

UNIVERSITÀ DEGLI STUDI DI TORINO

AperTO - Archivio Istituzionale Open Access dell'Università di Torino

Several species of Penicillium isolated from chestnut flour processing are pathogenic on fresh chestnuts and produce mycotoxins

This is the author's manuscript

Original Citation:

Availability:

This version is available http://hdl.handle.net/2318/1680295 since 2018-11-02T13:51:05Z

Published version:

DOI:10.1016/j.fm.2018.07.003

Terms of use:

Open Access

Anyone can freely access the full text of works made available as "Open Access". Works made available under a Creative Commons license can be used according to the terms and conditions of said license. Use of all other works requires consent of the right holder (author or publisher) if not exempted from copyright protection by the applicable law.

(Article begins on next page)

12

Abstract:

 A collection of 124 isolates of *Penicillium* spp. was created by monitoring fresh chestnuts, dried chestnuts, chestnut granulates, chestnut flour, and indoor the chestnut mills. Sequencing of ITS region, β-tubulin and calmodulin, macro-morphology and secondary metabolite production permitted to determine 20 species of *Penicillium*. In fresh chestnuts, *P. bialowiezense* was dominant, while *P. crustosum* was more frequent in the other sources. Pathogenicity test on chestnut showed that around 70% isolates were virulent. *P. corylophilum* and *P. yezoense* were not pathogenic, while the other 18 species had at least one virulent isolate. *P. expansum* and *P. crustosum* were the most virulent*.* The isolates were characterized for their ability to produce 14 toxic metabolites *in vivo*: 59% were able to produce at least one mycotoxin. *P. expansum* was able to produce patulin, chaetoglobosin A and roquefortine C. Mycophenolic acid was produced by *P. bialowiezense*. Cyclopenins and viridicatins were produced by most *P. crustosum*, *P. polonicum, P. solitum* and *P. discolor.* Some isolates of *P. crustosum* were also able to produce roquefortine C or penitrem A. Information about the occurrence of *Penicillium* spp. and their mycotoxins will help to set up chestnut management procedures, to control the fungal growth and the mycotoxin production.

 Keywords: Penicillium crustosum, mycotoxins, *Castanea sativa*, indoor, pathogenicity, polyphasic identification.

1. Introduction

 Chestnut is the most popular nut-bearing tree in several European and Asian countries, with new productions in United States, Australia, New Zealand, and Chile. Italy is the second sweet chestnut (*Castanea sativa* Mill.) producer in Europe, with 52,000 tons and a cultivated area of 21,500 ha in 2014 (FAOSTAT, 2014; Livre Blanc Châtaigne, 2012). The industrial preparation of chestnut flour, dried chestnuts and marrons glacés represents 20% of the total production. Moulds contaminate chestnut before harvest, but also during transportation, storage and processing. Fungal spoilage can be responsible for significant economic losses. Moreover, a number of fungi isolated from chestnuts are well-known mycotoxin producers. The occurrence of toxigenic *Fusarium* spp., *Penicillium* spp. and *Aspergillus* spp. and their associated mycotoxin contaminations on chestnuts and derived commercial products have been reported in different countries (Abdel-Gawad and Zohri, 1993; Bertuzzi et al., 2015; Jermini et. al., 2006; Overy et al., 2003; Pietri et al., 2012; Prencipe et al., 2018; Rodrigues et al., 2013; Wells and Payne, 1975).

 Penicillium spp. are ubiquitously causing decay on fruit (Washington et al., 1997), as well as contaminant in post-harvest and indoor (Nielsen, 2003). The most frequent *Penicillium* species reported in nuts belong to the series *Camemberti* and *Solita,* except for *P. nordicum* (Frisvad and Samson, 2004). A few papers reported the species of *Penicillium* isolated from chestnuts. Overy et al. (2003) stated that *P. crustosum, P. glabrum*-clade and *P. discolor* were the dominant species in fresh chestnuts. Sieber et al. (2007) predominantly isolated *P. expansum* and *P. crustosum*, while Donis-Gonzales and collegues (2016) stated that *P. expansum, P. griseofulvum* and *P. chrysogenum* 51 were the main species. *Penicillium* spp. (about 10^4 CFU/g) have been reported also on dried chestnuts and chestnut flour (Pietri et al., 2012).

 Mycotoxins are secondary metabolites produced by moulds which show toxic, mutagenic and teratogenic effects, including potential immunosuppressive activity and carcinogenic effects (Milicevic et al., 2010). Because of their long-term chronic or cumulative effects on human health, maximum levels in foodstuffs have been established for some of these molecules in Europe. The

 occurrence of ochratoxin A (OTA), penitrem A (PenA), chaetoglobosin A (ChA) and C, deoxynivalenol and zearalenone in fresh chestnuts has been reported by Donis-Gonzales et al. (2009) and Overy et al. (2003). Pietri et al. (2012) and Bertuzzi et al. (2015) reported the presence of aflatoxins (AFs), OTA, citrinin, roquefortine C (RoqC) and mycophenolic acid (MPA) in industrial chestnut products. For chestnuts, limits have been established only for AFs, and they are specified by Commission Regulation (EU) No. 165/2010. Furthermore, several studies have reported the production by *Penicillium* species of different secondary metabolites, such as mycotoxins, alkaloids, antibiotics and allergens, with negative effects on human health (Barkai-Golan, 2008). Patulin (PAT) and OTA levels, which are produced by *Penicillium* spp., are regulated on certain foodstuffs, but not on chestnuts.

 Penicillium species are identified through a polyphasic approach, where the traditional methods of identification, i.e. micro and macro-morphological analyses (colony diameter and colour, growth rate, texture of conidia), are combined with molecular and secondary metabolite analysis (Visagie et al., 2014).

 Information about the occurrence of *Penicillium* spp. and their food-borne mycotoxins is incomplete, underlining the need to set up chestnut management procedures from the orchard to the commercial product, since these species could represent a serious human health risk and cause significant economic losses.

