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Production, purification, ¹⁴C labeling, and bioavailability of fumonisin B₁ produced by *Fusarium proliferatum* strain M-5991

by

William Raymond Dantzer

A dissertation submitted to the graduate faculty in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Co-Majors: Food Science and Technology; Toxicology

Major Professors: Patricia A. Murphy and Suzanne Hendrich

Iowa State University

Ames, Iowa

1997

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Dedication

I am pleased to dedicate this dissertation to my beloved wife. Daniele. who constantly fed me encouragement and supported me through my ups and downs during this work. I am also pleased to dedicate this to by my parents, Blanche and Albert, to whom I am deeply indebted.

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ABSTRACT

The production of FB₁ by Fusarium proliferatum M-5991 was enhanced from 300 to 1400 µmoles/L by the addition of 0.75% corn hull extract (CHE) to modified Myro liquid medium (LM). Three continuous batch fermentations of F. proliferatum M-5991 in 10, 12, and 12 L modified Myro LM produced 28 mmoles of FB₁ which were purified to >95% by a combination of XAD-16, C₈, DEAE-Sepharose, and C₁₈ chromatography. At day 12 of culture, [14C]-acetate was incorporated into 29 μ moles of FB₁ in 50 ml modified Myro LM containing F. proliferatum which produced, after purification, 24 µmoles [¹⁴C]-FB₁ at 95% purity with a specific activity of 1.7 mCi/mmole. In a urinary excretion study, 9 male and 9 female Fisher F344/N rats were gavaged with 0.69 µmoles of [¹⁴C]-FB₁ or [¹⁴C]-hydrolyzed FB₁ ([¹⁴C]-HFB₁) or [¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU ([¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU)/kg body weight (BW). The urinary excretion by male and female rats was 12.8 and 17.3% of the [14C]-HFB, dose, 4.2 and 4.6% of the $[^{14}C]$ -FB₁-FRU dose, and 0.4 and 0.7% of the $[^{14}C]$ -FB₁ dose, respectively. In a biliary excretion study, 9 Sprague-Dawley female rats were dosed by gavage with 0.69 μ mole [¹⁴C]-FB₁ or [¹⁴C]-HFB₁ or [¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU/kg BW. There was no difference in the biliary excretion of the 3 FB compounds by these rats with 1.4% of the dose being excreted in the bile 4-h after dosing. These results, that HFB₁ was absorbed to a greater extent by rats than FB₁, complement previous reports that FB₁ toxicity was \geq HFB₁ toxicity in cell cultures and as toxic on a dietary basis in rats. Because dietary FB₁-FRU was absorbed to a greater extent than FB₁, absorption differences between the two compounds do not explain the lack of toxicity of FB₁-FRU in rats.

CHAPTER 1. GENERAL INTRODUCTION

A. Introduction

The purpose of this dissertation is to describe the production, purification, and radiolabeling of fumonisin B_1 (FB₁), and evaluate the urinary and biliary excretion of [¹⁴C]-FB₁, [¹⁴C]-hydrolyzed FB₁ (HFB₁), and [¹⁴C]-FB₁-Fructose (FRU) by rats. The urinary and biliary excretion of these compounds were studied to gain insight into their bioavailability in animals.

Fusarium moniliforme and *Fusarium proliferatum* have been shown to produce FB₁ and other FBs, along with other mycotoxins, in field corn or in defined mediums such as solid corn medium (SCM), solid rice medium (SRM), or liquid medium (LM) (Gelderblom *et al.*, 1988; Cawood *et al.*, 1991). These fungal pathogens invade maize plants by many pathways including insect damaged kernels and may result in maize diseases such as stalk and ear rot and kernel infection (Ross *et al.*, 1991; Nelson, 1992).

B. Dissertation Organization

This dissertation is organized into 6 chapters. Chapter 1 is a general introduction; Chapter 2 is a literature review; Chapters 3 and 4 are published work on the production and purification of FB₁ (Dantzer *et al.*, 1996a and 1996b); and Chapter 5 is a manuscript to be submitted for publication on the bioavailability of 0.69 µmoles of [¹⁴C]-FB₁ or [¹⁴C]-HFB₁ or [¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU/kg BW, as determined by urinary and biliary excretion, by rats. All figures and tables are renumerated for each Chapter or Appendix. Because Chapters 3 and 4 are already published, there were some inconsistencies with

abbreviations which were later found to be more appropriate. Following is a list of

abbreviations and the chapters in which they are referenced. [Solid corn medium (SCM)-

Chapter 2], [corn culture material (CCM)-Chapters 3 and 4]; [modified Myro liquid medium

(modified Myro LM)-Chapters 2 and 5], [modified Myro medium (MM medium)-Chapters 3

and 4]; [µmole FB/L-Chapters 2, 5, and 6], [mg FB/L-Chapters 3 and 4]; [ml-Chapters 2 and

5], [mL-Chapters 3 and 4].

C. References

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CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Why Study Fumonisins?

The fumonisin B series (FBs) refer to a group of mycotoxins (FB₁, FB₂, FB₃, and FB₄) that have a common 12,16-dimethyl-14,15-diesterpropane-1,2,3-tricarboxylatehydroxyicosane structure (Fig. 1) and are produced mainly by *Fusarium moniliforme* and *Fusarium proliferatum* (Gelderblom *et al.*, 1988; Cawood *et al.*, 1991, Wilkes *et al.*, 1995; Beier *et al.*, 1995). The FBs are known to cause different diseases in horses, pigs, or rats (Marasas *et al.*, 1984). Fumonisin B₁ has been associated epidemiologically with human esophageal cancer (Sydenham *et al.*, 1990; Rheeder *et al.*, 1992; Chu and Li, 1994.). The fumonisin A series (FAs) and the fumonisin P series (FPs), also produced by *F. moniliforme* and *F. proliferatum*, are N-acetyl- and N-3-hydroxypyridinium-FB mycotoxins, respectively (Fig. 1) (Musser and Plattner, 1997).

Cultures of *F. moniliforme* Medical Research Council (MRC) in Tygerberg South Africa have been shown to produce FBs (Gelderblom *et al.*, 1988; Gelderblom *et al.*, 1991; Norred *et al.*, 1992; Voss *et al.*, 1993). Kriek *et al.* (1981) reported that *F. moniliforme* MRC-826 grown in solid corn medium (SCM) induced toxicities when fed to horses, pigs, sheep, rats, and baboons. Marasas *et al.* (1984) reported an induction of hepatic lesions and mortality in rats fed *F. moniliforme* MRC-826 grown in SCM. Jaskiewicz *et al.* (1987) reported an induction of liver cancer in rats fed *F. moniliforme* MRC-826 grown in SCM. However, these SCM may have contained many mycotoxins.

