Efficacy of *Kleinia odora* Essential Oil on *Aspergillus flavus* Link Ex Fries Growth and Aflatoxin B1 Production

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Aflatoxin contamination in food products continues to be one of the most important food safety concerns worldwide. Aspergillus flavus and A. parasiticus are the primary producers of aflatoxins. Among the different aflatoxin types aflatoxin B1 (AFB1) is the most harmful foodborne mycotoxin. In this study, essential oil (EO) was extracted from *Kleinia odora* and its effect on A. flavus growth and AFB1 production was evaluated under *in vitro* condition. K. odora EO (KOEO) effectively suppressed A. flavus growth which resulted in a 43.1% reduction in mycelial weight over the control at a dose of 100 μ L/50 mL of medium. The KOEO suppressed the toxin production by A. flavus in a dose-dependent manner and suppressed AFB1 production up to 93.7% at the concentration of 100 μ L/50 mL as determined by liquid chromatographymass spectrometry analysis. The chemical analysis of KOEO by gas chromatographymass spectrometry showed the presence of ledol (21.0%), caryophyllene (12.0%), gamma-curcumene (10.2%), 4(10)-thujene (9.9%) and D-limonene (7.6) as major constituents. These compounds have been demonstrated to have a wide range of biological properties including antimicrobial activity. These results suggest that KOEO has huge potential to be used as a bio-preservative to suppress A. flavus growth and to minimize aflatoxin contamination in food products.

Keywords: Mycotoxin; Aspergillus flavus; plant products; medicinal herb; antifungal activity

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Aspergillus flavus Link ex Fries and A. parasiticus Speare belonging to Aspergillus section Flavi are ubiquitous fungi that colonize a wide variety of agricultural commodities including corn, peanut, tree nuts, and chillies under favourable conditions [1]. The temperature and humidity in storage, and the moisture content of the substrate determine the growth of Aspergillus spp. [2, 3]. During their growth, toxigenic strains of A. flavus and A. parasiticus produce toxins known as "aflatoxins" as secondary metabolites secreted via exocytosis. Aflatoxins are lowmolecular-weight compounds and have carcinogenic, mutagenic, teratogenic and immunosuppressive properties. More than 20 different aflatoxin types and derivatives have been characterized; among them aflatoxin B1 (AFB1; C₁₇H₁₂O₆; MW 312.063), aflatoxin B2 (AFB2; C17H14O6; MW 314.079), aflatoxin G1 (AFG1; C17H12O7; MW 328.27) and aflatoxin G2 (AFG2; C₁₇H₁₄O₇; MW 330.29) which are often found in agricultural commodities [4,5]. On the basis of their chemical nature, aflatoxins are difurocoumarocyclopentenones grouped into (aflatoxin B-types and their derivatives) and

difurocoumaro-lactones (aflatoxin G-types and their derivatives). The

alphabetical letters (B or G) indicate whether the fluorescence is blue (B) or green (G) when exposed to UV light, while the numbers (1 or 2) indicate its chromatographic mobility [6]. *A. flavus* produces Btype aflatoxins (AFB1 and AFB2), whereas, *A. parasiticus* produces both B- and G-type aflatoxins (AFB1, AFB2, AFG1 and AFG2) [7, 8]. Among them, AFB1 is recognized as one of the most potent liver carcinogens to humans. In humans, AFB1-exo-8,9epoxide, which is formed by the activity of cytochrome P450 enzymes on AFB1, binds to DNA and protein molecules and induces mutation, and causes oxidative damage to various macromolecules. By virtue of its toxicity, AFB1 has been categorized into Group 1 human carcinogens [9].

Aflatoxins are highly stable molecules in nature. Raters and Matissek [10] while studying the effect of heat on AFB1 reported 70% degradation of AFB1 at 150°C and 100% degradation at 180°C. Therefore, removal/degradation of aflatoxin from food products is extremely difficult by usual cooking

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processes. Some plant products [11-15] and microorganisms [16-18] have been reported to reduce aflatoxigenic

