



**HAL**  
open science

## Aerosolization of mycotoxins after growth of toxinogenic fungi on wallpaper

Brankica Aleksic, Marjorie Draghi, Sebastien Ritoux, Sylviane Bally, Marlène Z. Lacroix, Isabelle P. Oswald, Jean-Denis Bailly, Enric Robine

► **To cite this version:**

Brankica Aleksic, Marjorie Draghi, Sebastien Ritoux, Sylviane Bally, Marlène Z. Lacroix, et al.. Aerosolization of mycotoxins after growth of toxinogenic fungi on wallpaper. Applied and Environmental Microbiology, 2017, 83 (16), 31 p. 10.1128/AEM.01001-17 . hal-01607195

**HAL Id: hal-01607195**

**<https://hal.science/hal-01607195>**

Submitted on 26 May 2020

**HAL** is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

1 **Aerosolization of mycotoxins after growth of toxinogenic fungi on**  
2 **wallpaper**

3  
4 Brankica Aleksic<sup>1,2</sup>, Marjorie Draghi<sup>3</sup>, Sebastien Ritoux<sup>3</sup>, Sylviane Bailly<sup>1</sup>, Marlène Lacroix<sup>1</sup>,  
5 Isabelle P. Oswald<sup>1</sup>, Jean-Denis Bailly<sup>1\*</sup>, Enric Robine<sup>3</sup>

6  
7 <sup>1</sup>Toxalim, Université de Toulouse, INRA, ENVT, INP-Purpan, UPS, F-31000 Toulouse, France.

8 <sup>2</sup>French Environment and Energy Management Agency, Angers, France

9 <sup>3</sup>Scientific and Technical Centre for Building, Airborne Pollutants and Bioaerosol Division, Marne-la-Vallée,  
10 France

11  
12 \*Corresponding author: [jd.bailly@envt.fr](mailto:jd.bailly@envt.fr)

13  
14  
15 **Abstract**

16 Many fungi can develop on building material in indoor environments if moisture is high  
17 enough. Among species that are frequently observed, some are known to be potent mycotoxin  
18 producers. This presence of toxinogenic fungi in indoor environments raises the question of  
19 the possible exposure of occupants to these toxic compounds by inhalation after  
20 aerosolization.

21 This study investigated the mycotoxin production by *Penicillium brevicompactum*,  
22 *Aspergillus versicolor* and *Stachybotrys chartarum* during their growth on wallpaper and the  
23 possible subsequent aerosolization of produced mycotoxins from contaminated substrates.

24 We demonstrated that mycophenolic acid, sterigmatocystin and macrocyclic  
25 trichothecenes (sum of 4 major compounds) could be produced at levels of 1.8, 112.1 and  
26 27.8 mg/m<sup>2</sup>, respectively on wallpaper. Moreover, part of the produced toxins could be  
27 aerosolized from substrate. The propensity to aerosolization differed according to the fungal

28 species. Thus, particles were aerosolized from wallpaper contaminated with *P.*  
29 *brevicompactum* when air velocity of just 0.3 m/s was applied, where *S. chartarum* required  
30 air velocity of 5.9 m/s. *A. versicolor* was intermediate since aerosolization occurred under air  
31 velocity of 2 m/s.

32 Quantification of the toxic content revealed that toxic load was mostly associated with  
33 particles of size equal or higher of 3  $\mu\text{m}$ , which may correspond to spores. However, some  
34 macrocyclic trichothecenes (especially satratoxin H and verrucarins J) can also be found on  
35 smaller particles that can penetrate deeply in the respiratory tract upon inhalation. These  
36 elements are important for risk assessment related to mouldy environments.

37

38

#### 39 **KEYWORDS**

40 Indoor air, mycotoxins, exposure, aerosolization, wallpaper, fungi

41

#### 42 **IMPORTANCE**

43 The possible colonisation of building material by toxinogenic fungi in case of moistening  
44 raises the question of the subsequent exposure of occupants to aerosolized mycotoxins. In this  
45 study, we demonstrated that three different toxinogenic species produce mycotoxins during  
46 their development on wallpaper. These toxins can subsequently be aerosolized, at least partly,  
47 from mouldy material. This transfer to air requires air velocities that can be encountered in  
48 « real life conditions » in buildings. The most part of the aerosolized toxic load is found in  
49 particles whose size corresponds to spores or mycelium fragments. However, some toxins  
50 were also found on particles smaller than spores that are easily respirable and can deeply  
51 penetrate into human respiratory tract. All these data are important for risk assessment related  
52 to fungal contamination of indoor environments.

53

54

55 **INTRODUCTION**

56

57 In industrialized countries, people spend most of their time inside buildings (1). Many  
58 physical, chemical or microbiological pollutants can have detrimental effects for occupants,  
59 such as allergies or infections (2, 3). Among the microorganisms that are present in indoor  
60 environments, micromycetes are ubiquitous and capable of growing on most construction and  
61 decoration materials if appropriate environmental conditions are present (4–6). Thus, it is  
62 estimated that, in Northern Europe and North America, 20 to 40 % of buildings display  
63 macroscopically visible fungal growth (7, 8).

64 Among the fungal species commonly observed in habitats, some are known to produce  
65 toxic secondary metabolites called mycotoxins (4, 9, 10). For instance, *Aspergillus versicolor*,  
66 a potent producer of sterigmatocystin (STG), is one of the most frequent fungal contaminant  
67 of indoor environments that can be found together on building materials, in dust or in the air  
68 samples (4, 11). On the other hand, *Stachybotrys chartarum* is often isolated from building  
69 materials in homes that have suffered from water damages (12–14). This species is known to  
70 be able to produce different toxic compounds belonging to the family of macrocyclic  
71 trichothecenes (MCT) (satratoxins G (SG) and H (SH), roridin L2 (RL2), verrucarins J (VerJ))  
72 (15, 16). On the same way, *Penicillium brevicompactum*, a species able to produce  
73 mycophenolic acid (MPA), was also frequently identified in indoor environments (17).

74 Such observations raise the question of the possible occupants' exposure to these toxic  
75 compounds by contact or inhalation following their aerosolization. Indeed, it has been shown  
76 that mycotoxins can be found in fungal spores (9) and could therefore subsequently be inhaled  
77 (18, 19).

78 To evaluate presence of these contaminants in indoor environments, some studies have  
79 measured mycotoxins on contaminated materials (20–23) or settled dust (24, 25). Thus, STG

80 could be found in more than 20 % of analyzed samples. Similarly, MCT were also found on  
81 material samples taken from water-damaged homes (13).