Equine leucoencephalomalacia (ELEM) is a brain disease which has been associated with the consumption of FB-contaminated corn. Symptoms were induced in horses fed 14 µmoles of purified FB₁/kg diet (Marasas et al., 1988). Symptoms of ELEM included deterioration and liquefaction of the white-gray matter in the brain of a horse resulting in ataxia, clumsiness, stupor, and death (Kellerman et al., 1991). Porcine pulmonary edema (PPE) is a lung disease that has been associated with the consumption of FB-contaminated corn. Symptoms were induced in swine fed 35 µmoles of purified FB₁/kg diet (Harrison et al., 1990). Symptoms of PPE include leakage of serum through the lungs, filling the thoracic cavities, and death. The FBs are not toxic to cattle (Osweiler et al., 1993; Smith and Thakur, 1996) nor have they previously been reported in the milk of lactating cows fed corn containing FBs (Richard et al., 1996). Laboratory rats developed liver cancer and kidney toxicity when fed 69 µmoles of purified FBs (Gelderblom et al., 1991; Voss et al., 1993). The cancer causing ability of FB₁ is thought to be primarily due to its accumulatory effects on sphingoid bases (Schroeder et al., 1994). The FBs resemble sphinganine and sphingosine and inhibit ceramide synthase, one of the enzymes involved in the conversion of sphinganine to sphingosine (Merrill et al., 1993). Mechanisms of FB toxicities may include interfering with sphingolipid synthesis, inhibition of Na/K ATPase, inhibition of protein kinase C (PKC), release of intracellular Ca²⁺, promotion of RB dephosphorylation, and induction of apoptosis (Merrill et al., 1996). Mechanisms of FB carcinogenicities may include activation of epidermal growth factors (EGF) receptor/MAP kinase, activation of phospholipase D and/or inhibition of phosphatidic acid phosphohydrolase, release of intracellular Ca²⁺, activation of AP-1, cytotoxicity for normal cells, loss of regulation of differentiation, loss of

regulation of apoptosis, and loss of lipid mediators of tumor necrosis factors caused by sphingolipid disruption (Merrill *et al.*, 1996).

The FBs are produced by fungi associated with corn. However, corn destined for animal foods has higher populations of these fungi suggesting a higher risk of FB contamination in such corn than in corn meant for human foods (Ross *et al.*, 1991). Fumonisins have been detected in corn products destined for humans (Hopmans and Murphy, 1993; Pohland, 1996; Bullerman, 1996). The effects on humans of consumption of FBs are not known. High incidences of esophageal cancer in humans have been associated with the consumption of FB containing corn (Chu and Li, 1994).

Because FBs have the ability to cause diseases in animals and their effects on humans are uncertain, it is necessary to take precautions to minimize the occurrence of FBs in foods. Measuring the bioavailability of FBs in laboratory animals can help us to understand the toxicokinetics of FBs and aid in establishing safe levels of FBs that may be consumed by animals and humans.

Processing of foods containing FB₁ can produce hydrolyzed FB₁ (HFB₁) in which the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) groups are removed from the FB₁ backbone (Fig. 1). Nixtamalization, the process for making tortilla flour or masa in which corn is subjected to alkaline heating and steeping, can form HFB₁ (Hendrich *et al.*, 1993; Murphy *et al.*, 1996). Another form of FB₁, FB₁-fructose (FB₁-FRU) was formed when FB₁ was heated in the presence of a reducing sugar at pH > 7 (Fig. 1). The amine group on FB₁ can condense with the carboxyl group on a reducing sugar such as glucose, fructose, or lactose, blocking the amine group and making the FB₁ molecule undetectable by using conventional derivatization

detection means. These modifications to FB₁ may alter its detection, bioavailability, and/or toxicity (Bordson *et al.*, 1995; Jackson *et al.*, 1996a; Jackson *et al.*, 1996b; Murphy *et al.*, 1996). For the assurance of a safe human and animal food supply, all forms of FBs that may be found in food products must be evaluated for their bioavailability, safety, and toxicity in animals.



Figure 1. Chemical structures of the major mycotoxins produced by *Fusarium moniliforme* and *Fusarium proliferatum*: fumonisin B series (FB₁, FB₂, FB₃, and FB₄), hydrolyzed fumonisin B₁ (HFB₁), fumonisin B₁-fructose conjugate (FB₁-FRU) (*may be formed during food processing), fumonisin A series (FA₁, FA₂), and fumonisin P series (FP₁ and FP₂). TCA = propane-1,2,3-tricarboxylic acid group [COCH₂CH(CO₂H)CH₂CO₂H]. 3HP = 3-Hydroxypyridinium [NC₅H₅O].

B. Fumonisins in Corn

1. Fusarium strains and toxins

The fungal species F. moniliforme Sheldon and F. proliferatum (Matsushima) Nirenberg are in the Liseola section of the genus Fusarium. These species do not form chlamydospores, contain unbranched and branched monophialide and/or polyphialide macroconidiophores, and are distinguished by morphology, mode of microconidia formation. and microconidiophore morphology (Nelson et al., 1983; Nelson, 1992). The reproductive state (perfect state) of F. moniliforme is called Gibberella fujikuroi (Sawada) Wollenw and has been known to produce mycotoxins including deoxynivalenol, diacetoxyscirpenol, fusaric acid, fusarins, gibberellins, moniliformin, T-2 toxin, zearalenone, and the fumonisins (Marasas et al., 1984; Nelson, 1992). Different fungal species normally are not classified as having the same perfect state. However, the perfect state of F. proliferatum is also Gibberella fujikuroi (Leslie, 1996). Mycotoxins produced by F. proliferatum include fusaric acid, gibberellin, moniliformin, the fumonisins, beauvericin, and fusaproliferin (Marasas et al., 1984; Nelson and Juba, 1994; Plattner and Nelson 1994; Ritieni, et al., 1995). Some strains of F. moniliforme consistently produced FB₁ as their major FB constituent but other strains of F. proliferatum did not (Nelson et al., 1994). Fusarium proliferatum strains from the Fusarium Research Center Collection (University Park, PA) found to produce FBs (in order of highest to lowest) were M-5991 and M-6293 for FB₁ production; M-6104, M-6293. and M-5991 for FB₂ production; and M-6284, M-6290, and M-6293 for FB₃ production. The mycotoxin produced by Alternaria alternata f.sp. lycopersici, AAL-toxin, is structurally

similar to FBs and may be produced by the same biosynthetic mechanisms that F. moniliforme used to produce FBs (Gilchrist *et al.*, 1992).

An alternate method for classification based on mating populations within *G*. *fujikuroi* has been reported by Leslie *et al.* (1992). *Gibberella fujikuroi* has 6 different mating populations, A through F, all within *Fusarium* section Liseola. Of 25 unique strains of *F. moniliforme* isolated from corn kernels associated with ELEM, all were mating population 'A' and produced FB₁ (Leslie *et al.*, 1992). However, FB₁ production by *F. moniliforme* was not required for pathogenicity on maize seedlings (Desjardins *et al.*, 1995). The 'D' mating population of section Liseola is comprised of *F. proliferatum* and produces FBs. Other *Fusarium* species have been reported to produced FBs such as *F. subglutinans* which is in the 'B' mating population (Leslie *et al.*, 1996).

The *Fusarium* fungi are natural soil contaminants and exist worldwide. They are responsible for causing many corn diseases. The FB₁-producing fungus reported most frequently from shelled corn from the United States of America (USA) is *F. moniliforme* (Kommedahl and Windels, 1981). This fungus causes ear rot, seedling blight, root rot, stalk rot, and storage decay in maize. Tseng *et al.* (1995) cultured *F. moniliforme* strains from Taiwan on corn, sorghum, rice, and sugarcane, resulting in the production of FB₁ and FB₂.

In summary, *F. moniliforme* and *F. proliferatum* are wide-spread in soil and produce FBs, along with other mycotoxins, on a major food staple: corn.

