

Food	Additives
Cont	aminants

Food Additives & Contaminants: Part A

ISSN: 1944-0049 (Print) 1944-0057 (Online) Journal homepage: http://www.tandfonline.com/loi/tfac20

## Ecophysiology of Fusarium temperatum isolated from maize in Argentina

María Verónica Fumero, Michael Sulyok & Sofía Chulze

To cite this article: María Verónica Fumero, Michael Sulyok & Sofía Chulze (2016) Ecophysiology of Fusarium temperatum isolated from maize in Argentina, Food Additives & Contaminants: Part A, 33:1, 147-156, DOI: 10.1080/19440049.2015.1107917

To link to this article: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/19440049.2015.1107917

1	1	(	1

Accepted author version posted online: 04 Nov 2015. Published online: 07 Nov 2015.



Submit your article to this journal

Article views: 39



View related articles 🗹



View Crossmark data 🗹

Full Terms & Conditions of access and use can be found at http://www.tandfonline.com/action/journalInformation?journalCode=tfac20

### Ecophysiology of Fusarium temperatum isolated from maize in Argentina

María Verónica Fumero<sup>a,b</sup>, Michael Sulyok<sup>c</sup> and Sofía Chulze<sup>a,b</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Department of Microbiology and Immunology, Faculty of Physical–Chemical and Natural Sciences, National University of Rio Cuarto, Cordoba, Argentina; <sup>b</sup>National Research Council from Argentina (CONICET), Cordoba, Argentina; <sup>c</sup>Center of Analytical Chemistry, Department IFA-Tulln, University of Natural Resources and Life Sciences Vienna (BOKU), Tulln, Austria

#### ABSTRACT

The effect of water activity ( $a_w = 0.95$ , 0.98 and 0.995), temperature (15, 25 and 30°C), incubation time (7, 14, 21 and 28 days), and their interactions on growth and moniliformin (MON), beauvericin (BEA), fusaproliferin (FUS) and fumonisin B1 (FB1) production by two strains of Fusarium temperatum isolated from Argentinean maize were determined in vitro on sterile layers of maize grains. The results showed that there was a wide range of conditions for growth and mycotoxins production by F. temperatum. Both strains were found to grow faster with increasing  $a_w$  and at 30°C. In relation to mycotoxin production, the two strains produced more FUS than the other mycotoxins regardless of  $a_{\rm W}$  or temperature evaluated (maximum = 50 000 µg g<sup>-1</sup>). For FUS, MON and BEA, the maximum levels were observed at 0.98  $a_{
m w}$  and 30°C (50 000, 5000 and 2000  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup> respectively). The lowest levels for these three mycotoxins were detected at 15°C and 0.95  $a_w$ (1700 and 100  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup> for FUS and MON respectively), and at 0.98  $a_w$  (400  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup> for BEA). The maximum levels of FB<sub>1</sub> were produced at 15°C and 0.98  $a_w$  (1000 µg g<sup>-1</sup>). At all  $a_w$  and temperatures combinations evaluated there was an increase in toxin concentrations with time incubation. The maximum levels were detected at 21 days. Statistical analyses of  $a_{w}$ , temperature, incubation time, and the two- and three-way interactions between them showed significant effects on mycotoxins production by F. temperatum. For its versatility on growth and mycotoxin production, F. temperatum represents a toxicological risk for maize in the field and also during grain storage.

#### **ARTICLE HISTORY**

Received 31 July 2015 Accepted 7 October 2015

#### **KEYWORDS**

*Fusarium temperatum;* ecophysiology; fumonisin; moniliformin; beauvericin; fusaproliferin; maize

#### Introduction

Maize (*Zea mays* L.) is one of the most important cereal crops in human and animal diets worldwide, and it is a dietary staple, making up the primary portion of calories consumed in many countries (FAO 2011). Aside from providing nutrients for humans and animals, maize serves as a basic raw material for the production of starch, oil, protein, alcoholic beverages, food sweeteners and fuel. Recent reports indicate that this crop is at the centre of global food security as it may become a critical risk if major producers/exporters of maize worldwide are unable to cover expected demands in other parts of the world due to plant diseases (Wu & Guclu 2012).

The FAO estimates that in 2012 the total world production of maize was 880 million tons (FAO 2012), with the United States, China, Brazil and Argentina harvesting 31%, 24%, 8% and 3% of the total production, respectively. Argentina is the second world exporter after the United States. In particular, it exports maize to many countries all over the world,

particularly in Europe, Asia, Africa, America and the Middle East. Maize production currently represents 25% of the four major crops cultivated in Argentina. In 2012/13, Argentina increased its production by 26%, producing a supply of 25 million tons (USDA 2014).

The genus *Fusarium* includes several species that are important pathogens of maize and other cereals, causing root, stem and ear rot, with severe crop yield reduction of economic relevance. In addition, certain isolates are also capable of producing mycotoxins that can be accumulated in infected plants or in stored grains.

Worldwide, food supplies often contain unavoidable contaminants, such as mycotoxins, that adversely affect health and hence are subject to regulations of maximum tolerable levels in food. The estimated losses in maize attributable to the *Fusarium* mycotoxins in the United States alone are about US\$2900 million/year (Windels 2000). *Fusarium* species are the most prevalent pathogens of maize, and are widespread in all cereal-growing areas of the world, but there are some geographical differences in the natural distribution, as well as of their corresponding mycotoxins, which are influenced primarily by environmental conditions, crop production and storage methods (Doohan et al. 2003; Marín et al. 2004). The main *Fusarium* species isolated from maize are *F. verticillioides*, *F. proliferatum*, *F. subglutinans* and *F. temperatum*. They produce several types of mycotoxins depending on the species and the environmental conditions (Chulze et al. 2000; Battilani et al. 2011; Scauflaire et al. 2011; Fumero et al. 2015).