82 However the toxin quantification from material or settled dust does not predict the  
83 airborne toxic load nor toxin quantities potentially inhaled by the occupants. Indeed, the  
84 relationship between contaminated surfaces, mycotoxin production and transfer to the air of  
85 these toxic substances is poorly documented. Most studies have focus primarily on  
86 aerosolization of conidia or fungal fragments (26–28) without associating them with  
87 mycotoxins. Only one previous work demonstrated the presence of MCT in highly respirable  
88 particles ( $< 1 \mu\text{m}$ ) (29). In this study, the authors demonstrated that, while passing over  
89 cellulose ceiling tiles contaminated with a toxinogenic strain of *S. chartarum*, house air could  
90 be contaminated with MCT, in relation with aerosolization of fungal particles but also due to  
91 the presence of toxins on particles smaller than spores.

92 Within this context, the aim of this study was to quantify mycotoxins production by three  
93 fungal species often present in indoor environments that are *P. brevicompactum*, *A.*  
94 *versicolor*, and *S. chartarum*, during their growth on wallpaper. We also aimed to evaluate  
95 possible aerosolization of produced toxins as a function of both air velocity and size of  
96 released particles. Wallpaper was chosen since it has been shown that this substrate is  
97 favorable for mycotoxin production (13, 14, 21). Moreover, this material is often used in  
98 indoor furnishing and is therefore in direct contact with indoor air.

99 We demonstrate here that part of mycotoxins, produced on wallpaper during fungal  
100 growth, can be aerosolized following air velocities that can be encountered in buildings.  
101 Toxic load is mostly observed on particles whose size corresponds to spores but some toxins  
102 could also be found in easily respirable particles of less than  $2 \mu\text{m}$ .

103

104

105

106 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

107

108 **Mycotoxin standards.** Mycophenolic acid (MPA), sterigmatocystin (STG), verrucarins A  
109 (VerA), o-methylsterigmatocystin (o-mSTG) and mycophenolic acid-d<sub>3</sub> (MPA-d<sub>3</sub>) were  
110 purchased from Sigma (Saint-Quentin Fallavier, France). Standards of satratoxin G (SG),  
111 satratoxin H (SH), roridin L2 (RL2) and verrucarins J (VerJ) were gracious gift from Professor  
112 J.J. Pestka (Department of Microbiology and Molecular Genetics, Michigan State University,  
113 USA).

114 All standards were dissolved in methanol (MeOH) to obtain stock solutions that were  
115 stored at -20 °C as recommended by manufacturer.

116

117 **Solvents and reagents.** All reagents and solvents were purchased from ICS (Lapeyrouse-  
118 Fossat, France) and were analytical grade. Acetonitrile (AcN) used for mobile phase was  
119 LC/MS grade and purchased from Thermo Fischer Scientific (Illkirch, France) and water was  
120 obtained from an ultrapure water (18.2 MΩ) system (Elga Labwater Veolia, Anthony,  
121 France).

122 Wallpaper (WP) (Papier Peint BLAN BLA 0 INSP, Leroy Merlin) was purchased in a  
123 specialized store. The material, visually clean and dry, was cut into 2×5 cm pieces and then  
124 sterilized by autoclaving at 121 °C for 20 min before use(27, 30).

125

126 **Fungal strains.** *P. brevicompactum* IBT 23078 strain was a gracious gift from Dr J.B.  
127 Nielsen (Assistant Professor, Technical University of Denmark, Lyngby, Denmark), *A.*  
128 *versicolor* NCPT 54 was a gift from Dr O. Puel (INRA, Toulouse, France), and *S. chartarum*  
129 82 (ST82) strain was previously isolated in our laboratory (31). These three strains were  
130 selected for their ability to produce mycophenolic acid, sterigmatocystin and macrocyclic

131 trichothecenes, respectively. All strains were maintained in the laboratory on malt extract agar  
132 (MEA, Biokar, France) at 4°C and were regularly checked for viability by culturing on MEA.

133

134 **Growth and toxinogenesis of fungi on wallpaper.** The fungal strains were grown on potato  
135 dextrose agar (PDA, Biokar, France) for 14 days at 25 °C to obtain highly sporulating  
136 cultures. Spores were harvested by flooding the plate with 10 mL of Tween 80 (0.05 %).  
137 Spores were suspended by smoothly scraping the medium with sterile inoculating loop and  
138 liquid was then collected. Spore concentration was measured by direct counting on a counting  
139 cell (Malassez cell, CML, Nemours, France). Spore suspensions were then diluted to reach a  
140 concentration of  $2 \times 10^6$  spores/mL and contamination was achieved by applying dropwise 500  
141  $\mu$ L of those suspensions ( $10^6$  spores/sample) on the decorative side of sterile wallpaper. This  
142 contamination level was previously identified as sufficient to observe a fungal development  
143 within few days (31).

144 Contaminated wallpaper pieces (2 x 5 cm) were placed in flasks, on a layer of 2 cm of  
145 glass beads and 8 mL of sterile water, in order to maintain moisture level at saturation  
146 throughout the test, and incubated for 10 days at 25 °C in darkness. After incubation, fungal  
147 growth was assessed by visual examination of samples (importance of colonized surface).  
148 Both hyphae development and density of sporulated conidial heads on the whole sample  
149 surface (10 cm<sup>2</sup>) were observed by examination under stereomicroscope (magnification from  
150 12 to 120) (Olympus SZX9) and under Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) (Jeol JSM  
151 5600LV) (magnification from 40 to 30 000).

152 Some samples were used for mycotoxin determination whereas others, incubated in the  
153 same conditions, were used for aerosolization as described below.

154 Initial mycotoxin baseline due to inoculum deposit on materials (= T0 value) was  
155 measured using samples that were frozen immediately after spores deposit, without incubation  
156 to avoid fungal growth.

157 All analysis were done in triplicate and three independent experiments were carried out.

158

159 **Aerosolization of mycotoxins from wallpaper.** To evaluate aerosolization of particles and  
160 toxins from wallpaper, a specific experimental device capable of producing controlled air  
161 velocities over contaminated substrates was developed. The principle of this device is shown  
162 on Figure 1. To ensure the safety of the operator, the entire assembly was placed in a  
163 microbiological safety cabinet.

164 The developed assembly presents cylindrical volume of 10.5 L equipped with a blowing  
165 device provided with filtered humidified air (50 % RH at 22 °C) to ensure the aerodynamic  
166 stresses on contaminated material. The blowing device placed in the closed space consists of  
167 16 semicircular holes of 1 mm diameter (PNR industrie, Collègien, France). It was placed so  
168 that the air stream forms an angle of 45 ° with respect to the contaminated material.  
169 Moreover, the assembly is leveled so the distance between the bottom of the blowing nozzles  
170 and the fungal cultures was 1 cm (Figure 1). Characterization of the air speed over the  
171 substrate as a function of the flow from the blowing device was characterized (supplementary  
172 data 1).

173 Different increasing air velocities were firstly tested to define air speeds allowing  
174 significant particles' aerosolization from substrates for the three fungal species  
175 (supplementary data 2). Once air velocity was defined for each fungal species, the  
176 characterization of aerosol was done following air jets of 5 seconds each that were repeated  
177 until the measured concentration of aerosolized particles decreased to 1 particle/L.

