



Efficacy of the antifungal metabolites of *Streptomyces philanthi* RL-1-178 on aflatoxin degradation with its application to prevent aflatoxigenic fungi in stored maize grains and identification of the bioactive compound

Sawai Boukaew¹ · Poonsuk Prasertsan² · Pawika Mahasawat³ · Teerayut Sriyatep⁴ · Wanida Petlamul¹

Received: 27 September 2022 / Accepted: 15 November 2022
© The Author(s), under exclusive licence to Springer Nature B.V. 2022

Abstract

Aflatoxin B₁ is a potent carcinogen produced by *Aspergillus flavus* (*A. flavus*) and *Aspergillus parasiticus* (*A. parasiticus*), mainly during grain storage. The efficacy of the freeze-dried culture filtrate of *Streptomyces philanthi* (*S. philanthi*) strain RL-1-178 (DCF) on degradation of aflatoxin B₁ (AFB₁) were evaluated and its bioactive compounds were identified. The DCF at a concentration of 9.0% (w/v) completely inhibited growth and AFB₁ production of *A. parasiticus* TISTR 3276 and *A. flavus* PSRDC-4 after 7 days tested in yeast-extract sucrose (YES) medium and on stored maize grains after 28 and 14 days incubation, respectively. This indicated the more tolerance of *A. parasiticus* over *A. flavus*. The DCF and bacterial cells of *S. philanthi* were capable to degrade AFB₁ by 85.0% and 100% for 72 h and 8 days, respectively. This confirmed the higher efficacy of the DCF over the cells. After separation of the DCF on thin-layer chromatography (TLC) plate by bioautography bioassay, each active band was identified by liquid chromatography—quadrupole time of flight mass spectrometer (LC-Q-TOF MS/MS). The results revealed two compounds which were identified as azithromycin and an unknown based on mass ions of both ESI⁺ and ESI[−] modes. The antifungal metabolites in the culture filtrate of *S. philanthi* were proved to degrade aflatoxin B₁. It could be concluded that the DCF may be applied to prevent the growth of the two aflatoxin-producing fungi as well as the occurrence of aflatoxin in the stored maize grains.

Keywords Aflatoxin B₁ · *Streptomyces philanthi* · Maize grains · AFB₁ degradation · Antifungal compounds

Introduction

The colonization of maize grains by *Aspergillus flavus* (*A. flavus*) and *Aspergillus parasiticus* (*A. parasiticus*) (Link ex Fr. and Speare, respectively; teleomorphs: *Petromyces*

flavus and *P. parasiticus*) (Fountain et al. 2014, 2015; Okun et al. 2015; García-Díaz et al. 2020) results in contamination of their derived feed, and food products with aflatoxins (AFs) (Diener et al. 1987). Aflatoxin B₁ (AFB₁) is known as the most toxic aflatoxin, and several studies have demonstrated its hepatotoxic, carcinogenic, and mutagenic effects on human and animals (Guengerich et al. 1996; Hussein and Brasel 2001; Farzaneh et al. 2012; Afsharmanesh et al. 2018).

During the last decades, several studies have been dedicated to physical and chemical strategies for the reduction of AFs in crops, foods and feeds (Kabak et al. 2006; Afsharmanesh et al. 2018; Sipos et al. 2021; Nji et al. 2022). Nevertheless, none of these strategies completely fulfils the necessary efficacy, safety and cost requirements (Mishra and Das 2003; Zhao et al. 2011). These disadvantages encouraged a recent emphasis on the biological degradation of aflatoxins. Biodegradation of aflatoxins using microorganisms,

✉ Sawai Boukaew
sawai.bo@skru.ac.th

¹ College of Innovation and Management, Songkhla Rajabhat University, Songkhla 90000, Thailand

² Research and Development Office, Prince of Songkla University, Songkhla 90112, Thailand

³ Programme in Biology and Applied Biology, Faculty of Science and Technology, Songkhla Rajabhat University, Songkhla 90000, Thailand

⁴ Programme in Chemistry, Faculty of Science and Technology, Songkhla Rajabhat University, Songkhla 90000, Thailand

is one of the environmentally friendly strategies to reduce or eliminate the possible contaminations of AFs in foods and feeds (Farzaneh et al. 2012; Sangare et al. 2014; Afsharmanesh et al. 2018). There are two key directions in control of aflatoxin contamination: preventing the growth of toxigenic aflatoxin-producing fungi, namely prevention and if contamination occurs, then detoxify aflatoxin-contaminated commodities by removing the toxic compounds (Xia et al. 2017; Shu et al. 2018). Over the past decades, some bacterial species have been known to degrade aflatoxin, which include *Nocardia corynebacterioides* (Ciegler et al. 1966; Hormisch et al. 2004), *Rhodococcus erythropolis* (*R. erythropolis*), *Mycobacterium fluoranthenorans* (Teniola et al. 2005), *Bacillus licheniformis* (*B. licheniformis*) (Petchkongkaew et al. 2008; Rao et al. 2017), *Bacillus subtilis* (*B. subtilis*) (Petchkongkaew et al. 2008; Gao et al. 2011; Farzaneh et al. 2012; Siahmoshteh et al. 2017; Xia et al. 2017; Afsharmanesh et al. 2018; Wang et al. 2019; Suresh et al. 2020), *Bacillus velezensis* (*B. velezensis*) (Shu et al. 2018; Wang et al. 2021), *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* (Siahmoshteh et al. 2017), *Bacillus megaterium* (*B. megaterium*) (Wang et al. 2021), *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (Sangare et al. 2014). In addition, some *Streptomyces* sp. strains also appeared as valuable candidates for controlling filamentous fungal growth and inhibiting mycotoxin production (Harkai et al. 2016; Campos-Avelar et al. 2021). The development of efficient antifungal microbial agents could be an alternative method to control the fungi.

Actinobacteria present an interesting, natural, and cost-effective alternative for the effective biodegradation of AFs (Oliveira et al. 2013). Many species of actinomycetes, particularly those belonging to the genus *Streptomyces* are largely researched for their ability to produce numerous molecules of interest, namely, antibiotics (Igarashi et al. 2005; Quinn et al. 2020), antifungal compounds (Boukaew et al. 2017, 2020a, 2020b, 2021; Chen et al. 2016; Li et al. 2011; Shakeel et al. 2016), and hydrolytic enzymes (glucanase, chitinase) (Prapagdee et al. 2008; Boukaew et al. 2016; Vaz-Jauri et al. 2016), which provide them with strong antagonistic capacities against fungal development. The impact of *Streptomyces* sp. on toxigenic aflatoxin-producing fungi growth has already been assessed, in addition to their ability to degrade AFB₁ (Verheecke et al. 2014; Harkai et al. 2016; Campos-Avelar et al. 2021) and to inhibit its production. Indeed, some *Streptomyces* strains produce aflastatin A, blasticidin A, and diocatin A, three molecules that inhibit the AFs biosynthetic pathway (Sakuda et al. 1996; Sakuda 2010). In addition, a *Streptomyces roseolus* strain was found to reduce AFB₁ production by inhibiting aflatoxin gene cluster expression in *A. flavus* (Caceres et al. 2018). *Streptomyces* isolates IX45 can effectively restrict the growth of *A. flavus* growth and remove AFB₁ production with 31% as previously described by Campos-Avelar et al. (2021),

while 88.34% AFB₁ degradation by cell-free supernatant of *S. cacaoi* sub sp. *asoensis* K234 was also observed by Harkai et al. (2016). In our previous studies, the antifungal compounds produced in tuna condensate waste medium of the strain *Streptomyces philanthi* (*S. philanthi*) showed high efficacy to inhibit mycelial growth and AFB₁ production of *A. flavus* and *A. parasiticus* (Boukaew et al. 2020b, c), however, the aflatoxin B₁ degradation was not investigated. As a consequence, the efficacy of antifungal metabolites of *S. philanthi* RL-1-178 on AFB₁ degradation will be investigated in this study.

The objectives of the present study were to (i) investigate the efficacy of antifungal compounds produced by *S. philanthi* on growth and aflatoxin B₁ production of the two aflatoxin-producing fungi, (ii) to evaluate the efficacy of antifungal compounds of *S. philanthi* as potential biocontrol agents of maize grain pathogenic fungi, (iii) to evaluate degradation efficiency of antifungal compounds and *S. philanthi* on AFB₁ and (iv) to identify the active compound responsible for antifungal activity.

