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3 **Environmental factors modify carbon nutritional patterns and niche**
4 **overlap between *Aspergillus flavus* and *Fusarium verticillioides* strains**
5 **from maize**

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14
15 *Keywords: Aspergillus flavus, Fusarium verticillioides, water activity,*
16 *temperature, carbon sources.*

25 **Abstract**

26 This study examined the utilization patterns of key Carbon sources (CS, 24:
27 including key sugars, aminoacids and fatty acids) in maize by strains of
28 *Aspergillus flavus* and *Fusarium verticillioides* under different water activity (a_w ,
29 0.87-0.98 a_w) and temperature (20-35°C) values and compared the niche
30 overlap indices (NOI) that estimate the *in vitro* carbon source utilization profiles
31 (Wilson and Lindow, 1994). The ability to grow in these key CS in minimal
32 media was studied for 120 hrs in 12 hr steps. The NOI was calculated for inter-
33 species (*F. verticillioides* – *A. flavus*) and for intra-species (*A. flavus* - *A. flavus*)
34 using CS utilisation patterns over the range of interacting environmental
35 conditions. 30°C, over the whole a_w range examined, was found to be optimal
36 for utilization of the maximum number of CS by *A. flavus*. In contrast, for *F.*
37 *verticillioides* this was more so at 20°C; 25°C allowed a suboptimal usage of CS
38 for both species. NOIs confirmed the nutritional dominance of *A. flavus* at 30°C,
39 especially at lower a_w levels and that of *F. verticillioides* at 20°C, mainly at 0.95
40 a_w . In other conditions of a_w , based on CS utilization patterns, the data indicated
41 that *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides* occupied different ecological niches. The
42 variability in nutritional sources utilization between *A. flavus* strains was not
43 related to their ability to produce aflatoxins (AFs). This type of data helps to
44 explain the nutritional dominance of fungal species and strains under different
45 environmental conditions. This could be useful in trying to find appropriate
46 natural biocontrol microorganisms to compete with these mycotoxigenic
47 species.

48

49 **1. Introduction**

50 Maize is a very important staple crop world wide and in Europe. It is harvested
51 at between milky and fully ripe stage for starch production, food and feed
52 purposes and more recently biofuel. Thus contaminant mycotoxins, such as
53 aflatoxins and fumonisins, need to be minimised to meet the legislative
54 requirements (EC Regulation Nr. 1881/2006 and Nr. 1126/2007).

55

56 The major mycotoxigenic fungi colonising ripening maize are *Aspergillus flavus*
57 and *Fusarium verticillioides* which produce aflatoxins (AFS) and fumonisins
58 (FBs) respectively. The most common in north Italy is *F. verticillioides*, but in
59 2003 and 2004, because of very hot summer temperatures and moisture stress,
60 there was a severe outbreak of aflatoxin contamination of maize for animal feed
61 resulting in significant aflatoxin M₁ contamination in milk, (Battilani et al., 2005;
62 Battilani et al., 2008; Piva et al., 2006; Zorzete et al., 2008).

63 There has been interest in trying to understand the ecological conditions which
64 determine the dominance of individual species. Thus there is concern in
65 understanding pathogen-pathogen interactions where they are both mycotoxin
66 producing species (Magan and Aldred, 2007a; Magan and Aldred, 2007b).

67

68 It has been suggested that *Fusarium* species are very competitive and that
69 kernels initially infected by *F. verticillioides* may be resistant to later infection by
70 *A. flavus* (Wicklow et al., 1988). Nevertheless, it is not unusual to find crops with
71 both AF and FB contamination in field surveys (Battilani et al., 2005).

72 Environmental factors, such as water availability (a_w) and temperature, affect
73 the interactions and competitiveness of spoilage and mycotoxigenic fungi (Lee
74 and Magan, 1999; Marìn et al., 1995; Marìn et al., 1998a; Marìn et al., 1998b;
75 Magan et al., 2003; Sanchis and Magan, 2004). The co-existence of
76 microorganisms on plant surfaces is also mediated by nutritional resource
77 partitioning (Wilson and Lindow, 1994) and the utilisation pattern of CSs could
78 be used to study the niche overlap. Wilson and Lindow (1994) showed that
79 Niche Overlap Indices (NOI) > 0.90 were indicative of coexistence between
80 species or strains in an ecological niche, while scores of <0.90 represented
81 occupation of separate niches. Recently, Arroyo et al. (2008) showed that NOIs
82 and relative CS utilisation patterns were significantly influenced by interactions
83 between a_w , pH and level of preservatives used for controlling food spoilage
84 moulds in intermediate bakery products.

