

Production and migration of ochratoxin A and citrinin in Comté cheese by an isolate of Penicillium verrucosum selected among Penicillium spp. mycotoxin producers in YES medium

Monika Coton, Arnaud Auffret, Elisabeth Poirier, Stella Debaets, Emmanuel Coton, Philippe Dantigny

▶ To cite this version:

Monika Coton, Arnaud Auffret, Elisabeth Poirier, Stella Debaets, Emmanuel Coton, et al.. Production and migration of ochratoxin A and citrinin in Comté cheese by an isolate of Penicillium verrucosum selected among Penicillium spp. mycotoxin producers in YES medium. Food Microbiology, 2019, 82, pp.551 - 559. 10.1016/j.fm.2019.03.026 . hal-03485035

HAL Id: hal-03485035 https://hal.science/hal-03485035v1

Submitted on 20 Dec 2021

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.



Distributed under a Creative Commons Attribution - NonCommercial 4.0 International License

1	Production and migration of ochratoxin A and citrinin in Comté cheese by an isolate of
2	Penicillium verrucosum selected among Penicillium spp. mycotoxin producers in YES
3	medium
4	
5	Monika Coton*, Arnaud Auffret, Elisabeth Poirier, Stella Debaets, Emmanuel Coton, Philippe
6	Dantigny
7	
8	University of Brest, Laboratoire Universitaire de Biodiversité et Ecologie Microbienne, F-
9	29280 Plouzané, France
10	
11	*Correspondance to: Dr. Monika COTON
12	Laboratoire Universitaire de Biodiversité et Ecologie Microbienne EA3882
13	Technopôle Brest Iroise
14	29280 Plouzané, France
15	E-mail: monika.coton@univ-brest.fr
16	Tel: +33 2 99 91 51 55
17	Fax: +33 2 90 91 51 01
18	
19	Running title: Mycotoxin migration in molded cheese

21 Abstract

22 Moldy food products that are not subject to pathogenic bacterial contamination could be trimmed by consumers to remove fungal mycelium before consumption. However, prior to 23 giving such recommendations to consumers, it is necessary to evaluate potential mycotoxin 24 migration in these products. This study aimed at quantifying citrinin (CIT) and ochratoxin A 25 (OTA) accumulation and migration in a French semi-hard Comté cheese after artificial 26 inoculation with a CIT- and OTA-producing Penicillium vertucosum strain. At 8°C, CIT and 27 OTA production started after 14 days and 28 days incubation, respectively; while at 20°C, 28 both mycotoxins were produced from day 7. At 20°C, maximum CIT concentration, about 29 50000 ng/g, was 20 fold that at 8°C. Regardless of temperature, maximum OTA concentration 30 was about 4000 ng/g cheese. Maximum concentrations were obtained in the upper part of the 31 cheese, but depending on incubation time, mycotoxins were detected up to 1.6 cm in depth. 32 33 As long as only white mycelium developed on the cheese surface, trimming can be acceptable, but a blue mold color (due to fungal sporulation) was associated with the 34 35 accumulation of significant amounts of mycotoxins so the product should be discarded.

36

37 Keywords: food safety, mycotoxins, migration, *Penicillium*, semi-hard cheese

1. Introduction

In Europe, North America and Oceania, more than 10% of milk and dairy products are 40 lost, principally at the consumer level (FAO, 2011). Microbial spoilage of food products is 41 one of the reasons for these losses. In contrast to bacteria, mold contamination is easily 42 detected by the consumer due to the presence of a noticeable mycelium, but due to 43 insufficient knowledge about molds, spoiled products are usually thrown in the bin. However, 44 some websites provide food safety information. For example, it is recommended to discard 45 mold contaminated jams, yogurt, soft cheese, and bread, and to cut off at least one inch 46 around and below the mold spot on hard cheese because mold cannot penetrate deep into the 47 48 product (USDA, 2013). Soft cheese should be discarded because moldy foods may also have unwanted bacteria growing along with the mold. In contrast to soft cheeses, semi-hard and 49 hard cheeses have not been reported to be subject to contamination by pathogenic bacteria. 50 51 For example, it was previously shown that mild, reduced fat and sharp Cheddar did not support growth of *Listeria monocytogenes* and *Salmonella* spp. (Leong et al. 2014). 52

The main problem with mold spoiled foods is the possible production of mycotoxins 53 that can diffuse from the mycelium to the product. Mold spots cannot simply be scraped off or 54 removed from the product because the amount of mycotoxins at a given place in a given 55 56 product depends on many factors such as product composition, microorganism, extent of contamination, environmental conditions, and distance to the mycelium (where mycotoxin 57 production actually takes place). Therefore, any recommendation to discard or to cut off part 58 of the product should be supported by quantifying mycotoxin diffusion in the food product. 59 Studies on this topic are scarce. The ability of aflatoxins, ochratoxin A (OTA), and citrinin 60 (CIT), produced by Aspergillus parasiticus, Aspergillus ochraceus, and Penicillium 61 chrysogenum, respectively, to diffuse in bread was assessed by Reiss, (1981). OTA formation 62 was high in the first slice (1 cm thickness) and decreased in the subsequent slices whereas 63

CIT production was only detected in the uppermost slice. Patulin (PAT) distribution was also 64 determined in decayed apples, but only for a 20 mm diameter lesion (Bandoh et al. 2009). In 65 another study, the decrease in PAT concentration as a function of the distance from the 66 infected tissue in apples and tomatoes was about 2 log/cm and less than 1 log/cm, respectively 67 (Rychlik and Schieberle, 2001). In sweet peppers, fumonisin B_1 was detected 1.5 cm away 68 from the mold lesion (Monbaliu et al. 2010). More recently, dairy products, jams and tomato 69 puree were inoculated by Penicillium expansum, Penicillium roqueforti, Penicillium 70 crustosum, Aspergillus versicolor, and Penicillium commune (Olsen et al. 2017). 71

Surprisingly, mycotoxin diffusion was never assessed in cheese. Obviously, soft 72 cheeses should not be considered for this kind of study because bacterial growth, especially 73 pathogens, may also occur along with the mold. Therefore, discarding the moldy product is 74 the only safe recommendation for consumers. In contrast to soft cheeses, evaluating 75 mycotoxin diffusion in semi-hard and hard cheeses would provide reliable data to determine 76 the size of the portion around the mold that should be cut-off. Comté is a semi-hard cheese, 77 purchased by more than half of French households, and is by far the first protected 78 designation of origin (PDO) cheese in France with a total annual production of 64,179 tons in 79 2014 (Eugster-Meier et al. 2018). By comparison, the production of Gruyere and Emmental 80 PDO cheeses in Switzerland were 26,300 and 23,480 tons, respectively in 2010 (Anon, 2018). 81 The minimum ripening time for Comté cheese is 4 months, but this time can be extended up 82 to 48 months. During ripening, water activity varies from 0.962 (2 months) to 0.959 (4 83 months) (Piton-Malleret and Gorrieri, 1992). A much greater variation in a_w between 4 and 48 84 months ripening can be expected. For example, in the case of Cheddar cheese, a_w was shown 85 to decrease linearly from 0.965 to 0.956 during the first 270 days of ripening due to an 86 increase of proteolysis (Hickey et al. 2013). 87

