

ARTICLE

Mycotoxin producers in the *Aspergillus* genus: an update

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ABSTRACT Mycotoxins are secondary metabolites of fungi. Species assigned to the *Aspergillus* genus produce a wide range of mycotoxins which can contaminate several agricultural products, and cause various human and animal diseases. In this review, we wish to give an overview of producers of *Aspergillus* mycotoxins in view of recent scientific data.

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KEY WORDS

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Introduction

Mycotoxins are fungal secondary metabolites which are harmful to animals and humans. *Aspergillus*, *Fusarium* and *Penicillium* are the most common mycotoxin-producing genera. Mycotoxins produced by *Aspergilli* have a serious impact on the health of humans and animals. The main mycotoxins produced by *Aspergillus* species include aflatoxins, sterigmatocystin, ochratoxins, fumonisins, patulin, gliotoxin and cyclopiazonic acid. The *Aspergillus* genus comprises 344 species (Samson et al. 2014), and the chemodiversity among these species is very high; according to Frisvad (2015), the average number of exometabolites is 5.77 per species in this genus, which is higher than that observed in *Penicillium* (3.77) or *Talaromyces* species (3.58). The same mycotoxin can be produced by unrelated species (e.g., fumonisins by *Fusarium*, *Aspergillus*, *Tolypocladium* and *Bipolaris* species), and Frisvad and Larsen (2015) suggested that this phenomenon could be explained by either lateral or horizontal transfer of gene clusters between unrelated species. On the other hand, one species (or even a single isolate) can produce a variety of secondary metabolites (e.g., *A. niger* produces both fumonisins and ochratoxins; Frisvad et al. 2011). In this respect, the so-called OSMAC (one strain many compounds) approach should be mentioned. Bode et al. (2002) clarified that using different media or altering other growth parameters (temperature, water activity, etc.) various exometabolites could be identified in *A. westerdijkiae* and other fungi. This

observation was confirmed by van der Molen et al. (2013). However, the isolates of any examined fungal species seem to be chemoconsistent (Frisvad 2015), although even a single point mutation in a gene of the gene cluster responsible for the production of an exometabolite can lead to the loss of production of the compound (Susca et al. 2014).

In this review, we wish to give an overview of the *Aspergillus* species able to produce the most important mycotoxins in view of recent scientific data.

Aflatoxins

Aflatoxins are decaketide derived mycotoxins produced predominantly by certain strains within species of the *Aspergillus* genus (Fig. 1). They were first identified from peanut samples in 1961 as responsible for Turkey-X disease (Blout 1961; van der Zijden et al. 1962). The main causative agent was *A. flavus* (Fig. 2). Aflatoxin contamination of foods and feeds causes serious economic and health problem worldwide. Aflatoxin B₁ exhibits hepatocarcinogenic and hepatotoxic properties, it is the most potent naturally occurring carcinogen (Squire 1981; IARC 2012; Fig. 1a), and is usually the major aflatoxin produced by toxigenic strains. Other naturally occurring types of aflatoxins include aflatoxins B₂, G₁ and G₂ (Baranyi et al. 2013; Fig. 1b-d). The International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) assigned all aflatoxins to group 1 (carcinogenic to humans; IARC 2012). Aflatoxin M₁, a hydroxylated metabolite is also found primarily in animal tissues and fluids (milk and urine) as a metabolic product of aflatoxin B₁ (Varga et al. 2009; Fig. 1e).

Recent data indicate that aflatoxins are produced by at least 20 species assigned to three sections of the genus

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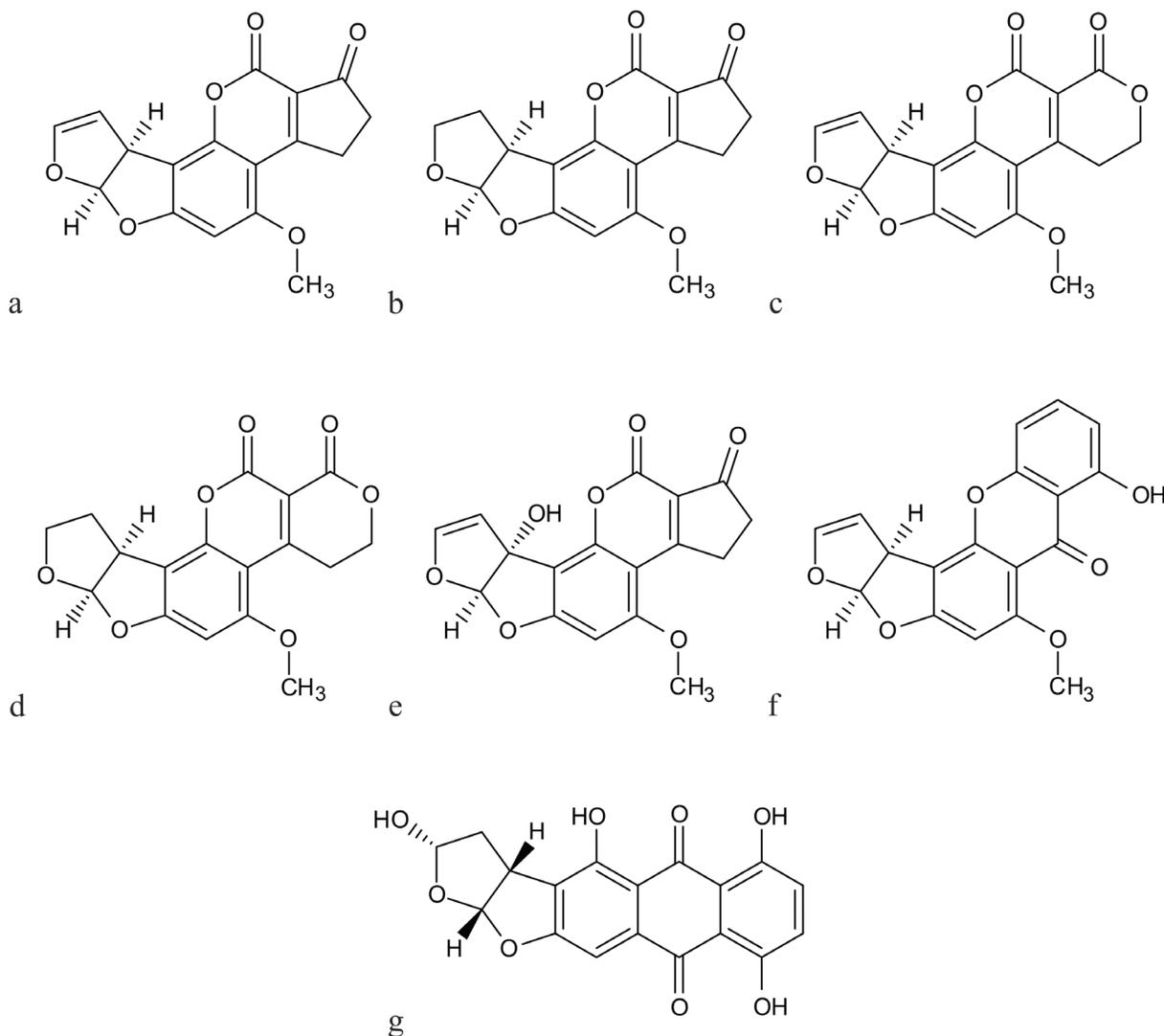


Figure 1. Structures of aflatoxins and related compounds. Aflatoxin B₁ (a), aflatoxin B₂ (b) aflatoxin G₁ (c), aflatoxin G₂ (d), aflatoxin M₁ (e), sterigmatocystin (f), dothistromin (g).