85

86 The aim of this study was (a) to compare Italian strains of *A. flavus* and *F.*
87 *verticillioides* based on their ability to use CSs in maize and (b) to calculate their
88 relative NOIs under different water activities and temperatures to understand
89 the potential conditions under which nutritional dominance occurs. This could be
90 beneficial for a better understanding of the reasons why aflatoxins and
91 sometimes fumonisins contamination in maize is predominant. This information
92 may also be useful as a basis for designing control systems, biological or
93 chemical, as part of a prevention strategy in the maize ecosystem.

94

95 **2. Materials and Methods**

96 *2.1 Fungal strains*

97 Experiments were conducted using 5 fungal strains isolated from maize kernels
98 in Northern Italy. One strain was *F. verticilloides* (ITEM 1744), a confirmed
99 fumonisin producer (Moretti et al., 1995), and four strains of *A. flavus*: A 2092
100 and A 2057, high (1156 ng AFB₁/g of culture media) and low (0.3 ng AFB₁/g of
101 culture media) AFB₁ producers respectively; and A 2097 and A 2082 non-AF
102 producers (Giorni et al., 2007). *Aspergillus* strains were held in the culture
103 collection of the Institute of Entomology and Plant Pathology, Università
104 Cattolica del Sacro Cuore of Piacenza (Italy; code MPVP) and the taxonomic
105 identities were confirmed by Food Science Australia (CSIRO, Sydney,
106 Australia). Conidial heads and conidia of A2057 were described as atypical, but
107 had other attributes which confirmed it as *A. flavus*.

108

109 *2.2 Microtitre plate preparation*

110 Sterile microtitre plates (24 wells, IWAKI, Japan) with a well capacity of 1 mL
111 and a lid were used. A minimal medium was prepared with NaNO₃ (0.23%),
112 MgSO₄·7H₂O (0.06%), K₂HPO₄ (0.17%) and KH₂PO₄ (0.13%). Carbon sources
113 were incorporated into the media at a final concentration of 9.1×10⁻³ g C mL⁻¹
114 well⁻¹ (carbon equivalent to 2% (w/v) glucose); each well of the plate was filled
115 with 700 µL of one CS solution. Carbon sources tested represent the principal
116 chemical components of maize kernels and they are listed in Table 1.

117

118 The water activity (a_w) of the CS treatments was modified to five values: 0.87,
119 0.90, 0.93, 0.95 and 0.98 a_w by adding different amounts of NaCl (Dallyn and
120 Fox, 1980). The pH was regulated to 6 using a phosphate buffer (10nM, Sigma)
121 (Dawson et al., 1987). The experiments were conducted twice with three
122 replicates per treatment per strain.

123

124 *2.3 Spore suspension preparation and inoculation*

125 Spores from 7 day old cultures grown on Czapek Agar (CZ; sucrose 30 g;
126 NaNO_3 2 g; KCl 0.5 g; $\text{MgSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ 0.5 g; $\text{FeSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ 0.01; K_2HPO_4 1 g;
127 $\text{ZnSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ 0.001 g; $\text{CuSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ 0.005 g; agar 15 g; H_2O to 1 L) was used
128 for *A. flavus* and Potato Dextrose Agar (PDA; infusion from potatoes 200g;
129 dextrose 15g; agar 20g; H_2O to 1L) for *F. verticillioides*, were harvested (with
130 sterile water) and individually placed into sterile Universal bottles containing 20
131 mL of distilled water. Bottles were shaken vigorously for 3 minutes and
132 centrifuged in a bench top microfuge for 15 minutes at 3000 rpm. After
133 discarding the supernatant, they were washed three times with 20 mL of sterile
134 water. After the third washing, spores were resuspended with the treatment
135 buffer-NaCl sterile solution and the concentration adjusted to 10^6 spores mL^{-1} .
136 Wells were inoculated with 100 μL of the spore solution. Microtitre plates
137 without inoculum were prepared and incubated as additional controls. All plates
138 were closed with Parafilm[®] and incubated at 20, 25 and 30°C. The presence or
139 absence of fungal growth was checked at 12 hr intervals for up to 120 hrs. The
140 wells were all checked with a microscope to determine whether growth had

141 occurred (yes/no); wells were scored positive when fungal mycelium was
142 detected.

