Environmental Factors Affecting Efficacy of Some Essential Oils and Potassium Sorbate to Control Growth of *Aspergillus flavus*, *Aspergillus parasiticus* on Wheat and Maize Grains

F. Koc¹*, and S. Kara¹

ABSTRACT

The antifungal potential of essential oils of thyme (*Thymus vulgaris* L.), rosemary (*Rosmarinus officinalis* L.), and laurel (*Laurus nobilis* L.) was determined. To establish this antifungal potential, two molds related to feed spoilage, namely, *Aspergillus flavus* and *Aspergillus parasiticus*, were selected. The agar dilution method was employed for the determination of antifungal activities. The investigated essential oils exhibited inhibitory effects on both molds tested. Thyme oil showed the highest inhibition of mold growth, followed by rosemary and laurel. Thyme essential oil was a stronger inhibitor against *A. parasiticus* than against *A. flavus*. The finding of the present study suggests that thyme essential oil inhibits the growth of fungi attacking stored feed and strengthens the possibility of using it as the alternative to potassium sorbate as effective inhibitor of biodegrading and storage contaminating fungi.

Keywords: Antifungal potential, Laurel, Rosemary, Thyme.

INTRODUCTION

The presence and growth of fungi in food may cause spoilage and result in a reduction in quality and quantity. Some Aspergillus species are responsible for many cases of food and feed deterioration (Abarc et al., 1994). Aspergillus flavus and Aspergillus parasiticus produce aflatoxins in food and feedstuffs. Aflatoxins are known to be potent hepatocarcinogens in animals and humans (Bennet and Klich, 2003; Galvano, 2005). Therefore, the presence of toxigenic fungi and mycotoxins in foods and grains stored for long periods of time presents a potential hazard to human and animal health. Considerable interest has developed in the preservation of feeds by the use of essential oils to effectively suppress growth of such fungi and mycotoxin production.

Currently, there is a strong debate about the safety aspects of chemical preservatives

since they are considered responsible for many carcinogenic and teratogenic attributes as well as residual toxicity. For these reasons, consumers tend to be suspicious of chemical additives and, thus, the demand for natural and socially more acceptable preservatives has been intensified (Leite et al., 2006). The exploration of naturally antimicrobials occurring for food preservation receives increasing attention due to consumer awareness of natural food products and a growing concern of microbial conventional resistance towards preservatives (Schuenzel and Harrison, 2002). Antimicrobial properties of herbs and spices have been recognized and used since ancient times for food preservation and in medicine. Conner (1993) reported on natural antimicrobial agents dating back more than a century. A renewed interest in natural preservation appears to be stimulated by the present food safety concerns, growing problems with microbial resistance, and a

¹Department of Animal Science, Agricultural Faculty, Namik Kemal University, Tekirdag, Turkey. *Corresponding author; e-mail: fkoc@nku.edu.tr

rise in production of minimally processed food, together with green image policies of food industries. Numerous studies have documented the antifungal (Cairns and Magan, 2002; Bluma and Etchevery, 2008) and antibacterial (Canillac and Mourey, 2001; Dorman and Deans, 2000) effects of plant essential oils. Screening experiments with 13-52 essential oils and their major active constituents against 5 - 25microorganisms, (Conner and Beuchat, 1984; Deans and Ritchie, 1987; Dorman and Deans, 2000) have reported thyme, clove, cinnamon, rosemary, oregano, laurel, and lemongrass to be some of the best broad spectrum candidates for inhibition of foodborne pathogens and spoilage organisms (Burt, 2004).

This study was undertaken to investigate the antifungal activities of essential oils of three spices (thyme, laurel, and rosemary) on maize and wheat grains under different conditions of water activity and temperatures.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Fungal Strains and Culture Medium

For inoculation purposes, *A. flavus* and *A. parasiticus* were obtained from a culture at the Laboratory of Food Microbiology, TUBITAK Turkey. The cultures were grown on yeast extract sucrose (YES) basal

Koc and Kara

medium (20 g yeast extract, 20 g agar, 150 g sucrose, 1 L distilled water were autoclaved for 20 minutes at 121° C, 1 atm⁻¹).