Aspergillus: sections *Flavi*, *Nidulantes* and *Ochraceorosei* (Varga et al. 2009; Fig. 3; Table 1) including the newly described *A. pseudonomius*, *A. pseudocaelatus* (Varga et al. 2011a), *A. togoensis* (Rank et al. 2011), *A. mottae*, *A. sergii*, *A. transmontanensis* (Soares et al. 2012) and *A. novoparasiticus* (Gonçalves et al. 2012). Recently, aflatoxins have also been identified in *Aschersonia coffeae* and *As. marganita* (Kornsakulkarn et al. 2012, 2013). Some aflatoxin producing species have been described as *Emericella* species (one of the sexual stages of the *Aspergillus* genus). However, according to the Amsterdam declaration on fungal nomenclature, only one name can be applied for a fungus (Hawksworth et al. 2011). Under the current rules of the International Code of Nomenclature for algae, fungi, and plants (so-called Melbourne

Code; Hawksworth 2011; McNeill et al. 2012) and the discussions held by the International Commission on *Penillium* and *Aspergillus* (ICPA; <http://www.aspergilluspenicillium.org/index.php/single-name-nomenclature/88-single-names/105-aspergillus-options>), the *Aspergillus* name was chosen as the valid one for these species (Samson et al. 2014). Only B-type aflatoxins are produced by most species, although species related to *A. parasiticus* and *A. nomius* in section *Flavi* are usually able to produce G-type aflatoxins too (Fig. 3; Table 1). Although, aflatoxin production was claimed for several other species and fungal genera (and actually even for bacteria), none of these observations could have been confirmed (Varga et al. 2009). Recently, a *Fusarium kyushuense* isolate was also claimed to produce aflatoxins, but this report also could not be

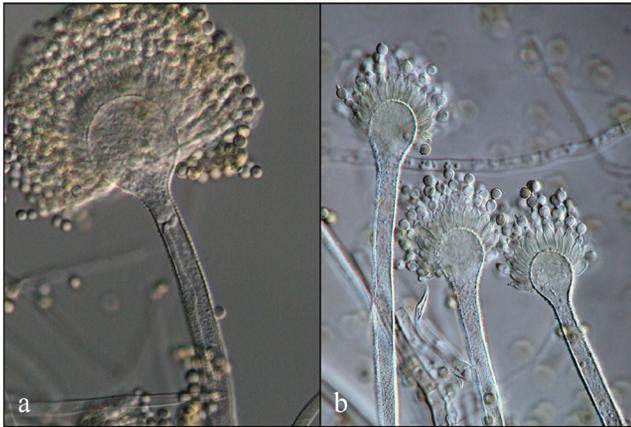


Figure 2. Bi- and monoseriate heads of *A. flavus*.

confirmed (Schmidt-Heydt et al. 2009; Varga et al. 2009). In *Aspergillus* section *Usti*, *A. ustus* produces versicolorins, *A. heterothallicus* is a sterigmatocystin-producer, while recently *A. pseudoustus* was described which was found to produce norsolonic acid, averufin and versicolorin C, indicating that this species also carries at least part of the aflatoxin biosynthetic gene cluster (Samson et al. 2011b).

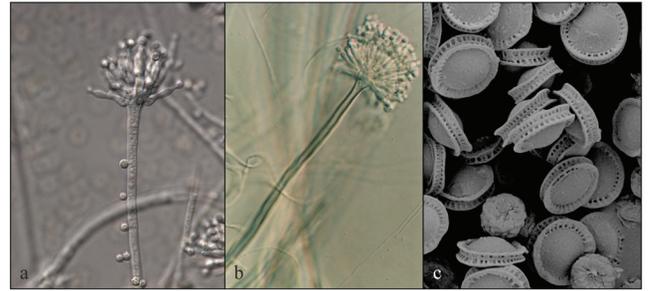


Figure 4. Conidial heads of the sterigmatocystin producers *A. versicolor* (a), *A. inflatus* (b), and ascospores of *A. nidulans* (c).

Sterigmatocystin

Sterigmatocystin is a penultimate precursor of aflatoxin biosynthesis and also a toxic and carcinogenic substance produced by many *Aspergillus* species belonging mainly to sections *Versicolores*, *Usti*, *Aenei*, *Ochraceorosei*, *Cremeri* and *Nidulantes* of the *Aspergillus* genus (Varga et al. 2010a; Rank et al. 2011; Fig. 1f). It is assigned to group 2b by IARC (possibly carcinogenic to humans; IARC 2012). While aflatoxin producing species assigned to section *Flavi* do not accumulate

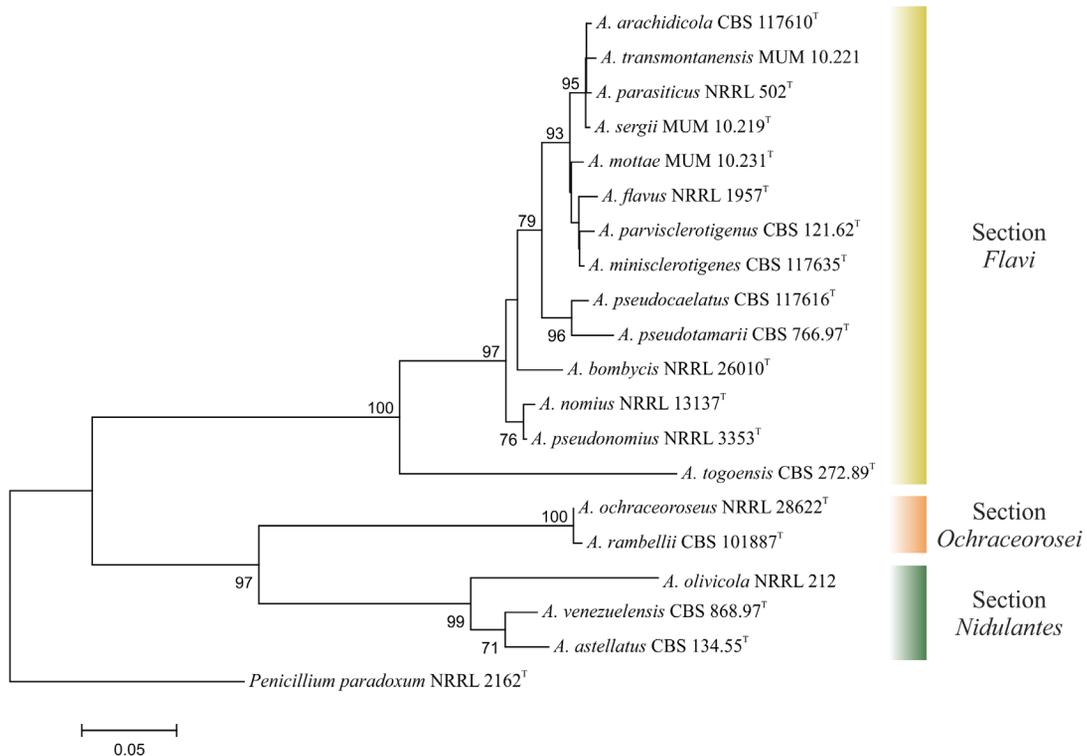


Figure 3. Phylogenetic tree of aflatoxin producing species based on neighbor joining analysis of partial calmodulin sequence data.

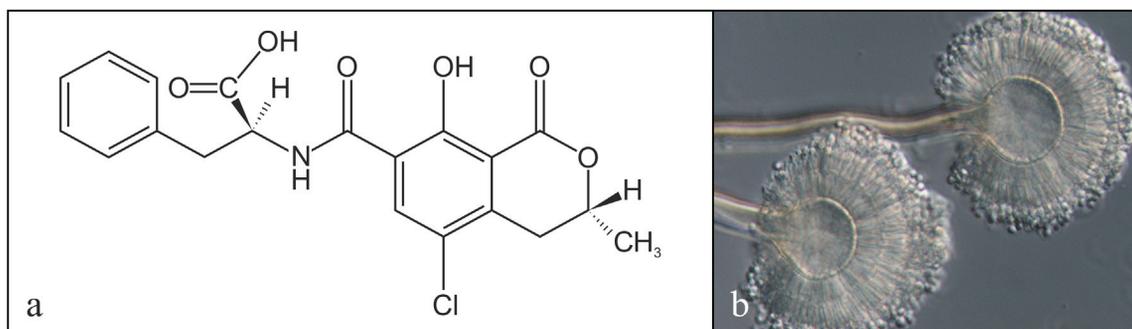
Table 1. *Aspergillus* species able to produce aflatoxins and other mycotoxins (modified after Baranyi et al. 2013).

