150mm, Whatman International Ltd. Maidstone, England) and polyamide membrane filters (0.2µm, 50mm, Whatman GmbH, Dassel, Germany) were used. Immunoaffinity columns (IAC) OchratestTM were from VICAM (Watertown, USA).

A Braun MR 5000M multiquick/minipimer 500W (220-230V, 50-60Hz, Esplungues del Llobregat, Spain), a Moulinex blender 700W (230-240V, 50-60Hz, Barcelona, Spain), a vacuum manifold of Macherey-Nagel (USA), a pump of Dinko (mol. D-95, 130W, 220V), a magnetic stirrer (Agimatic-S, Selecta, Barcelona, Spain), and a Retsh vortex mixer (Haan, Germany) were employed. A Sonorex RK 100 ultrasonic bath (Berlin, Germany) was used for 15min degassing of all chromatographic solvents prior to use, and also for cleaning and decontaminating of the material used in the experiments.

The LC instrument used possessed a pump (Model 307, Gilson Medical Electronics, Villiers-le-Bel, France), and a guard column Hichrom Ltd, HI-173 (30mmx4mm i.d.) (England) preceding a Hichrom C_{18} column (5µm, 250 mm x 4.6mm i.d.). Detection and quantification were performed with a Perkin-Elmer Model LS45 (Beaconsfield, UK). A Hewlett-Packard 3390A integrator (Philadelphia, PA, USA) recorded the results.

Experimental Procedure

The methodologies used for OTA content determination were based on those described by Juan *et al.* (2007) and Pena *et al.* (2006), for bread and urine samples, respectively.

Briefly, for OTA extraction from the bread matrix, 100mL of PBS:methanol (50:50) were added to 20g of milled bread and then homogenized (5min) and filtered. Twenty milliliters of the resulting filtered solution were diluted in 30mL of PBS before the passage through the IAC at a vacuum-induced rate of 1 drop per second. The IAC was then washed with 10mL of water prior to the elution with 3mL of methanol.

For extraction from the urine matrix, 10mL of the sample were mixed with 10mL of NaHCO₃, 5%, and then filtered. The filtrate was cleaned-up through the IAC at a flow rate of about 1 drop per second. The column was then washed twice with 5mL of distilled water, and afterwards OTA was eluted with 3mL methanol.

The eluates were dried in a bath at 50°C under a gentle nitrogen flow, and the dried extract was stored at -20°C. Before injection, the dried extract was dissolved in 250 μ L or 125 μ L of mobile phase, in the case of bread or urine samples, respectively.

LC-FD analysis was performed using a vacuum-filtered solution of acetonitrile/water/acetic acid (49.5:49.5:1.0, v/v/v) as mobile phase, flowing at a 1mL/min rate. Wavelengths used were 333nm for excitation and 460nm for emission, both with a spectral bandwidth of 10nm. An OTA working standard solution of $0.01\mu g/mL$ was analyzed at the beginning of each run. A 20 μ L injection volume was used for both bread and urine extracts.

Analytical quality assurance

 OTA method revalidation was performed by spiking an OTA-free wheat bread sample, in triplicate, during three days at fortification levels of 0.1, 0.5 and 2ng/g. After fortification, the sample was left to stand in the dark for 15min, after which the Juan *et al.* (2007) protocol was followed.

The fortification assays performed on urine, in a triplicate of a blank sample and during three different days, were made at 0.02, 0.1 and 0.5ng/mL. After fortification the sample was left to stand in the dark for 15min, after which the Pena *et al.* (2006) protocol was followed.

OTA presence in bread samples was confirmed as described by Guillamont *et al.* (2005) and Pena *et al.* (2005), by conversion into its methyl ester form, adding 150 μ L of boron trifluoride methanolic solution (BF₃-CH₃OH 14%) to the dried sample extracts, and evaporating the mixture at 60°C for 10min, before reconstitution in 250 μ L of mobile phase. For urine samples, a similar method was used as described by Castegnaro *et al.* (1990), differing from the previous in its lower reconstitution volume of 150 μ L.