2. Occurrence of Fusarium fungi and FBs in foods

Strains of *F. moniliforme* have been isolated from various human food commodities including corn, asparagus, watermelon, and vanilla (Bars *et al.*, 1994). Gilchrist *et al.* (1992)

isolated F. moniliforme from ripe tomato fruits with symptoms of tomato black mold and from ears of corn with symptoms of pink ear rot. Fumonisin-producing strains of F. moniliforme are present in many food commodities, such as corn, destined for human consumption. Bullerman and Tsai (1994) isolated Fusarium fungi from the USA during 1991 and 1992 in yellow and white dent corn, popcorn, and sweet corn. The percentages of infected kernels from the dent corn and popcorn ranged from 8.4-36.2% and 1.8-10.3%, respectively. Fresh cob sweet corn were infected by Fusarium fungi to a lesser extent with a mean percentage of kernel infection of 0.3%, whereas frozen sweet corn kernels had a mean percentage of infected kernels of 8.0%. Bullerman and Tsai (1994) reported that the germ and bran of milled dent corn had the highest Fusarium infection and the flaking grit was the lowest, suggesting that the fungi may concentrate in the germ area and just under the pericarp. They suggested that the low levels of Fusarium contamination in flaking grit confirmed the findings by Stack and Eppley (1992) that flake cereal has not been associated with high levels of FBs. Good quality corn kernels meant for human consumption contained low levels of FBs while other corn material such as damaged corn, cob parts, stalk parts and screenings contained 74-770 µmoles of FBs/kg solids (Bullerman and Tsai, 1994). Strains of F. moniliforme were isolated from corn or sorghum from Indonesia, Philippines, and Thailand. The F. moniliforme cultures produced up to 203 µmoles of FB₁ and 62 µmoles of FB₂/L of LM (Miller et al., 1993). Visconti and Doko (1994) cultured F. moniliforme strains isolated from corn, sorghum, wheat, barley, and mixed feed in Italy, Spain, Poland, and France on SCM and produced up to 5.7 mmoles of FB₁/kg SCM. The isolates from corn produced the highest amounts of FB₁ followed by isolates from wheat, barley, and sorghum.

These data suggested that Europe and the USA had a similar pattern of FB-producing *Fusarium* stains from different substrates.

Murphy *et al.* (1993) reported that corn screenings had 10-fold greater amounts of FBs than intact corn isolated from Iowa, Wisconsin, and Illinois during 1988 to 1990. The highest levels of FB₁ were found in corn from the 1989 crop year which contained 53 µmoles FB₁/kg solids. Levels of FB₂ were 50-fold less than FB₁, while levels of FB₃ were 190-fold less than FB₁ in the corn samples from the 1989 crop year but both were linearly correlated with FB₁ concentration. Thiel *et al.* (1992) found 0-3.9 µmoles FB₁ and 0-1.5 µmoles FB₂/kg solids of commercial corn products meant for human consumption in the USA. Trucksess *et al.* (1995) analyzed USA commercial canned and frozen sweet corn samples for FB₁. Out of 97 samples, 35 contained up to 0.1 µmoles of FB₁/kg corn wet weight (wt). One canned corn and one frozen corn sample contained 0.3 and 0.5 µmoles FB₁/kg of human corn containing foods. In comparison of white and yellow cornmeal, canned yellow corn, tortilla chips, and masa, the highest levels of FB₁ were found in yellow corn meal.

Rheeder *et al.* (1994) found South African corn being shipped to Taiwan in 1989 to contain up to 1.2 μ moles FB₁/kg solids. Other mycotoxins found included FB₂ and moniliformin at less than half the concentration of FB₁. Ueno *et al.* (1993) found FB₁ and FB₂ present in corn kernels, gluten feeds, corn grits, and corn-based products in Asian countries during 1988-1992. The highest levels of these mycotoxins were found in corn kernels imported from the USA in 1988 which contained up to 5.7 and 14.4 μ moles of FB₁ and FB₂/kg solids, respectively. Two out of 7 of the FB₁ containing USA kernel samples also

contained aflatoxin B₁. The coexistence of FBs and aflatoxin is of particular concern because FB₁ is a promotor and aflatoxin is an initiator of cancer (Gelderblom *et al.*, 1988; Ellis *et al.*, 1991). Chu and Li (1994) found 49 mmoles of FB₁/kg solids from corn samples collected from households of counties of Cixian and Linxian of the People's Republic of China. There was no visible mold contamination on the corn samples. Other commodities have been shown to contain low levels of FBs including beer, Italian corn grits, USA blue corn meal, and self rising white meal (Scott and Lawrence, 1995; Shephard *et al.*, 1996).

Companion animal foods have also been reported to contain FBs. Hopmans *et al.* (1993) reported 303 to 1956 μ moles FB₁/kg pet food. The highest levels of FB₁ were found in dog food. Shephard *et al.* (1996) reported 458 μ moles of FB₁/kg swine feed and up to 100 μ moles of FB₁/kg horse feed.

The FBs are in most corn products to some extent. This is important because the potential exists that relatively high levels of FBs could exist in human or animal foods.

3. Detoxification of FBs

Detoxification of aflatoxin-contaminated corn can be achieved by treating the corn material with ammonia (Brekke *et al.*, 1977). However, detoxification of aflatoxin by ammoniation is not approved for interstate commerce by the FDA. Norred *et al* (1991) incubated SCM which contained FB₁ produced by *F. moniliforme* MRC-826 with ammonium hydroxide at 50°C for 4 d which reduced the FB₁ content in the SCM by 50%, but the toxicity to rats was not reduced nor was HFB₁ measured (Norred *et al.*, 1991). Neither increasing the concentration of ammonia to 5% nor decreasing the duration of the ammonia treatment from 4 to 1 d affected the final concentration of FB₁. The detectable FB₁ levels increased 5-fold

within 4 d following the ammoniation treatment. which suggested that the FB₁ may have been reversibly bound to the SCM matrix. Park *et al.* (1992) treated FB₁-containing SCM with ammonia resulting in 79% reduction in the FB₁ content without production of mutagenic compounds. The SCM was found to contain 120 µmoles FB₁/kg SCM before being exposed to 2% ammonia for 60 min at 15% moisture, 60 pounds per square inch (psi), and 20°C and at 13% moisture, 17 psi, and 125°C. However, the proposed detoxification of FB₁ was not confirmed by feeding laboratory animals nor was the SCM analyzed for HFB₁. Voss *et al.* (1992) found that FB₁ was reduced but not detoxified in ammoniated SCM. The SCM was cultured with *F. moniliforme* MRC 826 and contained 140 µmoles FB₁/kg SCM. After treating with 2% ammonia at 50°C for ≥1 d and dried, the SCM was found to contain 29% less FB₁. The ammoniated and non-ammoniated SCM increased serum ALT, AST, AP, and GGT activities when fed to rats. Ammonia treatment of FB₁ in SCM was not an effective method for its detoxification.

Nixtamilization is the process for masa and tortilla flour production involving alkaline cooking and steeping. This process converts FB₁ to HFB₁ (Hendrich *et al.*, 1993). Hendrich *et al.* (1993) mixed FB-containing corn kernels with clean corn to contain 69 μ moles of FB₁/kg of corn. The FB₁ was produced by *F. proliferatum* M-5991 in SCM. The corn kernels were nixtamilized by heating with 1.2% Ca(OH)₂ at 80-100°C for 60 min, steeped overnight, and washed. The nixtamilized corn was as hepatocarcinogenic as the non-nixtamilized corn in diethylnitrosamine (DEN) initiated male Fisher rats fed nutritionally adequate diets. However, nutritionally inadequate diets containing nixtamilized corn produced fewer adenomas than non-nixtamilized corn in rats.

