Food Chemistry 166 (2015) 330-336



Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Food Chemistry



journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/foodchem

Antifungal activity and inhibition of fumonisin production by *Rosmarinus* officinalis L. essential oil in *Fusarium verticillioides* (Sacc.) Nirenberg



Natalia da Silva Bomfim^a, Lydiana Polis Nakassugi^a, Jessica Faggion Pinheiro Oliveira^a, Cassia Yumie Kohiyama^a, Simone Aparecida Galerani Mossini^a, Renata Grespan^a, Samuel Botião Nerilo^a, Carlos Augusto Mallmann^b, Benicio Alves Abreu Filho^a, Miguel Machinski Jr.^{a,*}

^a Department of Basic Health Sciences, State University of Maringa, Maringa 87020-900, Brazil

^b Laboratory of Mycotoxicological Analysis, Federal University of Santa Maria, Santa Maria 97105-900, Brazil

ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 10 January 2014 Received in revised form 2 June 2014 Accepted 5 June 2014 Available online 14 June 2014

Keywords: Antifungal Rosemary essential oil Fumonisins Fusarium verticillioides Ergosterol

ABSTRACT

The chemical composition of *Rosmarinus officinalis* L. essential oil (REO) was analysed by gas chromatography–mass spectrometry and nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy. The main compounds of the REO were 1.8 cineole (52.2%), camphor (15.2%) and α -pinene (12.4%). The mycelial growth of *Fusarium verticillioides* (Sacc.) Nirenberg was reduced significantly by 150 µg/mL of REO. Significant microscopic morphological changes were visualised, such as the rupture of the cell wall and the leakage of cytoplasm at 300 µg/mL of REO. At lower concentrations of REO, the effects on the production of ergosterol and the biomass of mycelium varied, as did the effects on the production of fumonisins, but at \geq 300 µg/mL of REO, these processes were significantly inhibited, showing the effectiveness of the REO as an antifungal agent. The results suggested that the REO acts against *F. verticillioides* by disrupting the cell wall and causing the loss of cellular components, subsequently inhibiting the production of fumonisins and ergosterol. © 2014 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

Fusarium species are widely distributed grain contaminants. They are economically relevant because of their ability to infect important crops, such as corn, wheat and other grains, in the field (Munkvold, 2003). Fumonisins are mycotoxins produced mainly by the fungus *Fusarium verticillioides*. These mycotoxins have been divided into four groups: fumonisins A, B, C, and P. Analogues of the B series compounds are the most abundant and are subdivided into fumonisin B₁ (FB₁), B₂ (FB₂), and B₃ (FB₃). FB₁, which is the most toxic of compound in this subdivision, is responsible for 70–80% of food contamination. FB₂ and FB₃ are responsible for 15–25% and 3–8% of food contamination, respectively (Rheeder, Marasas, & Vismer, 2002). Fumonisins have been classified by the International Agency for Research on Cancer (2002) as Class 2B substances, i.e., possibly carcinogenic to humans (IARC, 2002).

Fumonisins have been associated with several animal diseases, including equine leucoencephalomalacia and porcine pulmonary

E-mail address: mmjunior@uem.br (M. Machinski Jr.).

oedema, and with the alteration of some immunological parameters in mice and rats (Theumer, Lopez, Masih, Chulze, & Rubinstein, 2002). In humans, the consumption of products contaminated with fumonisins has been associated with an increased risk of developing oesophageal cancer and defective formation of the embryonic neural tube (IARC, 2002; Missmer et al., 2006).

Several strategies for controlling the growth of toxigenic fungi and mycotoxin synthesis employ chemical treatments. However, many problems related to the development of fungus resistance and the emergence of secondary pests have emerging due owing to the indiscriminate use of the chemicals (Cabral, Pinto, & Patriarca, 2013). This fact has increased the risk of high toxic residue levels in food and the environment, which damages the environment and puts human and animal health at risk. Plant essential oils may be an alternative to the employment of these synthetic agents because they have antifungal and antimycotoxigenic activities. Plant essential oils may be easily acquired, have low costs and lack the problems inherent in synthetic chemical products (Soliman & Badeaa, 2002).

Rosemary (*Rosmarinus officinalis* L.) is widely used in the food industry as a flavouring and preservative, due to the presence of phenolic diterpenes, which have antioxidant and antimicrobial properties (Flamini, Cioni, Morelli, Macchia, & Ceccarini, 2002).

^{*} Corresponding author. Address: Laboratory of Toxicology, Department of Basic Health Sciences, State University of Maringa, Avenue Colombo 5790, Maringa, PR 87020-900, Brazil. Tel./fax: +55 44 3011 6029.