Several investigators have reported that the dominant contaminating fungi isolated 88 from cheese are *Penicillium* spp. (Northolt et al. 1980; Bullerman, 1981; Lund et al. 1995; 89 Barrios et al. 1998; Garnier et al., 2017). Lund et al. (1995) described P. commune, 90 Penicillium palitans, Penicillium nalgiovense, and Penicillium vertucosum species as the 91 most frequent contaminants of hard, semi-hard, and soft cheeses. Reports of P. verrucosum 92 occurrence in cheese should however be considered with care as many *P. verrucosum* isolates 93 have been reclassified to the closely related *Penicillium nordicum* species (Larsen et al. 2001). 94 P. nordicum is well adapted to salt-rich environments and foods, including cheeses, and is 95 often a consistent producer of OTA while P. verrucosum is found in other habitats (e.g., 96 97 cereals) as well as salt-rich foods like cheese and can produce OTA and/or CIT depending on growth and environmental conditions (Giesen et al, 2018). For these species, OTA 98 biosynthesis may be related to strain fitness and more precisely to the capacity to adapt to a 99 100 salt-rich environment like cheese. For P. commune, this species represented 45% of the Penicillium isolates in the study by Lund et al. (1995) and is considered as the dominant 101 102 fungus isolated from cheeses. Most isolates produced cyclopiazonic acid (CPA) (Frisvad and 103 Filtenborg, 1989) but also some other secondary metabolites (i.e., rugulovasines and viridicatin) on cheese agar (Larsen et al. 2002). 104

In cheese, the most hazardous mycotoxins are aflatoxin M1 (AFM1) and OTA 105 (Hymery et al. 2014). AFM1 is the only mycotoxin for which regulatory maximum levels 106 have been set (0.05 and 0.5 μ g/kg in the milk used for cheese-making in the EU [Commission] 107 Regulation [EC] Nr. 1881/2006] and United States and China, respectively). However, this 108 mycotoxin is already present in milk and is not produced during cheese storage. Maximum 109 OTA levels are regulated in the EU (Commission Regulation [EC] Nr. 1881/2006) for some 110 foods but not cheese. However, due to its toxicity, OTA was classified by the IARC (1993), 111 as class 2B, possibly carcinogenic to humans. On the basis of the lowest observed adverse 112

effect level (LOAEL) of 8 µg/kg body weight per day for early markers of renal toxicity in 113 pigs (the most sensitive animal species), and applying an uncertainty factor of 450 for the 114 uncertainties in the extrapolation of experimental data derived from animals to humans as 115 well as for intra-species variability, EFSA (2006) established a Tolerable Weekly Intake 116 (TWI) of 120 ng/kg b.w. The majority of P. verrucosum isolates are OTA producers and some 117 isolates also produce CIT (Frisvad and Samson, 2004). Penicillium citrinum and P. 118 verrucosum are the only known Penicillium species to produce this mycotoxin in cheese 119 (Hymery et al. 2014). CIT, like OTA, is nephrotoxic, but in group 3 as it is not classifiable as 120 to its carcinogenicity towards humans (IARC, 1987). Citrinin is nephrotoxic and a no-121 122 observed-adverse-effect level (NOAEL) of 20 µg/kg body weight per day was identified from a 90-day study in rats. Due to the limitations and uncertainties in the database, the derivation 123 of a health-based guidance value was not considered appropriate but a level of no concern for 124 125 nephrotoxicity of 0.2 µg/kg b.w. per day was determined. Based on the available data a concern for genotoxicity and carcinogenicity could not be excluded at the level of no concern 126 for nephrotoxicity, (EFSA, 2012). Based on toxicity to animals, other Penicillium mycotoxins 127 such as penitrem A, a powerful neurotoxin produced by Penicillium crustosum, could also be 128 tested for migration in cheese. 129

Various isolates of *Penicillium* spp. were first screened for their ability to produce mycotoxins on Yeast Extract Sucrose (YES) Agar and their ability to grow and produce mycotoxins on Comté cheese. Then, the selected mycotoxin producing isolate was grown on Comté cheese at both refrigerated, 8°C, and ambient, 20°C, temperatures. In order to determine the quantity of cheese that should be cut-off before consumption, mycotoxins were quantified in 2mm thick slices depthwise and mycotoxin concentrations were correlated to the visual aspect of the moldy cheese.

2. Materials and Methods

139

140 2.1. Fungal isolates

All Penicillia (belonging to P. crustosum, P. nordicum and P. verrucosum) were isolated 141 from cheese or dairy related environments, with the exception of P. verrucosum UBOCC-A-142 109221, and belong to either the Université de Bretagne Occidentale Culture Collection 143 (UBOCC, Plouzané, France) or were part of the LUBEM laboratory culture collection (Table 144 1). The origin of P. verrucosum UBOCC-A-117113 was unknown. These isolates were 145 selected as they belong to the main known Penicillium species that can contaminate semi-hard 146 cheeses. All species were previously identified in the laboratory according to partial β-tubulin 147 148 gene sequencing as described by Ropars et al. (2012). Stock cultures were maintained at -80°C. 149

150

151 2.2. *Media*

For conidial production, Potato Dextrose Agar (PDA, BD Difco, France) was used and plates were incubated at 25°C for 7d after inoculation. For mycotoxin determination, Yeast Extract Sucrose (YES) agar medium (Frisvad and Filtenborg, 1983) buffered at pH 4.5 with phosphate-citrate buffer (Chang et al., 1998) was used as described by Gillot et al. (2017), as this medium is characterized by a high C/N ratio favoring mycotoxin production (Visagie et al., 2014).

158

159 2.3. *Cheese*

160 The French Comté cheese used throughout this study was produced by the Fromagerie Vagne161 (Poligny, France). All samples were taken from the same circular cheese wheel (batch number

FR39.434.002CE). Comté is a semi-hard cheese, ripened for 6 months, with a water activityof 0.95.

164

165 2.4. Conidia production

Fungal stock cultures (1 ml) were thawed at ambient temperature for about 1h. Plates were then inoculated with 0.1 ml of the stock culture (ca. $1x10^{6}$ conidia.mL⁻¹) and incubated at 25°C for 7d. Fresh conidia were harvested using a sterile loop after flooding the surface of the plates with 2 ml of distilled water containing 0.01% Tween 80 (Sigma Aldrich, Saint Quentin Fallavier, France). After counting conidia using a heamocytometer, conidial suspensions were standardized to $1x10^{6}$ conidia.mL⁻¹. Suspensions were used directly after preparation for the different experiments.

173

174 2.5. Isolate screening for mycotoxin production in YES medium

For mycotoxin determination, 1 μ L of each spore suspension (10⁶ conidia.mL⁻¹) were inoculated in the center of YES plates and incubated for 7 days under optimal growth conditions at 25°C. Each culture was performed in triplicate. After incubation, the content of the agar plates was stored at -20°C prior to mycotoxin analysis.

In parallel, fungal growth was also monitored and the corresponding dry weights were correlated to the obtained mycotoxin levels determined by LC-MS/Q-TOF in YES media. For dry weight determinations, 1 μ L of each spore suspension (10⁶ conidia.mL⁻¹) were inoculated in the center of YES plates containing sterile cellophane disks (Carrefour, France). Plates were incubated for 7 days at 25°C. After incubation, cellophane disks containing fungal mycelium were carefully removed from the plates and placed into glass Petri dishes. Fungal mycelia were removed from the cellophane disks by adding sterile distilled water. Dry weights were then determined after drying mycelia at 70°C for 48h. Each culture was
performed in triplicate.

188

189 2.6. Isolate screening for mycotoxin production in Comté cheese

190 Cheese rind was discarded aseptically. Cheese was then cut into $4x4x0.2 \text{ cm}^3$ pieces and 191 placed in Petri dishes. Then, 30 µl of a 10^6 conidia.mL⁻¹ suspension were spread over the 192 surface with a sterile bent glass rod. Petri dishes were placed on a pedestal in hermetically 193 closed plastic containers. To control cheese water activity, a 20% glycerol (w/w) aqueous 194 solution was poured into the bottom of containers. Triplicates were incubated for 10d at 20°C 195 and each cheese piece was stored at -20°C prior to mycotoxin analysis.

