## ORIGINAL PAPER

# The production of aflatoxin  $B_1$  or  $G_1$  by Aspergillus parasiticus at various combinations of temperature and water activity is related to the ratio of aflS to aflR expression

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Received: 17 May 2010 /Revised: 28 June 2010 /Accepted: 29 June 2010 / Published online: 27 July 2010  $\circ$  Society for Mycotoxin Research and Springer 2010

Abstract The influence of varying combinations of water activity  $(a_w)$  and temperature on growth, aflatoxin biosynthesis and aflR/aflS expression of Aspergillus parasiticus was analysed in the ranges  $17-42^{\circ}$ C and 0.90–0.99 a<sub>w</sub>. Optimum growth was at 35°C. At each temperature studied, growth increased from  $0.90$  to  $0.99$  a<sub>w</sub>. Temperatures of 17 and 42°C only supported marginal growth. The external conditions had a differential effect on aflatoxin  $B_1$  or  $G_1$ biosynthesis. The temperature optima of aflatoxin  $B_1$  and  $G_1$  were not at the temperature which supported optimal growth (35 $\degree$ C) but either below (aflatoxin G<sub>1</sub>, 20–30 $\degree$ C) or above (aflatoxin  $B_1$ , 37°C). Interestingly, the expression of the two regulatory genes aflR and aflS showed an expression profile which corresponded to the biosynthesis profile of either  $B_1$  (aflR) or  $G_1$  (aflS). The ratios of the expression data between *aflS: aflR* were calculated. High ratios at a range between 17 and 30°C corresponded with the production profile of aflatoxin  $G_1$  biosynthesis. A low ratio was observed at >30°C, which was related to aflatoxin  $B_1$  biosynthesis. The results revealed that the temperature was the key parameter for aflatoxin  $B_1$ , whereas it was water activity for  $G_1$  biosynthesis. These differences in regulation may be attributed to variable conditions of the ecological niche in which these species occur.

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Keywords Aspergillus parasiticus · Aflatoxin · Biosynthesis. Ecological niche

#### Introduction

Aflatoxins are toxic metabolites formed predominately by two agronomically important fungi Aspergillus flavus and A. parasiticus. A. flavus produces mainly aflatoxin  $B_1$  and  $B_2$  whereas A. parasiticus forms the 4 aflatoxins,  $B_1$ ,  $B_2$ ,  $G_1$  and  $G_2$ . Generally, A. parasiticus produces high concentrations of aflatoxin, and most of the strains isolated from natural habitats  $(>90\%)$  are able to synthesize aflatoxins. In contrast, only 40–50% of the A. flavus isolates are capable of forming the toxin (Bennett and Christensen [1983](#page-5-0)). The aflatoxin biosynthesis gene cluster has been described (Yu et al. [2004](#page-5-0)). The structural genes are regulated by the transcription factor aflR and the accessory regulatory gene aflS (Chang [2003](#page-5-0)).

The habitats of both species overlap, but distinct differences are obvious. The habitat of A. flavus is broader because of being found not only on cereals especially wheat but also on peanuts, tree nuts or high sugar-containing dry fruits. Both species can also be found in soils; however, this is the predominant ecological niche for A. parasiticus. Both species occur in subtropical and tropical regions. According to Pitt and Hocking [\(1999\)](#page-5-0), A. parasiticus is endemic in soil-borne peanuts, and they found more A. parasiticus than A. flavus strains in Australian peanuts. This situation is the opposite in maize, which is more susceptible to A. flavus compared to A. parasiticus. Pitt and Hocking [\(1999\)](#page-5-0) also described intriguing differences in the geographical occurrence of both species. According to their data, A. parasiticus can only occasionally