However, few studies have reported its use as an antifungal agent. Thus, the aim of this study was to evaluate the efficacy of *R. officinalis* L. essential oil (REO) to control the growth of *F. verticillioides* in vitro and consequently its fumonisin production.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Extraction of the essential oil

The essential oil was obtained from rosemary leaves by hydrodistillation using a Clevenger-type apparatus in accordance with the method recommended by the European Pharmacopoeia (Council of Europe, 1997). The extraction was performed for 150 min while maintaining the boiling point at a constant temperature and using 70 g of dried rosemary leaves (Nutricrock[®], Maringa, Brazil) and 500 mL of distilled water. The yield of the REO extract was 1500 μ L. The oil obtained was stored at 4 °C and protected from light prior to chemical analysis and use.

2.2. Analysis of the essential oil

The chemical composition of the REO was investigated using gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS) and nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy. The GC analysis was performed using a Thermo Electron Corporation Focus GC model under the following conditions: a DB-5 capillary column $(30 \text{ m} \times 0.32 \text{ mm} \times 0.50 \text{ mm});$ column temperature, 60 °C (1 min), rising to 180 °C at 3 °C/min; injector temperature, 220 °C; detector temperature, 220 °C; split ratio, 1:10; carrier gas, He; flow rate, 1.0 mL/min. The injected volume was 1 µL, diluted in acetone (1:10). The GC-MS analysis was performed using a Quadrupole Mass Spectrometer (Thermo Electron Corporation, DSQ II model) operating at 70 eV. The identification of individual components was based on comparisons of their GC retention indices on nonpolar columns and comparisons with the mass spectra of authentic standards purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Adams, 2001). For the NMR analysis, the ¹H (300.06 MHz) and ${}^{13}\text{C}$ NMR (75.45 MHz) spectra were obtained using a deuterated chloroform (CDCl₃) solution using a Mercury-300BB spectrometer with the δ (ppm) value and the spectra referred to those of CDCl₃ (δ : 7.27 for ¹H and 77.00 for ¹³C) as an internal standard.

2.3. Microorganism

F. verticillioides (103 F) was isolated from corn residue used in animal feed, which was implicated in an intoxication (horse) in 1991 by Dr. Elisa Yoko Hirooka, Department of Food Science and Technology, State University of Londrina. The strain was identified at the Science University of Tokyo by Dr. Y. Sugiura, a mycologist, and Dr. Ichinoe, a plant pathologist with expertise in the field of *Fusarium* sp. This isolate had previously been shown to be a highly effective fumonisin producer in liquid culture (Falcão et al., 2011) and was deposited in a culture collection of the University of Londrina (Brazil).

2.4. Culture conditions

F. verticillioides was cultured on PDA (Neogen, Lansing, MI, USA) in a 90 mm diameter Petri dish for 7 days at 25 °C in the dark in an incubator (Model 347G, FANEM, Sao Paulo, Brazil) for the determination of the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) and the minimum fungicidal concentration (MFC) and for the evaluation of the effects of REO on ergosterol and fumonisin production and microconidial morphology.

2.5. Determination of the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) and minimum fungicidal concentration (MFC)

The MIC of REO was determined using the broth-dilution method in accordance with standard M38-A of the National Committee for Clinical Laboratory Standards (Pfaller, 2002) adapted for broth macrodilution. The assay used 12 tubes, 10 of the test tubes contained RPMI-1640 medium, the REO diluted in a sterile solution of 0.1% Tween 80 (Vetec, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil) and the fungus inoculum to be tested, and the other two tubes contained the positive (medium and inoculum) and negative controls (only medium). An aliguot of 500 µL of RPMI was added to tubes 2–11, and 1000 µL was added to tube 12 (negative control). A 500 µL sample of REO at the concentration of 19,200 μ g/mL was added to tubes 1 and 2. Starting with tube 2, a 1:2 serial dilution was performed up to tube 10 by transferring 500 µL from each test tube and then discarding 500 µL from tube 10. A 500 µL sample of the suspension of F. verticillioides at 10⁴/CFU was placed in tubes 1–11, which reduced the oil concentration in each tube to half of its initial value. The final concentrations of REO in tubes 1-10 were 18.75-9,600 µg/mL. The MIC was considered the lowest concentration of REO that inhibited the visually observable growth of F. verticillioides. The positive control was performed using medium that contained only the suspension of F. verticillioides. To determine the MFC, 10 µL from each test tube was added to Sabouraud Dextrose Agar. The tubes were incubated at 35 °C for 24 h. The MFC was considered the lowest concentration of REO that prevented visually observable growth of F. verticillioides.

2.6. Effect of essential oil on F. verticillioides

An 8-mm diameter mycelial disc of F. verticillioides was taken from the PDA culture and was inoculated onto a Petri dish that contained culture medium established by Jiménez, Mateo, Hinojo, and Mateo (2003) and 2% agar. Rosemary essential oil was diluted in a sterile solution of 0.1% Tween-80 and added to the medium to obtain final concentrations of 35, 75, 150, 300 and 600 ug/mL. These concentrations were defined according to Shukla. Singh. Prakash, and Dubey (2012), who proposed using the MIC and two concentrations below and above it. The control for fungal growth (FC) was performed using medium that contained only the inoculum. The plates were incubated at 25 °C for 7 days in the dark. For a positive control (PC), the synthetic anti-fungal nystatin was added to the medium to obtain a final concentration of 1000 µg/mL (Shukla et al., 2012). These plates were used to evaluate mycelial growth and for scanning electron microscopy. Four replications were performed for each of the experimental groups and the control groups.