 A monitoring was carried out on fresh chestnuts from orchards, on dried chestnuts, chestnut granulates and chestnut flour, taken during processing, and during an indoor monitoring inside the chestnut mills. This study aimed to determine the species of *Penicillium* through molecular and macromorphological analyses. The isolates were also characterized for their virulence on chestnuts and for their ability to produce 14 toxic metabolites *in vivo.*

2. Material and methods

2.1 Fungal strains and sampling

 One hundred and twenty-four strains of *Penicillium* spp. were isolated during 2015 from different sources: i) fresh chestnuts from three chestnut orchards; ii) samples of dried chestnuts, chestnut granulates and chestnut flour, taken during processing of chestnuts from three countries; iii) moreover, an indoor monitoring was performed inside the production mills. Sampling on fresh chestnuts was conducted on fruits harvested in orchards located in three villages (Ormea, Perlo and Viola) located in Piedmont, north-west Italy, with five replicates (50 chestnuts per orchard). Sampling during processing was conducted on each chestnut processing phase (dried chestnuts, chestnut granulates and chestnut flour) from three different countries (Parenti, Calabria, Italy; Tropoje, Scutari, Albania; Ourense, Galicia, Spain) with three replicates (60 g per processing phase and country). The surfaces of fresh chestnuts, dried chestnuts, and chestnut granulates were disinfected with 1% sodium hypochlorite, washed in sterile deionized water and air dried, as described by Rodrigues et al. (2012). Fresh chestnuts (four fragments per chestnut) were then plated onto Potato Dextrose Agar (PDA, Merck, Germany). Fungi were recovered from dried chestnuts, chestnut granulates and chestnut flour using dilution plate technique. Briefly, 20 g each sample, were homogenized in distilled water for 5 min at 300 rpm by using a stomacher, and three homogenates were taken and plated, after serial dilution, onto PDA in triplicate. For indoor sampling, 20 Rose Bengal Chloramphenicol agar (Fluka, Germany) Petri dishes were placed, as spore traps, in the processing mills areas for 24 h. Fungal 101 growth was observed after 3 to 7 days of incubation at 26 $^{\circ}$ C, and representative colonies from each morphotype and source were re-isolated and maintained as monosporic cultures in Yeast Extract Sucrose Agar tubes (Visagie et al., 2014) for identification, pathogenicity tests and chemical analyses. All the isolates are listed in Table 1.

2.2 Molecular identification

 Genomic DNA was extracted from representative monosporic isolates grown for 7 days in Czapek-Dox broth (Fluka) at 26 °C in the dark using Omega E.Z.N.A Fungal DNA Mini Kit (VWR, USA),

 according to the manufacturer's instructions. Species were assigned by analysing the internal transcribed spacers of the rDNA region (ITS) using ITS1 and ITS4 primers (White et al. 1990), the β-tubulin gene (*BenA*) using Bt2a and Bt2b primers (Glass and Donaldson, 1995), and the calmodulin gene (*CaM*) using CMD5 and CMD6 primers (Hong et al., 2006). PCR was carried out in a total 113 volume of 25 µL which contained: $2 \mu L$ buffer $10x$, $0.8 \mu L$ MgCl₂, 1 μL dNTPs (10 mM), 1 μL each primer (10 mM), 0.2 µL of Taq Platinum Pfx DNA polymerase (Invitrogen, USA) and 40 ng of template DNA. Thermal cycling programs were performed according to Visagie et al. (2014). The 116 PCR products were run on a 1% agarose gel with 1 μ L GelRedTM (VWR) at 100V/cm for 30 minutes, and compared with a positive control, that is the *P. griseofulvum* strain PG3 from the Agroinnova collection (Banani et al., 2016). Get Pilot Wide range Ladder (Qiagen, Germany) was used as molecular marker. The amplified DNA fragments were purified for both genes using QIAquick© PCR purification Kit (Qiagen) and sequenced in both directions by Macrogen, Inc. (The Netherlands). The consensus sequences were assembled using DNA Baser program (Heracle Biosoft S.R.L., Romania). After cutting the trimmed regions and manual correction, a dataset of 465 bp for the ITS region, 369 bp for the β-tubulin gene and 400 bp for the calmodulin gene was obtained. All the obtained sequences were compared with those deposited in the reference database using the BLAST program, including verified RefSeq sequence in public datasets from the National Centre for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) to identify the isolates. Furthermore the sequences were compared to references accession number of the current accepted *Penicillium* species reported by the International Commission of *Penicillium* and *Aspergillus* (ICPA). Representative sequences of each species were deposited in GenBank with the accession numbers listed in Table 2.

 Additionally, the consensus sequences were aligned using CLUSTALW through Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis (MEGA6) software, version 6.0, and concatenated by using Sequence Matrix Species identifier version 1.8. For phylogeny the best fit model was determined using MEGA, based on the lowest Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) by using the 3 genes combined dataset. The phylogenetic tree was built through MEGA using the Maximum Likelihood

 (ML) methods using the K2+G model with 1,000 bootstrap replicates. The Bio-Neighbour-Joining (BioNJ) option, and the heuristic search with the Nearest-Neighbour-Interchange (NNI) options were used to calculate the initial tree for the ML analyses. All the reference sequences from ICPA used for phylogeny are reported in Suppl. Table 1.

2.3 Macro-morphology characterization

 A macro-morphological identification of all the isolates was performed according to Visagie et al. (2014). The isolates were 3-point inoculated with a spore suspension on Yeast Extract Sucrose Agar (YES agar), Czapek Yeast Autolysate agar (CYA) and Malt extract agar (MEA), and they were observed for growth (mean diameter) and colony characters (colony texture, texture and colour of mycelium, colony reverse colours, presence and colour of the soluble pigments and exudates) after 7 146 days of incubation at 25 \degree C in the dark. The colour standards and nomenclature by Robert Ridgway (1912) were used for morphological description.