Section	Species	Type of aflatoxins produced	Other mycotoxins
<i>Flavi</i>	<i>A. arachidicola</i>	Aflatoxins B ₁ , B ₂ & G ₁ , G ₂	kojic acid, aspergillilic acid
	<i>A. bombycis</i>	Aflatoxins B ₁ , B ₂ & G ₁ , G ₂	kojic acid, aspergillilic acid
	<i>A. flavus</i>	Aflatoxins B ₁ & B ₂	cyclopiazonic acid, kojic acid, aspergillilic acid
	<i>A. minisclerotigenes</i>	Aflatoxins B ₁ , B ₂ & G ₁ , G ₂	cyclopiazonic acid, kojic acid, aspergillilic acid
	<i>A. nomius</i>	Aflatoxins B ₁ , B ₂ & G ₁ , G ₂	kojic acid, aspergillilic acid, tenuazonic acid
	<i>A. novoparasiticus</i>	Aflatoxins B ₁ , B ₂ & G ₁ , G ₂	kojic acid
	<i>A. parasiticus</i>	Aflatoxins B ₁ , B ₂ & G ₁ , G ₂	kojic acid, aspergillilic acid
	<i>A. parvisclerotigenus</i>	Aflatoxins B ₁ , B ₂ & G ₁ , G ₂	cyclopiazonic acid, kojic acid
	<i>A. pseudocaelatus</i>	Aflatoxins B ₁ , B ₂ & G ₁ , G ₂	cyclopiazonic acid, kojic acid
	<i>A. pseudonomius</i>	Aflatoxins B ₁ , B ₂ & G ₁ , G ₂ *	kojic acid
	<i>A. pseudotamarii</i>	Aflatoxin B ₁	cyclopiazonic acid, kojic acid
	<i>A. togoensis</i>	Aflatoxin B ₁	sterigmatocystin
	<i>A. transmontanensis</i>	Aflatoxins B ₁ , B ₂ & G ₁ , G ₂	aspergillilic acid
	<i>A. mottae</i>	Aflatoxins B ₁ , B ₂ & G ₁ , G ₂	cyclopiazonic acid, aspergillilic acid
	<i>A. sergii</i>	Aflatoxins B ₁ , B ₂ & G ₁ , G ₂	cyclopiazonic acid, aspergillilic acid
<i>Ochraceo-rosei</i>	<i>A. ochraceoroseus</i>	Aflatoxins B ₁ & B ₂	sterigmatocystin
	<i>A. rambellii</i>	Aflatoxins B ₁ & B ₂	sterigmatocystin
<i>Nidulantes</i>	<i>A. stellatus</i> (= <i>Emericella stellata</i>)	Aflatoxin B ₁	sterigmatocystin, terrein
	<i>A. olivicola</i> (= <i>Emericella olivicola</i>)	Aflatoxin B ₁	sterigmatocystin, terrein
	<i>A. venezuelensis</i> (= <i>Emericella venezuelensis</i>)	Aflatoxin B ₁	sterigmatocystin, terrein

*Although the type strain of *A. pseudonomius* produces only B-type aflatoxins (Varga et al. 2011a), other isolates came from Brazil nuts (Massi et al. 2014) and from maize (Baranyi et al. 2015) are able to produce G-type aflatoxins too.

sterigmatocystin, aflatoxin producing species belonging to sections *Ochraceorosei* and *Nidulantes* produce these compounds simultaneously (Rank et al. 2011; Samson et al. 2014). Members of *Aspergillus* section *Flavi*, which includes the major aflatoxin producers, efficiently convert sterigmatocystin through 3-methoxysterigmatocystin to aflatoxins (Rank et al. 2011; Fig. 4). An exception in this section is *A. togoensis*, which is able to produce both aflatoxins and sterigmatocystin (Wicklow et al. 1989; Rank et al. 2011). Sterigmatocystin was also detected in two other aflatoxin producers, *Aschersonia coffeae* and *Aschersonia marginata* (Kornsakulkarn et al. 2012, 2013), while glycosylated precursors of the sterigmatocystin biosynthesis were identified in *Staphylotrichum boninense* (Tatsuda et al. 2015). Sterigmatocystin production

was also detected in the phylogenetically unrelated genera *Aschersonia*, *Aspergillus*, *Bipolaris*, *Botryotrichum*, *Chaetomium*, *Humicola*, *Moelleriella* and *Monicillium* (Rank et al. 2011). Sterigmatocystin production was also confirmed in *Podospora anserina* (Matasyoh et al. 2011), and the gene cluster responsible for the biosynthesis for sterigmatocystin was also identified (Slot and Rokas 2011). The authors suggested that horizontal gene transfer of the sterigmatocystin gene cluster took place between the distantly related *Aspergillus nidulans* and *P. anserina*. Apart from sterigmatocystin, the immediate precursor of aflatoxin, o-methylsterigmatocystin was also found in *Chaetomium cellulolyticum*, *Chaetomium longicolum*, *Chaetomium malaysiense* and *Chaetomium virescens* (Rank et al. 2011). Besides, the ex-type strain of the newly

**Figure 5.** Structure of ochratoxin A (a), and conidial heads of *A. ochraceus* (b).

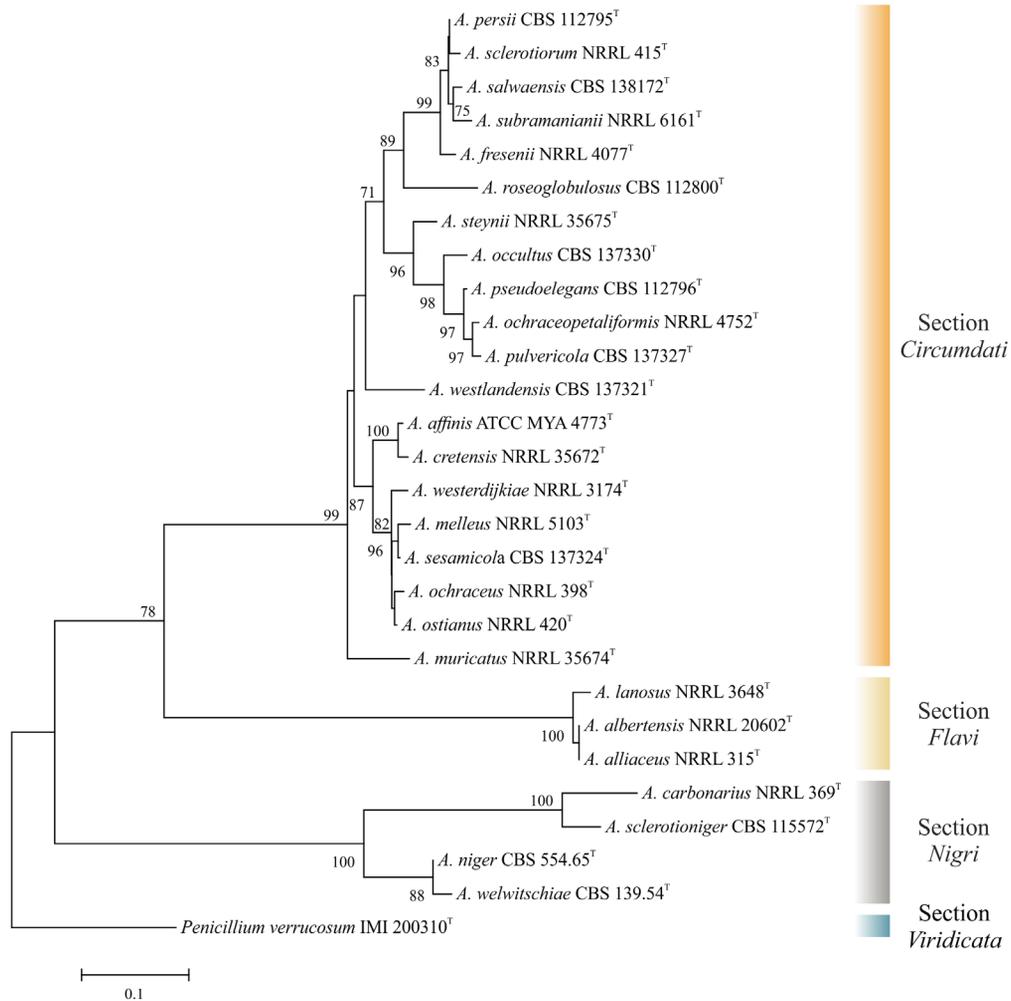


Figure 6. Phylogenetic tree of ochratoxin producing species based on neighbor joining analysis of partial calmodulin gene sequences.

described species *A. bertholletius* was also found to produce o-methylsterigmatocystin, indicating that the genome of this species also carries the aflatoxin biosynthetic gene cluster (Taniwaki et al. 2012).