2.6.1. Mycelial growth

The mycelial growth of *F. verticillioides* was evaluated according to Tian et al. (2011), with modifications. After incubation for 7 days, the colony diameter was measured using a ruler. The percentage of mycelial growth inhibition (MGI) was calculated according to the following formula: MGI (%) = [(dc - dt)/dc] × 100, where dc (cm) is the mean colony diameter for the controls (FC) and dt (cm) is the mean colony diameter for each group treated with REO.

2.6.2. Microscopy and image capture

The technique for the microcultivation of filamentous fungi was used to prepare samples for microscopy. Two blocks of $1 \text{ cm} \times 1 \text{ cm}$ were cut from Petri dishes containing solidified medium established by Jiménez et al. (2003) and *F. verticillioides* that was treated or not treated with REO, and the fungus was seeded on each side of a piece of culture medium. Each block was placed on a sterile lamina and stored in a Petri dish in an incubator for 7 days. After this period, laminae containing the growing fungi were removed and stained using lactophenol cotton blue. Images were captured using an Olympus BX 41 microscope (Shinjukuku, Tokyo, Japan) in the Histology Laboratory of the State University of Maringa.

2.6.3. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM)

Seven-day-old fungal cultures treated with the REO at different concentrations (0, 35, 75, 150, 300 and $600 \mu g/mL$) were observed by SEM. Approximately 5×10 mm segments were cut from cultures growing on plates. The segments were washed according to Endo, Cortez, Ueda-Nakamura, Nakamura, and Dias-Filho (2010) in 0.1 M phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), pH 7.2, and fixed using 2.5% glutaraldehyde (Sigma Chemical, St. Louis, MO, USA) in 0.1 M sodium cacodylate buffer (EM Sciences, Philadelphia, PA, USA). The material was applied to a poly-L-lysine-coated chip coverslip (Sigma–Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) for 2 h at room temperature. The material was washed using 0.1 M sodium cacodylate buffer and dehydrated using an ethanol series (15-100%). The samples were subjected to critical-point drying in CO₂ (White Martins, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil) and sputter-coated with gold (IC-50, Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan). The morphological characteristics of the microconidia were determined using a scanning electron microscope (SEM 550 SS, Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan) operating at 10.0 kV.

2.6.4. Determination of the wet weight of the mycelia

REO was diluted using a sterile solution of 0.1% Tween 80 and added to 24 mL of a liquid medium described by Jiménez et al. (2003) to obtain final concentrations of 35, 75, 150, 300 and 600 µg/mL. F. verticillioides conidial suspensions were diluted in 0.1% Tween 80 to obtain approximately 10^6 conidia/mL and 1000 µL of the suspension was added to each sample of medium. The control for fungal growth (FC) was performed using medium that contained only the inoculum. The positive control (PC) contained nystatin (1000 μ g/mL) in the medium (Shukla et al., 2012). The flasks were incubated at 25 °C for 14 days with agitation in an MA 830 incubator (Marconi[®], Piracicaba, Brazil). After the incubation period, the medium was filtered through pre-weighed filter paper. The wet weight of the mycelia was determined (Dikbas, Kotan, Dadasoglu, & Sahin, 2008). The mycelia were used for determination of the ergosterol content and the filtrates were used for determination of the fumonisin content. Four replications were performed for each of the experimental groups, the FC and PC.

2.6.5. Analytical determination of ergosterol content

The ergosterol extraction procedure was performed according to Silva, Corso, and Matheus (2010) and consisted of transferring the mycelia to a Falcon tube that contained 20 mL of methanol, 5 mL of absolute ethanol PA, and 2 g of potassium hydroxide (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany). This solution was stirred for 5 min in a mixer pipe (KMC 1300 V, Bucheon, Gyeoggi-Do, South Korea) and heated in a water bath (BM Evlab EV:015, Londrina, Brazil) at 70 °C for 40 min. After cooling at room temperature, 5 mL of distilled water was added and the sample was centrifuged (Hettich Universal 320R, Tuttingen, Baden-Wurttemberg, Germany) at $1.735 \times g$ for 24 min. For the final extraction, n-hexane was added (FMaia, Cotia, Brazil) in a volume equal to that of the supernatant, and the organic fraction was collected in an amber glass vial and evaporated in a water bath at 65 °C. The residue obtained was stored at -18 °C until it was analysed.

Ergosterol quantification was performed according to Salmanowicz, Nylund, and Wallander (1990), with modifications. The extract was resuspended in 1 mL of absolute ethanol (Panreac, Barcelona, Spain) and filtered using an LCR Millex filter fitted with a 13-mm diameter PTFE-modified membrane with 0.45-µm pores

(Millipore Corporation, Billerica, MA, USA). 100 µL was injected into the chromatographic system.

