

EFFECT OF PROPOLIS ON GROWTH, AFLATOXINS PRODUCTION AND LIPID METABOLISM IN *ASPERGILLUS PARASITICUS* SPEAR

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Abstract

The mechanism of antifungal activities of propolis (Bee glue) was investigated for the growth, aflatoxins production, and lipids (total lipids, neutral lipids, phospholipids, and fatty acids) metabolism of *Aspergillus parasiticus*. The results of the present study indicated that propolis caused significant decrease in conidial production and conidial germination as well as mycelial growth (both radial and dry weight) of *A. parasiticus*. It was also found that aflatoxins production by *A. parasiticus* decreased significantly with 0.2 and 0.4 (g/100 ml) concentrations of propolis, however, 0.6 (g/100 ml) concentration caused complete inhibition of all aflatoxins production. The biochemical investigation of cellular total lipids, neutral lipids, and phospholipids of *A. parasiticus* suggested clear catabolic repression of lipids metabolism by propolis. Gas chromatographic analysis of cellular fatty acids indicated that propolis enhanced accumulation of saturated fatty acids suggesting resistance mechanism of fungal membrane via decreasing its fluidity and elasticity.

Introduction

Propolis [PR] (Bee glue) is a mixture of bee wax and resins collected by the honeybee (*Apis mellifera*) from parts of plant, buds, flower and exudates (Ghisalberti, 1979). Propolis has been used to seal holes, exclude draught, and protect the beehive against external invaders. The main function of propolis is to prevent the decomposition of organic matter within beehive by inhibiting microbial growth and activity (Quiroga *et al.*, 2006). Many biological activities of propolis have been reported such as medicinal (Orsolio *et al.*, 2003) antibacterial (Uzel *et al.*, 2005) and antifungal (Ghaly *et al.*, 1998; Kujumgiev *et al.*, 1999; Khezri *et al.*, 2006; Buchta *et al.*, 2011). Generally, many biological active compounds have been identified in propolis such as polyphenols, phenolic aldehyde, sequiterpene quinines, coumarins, amino acids, steroids, and inorganic compounds (Kosalec *et al.*, 2004; Uzel *et al.*, 2005; Katircioglu & Mercan 2006). The biological activities of propolis vary depend up on geographical origin and bearing plants (Kujumgiev *et al.*, 1999).

Aflatoxins are mutagenic and hepatocarcinogenic secondary metabolites produced by some strains of *Aspergillus parasiticus* (Abd Allah & Hashem, 2006). *A. parasiticus* has been reported in many agricultural commodities (Abd Allah & Hashem, 2006; Alqarawi & Abd Allah, 2010; Elshafie *et al.*, 2011) causing many agricultural and medicinal problems, hence it has been selected as an aflatoxigenic mold model in our study. The usage of systemic chemicals is primary method to control of *A. parasiticus*. Currently several chemical fungicides have been rejected and removed from the markets due to possible toxicological risks (Adaskaveg & Förster, 2010). Consequently, there is urgent need to develop non-chemical alternative strategies to control *A. parasiticus* and bioremediation of their mycotoxins (Abd Allah & Ezzat, 2004; Helal *et al.*, 2007; Alqarawi & Abd Allah, 2010; Alqarawi *et al.*, 2011).

It has been established that lipids moieties are an important materials in biological membranes (Hitchcock, 1975) playing an essential role in their permeability

(Fritsche, 2006; Shaikh & Edidin, 2008). Signature of fatty acids was an objective tool for evaluating the growth and development of many fungi (Latge & Bièvre, 1980; Lösel, 1989; Fakas *et al.*, 2006). Also, lipids metabolism have been used as sensitive monitor for plant-mold interaction (Abd Allah & Ezzat, 2004; Abd Allah, 2005; Abd Allah *et al.*, 2006; Van der Meer-Janssen *et al.*, 2009). In continuous connection, lipids metabolism of *A. flavus* has been used as sensitive monitor for defense-related mechanism against biotic stress of antifungal from plant origin (Helal *et al.*, 2007; Alqarawi & Abd Allah, 2012).

The purposes of this study were investigating the antifungal mechanism of propolis collected from Saudi Arabia on growth, aflatoxins production and lipids metabolism of *A. parasiticus* as an aflatoxigenic mold model.

Materials and Methods

Microorganisms: *Aspergillus parasiticus* Spear. was isolated from camel fodder sample collected from camel farm near Riyadh city, Saudi Arabia. The identification of experimental mold was carried out according to Domsch *et al.*, 1993). Aflatoxin-sensitive strain of *Bacillus brevis* was kindly provided by Dr. Gamal El-Didamony, Botany Department, Faculty of Science, Zagazig University, Egypt.