196

197 2.7. Experimental conditions for mycotoxin migration in cheese

The procedure was identical to \$2.6 except that cheeses were cut into 4x4x3 cm³ cubes before inoculation (or not for control cheeses) with 30μ l of 10^6 conidia.mL⁻¹. Spore suspensions were evenly spread on each cheese surface before being placed in sterile glass jars. Jars were then placed in larger hermetically closed containers with controlled water activity using the same solution as in \$2.6. Triplicates were incubated for 42d at 8° C and 28d at 20° C.

For each sampling date (0, 7, 14, 21, 28, 35 and 42d), photographs of fungal growth on the cheese surface were taken and mycotoxin analyses in increasing depthwise cheese fractions were performed in triplicate. To do so, 2mm thick cheese slices were cut from the cheese cube depthwise and named D0 (moldy upper slice from 0-2mm), D1 (trimmed upper slice from 0-2mm without mold, obtained from an identical replicate), then the other slices obtained from the first cube were numbered D2 (2-4mm) to D8 (14-16 mm). All cheese slices were stored at -20°C prior to mycotoxin analysis.

211

2.8. Non-selective extraction of fungal metabolites from YES medium

For YES media, cultures (mycelium and medium) were first homogenized with an Ultraturrax 212 213 T25 digital (IKA, Heidelberg, Germany) for 1 min. Then, a 4g aliquot was added to 25 mL of acetonitrile (ACN) containing 0.1% formic acid (v/v), vortexed for 30 s, then sonicated for 15 214 215 min. Samples were again vortexed for 30 s before centrifugation at 5000 g for 10 min at 4°C. Ten mL of the ACN phase were collected and stored at -20°C until QTOF LC-MS analysis. 216 Before analysis, 1 mL was filtered through a 0.2 µm PTFE membrane syringe 4 mm filter 217 218 (Phenomenex, Torrance, USA) into an amber vial. 219 2.9. Non-selective extraction of mycotoxins from cheese samples 220 Cheese samples were aseptically cut into small pieces using a scalpel, placed in 15 mL tubes, 221 then 6.25 mL of diluted ACN (84%) supplemented with 2.5% acetic acid (v/v) per g of cheese 222 were added. Samples were vortexed for 2 min, homogenized with an Ultraturrax T25 digital 223 (IKA, Heidelberg, Germany) for 1 min, then 10 mL hexane were added. Samples were placed 224 on a RotoFlex Plus tube rotator (Sigma, France) for 30 min at room temperature, sonicated for 225 15 min and centrifuged at 4000 g for 10 min at 4°C. After discarding the hexane layer, 5-10 226

mL of the ACN phase were collected and stored at -20°C until QTOF LC-MS analysis.
Before analysis, 1 mL of the solution was filtered through a 0.45 µm PTFE membrane syringe
4 mm filter (Phenomenex, Torrance, USA) into an amber vial.

230

231 2.10. Fungal metabolite detection and quantification by QTOF LC-MS

Extracted fungal extrolites, including mycotoxins, were detected and quantified using an
Agilent 6530 Accurate-Mass Quadrupole Time-of-Flight (QTOF) LC-MS system (Agilent

Mycotoxin standards used for quantification were: citrinin (CIT), ochratoxin A (OTA), penitrem A (PEN A) and roquefortine C (ROQ C). Standards were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (St Louis, MO, USA) except for PEN A from Cfm Oskar Tropitzsch (Marktredwitz, Germany). All mycotoxin stock solutions were prepared in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) at 1 mg.mL⁻¹ and stored at -20°C in amber vials. Calibration curves prepared in ACN ranged from 10 to 5000 ng.mL⁻¹. All compound characteristics for mycotoxin identification and quantification are provided in Table 2.

For screening isolates for mycotoxin production (YES medium or cheese samples), 2 µL 243 filtered samples were injected and separated using a ZORBAX Extend-C18 column (2.1 x 50 244 245 mm and 1.8 µm, 600 bar). The column was maintained at 35°C and the flow rate was set to 0.3 mL.min⁻¹ using as mobile phase: solvent A (milli-Q water + 0.1% LC-MS formic acid v/v 246 247 (Carlo Erba Reagents, France) + 0.1% ammonium formate v/v (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA)) and solvent B (100% LC-MS grade ACN). Solvent B was maintained 248 at 10% for the first 3 minutes, followed by a gradient of 10-100% of B for 42 min. Finally, 249 solvent B was maintained at 100% for 5-min post-time. Analytes were ionized in both ESI+ 250 and ESI- modes (ESI: Electrospray Ionization). Mass spectrometer conditions were: capillary 251 voltage, 4.0 kV; source temperature, 325°C; nebulizer pressure, 50 psig; drying gas, 12 L/min 252 and ion range, 100 to 1000 m/z. Mycotoxin detection and identification was performed using 253 retention time values ± 1 min and the corresponding quantifier or qualifier ions for each 254 mycotoxin standard listed in Table 2. Mycotoxin concentrations were calculated from the 255 equation y = mx+b, as determined by weighted $(1/x^2)$ linear regression of the matrix-matched 256 calibration data. For YES samples, these values were also correlated to the calculated fungal 257 biomass (determined dry weight values) and specific mycotoxin production was expressed as 258

ng per g dry weight. In contrast to YES medium, mycotoxin production was expressed as ng
per g cheese for Comté cheese.

For mycotoxin migration experiments in Comté cheese, some changes were made to optimize 261 the quantification of the two target mycotoxins CIT and OTA as follows: 2 µL filtered 262 samples were injected and separated in a Poroshell 120 EC-C18 column (2.1 x 50 mm and 2.7 263 µm, 600 bar) maintained at 35°C. The flow rate was set to 0.3 mL.min⁻¹ using as mobile 264 phase: solvent A (milli-Q water + 0.1% LC-MS formic acid v/v + 0.1M ammonium formate 265 (Carlo Erba Reagents, France)) and solvent B (100% LC-MS grade CAN + 0.1% LC-MS 266 formic acid v/v (Carlo Erba Reagents, France)). Solvent B was maintained at 10% for the first 267 4 minutes, followed by a gradient of 10-100% of B for 16 min. Finally, solvent B was 268 269 maintained at 100% 2 min followed by 5 min post-time. Target analytes were ionized in ESI+ 270 mode and identical mass spectrometer conditions were used as described above. Mycotoxin detection and identification was performed as above and specific mycotoxin production was 271 272 expressed as ng per g cheese.

Method performance and validation parameters including linearity (R^2) , detection limit (DL), 273 quantification limit (QL), recovery values and matrix effects were also assessed for target 274 metabolites of interest according to the ICH guidelines (ICH Harmonized Tripartite 275 276 Guideline, 2005). The calibration method used for reliable metabolite quantifications was prepared as previously described (Fontaine et al., 2015). Briefly, blank matrix (Comté cheese) 277 aliquots were treated using the sample preparation procedure described above to obtain blank 278 extracts. Each blank extract was then spiked with an adequate volume of the stock solutions 279 of the two target mycotoxins, CIT and OTA, to reach concentrations ranging from 5 to 5000 280 ng.mL⁻¹. Calibration curves were obtained by plotting the peak area against mycotoxin 281 concentrations using a $1/x^2$ weighted linear regression model. According to ICH guidelines 282 (ICH Harmonized Tripartite Guideline, 2005), DL and QL of each metabolite was obtained 283

by multiplying the standard deviation of y-intercepts of regression lines divided by the slope, by 3.3 and 10, respectively (Table 2). Recovery percentage was evaluated in triplicate using cheese matrices spiked with a mix of CIT and OTA at 250 and 2500 ng.g⁻¹ (recovery >85% for both concentrations). Finally, all calibration curve calculations were carried out using the Agilent MassHunter Workstation Software (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA).