143

144 *2.4 Calculation of Niche Overlap Index (NOI)*

145 Results of CS utilisation were used to calculate a Niche Overlap Index (NOI)
146 (Wilson and Lindow, 1994). The index was computed for both the target
147 pathogen (A; *F. verticillioides* or toxigenic strains of *A. flavus*) and compared
148 with the other strains (B; different *A. flavus* strains or the non-aflatoxin
149 producing strain of *A. flavus*:

150 **NOI_{A/B}**= Nr. of CS used by both strains / total Nr. of CS used by species A (1)

151 **NOI_{B/A}**= Nr. of CS used by both strains / total Nr. of CS used by species B (2)

152

153 The NOI values were between 0 and 1 and it defines whether fungi co-exist,
154 i.e., use common CS (NOI_{A/B} and NOI_{B/A} >0.9), occupy separate niches (NOI_{A/B}
155 and NOI_{B/A} <0.9) or one strain dominates (NOI_{A/B} >0.9 and NOI_{B/A} <0.9
156 strain A nutritionally dominate and *vice versa*) (Wilson and Lindow, 1994;
157 Arroyo et al., 2008).

158

159 *2.5 Data analysis*

160 A three factor randomised complete block design ANOVA (ANalysis Of
161 VAriance) was applied to data on CS used by different strains using the
162 statistical and data management package MSTAT-C (MSTAT-C, 1991). This
163 software is beneficial for experimental design, managing, transforming and
164 analyzing data. The randomised complete block design is a statistical analysis

165 in which each block contains a complete set of treatments; since each treatment
166 occurs once within each block, treatments can be compared within blocks, and
167 so block-to-block (gradient) variations does not effect the treatment comparison
168 (Clewer and Scarisbrisk, 2001).

169 The percentage of CSs used was computed and arcsine transformation,
170 appropriate for observations which are proportions (Fowler and Cohen, 1990),
171 was applied before data analysis.

172

173 **3. Results**

174 The number of CSs used by the fungi increased in time. During the first 36 hrs
175 after incubation the number of CSs utilized was very limited but significantly
176 increased after 60 hours. Subsequently, up to the end of the incubation period
177 (120 hrs) the number of CSs used by the fungi remained almost unvaried from
178 those recorded after 60 hrs, with variations between 1 and 4% (Table 2). For
179 this reason, only data on CSs used after 60 hrs incubation were considered for
180 statistical analyses. Minor variations were observed between replicates, but the
181 data was very similar for the two repetitions carried out. Thus, overall data
182 across both sets of experiments were combined and the means are presented
183 (Figure 1).

184

185 The 5 strains used a different number of CS at all the treatment environmental
186 conditions (Figure 1). At 30°C the number of CSs used was the highest for all
187 the strains of *A. flavus*, while for *F. verticillioides* the number of CSs used at
188 20°C was maximum, except at 0.87 a_w , where only 2 CSs were used because

189 of the marginal conditions for growth; at 30°C the number of CSs used by *F.*
190 *verticillioides* was significantly higher at 0.90 with respect to all the other a_w
191 levels tested.

192

193 *Aspergillus flavus* strains A 2057 (low AFs produced) and A 2082 (non-
194 producer) used fewer CSs at 0.90 a_w and 25 and 30°C than the other two *A.*
195 *flavus* strains, which grew with almost all the CSs tested. The number of CS
196 used at 0.90 was significantly lower with respect to 0.98 a_w at all temperatures,
197 with the exception of 30°C and 0.87 and 0.95 a_w . A 2092 and A 2097 showed
198 significant differences only at 20°C and 0.98 a_w , with respect to all the other a_w
199 treatments at each temperature.

200

201 All the strains preferentially utilised carbohydrates and amino acids and
202 subsequently, only at the higher temperatures and a_w levels, fatty acids (Figure
203 2). All the *A. flavus* strains preferentially used carbohydrates more than amino
204 acids, in all the treatment conditions, while *F. verticillioides* grew similarly with
205 both types of CSs. Regarding the two starch components, amylopectin was the
206 most used one by all the strains studied, especially at 25-30°C by *A. flavus* and
207 at 20-25°C by *F. verticillioides*. Differences were observed between *A. flavus*
208 strains regarding amylose and *F. verticillioides* grew only occasionally using
209 amylose as a CS (data not shown).