Preparation of Essential Oil Extract

Thyme, rosemary, and laurel were collected from Istanbul Province in Turkey. The fresh leaves of thyme, laurel, and rosemary were placed in a round-bottom flask of a Clevenger-type apparatus with water and the oil was hydrodistilled for 3h in this apparatus (Hussain *et al.*, 2008). After distillation, the essential oils were stored in sealed glass containers and refrigerated in the dark at 4°C until use.

Essential Oil Analyses

GC/MS analyses of the main components of each essential oil extract (Table 1) were done on а Perkin-Elmer **O700 SE-30** chromatograph equipped with capillary column 30 m×0.25 mm×0.25 µm film thickness. Operating conditions were as follows: Oven temperature was held at 60°C (3 minutes) and then linearly programmed to 240°C at a rate of 5 °C min⁻¹. Injector and detector were heated to 250°C as well as ion source (EI, 70eV). Helium was used as a carrier gas at constant flow of 0.90 ml min⁻¹. The oil components were identified using retention indices as a preselection routine and comparison of acquired mass spectra to

Table 1. Content of major constituents in tested essential oils (%).

Thymus vulgaris		Rosamarinus officinalis		Laurus nobilis	
Thymol	25.13	Borneol	7.40	α-Pinene	3.21
Carvacrol methyl ether	5.30	Camphor 8.80 Sabinen		Sabinene	6.35
Camphene	2.58	1,8-Cineole 2.20 β -Pinene		β-Pinene	2.69
α-Humulene	2.20	γ-Terpinene	13.20	1,8-Cineole	37.7
Carvacrol	15.93	β-Pinene	8.69	Linalool	9.10
α-Pinene	2.05	Caryophyllene oxide	3.30	a-Terpineol	2.80
Camphor	2.80	α-Pinene	3.21 α-Terpinyl acetate		11.30
p-Cymene	12.18	Sabinene 6.35 Eugenol		Eugenol	3.80
γ-Terpinene	8.75	p-Cymene	12.18	Methyl eugenol	6.80
Borneol	8.85				

those from available literature (Craveiro *et al.*, 1984; Adams, 2007).

Antimicrobial Assay (Disk Diffusion Aassay)

The essential oils were screened for antimicrobial activity using the agar diffusion technique (Turkusay and Onogur, 1998) against two microorganisms of significant importance.

Filter paper disks (Whatman No. 1, 6 mm diameter) containing 15 µL of each essential oil were applied to the surface of agar plates that were previously seeded by spreading of 0.1 ml overnight culture. The plates were incubated overnight at the appropriate temperature and the diameter of the resulting of inhibition zone was measured in millimetres. The results indicated in Figure (1a-b) and in the text represent the net zone of inhibition including the diameter (6 mm) of the paper disk. The scale of measurement was the following (disk diameter included): ≥ 20 mm, strongly inhibitory zone of inhibition ; < 20-12 mm, moderately/mildly inhibitory zone of inhibition, and < 12 mm, not inhibitory.

Substrate

Stored maize and wheat grains were irradiated with 14.5 kGy of gamma irradiation and stored aseptically at 4°C. In

this way, the grains had retained germinative ability. The maize grains were checked for sterility and absence of AFB₁. Initial water activity (a_w) of the grains was 0.60. For all experiments, irradiated maize grains were weighed into sterile flasks and hydrated to the desired a_w levels (0.60, 0.77, and 0.92) by addition of sterile distilled water. After that, flasks were vigorously shaken to homogenously distribute water and essential oils were added to the grains and stored at 4°C for 48 hours in order to allow balanced conditions.

Inoculation, Incubation and Growth Assessment

Rehydrated maize and wheat were placed in sterile Petri dishes (20 g per plate, approximately) forming a single layer of grains covering the whole plate. A 5-mm diameter agar disk was taken from the margin of a 3-day-old growing colony on MMEA at 25°C of each isolate and transferred to the grain placed in the centre of each plate. Plates containing grain at the same a_w level and the same essential oil were placed in containers along with beakers containing glycerol water solutions of the same a_w as the grains in order to create an atmosphere with the same equilibrium relative humidity. Containers were kept at 21 and 34°C. All treatments were repeated twice. Diameters of growing colonies were



Figure 1. Effects of treatments on growth of (a) Aspergillus parasiticus, (b) Aspergillus flavus.

measured every day with the aid of a binocular magnifier. Two diameters were obtained from each colony and growth rates expressed as mm day⁻¹ were calculated by linear regression of colony radius against time for each set of conditions tested. After 28 days, the grains were frozen at -20°C for later AFB₁ analysis.