be found in southeast Asia, but it is widely distributed in soils and foodstuffs in the United States, Latin America, South Africa, India and Australia. This specific geographical distribution is not known for A. flavus, indicating that A. flavus may be a more aggressive and more widely distributed species when compared to A. parasiticus. Recently, the occurrence of A. flavus was described in cereals from north Italy (Giorni et al. [2007\)](#page-5-0) in 2004 and 2005 because of hot dry summer weather. This resulted in significant contamination with aflatoxins. This demonstrates that the ecological distribution of these species is significantly impacted by fluctuations and trends in regional climatic changes. These ecological differences might also be reflected not only by differences in the formation of the aflatoxin structural types B and G but also in the regulation of the biosynthesis of the aflatoxins in response to environmental parameters like temperature and  $a_w$ . In a recent study, the influence of both parameters on aflatoxin  $B_1$  gene expression and phenotypic production by A. flavus was analysed (Schmidt-Heydt et al. [2009](#page-5-0)), and it could be shown that  $a_w$  was the leading parameter. At moderate temperatures (25–30°C), high  $a_w$ levels (0.95–0.99) induced aflatoxin  $B_1$  production which is in agreement with other data. According to Bhatnagar et al. [\(2006](#page-5-0)), aflatoxin biosynthesis in A. flavus is optimal at temperatures between 29 and 30°C, but it is significantly decreased at temperatures <25°C and ≥37°C (O'Brian et al. [2007](#page-5-0)).

Not much information about the mutual regulation of aflatoxin  $B_1$  and  $G_1$  in A. parasiticus is known at present. In order to understand this aspect, a detailed analysis of the regulation of aflatoxin  $B_1$  and  $G_1$  biosynthesis in A. parasiticus under different combinations of temperature and  $a_w$  has been carried out. A further objective was to analyse the effect of these environmental parameters on the expression of the aflatoxin-specific regulatory genes (aflS, aflR) and their ratio.

#### Materials and methods

#### Strains and growth conditions

A. parasiticus, BFE96p produces the B and G group aflatoxins when grown under permissive conditions. This strain forms high concentrations of aflatoxin after growth on YES agar (20 g/l yeast extract, 150 g/l sucrose, 15 g/l agar) at 25–30°C for 5 days. For expression and toxin analysis, the agar plates were overlayed with sterile 8.5 cellophane sheets (P400; Cannings, Bristol, U.K.) and then single point inoculated centrally by applying 10 μl of a spore suspension of  $10^7$  spores in TWS (0.5% tween 80, 0.85 g/l NaCl). The  $a_w$  of the media was adjusted with glycerol by using glycerol/water mixtures. The following amounts were used per litre (10.8 ml, 0.99; 13.1 ml, 0.98; 19.9 ml, 0.95; 24.5 ml, 0.93; and 31.3 ml, 0.90). The water activity of the medium was verified by using an Aqua Lab Lite water activity meter (Graintec, Toowoomba, Australia). The plates were inoculated at the temperature indicated (15–42°C).

# Growth assessment

For measurement of the diametric mycelial growth rate, the diameter of the colony was measured in two directions at right angles to each other. The increase in colony radius was plotted and the linear regression lines for the linear phase were used to obtain the relative growth rates (cm/7 days). The biomass was removed from the cellophane surface for extraction and molecular as well as aflatoxin analysis. All experiments were carried out with 3–4 replicates and some temperature treatments were repeated for confirmation of results.

Isolation of RNA from samples and transcription in cDNA

To perform Real-Time PCR gene expression analysis, RNA was isolated using the RNAeasy Plant Mini kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). An amount of 1 g of the mycelium was ground with a mortar and pestle in liquid nitrogen. About 250 mg of the resulting powder was used for isolation of total RNA. The powder was resuspended in 750 μl lysis buffer, mixed with 7.5 μl β-mercaptoethanol and 100 glass beads with a diameter of 1 mm (B. Braun Biotech, Melsungen, Germany) in a 2-ml RNase free micro reaction tube. The extracts were mixed thoroughly and incubated for 15 min at 55°C and 42 kHz in an S10H ultrasonic bath (Elma, Singen, Germany). All further procedures were essentially the same as recommended by the manufacturer of the kit. For cDNA synthesis, 12 μl of the DNase I-treated total RNA were used along with the Omniscript Reverse Transcription kit (Qiagen). The reaction mixture was composed essentially as described by the manufacturer and incubated at 37°C for 1 h. The cDNA was either directly used for Real-Time PCR or stored at −80°C.