210

211 The NOIs for each strain of *A. flavus* with *F. verticillioides* are summarised in
212 Figure 3. *F. verticillioides* nutritionally dominated over all the strains of *A. flavus*

213 at 20°C and 0.95 a_w , over the low AFB₁ producer strain (A2057) and over the
214 high AFB₁ producer strain (A 2097) at 0.98 a_w and against the other two (A
215 2092, A 2097) at 25°C and 0.95 a_w . *Aspergillus flavus* always nutritionally
216 dominated *F. verticillioides* at 30°C and high and reduced a_w (0.98, 0.87 a_w).
217 The two AFB₁ producers dominated at 0.95 a_w , A 2092 also at 0.90 a_w and A
218 2082 also at 25°C and 0.98 a_w . In most conditions the fungi studied occupied
219 different niches. Co-existence between *A. flavus* with *F. verticillioides* was only
220 found for strain A 2082 at 20°C and 0.98 a_w (Figure 3).

221

222 The comparison between toxigenic and non-toxigenic strains of *A. flavus*,
223 regarding the usage of CS, showed that the non-producer strain A 2097 was
224 more competitive than A 2082 since it was able to use more CSs. In fact, A
225 2097 was dominant in many ecological conditions when compared with both the
226 toxigenic strains; it was efficient at 20°C and dominated at almost all the a_w
227 levels tested (Figure 4). Based on the nutritional utilisation patterns and the
228 NOIs there appeared that to be an interaction between the strains with the non-
229 toxigenic strains being dominant at 25-30 °C at high or low a_w .

230

231 **4. Discussion**

232 Temperatures between 20-30°C are typical for the maize growing season from
233 flowering to harvesting. The a_w between 0.98 and 0.87 is usually found in
234 kernels from early dough to full ripe stage (Battilani et al., 2007; Zorzete et al.,
235 2008). In almost all these conditions, both mycotoxigenic strains of *A. flavus*, A
236 2057 and A2092, were able to grow with at least a few CS.

237

238 Thirty Celsius degrees was found to be optimal for *A. flavus*, with most of CS
239 used at all the a_w values. These data are partially in agreement with Marìn et al.
240 (1998b); indeed, they found *F. moniliforme* (= *F. verticillioides*) was always
241 nutritionally dominant at 25°C and $a_w > 0.95$, while in the present study 2 strains
242 of *A. flavus* were nutritionally dominant at 0.98 a_w and occupied separated
243 nutritional niches with respect to *F. verticillioides* at 0.95, while the other 2 *A.*
244 *flavus* strains were nutritionally dominated by *F. verticillioides* at 0.95 a_w but
245 occupied separate nutritional niches with respect to *F. verticillioides* at 0.98 a_w .

246

247 The behaviour observed with CS utilization pattern was confirmed when only
248 carbohydrates were considered. Low molecular weight carbohydrates were
249 frequently used, in agreement with the report of optimal growth of *A. flavus*
250 using glucose and maltose as CS (Massoud et al., 1999). Amylopectin, a
251 relevant component representing around 60% of kernel dry matter, was used at
252 almost all a_w levels at 20 and 25°C by *F. verticillioides* and at 25 and 30°C by *A.*
253 *flavus*. This is relevant also in relation to toxin production, because Bluhm and
254 Woloshuk (2005) showed the importance of amylopectin content in the medium
255 in relation to FBs synthesis. There are no other related reports on stimulation of
256 such components on mycotoxin production. Nevertheless, Woloshuk et al.
257 (1997) underlined that the best inducers of AFs biosynthesis are CS readily
258 metabolised via glycolysis and that amylose has a role in the induction of AFs
259 biosynthesis

260

261 The different use of CS at different temperatures was also confirmed by the
262 NOIs, with nutritional dominance of *A. flavus* always observed at 30°C,
263 especially at extreme a_w , and nutritional dominance of *F. verticillioides* at 20°C,
264 mainly at 0.95 a_w . This demonstrates that total and common CS compounds
265 utilized by each fungus and NOI can be modified by environmental conditions
266 such as a_w and temperature. We found *A. flavus* dominant over *F. verticillioides*
267 at 0.87 and 0.98 a_w , while Marin et al., (1998a) found $< 0.96 a_w$ to be conducive
268 to nutritional dominance by Aspergilli.