Aflatoxin B₁ Analyses

After 28 incubation days, AFB₁ was extracted from maize grains and quantitatively determined by HPLC following the methodology proposed by Trucksess et al. (1994). Fifty grams of grains samples maize milled were homogenized with acetonitrile/water (90:10) by shaking in an orbital shaker and the extracts were filtered through Whatman No. 4 filter paper. A 3 ml aliquot of each extract was applied to a clean up column (Mycosep 2224 MFC, Romer). A 200 µL aliquot was derivatized with 700 µL of trifluoratic acid/water (20:10:70). acid/acetic The derivatized aflatoxins (50 µL solution) were reversed-phase analyzed using а HPLC/fluorescence detection system. The HPLC system consisted of an HP1100 pump (Hewlett Packard, Palo Alto, CA, USA) connected to an HP10464A programmable flurescence detector, interfaced to an HP ChemStation. Chromatographic separations were performed on stainless steel, C18 reverse-phase column (150×4.6 mm ID, 5 particle μm size; Luna-Phenomenex, Torrance, CA. USA). Water/methanol/acetonitirle (4:1:1)was used as the mobile phase, at a flow rate of 1.5 ml min⁻¹. The fluorescence of AFB_1 was excitation and detected at emission and wavelengths of 360 440 nm, respectively. Calibration curves were constructed with different levels of AFB₁. This toxin was quantified by correlating the peak height of sample extracts to that of the calibration curve. The mean recovery percentage for AFB_1 was 94.5±3.2%. The limit of detection of the analytical method was 1 ng g^{-1} .

Statistical Analyses

A full factorial design was used. The factors were a_w , temperature, concentration of essential oil, and the response were diameters of growing colonies and AFB₁ concentration. Analysis of variance was performed for colony diameters and AFB₁ concentration using SAS version 16.0 (SAS Institute, Cary, NC, USA). Statistical significance was judged at the 5% level.

RESULTS

Composition of Essential Oils

The main components of thyme, laurel, and rosemary essential oils were identified by GC-MS analyses and listed in Table 1.

Antifungal Activity

Antifungal Activity In vitro

Each essential oil showed notable antifungal activities against *A. parasiticus* and *A. flavus,*, Figure (1a-b). Statistical results showed that kind and amount of essential oils had a significant effect. But, storage time had no significant influence on the antifungal activity (P> 0.05).

Antifungal Activity In vivo

The effects of different temperatures (22 and 34°C) and different concentrations of essential oils on *A. parasiticus* and *A. flavus* in sterile maize grain are given in Table 2. During 28 days period, no significant difference was shown between the mould values of the control and the essential oils treatments. In the case of maize grain samples, the results showed a significant