Materials and methods

Microorganisms and preparation of freeze-dried culture filtrate

The antagonistic strain *S. philanthi* RL-1-178 was previously isolated from the rhizosphere of chili pepper in southern Thailand (Boukaew et al. 2011). The culture filtrate of *S. philanthi* RL-1-178 was prepared by inoculating 10% (v/v) aliquots of the seed culture into 5 l bioreactor (New Brunswick™ BioFlo® 415 Sterilize-in-Place (SIP) Fermentor, Eppendorf North America) containing 4 l tuna condensate medium (pH was adjusted to 7.0 before autoclaving) and stirred (150 rpm) at 30 °C for 10 days (Boukaew et al. 2020c). Then, the culture broth was centrifuged (8880 × g for 20 min) and filtered through a 0.45 mm Millipore membrane. After that, the culture filtrate was freeze-dried by vacuum freeze-dryer at the Office of Scientific Instrument and Testing, Prince of Songkla University (PSU) to obtain the freeze-dried culture filtrate from *S. philanthi* RL-1-178 (called DCF).

Aflatoxigenic fungal strains and spore inoculum preparation

The *A. parasiticus* strain TISTR 3276 and *A. flavus* strain PSRDC-4 were previously found to be as high aflatoxin producers (Boukaew et al. 2020b,c). They were cultivated on potato dextrose agar (39 g l⁻¹; Difco Laboratory) at 30 °C. Spores were collected in 5 ml water from 10-day-old culture and counted using a hemacytometer. The inoculum was

prepared by dilution in sterilized distilled water to achieve the required concentration.

Efficacy of the DCF concentration against the two aflatoxigenic fungal strains

The efficacy of the DCF concentration against *A. parasiticus* TISTR 3276 and *A. flavus* PSRDC-4 was investigated. One gram of the DCF was dissolved in 10 ml of dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) and filtered through a 0.45 mm Millipore membrane. The DCF solution for each treatment (at 0.2, 0.4, 1.0, 2.0, 4.0, 5.0, 6.0, 7.0, 8.0, 9.0, and 10.0% (w/v)) were incorporated into melted sterile yeast-extract sucrose (YES) medium at a final concentration of 45 ml. DMSO added to YES medium at equivalent amounts was used as a control. Fifty μl of spore inoculum (10^5 spore mL^{-1}) of each aflatoxigenic fungal strain was transferred into each flask and incubated on a rotary shaker (150 rpm) at 30 °C for 7 days (Komala et al. 2012). After 7 days cultivation, the mycelial mats were washed (with sterile water) and dried at 80 °C until constant weight (Tolouee et al. 2010; Sangmanee and Hongpattarakere 2014). The inhibition of hyphal growth was calculated as: Percentage of inhibition = $\{[(\text{Control-treatment})/\text{Control}] \times 100\}$.

For aflatoxin B₁ production, samples after treatment were extracted with chloroform according to the Association of Official Analytical Chemists (Tosch et al. 1984) and AFB₁ concentration was determined as previously described by Boukaew et al. (2020c). For each treatment, three replicates were conducted. AFB₁ concentration was determined by indirect competitive ELISA (Enzyme-linked Immunosorbent assay) using a ScreenEZ® Aflatoxin ELISA test kit (Siam Inter Quality Co., Ltd., Thailand).

Evaluation of the DCF efficiency on growth and aflatoxin B₁ production of the two aflatoxigenic fungal strains in stored maize grains

The effect of the DCF on growth and aflatoxin B₁ production of the two aflatoxigenic fungal strains on stored maize grains was evaluated using the method as described by Afs-harmanesh et al. (2018). Briefly, the 500 g surface-sterilized maize grains were soaked in 200 ml of the DCF solution and dried in a laminar airflow for 30 min. After that, the 10 ml of a spore suspension at 1×10^5 spores mL^{-1} of each aflatoxigenic fungal strain was aseptically placed in a sterile plastic bag containing 500 g grains and the whole mixed gently for 2 min (modified from Krusong et al. 2015). DMSO was served as a control. The aflatoxigenic fungi inoculated maize grains (AFIMG) samples were then stored at room temperature for 30 days and examined for evidence of the two aflatoxigenic fungal growth after spreading on PDA plates and incubation at 30 °C. Each treatment included

three replicates. Aflatoxin estimation following each treatment was carried out at the same time. Extraction of aflatoxin from AFIMG employed a modification of the method described by Sidhu et al. (2009). The AFB₁ production was determined as described above.

AFB₁ degradation by the DCF and bacterial cells of *S. philanthi*

AFB₁ degradation by the DCF

The effect of the DCF solution at a concentration of 10% (w/v) was tested on commercial AFB₁ (Siam Inter Quality Co., Ltd., Thailand) degradation in 2-ml-Eppendorftubes a final volume of 1.0 ml according to the method of Teniola et al. (2005) with some modification. Briefly, 50 μl stock solution of AFB₁ (an initial AFB₁-concentration of 40.0 ppb) was added in 950 μl DCF solution. The mixture was incubated in the dark at 30 °C without shaking for 0, 12, 24, 36, 48, 60, 72, 84, and 96 h. DMSO plus AFB₁ served as a control. Samples after treatment were extracted with chloroform according to the Association of Official Analytical Chemists (Tosch et al. 1984) and AFB₁ concentration was determined by indirect competitive ELISA (Enzyme-linked Immunosorbent assay) using a ScreenEZ® Aflatoxin ELISA test kit (Siam Inter Quality Co., Ltd., Thailand), as described in details by Boukaew et al. (2020c). The absorbance at 450 nm (OD_{450}) was measured, using a microplate reader (M965 + MetertechInc., Taiwan). The AFB₁ concentration was estimated from OD_{450} using a Stat Fax Reader Model 321. Each treatment included three replicates. The percent degradation = $\{[(\text{Control-treatment})/\text{Control}] \times 100\}$ (Branà et al. 2017) where the control was the concentration of AFB₁ in the treatment with DMSO and treatment was the concentration of AFB₁ treated with DCF solution.

AFB₁ degradation by bacterial cells of *S. philanthi*

AFB₁ degradation ability of bacterial cells of *S. philanthi* was tested in a test tube with a final volume of 5.0 ml according to the method of Sangare et al. (2014) with some modification. Briefly, 100 μl of a spore suspension at 1×10^7 spores mL^{-1} of *S. philanthi* was transferred to sterilized tuna condensate medium and then added with 50 μl stock solution of AFB₁ (an initial AFB₁-concentration of 40.0 ppb). The detoxification test was conducted at 30°C for 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10 days. After incubation, the cells were removed by centrifugation ($8880 \times g$ for 20 min). Sterilized tuna condensate medium was used to substitute microbial culture in the control. Samples were extracted with chloroform according to the Association of Official Analytical Chemists after treatment (Tosch et al. 1984) and AFB₁ degradation analysis was performed as described above. Each

treatment included three replicates. The percentage of AFB₁ degradation was calculated as described above.

Separation of bioactive metabolites from the DCF and testing for its efficacy against the two aflatoxigenic fungal strains using bioautography assay and identification of antifungal DCF.

Separation of bioactive metabolites from the DCF

Separation of the bioactive metabolites from the DCF solution was carried out using thin-layer chromatography (TLC) on silica gel (60 RP-18 F254S, Merck, Germany; 2 × 5 cm), with absolute methanol as the mobile phase. After that, the TLC plate was left to dry at 30 °C and sprayed with cerium sulphate (1.0%) and dried at 110 °C. The bioactive metabolite fractions were finally separated, using a bioautography assay. TLC plates were prepared in duplicate, one plate was used for bioautography assay and the other was kept for comparison.

Bioautography assay

Organic compounds, separated by TLC, were evaluated for antifungal properties. First, the TLC plate was sterilized under a UV lamp for 20 min and then placed in a PDA Petri dish, using sterile forceps. Next, it was covered by 4.0 ml of molten PDA (45 °C), containing 100 µl of spore inoculum (10⁶ spore ml⁻¹) of each aflatoxigenic fungal strain. The plate was incubated at 30 °C for 48 h and the inhibition caused by the active band was observed (Azish et al. 2021).

Identification of the antifungal compounds in the DCF

The active band on the TLC plate against the two aflatoxigenic fungal strains was identified by liquid chromatography–quadrupole time of flight mass spectrometer (LC-Q-TOF MS/MS). The TLC active band was scraped and dissolved in methanol plus water (1:1) and centrifuged (at 10,000 × g for 5 min), then filtered through a 0.2 µm nylon Millipore membrane to remove silica gel and debris. The UHPLC column (Zorbax Eclipse Plus C₁₈ Rapid Resolution HD 150 mm length × 2.1 mm inner-diameter, particle size 1.8 µm, Agilent) was used for the UHPLC analysis with a column temperature of 25 °C. The flow rate was 0.4 mL min⁻¹, and the mobile phase comprised 0.1% formic acid in H₂O (A) and 0.1% formic acid in acetonitrile (B). The gradient program for the mobile phase was set as follows: 0 min (A:B = 95:5), 2 min (A:B = 95:5), 40 min (A:B = 0:100), and 45 min (A:B = 0:100). The injection volume was 5 µl. The Q-TOF/MS was operated in positive and negative electrospray ionization (ESI) modes. The operating parameters were set as follows: cone voltage of 30 V, capillary voltage of 2 kV, and source temperature of 100 °C. Data were recorded in the

mass-to-charge (m/z) range of 50–1200 with a scan time of 0.25 s and an interscan time of 0.02 s for 45 min. In total, 2 LC–MS chromatograms in positive or negative modes were obtained from the active band on the TLC plate and compared by mass hunter METLIN metabolite PCD (Personal Compound Database) and PCDL (Personal Compound Database and Library) version 8.