178 The physical characterization of the produced aerosols was carried out using an optical  
179 counter (Model 3340, TSI) set at 0.1 L/min. An Andersen multi-stage impactor (Tish  
180 Environmental, OH, USA)), was used for capturing particles according to 6 ranges of size and  
181 aerodynamic characteristics. Each stage of the impactor was equipped with fiberglass disk to  
182 collect particles and allow mycotoxin determination as described below. Filters were placed



183 on support whose thickness preserved the right distance between the orifice inlet of the  
184 impactor and the filter.

185

186 **Mycotoxin determination.** Four MCT (SG, SH, VerJ and RL2), MPA and STG were  
187 extracted from samples (wallpaper and fiberglass disks) by gentle mechanical agitation on an  
188 agitation table (Reciprocating Shaker, IKA HS501 Digital, Grosseron, France) in  
189 chloroform:methanol (2:1). Mycophenolic acid- $d_3$  and o-methyl sterigmatocystin were added  
190 at known concentration before starting extraction in order to serve as internal standards for  
191 MPA and STG respectively. For MCT, verrucaric acid was chosen as internal standard as  
192 already described (31).

193 After 4 hours, extracts were centrifuged for 5 min at 3500 rpm and filtered through a  
194 phase separator filter (Whatman 1 PS). Filtered extracts were evaporated to dryness and  
195 suspended in 1mL of methanol.

196 Quantification of mycotoxins was performed using an Acquity ultra performance liquid  
197 chromatography (UPLC) system coupled to a Xevo triple quadrupole mass spectrometer  
198 (Waters, Milford, MA, USA). The desolvation temperature and nitrogen flow rate were set at  
199 650 °C and 800 L/h, respectively. Argon was used as the collision gas at a flow rate of 0.12  
200 mL/min.

201 Mycotoxins (5  $\mu$ L of samples) were eluted on an Acquity BEH C18 column (2.1 x 100  
202 mm; 1.7  $\mu$ m; Waters) with an AcN/H<sub>2</sub>O gradient ( $t(0-0.5$  min): 10 % AcN;  $t(0.5-4$  min): 90 %  
203 AcN) at a flow rate of 0.35 mL/min. Quantification was carried out by Multiple Reaction  
204 Monitoring (MRM) mode in positive electrospray ionization (ESI+). MRM transitions, cone  
205 voltage and collision energies used for the different toxins are listed in Table 1.  
206 Chromatographic data were monitored by Masslynx 4.1 software (Waters, Milford, MA,  
207 USA).

208 Limits of detection (LOD) were determined from 3 injections of the mycotoxins  
209 standards at the lowest concentration that could be detected with a signal to noise  $\geq 3$ . They  
210 were 1 ng/ml for MPA and STG, 0.2 ng/mL for RL2, 5 ng/mL for VerJ, 10 ng/mL for SH and  
211 SG. The limit of quantification (LOQ) was determined and validated for the lowest  
212 concentration of the calibration curve chosen for its relevance to mycotoxin investigation on  
213 wallpaper. The LOQs were set at 10 ng/mL for MPA, STG, RL2 and VerJ, and 100 ng/mL for  
214 SG and SH. .

215 For all analyzed toxins, percentage of aerosolized toxin from contaminated substrates  
216 was calculated as follow:

$$\% \text{ of airborne toxin} = \frac{\text{quantity of airborne toxin}}{\text{quantity of produced toxin on WP sample}} * 100$$

217

218 **Statistical analysis.** Data were analysed with GraphPad Prism statistical software version  
219 v4.0. Student's t-test was used to analyse the differences between initial concentration of  
220 toxins on materials ( $T_0$ ) and toxins' concentrations after incubation period. The differences  
221 were considered to be statistically significant when p-value was lower than 0.05.

222

223

224

225 **RESULTS**

226

227 **Growth and toxinogenesis of fungal strains on wallpaper.** After 10 days of incubation at  
228 25 °C, the three tested fungal species grew and sporulated on wallpaper. Nevertheless, some  
229 differences could be observed between species (Figure 2).

230 *P. brevicompactum* colonized almost the entire surface of wallpaper, with a loosened  
231 mycelium. Numerous large and compact *penicilli* were observed under stereomicroscope and,  
232 at microscopic level, long terverticillate conidiophores with adjoined branches sometimes  
233 bent away from the axis. Inflated *metulae* bore divergent phialides' clusters and very long, dry  
234 and disordered chains of spores.

235 As for *P.brevicompactum*, *A. versicolor* growth covered almost all the sample but with a  
236 heterogeneous density. Stereomicroscope examination revealed a dense field of aerial and  
237 closely interwoven hyphae bearing conidiophores. Classical microscopic features were  
238 observed: radiate and biseriate conidial heads, closely packed *metulae* and phialides bearing  
239 short chains of spores.

240 *S. chartarum* displayed an intense and regular growth with abundant hyphae colonizing  
241 the whole sample's surface with many sporulated heads. Conidiophores were simple or  
242 branched. Phialides, organized in clusters, bore black ellipsoidal conidia agglomerated by a  
243 slimy coating.

244 Mycotoxins measurements revealed that all three species produced mycotoxin(s) during  
245 their growth on wallpaper (Table 2). STG was produced in larger quantities with more than  
246 110 mg/m<sup>2</sup>. The four analysed MCT were also found. SH was the most abundant one,  
247 followed by SG and RL2. Only mild amounts of VerJ were measured after growth of *S.*  
248 *chartarum* ST82 strain on wallpaper.

249

250 **Aerosolization of particles from wallpaper.** To define the conditions leading to particle  
251 aerosolization from substrate as a function of the fungal species, contaminated wallpaper  
252 samples were submitted to increasing aeraulic stresses. It appeared that for *P.*  
253 *brevicompactum*, air velocity of 0.3 m/s was sufficient to aerosolize some particles from  
254 substrate. An increment in air velocity increased the number of aerosolized particles from  
255 wallpaper without any modification of the bioaerosol profile (Supplementary data 2). For *A.*  
256 *versicolor*, an air velocity of 2 m/s was required to aerosolize a significant number of particles  
257 from substrate. In order to compare aerosolization of these two species, airflow of 2 m/s was  
258 applied on contaminated wallpaper to further characterize bioaerosols and airborne  
259 mycotoxins.

260 By contrast, for *S. chartarum*, air speed of almost 6 m/s was needed to observe an  
261 aerosolization of particles. This air velocity was therefore applied for toxin measurement.

262

263 **Characterization of bioaerosols.** For *P. brevicompactum*, the application of an air velocity  
264 of 2 m/s led to the release of a total number of particles of  $5.6 \times 10^4$  from mouldy wallpaper.  
265 They were distributed mainly in:

- 266 ○ Fine aerosols with optical diameter about 100 nm (maximal concentration of  $10^3$   
267 particles/L)
- 268 ○ Particles with optical diameter between 2 and 8  $\mu\text{m}$  (maximal concentration of  $2.3 \times 10^3$   
269 particles/L).