					Maize		
Mould	Temperature	Essential oil	Moisture	рH	AW	Mould	AFB ₁
		Control	16.56a	6.01ab	0.66ab	731.67a	13.17a
		Thyme	12.89ab	6.12ab	0.66ab	157.33b	2.80b
A. parasiticus		Rosemary	12.50b	6.35ab	0.54b	168.33b	3.00b
, F		Laurel	12.64b	6.26ab	0.70ab	154.67b	2.67b
		P. sorbate	13.09ab	6.33ab	0.72ab	171.67b	3.04b
	22°C	Control	16.41a	6.08ab	0.70ab	645.67a	11.87a
		Thyme	13.27ab	6.13ab	0.65ab	170.67b	3.01b
A. flavus		Rosemary	12.85ab	6.20ab	0.67ab	67.67b	0.00b
		Laurel	14.47ab	6.35ab	0.60ab	127.67b	1.95b
		P. sorbate	13.01ab	6.42a	0.68ab	142.33b	2.17b
	34°C	Control	12.72ab	6.69a	0.71ab	7.33b	0.00b
		Thyme	10.51b	6.65a	0.71ab	19.17b	0.08b
A. parasiticus		Rosemary	10.33c	6.98a	0.63ab	17.00b	0.00b
		Laurel	9.92c	6.52a	0.66ab	7.33b	0.00b
		P. sorbate	6.25d	6.57a	0.77a	4.00b	0.00b
		Control	12.34b	6.73a	0.63ab	3.00b	0.00b
		Thyme	10.83b	6.96a	0.70ab	6.33b	0.00b
A. flavus		Rosemary	10.6 b	6.73a	0.63ab	3.67b	0.00b
		Laurel	11.43b	6.83a	0.68ab	14.67b	0.00b
		P. sorbate	9.00cd	5.42 b	0.60ab	3.50b	0.00b
Standar	Standard error of mean		0.314	0.068	0.012	21.13	0.391
Source of variation					P level		
Mould			0.193	0.618	0.393	0.288	0.192
Temperature			< 0.001	< 0.003	0.594	< 0.001	< 0.001
Essential oil			<0.001	0.394	0.324	< 0.001	< 0.001
Mould×Temperature			0.676	0.519	0.254	0.387	0.204
Mould×Essential oil			0.764	0.354	0.292	0.929	0.842
I emperature×Essential oil			0.288	0.057	0.903	< 0.001	< 0.001
Mould ×Temperature×Essential oil			0.866	0.341	0.360	0.942	0.823

Table 2. Analysis of variance of the effect of different temperature (22 and 34° C) on the control of *A*. *parasiticus* and *A. flavus* in sterile maize grain by the essential oils and potassium sorbate.^{*a*}

^{*a*} Values with different letters in the same column are statistically significantly different (P < 0.05).

effect of temperature (P< 0.001), except for pH (P< 0.003) and, a_w (P= 0.594). In a similar way, the essential oil additive was also significant (P< 0.001), except for pH (P= 0.394) and, a_w (0.324), but the interaction (mould×essential oil×temperature) were not significant in any case.

The effect of different temperatures (22 and 34°C) and different concentrations of essential oils on *A. parasiticus* and *A. flavus* in sterile wheat grain are given in Table 3. During 28 days period, no significant difference was shown between the mould values of the control and the essential oil treatments. In the

case of wheat grain samples, the results showed a significant effect of temperature (P< 0.001), except for pH (P< 0.004). In a similar way, the essential oil additive was also significant (P< 0.001), except for moisture content (P= 0.012) and, a_w (0.968), but the interaction (mould×essential oil×temperature) were not significant in any case.

DISCUSSION

In the experiment, thyme essential oil showed the highest inhibition of mold

					wneat		
Mo	uld Temperature	Essential					
	_	oil	Moisture	pН	AW	Mould	AFB_1
		Control	16.02ab	6.72abc	0.70	734.67a	13.19a
		Thyme	11.88b	6.16d	0.73	192.83b	3.44b
A. parasiticus	siticus	Rosemary	13.42abc	6.56bc	0.66	152.67bc	2.73bcd
		Laurel	13.35abc	6.51bc	0.71	167.50bc	3.19bc
		P. sorbate	14.40ab	6.84ab	0.71	149.33bc	2.85bcd
	22°C	Control	16.99a	6.62abc	0.68	709.00a	12.07a
		Thyme	13.29abc	6.44c	0.70	132.00bc	2.56bcd
A. fla	ivus	Rosemary	13.78ab	6.39cd	0.70	121.17bc	2.32bcd
		Laurel	14.38ab	6.66abc	0.72	144.00bc	2.70bcd
		P. sorbate	15.22ab	6.75abc	0.69	158bc	3.01bcd
		Control	13.71abc	6.80ab	0.80	7.00c	0.11cd
		Thyme	12.18b	6.48c	0.82	1.33c	0.00cd
A. para	siticus	Rosemary	11.41c	6.71abc	0.79	2.67c	0.00cd
		Laurel	11.36c	6.67abc	0.80	12.00c	0.11bcd
		P. sorbate	12.21b	6.56bc	0.82	9.00c	0.14bcd
	34°C	Control	13.72abc	6.74abc	0.81	2.00c	0.00cd
		Thyme	10.59c	6.48c	0.76	2.00c	0.00cd
A. fla	ivus	Rosemary	11.60b	6.76abc	0.80	6.33c	0.00cd
		Laurel	12.80abc	6.72abc	0.82	5.67c	0.08cd
		P. sorbate	12.27b	6.89a	0.82	0.83c	0.00d
	Standard error of mean			0.0241	0.0115	22.11	0.3877
	Source of variation				P level		
	Mould			0.259	0.877	0.546	0.476
	Temperature			< 0.004	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
	Essential oil			< 0.001	0.9688	< 0.001	< 0.001
Mould ×Temperature			0.441	0.457	0.941	0.631	0.562
	Mould×Essential oil			0.218	0.848	0.997	0.993
	Temperature×Essential oil			0.112	0.952	< 0.001	< 0.001
Mo	Mould ×Temperature×Essential oil			0.056	0.991	0.991	0.990