 The OTA methyl esters of both samples were analyzed according to the LC method described above.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Analytical performance

Linearity for OTA quantification was verified by plotting OTA peak areas against calibration samples (concentrations of 1, 2, 5 and 10ng/mL). The resulting calibration curve featured a coefficient of correlation of 0.9998.

Recovery values for bread ranged from 76.7 to 103.7%, at fortification levels of 2.0 and 0.1ng/g, respectively, with intra-day repeatabilities ranging from 3.6 to 14.4%, for levels of 0.5 and 0.1ng/g, and inter-day ones from 7.2 to 12.9%, at the levels of 0.5 and 2.0ng/g.

For urine, recovery values were from 90.6 to 96.0% at the 0.02 and 0.5ng/mL fortification levels. Intra- and inter-day repeatabilities varied between 2.9 and 5.4%, and 4.3 and 8.9% for fortification levels of 0.5 and 0.02ng/mL, respectively.

The above results for accuracy and precision, for both bread and urine, were in agreement with the EC directive N° 401/2006 (EC, 2006).

Determination of LOQs was performed by spiking blank samples with OTA standard solutions. Repeatable precision and trueness were achieved at minimum concentrations of 0.1ng/g and 0.008ng/mL for bread and urine samples, respectively, thus setting the LOQs at those values.

As shown by the chromatograms displayed in figure 1, there are no interfering peaks near the retention time of OTA (ca.11.30) in neither bread nor urine samples. The different retention time of OTA and its methyl ester and the almost complete disappearance of the OTA peak and the appearance of a new one, at 27.30min, permitted the confirmation of OTA presence in the sample (Figure 1).

Occurrence of OTA in bread

As shown in Table II, of the total 41 bread samples analyzed from Lisbon, 68.3% contained OTA, and 51.2% showed OTA levels above the LOQ.

Incidence was found to be high in both maize and wheat bread, and nearly all positive samples featured OTA content levels above the LOQ. In both instances, values were slightly higher, though not significantly so, in the maize bread. Similarly, average contamination

 levels were also somewhat more elevated in maize bread than in common wheat bread (0.28 vs. 0.21 ng/g). On the other hand, less than half of the Mafra bread samples contained detectable levels of OTA, and none of those featured OTA content quantifiable through this method.

Similar results were detected in studies concerning other Portuguese regions (Juan *et al*, 2007; Bento *et al*, 2009). A notable exception is that of Juan *et al* (2008), whose study found much lower incidence and contamination levels in wheat bread. A possible explanation for this discrepancy may lie in the fact that the samples for this study originated in a different area and period, and were thus subject to different conditions during processing and storage, as well as different edafo-climatic influences during crop growth.

Independently of study, however, data from across the world (Table III) puts Portuguese bread as the least contaminated. Since some of the data in that table refers to the cereal grain, it is possible that processing methods result in a similar OTA content in the bread of some of those countries – namely, Italy and Croatia.

Those same studies concur with the present one in that they have found that both maize grains and their derivates tend to feature higher frequencies of OTA contamination than their wheat counterparts. In the specific case of bread, Cengiz *et al.* (2007) have detected statistically significant differences between OTA content average levels in white and corn bread samples, corn and whole meal bread samples, and corn and corn whole meal samples, with the latter of each case featuring higher levels. Earlier, Zummo & Scott (1992) demonstrated that maize (*Zea mays*) has an ideal nutrient composition for fungi development and is thus constantly exposed to the risk of fungal contamination. Moreover, tropical and subtropical climate countries, a few of which are among the worldwide top producers of maize, have favorable environmental conditions to the development of the main types of genotoxicant fungi, *Aspergillus, Fusarium* and *Penicillium* (Sekiyama *et al.*, 2005). However, studies of OTA quantification offer contradictory results on the subject.

A study from Brazil (Sekiyama *et al.*, 2005) found a single sample of corn flour (0.8%) with an OTA content of $64\mu g/kg$, while another (Machinski *et al.*, 2001) found two samples (1.8%) with contamination levels of 128 and 206 $\mu g/kg$, values that exceed the maximum permitted legal limit. Yet another (Caldas *et al.*, 2002) found no samples with contamination levels above their limit of detection (25 $\mu g/kg$).