High-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) was performed using a Finnigan Surveyor Plus (Thermo Scientific, San Jose, CA, USA) instrument with an ultraviolet/visible spectrum Finnigan Surveyor detection system at a wavelength of 282 nm. For the mobile phase, methanol was used at a flow rate of 1.5 mL min. Reverse-phase HPLC separation was performed on a Spherisorb C18 (Waters, Wexford, Ireland) column with a 5 µm particle size column (150×4.6 mm). For quantification, an intermediary solution of 1000 µg/mL of ergosterol (Sigma Chemical, St. Louis, MO, USA) was prepared in absolute ethanol PA (Merck, Sao Paulo, Brazil) and stored in an amber vial at 4 °C. A five-point calibration curve covering the range of 10–100 µg/mL of ergosterol was used to calibrate the HPLC system. The retention time was 4.6 min. The detection limit and quantification limit were 0.15 and 10 µg/mL. respectively. The percentage of ergosterol recovered was 77.4 ± 7.2 with the used method of extraction.

2.7. Effect of rosemary essential oil on fumonisin production by F. verticillioides

2.7.1. Fumonisin extraction

The fumonisins (FB₁ and FB₂) extraction process was performed according to the method of Camargos, Machinski, and Valente Soares (1999), with modifications. The cell-free extract (10 mL was mixed with 10 mL of methanol:water (3:1, v/v; Honeywell Burdick and Jackson, Muskegon, MI, USA) with stirring in shaker tubes (Vortex KMC 1300 V mixer, Bucheon, Gyeoggi-Do, South Korea) for 1 min. The cleaning step was performed in the solid phase using a strong anion-exchange column (Sep Pak Vac Accel Plus QMA, Waters, Wexford, Ireland). The column was conditioned with 10 mL of methanol, followed by 10 mL of methanol:water (3:1, v/v). The filtrate (20 mL) was then applied to the extract on the column and was washed with 10 mL of methanol:water (3:1, v/v) and with 6 mL of methanol. The fumonisins were eluted using 20 mL of methanol:glacial acetic acid (95:5, v/v; Mallinckrodt Baker, Xalostoc, Mexico). The eluate was evaporated in a 99.9% nitrogen flow in a sample concentrator at 60 °C. The residue obtained was stored at -18 °C until it was analysed.

2.7.2. LC-MS/MS analysis

The samples were analysed using a HPLC instrument coupled to a Quadrupole Mass Spectrometer, with electrospray source operated in the positive mode (HPLC-MS/MS API 5000, AB Sciex Pte. Ltd., CA, USA); Zorbax Eclipse XDB-C8 column (5 μm, 4.6×150 mm; Agilent Technologies, CA, USA) with a column temperature of 40 °C. The analytical separation was performed using gradient elution with water as the mobile phase A and acetonitrile as mobile phase B, both containing 0.5% formic acid. The gradient was segmented into phases A and B, as follows: 0.0 min, A/B (65:35); 3.5 min (30:70); 8.0 min (65:35); 10.0 min (65:35) with a constant flow of 0.8 mL/min. The analysis time was 10 min, consisting of approximately 3.40 min for the retention of FB₁ and 7.20 min for the retention of FB₂. The limits of detection and quantification of the samples were 0.125 and 0.312 ng/L, respectively. The average recovery rates were 94% for FB₁ and FB₂ and the correlation coefficients obtained were 8.1% and 6.2% for FB₁ and FB₂, respectively. The parameters of the mass spectrometer and the ionisation source were optimised as follows: declustering potential (DP) of 160 for FB₁, 250 and 96 for FB₂; collision energy (CE) 57 and 43 V for FB₁, 51 and 41 V for FB₂; entrance potential (EP) 10; collision cell exit potential (CXP) 28; curtain gas (CUR) 10 psi; collision gas (CAD) medium; temperature 5500 °C; ion source gas 1 (GS1) 10 psi; ion source gas 2 (GS2) 50 psi; and ion spray voltage (IS) 50 V.

2.8. Statistical analysis

All of the experiments were repeated four times. The results were expressed as the mean value ± standard deviation and were compared using an analysis of variance (ANOVA) for multiple comparisons, followed by Tukey's test for comparisons with control groups using GraphPad Prism 5.0 software (GraphPad Software, Inc.).

3. Results and discussion

The results of the GC–MS and NMR analysis of the volatile profile of REO are listed in Table 1. The major compounds in the essential oil were 1.8 cineole (52.2%), camphor (15.2%) and α -pinene (12.4%). These results were consistent with previous findings. Jalali-Heravi, Moazeni, and Sereshti (2011) and Jiang et al. (2011) also found that 1.8 cineole was the major component of REO.