270 For *A. versicolor*, an air velocity of 2 m/s allowed the aerosolization of a total number of  
271  $1.5 \times 10^4$  counted particles that were mostly made of fine aerosols with optical diameter about  
272 100 nm (maximal concentration of  $1.2 \times 10^3$  particles/L) and few particles with optical  
273 diameter between 2 and 8  $\mu\text{m}$  (maximal concentration of 700 particles/L).

274 For *S. chartarum*, application of an air speed of almost 6 m/s led to the overall  
275 production of  $7 \times 10^3$  counted particles from substrate with a poly-dispersed distribution of

276 particle sizes. The production of sub-micronic particles represented 77.5 % of the total  
277 airborne particles.

278 The distribution of particle size in bioaerosols obtained from the three species is  
279 represented in Figure 3.

280

281 **Airborne mycotoxins.** The aerosolization of mycotoxins from wallpaper was measured  
282 following air velocities of 2, 2 and 6 m/s for *P. brevicompactum*, *A. versicolor* and *S.*  
283 *chartarum*, respectively. The global mycotoxins loads of aerosols from the three fungal  
284 species are reported in Table 3.

285 All analysed toxins were found in the aerosols but it appeared that the percentage of  
286 airborne toxins strongly differed between them. Fifteen per cent of the MPA present on  
287 wallpaper was transferred to air. It represented a total quantity of 271 ng of MPA. By  
288 contrast, the percentage of aerosolized STG was only 0.2 %. However, since it was the most  
289 produced toxin on wallpaper, total quantity of airborne STG reached almost 180 ng. The  
290 proportion of total aerosolized MCT was 4.5 %. It has to be noted that, even if *S. chartarum*  
291 required a higher air speed to be aerosolized than the two-other species, the total quantity of  
292 airborne toxins was the most important for that species. Among the 4 analysed trichothecenes,  
293 VerJ was the most aerosolized with 13.3 % of the initial toxic load, followed by SH, SG and  
294 RL2. However, when considering the quantities that were transferred from substrate to air, SH  
295 appeared predominant, representing almost 80 % of the overall toxic load.

296 In order to analyse the distribution of mycotoxins as a function of particle sizes and  
297 subsequent risk of inhalation, the mycotoxin loads of each domain size of released aerosols  
298 were quantified and results are presented in Table 4.

299 MPA was quantifiable on 5 of the 6 considered granulometric ranges, the maximum  
300 (about 140 ng) being associated with the particles collected on the third stage of the impactor,  
301 with a granulometric domain between 3.3 and 4.7  $\mu\text{m}$ . For STG, no toxin was found on stages

302 corresponding to the particles with size below 2.1  $\mu\text{m}$  and total mycotoxin load was  
303 associated with bigger particles. Almost 95% of the toxic load was associated with particles  
304 bigger than 3.3  $\mu\text{m}$ . Macrocytic trichothecenes produced by *S. chartarum* and aerosolized  
305 from wallpaper were detected in all stages of Andersen collector, even on stages 5 and 6 that  
306 correspond to sub-micron particles. Nevertheless, 90 % of the total toxic load (1129 ng) was  
307 found on stages 1, 3 and 5.

308 The four-analysed macrocytic trichothecenes were differently distributed within  
309 Andersen collector's stages. RL2 was found on all stages. SG was exclusively found on stages  
310 1 to 3, SH on stages 1, 3, 5 and 6. VerJ was found on stages 3, 5 and 6 with 86 % of the total  
311 toxic load being associated with these two later stages whereas no toxin was measured on  
312 stages 1, 2 and 4. Stage 3 that corresponds to particles ranging from 3.3 to 4.7  $\mu\text{m}$  was the  
313 most contaminated with 41 % of the total MCT load. It was also the only one containing all  
314 four-tested macrocytic trichothecenes.

315

316

317

## 318 DISCUSSION

319

320 The possible implication of mycotoxins in some disorders observed in occupants of mouldy  
321 homes is a growing public health question, worldwide (32–34). Indeed, the risk of exposure to  
322 those fungal toxic metabolites by inhalation emerged in the late 90's, when macrocytic  
323 trichothecenes produced by *S. chartarum* were implicated in the appearance of pulmonary  
324 haemorrhages in infants in the USA (35). More recently, these mycotoxins were also  
325 suspected to play a role in the sick building syndrome (36, 37). However, data on the direct  
326 relationship between mycotoxin production on materials and their transfer to air are missing  
327 and therefore do not allow precise risk assessment. That is why the present study aimed to

328 evaluate the ability of mycotoxins produced by *A. versicolor*, *P. brevicompactum* and *S.*  
329 *chartarum* to be aerosolized from mouldy wallpaper.

330 Firstly, we investigated the ability of these three toxinogenic species to grow and  
331 produce toxic compounds on wallpaper. This material, frequently used for indoor decoration,  
332 allowed both mycelial growth and sporulation in conditions that can be considered as “worst  
333 case” but that can be encountered in homes (25°C, humidity and darkness), especially behind  
334 furnitures, during warm seasons. This is in agreement with surveys reporting a frequent  
335 contamination of such materials by moulds, particularly in case of water damage (14, 21, 38,  
336 39). Of note, for *P. brevicompactum* some morphological features were peculiar when this  
337 species was grown on wallpaper compared to agar culture media. Indeed, usual aspect of *P.*  
338 *brevicompactum* colony on agar medium is dominated by a dense felt of large and compact  
339 conidiophores and a velutinous aspect of the thallus with only few trailing (40). On wallpaper,  
340 the colony displayed more abundant aerial mycelium with conidiophores borne by aerial  
341 hyphae. Such structure may have an important role in facilitating aerosolization of fungal  
342 structures.

343 Wallpaper also allowed mycotoxin production by the tested species. Concentrations as  
344 high as 112 mg/m<sup>2</sup>, 14 mg/m<sup>2</sup> and 7 mg/m<sup>2</sup> were found for STG, SH and SG, respectively.  
345 These findings are in agreement with previous studies about production on wallpaper of SG  
346 and SH by Gottschalk et al. (14) and STG by Polizzi et al. (21).

347 The investigation of the aerosolization of mycotoxins produced on wallpaper firstly  
348 showed that aerosolization of particles from substrate strongly differed from one species to  
349 another, possibly related to mycelium organization and conidial structures. As an illustration,  
350 both *A. versicolor* and *P. brevicompactum* are fungal species characterized by the presence of  
351 small and light spores organized in chains at the extremity of phialides (41). For these two  
352 species, air velocity of 2 m/s, which matches air speed observed due to mechanical and  
353 natural ventilation in tertiary buildings (28), allowed the aerosolization of numerous particles

354 from wallpaper. These particles were distributed in two main categories: one including very  
355 small particles, smaller than 0.15  $\mu\text{m}$ , and the second including particles ranging from 2 to 6  
356  $\mu\text{m}$ . This second group may correspond to spores, groups of spores or mycelium debris (40,  
357 41), in agreement with previous data on aerosolization of these fungal species (42–44). One  
358 can note that for *P. brevicompactum*, the total number of particles aerosolized from substrate  
359 was higher than for *A. versicolor*. This is in relation with the disposition of spores on mycelial  
360 structures. In *P. brevicompactum*, long chains of spores are borne by aerial conidiophores and  
361 may easily be aerosolized. For *A. versicolor*, spores' chains are shorter and located on tight  
362 and compact phialides, making them mildly more difficult to aerosolize from material.