Fumonisins are long-chain polyhydroxyl alkylamines with two propane tricarboxilic acid moieties esterified to hydroxyls on adjacent carbons. There are four main groups in relation to the molecular structure of fumonisins, identified as fumonisins A, B, C and P. The fumonisin B (FB) analogues, comprising toxicologically important FB<sub>1</sub>, FB<sub>2</sub> and FB<sub>3</sub>, are the most abundant naturally occurring fumonisins, with FB<sub>1</sub> predominating and usually being found at the highest levels. Apart from the FB series, some of the other analogues may occur in naturally contaminated maize at relatively low levels (5% of the total fumonisins present) (CAST 2003). Fumonisins are produced by F. verticillioides, F. proliferatum, F. oxysporum, F. globosum and several other Fusarium species, and they are frequently found in corn and corn-based foods.  $FB_1$  is the most commonly found, not only in corn and corn-based foods but also in beer, rice, sorghum, triticale, cowpea seeds, beans, soybeans and asparagus. FB<sub>1</sub> can cause two diseases of farm animals: leucoencephalomalacia in horses and porcine pulmonary oedema. It is also carcinogenic, hepatotoxic, nephrotoxic and embryotoxic in laboratory animals. In humans, fumonisins are associated with oesophageal cancer and neural tube defects; the IARC designated  $FB_1$  in Group 2B as 'possibly carcinogenic to humans'. FB<sub>2</sub> and FB<sub>3</sub> are closely related metabolites that may co-occur in lower concentrations than FB<sub>1</sub> (Scott 2012). Disruption of lipid metabolism appears to be the underling mechanism by which fumonisin cause toxicity by inhibition of ceramide synthase, a key enzyme in the *de novo* sphingolipid biosynthesis pathway. The major biochemical and cellular consequences resulting from blockage of ceramide biosynthesis are the accumulation of sphingoid bases and the global disruption of lipid metabolism (Pitt et al. 2012). Since the principal *Fusarium* mycotoxins in maize are fumonisins, and they are of a great concern because of their multifaceted economic problems related to grain yield reduction or production unfit for sale, and reduced animal productivity due to health problems and human health costs, in Europe and the United States there are legislations that fix maximum tolerated level for total fumonisin in raw maize (4 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>), in maize derived food for direct human consumption (1 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>) and in animal feeds destined for pigs and horses (5 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>) (European Commission 2007).

*Fusarium* species are also responsible for the production of another group of bioactive compounds called 'emerging' or 'minor' mycotoxins. This group includes beauvericin (BEA), fusaproliferin (FUS) and moniliformin (MON). At present, little information is available about their presence in foods and feeds, and in commodities, but it is known that this group of mycotoxins has acute and chronic toxic effects on human and animal health, such as hepatotoxicity, teratogenicity, carcinogenicity, and reproductive and developmental toxicity (Jestoi 2008).

BEA is a cyclic lactone trimer containing an alternating sequence of three N-methyl L-phenylalanyl and three D-a-hydroxyisovaleryl residues. This toxin is a specific cholesterol acyltransferase inhibitor and can induce apoptosis and DNA fragmentation. Also, BEA increased intracellular calcium by increasing the formation of cation selective channels in the lipid membrane in a line of neuronal cells. The toxin affects the electromechanical and physiological properties of isolated smooth and heart muscle preparations and in in vitro assays BEA was toxic to several human cell lines (Jestoi 2008). Reynoso et al. (2004) reported the production of BEA by F. subglutinans and F. proliferatum isolated from maize in Argentina. Moretti et al. (2007) reported the production of BEA by F. bulbicola, F. denticulatum, F. lactis, F. phyllophilum, F. pseudocircinatum and F. succisae. Scauflaire et al. (2012) and Fumero et al. (2015) showed the production of BEA by F. temperatum isolated from maize in Belgium and Argentina, respectively.

FUS is a bicyclic sesterterpene consisting of five isoprenic units; is can form non-covalent interactions between single- and double-stranded DNA-oligonucleotides, which may explain its toxic and teratogenic effects (Jestoi 2008). Moretti et al. (2007) reported the production of FUS by *F. antophilum*, *F. begoniae*, *F. bulbicola*, *F. circinatum*, *F. concentricum*, *F. succisae* and *F. udum*. FUS is also produced by *F. subglutinans* and *F. temperatum* (Ritieni et al. 1995; Reynoso et al. 2004; Meca et al. 2010; Scauflaire et al. 2012; Fumero et al. 2015). It has been found to be toxic in the brine shrimp (*Artemia salina*) larvae bioassay and mammalian cells and it causes teratogenic effects on chicken embryos (Jestoi 2008).

MON is a sodium or potassium salt of 1-hydroxycyclobut-1-ene-3,4-dione. This toxin selectively inhibits mitochondrial pyruvate and α-ketoglutarate oxidations, thus preventing the entrance of pyruvate and a-ketoglutarate into the tricarboxylic acid cycle with consequent reduction of oxidative phosphorylation, i.e., ATP production. MON is produced at least by 30 Fusarium species, isolated from different substrates and geographical areas. In addition to F. proliferatum, the Fusarium species known to produce significant amounts of MON include F. avenaceum, F. fujikuroi, F. nygamai, F. pseudonygamai, F. subglutinans, F. verticillioides and F. thapsinum. MON is a highly toxic metabolite with acute toxicity to plants and extreme toxicity to various animal species. Clinical signs of MON toxicity observed in animals have been generally described as progressive muscular weakness, respiratory distress, cyanosis, coma followed by death (Jonsson et al. 2015). There is scarce information worldwide on the occurrence and contamination levels of these Fusarium metabolites in foods and feeds. F. temperatum has been reported as a producer of different mycotoxins, such as BEA, FUS, MON and FB<sub>1</sub>, but nothing has been considered about the range of environmental conditions that allow this species growth and accumulate these mycotoxins in maize grains. Is important to know the range of conditions over which this species can growth and produce mycotoxins to develop prevention and control strategies.