fungal infection and colonization on agricultural commodities, and aflatoxin production. For example, Safari et al. [12] showed that *Trachyspermum ammi*, Peganum harmala, and Heracleum persicum plant extracts totally prevented AFB1 production by A. flavus, without inducing significant changes in its growth. Further, the plant extracts down-regulated the expression of aflR, aflM, and aflP genes which are involved in the AFB1 biosynthesis. Several authors reported the antifungal properties of essential oils extracted from plants such as Anethum graveolens [19], Melaleuca cajeputi [20], Pimenta dioica [21], Thymus eriocalyx [22], Cymbopogon citratus [23], and Zataria multiflora [24, 25] against A. flavus. In addition, essential oils derived from Heliotropium bacciferum, Ocimum dhofarense and Zataria multiflora have been shown to detoxify AFB1 [13]. In the course of a search for biological detoxifying agents of aflatoxin B1, we found that the aqueous extract of Kleinia odora (Forssk.) DC. (Asteraceae) was capable of degrading AFB1 after incubation at 37°C for 72 h (Velazhahan et al. un-published). K. odora, a flowering medicinal herb with a succulent stem, is commonly distributed in Oman. This plant is reported to contain triterpenoids [26, 27] and essential oil [28]. Antimicrobial [28], antiprotozoal [26] and antiinflammatory [29] activities of K. odora have been documented. In this study, the EO was extracted from K. odora and its effect on the growth and AFB1 production by a toxigenic strain of A. flavus was evaluated.

EXPERIMENTAL

Plant Material

The medicinal plant *Kleinia odora* (Forssk.) DC (Asteraceae) (Accession number 201000077) was collected from the plant nursery at the Oman Botanic Garden (OBG), Muscat, Sultanate of Oman, and stored at 4° C before use.

Aspergillus Flavus

Aflatoxin B1-producing strain of *Aspergillus flavus* STR10 (GenBank accession number OL437469) isolated from the diseased strawberry fruit [30] was obtained from the Department of Plant Sciences (Sultan Qaboos University) and used in this study. The fungal culture was maintained on potato dextrose agar (PDA; Oxoid, UK) slants at 4 °C.

Essential Oil Extraction

The fresh aerial parts of *K. odora* (1 kg) were washed thoroughly in running tap water and transferred to a glass reactor and 5.5 l of distilled water was added and the EO was extracted by using a microwave-assisted solvent extraction system (ETHOS X; Milestone Inc.,

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Shelton, CT, USA) [13]. The EO was stored in opaque screw-capped glass vials at -20 °C until required.

Chemical Analysis of K. Odora Essential Oil

The chemical constituents of *K. odora* EO were analyzed by gas chromatography-mass spectrometry as described by Al-Harrasi et al. [13] using a Shimadzu GC-2010 Plus gas chromatograph, lined with a GCMS- QP2010 ULTRA MS (Shimadzu Corporation, Kyoto, Japan). The GC-MS system was equipped with a Rtx-5MS capillary column (30 m \times 0.25 mm; 0.25 µm). The mass spectrum libraries viz., NIST 2011 Version 2.3 and Wiley 9th edition were used to identify the compounds. The chemical constituents of the EO were confirmed using Kovat's indices (KI).

Antifungal Activity of K. Odora Essential Oil

The antifungal activity of K. odora EO against A. flavus was tested using the standard poisoned food technique [31]. Fifty mL of SMKY liquid media (120 g sucrose, 0.3 g MgSO₄, 0.18 KNO₃, 4.2 g yeast to 600 mL of distilled water) in 250 conical flasks was amended with different concentrations of KOEO (10, 50,100 μ L) diluted into 500 μ L of ethanol. The liquid medium added with 500 µL of ethanol served as control. To prepare spore suspensions, 10 mL of sterile distilled water was added to a 7-day-old A. flavus culture grown on a 90 mm diameter PDA plate, and the spores were harvested by gently scraping the surface using a cell scraper. The concentration of the spores was determined using a hemocytometer and 500 μ L of the spore suspension (6×10⁷ spores mL⁻¹) was added to each flask and the inoculated flasks were kept at room temperature (25±2 °C). After 10 days of incubation, the contents of the flasks were filtered using a pre-weighed Whatman No.1 filter paper, and the filter paper containing the fungus was dried in an oven at 100 °C. The dry weight of the fungus was recorded when the weight was constant. All tests were performed in triplicate.

Anti-aflatoxigenic Potential of K. Odora Essential Oil

AFB1 content in the culture filtrate of A. flavus was analyzed by liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry. In a 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tube, 500 μ L of culture filtrate was taken and mixed with 500 μ L of chloroform by vortexing. The tubes were centrifuged at 14000 rpm at 5 °C for 2 min. The chloroform fraction was collected in a new microcentrifuge tube and kept in a water bath at 60 °C until completely dry. The residue was dissolved in methanol and analyzed using an Agilent 6460 Triple Ouadrupole liquid chromatography/mass spectrometry system (Agilent Technologies Inc., CA, USA). Chromato- graphic separations were performed with Symmetry C8 5 μ m, 3 mm \times 150 mm column

(Waters) following the MS parameters described by Al-Owaisi et al. [32]. Data acquisition and processing were carried out using the Agilent MassHunter workstation and Agilent Mass- Hunter qualitative analysis software, respectively.