Dupuy *et al.* (1993) and Bars *et al.* (1994) found SCM containing FB₁ to be relatively resistant to drying of corn. The $t_{1/2}$ of 2.1 mmoles FB₁ in SCM were 10, 38, 175, and 480 min when heated at 150, 125, 100, and 75°C, respectively. The FB₁ was produced by *F. moniliforme* in SCM. However, these SCMs were not analyzed for amine blocked-FB₁ or for toxicity. Due to the high required temperature and long heat exposure time, thermal treatment may not be practical for detoxification of FB₁ in SCM. Bordson *et al.* (1995) added 10 ml of H₂O to 10 g of corn samples containing 22 µmoles of FB₁ and 6.2 µmoles of FB₂ at 110°C for 24-h resulting in a 93% reduction in detectable FB₁ and a 66% reduction in FB₂. Similarly dried pelleted mixed feed samples resulted in undetectable FB₁ and a 44% reduction in FB₂. However, these samples were not analyzed for toxicity or for the presence of amine blocked-FB₁. By heating FB₁ and FB₂ in a pH 4 buffered solution at 150°C for 60 min, Jackson *et al.* (1996a and 1996b) reduced the levels of FB₁ by 90% and the levels of FB₂ by 70%. However, HFB₁, HFB₂, partially HFB₁, (PHFB₁), and PHFB₂ were formed. The decomposition rate of FB₁ was pH dependent with a greater rate at pH 4 than pH 7 or 10. At pH 7 and 10, FB₁ was reduced by 20 and 50%, respectively.

The nonenzymatic browning reaction may block the amine group of FB by forming a Schiff's base with a reducing sugar. Murphy *et al.* (1995) incubated 69.3 μ moles of FB₁ with 100 mM fructose or glucose and 50 mM potassium phosphate, pH 7.0, at 80°C for 48-h which resulted in a 90% decrease in the detectability of FB₁. Lu *et al.* (1997) reported FB₁-FRU did not induce liver cancer in DEN initiated rats suggesting that FB₁ was detoxified.

The FBs have not been shown to be metabolized by enzymes. Murphy *et al.* (1996) incubated FB_1 with monoamine oxidase, diamine oxidase, L-amino acid oxidase, and D-

amino acid oxidase without changing the detectability of FB₁ by OPA-derivatization. Cawood *et al.* (1994) incubated FB₁ with microsomal enzyme preparations without the formation of FB metabolites suggesting that FB₁ was not metabolized by the esterases or by the cytochrome P-450 monooxygenase enzymes.

The FBs are relatively stable to the temperatures and treatments associated with foods. However, TCA groups can be hydrolyzed or the amine group blocked on the FB backbone potentially resulting in the formation of other toxic or non-toxic compounds.

C. Growth Parameters of Fusarium Fungi

1. Solid growth media

Fusarium moniliforme and *F. proliferatum* produce FBs when cultured on solid corn or rice media. Gilchrist *et al.* (1992) inoculated 1.5 ml H₂O/g SCM or solid rice medium (SRM) with *F. moniliforme* which produced 4.2 mmoles FBs/kg dry wt (DW) of SCM and 6.7 mmoles of FBs/kg DW of SRM. Desjardins *et al.* (1994) inoculated 50 g of corn and 11 ml H₂O with *F. moniliforme* which produced 8.0 mmoles FB₁ and 4.4 mmoles FB₂/kg DW of SCM. Nelson *et al.* (1994) inoculated 500 g corn and 500 ml dH₂O with *F. proliferatum* M-5991 which produced 8.0 mmoles FB₁/kg DW of SCM. Optimal moisture content of the SCM for FB₁ production by *F. moniliforme* was found to be 32% (Bars *et al.*, 1994). These data suggested that *F. moniliforme* or *F. proliferatum* may produce up to 8.0 mmoles FB₁/kg DW of SCM or 6.7 mmoles FB₁/kg DW of SRM.

Fungal mutations has been a problem with *F. moniliforme* when grown on a medium rich in carbohydrates (Nelson, 1992). Mycelial or pionnotal type mutants often lost virulence

and the ability to produce toxins. To avoid mutations, cultures were initiated from single conidia, grown in a low carbohydrate medium, and preserved by lyophilization or in liquid nitrogen.

2. Liquid growth medium

Fusarium moniliforme and F. proliferatum also produce FBs when cultured in LM. However, concentrations of FBs in LM are usually expressed in wet wt rather than DW which may result in an apparent lower mass. Jackson and Bennett (1990) inoculated 500 ml of a basal-salts vitamin-supplemented LM with F. moniliforme Northern Regional Research Center Peoria, IL (NRRL)-13616 which produced 0.1 mmoles FB₁/L of LM after 29 d. The basal-salts consisted of 3.5 g NH₄SO₄, 2.0 g KH₂PO₄, 0.4 g MgSO₄•7H₂O, 16 mg MnSO₄•H₂O, and 90 g glucose/L of dH₂O. The vitamin-supplement consisted of 500 μ g each of thiamin, riboflavin, pantothenate, niacin, pyridoxamine, and thiotic acid/L of dH₂O. The culture was grown in a 1 L Erlenmeyer flask on a rotary shaker at 220 revolutions per min (rpm) and 28°C and the pH was maintained at 5.0 using 2N HCl or 2N NaOH. Lebepe-Mazur (1993) inoculated 100 ml of basal-salts vitamin-methionine-supplemented LM with F. proliferatum M-5991 which produced 0.5 mmoles FB₁/L of LM after 24 d of incubation. The vitamin-methionine-supplement consisted of 50 µg each of folate, biotin, and vitamin B_{12} and 250 mg of dl-methionine/L of dH₂O. The cultures were incubated in 1 L screw capped flat bottles laid on their sides while shaking at 5 rpm on a rotary shaker without pH adjustment. These data suggested that adjusting the pH of the LM may result in reduced production of FBs by F. moniliforme or F. proliferatum.

Blackwell *et al.* (1994) inoculated 50 ml of LM with *F. moniliforme* NRRL-13616 which produced 0.5 mmoles FB₁/L of modified Myro LM. The modified Myro LM consisted of 1.0 g (NH₄)₂HPO₄. 3.0 g KH₂PO₄, 0.2 g MgSO₄•7H₂O. 5.0 g NaCl. 40 g sucrose, and 10 g glycerin/L of H₂O. Production of FB₁ in 250 ml Erlenmeyer flasks was greatest when the inoculum was increased from 4.0 to 7.0% (v/v) or the volume of LM was increased from 50 to 75 ml. Miller *et al.* (1994) inoculated 9.3 L of the same LM in a 15 L stirred jar vessel with *F. moniliforme* NRRL-13616 which produced 0.4 mmoles FB₁/L of LM after 10 d. Air was pumped into the fermentation vessel at 3.2 L/min. In the fermentation vessel, CO₂ production decreased and reducing sugars were consumed as the FB levels increased suggesting that FB production occurred during low respiration by *F. moniliforme*. The cell density of the *F. moniliforme* culture increased from 0 to 9.0 g DW solids/L after 10 d of incubation. The concentration of FB₁ produced, based on DW solids, was 40 mmoles FB₁/kg DW solids. These data indicated that there was a 5-fold increase in FB₁ produced by *F. moniliforme* in LM than in SCM or SRM.

