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1 Highlights

- 2 - Postharvest mycotoxins contamination represents a worldwide problem.
- 3 - Predictive models on mycotoxin production in foods are scarce.
- 4 - Luedeking-Piret, Baranyi, polynomial and logistic models are the main mathematical
- 5 approaches.
- 6 - A number of challenges need to be solved before they are applied in food safety management.

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Accepted Manuscript

7 Modeling postharvest mycotoxins in foods: recent research

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29 Abstract

30 Available information on the prediction of postharvest production of mycotoxins in recent years is  
31 reviewed. Predictive mycology has been focused mainly on fungal growth whereas studies on prediction  
32 of mycotoxins in foods are scarce. Modeling mycotoxin production is challenging due to the high  
33 variability in mycotoxigenic potential among species and isolates. Besides mycotoxin biosynthesis  
34 pathways and factors influencing them are still poorly understood. Baranyi and Luedeking-Piret models  
35 have been recently used as primary models for mycotoxin prediction, while for secondary modeling,  
36 polynomial approaches have been used. Furthermore, probability models can be a different alternative.  
37 In any case, media for data generation, intraspecies variability, and microbial interactions should not be  
38 disregarded before model application in food safety management systems.

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## 60 INTRODUCTION

61 Food industry aims to obtain good quality and safe products and to maintain this throughout  
62 their shelf-life. Nevertheless, mycotoxins, as natural contaminants are not easy to control for both  
63 producers and exporters. Mycotoxins are secondary metabolites, toxic to human and animal health,  
64 produced by a wide range of fungi. Mycotoxins contamination represents a worldwide problem in terms  
65 of human/animal health and furthermore can pose a heavy economic burden to the industry.

66 Mycotoxins can contaminate a product all over the food chain, in the field as well as during storage, or  
67 at later points (figure 1). Herein we will focus on the postharvest stage, where many factors are involved  
68 in the production of each particular mycotoxin; (a) intrinsic nutritional factors, (b) extrinsic factors, (c),  
69 processing factors and (d) implicit microbial factors [1].

70 As a result of inadequate handling/logistic structures, fungal growth and subsequent mycotoxin  
71 production are allowed. While the complete elimination of mycotoxin in contaminated foodstuffs is not  
72 achievable at this time, the aim is to focus on minimizing the occurrence of these toxins throughout the  
73 food chain. The implementation of good manufacturing practices (GMP) during handling, storage,  
74 processing and distribution represents an important line of defense in controlling the postharvest  
75 contamination of commodities by mycotoxins. To date, several postharvest strategies to prevent/reduce  
76 growth and mycotoxin production have been proposed. It is clear for the industry that drying of cereals  
77 and nuts, and temperature and moisture control during storage are factors of great importance, and  
78 other techniques including the application of compounds with antifungal effects such as synthetic  
79 antioxidants, essential oils [2,3], salts [4], natural phenolic compounds [5], or the use of modified  
80 atmospheres [6] have been used. In the past few years, there have been an increasing number of  
81 studies dealing with the use of bacteria, yeasts and moulds to control mycotoxigenic moulds in foods  
82 [7,8]. Beyond this, predictive mycology, providing tools for the prediction of fungal growth and  
83 mycotoxin production [9,10\*], seems to be a promising approach and could play a role in improving the  
84 quality and safety of food. This tool may help for adequate decision making purposes, risk assessment  
85 and in the implementation of mitigation strategies.