Statistical Analysis

The data obtained for *A. flavus* mycelial dry weight and AFB1 content were subjected to analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Duncan's Multiple Range Test (DMRT) at the 5% level was used for comparison of mean values (SAS v8; SAS Institute, NC, USA).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The essential oil was extracted from the aerial parts of K. odora by microwave extraction method and its yield was 0.03%. The KOEO significantly inhibited the growth of A. flavus at the concentrations of 50 and 100 μ L/50 mL of liquid medium and recorded 10.6 and 43.1% reduction in mycelial weight over control, respectively (Table 1). The antifungal activity of EOs from other plant species against A. flavus has been reported [19,21,33,34]. Rahimi et al. [25] observed that Zataria multiflora essential oil effectively inhibited the growth of A. flavus, with a minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) of 100 ppm and minimum fungicidal concentration (MFC) of 400 ppm. Thanaboripat et al. [20] reported that Melaleuca cajeputi EO could completely inhibit the growth of A. flavus at a concentration of 25% (v/v) under in vitro conditions. Matasyoh et al. [23] documented the antifungal properties of Cymbopogon citratus EO against A. flavus, and they observed a MIC of 118 mg/ml. The lipophilic properties of EOs enable them to penetrate the cell walls of susceptible fungi, leading damage, leakage of cellular membrane to macromolecules and cytoplasm coagulation [35,36]. According to the findings of Gandomi et al. [24], the essential oil of Z. multiflora caused significant Efficacy of *Kleinia odora* Essential Oil on *Aspergillus flavus* Link Ex Fries Growth and Aflatoxin B1 Production

alterations in both morphology and structure of A. flavus. These changes included the loss of turgidity, cytoplasm vacuolization, and hyphae deformation. Tatsadjieu et al. [37] demonstrated that Lippia rugosa essential oil inhibited the growth of A. flavus and membrane H⁺-ATPase enzyme activity. Tian et al. [19] reported the antifungal activity of EO extracted from the seeds of Anethum graveolens on A. flavus. The disruption of plasma membrane permeability and accumulation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) in A. flavus due to mitochondrial dysfunction were reported as the mechanisms of antifungal action of A. graveolens EO on A. flavus [19]. Chaudhari et al. [21] demonstrated that Pimenta dioica EO caused a reduction in methylglyoxal and ergosterol content of A. *flavus* plasma membrane and enhanced leakage of cellular ions. The antifungal activity of KOEO against A. flavus could be attributed to the fungitoxic phytoconstituents that may be present in the essential oil.

It is evident from this study that KOEO suppressed the toxin production by A. flavus in a dosedependent manner and inhibited AFB1 production up to 93.7% at 100 µL/50 mL as determined by LC-MS analysis (Table 1). Restuccia et al. [38] observed that EOs extracted from *Citrus limon*, *C. bergamia*, and *C.* aurantium effectively impeded the growth of A. flavus and reduced AFB1 synthesis. Rammanee and Hongpattarakere [39] reported that EOs obtained from C. hystrix and C. aurantifolia exhibited inhibitory effects on the growth of A. flavus and A. parasiticus, resulting in a significant decrease in aflatoxin production. Specifically, C. aurantifolia EO, when used at a concentration of 2.25 mg/ml, completely inhibited the growth of A. flavus as well as its aflatoxin production. Furthermore, Gorran et al. [11] documented that EOs of Satureja khozistanica and Thymus daenensis as well as their ethanol extracts suppressed A. flavus growth and AFB1 production. The reduction in AFB1 concentration in the liquid cultures could be attributed to the decrease in A. flavus growth, potentially due to the effect of KOEO.

Table 1. Inhibitory effect of *Kleinia odora* essential oil (KOEO) on the growth of *Aspergillus flavus* and aflatoxin B1 production.

KOEO (μL/50 mL)	A. flavus growth (mycelial dry weight) (mg/50 mL)	% reduction over control	AFB1 production (ppb)	% reduction over control
10	1.89 ab	4.5	6149 b	28.2
50	1.77 b	10.6	3762 с	56.1
100	1.11 c	43.1	541 d	93.7
Untreated Control	1.98 a	-	8564 a	-

Data are mean of 3 replications

Values followed by the same alphabetical letter, do not differ significantly (DMRT; P=0.05)