Production of FBs from LM is better than from SCM or SRM as indicated by the FB concentrations based on DW. The SCM and SRM contained more solids than the LM which may have hindered the purification procedure of FBs.

D. Fumonisin Analysis

1. Fluorometry

The structure of FBs does not allow for its direct detection using most analytical detectors such as an ultraviolet absorbance detector. Like sphingosine and amino acids, the

primary amine group of FBs can be derivatized with fluorescent compounds and quantified using a fluorometric detector. Analysis of FBs initially involves a clean-up procedure followed by derivatization with a fluorescent molecule such as o-pthaldialdehyde (OPA) and a reducing agent such as 2-mercaptoethanol (MCE) followed by C₁₈-HPLC with fluorometric detection. Previous work by Merrill et al. (1988) analyzed sphingosine, which is structurally similar to FBs, by derivatization with OPA containing MCE for at least 5 min, loading onto a C₁₈-HPLC column, elution with MeOH:5.0 mM KH₂PO₄ at pH 7.0 (90:10), and quantification using a fluorometer with an excitation wavelength (λex) of 340 nm and an emission wavelength (λ em) of 455 nm. Similarly, FB₁ and FB₂ were derivatized with OPA containing MCE for 1 to 2 min, loaded onto a C₁₈-HPLC column, eluted with MeOH:0.1 M NaH_2PO_4 (80:20) pH 3.3, and quantified using a fluorometer with an λex of 335 nm and an λ em of 440 nm (Shephard *et al.*, 1990). This procedure has been accepted, with slight modification of mobile phase to MeOH:0.1 M NaH₂PO₄ (77:23) pH 3.3, as an A.O.A.C. Official Method 995.15 for quantification of FB₁, FB₂, and FB₃ that have been extracted and cleaned-up from corn (Sydenham et al., 1996b). Rice and Ross (1994) reported FB₁, FB₂, and FB₃ were derivatized with OPA and MCE for 10 min, loaded onto a C₁₈-HPLC column, eluted with a ACN:50 mM KH₂PO₄ at pH 3.3 (40:60), and quantified using a fluorometer with an λ ex of 335 nm and an λ em of 440 nm. Poling and Plattner (1996) reported FB₃ and FB₄ were derivatized with OPA and MCE for 1 to 2 min, loaded onto a C₁₈-HPLC column, and eluted with MeOH:H₂O:0.1 M NaH₂PO₄ adjusted to pH 3.35 A (60:40) and B (80:20) at 25% A for 1 min, a linear gradient to 100% B for 15 min, and 100% B for 5 min. The OPA-FB derivatives were quantified using a fluorometer with an λex of 334 nm and an λem of 440

nm. Thakur and Smith (1996) modified the conventional HPLC procedure for separation of the OPA-FB derivatives by leaving the buffering-salts out of the mobile phase. Samples containing FB₁, FB₂, HFB₁, HFB₂, and partially hydrolyzed FB₁ (PHFB₁) were derivatized with a commercial reagent OPA-reducing agent kit for 1 min, loaded onto a double-endcapped C₁₈-HPLC column, eluted with ACN:H₂O:acetic acid (40:59:1) and (60:39:1) gradient 0% to 100% of the latter phase in 9 min. The OPA-FB derivatives were quantified using a fluorometer with an λ ex of 255 nm and an λ em of 442 nm. This HPLC mobile phase for FB separation was reported to be better than the conventional buffering-salts mobile phase because it was more appropriate for on-line liquid chromatography (LC)-MS analysis and required less time for column equilibration. Miyahara *et al.* (1996) reported FB₁ and FB₂ were derivatized with OPA containing N-acetyl-L-cysteine in an in-line reaction coil and loaded onto an ion pair LC. This derivatization procedure produced a more stable derivative than the OPA containing MCE procedure (Miyahara *et al.*, 1996). The OPA-FB derivatives were quantified using a fluorometer with an λ ex of 336 nm and an λ em of 460 nm.

Holcomb *et al.* (1993) reported that FB₁ was derivatized with (9-fluorenylmethyl) chloroformate (FMOC) for 30 sec followed by pentane extraction, loaded onto a C₁₈-HPLC column, and eluted with MeOH:citrate buffer A (30:70) and B (70:30) at a linear gradient from 10 to 40% B over 9 min followed by a linear gradient to 100% B in 1 min. The FMOC-FB derivatives were quantified using a fluorometer with an λ ex of 263 nm and an λ em of 313 nm.

Ware *et al.* (1993) compared amine derivatizing reagents, naphthalene-2,3dicarboxaldehyde (NDA), OPA, phenyl isothiocyanate, fluorescamine, and

nitrobenzoxadiazole, for their stability after derivatization with the amine group on FB₁. The derivatizing reagent with the best stability was NDA, however, it involved a complex procedure of heating FB₁, NDA, and cyanide at 60°C for 15 min. However, the NDA-FB₁ derivative retained 90% of its fluorescence after 10-h while the OPA-FB₁ derivative retained only 33%. Phenyl isothiocyanate and fluorescamine were less effective in their ability to form a stable derivatized FB₁ compound. The NDA-FB₁ derivative was loaded onto a C₁₈-HPLC column, eluted with ACN:H₂O:acetic acid (55:45:1), and quantified using a fluorometer with an λ ex of 410 nm and an λ em of 440 nm.

Rottinghaus *et al.* (1992) developed a rapid procedure screening samples for the presence of FB compounds. C_{18} -Thin layer chromatography (TLC) plates were spotted with FB₁ and FB₂, developed with MeOH:4% aqueous KCl (3:2), and sprayed with fluorescamine. The fluorescamine derivatized with the amine group of FB₁ and FB₂. After drying the fluorescamine-FB compounds were observed under long-wave ultraviolet (UV) light as bright yellowish-green bands.

The OPA-FB₁ derivatization method has been the method of choice for FB identification and quantification by researchers. This method is relatively simple, cheap, and reproducible. The NDA-FB₁ derivative was shown to be more stable than OPA-FB₁ but appeared to be more a complicated procedure. Identification of FBs by TLC is relatively simple, cheap, and quick but, is not useful for quantification of FBs.

2. ELISA

Detection of FBs by an enzyme-linked immunosorbant assay (ELISA) involves monoclonal or polyclonal antibodies raised against FBs. When corn and corn based foods were quantified for FB₁ by monoclonal antibody competitive direct-ELISA. greater levels of FB₁ were obtained compared to OPA-FB₁ fluorometric detection (Pestka *et al.*, 1994; Tejada-Simon *et al.*, 1995; Sydenham *et al.*, 1996a; Sutikno *et al.*, 1996). Similar results were observed by Shelby *et al.* (1994) in FB₁ quantified in corn using monoclonal antibody competitive indirect-ELISA compared to TLC. These data suggested that compounds that were structurally related to FBs were detectable only by an ELISA.

Yeung *et al.* (1996) quantified the amount of FB_1 in corn by polyclonal antibodies CD-ELISA (PA-CD-ELISA) but did not compare their results to other FB_1 detection procedures. Schneider *et al.* (1995) developed a qualitative 10 min detection method for FB_1 using a noncompetitive anti-FB₁ antibodies enzyme linked immunofiltration assay.