The objective of this study was to determine the impact of water activity and temperature on the colonisation and production of four different mycotoxins by two Argentinean strains of *F. temperatum* isolated from maize.

#### Materials and methods

#### Fungal strains

Two strains of *F. temperatum* isolated from Andean maize harvested in the Northwest (NOA) region of Argentina were used: *F. temperatum* Rio Cuarto, *F. temperatum* (RCFT) 903 and *F. temperatum* RCFT 912. These strains were demonstrated to be FUS, BEA and fumonisin producers by Fumero et al. (2015). Monosporic cultures were cryopreserved in sterile 15% glycerol (Leslie & Summerell 2006). Strains were maintained in the culture collection at the Department of Microbiology and Immunology, National University of Rio Cuarto (UNRC), as RCFT corresponding to *F. temperatum*.

#### Growth substrate

The strains were grown on irradiated maize grains (12 kGy) adjusted to three different water activities

 $(a_{\rm w})$  adding different volumes of sterile water calculated from a moisture absorption curve for the maize. The maize was equilibrated at 4°C for 72 h and the final  $a_{\rm w}$  levels of each treatment (0.950, 0.980 and 0.995) were confirmed using an Aqualab Series 3.

#### Inoculation and growth conditions

A 3-mm-diameter agar disk from the margin of a 7-dayold growing colony of each strain of *F. temperatum* grown on Spezieller Nährstoffarmer Agar medium was used to inoculate centrally the Petri dishes with the maize grains. Maize grains with different  $a_w$ 's (0.95, 0.98 and 0.995) were incubated at temperatures of 15°C, 25°C or 30°C for different incubation periods (7, 14, 21 and 28 days), and radial growth of the colonies was measured daily by taking two diameters at right angles to each other until the colony covered all the plate (10 cm). The diameters (mm) of the colonies were plotted against time (days), and a linear regression was applied to obtain the growth rate (mm day<sup>-1</sup>) as the slope of the line. The experiment had three replicates per treatment.

#### Mycotoxin profiles

Three replicates per treatment were destructively sampled after 7, 14, 21 and 28 days, dried in a forced draft oven at 60°C for 2 h, and finely ground and stored at 4°C until the analyses. Samples were analysed for multiple mycotoxins including MON, FUS, BEA and FB<sub>1</sub>. For the extraction, a volume of 20 ml of extraction solvent (acetonitrile/water/acetic acid 79:20:1 v/v/v) was added to 5 g of ground substrate and homogenised for 30 min in a rotatory shaker at 150 rpm. The samples were then filtered through Whatman No. 4 filter paper, and an aliquot of 2 ml was transferred into glass vials and the extraction solvent was evaporated totally under N<sub>2</sub> flow. The dried samples were resuspended in 1 ml of methanol and analysed by liquid chromatography with electrospray ionisation triple quadrupole mass spectrometry (LC/ESI-MS/MS) according to Malachováa et al. (2014). The experiment was done with three replicates per treatment.

#### Statistical analysis

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) test was performed to determine the significance of the effect of each factor and the interactions among them, on the variables analysed, using the software Infostat, with p < 0.05. Infostat was also used to determine the growth rates by linear regression. Contour maps and threedimensional graphics were done using the software Sigmaplot 10.0.

#### Results

#### Effect of water activity and temperature on growth

An ANOVA was separately performed to analyse the effect of the single factors considered in the study (strain, water activity, temperature and incubation time) on growth rate, as well as two- and three-way interactions. All these factors, excluding strain, and their interactions significantly affected growth (Table 1). Figure 1 shows the radial extension rates (mm day<sup>-1</sup>) of *F. temperatum* RCFT 912 at the different  $a_w$ 's and temperatures evaluated. Comparison between the two strains showed no differences in growth rates at all  $a_w$ 's and temperatures

**Table 1.** Analysis of variance (ANOVA) on the effects of strains, water activity  $(a_w)$ , temperature (T°) and incubation time, and their interactions on growth of *Fusarium temperatum* on irradiated maize grains.

Source of variation	SS	d.f.	MS	F	Р
Strain	112.04	1	112.04	0.19	0.6656
a <sub>w</sub>	14 850.67	2	7425.33	854.15	< 0.0001 <sup>a</sup>
T°	24 356.89	2	12 178.45	1400.91	< 0.0001 <sup>a</sup>
Incubation time	53 396.99	10	5339.70	614.24	< 0.0001 <sup>a</sup>
a <sub>w</sub> ∗ T°	2115.01	4	528.75	60.82	< 0.0001 <sup>a</sup>
a <sub>w</sub> * Incubation time	8064.23	20	403.21	46.38	< 0.0001 <sup>a</sup>
T° * Incubation time	12 472.58	20	623.63	71.74	< 0.0001 <sup>a</sup>
$a_w * T^\circ *$ Incubation	1198.82	40	29.97	3.45	< 0.0001 <sup>a</sup>
time					
Residual	860.63	99	8.69		
Total	117 315.82	197			

Notes: <sup>a</sup>The factor had a significant effect (p < 0.05) according to the ANOVA test.

SS, sum of squares; d.f., degrees of freedom; MS: mean squares, F, F-value; P, p-value.



**Figure 1.** *Fusarium temperatum* RCFT 912 growth rates on irradiated maize grains adjusted to different water activities and growing at three different temperatures. Different letters indicates significant differences (Tukey test, p < 0.05).