Table 3. Analysis of variance of the effect of different temperature (22 and 34°C) on the control of *A*. *parasiticus* and *A. flavus* in sterile wheat grain by the essential oils and potassium sorbate.^{*a*}

^{*a*} Values with different letters in the same column are statistically significantly different (P < 0.05).

growth, followed by rosemary and laurel. Thyme oils possess useful antimicrobial and antioxidant properties that may be utilized in the food industry and as a dietary supplement. Various species of thyme have possess reported to antifungal been properties (Lambert et al., 2001; Soliman and Badeaa, 2002; Rasooli and Razzaghi, 2004; Pillai and Ramaswany, 2012). The oil showed a strong inhibitory effect against all fungi investigated (Couladis et al., 2004). At present, the essential oils of many Thymus species are widely used as flavoring agents food processing and many in

pharmacological preparations, and particularly thyme oil is still among the world's top 10 essential oils (Stahl-Biskup, 1991; Chia-Wen *et al.*, 2009; Chrpova, 2010).

Maize and wheat are used in many feedstuffs. Today, considerable interest has developed in the preservation of foods and feeds by the use of essential oils to effectively control growth of fungi and mycotoxin production. The fungal growth and survival of these genera are markedly affected by water availability, which is one of the limiting factors in the functioning ecosystems (Aldred et al., 2008). Water activity did not seem to be influenced in any of the investigated feed components. Harvested grains that contain aflatoxigenic fungi can significantly decrease the quality and economic value of the harvested grain. The moisture content of harvested grains is often 18-20% (aw of 0.90-0.93) and they must subsequently be dried. Sometimes, this process is inefficient and environmental conditions often result in rapid aflatoxin production (Nesci and Etchevery, 2006). When the water activity of the grain decreases to the range of 0.68 to 0.80, the Aspergillus and Penicillium spp. predominate, with minor contributions from Absidia and Mucor spp. (Ono et al., 1999; Raid and Kucharek, 2005; Samapundo et al., 2005). A. parasiticus was more sensitive to thyme essential oil than A. flavus., A. flavus, and A. parasiticus grow best and produce aflatoxin at temperatures greater than 21°C (Thompson and Henke, 2000; Rahimifard et al., 2008; Sumalan et al., 2013). Fungal infection is enhanced when the crops are stressed, such as during drought or infestation. Field fungi are characterized by high moisture content requirements (greater than 200 g kg⁻¹), and thus are vulnerable to drying post-harvest. Though some mycelium may remain dormant in feeds after harvesting, most die during storage or international transport (Sauer et al., 1992).

complex interactions There are of environmental factors, like water availability, which influence the efficacy of essential oils. It is possible to use a combination of them to reduce growth of A. flavus and A. parasiticus and aflatoxin production (Centeno et al., 2010). It can be concluded that food and feedstuffs industry, such as maize and wheat grain were influenced by several factors that could affect the effectiveness of the essential oils: pH of the environment, lipids that decrease activity of hydrophobic compounds, and proteins that may cause binding of some compounds and reduce activity.

Feed is a rich environment for most bacteria. Food-borne illnesses caused by

consumption of food contaminated with pathogenic bacteria and/or their toxins are a great problem in animal health. Essential represent a source oils of natural antimicrobial substances and have the potential to be used in the feed industry as a preservative to prevent spoilage and to increase the shelf life of products. The essential oils could also reduce side effects bv their replacement of chemical preservatives. variety molecules А of derived from essential oils also possess bioactive properties with antibacterial activity that could be used directly in feed products or in products for cleaning feed. Natural antimicrobials could be used alone or in combination with other preservation technologies (Tiwari et al., 2009; Sharafi et al., 2010).