2.4 Pathogenicity assay

 In order to evaluate the pathogenicity of the *Penicillium* spp. isolates on chestnuts, the nut surface was disinfected with a 10% solution of sodium hypochlorite, washed by immersion in sterile deionized water and air dried. The nuts were wounded (3 injuries of 1 cm each) and inoculated with 153 a spore suspension of each isolate $(1 \times 10^5 \text{ c} \text{fu/mL})$, except for the species *P. crustosum*, as 16 isolates 154 were selected out of 40 strains. The chestnuts were kept in 15 cm boxes for 7 days at 26 ± 1 °C in the dark. Control chestnuts were prepared with sterile deionized water. The symptoms were observed, and a disease index (D.I) was calculated on a scale ranging from 0 to 100: non-pathogenic (NP) = no 157 symptoms; slightly virulent $(SV) = 1-30\%$ infected area; moderately virulent $(MV) = 31-50\%$ infected area; highly virulent (HV) = 51-100% infected area. White mycelial growth, which turned into different shades of green and blue, depending on the inoculated species, was observed on symptomatic chestnuts, as a result of conidia production. Dried pulp and chalky tissues were observed in symptomatic nuts. No symptoms were observed in the controls. The experiment was performed with six replicates for each strain. The pathogenicity assay was performed twice.

2.5 Mycotoxin production on chestnuts

 Penicillium metabolites were extracted from the chestnuts used in the pathogenicity tests for 70 isolates, with at least one isolate per species (Table 2). The chestnuts were divided into three subsamples for each isolate and extracted twice by means of solid-liquid extraction with 10 mL of ethyl acetate. The samples were shaken for 1 min and the organic phases were then collected in a flask. The extract was evaporated to dryness in a rotary evaporator at 35 °C. The residue was dissolved 170 in 500 μ L of H₂O:CH₃CN 1:1 for HPLC-DAD analysis.

 The HPLC apparatus was an Agilent 1100 series equipped with a G1379 degasser, a G1313A autosampler, a G1316A column thermostat set at 30 °C, a G1315B UV diode array detector set at 230, 276, 300 and 330 nm, a G1311 quaternary pump and an Agilent Chemstation G2170AA 174 Windows XP operating system (Agilent[®], Germany). A Luna C18 analytical column (150x4.6 mm 175 i.d., 3 μ m, Phenomenex[®], USA), preceded by a guard column (4x3mm i.d.) with the same stationary phase, was used for the HPLC procedure. The mobile phases consisted of water acidified with formic acid 0.05 % (A) and acetonitrile (B), at a flow rate of 0.800 mL/min in gradient mode, 0-5 min: 5% of B, 5-45 min: from 5 to 50% B, 45-60 min: from 50 to 80% B, 60-70 min: from 80 to 100% B. Twenty μL of the samples was injected. UV spectra were collected, by means of DAD, every 0.4 s, from 190 to 700 nm, with a resolution of 2 nm. Authentic mycophenolic acid (MPA), meleagrine (MEL), andrastin A (AndA), roquefortine C (RoqC), patulin (PAT), chaetoglobosin A (ChA), cyclopenin (CPN), cyclopenol (CPL), viridicatin (VIR), viridicatol (VOL), penitrem A (PenA), cyclopiazonic acid (CPA), verrucosidin (VER) and penicillic acid (PA) standards were used for the identification by comparing their retention times with the UV spectra.

3. Results

3.1 Molecular identification

 One hundred and twenty-four isolates of *Penicillium* spp. were collected: 29 from fresh chestnuts in orchards, 32 during processing of chestnuts (dried chestnuts and chestnut granulates), 41 from flour and 22 from indoor sampling inside the production mills (Table 2). A total of 20 species, divided into 2 subgenera and 8 sections, were identified according to the classification reported by Houbraken and Samson (2011), Visagie et al. (2014) and Houbraken et al. (2016). For every species, one sequence of the ITS region, one of β-tubulin gene and one of calmodulin gene were deposited in GenBank with the accession numbers listed in Table 2.

 The ITS region was able to identify the isolates at species level only for 6 out of 20 species (Suppl. Table 2). Seventeen out of 20 species were confirmed through the analysis of the β-tubulin gene (Suppl. Table 3). Uncertain identification was obtained for the following isolates belonging to three series: Cas10, Cas40, Cal3F and CalC (series *Camemberti)*; 3B1, 3B4, 3B5, 3B6, F3A, Cas13, Cas9 and 3B30 (series *Camemberti* – ex series *Solita* (Frisvad and Samson, 2004)); XA, XC, XO and XP (series *Viridicata*).

 The calmodulin gene assigned univocal results for one out of three uncertain identifications: the isolates of *P. viridicatum* (XA, XC, XO and XP) (Suppl. Table 4). The isolates associated to series *Camemberti* and series *Camemberti* – ex series *Solita* (Frisvad and Samson, 2004) remained ambiguous, with 100% homology with *P.commune, P. camemberti, P. caseifulvum* and *P. palitans* for series *Camemberti*, and *P. solitum* and *P. discolor* for series *Camemberti* – ex series *Solita* (Frisvad and Samson, 2004) (Suppl. Table 4).

 Moreover, the phylogenetic analysis based on the 3 concatenated genes, and performed in order to classified the strains, confirmed the results obtained by BLAST search, by giving univocal identification for eighteen species out of twenty (Fig.1). For each identified species the strains clustered together with reference strains with high bootstrap values (>80%), with the exception of the strains belonging to series *Camemberti* and series *Camemberti* – ex serie *Solita* (Fig. 1 and Suppl.

 Fig. 1). In particular, one group clustered with *P. caseifulvum*, *P. commune* and *P. camemberti* (bootstrap 98), whilea second group clustered with *P. solitum* and *P. discolor* (bootstrap 97) (Suppl. Fig. 1).