363 For *S. chartarum*, a higher air velocity was required for aerosolization from substrate.  
364 An air velocity of about 6 m/s is more frequent outdoor but could also be encountered in  
365 buildings due to mechanical ventilation (28). The use of fans may also generate airflows able  
366 to aerosolize *S. chartarum*. Of note, the total number of airborne particles was lower than that  
367 observed for other species and this may explain why this fungal species is not commonly  
368 observed in air samples and is more frequently found by direct examination of building  
369 materials (12-14). In case of a sufficient airflow, a poly-dispersed particle cloud was  
370 generated from *S. chartarum* contaminated substrate. There was an important cluster made of  
371 particles ranging from 0.4 to 1  $\mu\text{m}$ , which are therefore smaller than spores. It could  
372 correspond to micro-fungal particles, debris of wallpaper released from substrate due to  
373 cellulolytic activity of *S. chartarum*, or exudate droplets from culture (45). Such finding is  
374 important since these small particles could easily penetrate deeply in human respiratory tract  
375 in case of inhalation.

376 All tested mycotoxins were found in aerosols generated from mouldy wallpaper and the  
377 proportion transferred to air varied with fungal species. MPA was the most aerosolized, with  
378 15 % of the produced toxin. This is related to the higher facility of *P. brevicompactum* to be  
379 aerosolized from substrate compared to other species. By contrast, the proportion of airborne



380 STG was low (0.2 %). Since numerous particles can be released from substrate contaminated  
381 with *A. versicolor*, this suggests that STG could be located in fungal parts that are strongly  
382 adherent to the substrate and probably mainly present/located in mycelium (5, 7). However,  
383 considering that STG was the major produced toxin, the quantity of airborne STG was  
384 comparable to MPA.

385 For MCT, even if the required air speed for aerosolization was higher, it has to be  
386 highlighted that the four analyzed toxins were found in aerosols and total aerosolized toxic  
387 load was 5 times higher than that of other toxins.

388 The analysis of the toxin distribution according to the aerosol profile and size of released  
389 particles also brought some important information. For MPA and STG, maximal toxic load  
390 was found on particles whose size corresponds to spores, groups of spores or mycelium  
391 debris. However, low proportion of MPA was also found on particle smaller than spores. It  
392 could be related to the excretion of part of the toxin in exudate droplets as previously  
393 demonstrated for other *Penicillia* (46). The excreted toxin could be then adsorbed on small  
394 particles of dust.

395 The distribution of MCT was different. Toxins were found in all stages of Andersen  
396 collector, even those collecting particles smaller than spores. This result is in agreement with  
397 a study by Brasel et al. (29). As for *P. brevicompactum*, it could be the result of the excretion  
398 of MCT by fungus in droplets outside the mycelium (45) and their adsorption on dust  
399 particles or wallpaper debris generated by cellulolytic activity of *S. chartarum*.

400 Of note, the analyzed MCT differed regarding their distribution in the various particles  
401 sizes. This result suggests that the different MCT analyzed in this study could be differently  
402 distributed/excreted within fungal structures. Further studies are required to characterize the  
403 distribution of macrocyclic trichothecenes in *S. chartarum* mycelium. It would help better  
404 understanding the biosynthetic pathway and processing of these compounds in fungal cells.

405 All these results on aerosolization of mycotoxin according to particle size bring  
406 important insight for risk assessment and possible subsequent toxicity after inhalation.  
407 Although no clear dose-effect relationship has been established for these mycotoxins in case  
408 of inhalation, it has been demonstrated that intranasal exposure could be highly toxic. For  
409 instance, Carey et al. (47) showed that exposure to 5 µg SG for 4 days led to widespread  
410 apoptosis of olfactory sensory neurons and to epithelial and olfactory nerve atrophy as well as  
411 acute neutrophilic rhinitis in Rhesus monkey.

412

413

414 **CONCLUSION.** This study demonstrated that during their growth on wallpaper, *P.*  
415 *brevicompactum*, *A. versicolor* and *S. chartarum*, that are frequently found indoor, produce  
416 mycotoxins. These toxins can subsequently be aerosolized, at least partly, from mouldy  
417 material. This transfer to air requires air velocities that can be encountered in building since  
418 they correspond to movement of people in a room (0.2 m/s), air speed in ceiling diffusers (2  
419 m/s), slamming door, air drafts from opening the window or mechanical ventilation (6 m/s).

420 Most of the aerosolized toxic load is found in particles whose size corresponds to spores  
421 or mycelium fragments. However, for MPA and mainly MCT, toxins were found also on  
422 particles smaller than spores, that could be easily inhaled by occupants and deeply penetrate  
423 into respiratory tract. It seems important to take these data in consideration for risk  
424 assessment related to fungal contamination of indoor environment and the possible toxicity  
425 associated to inhalation of these toxins.

426

427

#### 428 **Acknowledgements**

429 The authors would like to thank Professors JJ Pestka (Department of Microbiology and  
430 Molecular Genetics, Michigan State University, USA) for toxins' standards; Dr J.B. Nielsen

431 (Technical University of Denmark, Lyngby, Denmark) for strain of *P. brevicompactum* and  
432 Dr O. Puel (INRA, UMR Toxalim) for strain of *A. versicolor*.

433

434

435

#### 436 **Funding sources**

437 This work was financed by the French Ministry of Ecology, Sustainable Development  
438 and Energy (PRIMEQUAL project DSC-BIO/2013-121) and by the French Environment and  
439 Energy Management agency (ADEME) and the Scientific and Technical Centre for Building  
440 (CSTB) (Ph.D. grant for B. Aleksic).

441

#### 442 **Author contribution statements**

443 Brankica Aleksic performed experiments and participated to the article redaction;  
444 Marjorie Draghi and Sebastien Ritoux designed the device to study aerosolization of particles  
445 and mycotoxins from mouldy wallpaper; Sylviane Bailly did the morphological analysis of  
446 wallpaper after fungal development and participated to the development of the analytical  
447 method for mycotoxin measurement; Marlène Lacroix did the toxin measurement on both  
448 wallpaper and aerosols; Isabelle P. Oswald participated to the overall supervision of the  
449 project and to the redaction of the article; Jean-Denis Bailly and Enric Robine supervised the  
450 work and participated to the redaction of the article, Enric Robine took the SEM photos.