Quantification of aflatoxin  $B_1$  and  $G_1$  by HPLC/MS/MS

Detection and quantitative determination of aflatoxin  $B_1$  and  $G_1$  from fungal colonies were performed according to the following method: 100 mg of the fungal colony were extracted under shaking conditions in 500 μl chloroform at room temperature for 30 min. The residues were discarded and the chloroform was evaporated to dryness in a vacuum concentrator (Speed Vac; Savant Instruments, Farmingdale, USA). The residues were then redissolved in 200 μl methanol and 20 μl were subjected to HPLC analysis. HPLC analysis was performed on a 1200 series HPLC system (Agilent,

Waldbronn, Germany), equipped with a degaser, a binary pump system, an autosampler and a column oven. The sample was injected into a Prontosil reversed-phase column (150 mm $\times$ 4 mm, 3 µm particle size; Bischoff, Leonberg, Germany). The mobile phases consisted of 0.1% formic acid in water and acetonitrile. A linear gradient of formic acid from 30% to 0% in 9 min and a 21-min isocratic elution at 0% was employed. The flow rate was set to 0.8 ml/min. The autosampler was cooled to 10°C, whereas the column oven was heated to 25°C.

The HPLC system was directly coupled to a hybrid triple quadrupole linear ion trap mass spectrometer (3200 QTrap; Applied Biosystems, Darmstadt, Germany), equipped with a TurboIonSpray source. The analytes were detected in the positive ion mode at a vaporiser temperature of 650°C and an ion spray voltage of 5,500 kV. Spectral data were recorded with  $N_2$  as curtain and collision gas, at 50 psi and medium, respectively. Data acquisition was performed in the MRM mode monitoring the transition of  $m/z$  313 in Q1 to  $m/z$  285 in Q3 as qualifier and to  $m/z$  241 in Q3 as quantifier for aflatoxin  $B_1$ . The collision offset energies were 31 and 49 V, respectively, and the declustering potential 76 V. The corresponding transitions  $m/z$  329 $\rightarrow$  $m/z$  115 and  $m/z$  329 $\rightarrow m/z$  243 were monitored for aflatoxin  $G_1$  at a declustering potential of 66 V and collision offset energy of 91 and 39 V, respectively.

Quantification of aflatoxin  $B_1$  and  $G_1$  was performed using commercially available reference compounds. Calibration curves were constructed in the range of 0.1–100 ng/mL in which the linearity of the response was given.

## Real-Time PCR

The Real-Time PCR reactions were performed in a GeneAmp 5700® Sequence Detection System (PE Applied Biosystems, Foster City, USA). The SYBR green approach was used. The optimal primers and the internal probe used in the reaction were identified within the  $a f \mathbb{R}$  AP (AP=A. parasiticus) with respect to the *aff*S AP gene by Primer Express 1.0 software (PE Applied Biosystems). The primer sets for the standard curves to perform absolute quantifications had the following nucleotide sequences:  $a f/R$  AP for (5′- gcc gcc gtt gag gta cac tg-3<sup>'</sup>) and  $a/\ell R$  AP rev (5'- cga acg tgg tct tgc ctg tc-3'); aflS\_AP\_for (5′-cgt cac cgg ggc atg tg-3′) and aflS\_AP\_rev  $(5′-gcg cgg cgt cca tcg-3′)$ . The concentration of these standard PCR products was determined in a fluorometer (DNA Quant 200; Pharmacia, Uppsala, Sweden) and the number of copies was calculated. These stock solutions were diluted serially by a factor of 10 and an aliquot of the dilutions was used as a copy number standard during each setup of the Real-Time PCR reaction. The concentration of unknown samples was calculated by the GeneAmp 5700® system according to the generated standard curve. For the