269

270 Previous studies with the ochratoxigenic species *Penicillium verrucosum* and
271 competing fungi *in vitro* and on wheat grain showed that this mycotoxigenic
272 species co-existed with *F. culmorum* and *Alternaria alternata* and *A. ochraceus*
273 at 0.99 to 0.95 a_w and 15°C based on colony interactions (Cairns et al., 2003;
274 Magan et al., 2003). This was similarly confirmed by NOI of *P. verrucosum*
275 relative to these other species and the xerophilic species *Eurotium repens* at
276 0.99 a_w where NOIs were >0.90 indicative of coexistence with these species.
277 However, at lowered a_w levels (0.90), when compared with *E. repens* then
278 based on nutritional utilisation patterns and NOI, they occupied different niches.
279 The inference was that *P. verrucosum* was not as competitive as other spoilage
280 fungi in primary resource capture on wheat grain at $>0.95 a_w$, although it may
281 alter resource quality and influence secondary colonisation.

282

283 Interestingly, the type of CS was also very important and relevant since
284 carbohydrates, much easier to degrade, allowed faster fungal growth rates than

285 the other CSs. This is why they are utilized first. In contrast, other CSs may be
286 also utilized although at a lower rate and also resulting in a greater lag time
287 prior to growth. These CSs may perhaps be not utilised within the experimental
288 time frame.

289

290 The ability of the two species to assimilate different CS reflects their
291 competitiveness under specific ranges of environmental conditions. However,
292 only extreme conditions were linked to the nutritional dominance of one of the
293 two tested species while in almost all cases *A. flavus* and *F. verticillioides*
294 occupied different niches independently from the *A. flavus* strain used in this
295 study. This suggests that colonisation of maize by these fungi results in different
296 populations occupying different niches and could result in the presence of both
297 aflatoxins and fumonisins.

298

299 The intra-species variability, between toxigenic and non-toxigenic *A. flavus*
300 strains and CS utilization patterns, did not appear to be related to the actual
301 ability to produce AFs (data on AFs come from other studies); in fact, pairs of
302 the four strains studied showed a very similar behaviour. This type of
303 information can be useful in understanding the ecophysiology of *A. flavus* and
304 its relationship with *Fusarium* section *Liseola* species. It may also be useful in
305 screening competitive non-producer strains of either species for the
306 development of competitive exclusion approaches for developing natural control
307 systems. This can also include specific ranges of relevant environmental factors
308 and maize specific CS. It may also be possible to integrate this approach by

309 also incorporating potential for niche exclusion of mycotoxigenic species in the
310 presence of the crop protection chemicals often used, e.g. fungicides. Recent
311 work by Arroyo et al. (2008) has demonstrated the usefulness of understanding
312 these interactions between mycotoxigenic species and strains of *P. verrucosum*
313 (ochratoxin producer) and other species in the presence and absence of
314 different concentrations of preservatives such as propionate and sorbate. This
315 approach can be included to obtain a better understanding of the fluxes in niche
316 overlap and exclusion between these important mycotoxigenic species in
317 maize.

318

319 **Acknowledgements**

320 This work was supported by the Italian Ministry of Agricultural Policy (AFLARID
321 project).

322

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420

421 **Figure captions**

422

423 Fig. 1 - Carbon sources used by the four strains of *Aspergillus flavus* and one of
424 *Fusarium verticillioides* grown on a minimal media adjusted at 5 water activity values
425 and incubated at 20, 25 and 30 °C.

426

427 Fig. 2 - Percentage of usage of carbon sources typology (carbohydrates, aminoacids
428 and fatty acids) by all the strains tested at the different conditions of temperature (20,
429 25 and 30°C) and a_w (0.87, 0.90, 0.93, 0.95 and 0.98).

430

431 Fig. 3 - Schematic representation of NOI for the different conditions of temperature (20,
432 25 and 30°C) and a_w (0.87, 0.90, 0.93, 0.95 and 0.98) of the strains of *A. flavus* with *F.*
433 *verticillioides* as the target pathogen.