The finding of the present study suggests that thyme essential oil extract can be used against fungi attacking stored feed and strengthen the possibility of using it as an alternative to potassium sorbate as effective inhibitor of biodegrading and storage contaminating fungi.

REFERENCES

- Abarc, M. L., Bragulat, M. R., Castella, G. and Cabanes, F. J. 1994. Mycoflora and Aflatoxin Producing Strains in Animal Mixed Feeds. J. Food Protect., 57: 256–258.
- 2. Adams, R. P. 2007. Identification of Essential Oil Components by Gas Chromatography/Mass Spectrometry. Allured Publishing Corporation, Carol Stream, IL. USA.
- 3. Aldred, D., Cairns-Fuller, V. and Magan, N. 2008. Environmental Factors Affect Efficacy of Some Essential Oils and Resveratrol to Control Growth and Ochratoxin A Production by *Penicillium verrucosum* and *Aspergillus westerdijkiae* on Wheat Grain. J. Stored Prod. Res., 44: 341-346.
- 4. Bennett, J. W. and Klich, M. 2003. Mycotoxins, *Clinical Microbiology Rewiews*. **16**: 497-516.
- 5. Bluma, R. V. and Etchevery, M. G. 2008. Application of Essential Oils in Maize

Grain: Impact on *Aspergillus* section *Flavi* Growth Parameters and Aflatoxin Accumulation. *Food Microbiol.*, **25:** 324-334.

- Burt, S. 2004. Essential Oils. Their Antimicrobial Properties and Potential Applications in Foods: Review. Int. J. Food Microbiol., 94: 223-253.
- Cairns, V. and Magan, N. 2002. Impacts of Essential Oils on Growth and Ochratoxin A Production by *Penicillium verrucosum* and *Aspergillus ochraceus* on a Wheat-Based Substrate. In: "Advances in Stored Product Protection", (Eds.): Credland, P. F., Armitage, D. M., Bell, C. H., Cogan, P. M. and Highley, E.. Proceedings of the Eighth International Working conference on Stored Product protection (IWCSPP), CABI Publishing, New York, PP. 479-485.
- 8. Canillac, N. and Mourey, A. 2001. Antibacterial Activity of the Essential Oil of *Picea excelsa* on *Listeria, Staphylococcus aureus* and Coliform Bacteria. *Food Microbiol.*, **18**: 261–268.
- 9. Centeno, S., Calvo, M. A., Adelantado C. and Figueroa, S. 2010. Antifungal Activity of Extracts of *Rosmarinus officinalis* and *Thymus vulgaris* against *Aspergillus flavus* and *A. ochraceus. Pakistan J. Biol. Sci.*, **13**: 452-455.
- Chia-Wen, L., Chia-Wen, Y., Sung-Chuan, W. and Kuang-Hway, Y. 2009. DPPH Free Radical Scavenging Activity, Total Phenolic Contents and Chemical Composition Analysis of Forty-two Kinds of Essential Oils. J. Food Drug Anal., 17: 386–395
- Chrpova, D., Kourimska, L., Gordon, M. H., Hermanova, V., Roubickova, I. and Panek, J. 2010 Antioxidant Activity of Selected Phenols and Herbs Used in Diets for Medical Conditions. *Czech J. Food Sci.*, 28: 317–325.
- Conner, D. D. 1993. Naturally Occurring Compounds. In: "Antimicrobials in Food", (Eds.): Davidson, P. M. and Branen, A. L.. Marcel Dekker, New York, PP. 441–468.
- Conner, D. E. and Beuchat, L. R. 1984. Effects of Essential Oils from Plants on Growth of Food Spoilage Yeasts. J. Agric. Food Sci., 49: 429–434.
- 14. Couladis, M., Tzakou, O., Kujundzic, S., Sokovic, M. and MimicaDukic, N. 2004. Chemical Analysis and Antifungal Activity of *Thymus striatus*. *Phytother. Res.*, **18**: 40-42.