PCR reaction, the SYBR Green Reagent kit (Eurogentec, Liege, Belgium) was used according to the recommendations of the manufacturer. After an activation step of 10 min at 95°C, all subsequent 40 PCR cycles were performed according to the following temperature regime: 95°C for 20 s, 55°C for 30 s, and 72°C for 40 s. The primer pairs to generate aflR- and aflS-specific internal gene fragments for SYBR Green fluorescence measurement had the following sequences: *afl*R\_SYBR\_for (5'-ggt ccc cac ttc caa aaa cg-3') and  $a f/R$  SYBR rev- 3 rev (5′-gct ggt cag gcg caa agc-3′), aflS\_SYBR\_for (5′-cgg atg aac tgg caa aac ttg-3′) and aflS\_SYBR\_rev (5′-gca ggt atg cca tga tta tcg-3′).

### Results

Influence of water activity  $\times$  temperature interactions on growth of A. parasiticus

The influence of various combinations of  $a_w$  levels and temperature on growth of A. parasiticus is shown in Fig. 1. This strain of A. parasiticus displayed a growth optimum at 35°C. The colony diameter was strongly dependent on the  $a<sub>w</sub>$  treatment. The fastest growth was observed at the highest  $a_w$  level examined (0.99  $a_w$ ). When  $a_w$  was decreased there was a gradual decrease in growth although the optimum remained at 35 $^{\circ}$ C. At 0.90 a<sub>w</sub>, growth was very slow and only observable between 30 and 37°C.

Influence of water activity  $\times$  temperature interactions on aflatoxin  $B_1$  and  $G_1$  biosynthesis

The same samples which were used for the growth measurement were analysed using LC-MS/MS to quantify the amount of aflatoxin  $B_1$  and  $G_1$  produced under these interacting conditions (Fig. [2\)](#page-3-0). There were different optima



Fig. 1 Growth profile of Aspergillus parasiticus BFE96p at various combinations of temperature  $\times$  a<sub>w</sub>. Growth was determined by measuring the diameter of the colony

<span id="page-3-0"></span>for production profiles of the two structural forms of aflatoxin. A. parasiticus formed high amounts of aflatoxin  $B_1$  at >30°C, with an optimum at 37°C (Fig. 2a). At temperatures between 30 and 37°C, biosynthesis of aflatoxin  $B_1$  appeared to be independent of  $a_w$  as long as it was above 0.90. However, at lower temperatures (e.g. 20 and  $25^{\circ}$ C),  $a_w$  seemed to play an influential role. Under these conditions, aflatoxin  $B_1$  was formed in higher amounts at higher  $a_w$  levels (0.98–0.99  $a_w$ ). At temperatures  $>37^{\circ}$ C, the biosynthesis of aflatoxin B<sub>1</sub> decreased sharply. In contrast,  $a_w$  seems to be important for the optimum production of aflatoxin  $G_1$ . Large amounts of aflatoxin  $G_1$ were produced at  $a_w$  0.99 and 0.98 irrespective of the temperature in a range between 20 and 30°C (Fig. 2b). At temperatures above 30 and below 17 $^{\circ}$ C, aflatoxin G<sub>1</sub> production drops sharply.