In the present study, REO inhibited the growth of *F. verticillioides* with a MIC and MFC of 150 μ g/mL. This activity is attributable to the hydrophobic nature of essential oils causing the loss of membrane integrity and leakage of cellular material. The antifungal activity of REO was exploited by Sacchetti et al. (2005), who demonstrated a MIC of 90 μ g/mL for *Candida albicans*, 120 μ g/mL for *Rhodotorula glutinis*, 60 μ g/mL for *Schizosaccharomyces pombe*, 180 μ g/mL for *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* and 120 μ g/mL for *Yarrowia lipolytica*; in this study the major component of REO was verbenone, the microorganism concentration was 10⁵ conidia/mL and the technique used was different from that used in our study. Jiang et al. (2011) described that REO had a MIC of 1000 μ g/mL and a MFC of 4000 μ g/mL for *Aspergillus niger*; in this study the major component of the REO, the concentration of the microorganism and techniques utilised were similar to ours.

REO inhibited the mycelial growth of *F. verticillioides* in a dosedependent manner (Table 2). High concentrations of essential oils (\geq 150 µg/mL) exhibited significantly different fungal control activities (*p* < 0.05), whereas the levels of activities of relatively

Table 1

Chemical composition of Rosmarinus officinalis L. essential oil (REO).

No.	Compounds	RI ^a	Percentage (%)	Identification ^b
1	α-Pinene	930	12.4	CG/MS, NMR
2	Canfene	945	3.7	CG/MS, NMR
3	β-Pinene	974	1.8	CG/MS, NMR
4	β-Myrcene	989	0.7	CG/MS, NMR
5	α-Phellandrene	1002	0.1	CG/MS
6	3-Carene	1008	0.2	CG/MS
7	α-Terpinene	1013	0.4	CG/MS, NMR
8	p-Cimene	1020	2.1	CG/MS, NMR
9	Limonene	1024	3.5	CG/MS, NMR
10	1.8-cineole	1027	52.2	CG/MS, RMN
11	Trans-β-ocimene	1041	0.1	CG/MS
12	γ-Terpinene	1055	0.4	CG/MS, NMR
13	Linalol	1098	0.4	CG/MS, NMR
14	6-Canfenol	1111	0.1	CG/MS
15	Camphor	1142	15.2	CG/MS, NMR
16	Isoborneol	1154	0.1	CG/MS
17	Borneol	1163	3.0	CG/MS, NMR
18	4-Terpineol	1175	0.5	CG/MS, NMR
19	α-Terpineol	1189	2.3	CG/MS, NMR
20	Verbenone	1209	0.1	CG/MS
21	Isobornyl acetate	1285	0.3	CG/MS, NMR
22	Eugenol	1355	0.1	CG/MS, NMR
23	β-Caryophyllene	1420	0.2	CG/MS, NMR
24	Cis-guaia-3,9-dien-11-ol	1644	0.1	CG/MS
	Total		100.0	

 a RI = Retention indices obtained with reference to an n-alkane series $C_8H_{18}-C_{20}H_{42}$ using DB-5 column.

^b GC/MS – gas chromatography/mass spectrometry and NMR – nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy.

Table 2

REO concentration (µg/mL)	Growth inhibition ^b (%)	
FC ^c	0 ± 0.0	
35	7.7 ± 1.4	
75	10.7 ± 0.0	
150	17.0 ± 2.4^{a}	
300	29.7 ± 7.0^{a}	
600	67.0 ± 7.0^{a}	
PC ^d	79.3 ± 3.7^{a}	

^a Significant differences at *p* < 0.05.

^o Values are average ± standard deviation of replicates.

^c FC = Fungal control (medium containing only the inoculum of an 8-mm diameter disc of *F. verticillioides* mycelia).

 $^{\rm d}$ PC = Positive control (medium containing the inoculum and the antifungal nystatin at 1000 µg/mL).

low concentrations (\leq 75 µg/mL) was not significantly different (p > 0.05). Daferera, Ziogas, and Polissiou (2003) observed 72% inhibition of the mycelial growth of *Fusarium* sp. at 1000 µg/mL of REO. In the present study, the same result was obtained using a lower concentration (600 µg/mL).

With regard to the morphological structure of F. verticillioides that was determined using SEM (Fig. 1), the FC showed intact structures with long monophialides, homogeneous hyphae of consistent diameter and large numbers of microconidia (Fig. 1(A and B)). According to Pitt and Hocking (1997) F. verticillioides characteristically produce slightly curved fusiform microconidia that form chains of long monophialides. Reduced amounts of microconidia were observed in samples grown in high concentrations $(\geqslant\!150\,\mu g/mL)$ of REO, and they were smaller than normal. SEM imaging showed that the length of the microconidia had increased to 10.7 μ m (Fig. 1(C)) in samples grown in 75 μ g/mL of REO in relation to that of the FC, for which the lengths ranged from 7.15 to 8.24 μm (Fig. 1(A and B)). Fig. 1(D and E) shows the reduced length of the microconidia, of 7.03 and 5.72 μ m at 150 and 300 μ g/mL of REO, respectively. In the PC (Fig. 1(F)), the length of the microconidia was 6.17 µm. According to the studies of Li et al. (2006), changes in the size of microconidia may be related to the REO suppressing the expression of the velvet homologous gene veA of F. verticillioides (FvVE1). This activity can affect colony morphology by increasing the size of conidia due to reducing the turgor pressure on the cell wall and by the modification of the surface properties of the cell by osmotic stabilisers in an attempt to restore the osmotic balance.