 Further macro-morphological identification and secondary metabolite production, together with molecular analysis, permitted to determine the species.

 By considering the isolation sources, isolates from fresh chestnuts were found to belong to eight species (Table 2): *Penicillium* sp*.* (series *Camemberti)*, *P. crustosum*, *P. expansum*, *P. glabrum*, *P. manginii, P. pancosmium* and *P. yezoense*, with *P. bialowiezense* as the dominant species (10/30).

Twelve species were found during chestnuts processing (dried chestnuts and chestnut granulates): *P.*

brevicompactum, *P. citrinum*, *Penicillium* sp*.* (series *Camemberti*), *P. expansum, P. glabrum, P.*

glandicola, P. palitans, P. polonicum, P. solitum, Penicillium viridicatum and *P. yezoense,* with *P.*

crustosum as the dominant species (11/32).

The isolates from chestnut flour belonged to 9 species (Table 2): *Penicillium* sp. (series *Camemberti*)*,*

P. corylophilum, Penicillium sp. (series *Camemberti* – ex series *Solita* (Frisvad and Samson, 2004)),

P. expansum, P. glabrum, P. polonicum, P. verrucosum and the majority of isolates (24/41) were *P.*

crustosum.

Indoor sampling was mainly represented by *Penicillium* sp. (series *Camemberti –* ex series *Solita*

(Frisvad and Samson 2004)), *P. bialowiezense, P. brevicompactum, P. chrysogenum, P. expansum,*

P. glandicola and *P. polonicum,* with *P. crustosum* as dominant species (14/22)*.*

3.2 Morphological identification

 After molecular identification, the strains were examined to establish their macro-morphological characteristics in order to confirm the species on the basis of phenotypic criteria.

The isolates showed uniform characteristics, with typical morphology and growth rate on the analysed

media, similar to those reported in literature (Table 3, Fig. 2). Members of the *P. glabrum*-clade

 showed variability in shade and intensity of the reverse colours on CYA and YES media, and the colours ranged from pale to vivid orange or to a pinkish colour.

 The morphology of Cas10, Cas40, Cal3F and CalC strains belonging to *Penicillium* series *Camemberti* permitted the assignation to the species *P. commune*, with a velutinous to fasciculate texture, cream colour to beige reverse on CYA and cream colour to yellow reverse on YES (Table 3,

Fig. 2). These isolates showed visible differences from *P. palitans* (Fig. 2).

 The 3B1, 3B4, 3B5, 3B6, F3A, Cas13, Cas9 and 3B30 strains belonging to *Penicillium* series *Camemberti –* ex series *Solita* (Frisvad and Samson, 2004*)* were identified as *P. discolor,* with a velutinous to fasciculate texture, and were cream yellow reverse on CYA, bright strong yellow reverse on YES, and deep primuline yellow colour on MEA (Table 3, Fig.2). These strains were morphologically different from *P. solitum* (Fig. 2).

3.3 *Pathogenicity*

 According to the observed symptoms (Figure 2), the pathogenicity test divided the strains into four categories (Table 4): 35 % were highly virulent (HV), 22% moderately virulent (MV), 15% slightly virulent (SV), and 28% non-pathogenic (NP). The symptoms typical of each isolated species are shown in Figure 2. The results of the 96 analysed strains are reported in Table 1. Glabrum pancosmium solitum

The non-pathogenic strains included all the isolates of *P. corylophilum* and *P. yezoense,* and 3 out of

4 isolates of *P. glandicola. P. bialowiezense, P. brevicompactum, P. crustosum, P.glabrum, P.*

pancosmium and *P. palitans* included both non-pathogenic and pathogenic strains. On the contrary,

- all the strains of *P. citrinum P. commune*, *P. chrysogenum P. discolor*, *P. expansum*, *P. manginii P.*
- *nordicum, P. polonicum, P. solitum*, *P. verrucosum* and *P. viridicatum* were pathogenic.
- By considering the most frequently isolated species, *P. bialowiezense* strains were non-pathogenic
- (5/12), moderately virulent (4/12) or highly virulent (3/12). All the strains belonging to the *P.*
- *crustosum* species were pathogenic (3 SV, 2 MV, 8 HV), except for one (Cas17). *P. glabrum* strains

were predominantly non-pathogenic (11/15), except for two SV (E2 and B3)*,* one MV (E3) and one

HV (E7)*.* The *P. expansum* strains were all highly virulent, except for one MV (POX1).

3.4 *Mycotoxin production on chestnuts*

 The mycotoxins detected on the inoculated chestnuts are reported in Table 1. The produced metabolites differed based on the *Penicillium* species. All the *P. expansum* isolates were able to produce PAT; four isolates (POX1, POX2, X5 and PF1) produced ChA and 3D, X5 and PF1 produced RoqC. Cyclopenins (CPN and CPL) and viridicatins (VIR and VOL) were produced by most of the isolates belonging to *P. crustosum*, *P. polonicum, P. solitum* and *P. discolor.* Some isolates of *P. crustosum* were also able to produce RoqC and/or PenA. The isolates of *P. discolour* were also able to produce ChA, while the isolates of *P. polonicum* could also produce VER. MPA was produced by three *P. bialowiezense* isolates. One isolate of *P. viridicatum* was producer of PA, while CPA was produced by two strains of *P. commune*. *P. glandicola* was able to produce MEL and AndA. None of the analysed metabolites was detected for any of the isolates of *P. chrysogenum*, *P. brevicompactum*, *P. palitans*, *P. verrucosum*, *P. nordicum*, *P. glabrum*, *P. pancosmium*, *P. manginii* or *P. citrinum*.