The major source of sterigmatocystin in foods (cheese, cereals) and indoor environments is *Aspergillus versicolor* and its relatives (Samson et al. 2010; Jurjevi et al. 2012, 2013). On water-saturated materials, *A. versicolor* produces 5-methoxysterigmatocystin and sterigmatocystin in quantities up to 7 and 20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$, respectively (up to 1% of biomass; Nielsen 2003), whereas they are not produced at lower water activities ($a_w < 0.9$).

Another related compound, dothistromin is produced by *Dothistroma septosporum*, an important forest pathogen causing red band needle blight disease of pine trees (Bradshaw 2004; Fig. 1g). Dothistromin is similar in structure to versicolorin B, a precursor of aflatoxin biosynthesis. Full genome

sequencing of *D. septosporum* made it possible to identify the genes taking part in the biosynthesis of this compound (Bradshaw et al. 2013). Interestingly, in contrast with other secondary metabolite biosynthesis genes which form gene clusters, most of the genes taking part in dothistromin biosynthesis were found to be spread over six separate regions of the pathogen (Bradshaw et al. 2013; Fig. 1).

Ochratoxins

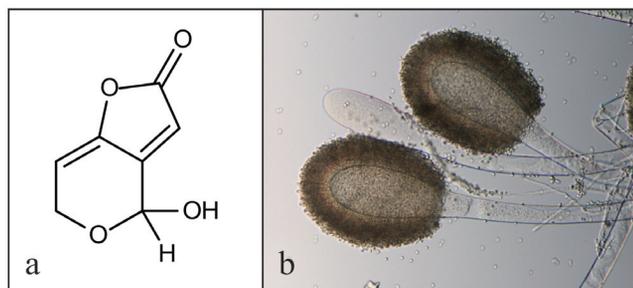
Ochratoxins are cyclic pentaketids, dihydroisocoumarin derivatives linked to an L-phenylalanine moiety (Fig. 5). Ochratoxins were proved to exhibit nephrotoxic, immunosuppressive, teratogenic and carcinogenic properties (Varga et al. 2001a), and implicated in the etiology of animal and human diseases including Danish porcine nephropathy, Balkan endemic nephropathy, a syndrome characterized by contracted

Table 2. Ochratoxin and penicillic acid producing abilities of species assigned to *Aspergillus* section *Circumdati* (economically important ochratoxin producers in bold; modified after Visagie et al. 2014).

Species	Ochratoxins	Penicillic acid
<i>A. affinis</i>	+	+
<i>A. auricomus</i>	-	+
<i>A. bridgeri</i>	-	+
<i>A. cretensis</i>	+	+
<i>A. elegans</i>	-	-
<i>A. fresenii</i> (= <i>A. sulphureus</i>)	+	-/+
<i>A. insulicola</i>	-	+
<i>A. melleus</i>	-	+
<i>A. muricatus</i>	+	+
<i>A. neobridgeri</i>	-	+
<i>A. occultus</i>	+	+
<i>A. ochraceopetaliformis</i> (= <i>A. flocculosus</i>)	-/+	+
<i>A. ochraceus</i>	+/-	+
<i>A. ostianus</i>	-/+	+
<i>A. pallidofulvus</i>	-	+
<i>A. persii</i>	-/+	+
<i>A. pseudoelegans</i>	+	-
<i>A. robustus</i>	-	-
<i>A. roseoglobulosus</i>	+	+
<i>A. salwaensis</i>	+/-	+
<i>A. sclerotiorum</i>	+/-	+
<i>A. sesamicola</i>	+/-	-
<i>A. steynii</i>	+	-
<i>A. subramanianii</i>	+/-	+
<i>A. westerdijkiae</i>	+	+
<i>A. westlandense</i>	+/-	+

Abbreviations: +, most isolates produce the metabolite; +/-: the metabolite is produced in low quantities; -/+ : only some isolates produce the metabolite; -: the isolates do not produce the given metabolite.

kidneys with tubular degeneration, interstitial fibrosis and hyalinization of glomeruli chronic karyomegalic interstitial nephropathy and chronic interstitial nephropathy in Tunisia, and urothelial tumors (Varga et al. 2001b). Ochratoxin A is assigned to group 2b by IARC (possibly carcinogenic to humans; IARC 2012). Ochratoxins occur in various food

**Figure 7.** Structure of patulin (a), and conidial heads of an *A. clavatus* isolate (b).**Table 3.** Fumonisin producing fungi identified so far (modified after Rheeder et al. 2002).

Genus	Section	Species
<i>Fusarium</i>	<i>Liseola</i>	<i>F. verticillioides</i>
	<i>Liseola</i>	<i>F. proliferatum</i>
	<i>Liseola</i>	<i>F. fujikuroi</i>
	<i>Liseola</i>	<i>F. sacchari</i>
	<i>Liseola</i>	<i>F. subglutinans</i> (?)
	<i>Liseola</i>	<i>F. anthropilum</i>
	<i>Liseola</i>	<i>F. globosum</i>
	<i>Liseola</i>	<i>F. thapsinum</i>
	<i>Liseola</i>	<i>F. bulbicola</i>
	<i>Dlaminia</i>	<i>F. nygamai</i>
	<i>Dlaminia</i>	<i>F. dlamini</i>
	<i>Dlaminia</i>	<i>F. napiforme</i> (?)
	<i>Dlaminia</i>	<i>F. pseudonygamai</i>
	<i>Dlaminia</i>	<i>F. andiyazi</i>
	<i>Elegans</i>	<i>F. oxysporum</i>
<i>Arthrosporiella</i>	<i>F. polyphialidicum</i>	
<i>Aspergillus</i>	<i>Nigri</i>	<i>A. niger</i>
	<i>Nigri</i>	<i>A. welwitschiae</i>
<i>Tolypocladium</i>		<i>T. inflatum</i>
		<i>T. cylindrosporium</i>
		<i>T. geodes</i>
<i>Bipolaris</i>		<i>B. maydis</i> (= <i>Cochliobolus heterostrophus</i>)
		<i>B. sorokiana</i> (= <i>Cochliobolus sativus</i>)

products including cereals, spices, coffee, cocoa, grape-derived products and many others (Varga et al. 2001a). The most potent ochratoxin derivative, ochratoxin A (OTA) was first discovered in 1965 in an *Aspergillus ochraceus* isolate (van der Merwe et al. 1965). Since then, several *Aspergillus* and *Penicillium* species have been described as producers of this mycotoxin (Fig. 6). Among Penicillia, *P. verrucosum* and *P. nordicum* are able to produce ochratoxins (Frisvad and Larsen 2015). Regarding Aspergilli, species assigned to sections *Circumdati*, *Nigri* and *Flavi* are able to produce ochratoxins (Frisvad et al. 2004; Visagie et al. 2014; Table 2, Fig. 4). Among black Aspergilli, *A. niger*, *A. welwitschiae*, *A. carbonarius* and *A. sclerotioniger* are able to produce ochratoxins (Samson et al. 2007a). Interestingly, none of the uniseriate species of section *Nigri* are able to produce OTA (Varga et al. 2011b). Regarding section *Flavi*, *A. alliaceus*, *A. albertensis* and *A. lanosus* have been reported as ochratoxin producers (Varga et al. 2011a). Although, *A. ochraceus* was considered previously as the most important OTA producer in view of food safety, recent investigations clarified that other species (e.g., *A. westerdijkiae* and *A. steynii* on coffee, *A. niger* and *A. carbonarius* on grapes, *A. welwitschiae* on onions, *P. verrucosum* on cereals; Noonim et al. 2007; Varga et al. 2012, unpublished results).