The appearance of the microconidia was changed when increased concentrations of REO were used. The microconidia appeared wrinkled due to the reduction in cytoplasmic contents, as was verified by Yamamoto-Ribeiro et al. (2013) in a study that evaluated the effects of ginger essential oil on *F. verticillioides*. At the concentration of 300 μ g/mL REO (Fig. 1(D)), the apparent rupture of the cell wall and leakage of the cytoplasmic contents was observed, and due to these effects, the hyphae appeared flattened and wrinkled. This result indicated that the antifungal property of REO against *F. verticillioides* occurs through the loss of membrane integrity and thus the blockage of cell growth. This effect of REO on the integrity and rigidity of the cell wall is consistent with the antifungal properties described by Carmo, Lima, Souza, and Sousa (2008).

Regarding the weight of the mycelia, there was an increase of 14.5 and 18.1% in cultures treated with 35 and 75 μ g/mL REO, respectively, compared to that of the FC. At the concentration of 150 μ g/mL of REO, a reduction of 12.0% in the weight of the



Fig. 1. Scanning electron micrographs of *F. verticillioides* treated with rosemary essential oil (REO). (A and B) untreated microconidia (FC – fungal control). (C–E) Microconidia treated with 75, 150 and 300 µg/mL of REO, respectively. (F) PC – positive control, microconidial treated with nystatin (1000 µg/mL). The liquid medium was prepared according to liménez et al. (2003) with the addition of 2% agar. The cultures were incubated for 7 days at 25 °C in the dark (*n* = 4).

mycelia was observed and significant reductions (p < 0.05) in this value occurred in cultures treated with REO at 300 µg/mL (50.7%) and 600 µg/mL (100%). The amount of ergosterol produced by *F. verticillioides* exposed to REO at different concentrations was used to quantify the fungal biomass. As shown in Fig. 2, REO at lower concentrations (35–150 µg/mL) caused fluctuations in ergosterol production and at 300 and 600 µg/mL, REO effectively inhibited ergosterol production in *F. verticillioides*, with inhibition of 75.6 and 100%, respectively.

Some antifungal agents inhibit cell growth by interrupting ergosterol biosynthesis, which results from the antifungals binding to ergosterol on the cellular membrane. Thus, this process affects the integrity and function of some of the membrane-bound proteins and leads to osmotic disturbances, disruption of cell growth and proliferation (Bendaha et al., 2011). The oscillations observed in the amounts of mycelia and the reduction of ergosterol production may have been due to stresses caused by some components of the REO. These components are capable of activating a compensatory mechanism, which generated an adaptive response of the



Fig. 2. Effect of *Rosmarinus officinalis* L. essential oil (REO) on the production of ergosterol by *F. verticillioides*, as determined using HPLC-UV. The cultures were incubated for 14 days with agitation at 25 °C (*n* = 4). FC – fungal control (inoculum without REO). PC – positive control (inoculum treated with 1000 µg/mL of nystatin). **p* < 0.05.

Table 3

Effect of *Rosmarinus officinalis* L. essential oil (REO) on fumonisin production by *F. verticillioides*. The cultures were incubated for 14 days with agitation at 25 °C (n = 4). FC – fungal control (inoculum without REO). PC – positive control (inoculum treated with 1000 µg/mL of nystatin).

REO (µg/mL)	Fumonisin B ₁		Fumonisin B ₂	
	Concentration (ng/L) ^b	Inhibition (%)	Concentration (ng/L) ^b	Inhibition (%)
FC	383.5 ± 62.8	0	92 ± 32.9	0
35	601.7 ± 30.1	0	115.0 ± 24.0	0
75	428.7 ± 222.0	0	98.8 ± 49.8	0
150	380.3 ± 216.2	0.8	76.2 ± 22.0	17.2
300	8.6 ± 7.8^{a}	97.7	2.4 ± 2.0^{a}	97.4
600	1.7 ± 0.05^{a}	99.6	0.6 ± 0.03^{a}	99.4
PC	138.00 ± 0.9^{a}	64.0	15.0 ± 0.8^{a}	83.7

^a Significantly different (p < 0.05) compared with the FC (Fungal Control).

^b Values obtained by HPLC-MS/MS analysis, expressed as the mean values ± standard deviation.

fungus, resulting in the reprogramming of genomic expression to protect the cell-wall structure (Parveen et al., 2004).