- 289
- 290 **3. Results**
- 291

292

3.1. Screening of Penicillium isolates for mycotoxin production

A total of seven *Penicillium* isolates belonging to 3 species already described in the literature as mycotoxin producers in dairy products were selected, namely *P. nordicum* (isolate 5i9), *P. verrucosum* (isolates UBOCC-A-117113, UBOCC-A-111269 and UBOCC-A-109221) and *P. crustosum* (isolates 16057, 16054 and 12051), to determine their mycotoxin production profiles in both YES medium and Comté cheese.

With the notable exception of *P. nordicum* (< DL for all target metabolites in YES agar), 298 isolates belonging to the other two species produced mycotoxins in YES medium after 7d 299 incubation at 25°C (Figure 1a). Major mycotoxins produced by all 3 P. crustosum isolates and 300 by one P. verrucosum isolate (UBOCC-A-117113) were penitrem A (PEN A) and 301 302 roquefortine C (ROQ C). P. verrucosum UBOCC-A-109221 was the only isolate that produced quantifiable amounts of OTA on YES medium. As observed for the YES substrate, 303 all P. crustosum isolates also produced PEN A and ROQ C in Comté cheese (Figure 1a). P. 304 nordicum produced OTA and CIT in Comté cheese while these metabolites were not detected 305 in YES agar extracts. In contrast to YES medium, P. verrucosum UBOCC-A-117113 and 306 UBOCC-A-109221 did not produce any mycotoxins in Comté cheese (Figure 1b). P. 307 verrucosum UBOCC-A-111269 was the only isolate to simultaneously produce significant 308

levels of OTA and CIT in Comté cheese (Figure 1b). Therefore, this isolate was selected to
determine the mycotoxin migration in a cheese substrate.

311

312

3.2. Migration of mycotoxins in Comté cheese

To mimic mold contamination that occurs at the consumer level on unpackaged cheese by sources such as the knife used for cutting the cheese wheel, ambient air or the fridge, *P. verrucosum* was artificially inoculated on the surface of a rind-free Comté cheese then incubated at controlled temperature (8°C refrigerated temperature and 20°C ambient temperature) and water activity conditions for up to 42 days.

At 8°C, production of CIT and OTA started after 14 and 28 days incubation, respectively 318 (Figure 2a). At 14 days, CIT was mainly detected in 2mm depth samples with and without 319 fungal mycelium although highest concentrations where detected when the mold was present. 320 Low CIT concentrations (about 125 ng/g) were also detected from 2-4mm in depth. At 21 321 days, significant amounts of CIT, about 1500 ng/g and 1000 ng/g, were detected in the 0-2 322 mm and 2-4 mm slices, respectively, as well as very low levels between 4-6mm (<75 ng/g). 323 At 28 days, CIT was detected at concentrations ranging from 1100 to 500 ng/g up to 6mm 324 depth, as well as at about 50 ng/g up to 8mm depth, but the concentrations at the cheese 325 surface decreased, thus suggesting that the production of CIT at the surface of the cheese had 326 stopped and consequently that CIT had migrated into the depth of the cheese. At 28 and 35 327 days, OTA was produced at concentrations reaching about 250 ng/g and 850 ng/g, 328 respectively, and detected up to 6mm in depth by 35 days. At both 35 and 42 days, OTA 329 production was higher than CIT and by 42 days, OTA concentrations reached maximum 330 levels with up to about 3500 ng/g cheese. At this time, OTA was detected at a depth greater 331 than 10mm. Mycotoxin production was then correlated to changes in fungal growth after 332 incubation at 8°C (Figure 3a). Up to 14 days, loose white mycelium was observed on the 333

334 surface of cheeses incubated at 8°C (Figure 3a). By 21 days, a blue color due to the 335 production of conidia appeared. Then, from 28 to 42 days, blue mold completely covered the 336 cheese surface which corresponded to the same time period when OTA was produced.

At 20°C, production of both mycotoxins began at day 7 and CIT levels were systematically 337 higher than OTA in the 0-2 mm slices (Figure 2b). At 20°C, the maximum CIT concentration, 338 about 50000 ng/g, was 20 fold that at 8°C. The highest CIT concentrations were obtained in 339 the upper part, 0-2mm, of cheese for all sample dates. In contrast to 8°C, CIT concentrations 340 did not decrease significantly from 14 to 28 days. At 28 days, about 80 ng/g were quantified 341 at 6-8 mm in depth then concentrations decreased to levels <50ng/g in the remaining tested 342 slices. In contrast to CIT, maximum OTA concentrations at 20°C (~4200 ng/g) did not differ 343 significantly from those produced at 8°C. At 21 and 28 days, OTA was detected at 344 concentrations >50 ng/g at depths up to 6-8mm and 8-10mm, respectively. As for CIT, OTA 345 346 concentrations then decreased to levels <50 ng/g in the remaining analyzed samples.

Fungal growth at 20°C was characterized by white mycelium largely covering the cheese surface after 7 days incubation at 20°C (Figure 3b). Blue mold aspect due to conidia production was observed from day 14 only at 20°C versus day 21 for 8°C (Figure 3a). A dense blue mold layer was then visible at 21d and 28d incubation at 20°C. Highest OTA and CIT quantities were produced when blue mold was visible on the cheese surface.

352

353 4. Discussion

354

Mycotoxin production profiles were first determined by QTOF LC-MC for 7 isolates belonging to 3 known mycotoxin producing *Penicillium* species - *P. nordicum*, *P. verrucosum* and *P. crustosum* - that can contaminate dairy foods using two different substrates, YES agar and Comté cheese. Our results showed that, in some cases, different mycotoxins were

produced depending on the growth substrate used to cultivate the fungal isolates. This 359 observation has already been described for the same 3 Penicillium species using 3 substrates 360 by Kokkonen et al. (2005). ROQ C and PEN A were synthesized on both substrates by all 3 361 P. crustosum isolates. These species have already been described to produce these compounds 362 in different substrates including foods (Kokkonen et al., 2005; Leggierei et al., 2017; Olsen et 363 al., 2017; Prencipe et al., 2018). ROQ C and PEN A were produced by P. verrucosum 364 UBOCC-A-117113 on YES agar but not in cheese. It was reported that this species was able 365 to produce ROQC, (Kozlovsky and Reshetilova, 1984), but this result was later suggested to 366 be incorrect by Frisvad et al (2004). Penicillium verrucosum var. cyclopium RV 67718 367 368 isolated from ground cassava collected in Burundi, was cultivated under laboratory conditions to produce the mycotoxin roquefortine C (Musuka et al., 2004). But the production of PEN A 369 by P. verrucosum was never reported before. P. verrucosum UBOCC-A-117113 and 370 371 UBOCC-A-111269, identified by the β -tubulin gene, were closely related and clearly identified as P. verrucosum. In our opinion, this result was not due to a misidentification, but 372 it should be confirmed by other research groups. 373

OTA and CIT synthesis were highly variable according to substrate and fungal isolate. P. 374 nordicum synthesized OTA in cheese but not in YES medium. This mycotoxin has already 375 been shown to be synthesized at variable concentrations by this species on YES, cheese and 376 bread analogues (Kokkonen et al., 2005) and also according to NaCl content of the substrate 377 (Schmidt-Heydt et al., 2012). The amount of CIT produced by P. nordicum in YES medium 378 was below the DL. Finally, 2 P. verrucosum isolates were the strongest OTA producers in 379 cheese and 1 isolate also simultaneously produced CIT on this substrate while extracts from 380 YES medium exclusively contained only 1 mycotoxin at a time. The OTA+CIT producing P. 381 *verrucosum* isolate was therefore further studied in our model cheese system to evaluate the 382 potential migration of these compounds into the cheese. Noteworthy, our results highlighted 383

the importance to correctly choose a substrate to determine mycotoxin production profiles of a given strain. We recommend testing more than one substrate to determine whether a fungal strain is able to produce one or multiple mycotoxins is therefore highly recommended.

