

1 **Mycotoxin risks under a climate change scenario in Europe**

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6 **Abstract**

7 As determined by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, warming of the climate system
8 is unequivocal and has been associated with rising sea levels, diminished amounts of ice and snow
9 and increasing oceanic and atmospheric temperatures. Such climate changes have a significant
10 impact on stages and rates of toxigenic fungi development and can modify host-resistance and host-
11 pathogen interactions, influencing deeply also the conditions for mycotoxin production that vary for
12 each individual pathogen. Moreover, the new combinations mycotoxins/host plants/geographical
13 areas are arising to the attention of the scientific community and require new diagnostic tools and
14 deeper knowledge of both biology and genetics of toxigenic fungi. In this review, it is underlined
15 that an extension of the aflatoxin contamination risk in maize in South and Central-Europe is highly
16 likely in the next 30 years, due to favorable climatic conditions to the growth of *Aspergillus flavus*.
17 Moreover, the mycotoxigenic *Fusarium* species profile on wheat in Europe is in continuous change
18 in Northern, Central and Southern-Europe with, in particular, a worrisome growing contamination
19 of *F. graminearum* in the Central and Northern Europe.

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21 **Keywords:** Food safety, *Aspergillus flavus*, aflatoxin B₁, *Fusarium graminearum*, deoxynivalenol

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23 **1. Introduction**

24 Among the emerging issues in food safety, the increase of plant diseases associated to the
25 occurrence of toxigenic fungal species and their secondary metabolites is of major importance.
26 These fungi can synthesize hundreds of different secondary metabolites, including mycotoxins, low
27 molecular weight toxic compounds, that pose a serious risk to human and animal health worldwide.
28 Cereals are often the most severely affected crops, and because they are a staple food for a large
29 portion of humanity, mycotoxins are the most prevalent food-related health risk in field crops.
30 Worldwide scientific and economic focus on mycotoxins also results from the significant economic
31 losses associated with their negative impact on human health, animal productivity, and international
32 trade (Windel, 2000; Wu, 2015).

33 The mycotoxins of greatest concern to food and feed safety are produced by several fungal genera
34 of filamentous fungi, among which, primarily, *Aspergillus*, *Fusarium* and *Penicillium*, that include
35 several species producing the most important ones worldwide: aflatoxins, fumonisins, ochratoxins,
36 trichothecenes, and zearalenone (Marasas, Gelderblom, Shephard, & Vismer, 2008).. These fungi
37 colonize a large variety of crop species and can adapt to a wide range of environmental conditions.
38 Knowledge of environmental factors which affect the ability of fungi to grow, survive, and interact
39 with plants is important in order to better understand the variation in the population structures of
40 mycotoxigenic fungi, their interactions with crop plants, and their ability to produce mycotoxins.
41 Because climate can profoundly affect growth, distribution, and mycotoxin production in fungi,
42 climate change has the potential to increase the risks that mycotoxigenic fungi pose to food and feed
43 safety (Medina, Gonzalez-Jartin, & Sainz, 2017). The appearance of new mycotoxin-commodity
44 combinations is of further concern and provides evidence for the emergence of new fungal
45 genotypes with higher levels of aggressiveness and altered mycotoxin production.

46

47 **2. Climate change and the risk of aflatoxin and *Aspergillus* contamination in Europe**

48 Aflatoxins (AFs) are potent carcinogens which include four major structural analogues: AFB1,
49 AFB2, AFG1, and AFG2. The International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) has classified
50 AFB1 as a Group 1 carcinogens, i.e. carcinogenic to humans (IARC, 1993). In addition to
51 hepatocellular carcinoma, aflatoxins are associated with occasional outbreaks of acute aflatoxicoses
52 which lead to death shortly after exposure (Azziz-Baumgartner, Lindblade, & Giesecker, 2005).
53 Aflatoxins are produced in diverse agricultural products by several species of *Aspergillus*, but the
54 two species of greatest concern are *A. flavus* and *A. parasiticus* (Marasas, Gelderblom, Shephard, &
55 Vismer, 2008). Aflatoxin outbreaks are most severe in tropical and subtropical areas around the
56 world, with temperate regions, such as the United States Midwest, also subject to aflatoxin
57 contamination. Until 2004, the European perspective regarding aflatoxin contamination was
58 confined only to imported foods. Several surveys conducted to detect AFs in feed samples in
59 Europe led to only a small percentage of materials contaminated, with AFB1 concentrations above
60 the regulatory limit (European Food Safety Authority, 2004). However, a big survey conducted by
61 the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA) established the emerging issue of potential aflatoxin
62 contamination of corn, almonds, and pistachios grown in areas of southern Europe due to the
63 subtropical climate which had occurred in the recent years (European Food Safety Authority, 2007).
64 A shift in traditional occurrence areas for aflatoxins is therefore to be expected due to the increasing
65 average temperatures. In this respect, the Mediterranean zones have been identified as a climate
66 change hotspot where extreme changes in temperature, CO₂ levels, and rainfall patterns are
67 predicted. Regarding aflatoxins, their contamination events are more prevalent during times of high
68 heat and drought, which may stress the host plant and thereby facilitate *A. flavus* infection (Marasas,
69 Gelderblom, Shephard, & Vismer, 2008).