**Figure 2.** Two-dimensional contour map of growth profile of *Fusarium temperatum* RCFT 912 in relation to temperature and water activity. Numbers on the isopleths refer to similar growth rates (mm day<sup>-1</sup>).

evaluated. Temperature affected growth, being the radial extension rates higher at  $25^{\circ}$ C/30°C than at 15°C. For both strains, optimal growth conditions were 0.980/0.995  $a_w$  and  $25^{\circ}/30^{\circ}$ C. At 0.950  $a_w$ , both strains were unable to grow at 15°C, but they could grow at 25 and 30°C. At this low  $a_w$  the three temperatures showed significantly different growth rates ( $15^{\circ} < 25^{\circ} < 30^{\circ}$ ). The two-dimensional contour map on the effect of  $a_w$  and temperature on the growth of *F. temperatum* RCFT 912 shows the conditions under which equivalent growth rates occurred under different environmental conditions (Figure 2).

#### Effect of water activity and temperature on mycotoxins production

Figure 3 shows the surface response curves for MON, BEA, FUS and FB<sub>1</sub> produced at 15, 25 and 30°C over 28 days of incubation time. The results of this study showed that the time course of production of the toxins evaluated varied with T° and  $a_w$ . Statistically, the effects of  $a_w$ , T° and incubation time and their interactions were found to be significant, in contrast with the effect of the strain, which was not significant (Table 2). Figure 3 shows that there was an increase in the production of the four toxins with incubation time. The maximum production was reached at 21/28 days, depending on the toxin, and the two strains produced



**Figure 3.** Mycotoxin concentrations ( $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup>) produced by *Fusarium temperatum* RCFT 912 inoculated on irradiated maize grains adjusted at different  $a_w$  levels and incubated at 15, 25 and 30°C for 28 days.

more FUS than the other toxins regardless of  $a_w$  or temperature. In general, the maximum toxin levels were produced at the optimal conditions for *F*.

*temperatum* growth, except for FB<sub>1</sub>, for which the maximum level was detected at 15°C and 0.98  $a_w$ . However, in suboptimal conditions for growth, there

	MON		BEA		FP		FB <sub>1</sub>	
Source of variation	F	р	F	р	F	р	F	р
Strain	0.04	0.8358	0.01	0.9372	1.99	0.1596	2.89	0.0905
a <sub>w</sub>	3.99	0.0202 <sup>a</sup>	1.43	0.2411	2.01	0.1370	66.78	0.0001 <sup>a</sup>
Incubation T°	32.19	0.0001 <sup>a</sup>	5.17	0.0065 <sup>a</sup>	16.59	0.0001 <sup>a</sup>	64.17	0.0001 <sup>a</sup>
Incubation time	9.83	0.0001 <sup>a</sup>	4.11	0.0075 <sup>a</sup>	4.98	0.0024 <sup>a</sup>	15.05	0.0001 <sup>a</sup>
$a_{\rm w}$ * Incubation T°	3.17	0.0150 <sup>a</sup>	1.48	0.2101	1.89	0.1145	33.55	0.0001 <sup>a</sup>
$a_{\rm w}$ * Incubation time	4.13	0.0007 <sup>a</sup>	2.13	0.0519	2.52	0.0231 <sup>a</sup>	34.96	0.0001 <sup>a</sup>
Incubation T° * Incubation time	3.99	0.0009 <sup>a</sup>	1.87	0.0882	2.06	0.0606	35.45	0.0001 <sup>a</sup>
$a_{\rm w}$ * Incubation T° * Incubation time	3.19	0.0004 <sup>a</sup>	1.46	0.1422	2.38	0.0070 <sup>a</sup>	63.08	0.0001 <sup>a</sup>

Table 2. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) on the effects of water activity, temperature and incubation time on four mycotoxin production by *Fusarium temperatum* RCFT 912 inoculated on irradiated maize grains.

Notes: <sup>a</sup>The factor had a significant effect (p < 0.05), according to the ANOVA test.

BEA, beauvericin; FB<sub>1</sub>, fumonisin B<sub>1</sub>; FP, fusaproliferin; MON, moniliformin.

was also high production of BEA (0.95  $a_w$  and 25°C), FUS and MON (0.95  $a_w$  and 30°C).

The highest level of MON (7000 µg g<sup>-1</sup>) was observed at 0.98  $a_w$  and 30°C after 28 days of incubation; as  $a_w$  was reduced, MON production declined. Production was lower at 15°C than at 25°C regardless of  $a_w$ , and it generally increased with incubation time to 28 days. At 15°C, MON was produced only at 0.995  $a_w$  by *F. temperatum*.

The highest level of BEA (1800 µg g<sup>-1</sup>) was obtained at 0.98  $a_w$  and 30°C after 28 days of incubation, and at this temperature while  $a_w$  was reduced BEA production declined. At 15 and 25°C there were highest BEA levels at 0.95  $a_w$  and increased with temperature. At 15 and 25° C there were also a second maximum of toxin production at 0.98  $a_w$ .

FUS reached the highest levels growing on irradiated maize grains in comparison with the other toxins; the range of production ranged from 1700 to 50 000  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup>. The highest level was obtained at 0.98  $a_w$  and 30°C after 28 days of incubation. The production at 15°C was lower than at 25°C and increased with the incubation time to 28 days. At 15 and 25°C the maximum levels were reached at 0.995  $a_w$ . For this toxin there were also peaks of high production at conditions suboptimal for growth: at 0.95  $a_w$  and 30°C, and at 0.995  $a_w$  and 15°C.