Compared to fluorometric analysis, the ELISAs have the potential to provide quick results where a large number of samples can be qualitatively screened for FBs at one time. These ELISAs are applicable for field and industry use. However, due to cross reactivity with other FBs and structurally related compounds, the amounts of FBs detected in corn and food samples by ELISAs have been greater than the amounts detected by conventional HPLC-OPA derivatized methods.

3. Other analytical methods

Due to the structure of FBs, their direct detection by UV detectors has not been reported. Alberts *et al.* (1993a) derivatized FB₁, FB₂, and FB₃ with maleic anhydride and quantified them using HPLC with an UV detector at 240 nm. However, the FB-maleyl derivatives had low end detection limit of 112-140 μ moles FBs/g of SCM compared to 1-18 nmoles FBs/g SCM for OPA-ME analysis (Sydenham *et al.*, 1996) and 55-83 pmoles FBs/g SCM for ELISAs (Schneider *et al.*, 1995). Wilkes *et al.* (1995) quantified FBs with evaporative light-scattering detection (ELSD) after HPLC separation without derivatization. However, the ELSD could only detect about 1.7 µmoles FBs/g of SCM and the standard curves are not linear. Due to its non-invasive analysis of FBs, the ELSD was practical for semi-preparative purification of FBs. The method of FB detection by silica-TLC (Ackermann, 1991) was enhanced by a spectrophotodensitometer detector (Bars *et al.*, 1994) making silica-TLC analysis of FBs applicable for quantitation having a low end detection limit of 42-70 mmoles FBs/g of SCM and 4-7 mmoles FBs/g of purified extracts.

Other methods that have reported to characterize FBs by mass spectrometry (MS) include continuous flow fast atom bombardment and ion spray-MS (Mirocha *et al.*, 1992), electrospray-MS (Poling and Plattner, 1996), negative-ion thermospray-MS (Thakur and Smith, 1994), and particle-beam-MS (Young and Lafontaine, 1993).

E. Fumonisin Clean-Up

1. Solid matrices

For quantification in corn and corn-based foods, FBs need to be cleaned-up so they can be identified using a detection method. Hopmans and Murphy (1993) cleaned-up FB₁, FB₂, FB₃, and HFB₁ from corn based foods by extraction with 50% ACN and elution from a C₁₈-SPE cartridge. Rice *et al.* (1995) cleaned-up FB₁, FB₂, and FB₃ from corn, poultry feed, and SCM by extraction with 50% ACN and elution from a C₁₈-SPE cartridge. Miyahara *et al.* (1996) cleaned-up FB₁ and FB₂ from corn and corn-based foods by extraction with 50% ACN and elution from C₁₈-SPE and strong anion exchange (SAX)-SPE cartridges. Sydenham *et al.* (1996b) cleaned up FB₁, FB₂, and FB₃ from corn by extraction with 75% MeOH and elution from a SAX-SPE cartridge. This last procedure has been accepted as an AOAC Official Method as a pre-quantification clean-up procedure for determination of FB₁. FB₂, and FB₃ levels in corn (Sydenham *et al.*, 1996b). However, HFBs will not be retained on the SAX-SPE column and are missed by the AOAC method. Ware *et al.* (1994) cleanedup FB₁ and FB₂ from corn by extraction with 80% MeOH and elution from an immunoaffinity Fumonitest-LC column. Selim *et al.* (1996) cleaned-up FB₁ from corn. corn dust, and SCM by extraction with supercritical CO₂ (SC-CO₂). The SC-CO₂ fluid extraction removed 40-fold more FB₁ from the corn and corn dust, was faster, and was more reproducible than extraction with ethyl acetate 2 times followed by 75% MeOH 3 times. Clean-up procedures are similar to purification procedures only on a smaller scale with the use of cartridges rather than columns.

F. Fumonisin Purification

1. Solid matrices

Purification of FBs is the first step in FB quantification and usually involves extraction from a solid matrix with a solvent, such as MeOH or ACN, followed by chromatography and finishing with purified dry solids for weight determination. Cawood *et al.* (1991) purified FB₁, FB₂, FB₃, and FB₄ produced by *F. moniliforme* MRC-826 on SCM by extraction with 75% MeOH and elution from XAD-2-, silica gel-, and C₁₈-LC to obtain >90% pure FBs with 40% yield. Meredith *et al.* (1996) purified FB₁ produced by *F. moniliforme* MRC-826 from SRM by extraction with 50% acetonitrile (ACN) and elution from a C_{18} -LC column and 2 cyano-LC-cartridges to obtain $\ge 95\%$ pure FB₁ with a recovery of 77%. Poling and Plattner (1996) purified FB₃ and FB₄ to $\ge 90\%$ FB₃ and FB₄ with $\ge 95\%$ recovery produced by *F. moniliforme* from SCM by extraction with 50% ACN, elution from a NH₂-solid phase extraction (SPE) cartridge with 5% acetic acid in MeOH, and elution from a C₁₈-SPE cartridge with increasing concentrations of ACN.

Monomethyl and dimethyl esters of FB₁ and FB₂, formed as artifacts from extractions of FBs from SCM with MeOH, may interfere with the purification of FB₂, FB₃, and FB₄ (Gelderblom *et al.*, 1992). Monomethyl and dimethyl esters have not been reported to be produced during extraction of FBs with acetonitrile (ACN). In addition, the extraction of FB₁, FB₂, and FB₃ from SCM with 50% ACN was 3-fold greater than 75% MeOH after 8-h (Nelson *et al.*, 1994; Rice *et al.*, 1995). Due to the reported formation of artifacts and better ability to extract FBs from SCM, ACN may be a better solvent than MeOH for FB extraction from SCM.

Complicated matrices such as biological tissues require the use of a chelating agent such as ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) to extract impurities associated with the FBs. Shephard *et al.* (1994b) cleaned-up FB₁ from primate feces by extraction of impurities with 0.1 M EDTA 6 times and elution of the FB₁ from a C₁₈-SPE cartridge. Hopmans *et al.* (1997) cleaned-up FB₁, HFB₁, and FB₁-FRU from rat feces by extraction of the impurities with 0.1 M EDTA 9 times and elution from a C₁₈-SPE cartridge.

The FBs have been purified from solid matrices by extraction and LC to \geq 95% purity and up to 95% recovery.

2. Liquid matrices

Purification of FBs from liquid matrices does not require solvent extraction like that of solid matrices. In addition, the liquid matrices do not apparently contain as many lipophilic compounds as solid matrices which co-purify with FBs during LC (Jackson and Bennett, 1990). Miller *et al.* (1996) purified FB₁ produced by *F. moniliforme* NRRL-13616 in LM to 97% purity with 89% yield by ion-exchange, silica gel, and C₁₈-LC. Lebepe-Mazur (1993) purified FB₁ produced by *F. proliferatum* M-5991 in LM to >90% purity with 40% yield by XAD-2, silica gel, and C₁₈-LC. The use of ion-exchange to purify FBs may result in increased purities of FB₁.