70 In the last 15 years several hot and dry seasons led to severe *A. flavus* infections of maize in several
71 countries in Europe, including Italy, Romania, Serbia and Spain. As a result of the very dry
72 conditions in those years, *A. flavus* became a significant problem as a dominant pathogen in maize
73 (Battilani, Toscano, Van der Fels-Klerx, Moretti, Camardo Leggieri, M., et al., 2016). Battilani,

74 Toscano, Van der Fels-Klerx, Moretti, Camardo Leggieri, M., et al. (2016) investigated the
75 possibility of the emergence of aflatoxin B1 in cereals in the EU due to climate change. Based on
76 the predictive model developed for *A. flavus* growth and AFB1 production linked to crop phenology
77 data, the risk of aflatoxin contamination was assessed to have a chance of increasing in maize in the
78 future, due to the climate change trend. In the +2 °C climate change scenario there is a clear
79 increase in aflatoxin risk in areas such as central and southern Spain, the south of Italy, Greece,
80 northern and southeastern Portugal, Bulgaria, Albania, Cyprus, and European Turkey as compared
81 to the actual current temperature. In addition to the high aflatoxin risk in these southern European
82 countries, low and medium aflatoxin risk at harvest in the four main maize producing countries
83 (Romania, France, Hungary, and northeast Italy) was predicted. It will be therefore more important
84 across Europe each year to: (1) improve harmonization of surveillance and monitoring of aflatoxins;
85 (2) improve databases on the geographical distribution and prevention methods for aflatoxins; (3)
86 develop models for the prediction of aflatoxin contamination in the new bio-geographical
87 agricultural scenarios.

88

89 **3. Fusarium head blight (FHB) of cereals: impact of climate change on the *Fusarium* species** 90 **profile and deoxynivalenol contamination.**

91 The fungal genus *Fusarium* consists of over 90 described species and likely many additional as yet
92 undescribed but phylogenetically distinct species (Leslie & Summerell, 2006). Many of these
93 species are plant pathogens and produce a range of mycotoxins, the most agriculturally important
94 being trichothecenes on wheat and fumonisins on maize (Desjardins, 2006). They can be toxic also
95 to plants and contribute to the pathogenesis of *Fusarium* on some crops (Desjardins, 2006). The
96 trichothecenes of greatest concern are T-2 and HT-2 toxins, and deoxynivalenol (DON), nivalenol
97 (NIV), and their acetyl-derivatives (Desjardins, 2006).

98 Fusarium Head Blight (FHB), caused by a complex of *Fusarium* species, is one of the most
99 important fungal diseases associated with wheat and several other minor cereals. The effects of

100 FHB are related to yield and quality reduction of the infected kernels, due to the accumulation in the
101 raw grain and in the processed wheat products of mycotoxins, especially DON, produced mainly by
102 *F. graminearum* and *F. culmorum* (Desjardins, 2006). Levels of *Fusarium* mycotoxins in wheat
103 kernels are positively correlated to FHB disease incidence and severity, as reported by several
104 authors (Wenda-Piesik, Lemanczyk, Twaruzek, et al. 2017; Nielsen, Jensen, Nielsen et al., 2011;
105 van der Fels-Klerx, de Rijk, Booij, et al., 2012).

106 Although agricultural practices play a key role in the prevalence of FHB pathogens, the
107 predominance of *F. graminearum* or *F. culmorum* is determined, to a greater extent, by climatic
108 factors, particularly temperature and moisture (Xu, Nicholson, Thomsett, Simpson, Cooke, et al.,
109 2008), and can therefore dramatically change in different geographical areas. In particular, Europe,
110 which is characterized by a wide range of climatic conditions from the southern (Mediterranean
111 countries) to central and northern regions, shows dramatic differences in the species composition
112 associated with FHB (Logrieco & Moretti, 2008). The species differ in their climatic distribution
113 and in the optimum climatic conditions they require (Xu, Nicholson, Thomsett, Simpson, Cooke, et
114 al., 2008). While *F. graminearum* is the main DON producer in central and southern Europe, in
115 Nordic areas, *F. culmorum* has been reported as dominant, being common on cereal roots, stem
116 base, and heads in all Scandinavian countries, including Finland (Logrieco & Moretti, 2008).