P. verrucosum grows from 0 to 31°C, with an optimum at 20°C (Pitt and Hocking, 387 2009). Accordingly, it was observed in our study that the development of this species on 388 Comté was faster at 20°C than at 8°C. The increase of temperature from 15 to 20°C with 389 respect to the same incubation time resulted in an increase in OTA biosynthesis by a factor of 390 10 (Battilani et al., 2010). In contrast to that study, the concentration of OTA produced in 391 Comté at 8 and 20°C were not significantly different. The ability to biosynthesize OTA and 392 393 CIT at 10°C was not detected on solid cereal substrates (Wawrzyniak and Waśkiewicz, 2014), whereas production of OTA and CIT by P. verrucosum was reported on YES medium at 6°C 394 (Takahashi and Yazaki, 2007). P. verrucosum grew and produced CIT at 20°C and 25°C, but 395 396 not at 5°C, 30°C, or 35°C on MEA, CYA, and YES agar (Heperkan et al., 2009). CIT biosynthesis in *P. verrucosum* was shown to be highly regulated by environmental factors like 397 temperature, water activity or pH (Touhami et al. 2018). A higher level of CIT versus OTA 398 was produced by P. verrucosum at 6°C on YES medium (Takahashi and Yazaki, 2007). 399 Recent publications suggested that the concentration of CIT may be high in cereals and may 400 even exceed that of OTA (Vrabcheva et al., 2000; Meister, 2004; Zaied et al., 2012; 401 Kononkenko and Burkin, 2013, Wawrzyniak and Waśkiewicz, 2014). On Comté cheese, 402 maximum amounts of OTA and CIT at 8°C were of the same order of magnitude although 403 produced at different times, whereas the amounts of CIT were about 10 fold that of OTA at 404 20°C. The latter observation strengthened this assumption. 405

In the present study, the maximum OTA concentration found in Comté cheese was about 3 mg/kg. This amount may depend on the isolate, but also on the substrate. For example OTA has been found in spoiled cheeses, at up to 7 mg/kg (Jarvis, 1983), in moldy cheesecakes, at up to 1 mg/kg (Piskorska-Pliszcynska and Borkowska-Opacka, 1984) and in traditional raw cow milk hand-made semi-hard cheeses at levels ranging from 18-146 μ g/kg in the cheese interior and 1-262 μ g/kg in the rind (Pattono et al., 2013). Up to 600 mg/kg of CIT was also produced on fresh goat cheese by *P. citrinum* after 10 days incubation at 20°C (Bailly et al., 2002). In the present study, 2.5 mg/kg and 45 mg/kg of CIT were detected in Comté at 8 and 20°C, respectively, although in this cheese, CIT production was not due to *P. citrinum* but *P. verrucosum*.

P. nordicum is adapted to NaCl-rich environments like hypersaline waters (Butinar et 416 al., 2011) or NaCl-rich food products like cheeses or dry-cured meats (Larsen et al., 2001). 417 418 Important habitats of *P. verrucosum* are cereals and cereal products; however, this species can also occur on salt-rich foods, like dry-cured meats and cheeses, and is obviously be 419 responsible for the co-occurrence of OTA and CIT in these types of products (Markov et al., 420 421 2013). As expected, the P. nordicum isolate tested in our study developed well and produced OTA in Comté, but did not produce any mycotoxins in YES medium. It was reported that 422 strains of P. verrucosum exclusively produced CIT on YES, whereas both OTA and CIT were 423 detected in considerable amounts on a bread analogue (Kokkonen et al., 2005). Similarly, the 424 P. verrucosum isolate selected in our study for its ability to produce OTA and CIT on Comté 425 cheese, only produced CIT on YES medium. 426

In *P. verrucosum*, CIT and OTA biosynthesis are mutually regulated (Schmidt-Heidt et al., 2011). Both mycotoxins are polyketides with a highly similar dihydrocoumarin moiety, but in the case of OTA, this moiety contains a chlorine atom and is coupled to the amino acid phenylalanine. High amounts of one of these secondary metabolites are produced at the expense of the other and this species can likely adapt its biosynthesis depending on the encountered environmental conditions in a given habitat. NaCl concentration plays an important role in OTA biosynthesis which can certainly be related to the chlorine atom in its

chemical structure. It was suggested that OTA biosynthesis helps ensure chloride homeostasis 434 in the cell in adaptation to a NaCl-rich environment (Schmidt-Heidt et al., 2012). Shift from 435 CIT towards OTA biosynthesis was also reported at increasing NaCl concentrations 436 (Schmidt-Heidt et al., 2012; Giesen et al, 2017). High NaCl concentrations could cause 437 increased intracellular osmotic stress due to intensive mitochondrial respiration (Petrovic, 438 2006), therefore the antioxidant properties of CIT may also impact adaptation to such an 439 environment (Giesen et al, 2018). At 8°C, the shift from CIT towards OTA could not be 440 explained by an increasing NaCl concentration, due for example to drying of the surface of 441 the cheese, because water activity in the incubation environment of Comté cheeses was 442 controlled. A change in the pH in Comté cheese, due for example to lipid or protein 443 degradation by the fungus, could explain the shift from CIT to OTA at 8°C. Also, protein 444 degradation could provide free amino acids, including phenylalanine, in the environment 445 required for OTA biosynthesis. The absence of this shift at 20°C on Comté cheese could be 446 explained by faster degradation or modification of environmental factors at the surface of 447 Comté, especially as fungal development was very intense on the cheese surface under these 448 conditions. 449

No study reported that CIT could be an OTA precursor. It rather appears that these two 450 mycotoxins are mutually regulated. Therefore, the decrease in CIT observed after 14 days 451 incubation at 8°C was not due to a transformation into OTA. The decrease in CIT could rather 452 be explained, at least partially, by the diffusion of this mycotoxin into the cheese. In fact, by 453 considering the first 4mm at 21 days incubation, the amount of CIT was about 5000 ng (the 454 weight of each 2mm slice was about 2g), as compared to 800 ng at 35 days incubation. By 455 comparison, CIT produced by P. citrinum on black olives was maximum at 40 days 456 incubation at 20, 25, and 30°C than decreased until 60 days (Heperkan et al. 2012). In another 457 study on cheese, it was suggested that the disappearance of this toxin was due to a chemical 458

reaction with cheese components and not to any microbial action (Bailly et al. 2002). Since cheeses are high in casein, it is possible that reactive groups in the protein react with the mycotoxin, causing its disappearance. Previous data have also demonstrated that CIT may be inactivated by cysteine and can be bound to albumin and plasma proteins (Scott, 1977).

At 8°C, high CIT production and at 20°C high CIT and OTA production was 463 correlated with a blue colored mold appearance due to the production of conidia. The blue 464 color can be observed by the consumer well after it appears, as storage time may be unknown. 465 Therefore, it is suggested to discard any "blue molded" Comté cheese because mycotoxins 466 were detected up to 16 mm depth in the present study. However, when white mycelium is 467 only detected by the consumer, our results demonstrated that CIT and OTA remained in the 468 first 2mm of the cheese, therefore trimming (i.e., discarding the upper 2mm of moldy cheese) 469 470 can be acceptable.