The highest FB<sub>1</sub> level (1000  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup>) was obtained at 0.98  $a_w$  and 15°C after 21 days of incubation. At this stressful condition for growth, there was another peak of high production at 0.95  $a_w$  (800  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup>). This level overcomes the maximum levels reached at 25°C (300  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup>) and 30°C (400  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup>), both at 0.98  $a_w$ .

# Impact of water activity and temperature on mycotoxin profiles

Figure 4 shows the two-dimensional contour plots relating  $a_w$  and temperature and their influence on toxin production by *F. temperatum*. This provides a profile of the combined impact of these abiotic factors on mycotoxin production. Both strains of *F.* 

*temperatum* evaluated produced the higher levels of MON and FUS at 30°C, but at 0.98  $a_w$  and 0.995  $a_w$  respectively. BEA showed the maximum level at 0.995 and 25°C. Finally, FB<sub>1</sub> was the unique toxin with the maximum levels produced at 15°C and 0.98  $a_w$ .

#### Analysis of mycotoxin levels on stress conditions

The results showed that some environmental conditions produced lower growth rates for *F. temperatum*; these stress conditions also produced increased toxin production. Figure 1 shows the growth rates of *F. temperatum*; Table 3 shows the stress conditions for growth in which mycotoxins were produced in high levels.

The results of mycotoxin production under stress conditions for fungal growth showed that BEA and FB<sub>1</sub> were detected at high levels at 15°C and 0.95  $a_w$ , regardless of the lower growth rate. BEA was also produced at high levels at the lowest  $a_w$  and 25 and 30°C, conditions where the strain had half the maximum growth rate. BEA production could be associated with low water activity stress. FB<sub>1</sub> was also produced at 15°C and 0.98  $a_w$ , this condition being where the maximum level of toxin was produced. Meanwhile, FUS and MON were produced at high levels at 0.995  $a_w$  and 15°C when the growth rate was half the maximum rate.

#### Discussion

Currently, over 5 billion people worldwide are at risk of chronic exposure to mycotoxin in food, maize being one of the main sources of human exposure to mycotoxins because it is both highly consumed worldwide and is one of the most susceptible crops to *Fusarium* contamination (Wu & Guclu 2010). A knowledge of the ecophysiology of *Fusarium* species and their behaviour under different environmental conditions will permit the prediction of the potential risk of mycotoxins contamination.



**Figure 4.** Two-dimensional contour maps of MON, BEA, FUS and FB<sub>1</sub> production at 21 days by *Fusarium temperatum* RCFT 912 in relation to temperature and water activity. Numbers on the isopleths refer to toxin levels ( $\mu q q^{-1}$ ).

The effect of environmental conditions on growth and toxin production by *F. temperatum* has not been previously studied in-depth. In the present study, *F. temperatum* strains reached a maximum growth rate at values higher than 22°C, reflecting the local climatic conditions of the regions of isolation of this species. Castellá et al. (1999) showed that the close related species *F. subglutinans* grew optimally at 20–25°C on maize culture media. In concordance with the results

 Table 3. Toxin levels produced under stress conditions for fungal growth.

	0.95			0.98			0.995		
	15°C	25°C	30°C	15°C	25°C	30°C	15°C	25°C	30°C
BEA	+	+++	++						
$FB_1$	+			++					
FP							+		
MON							+		

Note: Shown is the presence of significant levels of each toxin in the stress condition assayed: +, a minor level; ++, an intermediate level; and +++, a higher level of the toxin.

BEA beauvericin, FB<sub>1</sub> fumonisin B<sub>1</sub>, FP, fusaproliferin, MON moniliformin.

observed for other *Fusarium* species, *F. temperatum* showed the lowest growth rates at 15°C and 0.95  $a_w$ . Previous studies used a unique set of conditions (25°C and 40% humidity) to examine the general toxin profile of *F. temperatum*, and production of FUS, BEA, MON and FB<sub>1</sub> was reported (Scauflaire et al. 2012; Stępien et al. 2013; Fumero et al. 2015). In the present study we observed that 25°C and 40% humidity were not necessarily the best conditions for toxin production.

Major factors affecting the risk of *Fusarium* infection and subsequent mycotoxin contamination are temperature, insect injury, drought stress and water activity (Bush et al. 2004; Wu et al. 2011). At present there is special interest in the infection of maize grains during ripening, post-harvest and storage by *Fusarium* because of their ability to produce several mycotoxins during these crop stages. The ranges of  $a_w$  and temperatures used in the present study simulate those occurring in ripening grain and harvest stage (RH = 19–30%;  $a_w = 0.95-0.995$ ). Fumonisins are the most studied mycotoxins produced

by Fusarium in maize. Evidence from several sources indicates that drought stress is associated with elevated levels of F. verticillioides infection and fumonisin accumulation in grain (Miller 2001), and it is known that dry periods before or during the grain ripening favour more severe Fusarium ear rot and higher levels of fumonisins (Doohan et al. 2003). Low water activity (0.98  $a_w$ ) has been proposed to be the more frequent for the  $FB_1$ production by the two main maize and wheat pathogens species, F. verticillioides and F. proliferatum (Marín et al. 2004; Cendova et al. 2014), in agreement with our findings with F. temperatum. F. temperatum produced similar amounts of FB<sub>1</sub> (250  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup> at 0.98  $a_w$  and 25°C) compared with F. verticillioides growing in maize grain (300 µg g<sup>-1</sup> at 0.98  $a_w$  and 25°C), but at a lower level than the main producer F. proliferatum in maize (2000  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup> at 0.98  $a_w$  and 25°C) (Marín et al. 1999). Otherwise, for the main maize pathogen species, F. verti*cillioides*, it was reported that the optimal condition for FB<sub>1</sub> production was 30°C and 0.97 *a*<sub>w</sub>, but for *F. proliferatum* the best conditions were 15°C and 0.97  $a_w$  (Marín et al. 1999, 2004; Cendoya et al. 2014). F. temperatum produced the maximum levels of FB1 in conditions of low water activity and temperature, 0.98  $a_w$  and 15°C (1000  $\mu g g^{-1}$ ). In all conditions evaluated, there was an inverse relation between growth and FB<sub>1</sub> production by F. temperatum, showing the maximum level at 0.98  $a_w$ and 15°C (1000  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup>) when the growth rate was lower than the optimum growth rate  $(2.5 \text{ mm day}^{-1})$ .