Preparation of PR extract: Propolis was collected from colonies at Abha city, Saudi Arabia and it was scrapped-off the top of frames and inner wall boxes of bee colonies. PR was extracted with aqueous:ethanol (10:90, v/v) as described by Ghaly *et al.*, (1998). Based on preliminary experiment, three concentrations (0.2, 0.4 and 0.6; g/100ml) of PR were selected.

Growth characteristics of *A. parasiticus*: Czapek-Dox agar medium (Raper & Fennel, 1965) was used for the growth of experimental mold (*A. parasiticus*). Broth culture was used for measuring the dry weight of the test fungus using 100 ml medium in 250 ml capacity

Erlenmeyer flasks. Mycelial dry weight was estimated by filtration the broth mold culture after ten days of incubation at $28 \pm ^\circ\text{C}$ in dark at static state, on Whatman no 1 filter paper. Mycelium growth was washed carefully with distilled water, dried at 105°C up to two successive constant weights, then the mycelia dry weight was recorded. The test fungus was also grown in agar medium in 9.0cm diameter Petri-dishes for seven days incubated at $28 \pm ^\circ\text{C}$ in dark and the radial growth was measured. Conidial production and their germination were studied according to Roberts & Selitrenikoff (1988).

Aflatoxins analysis: The extraction and clean-up of aflatoxins was carried out according to Dutton & Westlake (1985). Column chromatography study was carried out using silica gel G-60, mesh 0.02-0.2 (BDH Chemicals, Poole, UK) according to (Anonymous, 1970). The biological confirmatory test of aflatoxins was performed with the help of aflatoxins-sensitive strain of *Bacillus brevis* by following Madhyastha *et al.*, (1994). The chemical confirmatory tests were done according to (Anonymous, 1970) using Toluene: Ethyl acetate: Formic acid (6: 3: 1, v/v/v) as mobile phase. Thin layer chromatography (TLC) plates (20X20, cm) coated with 20μ thick silica gel DG (Kieselgel-DG, Riedel-De haen, Seelze-Hannover, Germany) was used for chromatographic separation of aflatoxins based on their Rf-value. The quantitative estimation of aflatoxins was spectrophotometrically determined by following Nabney & Nesbitt (1965). Standard aflatoxins (Sigma) were used as reference in both qualitative and quantitative estimation of aflatoxins.

Lipids analysis: Lipid contents were extracted from the mycelia growth of *A. parasiticus* using chloroform: methanol (2:1, v/v) according to Fölsh *et al.*, (1957), 0.05% (w/v) of butylated hydroxytoluene (BHT; 2,6-di-tert-butyl-p-cresol) added to all solvents to prevent lipid peroxidation (Cachorro *et al.*, 1993). Lipid extract was used for estimation of total lipids (Marsh & Weinstein, 1966); natural lipids (Amenta, 1964) and phospholipids (Rouser *et al.*, 1970) contents. Phospholipid classes were separated by two-dimensional chromatography with CHCl_3 -MeOH-[28% (w/v) NH_4OH] (13:5:1, v/v/v) for the first dimension and CHCl_3 -Me₂CO-MeOH-HOAc-H₂O (6:8:2:2:1, v/v/v/v/v) for the second dimension (Rouser *et*

al., 1970). Identification was made by comparison of Rf values with those of pure standards and by specific staining reaction (molybdenum reagent) according to Dittmer & Lester (1964). Spots were outlined with a pencil, scraped off of the plates, and total phospholipids were determined (Dittmer & Wells, 1969). Fatty acid methyl esters were prepared by methanolysis in H_2SO_4 -MeOH (Kates, 1972). Esters were analyzed by gas liquid chromatography (GLC) (PerkinElmer Model 910, PerkinElmer, Shelton, CT, USA) equipped with a flame ionization detector (Johnson & Stocks, 1971). A dual-open recorder and a computing integrator (PerkinElmer Model M1) were attached to GLC for recording. The separation and quantization of peak fatty acid methyl esters were identified by comparing their retention times with those of an authentic methyl ester standard (Sigma Co., St. Louis, MO, USA).

Statistical analysis: All experiments were repeated at least three times. The data were statistically analyzed using analysis of variance for a completely randomized design (Daniel, 1987).