451

452

#### 453 **REFERENCES**

454

- 455 1. Brown L. 1983. National Radiation Survey in the UK: Indoor Occupancy Factors.  
456 Radiat Prot Dosim 5:203–208.

- 457 2. Le Moullec Y, Squinazi F. 1996. Pollution atmosphérique à l'intérieur des bâtiments:  
458 sources expositions et risques sanitaires. Conseil supérieur d'hygiène publique de  
459 France - Section de l'Evaluation des risques de l'environnement sur la santé, Lavoisier  
460 - Tec & Doc., Paris.
- 461 3. Squinazi F. 2002. La pollution de l'air à l'intérieur des bâtiments (allergènes exclus).  
462 Rev française d'allergologie d'immunologie Clin 42:248–255.
- 463 4. Andersen B, Frisvad JC, Sondergaard I, Rasmussen IS, Larsen LS. 2011. Associations  
464 between fungal species and water-damaged building materials. Appl Environ Microbiol  
465 77:4180–4188.
- 466 5. Nielsen KF, Gravesen S, Nielsen PA, Andersen B, Thrane U, Frisvad JC. 1999.  
467 Production of mycotoxins on artificially and naturally infested building materials.  
468 Mycopathologia 145:43–56.
- 469 6. Polizzi V, Adams A, De Saeger S, Van Peteghem C, Moretti A, De Kimpe N. 2012.  
470 Influence of various growth parameters on fungal growth and volatile metabolite  
471 production by indoor molds. Sci Total Environ 414:277–286.
- 472 7. Nielsen KF. 2002. Mould growth on building materials. Secondary metabolites,  
473 mycotoxins and biomarkers.
- 474 8. Moularat S, Derbez M, Kirschner S, Ramalho O, Robine E. 2008. Les moisissures dans  
475 les environnements intérieurs et leurs effets sur la santé. Pollut Atmos 197:34–37.
- 476 9. Jarvis BB, Miller JD. 2005. Mycotoxins as harmful indoor air contaminants. Appl  
477 Microbiol Biotechnol 66:367–372.
- 478 10. Verdier T, Coutand M, Bertron A, Roques C. 2014. A review of indoor microbial  
479 growth across building materials and sampling and analysis methods. Build Environ  
480 80:136–149.
- 481 11. Lappalainen S, Kähkönen E, Loikkanen P, Palomäki E, Lindroos O, Reijula K. 2001.  
482 Evaluation of priorities for repairing in moisture-damaged school buildings in Finland.

- 483 Build Environ 36:981–986.
- 484 12. Bellanger AP, Reboux G, Roussel S, Grenouillet F, Didier-Scherer E, Dalphin JC,  
485 Millon L. 2009. Indoor fungal contamination of moisture-damaged and allergic patient  
486 housing analysed using real-time PCR. *Lett Appl Microbiol* 49:260–266.
- 487 13. Bloom E, Nyman E, Must A, Pehrson C, Larsson L. 2009. Molds and mycotoxins in  
488 indoor environments — a survey in water-damaged buildings. *J Occup Environ Hyg*  
489 6:671–678.
- 490 14. Gottschalk C, Bauer J, Meyer K. 2006. Determination of macrocyclic trichothecenes in  
491 mouldy indoor materials by LC-MS/MS. *Mycotoxin Res* 22:189–192.
- 492 15. Cabral JPS. 2010. Can we use indoor fungi as bioindicators of indoor air quality?  
493 Historical perspectives and open questions. *Sci Total Environ* 408:4285–4295.
- 494 16. Pestka JJ, Yike I, Dearborn DG, Ward MDW, Harkema JR. 2008. *Stachybotrys*  
495 *chartarum*, trichothecene mycotoxins, and damp building-related illness: New insights  
496 into a public health enigma. *Toxicol Sci* 104:4–26.
- 497 17. Reboux G, Bellanger AP, Roussel S, Grenouillet F, Sornin S, Piarroux R, Dalphin JC,  
498 Millon L. 2009. Indoor mold concentration in Eastern France. *Indoor Air* 19:446–453.
- 499 18. Eduard W. 2009. Fungal spores: A critical review of the toxicological and  
500 epidemiological evidence as a basis for occupational exposure limit setting. *Crit Rev*  
501 *Toxicol* 39:799–864.
- 502 19. Le Bars J, Le Bars P. 1985. Etude du nuage de spores de *Stachybotrys atra* contaminant  
503 des pailles: risque d'inhalation. *Bull la Soc Fr Mycol Medicale* 2:321–324.
- 504 20. Charpin-Kadouch C, Maurel G, Felipe R, Queralt J, Ramadour M, Dumon H, Garans  
505 M, Botta A, Charpin D. 2006. Mycotoxin identification in moldy dwellings. *J Appl*  
506 *Toxicol* 26:475–479.
- 507 21. Polizzi V, Delmulle B, Adams A, Moretti A, Susca A, Picco AM, Rosseel Y, Kindt R,  
508 Van Bocxlaer J, De Kimpe N, Van Peteghem C, De Saeger S. 2009. JEM Spotlight:

- 509 Fungi, mycotoxins and microbial volatile organic compounds in mouldy interiors from  
510 water-damaged buildings. *J Environ Monit* 11:1849–1858.
- 511 22. Täubel M, Sulyok M, Vishwanath V, Bloom E, Turunen M, Järvi K, Kauhanen E,  
512 Krška R, Hyvärinen A, Larsson L, Nevalainen A. 2011. Co-occurrence of toxic  
513 bacterial and fungal secondary metabolites in moisture-damaged indoor environments.  
514 *Indoor Air* 21:368–375.
- 515 23. Tuomi T, Reijula K, Johnsson T, Hemminki K, Hintikka EL, Lindroos O, Kalso S,  
516 Koukila-Kähkölä P, Mussalo-Rauhamaa H, Haahtela T. 2000. Mycotoxins in crude  
517 building materials from water-damaged buildings. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 66:1899–  
518 1904.
- 519 24. Bloom E, Bal K, Nyman E, Must A, Larsson L. 2007. Mass spectrometry-based  
520 strategy for direct detection and quantification of some mycotoxins produced by  
521 *Stachybotrys* and *Aspergillus* spp. in indoor environments. *Appl Environ Microbiol*  
522 73:4211–4217.
- 523 25. Engelhart S, Loock A, Skutlarek D, Sagunski H, Lommel A, Farber H, Exner M. 2002.  
524 Occurrence of toxigenic *Aspergillus versicolor* isolates and sterigmatocystin in carpet  
525 dust from damp indoor environments. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 68:3886–3890.
- 526 26. Cho SH, Seo SC, Schmechel D, Grinshpun S a., Reponen T. 2005. Aerodynamic  
527 characteristics and respiratory deposition of fungal fragments. *Atmos Environ*  
528 39:5454–5465.
- 529 27. Górný RL, Reponen T, Grinshpun S, Willeke K. 2001. Source strength of fungal spore  
530 aerosolization from moldy building material. *Atmos Environ* 35:4853–4862.
- 531 28. Kanaani H, Hargreaves M, Ristovski Z, Morawska L. 2009. Fungal spore  
532 fragmentation as a function of airflow rates and fungal generation methods. *Atmos*  
533 *Environ* 43:3725–3735.
- 534 29. Brasel TL, Douglas DR, Wilson SC, Straus DC. 2005. Detection of airborne