*F. temperatum* was reported to be a producer of emerging toxins (Scauflaire et al. 2012; Stępien et al. 2013; Fumero et al. 2015). Recently, increased importance has been given to the investigation of these mycotoxins in cereals because of their toxic effects on plants and animals (Jestoi 2008). The present work provides the first detailed study of the influence of  $a_w$ , temperature and incubation time on the emerging mycotoxin production by *F. temperatum* growing on maize grains.

The natural occurrence of BEA in grains is common worldwide with concentrations ranging from trace levels up to 520  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup>; BEA has been found as a natural contaminant of maize harvested in the United States, South Africa and European countries such as Poland, Italy, Switzerland and Slovakia (Jestoi 2008). BEA was recently reported to occur at concentrations of tens of mg kg<sup>-1</sup> in Southern Europe and Morocco (maximum concentration of 59 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> in maize from Morocco) (Santini et al. 2012). Meca et al. (2010) reported contamination of cereals available on the Spanish market with BEA and levels varied from 0.5 to 20  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup>. In the same studies, however, FUS showed an occasional occurrence up to 19.6 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> in Morocco, while its natural occurrence in cooler climates seems to be more rare (Meca et al. 2010; Santini et al.

2012). In relation to the presence of this toxin in natural samples, FUS has been determined in maize samples in concentrations up to 500  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup> (Ritieni et al. 1997; Pascale et al. 1999). In another study from the United States, Munkvold et al. (1998) reported high contamination levels of animal feeds with FUS, with levels up to 30  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup>. MON has been reported as a natural contaminant in maize and other raw cereals (rice, oats, rye, wheat, barley and triticale), and in food and feed, but MON contamination is higher in maize. The presence of MON has been recently studied in Europe, where 23 different cereal samples were analysed for their MON content (Walburga von Bargen et al. 2012). Twenty of them showed positive results with levels up to 126  $\mu$ g kg<sup>-1</sup>. In another study in Europe, MON was detected in 52% of 50 poultry feed samples from Slovakia at concentrations from 42 to 1214  $\mu g kg^{-1}$ (Labuda et al. 2005).

On the basis of our results, the production of BEA by *F. temperatum* could be expected to occur at relatively high humidity and hot conditions because the greatest amounts of this toxin (2000  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup>) were observed at 30°C and 0.98–0.995  $a_w$ .

The present study also showed that FUS was the principal toxin produced by *F. temperatum*. The maximum amount reached 100 mg g<sup>-1</sup> and it was observed at 30°C and 0.98  $a_w$ . In comparison with data about the production of FUS by the related species *F. subglutinans*, the maximum production of FUS in maize by this species reached 4309 µg g<sup>-1</sup> at 20°C for 6 weeks, and the production at 30°C was low, with a maximum level of 979 µg g<sup>-1</sup> after 2 weeks (Castellá et al. 1999).

The present study showed the production of MON by F. temperatum isolated from maize in Argentina. This species produced the highest level of MON of 5000 µg g<sup>-1</sup> at 30°C and 0.98  $a_{\rm w}$ , and the production increased with temperature and incubation time. In agreement with our results, the close related species F. subglutinans produced MON at warmer temperatures (25-30°C) growing on maize grains (Kostecki et al. 1999; Schutt 2001). The natural occurrence of MON has been studied more intensively than FUS and BEA because of its higher acute toxicity compared with the other emerging mycotoxins. Levels up to 425  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup> have been detected in visually contaminated maize samples (Jestoi 2008). The natural occurrence of MON in various matrices has been reported, detected in maize and maize-derived feeds in levels ranging from 50 to 425 000  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup>, in Europe, Africa, China and the United States. The maximum level of MON recorded in maize (530 000 µg kg<sup>-1</sup>) was detected in Fusariumdamaged maize in Poland. More than 300 000  $\mu$ g kg<sup>-1</sup> was found in hand-selected, visibly infected kernels from Poland, and up to 25 000 µg kg<sup>-1</sup> in hand-selected kernels from South Africa (Jestoi 2008). In all these cases, the high

contamination was related to *F. subglutinans*, but before the description of *F. temperatum*. Scudamore et al. (1998) analysed maize gluten and milled maize products, destined for incorporation into animal feed stuffs in the UK, and showed that 60% of samples were contaminated with concentrations up to 4600  $\mu$ g kg<sup>-1</sup> of MON. For MON, the results of this study showed that the maximum production by *F. temperatum* is lower than the 50 000  $\mu$ g kg<sup>-1</sup> proposed as a maximum level in the diet of broiler chickens (Ledoux et al. 1995).

The existing mainly *in vitro* data on biological activity of FUS, BEA and MON clearly indicate the toxicity of these fungal metabolites. However, there is a lack of *in vivo* toxicity data. In particular, studies on the chronic effects of these mycotoxins are needed to assess their impact on human health. Because of the absence of international limits for emerging mycotoxins in foods, and due to their toxicological effects and the high contamination levels detected, special attention on occurrence is necessary and more research also is needed concerning fungal species and environmental factors responsible for their production in foods.