In Argentina, however, a different study (Paolo & Tosi, 1998) found a high content of OTA (1250-2500µg/kg) in all the analyzed maize-derived foodstuffs, though non-processed

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maize featured consistently higher levels of contamination. Food processing, thus, does contribute slightly to decontamination, though it does so in blatantly insufficient levels.

The cited Brazilian papers results corroborate the low levels of OTA contamination in Brazilian maize. On this subject, it is worth noting that Argentina is significantly colder than Brazil, and though OTA-producing fungi favor warm and wet environments, mycotoxin production seems to be spurred by cold and wet climates (Eskola, 2002). Yet, the Ministry of Agriculture, Fishing and Food of the United Kingdom found that crude maize samples imported from Argentina – as well as from a number of European countries – featured contamination levels no higher than $1.5\mu g/kg$, and only in 10.1% of the samples. It is, however, possible that produce destined to exportation is subjected to tighter control and the most contaminated samples are discarded.

Conversely, other studies reveal higher mean levels of OTA in wheat, than in maize, irrespective of their ripening season, like in BEN endemic regions (Puntarić *et al.*, 2001). This high contamination of wheat cereal can be explained by the fact that glutamic acid is incorporated into OTA during its production, and so a high content of this aminoacid in cereals, as typical in wheat, could be a cofactor for the presence of OTA, as suggested by (González-Osnaya *et al.*, 2007). Furthermore, and according to Laca *et al.*, 2006, OTA content differences between cereals depend on multiple factors, such as the grain condition at harvest, care in grain drying, and storage conditions (Gonzalez-Osnaya *et al.*, 2007).

Taking into account the latest data, which claims that a Portuguese citizen has an average adult bodyweight of 65kg (Miraglia & Brera, 2002) and an average bread consumption of 32kg/year (Instituto Português do Consumidor, 2005), consisting one quarter maize bread and three quarters wheat bread, the estimated contributions to OTA daily intake are 0.09 and 0.21ng/kg bw/day for maize and wheat bread, respectively (Table IV).

It should be noted that, though maize bread tends to feature higher levels of contamination, the much higher consumption of wheat bread results in that the exposure of the Lisbonian residents to OTA is higher through the consumption of the latter, 0.21ng/kg bw/day vs. the 0.09ng/kg bw/day for maize bread, although far from the values established by the SCF in 1998 (5ng/kg bw/day) and the JECFA in 2001 (17ng/kg bw/day). These values are lower than the ones demonstrated by Leblanc *et al.* (2005) for the French population, and by the SCOOP report for the Spanish (0.77) and German (0.36) inhabitants (Miraglia & Brera, 2002). Conversely, the values of the EDI in the present study are similar to the ones calculated for the Danish residents (0.19) by the same SCOOP report. Further, the EDI from wheat bread, 0.21ng/kg bw/day, represents over a quarter of the national average, and thus

support the major contribution of bread in particular, and cereals in general, as the main contributors to OTA exposure.

Mafra bread, although also made of wheat, did not present any detectable level of OTA, and so does not contribute to the exposure to OTA. This difference is likely due to the fact that, as previously mentioned, while Mafra bread is, as a rule, baked with only wheat flour, water, yeast, and salt, the more common wheat bread also tends to include other components that generally lead to an increase of the OTA content in bread, such as seeds, bran (Scudamore *et al.*, 2003; Juan *et al.*, 2008), and even flour made of other cereals (Czerwiecki *et al.*, 2002).

Occurrence of OTA in urine

 The present study shows an elevated incidence of OTA occurrence in the urine of the Lisbonian residents (Table V). Incidence was high, with nearly three-quarters (72.1%) of the samples being positive for OTA, and 62.8% featuring contamination levels above the LOQ, with concentrations ranging from n.d. to 0.071ng/mL. The mean concentration and standard deviation were 0.026 and 0.017ng/mL, respectively.

Except in the cases of OTA occurrence in Balkan region where the high incidence of positive cases and contamination level reflect the endemic condition of exposure to OTA, the results of most surveys are comparable with those reported by the present work (Table VI). Previously, other studies showed similar results in some other European countries where BEN has not been observed. However, a difference in analytical methods and/or eating habits can result in far higher values of contamination (Baydar *et al.*, 2005), as exemplified by the values for Sierra Leone detected by Jonsyn (1999) and Jonsyn-Ellis (2000).