REO significantly inhibited the production of fumonisins B₁ (FB₁) and B₂ (FB₂) by F. verticillioides (p < 0.05) from the concentration of 300 µg/mL (Table 3). At low concentrations of REO (35 and $75 \,\mu g/mL$), there was an increase in the production of fumonisins. Prakash et al. (2010) reported that lower concentrations of Piper *betle* L. essential oil stimulated the production of aflatoxin B_1 by Aspergillus flavus. The cytotoxic effect of essential oil could induce an adaptive response, resulting in the reprogramming of gene expression to preserve the microorganism, with the subsequent increase in toxin production. Our results do not support such findings because REO did not cause an increase in ergosterol production. The increase in biomass could account for the increase in fumonisin production. Perhaps some compounds present in the essential oil accelerated the toxin metabolism as a response to stress, even though such a stimulus was not sufficient to cause an increase in ergosterol production (Magan, Hope, Colleate, & Baxter, 2002). The REO was effective in inhibiting the production of FB₁ and FB₂ at concentrations of 300 and 600 μ g/mL compared with 1000 μ g/mL of the antifungal nystatin.

4. Conclusions

This study showed that *R. officinalis* essential oil (REO) has strong antifungal activity against *F. verticillioides*, as indicated by the fluctuations that REO caused in the size of the fungal structures and the weight of the mycelium and the changes in the morphology of the microconidia and by its inhibitory effects on ergosterol and fumonisin production. The fungitoxic effects of REO on *F. verticillioides* may be attributed to the disruption of the cell wall and the loss of cellular components. Therefore, this essential oil can be used as an alternative fungicide that carries less risk to the environment and to humans.

Acknowledgments

This paper was part of the M.Sc. thesis work that was presented by the first author and was funded by the Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior - CAPES (Grant # 028054/2009). We thank the members of the Laboratory of Mycotoxicological Analysis at the Federal University of Santa Maria, the Microscopy Central Complex(CIM) of Central Research Support (COMCAP), the Laboratory of Mycology, the Laboratory of Biotechnology of Natural and Synthetic Products (Labipros) and the Laboratory of Histology at the State University of Maringa for their cooperation in this work.

References

- Adams, R. P. (2001). Identification of essential oils components by gas chromatography/ quadrupole mass spectrometry (3th ed.). Illinois: Allured Publishing Cooperation.
- Bendaha, H., Yu, L., Touzani, R., Souane, R., Giaever, G., Nislow, C., et al. (2011). New azole antifungal agents with novel modes of action: synthesis and biological studies of new tridentate ligands based on pyrazole and triazole. *European Journal of Medicinal Chemistry*, 46, 4117–4124.
- Cabral, L. C., Pinto, V. F., & Patriarca, A. (2013). Application of plant derived compounds to control fungal spoilage and mycotoxin production in foods. *International Journal of Food Microbiology*, 166, 1–14.
- Camargos, S. M., Machinski, M., Jr., & Valente Soares, L. M. (1999). Avaliação de métodos para determinação de fumonisinas B₁ e B₂ em milho. *Revista do Instituto Adolfo Lutz*, 58, 71–79.
- Council of Europe. (1997). Methods of pharmacognosy. *European Pharmacopoeia*, 3, 121–122.
- Carmo, E. S., Lima, E. O., Souza, E. L., & Sousa, F. B. (2008). Effect of *Cinnamonum zeylanicum* Blume essential oil on the growth and morphogenesis of some potentially pathogenic *Aspergillus* species. *Brazilian Journal of Microbiology*, 39, 91–97.
- Daferera, D. J., Ziogas, B. N., & Polissiou, M. G. (2003). The effectiveness of plant essential oils on the growth of Botrytis cinerea, Fusarium sp. and Clavibacter michiganensis subsp. michiganensis. Crop Protection, 22, 39–44.
- Dikbas, N., Kotan, R., Dadasoglu, F., & Sahin, F. (2008). Control of Aspergillus flavus with essential oil and methanol extract of Satureja hortensi. International Journal of Food Microbiology, 124, 179–182.
- Endo, E. H., Cortez, D. A. G., Ueda-Nakamura, T., Nakamura, C. V., & Dias-Filho, B. P. (2010). Potent antifungal activity of extracts and pure compound isolated from pomegranate peels and synergism with fluconazole against *Candida albicans*. *Research in Microbiology*, 161, 534–540.
- Falcão, V. C. A., Ono, M. A., Miguel, T. A., Vizoni, E., Hirooka, E. Y., & Ono, E. Y. S. (2011). Fusarium verticillioides: Evaluation of fumonisin production and effect of fungicides on in vitro inhibition of mycelial growth. Mycopathologia, 171, 77–84.
- Flamini, G., Cioni, P. L., Morelli, I., Macchia, M., & Ceccarini, L. (2002). Main agronomic-productive characteristics of two ecotypes of *Rosmarinus officinalis* L. and chemical composition of their essential oils. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 50, 3512–3517.
- IARC. (2002). International agency for research on cancer. IARC monographs on the evaluation of carcinogenic risks to humans: Traditional herbal medicines, some mycotoxins, naphthalene and styrene. Lyon: IARC Scientific Publication.
- Jalali-Heravi, M., Moazeni, R. S., & Sereshti, H. (2011). Analysis of Iranian rosemary essential oil: Application of gas chromatography–mass spectrometry combined with chemometrics. *Journal of Chromatography A*, 1218, 2569–2576.
- Jiang, Y., Wu, N., Fu, Y. J., Wang, W., Luo, M., Zhao, C. J., et al. (2011). Chemical composition and antimicrobial activity of the essential oil of Rosemary. *Environmental Toxicology and Pharmacology*, 32, 63–68.
- Jiménez, M., Mateo, J. J., Hinojo, M. J., & Mateo, R. (2003). Sugars and amino acids as factors affecting the synthesis of fumonisins in liquid cultures of isolates of the *Gibberella fujikuroi* complex. *International Journal of Food Microbiology*, 89, 185–193.
- Li, S., Myung, K., Guse, D., Donkin, B., Proctor, R. H., Grayburn, W. S., et al. (2006). FvVE1 regulates filamentous growth, the ratio of microconidia to macroconidia and cell wall formation in *Fusarium verticillioides*. *Molecular Microbiology*, 62, 1418–1432.
- Magan, N., Hope, R., Colleate, A., & Baxter, E. S. (2002). Relationship between growth and mycotoxin production by *Fusarium* species, biocides and environment. *European Journal of Plant Pathology*, 108, 685–690.
- Missmer, S. A., Suarez, L., Felkner, M., Wang, E., Merrill, A. H., Jr., Rothman, K. J., et al. (2006). Exposure to fumonisins and the occurrence of neural tube defects along the Texas-Mexico Border. *Environmental Health Perspectives*, 114, 237–241.
- Munkvold, G. P. (2003). Epidemiology of Fusarium diseases and their mycotoxins in maize ears. European Journal of Plant Pathology, 109, 705–713.
- Parveen, M., Hasan, M. K., Takahashi, J., Murata, Y., Kitagawa, E., Kodama, O., et al. (2004). Response of Saccharomyces cerevisiae to a monoterpene: evaluation of antifungal potential by DNA microarray analysis. Journal of Antimicrobial Chemotherapy, 54, 46–55.
- Pfaller, M. A. (2002). Reference method for broth dilution antifungal susceptibility testing of filamentous fungi: Approved standard. Wayne: National Committee for Clinical Laboratory Standards.
- Pitt, J. I., & Hocking, A. D. (1997). Fungi and food spoilage (2nd ed.). London: Blackie Academic & Professional.
- Prakash, B., Shukla, R., Singh, P., Kumar, A., Mishra, P. K., & Dubey, N. K. (2010). Efficacy of chemically characterized *Piper betle* L. essential oil against fungal and aflatoxin contamination of some edible commodities and its antioxidant activity. *International Journal of Food Microbiology*, 142, 114–119.
- Rheeder, J. P., Marasas, W. F. O., & Vismer, H. F. (2002). Production of fumonisin analogs by Fusarium species. Applied and Environmental Microbiology, 68, 2101–2105.
- Sacchetti, G., Maietti, S., Muzzoli, M., Scaglianti, M., Manfredini, S., Radice, M., et al. (2005). Comparative evaluation of 11 essential oils of different origin as functional antioxidants, antiradicals and antimicrobials in foods. *Food Chemistry*, 91, 621–632.
- Salmanowicz, B., Nylund, J.-E., & Wallander, H. (1990). High performance liquid chromatography-assay of ergosterol: A technique to estimate fungal biomass in roots with ectomycorrhiza. Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment, 28, 437–440.