- Craveiro, A. A., Matos, F. J. A. and Alencar J. W. 1984. Kovats Indices as Pre-selection Routine in Mass Spectra Library Search of Volatiles. J. Nat Prod., 47: 890–892.
- Deans, S. G. and Ritchie, G. 1987. Antibacterial Properties of Plant Essential Oils. *Int. J. Food. Microbiol.*, 5(2): 65-180.
- Dorman, H. J. D. and Deans, S. G. 2000. Antimicrobial Agents from Plants: Antibacterial Activity of Plant Volatile Oils. *J. Appl. Microbiol.*, 88: 308–316.
- Galvano, F., Ritieni, A., Piva, G. and Pietri, A. 2005. Mycotoxins in the Human Food Chain. In: "*The Mycotoxin Blue Book*", (Ed.): Diaz, D. E.. Nottingham University Press, England, PP. 187-225.
- Hussain, A. I., Anwar, F., Hussain Sherazi, S. T. and Przybylski, R. 2008. Chemical Composition, Antioxidant and Antimicrobial Activities of Basil (*Ocimum basilicum*) Essential Oils Depends on Seasonal Variations. *Food Chem.*, **108**(3): 986-995.
- Lambert, R. J. W., Skandamis, P. N., Coote, P. and Nychas, G. J. E. 2001. A Study of Minimum Inhibitory Concentrations and Mode of Sction of Oregano Essential Oil, Thymol and Carvacrol. J. Appl. Microbial., 91: 453-462.
- Leite, S. E., Montenegro, S. T. L. and de Oliveira, I. E. 2006. Sensitivity of Spoiling and Pathogen Food Related Bacteria *Origanum vulgare L.* (Lamiaceae) Essential Oil. *Braz. J. Microbial.*, 37: 527-532.
- 22. Nesci, A. V. and Etcheverry, M. G. 2006.Control of Aspergillus Group and Aflatoxin Production Using Natural Maize Phytochemicals under Different Conditions of Water Activity. *Pest Managa. Sci.*, 6:775-784
- Ono, E. Y., Sugiura, Y., Homechin, M., Kamogae, M., Vizzoni, E., Ueno, Y. and Hirooka, E. Y. 1999. Effect of Climatic Conditions on Natural Mycoflora and Fumonisins in Freshly Harvested Corn of the State of Parana, *Brazil. Mycopathologia*, 147: 139-148.
- 24. Pillai, P. and Ramaswany, K. 2012. Effect of Naturally Occurring Antimicrobials and Chemical Preservatives on the Growth of *Aspergillus parasiticus. J. Food Sci. Techno.*, **49(2):** 228-233.
- Rahimifard, N., Sabzevari, O., Shoeibi, Sh., Pakzad, S. R., Ajdari, S., Hajimehdipoor, H., Bagheri, F. and Bagheri, A. 2008. Antifungal Activity of the Essential Oil of

Thymus vulgaris on *Candida albicans*, *Aspergillus niger* and *Aspergillus flavus*. J. *Pure Appl. Microbiol.*, **2(2):** 343-6.

- 26. Raid, R. and Kucharek, T. 2005. 2005 Florida Plant Disease Management Guide: Sweet Corn. EDIS PDMG-V3-51, Cooperative Extension Service, IFAS, University of Florida, February 1-2, 2006 Florida Ruminant Nutrition Symposium, Best Western Gateway Grand, Gainesville, FL.
- 27. Rasooli, I. and Razzaghi A. M. 2004. Inhibitory Effects of Thyme Oils on Growth and Aflatoxin Production by *Aspergillus parasiticus*. *Food Contr.* **15**: 479-483.
- Rasooli, I., Rezaei, M. B. and Allameh, A. 2004. Growth Inhibition and Morphological Alterations of *Aspergillus niger* by Essential Oils from *Thymus Eriocalyx and Thymus X-Porlock. Food Contr.*, **17:** 359-364.
- 29. Samapundo, S., Devliehgere, F., De Meulenaer, B. and Debevere, J. 2005. Effect of Water Activity and Temperature on Growth and the Relationship between Fumonisin Production and the Radial Growth of *Fusarium verticillioides* and *Fusarium proliferatum* on Corn. J. Food Protec., **68**: 1054-1059.
- 30. SAS. 2004. *Statistical Analysis System*. Online Doc 9.1.3 Sas, SAS Institute Inc., Cary.
- Sauer, M. V., Paulson, R. J. and Lobo, R. A. 1992. Reversing the Natural Decline in Human Fertility. J. Am. Med. Assoc., 268: 1275–1279.
- Schuenzel, K. M. and Harrison, M. A. 2002. Microbial Antagonists of Foodborne Pathogens on Fresh Minimally Processed Vegetables. J. Food Protec., 65: 1909-1915.
- 33. Sharafi, S. M., Rasooli, I., Owlia, P., Taghizadeh, M. and Astaneh, S. D. 2010.