Statistical analysis

All the experiments were done in replicates (n = 3), and the data were subjected to Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), (SPSS, version 21; IBM Corp, Armonk, NY). The mean values and their significant difference were compared using Tukey's HSD (Honestly Significant Difference) test at $P < 0.05$.

Results

Efficacy of the DCF concentrations against the two aflatoxigenic fungal strains

The results showed that the inhibition on growth and AFB₁ production of the two aflatoxigenic fungal strains grown in the YES medium was related to the DCF concentrations (Table 1). AFB₁ production of *A. flavus* PSRDC-4 was 3.2 fold higher than that of *A. parasiticus* TISTR 3276 in the control (1352.18 and 423.12 ppb, respectively). By increasing the DCF concentrations from 0.2 to 7.0% (w/v), the AFB₁ production in both fungal strains was decreased up to 96.7% (from 1283.88 to 42.10 ppb) and 85.9% (from 397.52 to 56.18 ppb), respectively. In addition, the growth inhibition in both *A. flavus* PSRDC-4 and *A. parasiticus* TISTR 3276 was significantly increased from 8.23% to 93.78%, and 17.25% to 94.32%, respectively. Growth and AFB₁ production of the two fungal strains was completely inhibited (100%) at the 9.0% (w/v) DCF concentration.

Evaluation of the DCF efficacy on the growth and aflatoxin B₁ production of the two studied fungal strains in stored maize grains

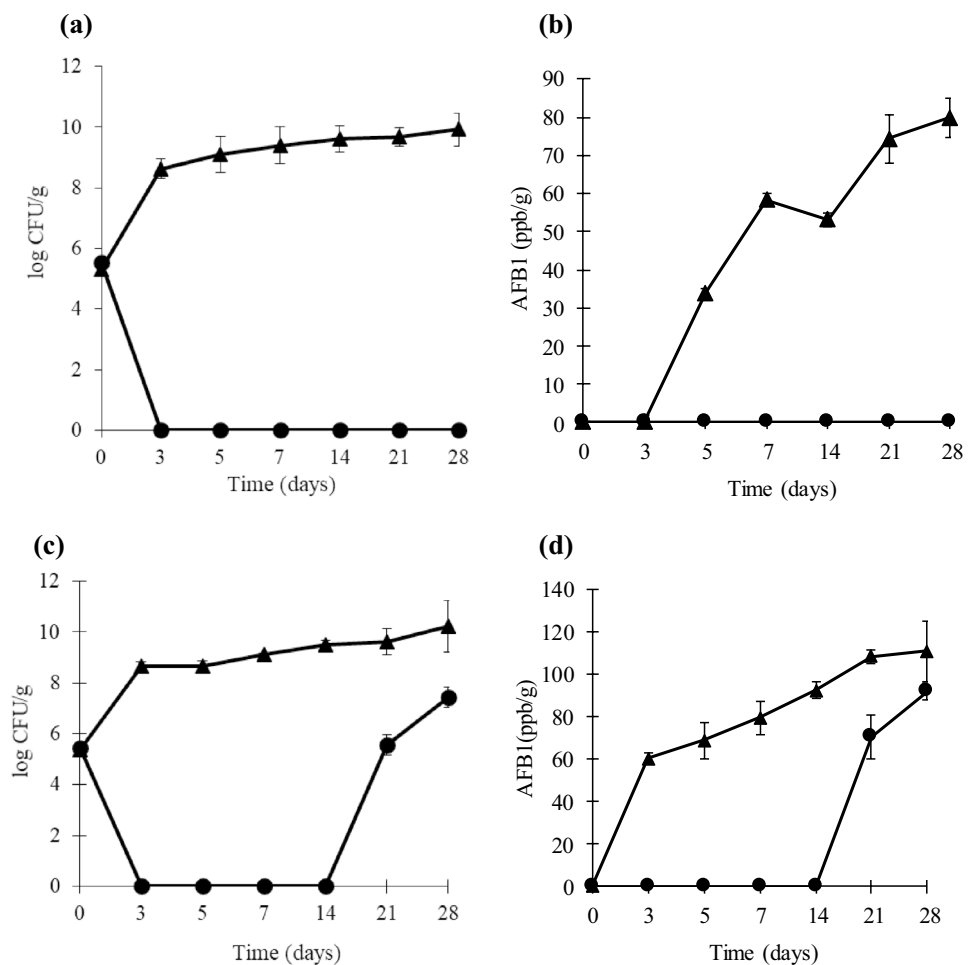
The capability of the DCF to inhibit growth and AFB₁ production of the fungal strains during 28 days incubation is shown in Fig. 1. The abundant mold growth of *A. parasiticus* TISTR 3276 and *A. flavus* PSRDC-4 occurred on the control seeds in the stored maize grains but no growth occurred on the seeds treated with the DCF for 28 days of *A. parasiticus* TISTR 3276 (Fig. 1a) and 14 days of *A. flavus* PSRDC-4 (Fig. 1c). The complete inhibition of AFB₁ production on the maize grains was achieved over 28 days of *A. parasiticus*

Table 1 Effect of the DCF RL-1-178 concentrations of *S. philanthi* RL-1-178 cultivated in tuna condensate medium on the growth and aflatoxin production of *A. parasiticus* TISTR 3276 and *A. flavus* PSRDC-4 in yeast-extract sucrose (YES) broth and incubated at 30 °C for 7 days

Amount of DCF RL-1-178 solution (v/v)/45 ml YES	<i>A. parasiticus</i> TISTR 3276		<i>A. flavus</i> PSRDC-4	
	Mean of percentage mycelial inhibition \pm SD	AFB ₁ (ppb) production	Mean of percentage mycelial inhibition \pm SD	AFB ₁ (ppb) production
0 (Control)		423.12 \pm 83.91 ^a		1352.18 \pm 121.18 ^a
0.2	17.25 \pm 1.24 ⁱ	397.52 \pm 57.63 ^b	8.23 \pm 1.50 ⁱ	1283.88 \pm 101.25 ^b
0.4	21.88 \pm 1.52 ^h	312.18 \pm 11.29 ^c	16.57 \pm 2.54 ^h	779.56 \pm 55.68 ^c
1.0	38.31 \pm 3.10 ^g	224.89 \pm 18.16 ^d	33.82 \pm 2.37 ^g	413.15 \pm 45.20 ^d
2.0	55.00 \pm 0.54 ^f	193.08 \pm 9.07 ^e	51.42 \pm 0.50 ^f	295.20 \pm 13.97 ^e
4.0	74.62 \pm 3.42 ^e	161.73 \pm 16.17 ^f	78.67 \pm 1.25 ^e	128.87 \pm 21.48 ^f
5.0	79.80 \pm 5.16 ^d	147.45 \pm 36.21 ^f	85.57 \pm 2.95 ^d	98.89 \pm 32.48 ^{fg}
6.0	87.12 \pm 7.87 ^c	106.63 \pm 18.05 ^g	90.18 \pm 3.45 ^c	69.70 \pm 18.21 ^{gh}
7.0	94.32 \pm 3.12 ^b	56.18 \pm 9.12 ^h	93.78 \pm 8.26 ^b	42.10 \pm 9.62 ^{hi}
8.0	98.89 \pm 4.30 ^a	13.19 \pm 2.13 ⁱ	96.43 \pm 1.57 ^b	15.78 \pm 3.68 ^{jk}
9.0	100.00 \pm 0.00 ^a	0.00 \pm 0.00 ⁱ	100.00 \pm 0.00 ^a	0.00 \pm 0.00 ^k
10.0	100.00 \pm 0.00 ^a	0.00 \pm 0.00 ⁱ	100.00 \pm 0.00 ^a	0.00 \pm 0.00 ^k

The values are means of three replicates and their standard deviation. Values followed by same letter within each column are not significantly different (ANOVA, $P < 0.05$; Tukey's HSD)

Fig. 1 Efficacy of the DCF RL-1-178 on growth and AFB₁ production of **a, b** *A. parasiticus* TISTR 3276 and **c, d** *A. flavus* PSRDC-4 on stored maize seeds. The values are means of three replicates and their standard deviation



TISTR 3276 (Fig. 1b) and 14 days of *A. flavus* PSRDC-4 (Fig. 1d).