471

472 **5. Conclusions**

473

In the farm to fork approach, the consumer is an important element of the chain. Regulations 474 can be enforced at the different steps from production to retail, but recommendations can only 475 be suggested to the consumer. With respect to moldy food products, these recommendations 476 are scarce, not easily available and not supported by many scientific experiments. In order to 477 ensure food safety, it should be recommended to discard sell by date products stored in the 478 fridge because mold development can hide a contamination by pathogenic bacteria. Therefore, 479 this study focused on Comté cheese that has not been reported to be contaminated by such 480 bacteria during storage. It should be underlined that the conclusions of the present study 481 should not be extrapolated to other cheeses, especially soft ones. The approach described in 482 the present study was also based on insufficient knowledge of the consumer on mold 483

484 contamination, i.e., the consumer cannot distinguish a harmless fungi (e.g., Mucoromycota)
485 from potentially toxigenic species. It should also be bared in mind that many people are
486 unaware of mycotoxins, and that mycotoxins can migrate in food products.

The worst case scenario was also privileged. For example, this study was based on the 487 only Penicillium isolate capable of producing multiple mycotoxins in Comté cheese. In 488 general, these kinds of studies should select the highest mycotoxin producer, along with the 489 most toxic mycotoxins for humans. Accordingly, OTA and CIT were selected due to their 490 possible genetoxicity and carcinogenicity. Maximum OTA concentrations have been set by 491 the EC 1881/2005 regulation for cereals but not for cheese. In the present study, a great 492 493 increase in mycotoxin concentration was observed once produced and linked to a blue mold visual aspect. Therefore, it is suggested to discard any part of cheese that would contain 494 detectable mycotoxins. 495

496 Considering mycotoxins as chemical hazards is consistent with the objective of setting international regulatory standards based on toxicological studies (Dantigny and Bensoussan, 497 2013). However, this approach was not suitable to improve food safety at the consumer level 498 simply because mycotoxins cannot be quantified by the consumer. Simple recommendations 499 should be based on the visual aspect of cheese regardless of storage time because many 500 501 consumers do not know how long food products are stored. Due to slower growth and lower mycotoxin productions at 8°C than at 20°C, it can also be recommended to the consumer to 502 store Comté cheese at refrigerated temperatures. 503

504

505 Acknowledgments

506

507 This work was supported by public funding from the French for Food, Environmental and 508 Occupational Health & Safety (ANSES), program MIMYAL (2017-CRD-03). Diane 509 Cuzzucoli and Nathalie Arnich are gratefully acknowledged for their support during the 510 project.

512	References
513	
514	Anonymous. 2018. Emmental. https://fr.wikipedia.org/wiki/Emmental. Accessed
515	06/21/2018.
516	
517	Bailly, J. D., Querin, A., Le Bars Bailly, S., Benard, G. Guerre, P. 2002. Citrinin
518	production and stability in cheese. Journal of Food Protection. 65, 1317–1321.
519	
520	Bandoh, S., Takeuchi, M., Ohsawa, K., Higashihara, K., Kawamoto, Y., Gotoa, T. 2009.
521	Patulin distribution in decayed apple and its reduction. International Biodeterioration and
522	Biodegradation. 63, 379–382.
523	
524	Barrios M, Medina L, Lopez M. 1998. Fungal biota isolated from Spanish cheeses.
525	Journal of Food Safety. 18, 151–7.
526	
527	Battilani, P., Formenti, S., Toscani, T., Virgili, R. 2010. Influence of abiotic parameters
528	on ochratoxin A production by Penicillium nordicum strain in dry-cured meat model
529	systems. Food Control. 21, 1739–1744.
530	
531	Bullerman, L.B., 1981. Public health significance of molds and mycotoxins in fermented
532	dairy products. Journal of Dairy Science. 64, 2439-2452.
533	
534	Butinar, L., Frisvad, J.C., Gunde-Cimerman, N. 2011. Hypersaline waters - a potential
535	source of foodborne toxigenic Aspergilli and Penicillia. FEMS Microbiology Ecology. 77,
536	186–199.
537	

538	Dantigny, P., Bensoussan, M., 2013. Introduction to predictive mycology. In: Dantigny,								
539	P., Panagou, E.Z. (Eds.), Predictive Mycology. Nova Science Publishers, New York, pp.								
540	1–26.								
541									
542	EFSA, 2006. Opinion of the scientific panel on contaminants in the food chain on a								
543	request from the commission related to ochratoxin A in food. The EFSA Journal, 365, 1-								
544	56. https://efsa.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/epdf/10.2903/j.efsa.2006.365.Accessed								
545	28/11/2018.								
546									
547	EFSA, 2012. Scientific Opinion on the risks for public and animal health related to the								
548	presence of citrinin in food and feed. The EFSA Journal, 10, 2605.								
549	https://efsa.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/epdf/10.2903/j.efsa.2012.2605. Accessed								
550	28/11/2018.								
551									
552	Eugster-Meier, E., Frölich-Wyder, M-T., Jakob, E., Wechsler, D., López Morales, M. B.,								
553	Licitra, G., Berthier, F., Papademas, P., Ardö, Y., Tavares, T. G., Malcata, F. X.,								
554	Radulovic, Z., Miocinovic, J. 2018. Semi-hard cheeses. In : Papademas, P., Bintsis, T.								
555	(Eds) Global cheesemaking technology : cheese quality and characteristics. John Wiley								
556	and Sons, Chichester, UK. pp 247-293.								
557									
558	FAO, 2011. Global food losses and waste. Extent, causes and prevention. Rome.								
559	http://www.fao.org/docrep/014/mb060e/mb060e00.pdf. Accessed 06/20/2018.								
560									

561	Fontaine, K., Passeró, E., Vallone, L., Hymery, N., Coton, M., Jany, JL., Mounier, J.,
562	Coton, E., 2015. Occurrence of roquefortine C, mycophenolic acid and aflatoxin M1
563	mycotoxins in blue-veined cheeses. Food Control 47, 634–640.
564	
565	Frisvad, J.C., Filtenborg, O. 1989. Terverticillate penicillia: chemotaxonomy and
566	mycotoxin production. Mycologia. 81, 837-861.
567	
568	Frisvad, J.C., Samson, R.A. 2004. Polyphasic taxonomy of Penicillium subgenus
569	Penicillium. A guide to identification of food and air-borne terverticillate Penicillia and
570	their mycotoxins. Studies in Mycology. 49, 1-173.
571	
572	Garnier, L., Valence, F., Mounier, J. 2017. Diversity and Control of Spoilage Fungi in
573	Dairy Products: An Update. Microorganisms, 5, 42.
574	
575	Geisen, R., Touhami, N., Schmidt-Heydt, M. 2017. Mycotoxins as adaptation factors for
576	food related environments. Current Opinon in Food Science. 17, 1-8.
577	
578	Geisen, R., Schmidt-Heydt, M., Stoll, D., Touhami, N. 2018. Aspects of the Occurrence,
579	Genetics, and Regulation of Biosynthesis of the Three Food Relevant Penicillium
580	Mycotoxins: Ochratoxin A, Citrinin, and Patulin. Physiology and Genetics, 2nd Edition.
581	The Mycota XV. T. Anke, A. Schüffler (Eds.). Springer International Publishing AG, pp
582	413-433.
583	