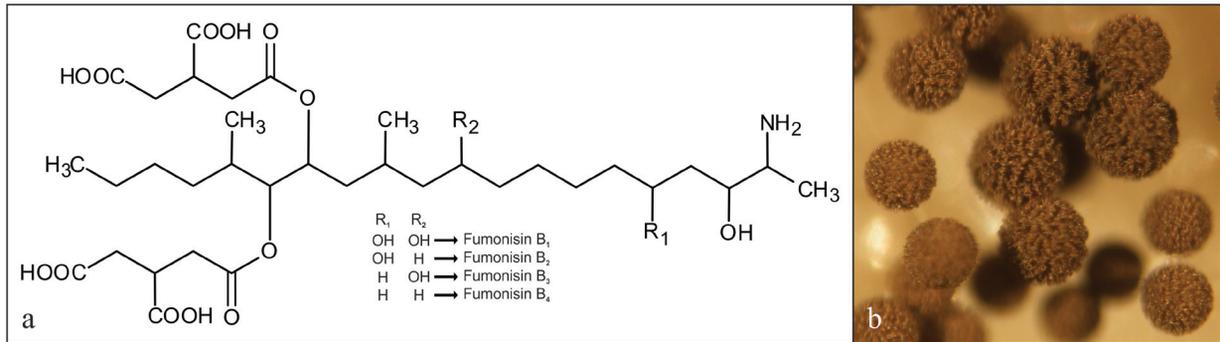


Figure 8. Structural formulae of fumonisins (a), and conidial heads of an *A. niger* isolate (b).

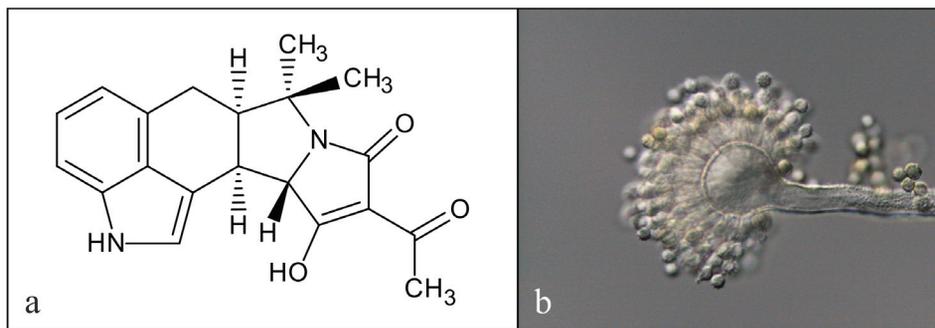


Figure 9. Structure of cyclopiazonic acid (a), and conidial head of *A. minisclerotigenes* (b).

Patulin

Patulin is a tetraketide lactone which is produced by a variety of molds, in particular, *Aspergillus*, *Penicillium* and *Byssoschlamys* species (Puel et al. 2010; Fig. 7). Patulin was originally used as an antibiotic against Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria causing common cold, but after the first trials, it is no longer used for that purpose. The main producer of patulin is *P. expansum*, which contaminates mainly apple and apple products, but also other fruits like cherry, blueberry, plums, bananas, strawberry and grapes. Other *Penicillia* are also able to produce this compound including *P. carneum*, *P. clavigerum*, *P. concentricum*, *P. coprobium*, *P. dipodomycicola*, *P. glandicola*, *P. gladioli*, *P. griseofulvum*, *P. marinum*, *P. paneum*, *P. roqueforti*, *P. sclerotigenum*, *P. vulpinum*, *Byssoschlamys nivea* and *Paecilomyces saturatus* (Frisvad et al. 2004; Puel et al. 2010). However, patulin can also contaminate cereal products, which is suspected to be caused by *Aspergilli*. In this genus, the producers belong to section *Clavati*: *A. clavatus*, *A. giganteus* and *A. longivesica* (Varga et al. 2007c). The claims that *A. terreus* (Draughon

and Ayres 1980), *A. candidus*, *A. amstelodami*, *A. echinulatus*, *A. fumigatus*, *A. parasiticus*, *A. repens*, *A. varicolor* and *A. versicolor* (Steiman et al. 1989) also produces patulin could not be confirmed (Varga et al. 2007b; Samson et al. 2011a; Frisvad and Nielsen 2015).

Fumonisin

Fumonisin are nonaketide derived mycotoxins produced mainly by *Fusarium* species (Fig. 8). They were discovered in 1988 in a *F. verticillioides* isolate (Gelderblom et al. 1988), and were shown to be able to cause various disorders including lung oedema in pigs, leucoencephalomalacia (hole in the head disease) in horses, hepatocarcinoma in laboratory animals, and most importantly, esophageal cancer in humans (Marin et al. 2013). Fumonisin are assigned to group 2b by IARC (possibly carcinogenic to humans; IARC 2012). Later several other *Fusaria* have been identified as fumonisin producers (Table 3). Recently, a survey of other species revealed that other species belonging to the genera *Aspergillus*, *Bipolaris* and *Tolyposcladium* are also able to produce fumonisins (Frisvad

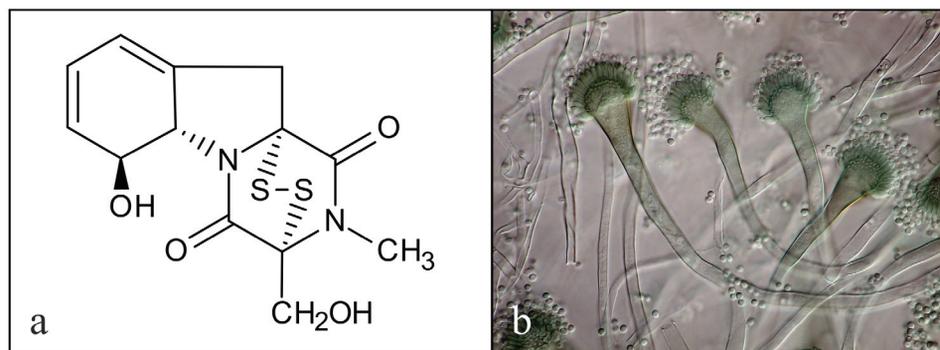


Figure 10. Structure of gliotoxin (a), and conidial heads of an *A. fumigatus* isolate (b).