AFB₁ degradation by the DCF and bacterial cells of *S. philanthi* RL-1-178

The capability of the DCF and bacterial cells of *S. philanthi* RL-1-178 to degrade AFB₁ production was shown in Fig. 2. The DCF started to degrade the AFB₁ at 24 h (10.93%) and significantly increased at 60 h (71.86%) and reached the highest degradation at 72 h (85.0%) (Fig. 2a). The AFB₁ concentration in the control tested was rather constant throughout the incubation period.

The capability of bacterial cells of *S. philanthi* RL-1-178 to degrade AFB₁ was presented in Fig. 2b. The AFB₁ degradation was first observed after 2 days (48 h) incubation (31.80%) and continuously increased to 57.50%, 77.08% degradation at 3 and 4 days, respectively, then insignificantly increased (82% to 86.89%) during 5 to 7 days, respectively. The maximum degradation of AFB₁ (100%) was observed after 8 days incubation. There was no obvious change in the content of AFB₁ in the control throughout the incubation period.

Separation and identification of bioactive metabolites from the DCF and evaluation of their efficacy against the two fungal strains using a bioautography assay

The bioactive metabolites from the DCF solution was separated in TLC by methanol (Fig. 3). The silica gel chromatograms showed five bands with the R_f of 0.12, 0.20, 0.28, 0.39, and 0.78, respectively (Fig. 3a). The strong band with $R_f=0.78$ showed the antifungal activity against *A. parasiticus* TISTR 3276 (Fig. 3b) and *A. flavus* PSRDC-4 with

positive results appeared as the clear inhibition zones around the marked fractions on the TLC plate (Fig. 3c) using bioautography assay. Identification of the bioactive metabolites using LC-Q-TOF MS/MS exhibited two compounds known as azithromycin ($C_{38}H_{72}N_2O_{12}$, $t_R=13.0$ min) and an unknown ($t_R=20.1$ min) (Fig. 4) with the same results based on mass ions of ESI⁺ (Fig. 4a) and ESI⁻ (Fig. 4b) modes.

Discussion

In our previous study, the culture filtrate of *S. philanthi* RL-1-178 (grown in tuna condensate and molasses medium) at a concentration of 10.0% (v/v) with 1 h exposure time demonstrated a good efficacy to inhibit both mycelial growth and aflatoxin B₁ (AFB₁) production of *A. flavus* PSRDC-4 (Boukaew et al. 2020c). In the present study, the culture filtrate of *S. philanthi* RL-1-178 in the form of freeze dried (DCF) was tested to evaluate its degradation efficiency on the pure aflatoxin. The DCF at 9.0% w/v could effectively inhibit mycelial growth and AFB₁ production of *A. flavus* PSRDC-4 as well as *A. parasiticus* TISTR 3276. The effective dose (10%, v/v or 9–10%, w/v) of *S. philanthi* RL-1-178 was much lower concentration than that of *Streptomyces globisporus* JK-1 (20%, v/v) and *S. philanthi* RM-1-138 (20%, v/v) which almost completely inhibited the growth of *Magnaporthe oryzae* (90.9%) (Li et al. 2011) and *Rhizoctonia solani* PTRRC-9 (96.0%), respectively. The high potential of the DCF to inhibit growth and aflatoxin B₁ production agreed with the results on mycotoxin inhibition with antifungal metabolites of *Streptomyces* strains and high degradation of AFB₁ as reported by Harkai et al. (2016) and Campos-Avelar et al. (2021). In addition, diocatin A, a metabolite of *Streptomyces*, could reduce the mRNA level of *brlA* and inhibit conidiation of *A. parasiticus*, leading

Fig. 2 Time course of in vitro AFB₁ degradation activity by the DCF RL-1-178 and *S. philanthi* RL-1-178 (1×10^7 spores ml⁻¹). **a** Effect of the DCF RL-1-178 on AFB₁ degradation activity during 96 h at 30 °C. **b** Effect of *S. philanthi* RL-1-178 (1×10^7 spores ml⁻¹) on AFB₁ degradation activity in tuna condensate medium during 10 days at 30 °C. The initial concentration of AFB₁ was 40 ppb. The values are means of three replicates and their standard deviation. Means with different letters are significantly different according to Tukey's HSD test ($P < 0.05$)

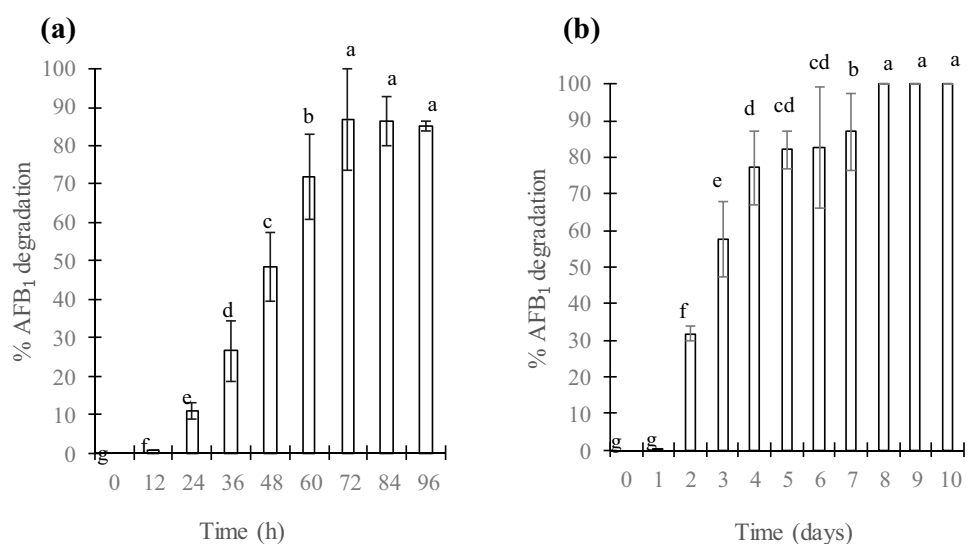
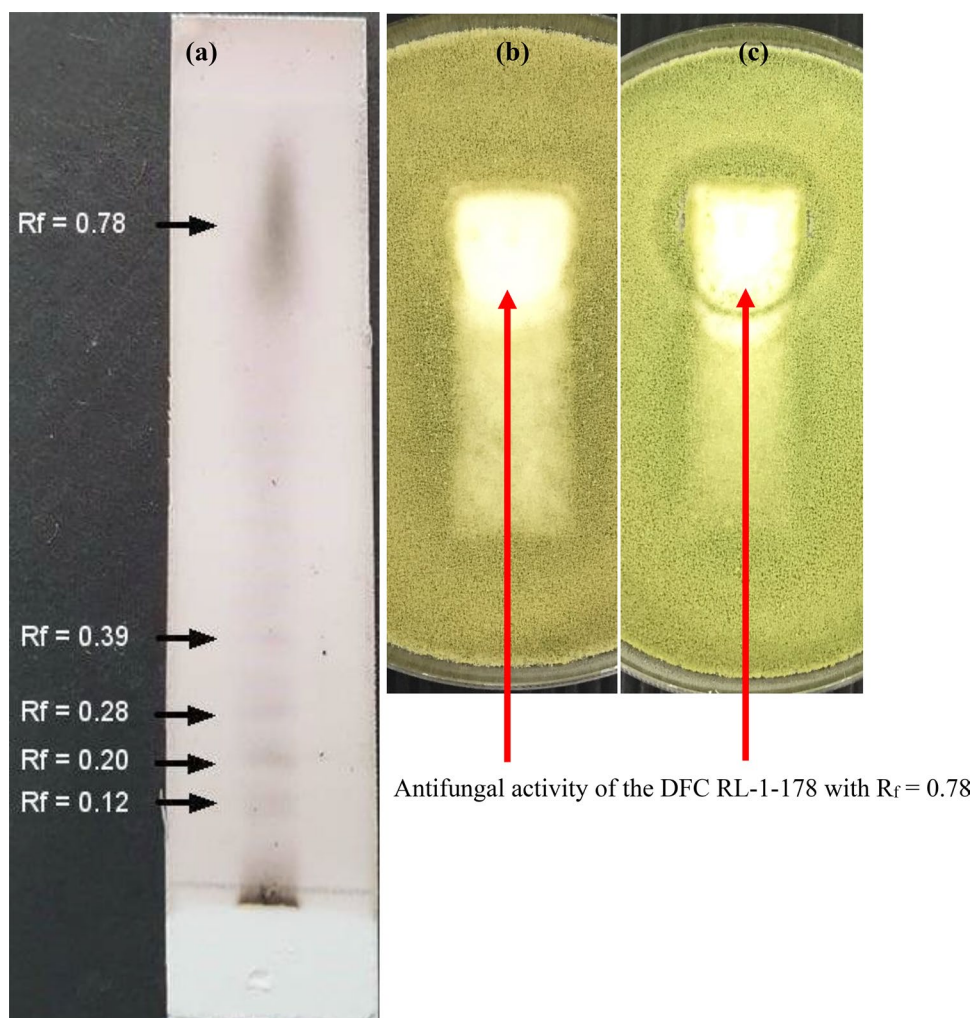


Fig. 3 Silica gel chromatograms of freeze dry bioactive compounds of *Streptomyces philanthi* RL-1-178 separated in TLC. The plates were developed in absolute methanol. Chromatograms were **a** observed after spraying with 1.0% cerium sulphate and further exposure to 110 °C **b** bioautographed against *A. parasiticus* TISTR 3276 and **c** *A. flavus* PSRDC-4



to inhibition of AFB₁ production (Yoshinari et al. 2007). Therefore, it is concluded that the substance with antifungal metabolites in the culture filtrate of *S. philanthi* RL-1-178 can inhibit conidiation of *A. parasiticus* TISTR 3276 and *A. flavus* PSRDC-4 as well as AFB₁ production. Therefore, besides measuring inhibition potential, evaluation of biological effects is an essential step in eliminating toxins.