Results and Discussion

Both conidial production and conidial germination of the test fungus were increasingly decreased with the increase of concentration of PR in the medium in directly proportionally (Table 1). The decrease in conidial production and their germination recorded in the present study is similar with the reports of Ghaly *et al.*, (1998). They have reported the decrease in germination of 2 isolates of *Aspergillus flavus* by PR. The results presented in Table 2 indicated that PR caused significant decrease in both radial growth and mycelia dry weight of *A. parasiticus*. Similar antifungal activities of PR on growth of different fungi such as *Candida albicans* (Afrouzan *et al.*, 2012); *Aspergillus parasiticus* (Khezri *et al.*, 2006) and *Trichophyton mentagrophytes* (Buchta *et al.*, 2011) have been reported. The phenols (Lisá *et al.*, 1989) and flavonoids (Cushnie & Lamb, 2005) has been considered the main carriers of antifungal properties of PR. The antifungal mechanism of PR is still not complete clarity. In this regard, Takaisi-Kikuni & Schilcher (1994) reported that PR caused an inhibition in cell division hence suggested that PR might inhibit DNA replication.

Table 1. Effect of different concentrations of propolis (w/v) on number of germinated conidia (out 100 conidia) and conidial production (conidia $\text{mm}^2 \times 10^4$) of *A. parasiticus*.

Concentration of propolis (g/100 ml)	Number of germinated conidia (out 100 conidia in number)	Conidial production (conidia $\text{mm}^2 \times 10^4$)
Control	100	10.621
0.2 % (w/v)	62.37	4.275
0.4 % (w/v)	31.87	1.003
0.6 % (w/v)	10.35	0.246
LSD at: 0.05	6.21	0.397

Table 2. Effect of different concentrations of propolis (w/v) on radial growth (cm/plate) and mycelial growth (g/100 ml culture medium) of *A. parasiticus*.

Concentration of propolis (g/100 ml)	Radial growth (cm/plate)	Mycelial growth (g/100 ml culture medium)
Control	9.00	2.7531
0.2 % (w/v)	6.31	1.9243
0.4 % (w/v)	4.01	0.7251
0.6 % (w/v)	1.75	0.3042
LSD at: 0.05	0.987	0.124

The chromatographic analysis (based on Rf-value and the developed color) followed by chemical confirmatory tests demonstrated the presence of aflatoxins B₁, B₂ and G₁ in the culture filtrates of *A. parasiticus* (Table 3). The production of different aflatoxins by *A. parasiticus* was reported by many investigators (Klich, 2007). The qualitative and quantitative productions of aflatoxins by *A. parasiticus* mainly depend upon on its genetic characters (Kale *et al.*, 2007); environmental surrounding conditions (Klich, 2007) and the nutritional composition of substrate (Wilkinson *et al.*, 2007). In our results (Table 4), the lower concentrations (0.2 % and 0.4 %) of propolis showed significant decreased in aflatoxins (B₁, B₂, G₁ & total) production, but higher cons. (0.6 %) showed complete inhibition of the production of all types of aflatoxins. Our results corroborated those of Ghaly *et al.*, (1998) and Khezri *et al.*, (2006) who reported the inhibitory effect of

PR on mycotoxins production by *A. flavus* and *A. parasiticus*, respectively. The inhibitory effect of PR on aflatoxins production attributes mainly on the presence of flavonoids, phenolic acid, benzoic acid and their esters (Park *et al.*, 1997; Marcucci *et al.*, 2001; Kosalec *et al.*, 2004). The mechanism of PR activity depends on synergism among flavonoids, phenolic acids in PR and their interference with both biosynthesis of aflatoxins (direct effect) and mold growth (indirect effect). The kinetic production of total aflatoxins increased gradually with increasing PR concentrations (Table 4) indicating that the response of fungal (*A. parasiticus*) growth was more sensitive to PR concentrations than aflatoxins production. On the other hand, a genetic correlation between conidial production and secondary metabolites such as aflatoxins production has been demonstrated (Chang *et al.*, 2004; Duran *et al.*, 2007).

Table 3. Detection and chemical confirmatory tests of aflatoxins produced by *A. parasiticus*.

Concentration of propolis (g/100 ml)	R _f -value developed color under UV (366nm) light before p-anisaldehyde reagent	Color developed color under UV (366nm) light before p-anisaldehyde reagent	Developed color after chemical confirmation after p-anisaldehyde reagent	
			Day light	UV (366nm) light
B ₁	11.47	Blue	Green	Orange
B ₂	31.60	Green	Blue	Green
G ₁	19.58	Blue	ND	Pale pink-orange

ND= Not detected under the experimental conditions.