584	Gillot, G., Jany, J. L., Poirier, E., Maillard, M. B., Debaets, S., Thierry, A., Coton, E.,
585	Coton, M. 2017. Functional diversity within the Penicillium roqueforti species.
586	International Journal of Food Microbiology. 241, 141-150.
587	
588	Heperkan, D., Gülcin Sismanoglu, D., Duygu Zorlutuna, K. Güler Funda, K. 2009.
589	Influence of temperature on citrinin accumulation by Penicillium citrinum and Penicillium
590	verrucosum in black table olives. Toxin Reviews, 28, 180–186.
591	
592	Hickey, D.K., Guinee, T.P., Hou, J., Wilkinson, M.G. 2013. Effects of variation in cheese
593	composition and maturation on water activity in Cheddar cheese during ripening.
594	International Dairy Journal. 30, 53-58.
595	
596	Hymery, N., Vasseur, V., Coton, M., Mounier, J., Jany, J-L, Barbier, G., Coton, E. 2014.
597	Filamentous fungi and mycotoxins in cheese: A review. Comprehensive Reviews in Food
598	Science and Food Safety. 13, 437-456.
599	
600	IARC (International Agency for Research on Cancer). 1987. Monographs. Vol. 40, Sup 7.
601	Lyon, France: IARC. p 60.
602	
603	IARC (International Agency for Research on Cancer). 1993. Monographs. Vol. 56, Sup 7.
604	Lyon, France: IARC. pp 489–521.
605	
606	Jarvis, B. 1983. Mould and mycotoxins in mouldy cheeses. Microbiology Aliments,
607	Nutrition. 1, 187-191.
608	

609	Kitchen, D.N., Carlton, W.W., Tuite, J. 1977. Ochratoxin A and citrinin induced
610	nephrotoxicosis in beagle dogs. I. Clinical and clinicopathological features. Veterinary
611	Pathology. 14, 154–172.
612	
613	Kokkonen, M., Jestoi, M., and Rizzo, A. 2005. The effect of substrate on mycotoxin
614	production of selected Penicillium strains. International Journal of Food Microbiology.
615	99, 207–214.
616	
617	Kononkenko, G.P., Burkin, A.A., 2013. Peculiarities of feed contamination with citrinin
618	and ochratoxin A. Agricultural Science. 4, 34–38.
619	
620	Kozlovsky, A.G., Reshetilova, T.F., 1984. Biosynthesis of roquefortine by the fungi of the
621	Penicillium genus during growth. Mikrobiologiya. 54, 81-84.
622	
623	Larsen, T.O., Svendsen, A., Smedsgaard, J. 2001. Biochemical characterization of
624	ochratoxin A-producing strains of the genus Penicillium. Applied and Environmental
625	Microbiology. 67, 3630–3635.
626	
627	Larsen, T.O., Gareis, M., Frisvad, J.C. 2002. Cell toxicity and mycotoxin and secondary
628	metabolite production by common Penicillia in cheese agar. Journal of Agricultural and
629	Food Chemistry. 50, 6148-6152.
630	
631	Leggieri, M.C., Decontardi, S., Bertuzzi, T., Pietri, A., Battilani, P. 2017, Modeling
632	growth and toxin production of toxigenic fungi signaled in cheese under different
633	temperature and water activity regimes. Toxins, 9, 4.

635	Leong, W.M., Geier, R., Engstrom, S., Ingham, S., Ingham, B., Smukowski, M. 2014,
636	Growth of Listeria monocytogenes, Salmonella spp., Escherichia coli O157:H7, and
637	Staphylococcus aureus on cheese during extended storage at 25°C. Journal of Food
638	Protection, 77, 1275–1288.
639	
640	Lund, F., Filtenborg, O., Frisvad, J.C. 1995. Associated mycoflora of cheese. Food
641	Microbiology. 12, 173-180.
642	
643	Markov, K., Pleadin, J., Bevardi, M., Vahcic, N., Sokolic-Mihalak, D., Frece, J. 2013.
644	Natural occurrence of aflatoxin B1, ochratoxin and citrinin in Croatian fermented meat
645	products. Food Control 34, 312–317.
646	
647	Meister, U., 2004. New method of citrinin determination by HPLC after polyamide
648	column clean-up. European Food Research and Technology. 218, 394–399.
648 649	column clean-up. European Food Research and Technology. 218, 394–399.
648 649 650	column clean-up. European Food Research and Technology. 218, 394–399. Monbaliu, S., Van Poucke, K., Heungens, K., Van Peteghem, C., de Saeger, S. 2010.
648649650651	column clean-up. European Food Research and Technology. 218, 394–399. Monbaliu, S., Van Poucke, K., Heungens, K., Van Peteghem, C., de Saeger, S. 2010. Production and migration of mycotoxins in sweet pepper analyzed by multimycotoxin
 648 649 650 651 652 	column clean-up. European Food Research and Technology. 218, 394–399. Monbaliu, S., Van Poucke, K., Heungens, K., Van Peteghem, C., de Saeger, S. 2010. Production and migration of mycotoxins in sweet pepper analyzed by multimycotoxin LC-MS/MS. Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry. 58, 10475–10479.
 648 649 650 651 652 653 	column clean-up. European Food Research and Technology. 218, 394–399. Monbaliu, S., Van Poucke, K., Heungens, K., Van Peteghem, C., de Saeger, S. 2010. Production and migration of mycotoxins in sweet pepper analyzed by multimycotoxin LC-MS/MS. Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry. 58, 10475–10479.
 648 649 650 651 652 653 654 	 column clean-up. European Food Research and Technology. 218, 394–399. Monbaliu, S., Van Poucke, K., Heungens, K., Van Peteghem, C., de Saeger, S. 2010. Production and migration of mycotoxins in sweet pepper analyzed by multimycotoxin LC-MS/MS. Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry. 58, 10475–10479. Olsen, M., Gidlund, A., Sulyok, M. 2017. Experimental mould growth and mycotoxin
 648 649 650 651 652 653 654 655 	 column clean-up. European Food Research and Technology. 218, 394–399. Monbaliu, S., Van Poucke, K., Heungens, K., Van Peteghem, C., de Saeger, S. 2010. Production and migration of mycotoxins in sweet pepper analyzed by multimycotoxin LC-MS/MS. Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry. 58, 10475–10479. Olsen, M., Gidlund, A., Sulyok, M. 2017. Experimental mould growth and mycotoxin diffusion in different food items. World Mycotoxin Journal. 10, 153-161.
 648 649 650 651 652 653 654 655 656 	 column clean-up. European Food Research and Technology. 218, 394–399. Monbaliu, S., Van Poucke, K., Heungens, K., Van Peteghem, C., de Saeger, S. 2010. Production and migration of mycotoxins in sweet pepper analyzed by multimycotoxin LC-MS/MS. Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry. 58, 10475–10479. Olsen, M., Gidlund, A., Sulyok, M. 2017. Experimental mould growth and mycotoxin diffusion in different food items. World Mycotoxin Journal. 10, 153-161.
 648 649 650 651 652 653 654 655 656 657 	 column clean-up. European Food Research and Technology. 218, 394–399. Monbaliu, S., Van Poucke, K., Heungens, K., Van Peteghem, C., de Saeger, S. 2010. Production and migration of mycotoxins in sweet pepper analyzed by multimycotoxin LC-MS/MS. Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry. 58, 10475–10479. Olsen, M., Gidlund, A., Sulyok, M. 2017. Experimental mould growth and mycotoxin diffusion in different food items. World Mycotoxin Journal. 10, 153-161. Pattono, D., Grosso, A., Stocco, P.P., Pazzi, M., Zeppa, G. 2013. Survey of the presence