A major problem in the storage of foods and feed stocks is spoilage and poisoning caused by fungi, *Aspergillus* species, and causes great economic losses worldwide (Magnusson et al. 2003). The effects of antifungal metabolites in the form of DCF on the growth of aflatoxigenic strains have never been reported so far. The results of the present study demonstrated for the first time that DCF has great potential in controlling postharvest disease caused by *A. parasiticus* TISTR 3276 and *A. flavus* PSRDC-4 on maize grain. High fungal growth and AFB₁ production were observed in the control treatment within 3 days. On the other hand, the application of DCF could inhibit the growth and AFB₁ production from *A. parasiticus* TISTR 3276 and *A. flavus* PSRDC-4, after 28 and 14 days of maize grain storage,

respectively. Thus, it could be concluded that the antifungal metabolites of *S. philanthi* RL-1-178 could be applied in the form of DCF which shortcut the cost of purification stage. This finding suggested the simpler process to produce and apply antifungal compounds in the crude form (DCF) that able to inhibit the *Aspergillus* species. The results were in good agreement with the experiments conducted by Bressan (2009), in which the treatment of maize seeds with *Streptomyces* sp. culture filtrate reduced the development of fungi in stored seeds. Biological methods to control of post-harvest diseases in seeds are based on the use of living cells and cell-free compounds, such as *Bacillus* sp. (Ongena and Jacques 2008; Yáñez-Mendizabal et al. 2012; Yáñez-Mendizabal and Falconí 2018), *Trichoderma* sp. (Coşkuntuna and Özer 2008; Reddy et al. 2009; Xue et al. 2017), *Pseudomonas* sp. (Reddy et al. 2009), and *Streptomyces* sp. (Sultan and Magan 2011). One of the main factors determining the efficacy of biological control is the method of inoculation of the biological agent. This study indicated that grain inoculation with the DCF provides a significant reduction in the incidence of pathogenic seed fungi and has potential as a biological

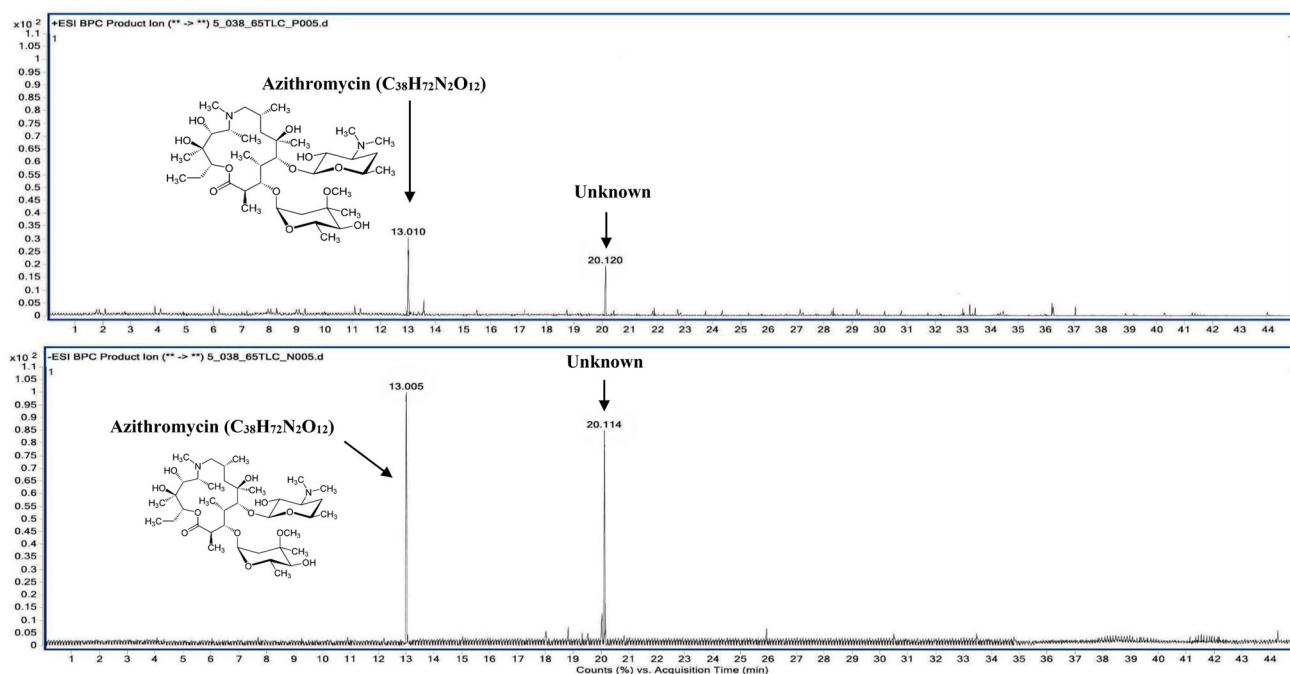


Fig. 4 Identification of bioactive compounds produced by *Streptomyces philanthi* RL-1-178 against *Aspergillus parasiticus* TISTR 3276 and *A. flavus* PSRDC-4 using liquid chromatography—quadrupole

time of flight mass spectrometer (LC-Q-TOF MS/MS) based on mass ions of ESI⁺ (a) and ESI⁻ (b) modes

control agent. Therefore, DCF was found to show significant anti-fungal growth and anti-aflatoxin B₁ production, hence, it could be explored as biopreservatives for preventing microbial deterioration and mycotoxins accumulation in food and feedstuffs during pre- and post-harvest and storage.

Streptomyces strains have been also applied in detoxification processes against mycotoxins in several ways. Some studies revealed only the antagonist effects of *Streptomyces* strains against toxin producing fungi (Harkai et al. 2016; Campos-Avelar et al. 2021). According to Verheeecke et al. (2014), *Streptomyces* strains inhibited AFB₁ production in *A. flavus* by gene repression. Toxin degradation is an effective remedy for food that has been infested with toxins (Sun et al. 2023). In this study, the AFB₁-degrading capability of the DCF and bacterial cells of *S. philanthi* RL-1-178 were investigated. Our results confirmed that up to 71.86% AFB₁ was eliminated within 60 h of applying the DCF, and > 85% degradation was observed within 72 h. Results implied that the molecules present in DCF (a protein (enzyme) or proteins (enzymes) might be involved in the degradation of AFB₁. Many investigators have reported that several lacases produced by *Streptomyces* are involved in the catabolic pathways of aromatic compounds via a cascade of reactions (Park and Kim 2003; Davis and Sello 2009; Qin et al. 2021). AFB₁ is also a polyaromatic compound and could be degraded in a similar manner. Therefore, it is suggested that the DCF can cleave the lactone ring of AFB₁ and it is

likely an enzymatic degradation. These results suggested that some soluble signal molecules secreted from secondary metabolites by *S. philanthi* RL-1-178 could inhibit AFB₁ biosynthesis, which was similar to the results of Harkai et al. (2016). They showed 88.34% AFB₁ degradation by the cell-free supernatant of *S. cacaoi* sub sp. *asoensis* K234 after 12 h treatment. Detoxification of AFB₁ by cell-free supernatant obtained from many antagonistic bacterial strains, such as *R. erythropolis* and *Mycobacterium fluoranthenorans* sp. nov. DSM44556T (Teniola et al. 2005), *Pseudomonas* sp. (Sangare et al. 2014), *B. licheniformis* CFR1 (Rao et al. 2017), *B. subtilis* (Xia et al. 2017; Suresh et al. 2020), *B. velezensis* DY3108 (Shu et al. 2018), and *B. megaterium* (Wang et al. 2021) has previously been reported. The majority of the studied bacterial cells of *Streptomyces* isolates were able to degrade AFB₁, either in solid or liquid media. This is in agreement with the findings of Campos-Avelar et al. (2021) and Harkai et al. (2016) whose degradation assays with *Streptomyces* strains proved that all of them were able to significantly degrade AFB₁. In general, aflatoxin degradation by *Streptomyces* has been demonstrated by several authors (Verheeecke et al. 2015; Harkai et al. 2016; Avelar et al. 2021). Herein, the AFB₁ degrading potential value (100%) of *S. philanthi* RL-1-178 was similar to those of *Streptomyces. lividans* and *Streptomyces. aureofaciens* (Eshell et al. 2015) but higher than the results of other *Streptomyces* species. These included the *Streptomyces*