4. Discussion

 Fungal contamination of chestnuts was monitored from harvest to storage in previous studies (Overy et al., 2003; Rodrigues et al., 2012). Some authors reported the presence of *Penicillium* spp. in fresh chestnuts or in commercial products (Wells and Payne, 1975; Rodrigues et al., 2013), while Bertuzzi et al. (2015) focused on the occurrence of some Penicillium-toxins. The occurrence of different species of *Penicillium* and their mycotoxin production in chestnuts was investigated for the first time in this work. *Penicillium* were isolated from different sources, from chestnut orchard and throughout the flour processing phases, including the indoor environment of chestnut processing. One hundred and twenty-four *Penicillium* isolates were collected from fresh chestnuts, dried chestnuts, chestnut granulates, chestnut flour and indoor sampling inside the production mills. The isolates were then

 characterized through biological, molecular and chemical tools, focusing on the pathogenicity on chestnuts and on the potential production of mycotoxins, noxious to human health.

 As reported by Visagie and colleagues (2014), the identification of the species requires a multidisciplinary approach that considers the morphological characteristics, and which includes molecular analyses in combination with secondary metabolite production in order to avoid species misidentification. The β-tubulin gene has been recommended as a specific barcode for species identification (Samson et al. 2010; Visagie et al. 2014), and 108 out of 124 isolates were unambiguously identified through the *BenA* sequences. The remaining 16 isolates were determined through the analysis of calmodulin gene sequences and the colony morphology. Furthermore, the molecular phylogeny obtained by the concatenated datasets confirmed species identification, and highlighted an intraspecific variability for some species i.e. *P. bialowiezense*, *P. commune* and *P. glabrum*, as observed in the phylogenetic studies of Barreto et al. (2011), Houbraken et al. (2012) and Visagie et al. (2014).

 Twenty species divided into 2 subgenera (*Aspergilloides* and *Penicillium*) and 8 sections (*Aspergilloides, Brevicompacta, Chrysogena, Citrina, Exicauilis, Fasciculata, Penicillium* and *Robsamsonia*) were identified on the basis of the accepted taxonomy reported in Houbraken and Samson (2011), Visagie et al. (2014) and Houbraken et al. (2016). Depending on the source of isolation, we found 8 species from orchard sampling, 12 species from chestnut processing, 9 species from flour and 8 species from indoor sampling, similarly to the number of species reported by Filtenborg et al. (2004) in food commodities.

 The *Penicillium* genus includes over 200 species with different eco-physiological adaptations, including tolerance to cold and to low water activity (Filtenborg et. al, 2004; Pitt and Hocking 2009; Rosso and Robinson 2001). In our study, we were able to isolate different *Penicillium* species from both fresh and dry chestnut products. The found species partially confirm previous monitoring performed on fresh chestnuts, commercial products and the indoor environment (Donis-Gonzales et al., 2016; Magan 2006; Overy et al., 2003; Pietri et al., 2012; Sieber et al., 2007). *P. crustosum, P. glabrum* and *P. bialowiezense* were the predominant species and they represented 57% of the isolates. In agreement with Overy et al. (2003), *P. crustosum* was the predominant species, with 44 isolates from all the sources out of 124, thus confirming *P. crustosum* as a ubiquitous species that is able to survive in different environmental conditions (Domsch et al., 2007; Scholtz and Korsten, 2016).

 P. glabrum was the second most frequent species. As reported by several authors, this species has a worldwide distribution and has been isolated from various foods, including fresh chestnuts, but also from soil and indoor environment (Frisvad and Samson, 2004; Houbraken et al., 2014; Samson et al., 2004; Spadaro et al., 2010). Other species, although less frequently, were isolated, including*P. expansum*, *P. palitans, P. chrysogenum* and *P. discolor,* which have been associated with nuts (Mujica and Vergara, 1945; Frisvad and Samson, 2004; Donis-Gonzalez et al., 2016).

 Fruit decay and economic losses caused by different *Penicillium* species*,* i.e. *P. expansum, P. digitatum, P. italicum* in apple and citrus fruit (Prusky et al., 2014) and *P. expansum, P. griseofulvum* and *P. chrysogenum* in chestnut (Donis-Gonzalez et al., 2016), are well known. Our study highlights the virulence potential of the isolated *Penicillium* spp., with around 70% of pathogenic strains, including the environmental strains, similarly to what previously reported by Louw and Korsten (2014) for apples and pears. Lingling et al. (2013) reported in pathogenicity tests that 60% of isolates of *Penicillium* spp. were pathogenic on *Castanea mollissima*. *P. expansum* and *P. crustosum* were the most virulent species*.* Both species are important post-harvest pathogens that are particularly virulent and show a high adaptability to the environment (Louw and Korsten 2014; Scholtz and Korsten, 2016). To the best of our knowledge, this is the first report of *P. bialowiezense*, *P. brevicompactum, P. citrinum, P. commune, P. glandicola, P. manginii, P. pancosmium, P. polonicum, P. solitum, P. viridicatum, P. verrucosum* as agents of moulds on *Castanea sativa*. *P. nordicum* and *P. palitans* were previously reported on nuts, but not as pathogenic on *C. sativa*. Fifty-nine percent of the analysed strains (41/70) were able to produce at least one mycotoxin on

chestnuts. Fourteen secondary metabolites, associated with the isolated species, were evaluated on

 the inoculated chestnuts, even though none of these compounds has an established legislative threshold for chestnuts, according to the European legislation (Commission Regulation (EU) No. 165/2010). As reported by Frisvad and Samson (2004), different secondary metabolites are produced by different *Penicillium* spp. and they can often be used as markers to differentiate the species. In particular, mycophenolic acid is mainly produced by *P. bialowiezense* and *P. brevicompactum*, while patulin is mainly produced by *P. expansum,* and cyclopiazonic acid by *P. commune.* Other metabolites, such as roquefortine C, andrastin A, cyclopenine and cyclopenol, are produced by different species. Toxic effects on human health have been reported for all these molecules (Barkai-Golan, 2008).