Protective Effects of Bioactive Phytochemicals from *Mentha piperita* with Multiple Health Potentials. *Pharmacogn Mag.*, **6:** 147-153.

- 34. Soliman, K. M. and Badeaa, R. I. 2002. Effect of Extracts from Some Medicinal Plants on Different Mycotoxigenic Fungi. *Food Chem. Toxicol.*, 40: 1669-1675.
- 35. Stahl-Biskup, E. 1991. The Chemical Composition of Thyme Oils: A Review of the Literature 1960–1989. *J. Essent. Oil Res.*, **3**: 61–82.
- 36. Sumalan, R. M., Alexa, E. and Poiana, M. A. 2013. Assessment of Inhibitory Potenial of Essential Oils on Natural Mycoflora and *Fusarium* Mycotoxins Production in Wheat. *Chem. Central J.*, 7: 32.
- 37. Thompson, C. and Henke, S. E. 2000. Effect of Climate and Type of Storage Container on Aflatoxin Production in Corn and Its Sssociated Risk to Wildlife Species. J. Wildl. Dis., 36: 172-179.
- Tiwari B. K., Valdramidis V. P., O'Donell C. P., Muthukumarappan K., Bourke, P. and Cullen, P. J. 2009. Application of Natural Zntimicrobials for Food Preservation. J Agric. Food Chem., 57: 5987-6000.
- 39. Trucksess, M. W., Stack, M.E., Nesherim, S., Albert, R. H. and Romer, T. R. 1994. Multifunctional Column Coupled with Liquid Chromatography for Detection of Alfatoxin B₁; B₂, G₁, G₂ in Corn, Almonds, Brazil Nuts, Peanuts and Pistachio Nuts: Collaborative Study. J. AOAC Int., 6: 1512-1521.
- 40. Turkusay, H. and Onogur, E. 1998. Studies on Antifungal Effects of Some Plant Extracts *In vitro*. *Turk*. *J. Agric*. *Forest.*, **22**: 267-271.

عوامل محیطی موثر بر توان بعضی اسانس ها و سوربات پتاسیم در کنترل رشد قارچ های Aspergillus flavus و Aspergillus parasiticus روی دانه گندم و ذرت

ف. کوک، و س. کارا

چکیدہ

در این پژوهش، توان ضد قارچی اسانس آویشن (.Laurus nobilis L.) ، اکلیل کوهی (رزماری) (.Rosmarinus officinalis L.) و بر گ بو (.Laurus nobilis L.) بررسی شد. برای بررسی این توان، دو کچک عامل ضایع شدن و پوسیدگی علوفه شامل Aspergillus flavus و ,Aspergillus parasiticus شد. انتخاب شدند. برای تعیین فعالیتهای ضد قارچی مواد مورد نظر از روش رقیق کردن آگار استفاده شد. اسانس های مطالعه شده روی هر دو کچک اثرات بازدارندگی داشتند. اسانس آویشن روی .A parasiticus قدرت بازدارندگی بیشتری در مقایسه با *Alaurus A. د*اشت.اسانس آویشن بیشترین بازدارندگی رشد قارچ را داشت و بعد از آن اکلیل کوهی و برگ بو قرار داشتند. بر پایه نتایج این بررسی می توان گفت که اسانس آویشن بازدارنده رشد قارچ های انبار علوفه است و نتایج به این گمان قوت می بخشد که می توان آن را به عنوان جایگزین سوربات پتاسیم به عنوان بازدارنده موثر ضد قارچ های زیست-تجزیه گر و آلوده کننده علوفه انباری در نظر گرفت.