117 However, a decline in the presence of *F. culmorum* and an increase in *F. graminearum* have been
118 reported in the last decade in some areas of central and northern Europe (Nielsen LK, Jensen JD, &
119 Nielsen GC, 2011). In the cooler, maritime climate of Britain and the Netherlands, the most
120 common species involved in FHB in cereal grains was *F. culmorum*. However, at the beginning of
121 2000, *F. graminearum* became the most abundant *Fusarium* species on wheat in the Netherlands; a
122 significant change in the situation had occurred compared with the early 1990s when *F. culmorum*
123 was the dominating species in wheat (Logrieco, & Moretti, 2008). The same was observed in the
124 UK, where *F. graminearum* has increased on wheat, while the previously common *F. culmorum* has
125 become less important (Edwards, 2009). Moreover, also in the cooler temperate climates of Europe

126 areas such as Germany, where *F. culmorum* used to be the prevalent species, *F. graminearum* has
127 become the dominant species in the last decade, because the higher temperatures favor its
128 dominance in the FHB complex (Miedaner, Cumagun, & Chakraborty, 2008). Also, a significant
129 increase in the frequency of *F. graminearum* was observed during the last decade in all regions of
130 Poland, including the northern areas, as reported by Stępień & Chelkowski (2008). In general, FHB
131 incidence is low or absent in the most southern regions of Italy and Spain; however, in the more
132 northern regions of Italy, Spain, and Portugal, southern France, and the whole Balkan Peninsula, *F.*
133 *graminearum* is reported to occur frequently on cereals at maturity, together with DON (Logrieco,
134 & Moretti, 2008).

135 Several reports have tried to comprehend the possible shifting of *Fusarium* species involved in FHB
136 in different geographic areas according to future environmental scenarios. The North European
137 climate is predicted to become milder and more humid towards 2050 (Parikka, Hakala, &
138 Tiilikkala, 2010). The subsequent climate change effects will therefore lead to a slight shift in
139 composition of *Fusarium* flora in cereal grains, that would benefit *F. graminearum* (Parikka,
140 Hakala, & Tiilikkala, 2010). On the other hand, Madgwick, West, & White (2011) studied the
141 impact of climate change on wheat anthesis date concluding that FHB epidemics will be more
142 severe, especially in southern England, because of an increase of *F. gramineraum* and the
143 associated DON. A further study from the Netherlands evaluated the climate change effects
144 projected by 2040. The study, revealed that the enhancing of wheat flowering and full maturation
145 by 1-2 weeks in most of north western Europe could result in an increase of DON contamination, up
146 to a factor of three, with an estimation of a mean DON concentration in the future scenario
147 exceeding the EC limit of 1250 $\mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$ for the presence of DON in unprocessed wheat in the whole
148 area (van der Fels-Klerx, van Asselt, Madsen, & Olesen 2013). As comparison, is interesting to
149 notice that a relevant study in China, carried out by Zhang, Halder, & White (2014), investigated
150 the impacts on FHB on wheat in Central China, due to climate change, for the period 2020–2050.
151 The study conclusions were that climate changes will increase the risk of serious FHB epidemics on

152 winter wheat in central China by the middle of this century, with dramatic implications for food
153 security due mainly to the high level of DON accumulation in the kernels.

154 In general, the information obtained from all investigations on the impacts of climate change on
155 FHB should allow the definition of strategies for both governments and industry for reduction of the
156 risk related to the more favorable conditions for FHB and mycotoxin contamination of grains. New
157 wheat cultivars with higher tolerance and more effective fungicide treatments to control *Fusarium*
158 species which cause FHB should be considered. Since both strategies could require many years to
159 become effective, it is important to begin adapting to the impacts of climate change on crop disease
160 soon. Such strategies for adaptation to impacts of climate change on FHB will contribute to
161 sustainable wheat production and improved food safety and security.

162

163 **4. Conclusions**

164 The impact of climate change on *Aspergillus* infection of crops and FHB disease could result in a
165 dramatic increase of both phenomena worldwide, with higher food safety risks for human and
166 animals due to high levels of AFs and DON contamination in the end products. Moreover, the deep
167 profile modifications of toxigenic *Fusarium* species occurring on kernels at maturity in different
168 geographical areas of the world will cause the development of new mycotoxin risks in specific
169 regions, due to the changed ability of given *Fusarium* species to colonize new environments. This
170 will require a deeper knowledge of toxigenic *Fusarium* species genetic variability for a better
171 understanding of the genetic mechanisms used for mycotoxin production, in order to have suitable
172 strategic solutions for disease management.

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