- Shukla, R., Singh, P., Prakash, B., & Dubey, N. K. (2012). Antifungal, aflatoxin inhibition and antioxidant activity of *Callistemon lanceolatus* (Sm.) Sweet essential oil and its major component 1,8-cineole against fungal isolates from chickpea seeds. *Food Control*, *25*, 27–33.Silva, R. R., Corso, C. R., & Matheus, D. R. (2010). Effect of culture conditions on the
- Silva, R. R., Corso, C. R., & Matheus, D. R. (2010). Effect of culture conditions on the biomass determination by ergosterol of *Lentinus crinitus* and *Psilocybe castanella*. World Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology, 26, 841–846.
- Soliman, K. M., & Badeaa, R. I. (2002). Effect of oil extracted from some medicinal plants on different mycotoxigenic fungi. *Food and Chemical Toxicology*, 40, 1669–1675.
- Theumer, M. G., Lopez, A. G., Masih, D. T., Chulze, S. N., & Rubinstein, H. R. (2002). Immunobiological effects of fumonisin B₁ in experimental subchronic mycotoxicoses in rats. *Clinical and Diagnostic Laboratory Immunology*, 9, 149–155.
- Tian, J., Ban, X., Zeng, H., Huang, B., He, J., & Wang, Y. (2011). In vitro and in vivo activity of essential oil from dill (Anethun graveolens L.) against fungal spoilage of cherry tomatoes. Food Control, 22, 1992–1999.
- Yamamoto-Ribeiro, M. M. G., Grespan, R., Kohiyama, C. Y., Ferreira, F. D., Mossini, S. A., Silva, E. L., et al. (2013). Effect of Zingiber officinale essential oil on *Fusarium verticillioides* and fumonisin production. *Food Chemistry*, 141, 3147–3152.