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## 87 POSTHARVEST MYCOTOXINS

88 Many fungi can invade and cause damage to grains, seeds, raw materials and different foods and feeds  
89 during transport and storage steps, either before or after drying. Particular postharvest practices which  
90 may be conducive to toxin accumulation and need further control and prevention strategies are slow

91 drying of fruits in certain areas [11] or postharvest ensilage of dairy cow feed materials [12]. *Aspergillus*  
92 and *Penicillium* are the major mycotoxigenic postharvest fungi. The minimal necessary water activity  
93 ( $a_w$ ) for most *Aspergillus* and *Penicillium* species is 0.75–0.85, but they can grow optimally at  $a_w$  0.93–  
94 0.98. These fungi can grow at temperatures between 25–40 °C [13,14]. Typical postharvest mycotoxins  
95 are ochratoxin A (OTA), aflatoxins (AFs) (also typical in preharvest) and, in to lesser extent,  
96 deoxynivalenol (DON) [15]. A special reference must be made to patulin, which is an exclusively  
97 postharvest mycotoxin which affects fruits, mainly apples. This review deals, however, with OTA and AFs  
98 in which more attention has been focused lately.

99

## 100 RECENT RESEARCH ON PREDICTIVE MODELING OF POSTHARVEST MYCOTOXINS PRODUCTION

101

102 Postharvest modeling tries to simulate the conditions to which food would be exposed in order  
103 to forecast the microbial behavior and then to optimize postharvest management. Detailed predictive  
104 studies on mycotoxin production under various storage conditions are limited, but there is a wealth of  
105 information aiming to predict the growth of mycotoxigenic fungi and the influence of environmental  
106 factors on it. During the past decade several publications have dealt with the production of different  
107 mycotoxins over time, nevertheless, these studies rarely took into account the possibility to model such  
108 production. From the food safety point of view the target to be modeled are the mycotoxins, however  
109 modeling mycotoxin concentration could be an unpractical approach due to the high variability in  
110 mycotoxin potential among species and even more, among strains [16\*\*]. The mycotoxins modeled and  
111 the models used in the existing studies presented in the following sections are listed in table 1.

112

### 113 MODELING AFLATOXINS

114 Although AFs are a common problem at harvest, the situation may worsen during postharvest when  
115 foodstuffs are stored under conditions that promote the growth of the specific microorganisms that  
116 produce them, *Aspergillus flavus* and *A. parasiticus*, which primarily contaminate food crops such as  
117 maize, peanuts, and tree nuts in tropical and subtropical climates.

118 Regarding AFs, several studies are available which model the effect of  $a_w$  and temperature on synthetic  
119 media [17\*] and on real food matrices like maize grain [18] or pistachio nuts [19,20\*\*]. Recently,  
120 Baranyi and Luedeking-Piret models have been the two primary models used to predict aflatoxin (AF)  
121 production over time. Garcia et al. [18] modeled the kinetics of aflatoxin B<sub>1</sub> (AFB<sub>1</sub>) production by *A.*

122 flavus using the general mixed-growth associated Luedeking-Piret model for product formation under  
123 the assumption that both no-growth-associated and growth-associated toxin production existed. They  
124 considered three possibilities to estimate AFs formation, namely through colony radius, colony surface  
125 or biomass dry weight, demonstrating that AFs were produced during active growth of the fungus and  
126 when the growth had stopped, therefore AF biosynthesis did not present a clear delay in relation to  
127 growth. In such approach, parameters  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are estimated, where  $\alpha$  is the growth-associated  
128 coefficient for toxin production (g toxin/g biomass) and  $\beta$  is the non-growth-associated coefficient for  
129 toxin production (g toxin/g biomass per unit of time). This kind of modeling allows for some  
130 understanding of the global physiology of fungi, and it would be of interest to know the variation of  
131 these parameters as a function of environmental conditions. Later, Lee et al. [17\*] estimated the  
132 maximum AFs production rate (ng/day), and the lag phase duration for AFs (day) by fitting the primary  
133 model of Baranyi to the production of AFs with respect to time. In this approach, toxin production is  
134 modeled independently of the coexisting fungal growth, thus the estimated rate accounts for both the  
135 increase in toxin linked to growth plus the increase due to already existing biomass, but no information  
136 is given by the model on each contribution.