isolate MYC (31%) (Campos-Avelar et al. 2021), *S. cacaoi* subsp. *asoensis* K234 (88.33%), *Streptomyces. sanglieri* K139 (61.43%), *Streptomyces. luteogriseus* K144 (79.93%), *Streptomyces. rimosus* K145 (79.93%), and *Streptomyces. cinereoruber* K236 (58.52%) (Harkai et al. 2016). Thus, different AFB₁ degradation activities among various *Streptomyces* species were the result of different levels of active compounds in cell-free supernatant which are responsible for the diminished AFB₁. From the experiments conducted, the DCF and bacterial cells of *S. philanthi* were capable to degrade AFB₁ by 85.0% and 100% for 72 h and 8 days, respectively. This confirmed the higher efficacy of the DCF over the cells. This is in agreement with the findings that the cell-free supernatant was predominantly attributed in the AFB₁ degrading activity than bacterial cells (Xia et al. 2017; Shu et al. 2018). Diocetatin A (DotA), a metabolite of *Streptomyces*, inhibited production of norsolorinic acid which is an early biosynthetic intermediate of aflatoxin produced by *A. parasiticus* (Yoshinari et al. 2007). In addition, it also strongly reduced the mRNA levels of genes responsible for aflatoxin biosynthetic enzymes and the mRNA level of *aflR* encoding a key regulator protein for aflatoxin biosynthesis. There is limited evidence on the capability of *Streptomyces* sp. on decrease of AFB₁-contents (Sakuda et al. 1996; Zucchini et al. 2008; Harkai et al. 2016), whereas several reports demonstrated that some strains of *Streptomyces* sp. could inhibit the mycelial growth and aflatoxin production of *A. flavus* (Sultan and Magan 2011; Caceres et al. 2018; Shakeel et al. 2018; Boukaew et al. 2020b,c; Campos-Avelar et al. 2021) and *A. parasiticus* (Boukaew et al. 2020b,c). However, the present study exhibited that the DCF and bacterial cells of *S. philanthi* RL-1-178 had a high potential for degrading AFB₁. The DCF had highly inhibitory effects on growth and AFB₁ production of *A. parasiticus* TISTR 3276 and *A. flavus* PSRDC-4 both in the in vitro and on maize grains.

Separation and localization of the bioactive compounds by TLC on silica gel and bioautography were again proved the presence of antifungal compounds. Based on the TLC results, the DCF with $R_f=0.78$ exhibited antifungal activities on both aflatoxin-producing fungi, as confirmed by the bioautography assay. The result is similar to the observation of Azish et al. (2021) that the partial purification of the antifungal metabolites of *Streptomyces. libani* on TLC with $R_f=0.88$ exhibited anti-*Aspergillus. fumigatus* activities while the bioactive compound of *Streptomyces. albidoflavus* 321.2 with $R_f=0.85$ showed antifungal activity against *Aspergillus. niger* (Eshelli et al. 2015). *Streptomyces* produced antimicrobial compounds that showed R_f values ranging from 0.40 to 0.78 in TLC analysis, which confirmed the production of polyene nature of compounds (Selvakumar et al. 2010). The active band was separated as white amorphous powder, which was identified as azithromycin ($C_{38}H_{72}N_2O_{12}$, $t_R=13.0$ min) and an unknown

substance ($t_R=20.1$ min) based on the mass ions of ESI⁺ and ESI⁻ modes. Azithromycin, a second generation macrolide, broad-spectrum antifungal substance against *Aspergillus* sp. (Nguyen et al. 1997; Guo et al. 2018) and *Fusarium solani* (Guo et al. 2018) and antibacterial substance against *Bordetella pertussis* and *Legionella* sp. (Parnham et al. 2014), has received increasing attention in recent years because of additional effects on host-defense reactions and chronic human diseases. It also has activity against *Mycoplasma pneumoniae*, *Treponema pallidum*, *Chlamydia* sp., and *Mycobacterium avium* complex (Parnham et al. 2014). It was reported that azithromycin exerted its antifungal activity against *Aspergillus* species by inhibiting mitochondrial and cytoplasmic protein synthesis (Nguyen et al. 1997). The DCF revealed two compounds which were identified as azithromycin and an unknown substance that possessed antifungal activity. Therefore, it could be concluded that the antifungal activity of the integral DFC may be attributable to two compounds resulting from independence or synergistic effect.

In conclusion, the antifungal and anti-mycotoxigenic capabilities of the DCF RL-1-178 both in vitro and on maize grains were evaluated. The DCF was applied to inhibit fungal growth and aflatoxin production, both in vivo and in vitro. These results indicated that the antifungal metabolites of *S. philanthi* RL-1-178 could be considered as potential biocontrol agents to combat toxigenic fungal growth and subsequent aflatoxin contamination of maize and other agricultural crops in practice.

Author contributions SB: contributed to the design and implementation of the research, to the analysis of the results, and the writing of the manuscript. PP: contributed to the design of the research project and editing the manuscript. PM, TS and WP: contributed to the interpretation of the research data. All authors discussed the results and contributed to the final manuscript.

Funding This research work was financially supported by the Agricultural Research Development Agency (Public Organization) (PRP6405030400) and Thailand Research Fund (TRF) under Research Team Promotion Grant No. (RTA6080010).

Data availability The datasets generated during and/or analysed during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

Declarations

Conflict of interest The authors have not disclosed any competing interests.