 The isolation of different *Penicillium* species from all the investigated samples and their mycotoxin production are cause of concern because of their effects on human health. The environmental conditions, together with the storage and processing of the material, probably could promote the fungal growth, thus indicating a contamination throughout the chestnut production chain.

 To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study focusing on *Penicillium* spp. on fresh chestnuts and the chestnut flour processing phases, which revealed on a relatively limited number of samples, a high diversity in species of *Penicillium* spp., as well as a great virulence and mycotoxin production potential. Further studies are needed to analyse the whole production chain in order to follow chestnut production from the chestnut orchard throughout the processing phases, to understand the critical points of contamination. Information about the occurrence of *Penicillium* spp. and their food-borne mycotoxins will help to set up chestnut management procedures from the orchard to the commercial product, with the aim of controlling the fungal growth and managing the mycotoxin production.

Acknowledgments

 The Authors wish to thank the Piedmont Region for its financial support with the "AFLACHEST" project (PSR FEASR 2007/2013, European Fund for Rural Development, Measure 124, Action 1) and the CRT Foundation for its financial support with the "INNOCHEST – Innovative technologies to guarantee the quality and safety of Piedmontese chestnuts" project. The Authors gratefully acknowledge the chestnut growers, Molino Zanone and Azienda Bertone, for providing the samples, and Dr. Cecilia Contessa, for her help in the microbiological analyses.