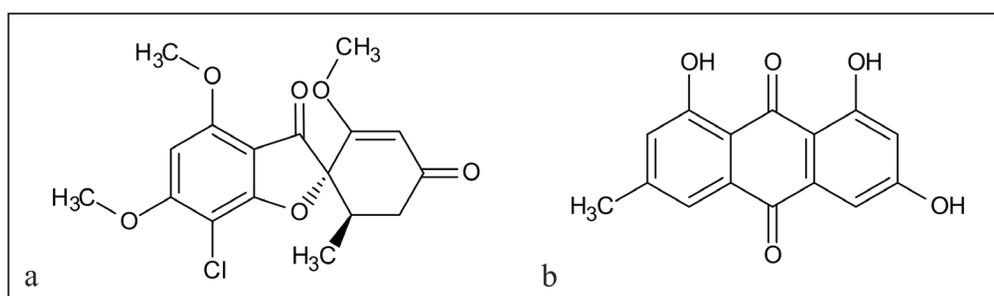


Figure 11. Structures of griseofulvin (a) and emodin (b).

et al. 2007, 2011; Mogensen et al. 2010, 2011; unpublished results). Among Aspergilli, *A. niger* and *A. welwitschiae* (formerly named as *A. awamori*) are fumonisin producers (Samson et al. 2007a; Hong et al. 2013). *A. niger* is frequently detected on grape-derived products (Varga et al. 2010), while *A. welwitschiae* infects onions and *Welwitschia mirabilis* (Varga et al. 2012; unpublished results). *A. fumigatus* was also predicted to produce fumonisins based on genomic studies (Takeda et al. 2014). *A. fumigatus* and *A. lentulus* produce sphingofungins and fumifungin (Larsen et al. 2007), which are structurally related to fumonisins. The host-specific AAL-toxins identified in *Alternaria alternata* f. *lycopersici* and fumonisins are also structurally related, and have similar mode of action on sphingolipid metabolism (Gilchrist and Grogan 1976; Abbas et al. 1994, 1996). Interestingly, homologs of the fumonisin gene cluster or its flanking regions have also been identified in other fungi have been identified in the genomes of several other fungi including *F. graminearum*, *Neurospora crassa*, *Magnaporthe grisea* and *A. nidulans* (Khalidi and Wolfe 2011). The authors suggested that horizontal transfer of the fumonisin biosynthetic gene cluster from an ancestor belonging to the Sordariomycetes resulted in the occurrence of fumonisin biosynthesis in *A. niger*.

Cyclopiazonic acid

Cyclopiazonic acid is chemically an indole tetramic acid biosynthesised by a hybrid polyketide synthase-nonribosomal peptide synthetase (PKS-NRPS) enzyme (Fig. 9). It was originally isolated from *P. cyclopium* (Holzapfel 1968). Cyclopiazonic acid is a specific inhibitor of Ca^{2+} -dependent ATPase in the intracellular Ca^{2+} storage sites. The main producers of cyclopiazonic acid are Penicillia (e.g., *P. camembertii*, *P. chrysogenum*, *P. commune*, *P. hirsutum*, *P. nalgiovense*, *P. puberulum*, *P. griseofulvum*, *P. urticae*, *P. verrucosum* *P. viridicatum*; Frisvad et al. 2004). Among Aspergilli, several species in section *Flavi* produce cyclopiazonic acid including *A. flavus*, *A. minisclerotigenes*, *A. oryzae*, *A. parvisclerotigenus*, *A. pseudocaelatus*, *A. pseudotamarii*, *A. tamarii*, *A. bertholletius* (Varga et al. 2011a; Taniwaki et al. 2012; Table 1), while *A. versicolor* from section *Versicolores*, and *A. lentulus* and *A. fumisynnematus* from the unrelated section *Fumigati* also produce this mycotoxin (Ohmomo et al. 1973; Larsen et al. 2007). Genomic studies could clarify the possible role of horizontal gene transfer or other mechanisms in the occurrence of this mycotoxin in such a diverse, taxonomically unrelated species. Further studies are needed to examine other

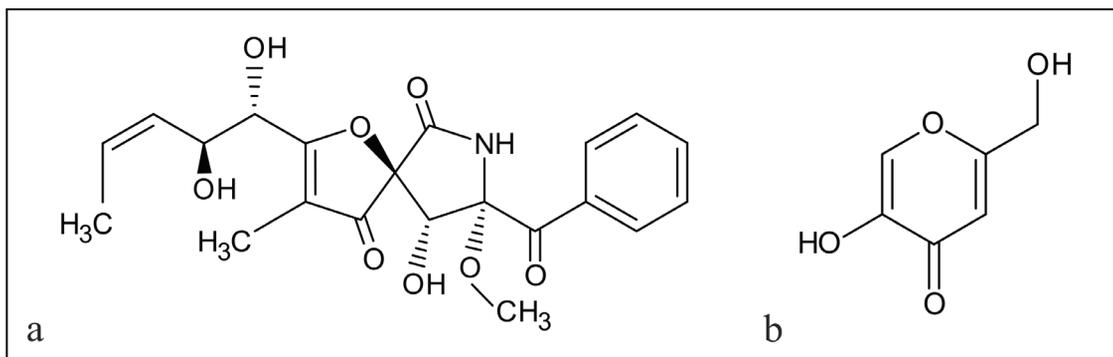


Figure 12. Chemical structures of pseurotin (a) and kojic acid (b).

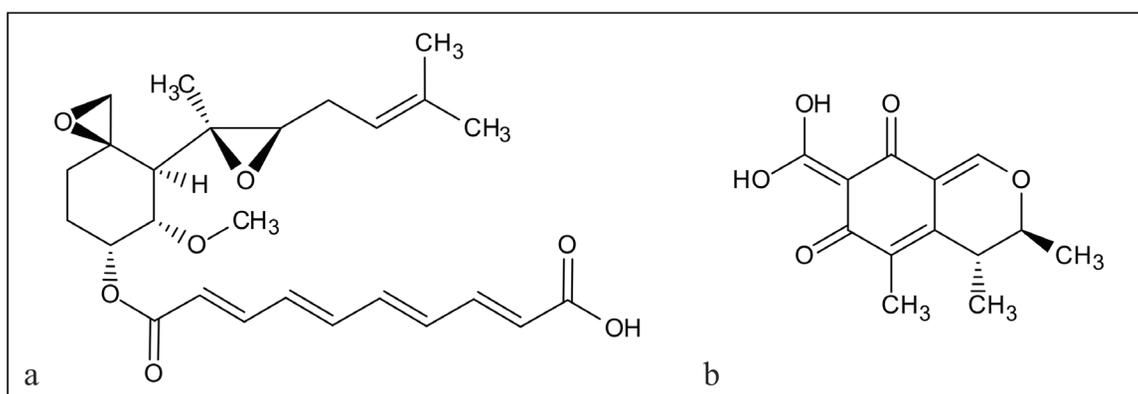


Figure 13. Structures of fumagillin (a) and citrinin (b).

species in section *Versicolores* to clarify if they are also able to produce cyclopiazonic acid.

Gliotoxin

Gliotoxin is a sulfur-containing mycotoxin produced by several fungal species belonging to genera including *Penicillium*, *Gliocladium*, *Thermoascus* and *Aspergillus*. Gliotoxin was originally isolated from *Gliocladium fimbriatum* (Johnson et al. 1943), and it is an epipolythiodioxopiperazine metabolite derived from the amino acid pathway (Fig. 10a). Gliotoxin possesses immunosuppressive properties as it may suppress and cause apoptosis in certain types of cells of the immune system, and also exhibits antibacterial and antiviral properties. It is treated as an important virulence factor in invasive aspergillosis cases caused by *A. fumigatus* (Sugui et al. 2007; Fig. 10b). Regarding *Aspergilli*, gliotoxin is produced by *A. fumigatus* and related species in section *Fumigati* including *A. denticulatus*, *A. ceipii* and *A. pseudofischeri* (Samson et al. 2007b). Even though pathogenic *Aspergilli* including *A. niger*, *A. flavus* and *A. terreus*, and *A. chevalieri* were sug-

gested to produce gliotoxin, these observations could not be confirmed (Wilkinson and Spilbury 1965; Lewis et al. 2005; Kupfahl et al. 2008).

Other mycotoxins

Griseofulvin

Griseofulvin is a chlorine-containing pentaketide derivative which was first identified in *P. griseofulvum* in 1939 (Oxford et al. 1939; Fig. 11a). It is used against fungi causing dermatomycoses or onychomycoses as an antibiotic. Apart from several fungal species assigned to the genera *Penicillium*, *Nigrospora*, *Memmoniella* species (e.g., *P. griseofulvum*, *P. dipodomyicola*, *P. aethiopicum*, *P. persicinum*, *P. sclerotigenum*, *P. coprophilum*, *M. echinata*), some species assigned to *Aspergillus* section *Versicolores* are also able to produce this metabolite including *A. versicolor* and *A. sydowii* (Frisvad and Larsen 2015). Further studies are needed to clarify if the recently described species assigned to this section are able to produce this metabolite.