G. Isotope Labeling of Fumonisin B₁

1. Deuterium labeling

Labeling FB with isotopes, such as deuterium (²H), can be helpful for understanding the production of FB by *F. moniliforme* and identify possible radiolabeling substrates. Isotope or radiolabeled FB₁ is needed for animal toxicity studies. Plattner and Shackelford (1992) and Plattner and Branham (1994) added [²H₃]-(CH₃)-L-methionine to LM cultured with *F. moniliforme* M-2326 resulting in the production of [²H₃]-(C-12, 16)-FB₁ (Fig. 1). Three or 6 ²H atoms were incorporated into FB₁ suggesting that the CH₃ group of methionine was incorporated into one or both of the CH₃ groups at the C-12 and C-16 positions on the FB₁ backbone. Methionine, a substrate used by many fungal methyl transferases (Plattner and Shackelford, 1992), stimulated the production of FB₁ when added to LM cultured with *F*. *moniliforme* and incubated for 13 d. These data suggested that methionine could be used as a substrate for radiolabeling FBs.

2. ¹³C Labeling

Alberts et al. (1993b) added $[^{13}C]$ -(CH₃)-L-methionine to SCM cultured with F. moniliforme MRC-826 which resulted in the production of [¹³C]-(C-12, 16)-FB₁ supporting the observation of Plattner and Shackelford (1992) and Plattner and Branham (1994), that methionine supplied the CH₃ groups located on the C-12 and C-16 positions of the FB₁ backbone. Blackwell et al. (1994) added $[^{13}C]$ -(C-2)-acetate to LM cultured with F. moniliforme NRRL-13616 resulting in the production of [¹³C]-(C-4, 6, 8, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20)-FB₁. When [¹³C]-(C-1)-acetate was added to LM cultured with F. moniliforme NRRL-13616, [¹³C]-(C-3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15, 19)-FB₁ and a [¹³C]-carboxyl in the TCA groups were identified. When [¹³C]-(CH₃)-L-methionine, [¹³C]-(C-5)-L-glutamate, and [¹³C]-(C-3)-serine were added to LM cultured with F. moniliforme NRRL-13616, [13C]-(C-12, 16)-FB₁, [13C]-TCA groups, and [¹³C]-(C-1)-FB, were identified, respectively. [¹³C]-(C-3)-L-Alanine was also reported by Blackwell et al. (1996) to produce [¹³C]-(C-1)-FB₁. These data suggested that the long chain FB-backbone may have been derived from the condensation of acetyl-CoA units resulting in the even label throughout the FB molecule during polyketide synthesis. Radiolabeled acetate may be a better substrate for radiolabeling FB because more carbons are labeled per molecule of FB.

3. ¹⁴C Labeling

Radiolabeling FB with [¹⁴C] can be useful for animal toxicity studies. The amount of incorporation of radioactivity that is incorporated into a molecule can be expressed as
specific activity (SA) having the units of milli-Curie (mCi)/mmole Alberts *et al.* (1993b) added 50 mg L-methionine and 200 μ Ci [¹⁴C]-(CH₃)-L-methionine to 30 g of SCM cultured with *F. moniliforme* MRC-826. The *F. moniliforme* produced [¹⁴C]-FB which was purified to 14 mmoles FB/kg DW with a SA of 0.04 mCi/mmole. The ¹⁴C-methionine was added during logarithmic phase of FB₁ production from 3 to 11 d of incubation and was incorporated into the C-21 and C-22 positions of the FB₁ backbone. However, when 250 mg sodium acetate and 125 μ Ci of [¹⁴C]-acetate were added to 30 g SCM containing *F. moniliforme*, the SA of the purified FBs was only 0.01 mCi/mmole. These data suggested that when 250 mg sodium acetate were added to 30 g SCM, *F. moniliforme* decreased the production of FB₁.

Lebepe-Mazur (1993) incubated 500 ml of LM containing *F. proliferatum* M-5991 for 8 d, added 100 µCi [¹⁴C]-(CH₃)-L-methionine, and harvested after 12 d. The *F. proliferatum* produced [¹⁴C]-FB₁ which was purified to 54 µmoles of 85% pure [¹⁴C]-FB₁ with a SA of 0.07 mCi/mmole. Norred *et al* (1993) added 1 mCi of [¹⁴C]-(CH₃)-methionine to 100 ml of LM cultured with *F. moniliforme* M-2326 and harvested after 10 d of incubation. The *F. moniliforme* produced [¹⁴C]-FB₁ which was purified to 55.5 µmoles [¹⁴C]-FB₁ (>95% pure) with a SA of 0.74 mCi/mmole. Blackwell *et al.* (1994) added 0.1 mCi [1,2-¹⁴C]-acetate to 50 ml of LM cultured with *F. moniliforme* NRRL-13616/d between 7 and 14 d of incubation and harvested after 17 d. The *F. moniliforme* culture produced [¹⁴C]-FBs which were purified to 36 µmoles FBs with a SA of 0.65 mCi/mmole. These data suggested different methods for [¹⁴C]-labeling of FBs in LM cultures of *F. moniliforme*.

H. Fumonisin Toxicity

1. History

Prior to 1988, SCM containing cultures of *F. moniliforme* were known to induce ELEM and equine hepatotoxicity, PPE, rat liver cancer, and were associated with human esophageal cancer in South Africa (Marasas, 1996). During 1988 to 1991, the FBs were isolated, characterized, and confirmed to be inducers of ELEM, PPE, and liver cancer in horses, swine, and rats, respectively (Marasas, 1996).

Epidemiological studies on FBs have shown that FBs exist in animal and human food and suggest a correlation between FB consumption and human esophageal cancer. Castella et al. (1996) found that over 97% of *F. moniliforme* strains isolated from poultry feed produced FB₁. Fumonisin B₁ was present in 89% of the corn samples collected from different regions of Costa Rica (Viquez *et al.*, 1996). The FBs are the major mycotoxin contaminants of corn-based foods in Eastern and Southern Africa (Doko *et al.*, 1996). Corn samples, taken from households of Linxian China in areas that had high incidences of human esophageal cancer, were found to contain an average of 103 and 48 µmoles FB₁/kg moldy and non-moldy corn, respectively (Chu and Li, 1994). Although inconclusive, these data suggested a possible correlation between FBs and human esophageal cancer. Chu and Li (1994) suggested that the carcinogenic potential of FBs may be increased by the ability of *F. moniliforme* to produce carcinogenic nitrosamines from nitrate and precursor amines.

Marasas *et al.* (1988) dosed 2 horses (15 years old [y], 425 kg BW; 15 y, 385 kg BW) by gavage with a corn diet containing 3.5 and 1.75 μ moles FB₁/kg BW/d for 6 d, respectively. Both horses developed ELEM without signs of demyelinization. The 3.5