GC-MS analysis of KOEO revealed the presence of ledol (21.0%), gamma-curcumene (10.2%), caryophyllene (12.0%), 4(10)-thujene (9.9%), and D-limonene (7.6) as major constituents (Table 2; Figure 1). Ledol (C₁₅H₂₆O; MW 222.37) is an anti-fungal, toxic sesquiterpenoid. It has been identified as a component of Rhododendron tomentosum [40] and Ledum palustre [41] essential oils. Gamma-curcumene (C15H24; MW 204.35) has been identified as a major component of Helichrysum microphyllum subsp. tyrrhenicum EO that showed antimicrobial activities [42]. The antimicrobial property of caryophyllene (C15H24; MW 204.35), a sesquiterpene, isolated from Aquilaria crassna EO has been documented [43]. Franca et al. [44] reported that the EO of Schinus terebinthifolius seeds that showed

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antimicrobial activity contained 4(10)-thujene (syn: Sabinene; C₁₀H₁₆; MW 136.23), a bicyclic monoterpene, as a major component. Limonene (C₁₀H₁₆; MW 136.23), a terpene, is commonly present in the essential oil of lemon and orange [45]. Antimicrobial activity of limonene against Listeria monocytogenes has been documented [46]. Al-Taweel et al. [28] previously reported (+)- epi-bicyclosesquiphellandrene, caryophyllene, a-caryophyllene, and apinene as the major constituents among the 32 components of K. odora EO identified by GC-MS analysis. The differences in the chemical composition of KOEO might be due to differences in their habitats, geographical locations, climatic conditions, and growth stage of the plant sample used for EO extraction [47, 48].

Table 2. Chemical constituents of Kleinia odora essential oil.

S. No.	Compound	Retention Time (min)	Area%	KI (NIST)	KI (calculated)
<u>5. No.</u> 1	Compound n-Hexanol	6.549	2.89	852	(calculated) 893
2	1RalphaPinene	7.68	0.73	922	936
	-				
3	4(10)-Thujene	8.758	9.91	964	976
4	(-)betaPinene	8.845	3.06	965	979
5	.betaMyrcene	9.209	4.12	979	992
6	.alphaPhellandrene	9.581	0.75	997	1006
7	D-Limonene	10.259	7.59	1018	1030
8	(+)-4-Carene	11.895	1.23	1018	1089
9	β-Elemen	19.654	1.10	1398	1369
10	Caryophyllene	20.376	12.09	1424	1421
11	alphaCaryophyllene	21.133	3.68	1456	1454
12	.gammaCurcumene	21.635	10.23	1472	1475
13	.alphaCurcumene	21.691	0.89	1472	1478
14	Germacrene D	21.748	2.20	1480	1480
15	.betaEudesmene	21.882	2.77	1478	1486
16	o-Menth-8-ene, 4- isopropylidene-1-vinyl-	22.09	0.72	1492	1495
17	.betaBisabolene	22.279	3.76	1500	1504
18	.betaHumulene	22.361	1.08	1454	1507
19	Unidentified	22.662	0.84		1521
20	Ledol	22.845	21.04	1597	1529
21	Unidentified	22.954	1.25		1534
22	Nerolidol 2	23.401	1.54	1564	1555
23	Caryophyllene oxide	24.002	4.26	1576	1582
24	.β-Selinenol	25.377	0.90	1627	1648
25	Guai-1(10)-en-11-ol	25.725	1.25	1651	1664

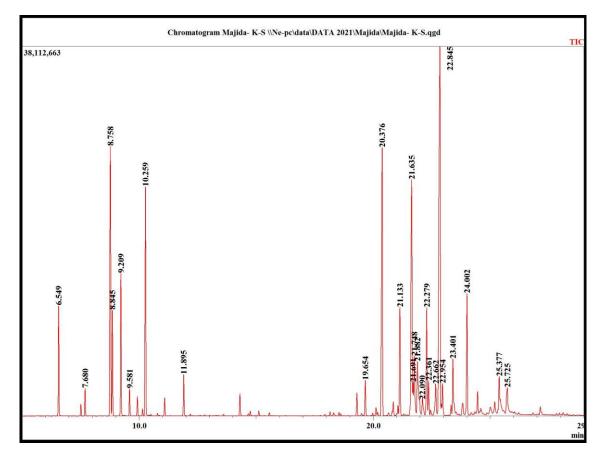


Figure 1. GC-MS chromatogram of Kleinia odora essential oil.

CONCLUSION

Our results showed that KOEO was capable of reducing the growth of *A. flavus* and production of AFB1 *in vitro*. The antifungal activity of KOEO against *A. flavus* was proportional to its concentration. These findings suggest that KOEO could be used as a food preservative and/or antimicrobial agent against *A. flavus* contamination. Further studies are needed to elucidate the mechanism of antifungal activity of KOEO. The efficacy of KOEO on the other foodborne mycotoxigenic molds should be determined.

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