References

- Abdel-Gawad, K.M., Zohri, A.A., 1993. Fungal flora and mycotoxins of six kinds of nut seeds for human consumption in Saudi Arabia. Mycopathologia 124, 55-64.
- A.R.E.F.L.H, 2012. Livre Blanc de la Chataigne Europeenne.
- http://www.areflh.org/images/stories/PDF/Observatoire_economique/Production_europeenne/chataigne/li
- vre-blanc-chataigne-FR.pdf (accessed: 26.02.2018)
- Banani, H., Marcet-Houben, M., Ballester, A.-R., Abbruscato, P., González-Candelas, L., Gabaldón, T.,
- Spadaro, D., 2016. Genome sequencing and secondary metabolism of the postharvest pathogen *Penicillium*
- *griseofulvum*. BMC Genomics, 17, 19. DOI: 10.1186/s12864-015-2347-x
- Barkai-Golan, R., 2008. *Penicillium* Mycotoxins, in: Barkai-Golan, R., Paster, N. (Eds.), Mycotoxins in Fruits and Vegetables. Academic press, San Diego, pp. 153-183.
- Barreto M.C., Houbraken J., Samson R.A., Frisvad J.C., San-Romão M.V., 2011. Taxonomic studies of the
- *Penicillium glabrum* complex and the description of a new species *P. subericola*. Fungal Divers. 49, 23- 33.
- Bertuzzi, T., Rastelli, S., Pietri, A., 2015. *Aspergillus* and *Penicillium* toxins in chestnuts and derived produced in Italy. Food Cont. 50, 876-880.
- Domsch, K.H., Gams, W., Anderson, T., 2007. Compendium of Soil Fungi, second ed. IHW-Verlag, Germany.
- Donis-Gonzalez, I.R., Medina-Mora, C., Stadt, S., Mandujano, M., Fulbright, D.W., 2009. The presence of mycotoxins after ninety days of storage in fresh chestnuts. Acta Hortic. 844, 69-74.
- Donis-González, I.R., Guyer, D.E., Fulbright, D.W., 2016. Quantification and identification of microorganisms found on shell and kernel of fresh edible chestnuts in Michigan. J. Sci. Food Agric. 96, 4514-4522.
- Filtenborg, O., Frisvad, J.C., Samson, R.A., 2004. Specific association of fungi to foods and influence of physical environmental factors, in Samson, R.A., Hoekstra, E.S., Frisvad, J.C. (Eds.), Introduction to food-
- and airborne fungi. Centraalbureau voor Schimmelcultures (CBS), Utrecht, pp. 306–320.
- Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, 2014. FAOSTAT, http://www.fao.org/faostat/en/#data (accessed: 26.02.2018).
- Frisvad, J.C., Samson, R.A., 2004. Polyphasic taxonomy of *Penicillium* subgenus *Penicillium*. A guide to identification of food and air-borne terverticillate Penicillia and their mycotoxins. Stud. Mycol. 49, 1-174.
- Glass, N.L., Donaldson, G.C., 1995. Development of primer sets designed for use with the PCR to amplify
- conserved genes from filamentous ascomycetes. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 61, 1323-1330.
- Hong, S.B., Cho, H.S., Shin, H.D., Frisvad, J.C., Samson, R.A., 2006. Novel Neosartorya species isolated from
- soil in Korea. Int. J. Syst. Evol. Microbiol. 2, 477-486.
- Houbraken, J., Samson, R.A. 2011. Phylogeny of *Penicillium* and the segregation of *Trichocomaceae* into three families. Stud. Mycol. 70, 1–51.
- Houbraken J., Frisvad J.C., Seifert K.A., Overy D.P., Tuthill D.M., Valdez J.G., Samson R.A., 2012. New penicillin-producing *Penicillium* species and an overview of section *Chrysogena*. Persoonia 29, 78-100.
- Houbraken, J., Visagie, C.M., Meijer, M., Frisvad, J.C., Busby, P.E., Pitt, J.I., Seifert, K.A., Louis-Seize, G.,
- Demirel, R., Yilmaz, N., Jacobs, K., Christensen, M., Samson, R.A., 2014. A taxonomic and phylogenetic revision of *Penicillium* section *Aspergilloides*. Stud. Mycol. 78, 373-451.
- Houbraken, J., Wang, L., Lee, H. B. , Frisvad, J. C. 2016. New sections in *Penicillium* containing novel species producing patulin, pyripyropens or other bioactive compounds. Persoonia 36, 299–314.
- Jermini, M., Conedera, M., Sieber, T.N., Sassella, A., Schärer, H., Jelmini, G., Höhn, E., 2006. Influence of
- fruit treatments on perishability during cold storage of sweet chestnuts. J. Sci. Food Agric. 86, 877-855.
- Linling, L., Zheng, L., Juan, H., Hua, C., Zhiqin, L., Shuiyuan, C., Qing, T., 2013. Isolation and identification
- of pathogenic fungi causing decay in Luotian chestnut during late storage period and research on pathogenicity. Plant Dis. Pests 4, 10-14.
- Louw, J.P., Korsten, L., 2014. Pathogenic *Penicillium* spp. on apples and pears. Plant Dis. 98, 590-598.
- Magan, N., 2006. Mycotoxin contamination of food in Europe: early detection and prevention strategies.
- Mycopathologia 162, 245-253.
- Milicevic, D., Skrinjar, M., Baltic, T., 2010. Real and perceived risks for mycotoxin contamination in foods and feeds: challenges for food safety control. Toxins 2, 572-592.
- Mujica, F., Vergara, C. 1945. Flora fungosa Chilena. Indice preliminar de los huespedes de los hongos chilenos
- y sus referencias bibliograficas. Imprenta Stanley, 199 pp.
- Nielsen K.F., 2003. Mycotoxin production by indoor molds. Fungal Genet. Biol. 39, 103-117.
- Overy, D.P., Seifert, K.A., Savard, M.E., Frisvad, J.C., 2003. Spoilage fungi and their mycotoxins in commercially marketed chestnuts. Int. J. Food Microbiol. 88, 69-77.
- Pietri, A., Rastelli, S., Mulazzi, A., Bertuzzi, T., 2012. Aflatoxins and ochratoxin A in dried chestnuts and chestnut flour produced in Italy. Food Cont. 25, 601-606.
- Pitt, J.I., Hocking, A.D., 2009. Fungi and Food Spoilage, third ed. Springer, New York.
- Prencipe, S., Siciliano, I., Contessa, C., Botta, R., Garibaldi, A., Gullino, M.L., Spadaro, D., 2018.
- Characterization of *Aspergillus* section *Flavi* isolated from fresh chestnuts and along the chestnut flour process. Food Microbiol. 69, 159-169.
- Prusky, D., Alkan, N., Miyara, I., Barad, S., Davidzon, M., Kobiler, I., Brown-Horowitz, S., Lichter, A.,
- Sherman, A., Fluhr, R., 2014. Mechanisms modulating postharvest pathogen colonization of decaying
- fruits, in: Prusky D., Gullino M.L. (Eds.), Post-harvest pathology. Springer, Netherlands, pp. 43-55.
- Rodrigues, P., Venâncio, A., Lima, N., 2012. Mycobiota and mycotoxins of almonds and chestnuts with special
- reference to aflatoxins. Food Res. Int. 48, 76-90.
- Rodrigues, P., Venâncio, A., Lima, N., 2013. Incidence and diversity of the fungal genera *Aspergillus* and *Penicillium* in Portuguese almonds and chestnuts. Eu. J. Plant Pathol. 137, 197-209.
- Rosso, L., Robinson, T.P., 2001. A cardinal model to describe the effect of water activity on the growth of moulds. Int. J. Food Microbiol. 6, 265-273.
- Samson, R.A., Hoekstra, E.S., Frisvad, J.C., 2004. Introduction to food- and airborne fungi, seven ed. Centraalbureau voor Schimmelcultures (CBS), Utrecht.
- Samson, RA., Houbraken, J., Thrane, U., Frisvad, J., Andersen, B., 2010. Food and indoor fungi. CBS Laboratory Manual Series no. 2, Centraalbureau voor Schimmelcultures (CBS), Utrecht.
- Scholtz, I., Korsten, L., 2016. Profile of *Penicillium* species in the pear supply chain. Plant Pathol. 65,1126-
- 1132.
- Sieber, T.N., Jermini, M., Conedera, M., 2007. Effects of the harvest method on the infestation of chestnuts (*Castanea sativa*) by insects and moulds. J. Phytopathol. 155, 497-504.
- Spadaro, D., Amatulli, M.T., Garibaldi, A., Gullino, M.L., 2010. First report of *Penicillium glabrum* causing
- a postharvest fruit rot on pomegranate (*Punica granatum*) in the Piedmont region of Italy. Plant Dis. 94,
- 1066.
- Visagie CM, Hirooka Y, Tanney JB, Whitfield E., Mwange K., Meijer M., Amend A.S., Seifert K.A., Samson
- R.A. 2014. *Aspergillus*, *Penicillium* and *Talaromyces* isolated from in house dust samples collected around the world. Stud Mycol 78, 63–139.
- Visagie, C.M., Houbraken, J., Frisvad, J.C. Hong, S.B., Klaassen, C.H.W., Perrone, G., Seifert, K.A., Varga,
- J., Yaguchi, T., Samson. R.A., 2014. Identification and nomenclature of the genus *Penicillium*. Stud. Mycol. 78, 343-371.
- Washington, W.S., Allen, A.D., Dooley, L.B., 1997. Preliminary studies on *Phomopsis castanea* and other organisms associated with healthy and rotted chestnut fruit in storage. Australas. Plant Pathol. 26, 37-43.
- Wells, J.M., Payne, J.A., 1975. Toxigenic *Aspergillus* and *Penicillium* isolates from Weevil-Damaged
- chestnuts. Appl. Microbiol. 30, 536-540.
- White, T.J., Bruns, T., Lee, S., Taylor J. 1990. Amplification and direct sequencing of fungal ribosomal RNA
- genes for phylogenetics. In Innis MA, Gelfand DH; Sninsky JJ, White TJ (eds.) PCR Protocols: a guide to
- methods and applications, Academic Press, San Diego, pp. 315-322.

466 **Tables**

467 **Table 1** - Strain name, source of isolation, molecular identification, virulence results and secondary 468 metabolite production of the *Penicillium* spp. strains isolated in this study.