660	Petrovic, U. 2006. Role of oxidative stress in the extremely salt-tolerant yeast Hortaea
661	werneckii. FEMS Yeast Research. 6, 816-822.
662	
663	Piskorska-Plisczynska, J. Borkowska-Opacka., B. 1984. Natural occurrence of ochratoxin
664	A and two ochratoxin producing fungal strains in cheesecake. Bulletin of the Veterinary
665	Institute in Pulawy. 27, 95-98.
666	
667	Piton-Malleret, C., Gorrieri, M. 1992. Nature et variabilité de la flore microbienne dans la
668	morge des fromages de Comté et de Beaufort. Lait. 72, 143-164.
669	
670	Pitt, J.I., Hocking, A.D., 2009. Fungi and Food Spoilage. 3rd ed. Springer, Dordrecht,
671	Germany (519 pp.).
672	
673	Prencipe, S., Siciliano, I., Gatti, C., Garibaldi, A., Lodovica Gullino, M., Botta, R.,
674	Spadaro, D. 2018. Several species of <i>Penicillium</i> isolated from chestnut flour processing
675	are pathogenic on fresh chestnuts and produce mycotoxins, Food Microbiology, 76, 396-
676	404,
677	
678	Schmidt-Heydt, M., Rüfer, C., Raupp, F., Bruchmann, A., Perrone, G., Geisen, R., 2011.
679	Influence of light on food relevant fungi with emphasis on ochratoxin producing species.
680	International Journal of Food Microbiology. 145, 229–237.
681	

682	Schmidt-Heydt, M., Graf, E., Stoll, D., Geisen, R. 2012. The biosynthesis of ochratoxin A
683	by Penicillium as one mechanism for adaptation to NaCl rich foods. Food Microbiology.
684	29, 233–241.
685	
686	Scott, P. M. 1977. Penicillium mycotoxins, In T. D.Wyllie and L. G. Morehouse (ed.),
687	Mycotoxic fungi, mycotoxins, mycotoxicosis, an encyclopedic handbook, vol. 1. Marcel
688	Dekker, New York pp. 283–356.
689	
690	Reiss, J. 1981. Studies on the ability of mycotoxins to diffuse in bread. XV. Mycotoxins
691	in Foodstuffs. European Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology. 12, 239-241.
692	
693	Ropars, J., Cruaud, C., Lacoste, S. Dupont, J. 2012. A taxonomic and ecological overview
694	of cheese fungi. International Journal of Food Microbiology. 155, 199-210.
695	
696	Rychlik, M., Schieberle, P. 2001. Model studies on the diffusion behavior of the
697	mycotoxin patulin in apples, tomatoes, and wheat bread. European Food Research and
698	Technology. 212, 274–278.
699	
700	Takahashi, H., Yazaki, H. 2007. Production and contamination of ochratoxin by
701	Penicillium species. Mycotoxins. 57, 57-63.
702	
703	Touhami, N., Soukup, S.T., Schmidt-Heydt, M., Kulling, S.E., Geisen, R. 2018. Citrinin
704	as an accessory establishment factor of P. expansum for the colonization of apples.
705	International Journal of Food Microbiology. 266, 224–233.
706	

707	USDA,	2013.	Molds	on	food:	are	they	dangerous?
708	https://www	w.fsis.usda.g	gov/wps/wcm	/connect	t/a87cdc2c-6	6ddd-49f0)-bd1f-	
709	393086742	e68/Molds_	_on_Food.pdf	?MOD=	AJPERES.	Accessed	06/20/201	8.
710								
711	Visagie, C.	M., Houbra	aken, J., Frisv	vad, J.C.	, Hong, SI	B., Klaass	sen, C.H.W	., Perrone, G.
712	2014. Ident	tification an	d nomenclatu	re of the	e genus Pen	icillium.	Studies in	Mycology. 78,
713	343–371.							
714								
715	Vrabcheva,	T., Uslebe	r, E., Dietrich	ı, R., Ma	rtlauber, E.	2000. Co	o-ocurrence	of ochratoxin
716	A and citr	inin in cer	eals from B	ulgarian	villages w	ith a his	tory of Ba	ılkan endemic
717	nephropath	y. Journal o	f Agriculture	and Foc	d Chemistry	y. 48, 248	3–2488.	
718								
719	Wawrzynia	ık J., Was	kiewicz, A.	2014.	Ochratoxin	A and	citrinin _I	production by
720	Penicillium	ı verrucosui	<i>n</i> on cereal se	olid subs	strates. Food	l Additiv	es and Con	taminants. 31,
721	139–148.							
722								
723	Zaied, C.,	Zouaoui, N	N., Bacha, H	., Abid,	S., 2012.	Natural o	occurrence	of citrinin in
724	Tunisian w	heat grains.	Food Contro	1 28, 106	6–109.			
725								

Species	Isolate <i>code</i>	Origin	Country	Year	
Penicillium crustosum	16057	Brie cheese	France	unknown	
	16054	Spreadable cheese	France	unknown	
	12051	Yogurt drink	France	unknown	
Penicillium nordicum	5i9	Raclette	France	2012	
Penicillium verrucosum	UBOCC-A-117113	Unknown	Belgium	before 2016	
	UBOCC-A-111269	Aromatized dairy drink	France	2003	
	UBOCC-A-109221	Syrup	France	2009	

Table 1 : List of *Penicillium* isolates tested for their ability to produce mycotoxins in cheese

Table 2. Target mycotoxin quantification parameters used for QTOF LC-MS analyses. RT:
retention time (*RT values obtained for isolate screening), MW: molecular weight, ESI:
electrospray ionization, DL: detection limit, QL: quantification limit.

Metabolite	Chemical	RT	MW	Quantifier	Qualifier	ESI	DL	QL	R^2
	formula	(min)	(g/mol)	ion (m/z)	ion (m/z)	mode	(ng/g)	(ng/g)	
Citrinin	$C_{13}H_{14}O_5$	12.1	250.2	251.0	273.0	+	19.2	58.2	0.99
Ochratoxin A	C ₂₀ H ₁₈ ClNO ₆	14.8	403.8	404.0	426.0	+	20.5	61.7	0.99
Penitrem A	C ₃₇ H ₄₄ ClNO ₆	29.1*	634.2	632.2	668.2	-	199.0	602.7	0.99
Roquefortine C	$C_{22}H_{23}N_5O_2$	15.1*	389.5	390.1	na	+	136.8	414.5	0.98

- 737 Figure captions
- Figure 1: Specific mycotoxin production by seven *Penicillium* species isolates after 7d growth at 25°C on YES
 medium (A) or 10d growth at 20°C on 6 month ripened Comté cheese (B). Quantified mycotoxins: CIT (□),
 OTA (□), PEN A (□) and ROQ C (□).

Figure 2 : CIT (■) and OTA (■) quantification in Comté cheese, inoculated with *P. verrucosum* UBOCC-A111269, after 42 and 28 days incubation at 8°C (A) and 20°C (B), respectively. d: day; D0: 0-2mm depth with mould, D1: 0-2mm depth without mould, D2: 2-4mm depth, D3: 4-6mm depth, D4: 6-8mm depth, D5: 8-10mm depth, D6: 10-12mm depth, D7: 12-14mm depth, D8: 14-16mm depth.

- Figure 3: Weekly monitoring of fungal growth on semi-hard Comté cheese during incubation at 8°C (A) and 20°C (B)

-

Figure captions

Figure 1: Specific mycotoxin production by seven *Penicillium* species isolates after 7d growth at 25°C on YES medium (A) or 10d growth at 20°C on 6 month ripened Comté cheese (B). Quantified mycotoxins: CIT (\blacksquare), OTA (\blacksquare), PEN A (\Box) and ROQ C (\Box).

Figure 2: CIT (\blacksquare) and OTA (\blacksquare) quantification in Comté cheese, inoculated with *P. verrucosum* UBOCC-A-111269, after 42 and 28 days incubation at 8°C (A) and 20°C (B), respectively. d: day; D0: 0-2mm depth with mould, D1: 0-2mm depth without mould, D2: 2-4mm depth, D3: 4-6mm depth, D4: 6-8mm depth, D5: 8-10mm depth, D6: 10-12mm depth, D7: 12-14mm depth, D8: 14-16mm depth.

Figure 3: Weekly monitoring of fungal growth on semi-hard Comté cheese during incubation at $8^{\circ}C$ (A) and $20^{\circ}C$ (B)





Figure 3.