434

435 Fig. 4 - Schematic representation of NOI for the different conditions of temperature (20,
436 25 and 30°C) and a_w (0.87, 0.90, 0.93, 0.95 and 0.98) of *A. flavus* non-aflatoxins
437 producers (A 2082 and A 2097) used in the experiment with respect to toxigenic strains
438 of *A. flavus* (A 2057 and A 2092) only. Grey cells represent the nutritional dominance of
439 the non-toxigenic strains.

440

441 Table 1 – Carbon sources and percentage of the compound added in each well
 442 in niches overlap experiments. All compounds were prepared by Sigma
 443 (Saint Louis, MO, USA).

| CARBON SOURCE | % compound (w/v) (equivalent to 9.1 mgC/mL) |
|----------------------|--|
| <i>Aminoacids</i> | |
| L-Leucine | 1.65 |
| L-Alanine | 2.25 |
| D-Alanine | 2.25 |
| D-L-Threonine | 2.25 |
| L-Serine | 2.68 |
| D-Serine | 2.68 |
| L-Histidine | 1.96 |
| L-Proline | 1.74 |
| L-Phenylalanine | 2 |
| L-Aspartic acid | 2 |
| L-Glutamic acid | 2 |
| <i>Carbohydrates</i> | |
| D-Galactose | 2.28 |
| D-Raffinose | 2.50 |
| D-Glucose | 2.28 |
| D-Maltose | 2.28 |
| D-Fructose | 2.28 |
| Sucrose | 2.16 |
| D-Melibiose | 2.28 |
| Dextrin | 2 |
| Amylopectin | 2 |
| Amylose | 2 |
| <i>Fatty acids</i> | |
| Oleic acid | 2 |
| Linoleic acid | 2 |
| Palmitic acid | 2 |

444

445 Table 2 - Number of wells positive for fungal growth out of 360 prepared for
446 each fungus (24 carbon sources, 5 available waters and 3 temperatures) after
447 different hours of incubation (36, 60 and 120).

448

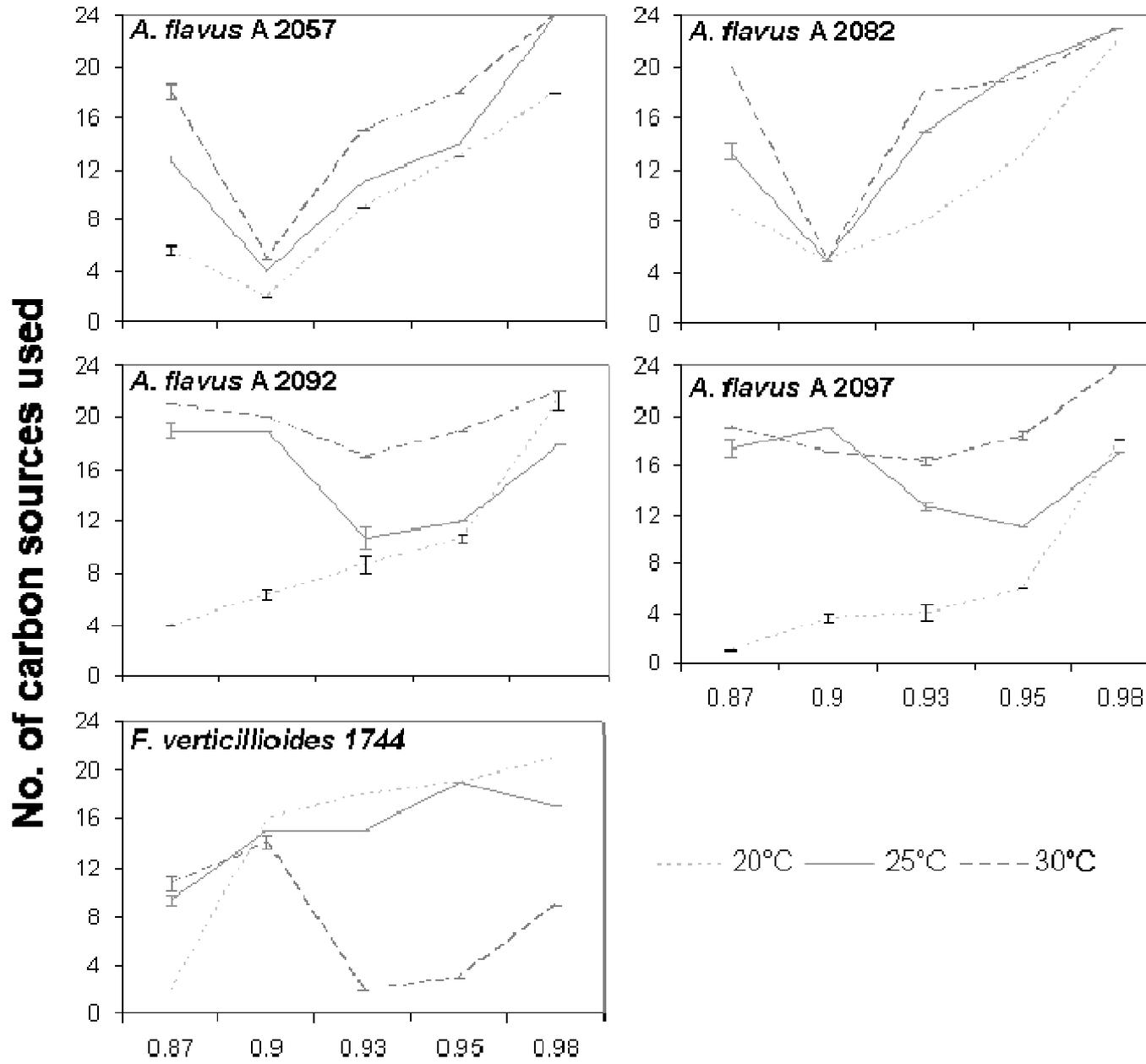
| Strain | 36 h | 60 h | 120 h |
|--------------------------------|-------------|-------------|--------------|
| <i>A. flavus</i> A 2057 | 88 | 194 | 200 |
| <i>A. flavus</i> A 2082 | 142 | 219 | 223 |
| <i>A. flavus</i> A 2092 | 127 | 229 | 238 |
| <i>A. flavus</i> A 2097 | 120 | 205 | 220 |
| <i>F. verticillioides</i> 1744 | 137 | 190 | 203 |