Table 4. Effect of different concentrations of propolis (w/v) on aflatoxins (B₁, B₂; G₁) production (µg/100 ml culture medium) by *A. parasiticus*.

Concentration of propolis (g/100 ml)	Aflatoxins production (µg/100 ml culture medium)				
	Aflatoxin B ₁	Aflatoxin B ₂	Aflatoxin G ₁	Total aflatoxins (B ₁ +B ₂ +G ₁)	*Kinetic production of total aflatoxins
Control	297.2	143.5	107.6	548.3	199.15
0.2 % (w/v)	268.4	87.5	67.1	423.0	219.82
0.4 % (w/v)	143.7	37.2	14.3	195.2	269.20
0.6 % (w/v)	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND
LSD at: 0.05	23.7	13.7	8.4	47.6	

ND= Not detected under the experimental conditions. *: Kinetic production of total aflatoxins= total aflatoxins/mycelial growth.

The PR caused significant decreases in total lipids content of *A. parasiticus*, and such decreases was directly proportional with concentrations (Table 5). Similar inhibition in total lipids content was reported in *Chaetomium globosum* (Khashaba, 1995) and *Trichoderma koningii* (El-Mougith, 1999). In the same way, it was reported that natural antifungal from *Cymbopogon citrates* L. (Helal *et al.*, 2007) and *Ephedra alata* (Alqarawi & Abd_Allah, 2012) were caused significant

decrease in lipids content of *Aspergillus flavus*. Lipids degradation have been often associated with decline phase of mold growth (Shapira *et al.*, 1984) due to inhibition of tricarboxylic acid and glyoxylate cycles (Brennan & Lösel, 1978) which directly influence growth and morphogenesis in fungi (Kritzman, 1976; Shapira *et al.*, 1984). It was also found that PR caused an increase in DG, SE and FAA associated with significant decrease in TG and S as compared with those of *A. parasiticus*

control (Table 5). This general pattern of neutral lipids turnover has been reported in many fungi as resistant mechanism against chemical fungicides (Khashaba, 1995; El-Mougith, 1999; Fakas *et al.*, 2006) may serve to overcome the harmful effect of antifungal on membrane permeability (Hernández-Lauzardo *et al.*, 2011). In another

connection, the degradation of TG into DG and inhibition of S biosynthesis consequently, increase SE in plant cells has been reported as resistance mechanism against biotic stress of plant pathogen (Abd Allah *et al.*, 2006) and disease-inducing agent, fusaric acid (Abd Allah & Ezzat, 2004).

Table 5. Effect of different concentrations of propolis (w/v) on total lipids content (% of dry mycelial weight) and neutral lipids fractions (mg/g dry weight) of *A. parasiticus*.

Concentration of propolis (g/100 ml)	Total lipids content (% of dry mycelial weight)	Neutral lipids fractions (mg/g dry weight)				
		TG	DG	S	SE	FAA
Control	0.7354	28.3	13.7	18.9	8.7	6.4
0.2 % (w/v)	0.5837	25.4	15.9	16.1	10.3	8.1
0.4 % (w/v)	0.3084	20.7	21.3	11.7	12.1	9.3
0.6 % (w/v)	0.1275	16.3	27.8	8.72	14.9	10.2
LSD at: 0.05	0.0783	2.18	1.37	2.14	0.75	0.34

TG, triacylglycerol; DG, diacylglycerol; S, sterol; SE, sterol ester; FAA, non-esterified fatty acids.

In phospholipids investigation, PR decreases all phospholipids fractions (PC, PE, PG, PI, PS) except PA (Table 6) indicating a blocking in the pathway of other phospholipids fractions from PA as reported by Kates & Marshall (1975). Such decrease in phospholipids fractions reported in our data due to PR agrees with the inhibitory effect of chemical antifungal on other fungi (Radzuhan & Lyr, 1984; Khashaba, 1995; El-Mougith, 1999). The antifungal compounds from plant origin caused similar

effect on phospholipids of fungal cell wall (Helal *et al.*, 2007; Alqarawi & Abd Allah, 2012). It has been reported that, blocking of phospholipids biosynthesis by antifungal which induce yeast-like growth of filamentous fungi (Radzuhan & Lyr, 1984; Khashaba, 1995). In the same connection, chitin synthases enzyme (which responsible for chitin synthesis in fungal cell wall) are integral membrane proteins and require phospholipids for normal functioning (Deshpande *et al.*, 1997).

Table 6. Effect of different concentrations of propolis (w/v) on phospholipids fractions (mg/g dry weight) of *A. parasiticus*.