Relationship between aflR and aflS expression to the biosynthesis of aflatoxin  $B_1$  and  $G_1$ 

Because it has been shown previously that the expression level of  $a f/R$  and  $a f/S$  is related to aflatoxin  $B_1$  biosynthesis



Fig. 2 Production profile of aflatoxin  $B_1$  (a) and aflatoxin  $G_1$  (b) in relation to various combinations of temperature  $\times a_w$ . The aflatoxin produced was quantified by HPLC-MS

in A. flavus (Schmidt-Heydt et al. [2009\)](#page-5-0), the expression levels of both genes of A. parasiticus were also analysed by Real-Time PCR for the quantification of aflatoxins from the same cultures used for the growth experiments. Surprisingly, the two regulatory genes behaved differently. The expression of the *afl*R gene tended to be higher at conditions  $\geq 30^{\circ}$  $\geq 30^{\circ}$  $\geq 30^{\circ}$ C (Fig. 3a), whereas the *afl*S gene expression was higher at conditions  $\leq 30^{\circ}$  $\leq 30^{\circ}$  $\leq 30^{\circ}$ C (Fig. 3b). This corresponded with the production profile of aflatoxin  $G_1$ (aflS) or aflatoxin  $B_1$  (aflR). Generally, the absolute expression of aflS was higher than that of aflR.

The normalised ratio of aflS: aflR expression is shown in Fig. [3](#page-4-0)c. This ratio was high at conditions <30°C, which is within the temperature range optimal for aflatoxin  $G_1$ biosynthesis. At temperatures >30°C, supportive for aflatoxin  $B_1$  formation, the ratio was low.

# Discussion

The influence of  $a_w \times$  temperature interactions on growth and the biosynthesis of aflatoxin was investigated in this study. Various ecophysiological studies with A. flavus (Sorensen et al. [1967](#page-5-0); Gqaleni et al. [1997;](#page-5-0) O'Brian et al. [2007](#page-5-0); Schmidt-Heydt et al. [2009](#page-5-0)) have been done, but much less information is available for A. parasiticus (Lin et al. [1980;](#page-5-0) Faraj et al. [1991;](#page-5-0) Park and Bullerman [1981\)](#page-5-0).

The strain of A. parasiticus examined here showed a clear growth responsiveness to interacting  $a_w \times$  temperature conditions. Freely available water  $(0.99 \text{ a}_w)$  supported growth at almost all temperatures examined. A clear optimum for growth was found at  $35^{\circ}$ C, regardless of a<sub>w</sub> level. A very similar growth surface response curve for A. *parasiticus* in relation to changes in  $a_w$  and temperature was shown by Samapundo et al. ([2007\)](#page-5-0), although they found an optimum of 30°C for their strain of A. parasiticus. For A. flavus, previous studies have shown a similar influence of these parameters on growth behaviour with an optimum at 30°C (Samapundo et al. [2007](#page-5-0); Schmidt-Heydt et al. [2009\)](#page-5-0). This suggested that, apparently, growth regulation in response to  $a_w$  and temperature is similar in both species.

The optimum conditions for biosynthesis of aflatoxins  $B_1$  and  $G_1$  in A. parasiticus differed. Interestingly, optimal conditions for both did not coincide with the growth optimum (35 $^{\circ}$ C), but was either below (G<sub>1</sub>) or above  $(B_1)$ . Aflatoxin  $B_1$  biosynthesis was independent of  $a_w$  at certain temperatures as long as the  $a_w$  was >0.90. In contrast, the optimum production of aflatoxin  $G_1$  was more dependent on  $a_w$  than from temperature in the range 20–30°C.

This shift between optimum production and optimum growth has further been observed for ochratoxin production by Penicillium verrucosum, trichothecene production by F.

<span id="page-4-0"></span>

Fig. 3 Expression profile of aflR (a) and aflS (b) determined by Real-Time PCR at various combinations of temperature  $\times a_w$ . The ratio of the normalised expression values  $(a\hat{f}lS:af\hat{f}R)$  is shown in (c)

culmorum (Schmidt-Heydt et al. [2008](#page-5-0)) or for fumonisin production by F. verticillioides (Jurado et al. [2008\)](#page-5-0). A difference in the temperature optima between aflatoxin  $B_1$ and  $G_1$  was previously found by Lin et al. ([1980\)](#page-5-0). They analysed the influence of cycling temperatures on aflatoxin  $B_1$  and  $G_1$  biosynthesis in A. *parasiticus* and found that more  $G_1$  is formed at lower temperatures, e.g. after cycling

between 15 and 25 $\degree$ C, whereas more  $B_1$  is produced after cycling between 15 and 33°C. This is in agreement with the data reported here and shows the different temperature regulation of the B versus the G aflatoxins.