This study also reinforces the previous results obtained for samples of central Portugal and Valencia, Spain (Dinis *et al.*, 2007; Lino *et al.*, 2008; Manique *et al.*, 2008), demonstrating a concerning exposure of Iberian residents to this mycotoxin, corroborated by the presence of OTA in Spanish and Portuguese foodstuffs such as cereals and cereal products, rice, dried fruits, milk, and wine (Manique *et al.*, 2008).

According to Scott (2005), the OTA level in urine does not present any correlation with age (Gilbert *et al.*, 2001), nor gender (Fazekas *et al.*, 2005). Other authors (Manique *et al.*, 2008, Pena *et al.*, 2006) also reported the absence of significant differences between genders. Pena *et al.* (2006) observed differences between gender only in the group aged between 20 and 39 years (p=0.044). In Sierra Leone, Jonsyn-Ellis (2000) discarded the correlation with the nutritional status and the prevalence of OTA in the urine samples of the

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children analyzed. On the other hand, Gilbert *et al.* (2001) found no significant differences associated with the ethnic diet of the subjects. Vegetarians had higher OTA consumption on average, although their plasma or urine levels were not significantly higher.

The low levels of OTA observed in the study of Pascale & Visconti (2001) are clearly indicative of the much lower amount of the toxin which is transmitted to the urine as compared to the blood. However, Gilbert *et al.* (2001) observed a significant correlation between OTA human consumption through controlled diets and OTA concentration in urine (ranging from <0.01 to 0.058ng/ml) suggesting that the content of OTA in 94 urine samples could be a useful marker of OTA intake.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the high percentage of bread samples featuring significant levels of OTA, corroborated by a similarly high frequency of contamination in urine samples, suggests a real and concerning exposure of Lisbon residents to this mycotoxin. Although maize bread is more contaminated, the wheat bread, due to its higher consumption, contributes more to the exposure to OTA. An exception is the Mafra wheat bread type, which has an insignificant level of contamination.

This study contributes thus to the gathering of information about exposure to OTA, which is also important when making decisions on the regulation of chemical contaminants and the safety of foodstuffs. Further studies need to be conducted to expand this data and pursue the surveillance in cereals and derived products, since they are the major contributors to OTA intake.

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Table I – Anthropometric data of the sampled population.

Gender	Size	Weight (kg)		Age (years)		Stature (cm)	
achach	UILC	Range	Mean±SD	Range	Mean±SD	Range	Mean±SD
Female	48.8% (21/43)	[45;89]	65.67±11.59	[18;69]	45.95±15.63	[150;170]	157±7
Male	51.2% (22/43)	[62;108]	77.5±10.47	[23;75]	46.09±13.61	[170;180]	171±7
Total	100% i.e. 43	[45;108]	71.72±12.44	[18;75]	46.02±14.45	[150;180]	164±10

$\textbf{Table II} \text{ -} Prevalence \ (\%) \ and \ mean \ levels \ (ng/g) \ of \ OTA \ in \ different \ types \ of \ bread \ samples.$

Sample ^a	Sample size	≥LOQ ^b (%)	<u>≥LOD</u> (%)	Range (ng/g)	Mean ^b ±SD	Mean ^c ±SD	Deleted: Frequency ^c
Maize bread	5	4 (80)	4 (80)	n.d0.36	0.28±0.09	0.22±0.14	
Wheat bread	24	17 (70.8)	19 (79.2)	n.d0.41	0.21±0.09	0.15±0.12	-
Mafra type wheat bread	12	0 (0)	5 (41.7)	<0.1	n/a	0.02±0.03	-
TOTAL	41	21 (51.2)	28 (68.3)	n.d0.41	0.22±0.09	0.12±0.12	-

^a Bread type, ^b Samples \geq LOQ (\geq 0.1ng/mL) only, ^c All samples

 Table III – Compilation of some international studies and the present on OTA occurrence in maize and wheat grains and derivate bread.