137 Secondary modeling of AFs has been carried out by polynomial approaches. Lee et al. [17\*] employed  
138 Gaussian and polynomial models to fit the maximum specific AFs production rate and the lag phase  
139 duration for AFs production, respectively, to describe the effects of  $a_w$  and temperature on these kinetic  
140 parameters. Interestingly, Medina et al. [21\*\*] linked AFs production with gene expression by  
141 developing a modified Luedeking-Piret model including gene expression of AFB1 production,  
142 temperature,  $a_w$  and growth rate. This new approach gives a helpful understanding on the relationship  
143 between environmental stressing factors and the genes involved in the biosynthetic pathways of  
144 mycotoxins production, and may allow for refining of the existing models, through tuning of the  
145 potential for toxin production depending on gene activation.

146 Probability models have rarely been used to model mycotoxin production. Due to the high variability of  
147 toxin production (concentration) among strains, the predicted concentration from a model developed  
148 with one/various strains may not be applicable to other strains existing in nature, thus an alternative  
149 might be probability models, if they are proved not to be strain-dependent. Marín et al. [19] obtained  
150 probabilistic models (toxin/no-toxin) to predict AFB1 production by *A. flavus* including % moisture  
151 content, temperature and time. They converted the AFB1 experimental data into probabilities of AFB1  
152 contamination by assigning 1 to samples with AFB1 presence and 0 to those without AFB1 (threshold of



153 presence was established by the limit of detection of the equipment). Afterwards linear logistic  
154 regression was applied to obtain the probabilistic model for AFB1 production. In this case, instead of  
155 predicting the toxin concentration produced over time, the probability of toxin production is obtained,  
156 thus, for example to avoid the risk of toxin accumulation in the storage a probability under 0.5 or 0.10  
157 should be achieved through temperature and humidity control of the storage.

158  
159 For application of these models to food and feed safety management in postharvest operations, there is  
160 a need to go a step further and work on predictions under variable temperature/water activity  
161 scenarios. In a preliminary study, Aldars-García et al. [20\*\*] attempted to predict AFB1 formation under  
162 a changing temperature environment, using probabilistic models too, for the prediction of AFB1  
163 presence in pistachio nuts. They developed predictive models that could predict the presence of AFB1 in  
164 pistachio nuts under a changing profile of temperatures with 67-81 % of concordance between  
165 observed and predicted data, depending on the profiles.

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#### 167 MODELING OCHRATOXIN A

168 OTA is a mycotoxin of major concern which can be produced by several species of *Aspergillus* and  
169 *Penicillium* species [22], and it is a common natural postharvest contaminant in cereals, nuts, dried  
170 fruits, spices, etc. Few studies modeled the production of this toxin, as most of them just quantified the  
171 toxin, either at various time points or at a single incubation time, and related it to the modeled growth  
172 of the mould [23,24].

173 Kapetanakou et al. [25], including the viscosity of the substrate in their experimental design, modeled  
174 the effect of temperature,  $a_w$  and (gel) structure on OTA production on malt extract broth and food  
175 matrices with different viscosities. The Baranyi model was applied to estimate the OTA production  
176 kinetic parameters, namely OTA production rate (ppm/day) and total toxin accumulation (ppm),  
177 showing good fitting to the experimental data. The Luedeking-Piret model was applied by Lappa et al.  
178 [16\*\*] to assess the differences in OTA production among ten different strains of *A. carbonarius* isolated  
179 from Greek vineyards. As Garcia et al. [18] did, they firstly determined fungal growth parameters and  
180 correlated them with OTA, and finally took into consideration those growth parameters with the highest  
181 correlation with OTA, i.e. colony diameter, colony area and biomass dry weight, excluding colony  
182 density. Further they used them to model the amount of OTA produced in relation to incubation time,  
183 concluding that OTA was a mixed-growth associated metabolite of *A. carbonarius*; this would support

184 its early accumulation in fungal cultures. Besides, OTA production revealed a wide dispersion among  
185 isolates, pointing out the importance of taking into account the intraspecies variability in the predictive  
186 models.