References

- Afsharmanesh H, Perez-Garcia A, Zerrouh H, Ahmadzadeh M, Romero D (2018) Aflatoxin degradation by *Bacillus subtilis* UTB1 is based on production of an oxidoreductase involved in bacilysin biosynthesis. *Food Control* 94:48–55
- Azish M, Shams-Ghahfarokhi M, Razzaghi-Abyaneh M (2021) Antifungal activity and mechanism of action of dichloromethane extract fraction A from *Streptomyces libani* against *Aspergillus fumigatus*. *J Appl Microbiol* 131:1212–1225
- Boukaew S, Chuenchit S, Petcharat V (2011) Evaluation of *Streptomyces* spp. for biological control of *Sclerotium* root and stem rot and *Ralstonia* wilt of chili. *Biocontrol* 56:365–347
- Boukaew S, Petlamul W, Suyotha W, Prasertsan P (2016) Simultaneous fermentative chitinase and β -1,3 glucanase production from *Streptomyces philanthi* RM-1-1-38 and their antifungal activity against rice sheath blight disease. *Biotechnologia* 97:271–284
- Boukaew S, Prasertsan P, Troulet C, Bardin M (2017) Biological control of tomato gray mold caused by *Botrytis cinerea* by using *Streptomyces* spp. *Biocontrol* 62:793–803
- Boukaew S, Petlamul W, Prasertsan P (2020a) Comparison of the biocontrol efficacy of culture filtrate from *Streptomyces philanthi* RL-1-178 and acetic acid against *Penicillium digitatum*, in vitro and in vivo. *Eur J Plant Pathol* 158:939–949
- Boukaew S, Petlamul W, Prasertsan P (2020b) Efficacy of *Streptomyces philanthi* RL-1-178 culture filtrate against growth and aflatoxin B₁ production by two aflatoxigenic fungi on maize seeds. *Eur J Plant Pathol* 156:1041–1051
- Boukaew S, Petlamul W, Prasertsan P (2020c) Tuna condensate waste with molasses as a renewable substrate for antifungal compounds by *Streptomyces philanthi* RL-1-178 against aflatoxigenic B₁ (AFB₁) *Aspergillus flavus*. *Waste Biomass Valorization* 11:1321–1331
- Boukaew S, Cheirsilp B, Yossan S, Khunjan U, Petlamul W, Prasertsan P (2021) Utilization of palm oil mill effluent as a novel substrate for the production of antifungal compounds by *Streptomyces philanthi* RM-1-138 and evaluation of its efficacy in suppression of three strains of oil palm pathogen. *J Appl Microbiol* 132:1990–2003
- Branà MT, Cimmarusti MT, Haidukowski M, Logrieco AF, Altomare C (2017) Bioremediation of aflatoxin B₁-contaminated maize by king oyster mushroom (*Pleurotus eryngii*). *PLoS ONE* 12:e0182574
- Bressan W (2009) Biological control of maize seed pathogenic fungi by use of actinomycetes. *Biocontrol* 48:233–240
- Caceres I, Snini SP, Puel O, Mathieu F (2018) *Streptomyces roseolus*, a promising biocontrol agent against *Aspergillus flavus*, the main aflatoxin B₁ producer. *Toxins* 10:442
- Campos-Avelar I, de la Noue AC, Durand N, Cazals G, Martinez V, Strub C, Fontana A, Schorr-Galindo S (2021) *Aspergillus flavus* growth inhibition and aflatoxin B₁ decontamination by *Streptomyces* isolates and their metabolites. *Toxins* 13:340
- Chen YY, Chen PC, Tsay TT (2016) The biocontrol efficacy and antibiotic activity of *Streptomyces plicatus* on the oomycete *Phytophthora capsici*. *Biol Control* 98:34–42
- Ciegler A, Lillehoj EB, Peterson RE, Hall HH (1966) Microbial detoxification of aflatoxin. *Appl Microbiol* 14:934–938
- Coşkuntuna A, Özer N (2008) Biological control of onion basal rot disease using *Trichoderma harzianum* and induction of antifungal compounds in onion set following seed treatment. *Crop Prot* 27:330–336
- Davis JR, Sello JK (2009) Regulation of genes in *Streptomyces* bacteria required for catabolism of lignin-derived aromatic compounds. *Appl Microbiol Biotechnol* 86:921–929
- Diener UL, Cole RJ, Sanders TH, Payne GA, Lee S, Klich MA (1987) Epidemiology of aflatoxin formation by *Aspergillus flavus*. *Annu Rev Phytopathol* 25:249–270
- Eshelli M, Harvey L, Edrada-Ebel R, McNeil B (2015) Metabolomics of the bio-degradation process of aflatoxin B₁ by Actinomycetes at an initial pH of 6.0. *Toxins* 7:439–456
- Farzaneh M, Shi ZQ, Ghassempour A, Sedaghat N, Ahmadzadeh M, Mirabolfathy M, Avan-Nikkhah M (2012) Aflatoxin B₁ degradation by *Bacillus subtilis* UTBSP1 isolated from pistachio nuts of Iran. *Food Control* 23:100–106
- Fountain JC, Scully BT, Ni X, Kemerait RC, Lee RD, Chen ZY, Guo B (2014) Environmental influences on maize-*Aspergillus flavus* interactions and aflatoxin production. *Front Microbiol* 5:1–7
- Fountain JC, Khera P, Yang L, Nayak SN, Scully BT, Lee RD, Chen ZY, Kemerait RC, Varshney RK, Guo B (2015) Resistance to *Aspergillus flavus* in maize and peanut: molecular biology, breeding, environmental stress, and future perspectives. *Crop J* 3:229–237
- Gao X, Ma Q, Zhao L, Lei Y, Shan Y, Ji C (2011) Isolation of *Bacillus subtilis*: screening for aflatoxins B₁, M₁, and G₁ detoxification. *Eur Food Res Technol* 232:957–962
- García-Díaz M, Gil-Serna J, Vázquez C, Botia MN, Patiño B (2020) A comprehensive study on the occurrence of mycotoxins and their producing fungi during the maize production cycle in Spain. *Microorganisms* 8:141
- Guengerich FP, Johnson WW, Ueng YF, Yamazaki H, Shimada T (1996) Involvement of cytochrome P450, glutathione S-transferase, and epoxide hydrolase in the metabolism of aflatoxin B₁ and relevance to risk of human liver cancer. *Environ Health Perspect* 104:557–562
- Guo H, Zhou L, He Y, Gao C, Han L, Xu Y (2018) Natamycin and azithromycin are synergistic in vitro against ocular pathogenic *Aspergillus flavus* species complex and *Fusarium solani* species complex isolates. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 62:e00077-e118
- Harkai P, Szabó I, Cserhádi M, Krifaton C, Risa A, Radó J, Balázs A, Berta K, Kriszt B (2016) Biodegradation of aflatoxin-B₁ and zearalenone by *Streptomyces* sp. collection. *Int Biodeterior Biodegradation* 108:48–56
- Hormisch D, Brost I, Kohring GW, Giffhorn F, Kroppenstedt RM, Stackebrandt E, Färber P, Holzapfel WH (2004) *Mycobacterium fluoranthenorans* sp. nov., a fluoranthene and aflatoxin B₁ degrading bacterium from contaminated soil of a former coal gas plant. *Syst Appl Microbiol* 27:653–660
- Hussein SH, Brasel JM (2001) Toxicity, metabolism and impact of mycotoxins on humans and animals. *Toxicology* 167:101–134
- Igarashi M, Takahashi Y, Shitara T, Nakamura H, Naganawa H, Miyake T, Akamatsu Y (2005) Caprazamycins, novel lipo-nucleoside antibiotics, from *Streptomyces* sp. *J Antibiot* 58:327–337
- Kabak B, Dobson AD, Var I (2006) Strategies to prevent mycotoxin contamination of food and animal feed: a review. *Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr* 46:593–619
- Komala VV, Ratnavathi CV, Kumar BV, Das IK (2012) Inhibition of aflatoxin B₁ production by an antifungal component, eugenol in stored sorghum grains. *Food Control* 26:139–146
- Kruson W, Jindaprasert A, Laosinwattana C, Teerarak M (2015) Baby corn fermented vinegar and its vapor control postharvest decay in strawberries. *N Z J Crop Hortic Sci* 43:193–203
- Li Q, Jiang Y, Ning P, Zheng L, Huang J, Li G, Jiang D, Hsiang T (2011) Suppression of *Magnaporthe oryzae* by culture filtrates of *Streptomyces globisporus* JK-1. *Biol Control* 58:139–148
- Magnusson J, Strohm K, Roos S, Sjögren J, Schnürer J (2003) Broad and complex antifungal activity among environmental isolates of lactic acid bacteria. *FEMS Microbiol Lett* 219:129–135
- Mishra HN, Das C (2003) A review on biological control and metabolism of aflatoxin. *Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr* 43:245–264