449

450

451 Figure 1

452



453

454 Figure 2

455

| | 0.87 | | | 0.90 | | | 0.93 | | | 0.95 | | | 0.98 | | |
|----------------------------------|------|----|----|------|----|----|------|----|-----|------|----|-----|------|-----|-----|
| | C | A | FA | C | A | FA | C | A | FA | C | A | FA | C | A | FA |
| <i>A. flavus</i> (A 2057) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 20°C | 30 | 30 | | 20 | | | 50 | 40 | | 80 | 50 | | 100 | 60 | 30 |
| 25°C | 70 | 50 | | 20 | 10 | | 80 | 30 | | 90 | 50 | | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| 30°C | 90 | 70 | 30 | 50 | | | 80 | 50 | 30 | 90 | 60 | 70 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| <i>A. flavus</i> (A 2082) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 20°C | 50 | 40 | | 40 | 10 | | 60 | 20 | | 80 | 50 | | 100 | 90 | 70 |
| 25°C | 70 | 50 | 30 | 40 | 10 | | 90 | 50 | | 100 | 80 | 30 | 100 | 90 | 100 |
| 30°C | 100 | 80 | 30 | 40 | 10 | | 90 | 50 | 100 | 100 | 60 | 70 | 100 | 90 | 100 |
| <i>A. flavus</i> (A 2092) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 20°C | 10 | 30 | | 20 | 30 | 30 | 50 | 20 | 30 | 80 | 30 | | 90 | 100 | 70 |
| 25°C | 90 | 70 | 70 | 90 | 70 | 70 | 60 | 50 | | 80 | 40 | | 100 | 60 | 30 |
| 30°C | 100 | 80 | 70 | 100 | 70 | 70 | 80 | 50 | 100 | 80 | 70 | 100 | 80 | 100 | 100 |
| <i>A. flavus</i> (A 2097) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 20°C | | 10 | | 10 | 30 | | 30 | 10 | | 50 | 10 | | 90 | 80 | |
| 25°C | 90 | 70 | 30 | 90 | 70 | 70 | 80 | 50 | | 70 | 40 | | 100 | 60 | |
| 30°C | 100 | 70 | 30 | 90 | 60 | 30 | 90 | 50 | 70 | 90 | 80 | | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| <i>F. verticillioides</i> (1744) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 20°C | 20 | | | 80 | 70 | | 70 | 80 | 70 | 90 | 90 | | 100 | 70 | 100 |
| 25°C | 50 | 30 | 30 | 70 | 70 | | 70 | 70 | | 90 | 90 | | 70 | 90 | |
| 30°C | 60 | 40 | | 80 | 50 | 70 | 10 | 10 | | 10 | 10 | 30 | 30 | 50 | 30 |