Data from two-dimensional profiles of  $a_w$  by temperature interactions obtained for F. temperatum allowed the identification of the areas where climate conditions could indicate a significant risk of mycotoxin accumulation on maize. It appears that when F. temperatum grows optimally, but also when it grows under stress conditions, mycotoxin levels could be higher. F. temperatum could represent a toxicological risk for maize in the field, during the maize pre-harvest stage and during the ripening stage, when the grains  $a_w$  is high (0.98–0.995), and when  $a_{\rm w}$  of the grains is intermediate (0.92–0.97) during the grain drying stage. This species also could represent a toxicological risk during storage if maize is poorly dried and grains have intermediate moisture contents ( $a_w =$ 0.92-0.97), because under this condition, colonisation and production of several mycotoxins could occur, reducing the grain quality and safety. Also, it is remarkable the toxicological risk for the possible interaction among the toxins detected.

To ensure future food security and safety, it is crucial to understand how environmental conditions and potential climate change scenarios could affect fungal infection of crops and mycotoxin production by *Fusarium s*pecies. Additionally, in the last years, climate change has been considered as an important factor that can affect food security and safety. The pathways through which climate-related factors may impact on food safety include changes in temperature and precipitation patterns, global temperature warming and precipitation, among others (Tirado et al. 2010). Such changes have an impact on growth and plant susceptibility, and microbial ecology and composition of *Fusarium* species that infect maize kernels, which, in turn, could alter the composition of mycotoxins contaminating infected kernels. Therefore, future efforts toward understanding the ecophysiology and the epidemiology of the infection by *F. temperatum* must focus on more precise relationships between environmental variables and specific components of the disease-cycle in maize. This could allow both short- and long-term planning of mycotoxin control and grain-marketing strategies that ensure safe food and feed supplies.

#### **Disclosure statement**

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

#### Funding

This study was supported by grants from CONICET [grant number PIP 112-201101-00297] and ANPCyT [grant number PICT 2012-1436]. Maria Veronica Fumero is a fellow from CONICET; Sofia Chulze is member of the Research Career from CONICET.

#### References

- Battilani P, Formenti S, Ramponi C, Rossi V. 2011. Dynamic of water activity in maize hybrids is crucial for fumonisin contamination in kernels. J Cereal Sci. 54:467–472.
- Bush B, Carson M, Cubeta M, Hagler W, Payne G. 2004. Infection and fumonisin production by *Fusarium verticillioides* in developing maize kernels. Phytopathology. 94:88–93.
- Castellá G, Munkvold G, Imerman P, Hyde W. 1999. Effects of temperature, incubation period and substrate on production of fusaproliferin by *Fusarium subglutinans* ITEM 2404. Nat Toxins. 7:129–132.
- Cendoya E, Farnochi MC, Chulze SN, Ramírez ML. 2014. Two-dimensional environmental profiles of growth and fumonisin production by *Fusarium proliferatum* on a wheat-based substrate. Int J Food Microbiol. 9:182–183.
- Chulze SN, Ramirez ML, Torres A, Leslie JF. 2000. Genetic variation in *Fusarium* section Liseola from no-till maize in Argentina. Appl Environ Microbiol. 66:5312–5315.
- [CAST] Council for Agricultural Science and Technology. 2003. Mycotoxins: risks in plant, animal and human systems, Task force report No. 139/January 2003. Ames (IA): Council for Agricultural Science and Technology.
- Doohan FM, Brennan J, Cooke BM. 2003. Influence of climatic factors on *Fusarium* species pathogenic to cereals. Eur J Plant Pathol. 109:755–768.
- European Commission. 2007. Commission Regulation (EC) No 1126/2007 of 26 September 2007 amending regulation (EC) No 1881/2006 setting maximum levels for certain contaminants in foodstuffs as regards *Fusarium* toxins in maize and maize products. Off J Eur Union L. 254:14–17.
- [FAO] Food and Agriculture Organization for the United Nations. 2011. Crop prospects and food situation, No. 3

[Internet]. Rome: FAO; [cited 2011 Oct]. Available from: http://www.fao.org/docrep/014/al980e/al980e00.pdf