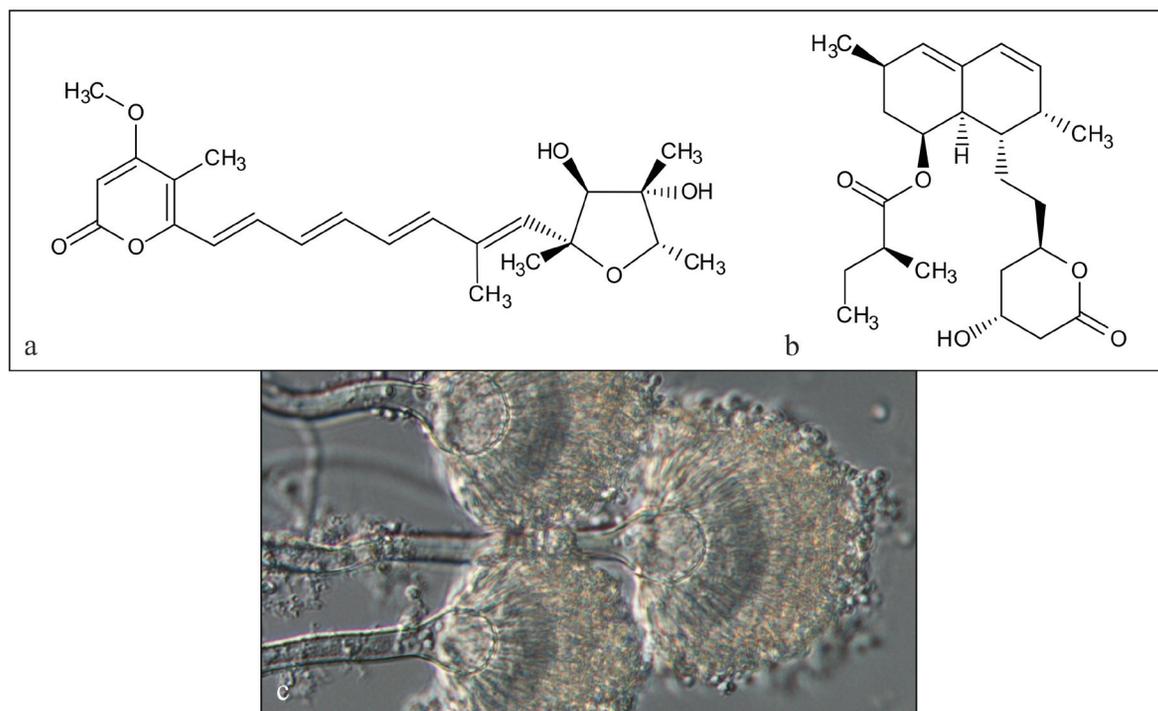


Figure 14. Structures of citreoviridin (a), lovastatin (b), and conidial heads of an *A. terreus* isolate (c).

Emodin

This and other structurally related compounds are anthraquinone derivatives, and have been found in many *Aspergillus* species across the whole genus, but is also common in *Penicillium*, *Talaromyces* species and in plants (Frisvad and Larsen 2015; Fig. 11b). Emodin has antibacterial, antifungal, antiparasitic and antiviral effects and is also an antioxidant (Izhaki 2002). Regarding the *Aspergillus* genus, emodin was first reported as a mycotoxin from *A. wentii* (section *Cremeri*) (Wells et al. 1975). However, later emodin or its derivatives including anthrons, bianthrone, sulochrin, secalonin, emericillin or geodin have been identified in several other species assigned to sections *Aspergillus*, *Cremeri*, *Circumdati*, *Terrei*, *Fumigati*, *Nidulantes* and *Nigri* (Frisvad and Larsen 2015).

Pseurotin

Pseurotin is synthesised by a hybrid PKS-NRPS enzyme in several fungal species. It was originally described in 1976 as a metabolite of *Pseudeurotium ovalis* (Bloch et al. 1976; Fig. 12a). It is a competitive inhibitor of chitin synthase, and suppresses the production of immunoglobulin E (Wenke et al. 1993). Regarding *Aspergilli*, pseurotin is produced by species assigned to section *Clavati* (*A. clavatus*, *A. longivesica*,

A. giganteus, *A. cejpui*), section *Fumigati* (*A. fumigatus*, *A. duricaulis*, *A. aureolus*, *A. auratus*, *A. spinosus*; Samson et al. 2007a) and by *A. nomius* belonging to the unrelated section *Flavi* (Varga et al. 2011a).

Kojic acid

Kojic acid is a pyrone derivative which inhibits tyrosinase, so it is an inhibitor of the formation of pigments in plant and animal tissues, and is used in the food and cosmetic industries to preserve or change colors of substances (Fig. 12b). Kojic acid is mainly produced by species assigned to section *Flavi* (*A. arachidicola*, *A. bombycis*, *A. caelatus*, *A. flavus*, *A. lanosus*, *A. nomius*, *A. oryzae*, *A. parasiticus*, *A. parvisclerotigenus*, *A. pseudocaelatus*, *A. pseudonomius*, *A. pseudotamarii*, *A. sojiae*, *A. tamarii*; Varga et al. 2011a; Table 1).

Fumagillin

Fumagillin is a terpene derivative which has antibiotic properties (Fig. 13a). Fumagillin has been used in the treatment of microsporidiosis in humans and honey bees as well (Molina et al. 2002), and its synthetic derivatives are investigated as angiogenesis inhibitors in the treatment of cancer (Ingber et al. 1990). It was first isolated from *A. fumigatus* in 1949

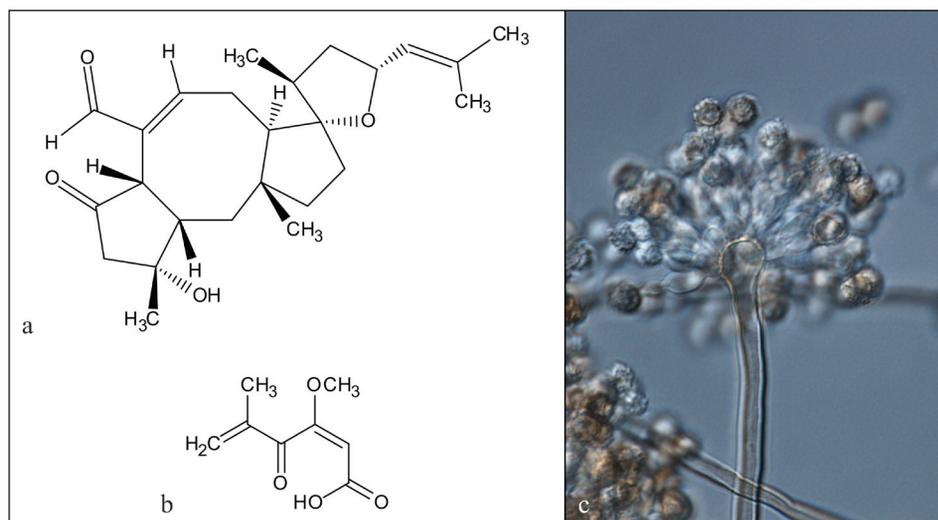


Figure 15. Structure of ophiobolin A (a), penicillic acid (b), and conidial heads of an *A. calidoustus* isolate (c).

(Hanson and Elbe 1949), and also produced by several other species assigned to section *Fumigati* (*A. duricalulis*, *A. aureolus*, *A. udagawae*).