The expression profiles of the two regulatory genes at the different combinations of  $a_w$  and temperature showed a relationship with the production profiles of the two different aflatoxin types produced. Both genes were highly expressed at 30°C. At this temperature, moderate to large amounts of both aflatoxins  $B_1$  and  $G_1$  were formed. Depending on the temperature, the expression of aflS or aflR changes. The aflR gene was expressed at higher levels at  $>30^{\circ}$ C, whereas the most prominent expression of the aflS gene was at  $\leq 30^{\circ}$ C. This corresponded with the production profile of either aflatoxin  $B_1$  (prominent above  $30^{\circ}$ C) or G<sub>1</sub> (prominent below 30 $^{\circ}$ C). When a quotient between the normalised expression data of the aflS:aflR genes was generated, high ratios could be found at temperatures <30°C. This is in agreement with the aflatoxin  $G_1$  production profile. In a recent study of A. flavus (Schmidt-Heydt et al. [2009](#page-5-0)), it was demonstrated that the ratio between aflS and aflR expression seems to be an indicator for the activation of aflatoxin  $B_1$  biosynthesis. In the current study, a high ratio indicated a high biosynthesis of aflatoxin  $G_1$ . Interestingly, high production of aflatoxin  $G_1$  in A. parasiticus occurs under similar conditions (moderate temperatures 20–30°C, high  $a_w$  of 0.99) as high aflatoxin  $B_1$  production in A. flavus (Schmidt-Heydt et al. [2009](#page-5-0)).

The products of both the *afl*R and *aflS* genes are regulatory proteins. AFLR is a transcription factor which directly binds to a consensus sequence in front of the aflatoxin structural genes (Ehrlich and Cary [1995;](#page-5-0) Ehrlich et al. [1999](#page-5-0)). The activity of the aflS gene on the other hand is not absolutely clear. It is not a DNA binding protein; however, according to Chang ([2003\)](#page-5-0), it interacts with *afl*R and somehow supports DNA binding by the latter. Ehrlich [\(2009](#page-5-0)) recently discussed that aflS may interact with the global secondary metabolite regulatory factor laeA. According to a recent analysis of Du et al. ([2007\)](#page-5-0), aflS appears to modulate the activity of aflR. This activity would coincide with the results reported in the present study. Assuming that the expression of the regulatory genes aflR and aflS is directly correlated to the amount of gene products, the regulation of aflatoxin  $B_1$  or  $G_1$  seems to be dependent on the ratio of the transcription of the regulatory genes. The *aflS/aflR* ratio is high under conditions which favour high aflatoxin  $G_1$  biosynthesis. As a modulator,  $a\text{fIS}$ may influence the activity of aflR. In the case of A. parasiticus, this modulation may shift the affinity of aflR towards the G-group-specific genes, ordA, cypA and nadA (Cai et al. [2008\)](#page-5-0) and activate their expression under these conditions.

<span id="page-5-0"></span>This differential production of aflatoxin  $B_1$  and  $G_1$ surely has an ecological function and may be an adaptation of A. parasiticus to a similar but slightly different habitat compared to A. flavus (Magan and Aldred 2007a, b). The differentially produced amounts of either aflatoxin  $B_1$  or  $G_1$ under various environmental conditions is obviously attributable to the adaptation to changing environments. It has been demonstrated that mycotoxins can be one method by which ecological advantage can be obtained by species to improve their competitiveness under fluctuating environmental conditions (Magan and Aldred 2007a, b).

Acknowledgement We would like to thank Katja Kramer and Sabine Häckel for excellent technical assistance. This work was supported by the EU project EC KBBE-2007-222690-2 MYCORED.

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