- 535 Stachybotrys chartarum macrocyclic trichothecene mycotoxins on particulates smaller  
536 than conidia. Appl Environ Microbiol 71:114–122.
- 537 30. Peitzsch M, Bloom E, Haase R, Must A, Larsson L. 2012. Remediation of mould  
538 damaged building materials—efficiency of a broad spectrum of treatments. J Environ  
539 Monit 14:908–915.
- 540 31. Aleksic B, Bailly S, Draghi M, Pestka JJ, Oswald IP, Robine E, Bailly JD, Lacroix  
541 MZ. 2016. Production of four macrocyclic trichothecenes by Stachybotrys chartarum  
542 during its development on different building materials as measured by UPLC-MS/MS.  
543 Build Environ 106:265–273.
- 544 32. WHO. 2009. WHO guidelines for indoor air quality : dampness and mold. WHO Eur  
545 277–303.
- 546 33. Hope J. 2013. A review of the mechanism of injury and treatment approaches for  
547 illness resulting from exposure to water-damaged buildings, mold, and mycotoxins. Sci  
548 World J 2013:6–10.
- 549 34. Gutarowska B, Piotrowska M. 2007. Methods of mycological analysis in buildings.  
550 Build Environ 42:1843–1850.
- 551 35. Dearborn DG, Yike I, Sorenson WG, Miller MJ, Etzel R a. 1999. Overview of  
552 investigations into pulmonary hemorrhage among infants in Cleveland, Ohio. Environ  
553 Health Perspect 107:495–499.
- 554 36. Hossain MA, Ahmed MS, Ghannoum MA. 2004. Attributes of Stachybotrys chartarum  
555 and its association with human disease. J Allergy Clin Immunol 113:200–209.
- 556 37. Kuhn DM, Ghannoum M a. 2003. Indoor Mold , Toxigenic Fungi , and Stachybotrys  
557 chartarum : Infectious Disease Perspective Fungal Organisms in Damp Buildings. Clin  
558 Microbiol Rev 16:144–172.
- 559 38. Bloom E, Grimsley LF, Pehrson C, Lewis J, Larsson L. 2009. Molds and mycotoxins  
560 in dust from water-damaged homes in New Orleans after hurricane Katrina. Indoor Air

- 561 19:153–158.
- 562 39. Nunez M, Sivertsen MS, Mattsson J. 2012. Growth preferences on substrate ,  
563 construction , and room location for indoor moulds and Actinomycetes, p. Vol 1, 5H.3..  
564 *In Proceedings of Healthy Buildings 2012.*
- 565 40. Samson RA, Houbraken J, Thrane U, Frisvad JC, Andersen B. 2010. Food and Indoor  
566 fungi. CBS Laboratory Manual Series, CBS-KNAW Fungal Biodiversity Centre,  
567 Utrecht, The Netherlands.
- 568 41. Pitt JI, Hocking AD. 2009. Fungi and Food Spoilage. Springer US, Boston, MA.
- 569 42. Afanou KA, Straumfors A, Skogstad A, Nilsen T, Synnes O, Skaar I, Hjeljord L,  
570 Tronsmo A, Green BJ, Eduard W. 2014. Submicronic Fungal Bioaerosols: High-  
571 Resolution Microscopic Characterization and Quantification. *Appl Environ Microbiol*  
572 80:7122–7130.
- 573 43. Gorny RL, Ławniczek-Wałczyk A. 2012. Effect of two aerosolization methods on the  
574 release of fungal propagules from a contaminated agar surface. *Ann Agric Environ*  
575 *Med* 19:279–284.
- 576 44. Madsen AM, Larsen ST, Koponen IK, Kling KI, Barooni A, Karottki DG, Tendal K,  
577 Wolkoff P. 2016. Generation and characterization of indoor fungal aerosols for  
578 inhalation studies. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 82:2479–2493.
- 579 45. Gareis M, Gottschalk C. 2014. *Stachybotrys* spp. and the guttation phenomenon.  
580 *Mycotoxin Res* 30:151–159.
- 581 46. Gareis M, Gareis E-M. 2007. Guttation droplets of *Penicillium nordicum* and  
582 *Penicillium verrucosum* contain high concentrations of the mycotoxins ochratoxin A  
583 and B. *Mycopathologia* 163:207–214.
- 584 47. Carey SA, Plopper CG, Hyde DM, Islam Z, Pestka JJ, Harkema JR. 2012. Satratoxin-G  
585 from the black mold *Stachybotrys chartarum* induces rhinitis and apoptosis of olfactory  
586 sensory neurons in the nasal airways of rhesus monkeys. *Toxicol Pathol* 40:887–898.



Comment citer ce document :

Aleksic, B., Draghi, M., Ritoux, B., Lacroix, M., Oswald, I. P., Bailly, J.-D. (Auteur de correspondance), Robine (2017). Aerosolization of mycotoxins after growth of toxinogenic fungi on wallpaper. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 83 (16), 31 p. DOI : 10.1128/AEM.01001-17

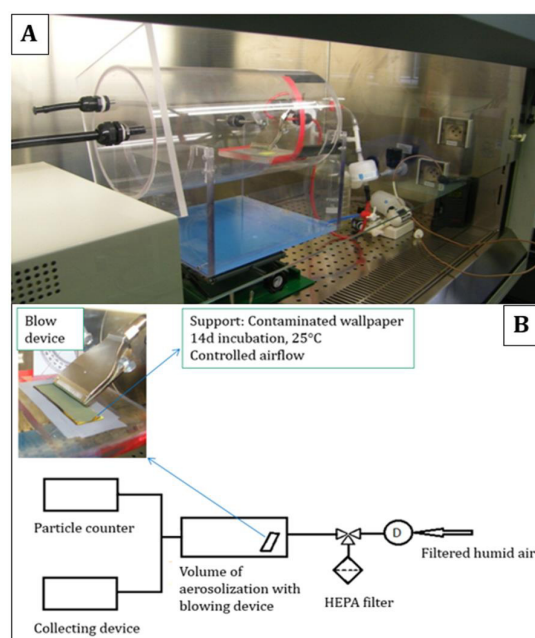


Figure 1. Experimental assembly used for aerosolization of mycotoxins from wallpaper (A)  
And schema of the experimental assembly (B)

Comment citer ce document :

Aleksic, B., Draghi, M., Ritoux, B., Lacroix, M., Oswald, I. P., Bailly, J.-D. (Auteur de correspondance), Robine (2017). Aerosolization of mycotoxins after growth of toxinogenic fungi on wallpaper. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology*, 83 (16), 31 p. DOI : 10.1128/AEM.01001-17