- [FAO] Food and Agriculture Organization for the United Nations. 2012. FAOSTAT, production [Internet]. Rome: FAO [cited 2015 Mar 11]. Available from: http://faostat. fao.org/site/567/DesktopDefault.aspx?PageID=567#ancor
- Fumero MV, Reynoso MM, Chulze S. 2015. Fusarium temperatum and Fusarium subglutinans isolated from maize in Argentina. Int J Food Microbiol. 199:86–92.
- Jestoi M. 2008. Emerging *Fusarium* mycotoxins fusaproliferin, beauvericin, enniatins, and moniliformin, a review. Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr. 48:21–49.
- Jonsson M, Atosuo J, Jestoi M, Nathanail AV, Kokkonen U, Anttila M, Koivisto P, Lilius E, Peltonen K. 2015. Repeated dose 28-day oral toxicity study of moniliformin in rats. Toxicol Lett. 233:38–44.
- Kostecki M, Wisniewska H, Perrone G, Ritieni A, Golinski P, Chelkowski J, Logrieco A. 1999. The effects of cereal substrate and temperature on production of beauvericin, moniliformin and fusaproliferin by *Fusarium subglutinans* ITEM-1434. Food Addit Contam. 16:361–365.
- Labuda R, Parich A, Berthiller F, Tancinova D. 2005. Incidence of trichothecenes and zearalenone in poultry feed mixtures from Slovakia. Int J Food Microbiol. 105:19–25.
- Ledoux DR, Bermudez AJ, Rottinghaus GE, Broomhead J, Bennett GA. 1995. Effects of feeding *Fusarium fujikuroi* culture material, containing known levels of moniliformin, in young broiler chicks. Poult Sci. 74:297–305.
- Leslie JF, Summerell BA. 2006. The *Fusarium* laboratory manual. Ames (IA): Blackwell Professional.
- Malachováa A, Sulyok M, Beltrán E, Berthiller F, Krska R. 2014. Optimization and validation of a quantitative liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometric method covering 295 bacterial and fungal metabolites including all regulated mycotoxins in four model food matrices. J Chromatogr A. 1362:145–156.
- Marín S, Magan N, Ramos AJ, Sanchis V. 2004. Fumonisin producing strains of *Fusarium*: a review of their ecophysiology. J Food Prot. 61:1792–1805.
- Marín S, Magan N, Serra J, Ramos AJ, Canela R, Sanchis V. 1999. Fumonisin B<sub>1</sub> production and growth of *Fusarium* moniliforme and *Fusarium proliferatum* on maize, wheat, and barley grain. J Food Sci. 64:921–924.
- Meca G, Zinedine A, Blesa J, Font G, Mañes J. 2010. Further data on the presence of *Fusarium* emerging mycotoxins enniatins, fusaproliferin and beauvericin in cereals available on the Spanish markets. Food Chem Toxicol. 48:1412–1416.
- Miller JD. 2001. Factors that affect the occurrence of fumonisin. Environ Health Perspect. 109:321–324.
- Moretti A, Mulè G., Ritieni A., Logrieco A. 2007. Further data on the production of beauvericin, enniatins and fusaproliferin and toxicity to *Artemia salina* by *Fusarium* species of *Gibberella fujikuroi* species complex. Int J Food Microbiol. 118(2):158–163.
- Munkvold G, Stahr HM, Logrieco A, Moretti A, Ritieni A. 1998. Occurrence of fusaproliferin and beauvericin in *Fusarium*-contaminated livestock feed in Iowa. Appl Environ Microbiol. 64:3923–3926.
- Pascale M, Visconti A, Avantaggiato G, Pronczuk M, Chelkowski J. 1999. Mycotoxin contamination of maize hybrids after infection with *Fusarium proliferatum*. J Sci Food Agric. 79:2094–2098.

- Pitt JI, Wild CP, Baan RA, Gelderblom WCA, Miller JD, Riley RT, Wu F. 2012. Improving public health through mycotoxin control. Lyon: International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC); p. 151.
- Ritieni A, Fogliano V, Randazzo G, Scarallo A, Logrieco A, Moretti A, Mannina L, and Bottalico A. 1995. Isolation and characterization of fusaproliferin, a new toxic metabolite from *Fusarium proliferatum*. Nat Toxins. 3:17–20.
- Ritieni A, Moretti A, Logrieco A, Bottalico A, Randazzo G, Monti SM, Ferracane R, Fogliano V. 1997. Occurrence of fusaproliferin, fumonisin B<sub>1</sub> and beauvericin in maize from Italy. J Agric Food Chem. 45:4011–4016.
- Reynoso MM, Torres AM, Chulze SN. 2004. Fusaproliferin, beauvericin and fumonisin production by different mating populations among the *Gibberella fujikuroi* complex isolated from maize. Mycol Res. 108:154–160.
- Santini A, Meca G, Uhlig S, Ritieni A. 2012. Fusaproliferin, beauvericin and enniatins: occurrence in food – a review. World Mycotoxin J. 5:71–81.
- Scauflaire J, Gourgue M, Callebaut A, Munaut F. 2012. *Fusarium temperatum*, a mycotoxin-producing pathogen of maize. Eur J Plant Pathol. 133:911–922.
- Scauflaire J, Gourgue M, Munaut F. 2011. Fusarium temperatum sp. nov. from maize, an emergent species closely related to Fusarium subglutinans. Mycologia. 103:586–597.
- Schutt F. 2001. Monilifornim production of *Fusarium* species under defined conditions [PhD. Thesis]. Germany: Technical University of Berlin.
- Scott PM. 2012. Recent research on fumonisins: a review. Food Addit Contam: Part A. 29:242-248.
- Scudamore KA, Nawaz S, Hetmanski MT. 1998. Mycotoxins in ingredients of animal feeding stuffs. Determination of mycotoxins in maize and maize products. Food Addit Contam. 15:30–55.
- Stępien L, Koczyk G, Waskiewicz A. 2013. Diversity of *Fusarium* species and mycotoxins contaminating pineapple. J Appl Genet. 54:367–380.
- Tirado MC, Clarke R, Jaykus LA, McQuatters-Gollop A, Frank JM. 2010. Climate change and food safety: a review. Food Res Int. 43:1745–1765.
- [USDA] United States Department of Agriculture. 2014. Economic research service [Internet]. Corn Trade [cited 2015 Mar 8]. Available from: http://www.ers.usda.gov/topics/crops/ corn.aspx
- Walburga von Bargen K, Lohrey L, Cramer B, Humpf H. 2012. Analysis of the *Fusarium* mycotoxin moniliformin in cereal samples using <sup>13</sup>C and high-resolution mass spectrometry. J Agric Food Chem. 60:3586–3591.
- Windels CE. 2000. Economic and social impacts of Fusarium head blight: changing farms and rural communities in the Northern great plains. Phytopathology. 90:17–21.
- Wu F, Bhatnagar D, Bui-Klimke T, Carbone I, Richard L, Hellmich L, Munkvold G, Paul P, Payne G, Takle EG. 2011. Climate change impacts on mycotoxin risks in US maize. World Mycotoxin J. 4:79–93.
- Wu F, Guclu H. 2010. Global maize trade and food security: implications from a social network model. Risk Anal. doi:10.1111/risa.12064
- Wu F, Guclu H. 2012. Aflatoxin regulations in a network of global maize trade. PLoS One. doi:10.1371/journal. pone.0045151