Country	Sample type, number	Incidence	Mean±SD	Range (µg/kg)	Source	
Italy	Maize, 70 (1999-2000)	27.1%	1.7±1.6	0.2-5.2	$\mathbf{P}_{a} = \mathbf{P}_{a} + \mathbf{P}_{a} $	
Italy	Wheat, 70 (1999-2000)	8.6%	0.8±0.3	0.4-1.4	Palermo et al. (2002)	
Croatia	Maize, 49	38.7%	1.47±0.38	0.9-2.54	Domijan et al. (2005)	
	Maize, 16 (1998)	100%	44±12	27-64		
T	Maize, 15 (2001)	100%	266±428	3-1738	Sangare-Tigori <i>et al</i> ,	
Ivory	Maize, 10 (2002)	100%	37±25	9.8-86	(2006a)	
Coast	Maize, 10 (2002)	100%	-	0.16-0.86	Sangare-Tigori <i>et al.</i> (2006b)	
	Corn bread, 10	-	4.94±0.20	4.08-5.28		
	Corn flour, 10	-	6.39±1.10	3.86-15.67		
T	White bread, 25	-	3.36±0.73	n.d11.40		
Turkey	White flour, 22	-	6.89±0.46	1.87-7.44	Cengiz <i>et al.</i> (2007)	
	Whole meal bread, 28	-	7.84±0.39	3.54-12.61		
	Whole meal flour, 14	-	9.30±1.33	1.07-16.70		
Spain	Organic wheat bread, 20	20%	-	0.03-0.81	González-Osnaya et al	
	Other organic cereals bread, 6	33.3%		0.39-0.81	2007	

	Conventional wheat bread, 67		-	0.04-10.81	
	Other conventional cereals bread, 7	14.3%	-	2.59	
	Maize bread, 15	60%	0.43	-	Juan et al. (2007)
	Maize bread, 30	70%	0.44	-	$L_{1000} = (-1)(2008)$
	Wheat bread, 31	12.9%	0.02	-	Juan <i>et al</i> . (2008)
Dortu col	Wheat bread, 30	80%	0.2±0.1	n.d0.49	Pointo et $al (2000)$
Portugal	Wheat bread, 20	65%	0.3±0.14	n.d0.43	Bento <i>et al.</i> (2009)
	Maize bread, 5	80%	0.28±0.09	n.d0.36	
	Wheat bread, 24	79.2%	0.21±0.09	n.d0.41	Present study
	Mafra wheat bread, 12	41.7%	n/a	<0.1	

Table IV - Adult estimated daily intake (EDI) and weekly intake (EWI) of OTA, according to the type of bread.

Bread type	EDI ^a (ng/kg bw/day)	% TWI ^b
Maize bread contribution	0.09	0.54
Wheat bread contribution	0.21	1.22
Mafra type wheat bread contribution	0	n/a
Total	0.30	1.76

^aEDI was calculated using the equation EDI = ($\sum c$) (CN⁻¹ D⁻¹ K⁻¹), where $\sum c$ is the sum of OTA concentration in the analyzed samples, C is the mean annual intake estimated, N is the total number of analyzed samples, D is the number of days in a year, and K is the mean body weight, which was considered 65Kg (mean of body weight of the studied population)

^bAccording to EFSA-established TWI (120ng/kg bw/week).

Fable V - Pre	evalence (%)) and mean lev	els (µg/L) o	f OTA in urine	6	
Gender	Size	Incidence	≥LOQ*	Mean±SD	Range	
Franklar	48,8%	71.4%	57.1%	0.027+0.015	. 1 0 055	
Females	(21/43)	(15/21)	(12/21)	0.027±0.015	n.d0.055	
Males	51.2%	72.7%	68.2%	0.025+0.020	n.d0.071	
iviales	(22/43)	(16/22)	(15/22)	0.025±0.020	0.023±0.020	11.u0.071
Tatal	100%	72.1%	62.8%	0.026±0.017	n.d0.071	
Total	100%	(31/43)	(27/43)	0.020±0.017	n.u0.071	
	* ≥0.00	8ng/mL				