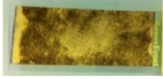

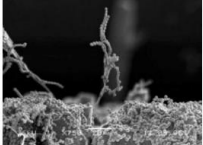

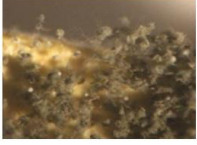
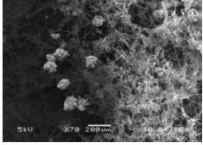

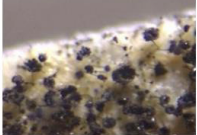
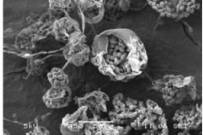
Species	Mycelial development	Macroscopic aspect of contaminated wallpaper		Microscopic aspect of contaminated wallpaper
		Observation with naked eye	Observation under stereomicroscope	Observation by SEM
<i>Penicillium brevicompactum</i>	+++			
<i>Aspergillus versicolor</i>	+++			
<i>Stachybotrys chartarum</i>	++++			

Figure 2. Macroscopic, under stereomicroscope and SEM observations of mycelial growth on wallpaper contaminated with different species.

++++: colonisation of whole sample; +++: development on about 4/5 of the sample

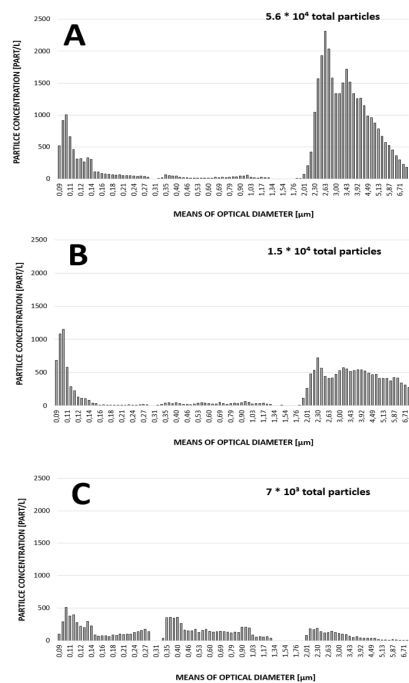


Figure 3. Granulometric profiles of aerosols from *P. brevicompactum* (A), *A. versicolor* (B) and *S. chartarum* (C) following aeraulic sollicitations on contaminated wallpaper with airflows of 2, 2 and 6 m/s, respectively

Comment citer ce document :

Aleksic, B., Draghi, M., Ritoux, B., Bailly, S., Lacroix, M., Oswald, I. P., Bailly, J.-D. (Auteur de correspondance), Robine (2017). Aerosolization of mycotoxins after growth of toxinogenic fungi on wallpaper. Applied and Environmental Microbiology, 83 (16), 31 p. DOI : 10.1128/AEM.01001-17

Table 1. MRM transitions, cone voltages and collision energies used for mycotoxins detection

Toxin	Molecular weight	Parent ions	MRM fragments	Cone voltage (V)	Collision energy (eV)
MPA	320	321	159	16	36
		321	207	16	22
STG	324	325	115	40	64
		325	310	40	24
RL2	530	553	249	42	16
		553	305	42	26
SG	544	545	81	20	34
		545	231	20	16
SH	528	529	249	24	16
		551	303	48	28
VerJ	484	523	151	46	32
		523	293	46	34

Comment citer ce document :

Aleksic, B., Draghi, M., Ritoux, B., Bailly, S., Lacroix, M., Oswald, I. P., Bailly, J.-D. (Auteur de correspondance), Robine (2017). Aerosolization of mycotoxins after growth of toxinogenic fungi on wallpaper. Applied and Environmental Microbiology, 83 (16), 31 p. DOI : 10.1128/AEM.01001-17

Table 2. Toxin(s) production on wallpaper contaminated by three different toxigenic fungal strains

Species	Toxin	Initial concentration (T0) [mg/m <sup>2</sup> ]	Concentration after 10 days [mg/m <sup>2</sup> ]	P value
<i>P. brevicompactum</i>	MPA	0.21 ± 0.09	1.8 ± 0.86	<0.0001
<i>A. versicolor</i>	STG	0.12 ± 0.004	112.1 ± 30.08	0.0008
<i>S. chartarum</i>	Total MCT	1.7	27.8	
	RL2	0.3 ± 0.01	5.9 ± 1.04	<0.0001
	VerJ	0.08 ± 0.02	0.6 ± 0.18	<0.0001
	SG	ND	7.1 ± 3.92	0.0143
	SH	1.3 ± 0.33	14.2 ± 6.97	0.0018

ND: not detected; MPA: mycophenolic acid; STG: sterigmatocystin; MCT: macrocyclic trichothecenes; RL2: Roridin L2; VerJ: Verrucaric acid; SG: Satratoxin G; SH: Satratoxin H

Table 3. Global mycotoxin content of aerosols generated from wallpaper

Species	Toxin(s)	Air velocity	Total quantity of airborne	% of emitted
		[m/s]	toxin [ng]	toxin
<i>P. brevicompactum</i>	MPA	2	271	15
<i>A. versicolor</i>	STG	2	179	0.2
<i>S. chartarum</i>	<b>Total MCT</b>	6	1260	4.5
	RL2		64	1.1
	VerJ		80	13.3
	SG		102	1.4
	SH		1014	7.1

ND: not detected; MPA: mycophenolic acid; STG: sterigmatocystin; MCT: macrocyclic trichothecenes; RL2: Roridin L2; VerJ: Verrucaric acid; SG: Satratoxin G; SH: Satratoxin H

Table 4. Quantification of mycotoxins in the different stages of the Andersen collector

Stage	Size range [ $\mu\text{m}$ ]	Quantity of emitted toxin [ng]						
		MPA <sup>1</sup>	STG <sup>2</sup>	MCT <sup>3</sup> (Total)	RL2	VerJ	SG	SH
1	>7	20.5	74.7	380.5	15.5	ND	55.3	309.7
2	4.7 – 7	79.6	49.8	58.7	27.6	ND	31.1	ND
3	3.3 – 4.7	138.7	45.2	522.1	8.4	10.8	15.7	487.2
4	2.1 – 3.3	26.5	9.2	4.4	4.4	ND	ND	ND
5	1.1 – 2.1	5.8	ND	226.3	7.2	59.8	ND	159.3
6	0.65 – 1.1	ND	ND	68.7	1.4	9.4	ND	57.9

ND: not detected; MPA: mycophenolic acid; STG: sterigmatocystin; MCT: macrocyclic trichothecenes; RL2: Roridin L2; VerJ: Verrucarol J; SG: Satratoxin G; SH: Satratoxin H  
 1 – produced by *P.brevicompectum*; 2 - produced by *A. versicolor*; 3 - produced by *S.chartarum*