- Nguyen MH, Clancy CJ, Yu YC, Lewin AS (1997) Potentiation of antifungal activity of amphotericin B by azithromycin against *Aspergillus* species. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis* 16:846–848
- Nji QN, Babalola OO, Mwanza M (2022) Aflatoxins in maize: can their occurrence be effectively managed in Africa in the face of climate change and food insecurity? *Toxins* 14:574
- Okun DO, Khamis FM, Muluvi GM, Ngeranwa JJ, Ombura FO, Yongo MO, Kenya EU (2015) Distribution of indigenous strains of atoxigenic and toxigenic *Aspergillus flavus* and *Aspergillus parasiticus* in maize and peanuts agro-ecological zones of Kenya. *Agric Food Secur* 4:14
- Oliveira CAF, Bovo F, Humberto C, Vincenzi A, Ravindranadha K (2013) Recent trends in microbiological decontamination of aflatoxins in foodstuffs. In: Razzaghi-Abyaneh M (ed) Aflatoxins—recent advances and future prospects. In Tech, Rijeka, Croatia, pp 59–62
- Ongena M, Jacques P (2008) *Bacillus lipopeptides*: versatile weapons for plant disease biocontrol. *Trends Microbiol* 16:115–125
- Park H-J, Kim E-S (2003) An inducible *Streptomyces* gene cluster involved in aromatic compound metabolism. *FEMS Microbiol Lett* 226:151–157
- Parnham MJ, Erakovic Haber V, Giamarellos-Bourboulis EJ, Perletti G, Verleden GM, Vos R (2014) Azithromycin: mechanisms of action and their relevance for clinical applications. *Pharmacol Ther* 143:225–245
- Petchkongkaew A, Taillandier P, Gasaluck P, Lebrihi A (2008) Isolation of *Bacillus* spp. from Thai fermented soybean (Thua-nao): screening for aflatoxin B₁ and ochratoxin A detoxification. *J Appl Microbiol* 104:1495–1502
- Prapagdee B, Kuekulvong C, Mongkolsuk S (2008) Antifungal potential of extracellular metabolites produced by *Streptomyces hygroscopicus* against phytopathogenic fungi. *Int J Biol Sci* 4:330–337
- Qin X, Xin Y, Zou J, Su X, Wang X, Wang Y, Zhang J, Tu T, Yao B, Luo H, Huang H (2021) Efficient degradation of aflatoxin B₁ and zearalenone by laccase-like multicopper oxidase from *Streptomyces thermocarboxydus* in the presence of mediators. *Toxins* 13:754
- Quinn GA, Banat AM, Abdelhameed AM, Banat IM (2020) *Streptomyces* from traditional medicine: sources of new innovations in antibiotic discovery. *J Med Microbiol* 69:1040–1048
- Rao KR, Vipin AV, Hariprasad P, Anu Appaiah KA, Venkateswaran G (2017) Biological detoxification of aflatoxin B₁ by *Bacillus licheniformis* CFR1. *Food Control* 71:234–241
- Reddy KRN, Reddy CS, Muralidharan K (2009) Potential of botanicals and biocontrol agents on growth and aflatoxin production by *Aspergillus flavus* infecting rice grains. *Food Control* 20:173–178
- Sakuda S (2010) Mycotoxin production inhibitors from natural products. *Mycotoxins* 60:79–86
- Sakuda S, Ono M, Furihata K, Nakayama J, Suzuki A, Isogai A (1996) Aflastatin A, a novel inhibitor of aflatoxin production of *Aspergillus parasiticus*, from *Streptomyces*. *J Am Chem Soc* 118:7855–7856
- Sangare L, Zhao Y, Minnie Y, Folly E, Chang J, Li J, Selvaraj JN, Xing F, Zhou L, Wang Y, Liu Y (2014) Aflatoxin B₁ degradation by a *Pseudomonas* Strain. *Toxins* 6:3028–3040
- Sangmanee P, Hongpattarakere T (2014) Inhibitory of multiple antifungal components produced by *Lactobacillus plantarum* K35 on growth, aflatoxin production and ultrastructure alterations of *Aspergillus flavus* and *Aspergillus parasiticus*. *Food Control* 40:224–233
- Selvakumar D, Arun K, Suguna S, Kumar D, Dhevendran K (2010) Bioactive potential of *Streptomyces* against fish and shellfish pathogens. *Iran J Microbiol* 2:157–164
- Shakeel Q, Lyu A, Zhang J, Wu M, Chen S, Chen W, Li G, Yang L (2016) Optimization of the cultural medium and conditions for production of antifungal substances by *Streptomyces platensis* 3–10 and evaluation of its efficacy in suppression of clubroot disease (*Plasmodiophora brassicae*) of oilseed rape. *Biol Control* 101:59–68
- Shakeel Q, Lyu A, Zhang J, Wu M, Li G, Hsiang T, Yang L (2018) Biocontrol of *Aspergillus flavus* on peanut kernels using *Streptomyces yanglinensis* 3–10. *Front Microbiol* 9:1049
- Shu X, Wang Y, Zhou Q, Li M, Hu H, Ma Y, Chen X, Ni J, Zhao W, Huang S, Wu L (2018) Biological degradation of aflatoxin B₁ by cell-free extracts of *Bacillus velezensis* DY3108 with broad pH stability and excellent thermostability. *Toxins* 10:330
- Siahmoshteh F, Siciliano I, Banani H, Hamidi-Esfahani Z, Razzaghi-Abyaneh M, Gullino ML, Spadaro D (2017) Efficacy of *Bacillus subtilis* and *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* in the control of *Aspergillus parasiticus* growth and aflatoxins production on pistachio. *Int J Food Microbiol* 254:47–53
- Sidhu OP, Chandra H, Behl HM (2009) Occurrence of aflatoxins in mahua *Madhuca indica* Gmel.) seeds: synergistic effect of plant extracts on inhibition of *Aspergillus flavus* growth and aflatoxin production. *Food Chem Toxicol* 47:774–777
- Sipos P, Peles F, Brassó DL, Béri B, Pusztahelyi T, Pócsi I, Gyori Z (2021) Physical and chemical methods for reduction in aflatoxin content of feed and food. *Toxins* 13:204
- Sultan Y, Magan N (2011) Impact of a *Streptomyces* (AS1) strain and its metabolites on control of *Aspergillus flavus* and aflatoxin B₁ contamination in vitro and in stored peanuts. *Biocontrol Sci Technol* 21:1437–1455
- Sun F, Yu D, Zhou H, Lin H, Yan Z, Wu A (2023) CotA laccase from *Bacillus licheniformis* ZOM-1 effectively degrades zearalenone, aflatoxin B₁ and alternariol. *Food Control* 145:109472
- Suresh G, Cabezudo I, Pulicharla R, Cuprys A, Rouissi T, Brar SK (2020) Biodegradation of aflatoxin B₁ with cell-free extracts of *Trametes versicolor* and *Bacillus subtilis*. *Res Vet Sci* 133:85–91
- Teniola OD, Addo PA, Brost IM, Farber P, Jany KD, Alberts JF, van Zyl WH, Steyn PS, Holzapfel WH (2005) Degradation of aflatoxin B (1) by cell-free extracts of *Rhodococcus erythropolis* and *Mycobacterium fluoranthenorans* sp. nov. DSM 44556(T). *Int J Food Microbiol* 105:111–117
- Tolouee M, Alinezhad S, Saberi R, Eslamifar A, Zad SJ, Jaimand K, Taeb J, Rezaee MB, Kawachi M, Shams-Ghahfarokhi M, Razzaghi-Abyaneh M (2010) Effect of *Matricaria chamomilla* L. flower essential oil on the growth and ultrastructure of *Aspergillus niger* van Tieghem. *Int J Food Microbiol* 139:127–133
- Tosch D, Waltinger AE, Schlesier JF (1984) Comparison of liquid chromatography and high performance thin layer chromatography for determination of aflatoxin in peanut products. *J Assoc Anal Chem* 67:337–339
- VazJauri P, Altier N, Kinkel LL (2016) *Streptomyces* for sustainability. In: Castro-Sowinski S (ed) Microbial models: from environment to industrial sustainability, microorganism for sustainability 1. Springer, Berlin, pp 251–276
- Verheeecke C, Liboz T, Darriet M, Sabaou N, Mathieu F (2014) In vitro interaction of actinomycetes isolates with *Aspergillus flavus*: impact on aflatoxins B₁ and B₂ production. *Lett Appl Microbiol* 58:597–603
- Verheeecke C, Liboz T, Anson P, Zhu Y, Mathieu F (2015) *Streptomyces-Aspergillus flavus* interactions: impact on aflatoxin B accumulation. *Food Addit Contam Part A* 32:572–576
- Wang X, Bai Y, Huang H, Tu T, Wang Y, Wang Y, Luo H, Yao B, Su X (2019) Degradation of aflatoxin B₁ and zearalenone by bacterial and fungal laccases in presence of structurally defined chemicals and complex natural mediators. *Toxins* 11:609
- Wang L, Huang W, Sha Y, Yin H, Liang Y, Wang X, Shen Y, Wu X, Wu D, Wang J (2021) Co-cultivation of two *Bacillus* strains for improved cell growth and enzyme production to enhance the degradation of aflatoxin B₁. *Toxins* 13:435

- Xia X, Zhang Y, Li M, Garba B, Zhang Q, Wang Y, Zhang H, Li P (2017) Isolation and characterization of a *Bacillus subtilis* strain with aflatoxin B₁ biodegradation capability. *Food Control* 75:92–98
- Xue AG, Guo W, Chen Y, Siddiqui I, Marchand G, Liu J, Ren C (2017) Effect of seed treatment with novel strains of *Trichoderma* spp. on establishment and yield of spring wheat. *Crop Prot* 96:97–102
- Yáñez-Mendizábal V, Falconí CE (2018) Efficacy of *Bacillus* spp. to biocontrol of anthracnose and enhance plant growth on andean lupin seeds by lipopeptide production. *Biol Control* 122:67–75
- Yáñez-Mendizábal V, Zerrouh H, Viñas I, Torres R, Usall J, De Vicente A, Pérez-García A, Teixidó N (2012) Biological control of peach brown rot (*Monilinia* spp.) by *Bacillus subtilis* CPA-8 is based on production of fengycinlike lipopeptides. *Eur J Plant Pathol* 132:609–619
- Yoshinari T, Akiyama T, Nakamura K, Kondo T, Takahashi Y, Murooka Y, Nonomura Y, Nagasawa H, Sakuda S (2007) Diocatin A is a strong inhibitor of aflatoxin production by *Aspergillus parasiticus*. *Microbiol* 153:2774–2780
- Zhao LH, Guan S, Gao X, Ma QG, Lei YP, Bai XM, Ji C (2011) Preparation, purification and characteristics of an aflatoxin degradation enzyme from *Myxococcus fulvus* NSM068. *J Appl Microbiol* 110:147–155
- Zucchi TD, De Moraes LAB, De Melo IS (2008) *Streptomyces* sp. ASBV-1 reduces aflatoxin accumulation by *Aspergillus parasiticus* in peanut grains. *J Appl Microbiol* 105:2153–2160

Publisher's Note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

Springer Nature or its licensor (e.g. a society or other partner) holds exclusive rights to this article under a publishing agreement with the author(s) or other rightsholder(s); author self-archiving of the accepted manuscript version of this article is solely governed by the terms of such publishing agreement and applicable law.