Concentration of propolis (g/100 ml)	Phospholipids lipids fractions (mg/g dry weight)					
	PC	PE	PG	PI	PS	PA
Control	29.3	41.8	6.2	18.6	10.4	32.1
0.2 % (w/v)	24.6	36.8	4.9	12.9	7.3	38.2
0.4 % (w/v)	21.0	31.4	3.2	10.3	6.1	41.7
0.6 % (w/v)	16.3	27.0	1.8	7.5	4.7	43.9
LSD at: 0.05	2.37	3.41	0.71	1.34	0.82	2.12

PC, phosphatidyl choline; PE, phosphatidyl ethanol; PG, phosphatidyl glycerol; PS, phosphatidyl serine; PI, phosphatidyl inositol; PA, phosphatidic acid.

Gas chromatographic analysis of cellular fatty acids of *A. parasiticus* control revealed the presence of 14 fatty acids namely caprylic (C8), capric (C10), lauric (C12), myristic (C14), palmitic (C16), palmitoleic (C16:1), margaric (C17), stearic (C18), oleic (C18:1), linoleic (C18:2), α linolenic (C18:3), arachidic (C20), cis-11 eicosenoic (C20:1) and arachidonic (C20:4) with unsaturation percent 59.68 (Table 7). Such fatty acids have been reported as common fatty acids in different isolates of *A. parasiticus* (Wilson *et al.*, 2004; Chang *et al.*, 2004). Also our results indicated appearance of caprylic [C8] fatty acid and increase the cellular content of all saturated fatty acids (capric [C10], lauric [C12], myristic [C14], palmitic [C16], margaric [C17], stearic [C18], arachidic [C20]) with clear decrease in total unsaturation percent as compared with control one (Table 7). Similar results have been reported by other antifungal compounds from synthetic chemical origin (Khashaba, 1995; El-Mougith, 1999) and natural plant origin (Helal *et al.*, 2007; Alqarawi & Abd Allah, 2012). Moreover, the data (Table 7) indicated clearly that all concentrations of PR caused complete disappearance and inhibition of three unsaturated fatty

acids namely palmitoleic (C16:1), cis-11 eicosenoic (C20:1) and arachidonic (C20:4). Such general pattern of fatty acids transformation recorded here in our data were supported by report of O₂ generation developed (Kapich *et al.*, 2011) as resistance mechanism developed against unfavorable conditions might stresses the biological cells (Gill & Tuteja, 2010). The accumulation of saturated fatty acids in the biological cell could possibly indicate that there were decrease in fluidity and elasticity of cell membrane consequently unbalance of its selective permeability (Starkov *et al.*, 1994; Furuno *et al.*, 2001; Fritsche, 2006). In continuous connection, it was reported that accumulation of polysaturated fatty acids in the biological cell has been correlated with high rate of membrane resistance compared to that display low incidence (Fritsche, 2006; Shaikh & Ediden, 2008). The changes in fatty acids composition has been related to antifungal potential of flavonoids, phenolic acid, benzoic acid and their esters (Park *et al.*, 1997; Marcucci *et al.*, 2001; Kosalec *et al.*, 2004) which have been reported as predominant biologically-active compounds in PR (Kosalec *et al.*, 2004; Uzel *et al.*, 2005; Katircioglu & Mercan 2006).

Table 7. Effect of different concentrations of propolis (w/v) on cellular fatty acids profile of *A. parasiticus*.

Concentration of propolis (g/100 ml)	Fatty acids profile of <i>A. parasiticus</i> (%)														
	Caprylic C8	Capric C10	Lauric C12	Myristic C14	Palmitic C16	Palmitoleic C16:1	Margaric C:17	Stearic C18	Oleic C18:1	Linoleic C18:2	α Linolenic C18:3	Arachidic C20	Cis-11 Eicosenoic C20:1	Arachidonic C20:4	Un-saturation %
Control	0.00	1.58	4.74	2.34	8.35	0.97	1.04	21.80	17.43	20.72	15.65	0.47	0.76	4.15	59.68
0.2 % (w/v)	1.04	3.17	7.43	4.15	10.58	0.00	2.01	26.04	13.27	17.39	13.61	1.31	0.00	0.00	44.27
0.4 % (w/v)	2.65	5.25	5.64	6.46	12.74	0.00	4.01	28.13	10.24	12.82	8.58	3.48	0.00	0.00	31.64
0.6 % (w/v)	3.47	7.02	6.34	9.02	13.98	0.00	5.27	30.43	7.25	7.32	4.65	5.25	0.00	0.00	19.22

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