Strain	Source	Species	Virulence	Secondary metabolites	
Cas26	I	P. chrysogenum	HV	n.d.	
Cas11	I	P. bialowiezense	NP		
Cas31	C	P. bialowiezense	NP		
Cas30	C	P. bialowiezense	HV	n.d.	
Cas29	I	P. bialowiezense	MV	n.d.	
Cas15	\mathcal{C}	P. bialowiezense	NP		
Cas25	C	P. bialowiezense	HV	n.d.	
E4	\mathcal{C}	P. bialowiezense	MV	n.d.	
E ₅	C	P. bialowiezense	SV	n.d.	
B1	\mathcal{C}	P. bialowiezense	HV	MPA	
C1	C	P. bialowiezense	MV	MPA	
C ₅	$\mathbf C$	P. bialowiezense	MV	MPA	
DIV1	C	P. bialowiezense	NP		
Cas18	I	P.brevicompactum	HV	n.d.	
CalB	PP	P.brevicompactum	NP		
3C	I	P. glandicola	MV	MEL, AndA	
4.3	I	P. glandicola	NP		
X7	PP	P. glandicola	NP		
X10	PP	P. glandicola	NP		
3D	I	P. expansum	HV	PAT, RoqC	
PACT	\mathcal{C}	P. expansum	HV	PAT	
PCAS	\mathcal{C}	P. expansum	HV	PAT	
POX1	C	P. expansum	MV	PAT, ChA	
POX ₂	\mathcal{C}	P. expansum	HV	PAT, ChA	
X5	PP	P. expansum	HV	PAT, ChA, Roqc	
PF1	$\boldsymbol{\mathrm{F}}$	P. expansum	HV	PAT, ChA, Roqc	
4A	C	P. crustosum	HV	CPN, CPL, VIR, VOL, PenA	
Cas12	I	P. crustosum	HV	CPN, CPL, VIR, VOL, RoqC	
Cas14	I	P. crustosum	HV	CPN, CPL, VIR, VOL, RoqC, PenA	
Cas28	I	P. crustosum	MV	CPN, CPL	
Cas34	I	P. crustosum	HV	CPN, CPL, VIR, VOL	
Cas17	I	P. crustosum	NP		
3.3	I	P. crustosum	HV	n.d.	
5A	C	P.crustosum	MV	CPN, CPL, VIR, VOL, RoqC, PenA	
3.2	I	P. crustosum	SV	CPN, CPL, VIR, VOL, PenA	
Cal ₅₁	F	P. crustosum	SV	CPN, CPL, VIR, VOL, RoqC, PenA	
Cal ₅₂	F	P. crustosum			
Cal53	F	P. crustosum			
Cal54	$\mathbf F$	P. crustosum			
Cal ₅₅	$\mathbf F$	P. crustosum			

 Source: C: chestnut; F: flour; I: indoors; PP: processing phases. Virulence: NP: non-pathogenic, SV: slightly virulent; MV: moderately virulent; HV: highly virulent; -: not tested. Secondary metabolites: MPA: mycophenolic acid; MEL: meleagrin; AndA: andrastin A; RoqC: roquefortine C; PAT: patulin; CHA: chaetoglobosin A; CIN: cyclopenin; COL: cyclopenol; VIR: viridicatin; VOL: viridicatol; PenA: penitrem A;

474 CPA: cyclopiazonic acid; VER: verrucosidin; PA: penicillic acid; -: not tested; n.d.: not detected.

475 **Table 2** – Number of isolates per source of isolation and species, number of samples (n) and accession numbers of the ITS region, β-tubulin and calmodulin

476 genes for one strain per species (reported in parentheses) found in this study.

478 **Table 3** – Average colony diameter of the *Penicillium* species isolated in this study.

480

481 * Colony diameters of strains grown on YES, MEA and CYA incubated at 25 °C for 7 days.

	NP	$S_{\bf V}$	MV	HV	Number of isolates
P. bialowiezense	5		$\overline{4}$	3	12
P. brevicompactum					2
P. chrysogenum				1	1
P. citrinum					
P. commune			2	1	4
P. corylophilum					1
P. crustosum		3	2	10	16
P. discolor		2	2	4	8
P. expansum				6	7
P. glabrum	11	2		1	15
P. glandicola	3		1		4
P. manginii				1	
P. nordicum					
P. palitans	2	1			4
P. pancosmium				2	4
P. polonicum		$\overline{2}$	2	2	6
P. solitum					
P. viridicatum			2		4
P. yezoense	2				2
P. verrucosum		1	1		2
	27	14	21	32	96

482 **Table 4** – *In vivo* pathogenicity assay for the *Penicillium* spp. strains isolated in this study.

483

484 *In vivo* severity of symptoms: non-pathogenic (NP) = no symptoms; slightly virulent (SV) = 1-30% infected area; 485 moderately virulent (MV) = 31-50% infected; highly virulent (HV) = 51-100% infected area.

486

Figure 1 - Best scoring Maximum Likelihood tree based on the concatenated ITS region, β-tubulin and calmodulin

- 488 sequences datasets. The numbers at major nodes indicate the bootstrap value from 1000 bootstrapped datasets. Branches with bootstrap values lower than 80% are not shown. Phylogeny was rooted by *Fusarium equiseti*. Evo
- with bootstrap values lower than 80% are not shown. Phylogeny was rooted by *Fusarium equiseti*. Evolutionary analyses were conducted using MEGA version 6.

 t_u

Figure 2 – Colonies morphology (top and reverse) of the *Penicillium* species isolated in this study after 7 days of incubation at 25 °C in the dark on YES (a), MEA (b) and CYA (c). d. Results of the pathogenicity assay 494 incubation at 25 °C in the dark on YES (a), MEA (b) and CYA (c). d. Results of the pathogenicity assay of the *Penicillium*

species isolated in this study inoculated on chestnut after 7 days at $26\pm1^{\circ}$ C in the dark.