Citrinin

Citrinin is a pentaketide derivative first isolated from *Penicillium citrinum* (Hetherington and Raistrick 1931; Fig. 13b). It is structurally similar to ochratoxins, and has nephrotoxic properties. Several species are able to produce it including *Aspergilli* assigned to sections *Terrei* and *Flavipedes* (*A. alabamensis*, *A. allahabadii*, *A. carneus*, *A. floccosus*, *A. hortai*, *A. neoindicus*, *A. pseudoterreus*, *A. niveus*, *A. flavipes*), *Monascus* (e.g., *M. ruber*, *M. purpureus*, *M. pallens*) and *Penicillium* species (*P. expansum*, *P. radicicola*, *P. verrucosum*; Frisvad et al. 2004; Samson et al. 2011a). Previous claims that *A. candidus* produces citrinin could not be confirmed (Varga et al. 2007b).

Citreoviridin

Citreoviridin is a nonaketide derivative produced by several *Penicillium* (e.g., *P. citreonigrum*, *P. ochrosalmoneum*, *P. citrinum* and *P. miczynskii*; Frisvad et al. 2004) and *Aspergillus* species assigned to section *Terrei* (*A. terreus*, *A. alabamensis*, *A. auroterreus*, *A. neoniveus*; Varga et al. 2011a; Fig. 14a). It is implicated in the etiology of yellow rice disease and cardiac beri-beri.

Mevinolin

Mevinolin (or lovastatin) is a cholesterol-lowering compound,

which was first identified in 1979 (Endo 1979; Fig. 14b). It is produced by some *Aspergillus* species (*A. terreus*, *A. africanus*; Samson et al. 2011a; Fig. 14c) and many other fungi including *Pleurotus* and *Monascus* species, while *Penicillium solitum* produces mevistatin or compactin, which is structurally closely related to lovastatin. Previous reports on the production of lovastatin by other *Aspergilli* including *A. oryzae*, *A. flavus*, *A. niger*, *A. repens*, *A. flavipes* and *A. versicolor* could not be confirmed (Gunde-Cimerman et al. 1973; Shindiaa 1997; Samiee et al. 2003; Valera et al. 2005).

Ophiobolins

Ophiobolins are sesterterpene derivatives which induce cell death in human and animal cell cultures (Au et al. 2000; Fig. 15a). Mainly *Cochliobolus* and *Bipolaris* species produce this phytotoxin. Recently, ophiobolins G and H were identified in *A. calidoustus* (Fig. 15c), *A. insuetus* and *A. keveii* assigned to section *Usti*, ophiobolins C, H and K from a presumably new species of section *Usti*, and several ophiobolins in *A. varicolor* (Wei et al. 2004; Samson et al. 2011b; Bladt et al. 2013). Ophiobolin production could not be confirmed in *A. ustus* (Cutler et al. 1984).

Penicillic acid

Penicillic acid is a tetraketide derivative, and exhibits hepatotoxic, antibacterial, antiviral, cytotoxic, carcinogenic and phytotoxic properties (Keromnes and Thouvenot 1985; Fig. 15b). This compound was first identified in *P. puberulum* and *P. cyclopium* (Birkinshaw et al. 1936). Later it was found in several *Penicillium* (e.g., *P. aurantiogriseum*, *P. carneum*, *P.*

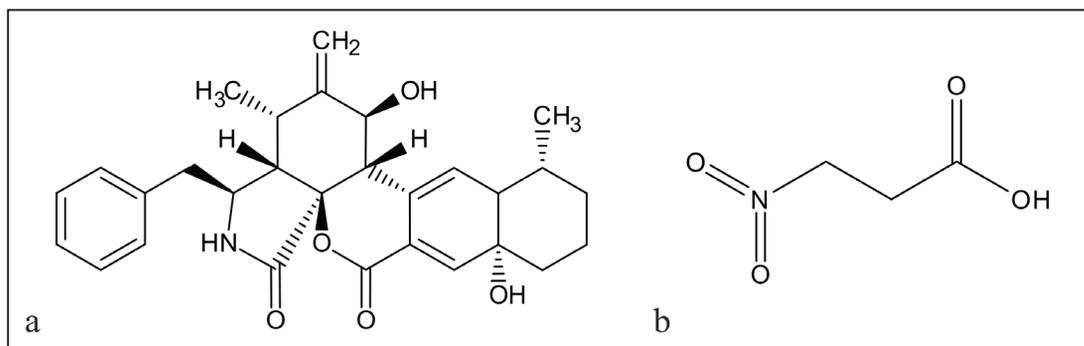


Figure 16. Chemical structures of cytochalasin A (a) and β -nitropropionic acid (b).

freii, *P. melanoconidium*, *P. neoehinulatum*, *P. polonicum*, *P. pulvillorum*, *P. radicola*, *P. tulipae*, *P. viridicatum*; Ciegler and Kurtzman 1970; Frisvad et al. 2004) and *Aspergillus* species (*A. ochraceus*, *A. ostianus*, *A. melleus*, *A. sulphureus*, *A. westerdijkiae*, *A. westlandense*, *A. steynii*, *A. sclerotiorum*, *A. roseoglobulosus*, *A. pseudoelegans*, *A. persii*, *A. muricatus*, *A. flocculosus*, *A. auricomus*, *A. bridgeri*, *A. cretensis*) belonging to section *Circumdati* (Ciegler 1972; Samson et al. 2004; Visagie et al. 2014; Table 2). Interestingly, species belonging to other *Aspergillus* sections are unable to produce this metabolite (Frisvad and Larsen 2015).

Cytochalasins

Cytochalasins were discovered in 1964 during the screening of fungal culture filtrates for possible biological activity on cells (Carter 1967), and are synthesised by a PKS-NRPS hybrid enzyme (Fig. 16a). They are able to bind to actin filaments and block polymerization of actin, consequently cytochalasins can change cellular morphology, inhibit cellular processes such as cell division, and even can induce apoptosis (Cooper 1987). Several fungi can produce cytochalasins belonging to the genera *Phoma*, *Helminthosporium*, *Zygosporium*, *Metarrhizium*, *Chaetomium*, and *Rosellinia*. Regarding *Aspergilli*, several unrelated species are able to produce this compound including *A. clavatus*, *A. terreus*, *A. sclerotioniger*, *A. elegans* and *A. niveus* (Gebhardt et al. 2004; Varga et al. 2007c; Zhang et al. 2010; Zheng et al. 2013; Petersen et al. 2014).

β -nitropropionic acid

β -nitropropionic acid is derived from oxalacetic acid, which is a metabolic intermediate in many processes in living organisms including, e.g., gluconeogenesis, amino acid synthesis, fatty acid synthesis and citric acid cycle (Fig. 16b). This compound was first identified in plants (Carter and McChensey 1949), later in several fungi including *Arthrinium* species (Wei et al. 1994), *Penicillia* (Raistrick and Stössl 1958) and

Aspergilli. The producing species among *Aspergilli* include *A. oryzae* (Penel and Kosikowski 1990), *A. flavus* (Bush et al. 1951) and *A. wentii* (Steenkamp 1969). β -nitropropionic acid contamination occurs in sugarcane, and various oriental fermentation products including miso and soy sauce. It was implicated as a causative agent of sugarcane poisoning in China between 1972-1988 (Liu et al. 1992), and is used in several laboratories to examine the effects of Huntington's disease in animal models (Brouillet et al. 1999).

Aspergillus species are able to produce a range of other secondary metabolites, including, e.g., the highly toxic rubratoxin produced mainly by *Talaromyces purpurogenus* (Yilmaz et al. 2012), and also by *A. (Dichotomomyces) cejpaii* (Varga et al. 2007c). To date, 1984 extracellular metabolites (so-called exometabolites) have been identified in *Aspergilli*. These exometabolites include both secondary metabolites and other secreted metabolites including, e.g., organic acids like itaconic acid in *A. terreus*, citric acid and oxalic acid in *A. niger*, or exoproteins including ribotoxins (Frisvad 2015). The clarification of the role of these compounds in human and animal diseases needs further examinations including genomic and metabolomic studies.

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