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Country	Biomarker	Sampled population, number	Incidence	Range (Mean) (ng/mL)	Reference	
U.K.	OTA	Volunteers, 50	92%	n.d0.058	Gilbert et al. (2001)	
Italy (South & North)	ΟΤΑ	Healthy, 38	57.9%	0.012-0.046	Pascale & Visconti (2001)	
Italy (Southern)	OTA	Healthy	100%	0.12-2 (0.53)	Breitholtz-Emanuelsson et al.(1994)	
Hungary	OTA	Healthy, 88	61%	0.006-0.065 (0.013)	Fazekas et al. (2005)	
Bulgaria (Gorno Peshtene village)	OTA	Healthy BEN area residents , 5	100%	0.010-0.33 (0.0508)	Petkova-Bocharova et al. (200	
Bulgaria (Beli Izvor village)	ΟΤΑ	Healthy BEN area residents , 11	100%	0.010-1.910 (0.168)		
		BEN/UTT patients, 36	38.9%	0.005-0.604		
		Healthy persons from BEN families, 25	48%	0.005-0.033		
Bulgaria (1984-1990)	ΟΤΑ	Healthy persons from non-BEN families in BEN villages, 32	44%	0.005-0.043	Nikolov <i>et al.</i> (2002)	
(1901 1990)		Healthy persons from non-BEN villages in BEN area, 31	12.9	0.017-0.041		
		Healthy persons from non-BEN area, 3	0	n.a.		
	OTA	BEN/UTT patients	40%	0.005-0.03		
Bulgaria	4- hydroxyOTA	and controls, 152	0%	-	Castegnaro et al. (1991)	
	OTA	Children	24%	0.3-26.6		
	4- hydroxyOTA	(<5years), 54	44.4%	0.04-21	Jonsyn (1999)	
Sierra Leone	4- hydroxyOTA OTA	Children (5-14years), 434	38.5 %	n.d37		
		Boys (5-14years), 231	23.8 %	0.07-72	Jonsyn-Ellis (2000)	
		Girls (5-14years), 203	27.1%	0.08-148		
		Healthy, 60	70%	0.021-0.105 (0.038)	Pena et al. (2006)	
Douts col (Coimbro)	OTA		M. 42.201	M:0.011-0.208		
Portugal (Coimbra)	UIA	Healthy, 30	M: 43.3% A: 46.7%	(0.019) A: 0.008-0.11		
			A. 40.7 /0	(0.018)		
Spain (Valencia)				M: 0.007-0.124	Manique <i>et al.</i> (2008)	
	05.		M: 80.6%	(0.032)		
	OTA	Healthy, 31	A: 83.9 %	A: 0.008-0.089		
				(0.028)		
		Healthy women, 21	71.4%	n.d0.055 (0.027)		
Portugal (Lisbon)	OTA	Healthy men, 22	72.7%	n.d0.071 (0.025)	Present study	
		Total, 43	72.1%	n.d0.071 (0.026)		

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N.B.: M: morning samples; A: afternoon samples; BEN - Balkan Endemic Nephropathy; UTT - Urinary

Tract Tumors

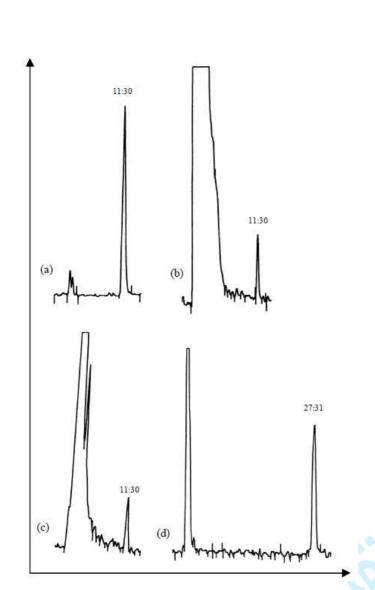


Figure 1: LC-FD chromatograms obtained after the described experimental procedure, from (a) OTA standard solution (5ng/mL; RT 11.30), (b) bread sample naturally positive to OTA (RT 11.30), (c) urine sample naturally positive to OTA (RT 11.30) and (d) an OTA methyl ester peak after boron fluoride-methanol derivatization of a wheat bread sample (RT 27.31).