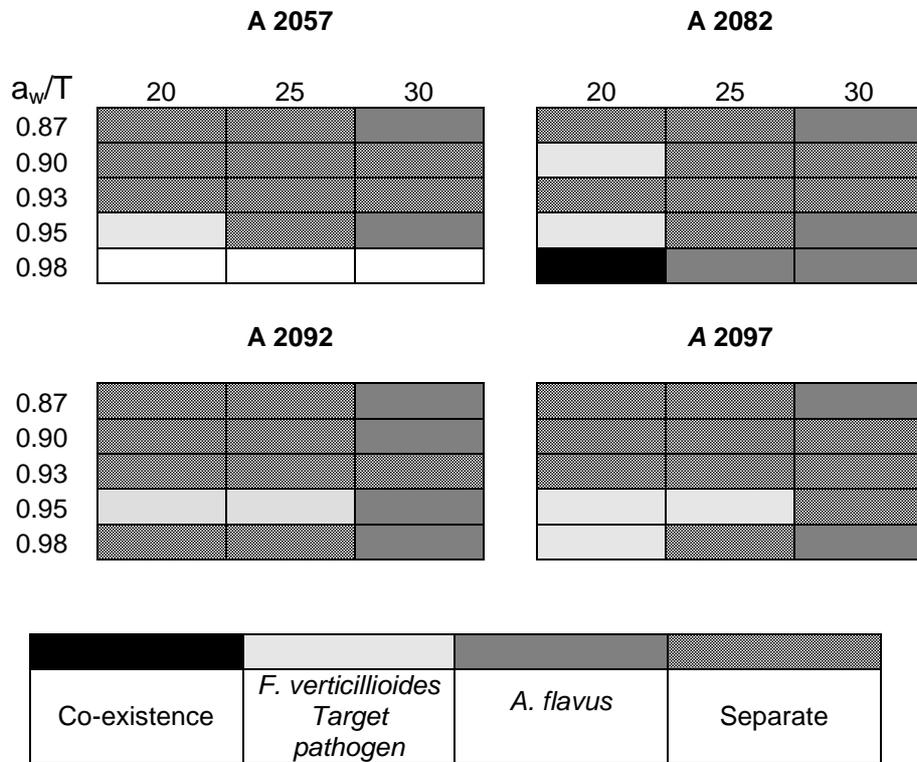
 no growth observed

456

457

458 Figure 3

459



460

461

462

463 Figure 4

464

A 2057 vs A 2082

| | 20 | 25 | 30 |
|------|----|----|----|
| 0.87 | | | |
| 0.90 | | | |
| 0.93 | | | |
| 0.95 | | | |
| 0.98 | | | |

A 2092 vs A 2082

| | 20 | 25 | 30 |
|------|----|----|----|
| 0.87 | | | |
| 0.90 | | | |
| 0.93 | | | |
| 0.95 | | | |
| 0.98 | | | |

A 2057 vs 2097

| | 20 | 25 | 30 |
|------|----|----|----|
| 0.87 | | | |
| 0.90 | | | |
| 0.93 | | | |
| 0.95 | | | |
| 0.98 | | | |

A 2092 vs A 2097

| | 20 | 25 | 30 |
|------|----|----|----|
| 0.87 | | | |
| 0.90 | | | |
| 0.93 | | | |
| 0.95 | | | |
| 0.98 | | | |

465

466

467

Environmental factors modify carbon nutritional patterns and niche overlap between *Aspergillus flavus* and *Fusarium verticillioides* strains from maize.

Giorni, Paola

2009-04-15

Paola Giorni, Naresh Magan, Paola Battilani, Environmental factors modify carbon nutritional patterns and niche overlap between *Aspergillus flavus* and *Fusarium verticillioides* strains from maize, *International Journal of Food Microbiology*, Volume 130, Issue 3, 15 April 2009, Pages 213-218
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2009.01.032>

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