187  
188 Ioannidis et al. [26\*] studied the effect of sodium metabisulphite (NaMBS) as a control technique in  
189 grapes during postharvest. OTA production over time was modeled with linear primary model to  
190 estimate the OTA production rate. To fit the model, they plotted the OTA concentrations against  
191 sampling times (3, 7, 10, 14, 17 days). However, in most of the cases a decrease in OTA amount was  
192 detected in the last two OTA sampling points, thus these points were excluded from the regression, to  
193 take into account only the linear part. Existing studies on most mycotoxins have shown that toxin  
194 concentration in open solid systems usually increases with time till a plateau is reached and sometimes  
195 a decrease is observed; however there are no concluding works on how and why degradation takes  
196 place. It is a pity that some of the latest studies on primarily modeling of toxins did not include the plots  
197 of their raw data over time, as there is a lack of availability of such data in order to decide on which  
198 primary model should be used.

199  
200 Finally, as for AFs, polynomial models are the main mathematical tools used for secondary modeling of  
201 OTA formation under different environmental conditions. Kapetanakou et al. [25] modeled the square  
202 root of the OTA production rate using a polynomial model and a cardinal model. Nonetheless, the latter  
203 model showed poor adjustment possibly due to the narrow range of temperatures and  $a_w$  assessed in  
204 the experiment. Using a quadratic polynomial model, Ioannidis et al. [26\*] described the effect of  
205 temperature,  $a_w$ , NaMBS concentration on the OTA production rate by *A. carbonarius* on grape juice  
206 based medium. The statistical indices used to assess the goodness of fit of the models displayed the  
207 difficulty of predicting the toxin formation in comparison with growth parameters.

208  
209 CONCLUSIONS

210 Postharvest mycotoxins pose a threat for the safety of food products during transport, storage and  
211 distribution. Despite the high cost of data generation, and the challenging variability of mycotoxin data,  
212 a significant effort for developing predictive models for estimating mycotoxin contamination has been  
213 made during the past years and it is still in progress. There are a number of points which still need to be  
214 addressed:

- 215 (i) Most models include  $a_w$  and temperature as the most critical factors which determine  
 216 mycotoxin production. It is known that pH plays a minor role in most food and feed  
 217 materials, however, it would be of interest to take into account in the models the impact of  
 218 microbial interactions, which may be the main source of biased predictions.
- 219 (ii) Mycotoxin production in agar systems is quite different from that in real food and feed  
 220 matrices, there is an urgent need for validation of the developed models in real substrates;  
 221 or even to generate the data directly in foods and feeds.
- 222 (iii) Intraspecific variability in mycotoxin production is still a challenge, if even probability  
 223 models result to be strain-dependent, the last resource would be to use growth models to  
 224 predict growth boundaries and apply them to prevent toxin production, in a worst scenario  
 225 approach.

226 Overall, the prediction of the accumulation of mycotoxins in foods and feeds is a challenging task due to  
 227 the variety of factors influencing their production such as temperature,  $a_w$ , inhibitors, fungal strains,  
 228 accompanying microbiota, etc., and the need to understand the mycotoxin biosynthesis more deeply.

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 326 Table 1. Recent predictive mycotoxin models used in food mycology.

Reference	Type of model			Mycotoxin
	Primary	Secondary	Probabilistic	
García et al. [18]	Luedeking-Piret	-	-	
Lee et al. [17*]	Baranyi	Gaussian and polynomial	-	
Medina et al. [21**]	Luedeking-Piret	-	-	AF
Marín et al. [19]	-	-	Logistic	
Aldars- García et al. [20**]	-	-	Logistic	
Kapetanakou et al. [25]	Baranyi	Polynomial	-	
Ioannidis et al. [26*]	Linear	Polynomial	-	OTA
Lappa et al. [16**]	Luedeking-Piret	-	-	

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FIGURE CAPTIONS

Figure 1. Brief description of the food chain and the main factors influencing fungal growth and mycotoxin production (Modified from Magan et al., [27]).