µmoles FB₁/kg BW/d dose induced fatal hepatosis. mild brain lesions, and elevated activities of aspartate transaminase (AST), gamma-glutamyltransferase (GGT), lactate dehydrogenase (LD), and total bilirubin (TB) in the horse up to 4 d after the treatment terminated. The 1.75 µmoles FB₁/kg BW/d dose induced mild hepatosis, severe brain lesions, and elevated activities of AST, GGT, and LD in the horse 3 d after commencement of the treatment. In a second experiment, ELEM was induced in a horse by intravenous injections (iv) of 0.17 µmoles FB₁ (92 % pure)/kg BW/d for 7 d. The FB₁ used in the iv dose was produced by F. moniliforme MRC-826 on SCM. Biochemical changes in the horse included elevations of AST and GGT up to 4 d after the treatment terminated. Kellerman et al. (1991) dosed a filly (0.75 y, 150 kg BW) and a colt (1.2 y, 190 kg BW) by gavage with 12.4 mmoles FB₁ (50% pure) over a period of 33 d and 1.7 mmoles FB₁ (95% pure) over a period of 29 d, respectively, which induced ELEM in both horses. Serum AST levels in the filly and serum GGT levels in the colt were elevated. No other changes in biochemical markers, AST, GGT. LD, and TB, were observed. The kidneys from each horse were swollen and grayish-yellow in color. In the final treatments, the horses developed clinical signs typical of ELEM (including stumbling, apathy, tremors, and inability to eat). The total dose required for the appearance of the initial clinical signs was 4.1 mmoles FB₁ (50% pure) for the filly and 8.3 mmoles FB₁ (95% pure) for the colt. Indications of ELEM were apparent in the left frontal lobe of the filly and the left frontal to occipital lobes of the colt. Wilson et al. (1992) fed corn containing 20.8, 0, 30.5, 0, and 30.5 µmoles FB₁/kg diet/d for 130, 30, 13, 7, and 58 d, respectively, to a gelding horse (4 y, 152 kg BW) which induced ELEM and death in the horse. This diet regimen was designed to determine on the minimum dose of FB₁ that was

toxic to this horse. However, the corn also contained 31 µmoles of FB₂/kg corn. Prior to death, the horse showed typical symptoms of ELEM (aggression, ataxia, and confusion). During the final treatment, the dosage rate was 0.25 µmoles FB₁/kg BW/d. Within 9 d of death, the horse experienced increased serum TB, direct bilirubin (DB), alkaline phosphatase (ALP), GGT, and bile acids. Three other horses of similar age survived the treatments and were euthanized after 146 d into the final treatment. They did not develop ELEM or abnormal serum chemistry levels, but showed typical physical symptoms of ELEM and had histopathological-brain lesions. In a second experiment reported by Wilson et al. (1992), 5 horses fed a low fat corn diet containing 2.0 µmoles FBs/d for 122 d followed by a normal corn diet containing 4 µmoles FBs/d for 58 d. These horses survived the FB1 treatments without abnormal serum chemistry levels. However, they showed typical physical symptoms of ELEM and developed histopathological-brain lesions. These data support the findings that FB₁, purified or contained in corn, caused ELEM in horses at a minimum level of 0.17 to 5.5 µmoles FB₁/kg BW for 7 d. When dosed by iv, FB₁ was 10-fold more toxic to horses than when dosed by gavage suggesting that FB₁ was only partially absorbed when consumed by these horses. These FB-treated horses showed signs of liver or kidney toxicity based on serum chemistry data.

Harrison *et al.* (1990) fed corn containing 215 μ moles FB₁/kg diet for 7 d to young swine (16-24 kg BW) which caused PPE and death in the swine. The FB₁ was produced by a fungus identical in morphology to *F. moniliforme* MRC-826. In a second experiment, a young pig (7-8 kg BW) dosed by iv with 0.5 μ moles of FB₁ (≥95% pure)/kg BW/d developed PPE and died after 5 d. Pathological lesions in the lungs were found in the PPE affected pigs

with typical PPE symptoms including the presence of clear foamy liquid in the trachea and bronchi, air-clotting golden-yellow liquid in the thoracic cavity, and interlobular edema of the lung. However, in a third experiment reported by Harrison *et al.* (1990), a pig dosed by iv with 0.24 µmoles of FB₁ (≥95% pure) and a pig dosed by iv with 0.4 µmoles of FB₂ (≥95% pure)/kg BW/d for 7 d, did not develop PPE. Osweiler *et al.* (1992) fed a corn diet containing 23 µmoles FB₁/kg diet to weanling pigs (7-15 kg BW) causing PPE after 5 d. The FB₁ was produced by *F. moniliforme* MRC-3033. Prelusky *et al.* (1996) found FB₁ to accumulate in the liver and kidneys of pigs (6-8 weeks [wk] old, 9-13 kg BW) fed 4 µmoles [¹⁴C]-FB₁/kg diet for 12 d followed by 3 µmoles [¹⁴C]-FB₁/kg diet for 12 d. The [¹⁴C]-FB₁ was produced by *F. moniliforme* NRRL-13616. These data suggested that FB₁ may have caused PPE after these pigs consumed 3 µmoles FB₁/kg diet for 12 d. When pigs were dosed by iv, FB₁ was almost 20-fold more toxic to pigs than when dosed by gavage suggesting that FB₁ was not well absorbed by the GI tract of these pigs.

Motelin *et al.* (1994) fed a corn screenings diet which was found to contain 243 μ moles FBs/kg diet to male weanling pigs (6-13 kg BW) inducing PPE after 14 d. However, no PPE symptoms were observed in pigs fed 139 μ moles FBs/kg diet. These data suggested that PPE in swine may have been caused by the consumption of diet containing 139-243 μ moles FBs/kg diet. The presence of FB₂, at about 30% of the total FBs, may have played a role in the toxicity of the FB-containing diet. There has been little work comparing PPE toxicity of FB₁ and FB₂.

Smith *et al.* (1996) fed pigs a corn diet containing 49 μ moles HFB₁/kg BW/d for 7 d. The HFB₁ was synthesized from FB₁ produced by *F. moniliforme* MRC-826. After 8 d, the

pigs were catheterized and their right atriums were infused with Monastral Blue or *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* to measure the efficiency of pulmonary clearance. This HFB₁ level may have inhibited pulmonary intravascular macrophages from clearing particulates and bacteria from the circulation which, could have made these pigs vulnerable to infectious diseases. These data suggested that HFB₁ is toxic to pigs and could have potentially caused PPE.

After FB_1 has been identified and purified, it has been reported to cause ELEM and PPE. However, the mode of toxicity and the ability to target different organs in different animals, such as the brain of horses and the lungs of pigs, has not been reported. The implications this has for humans is unclear. So far, FB consumption has been associated with human esophageal cancer only by epidemiological studies.

2. Alteration of sphinganine and sphingosine metabolism

Fumonisins inhibit ceramide synthase, the main enzyme involved with converting sphinganine to ceramide (Merrill *et al.*, 1993) during sphingolipid metabolism in mammals. Once formed, ceramide may then be converted to sphingosine or other sphingolipids. Levels of sphingosine are only slightly increased in cells exposed to FBs. This may be due to the breakdown of complex sphingolipids. Therefore, inhibition of ceramide synthase could result in the accumulation of sphinganine and an increase in the sphinganine/sphingosine ratio of mammalian cells (Merrill *et al.*, 1993). Riley *et al.* (1993) observed increased sphinganine levels, an increase in the sphinganine/sphingosine ratio, and a slight increase in sphingosine in male and female Sprague-Dawley rats (3-5 wk old) fed 20 μ moles FB₁ (>99% pure)/kg diet for 4 wk. The FB₁ was produced by *F. moniliforme* MRC-826 on SCM. The

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kidneys of the male and female rats and urine from the male rats, fed $\geq 20 \ \mu \text{moles FB}_1/\text{kg}$ diet, had significantly higher sphinganine levels than their respective controls. The sphinganine levels from the urine of female rats were significantly increased when fed ≥ 67 μ moles FB₁/kg diet. Ultrastructural damage was observable in the kidneys from the male rats fed $\geq 20 \ \mu$ moles FB₁/kg diet and in female rats fed $\geq 67 \ \mu$ moles FB₁/kg diet. A similar pattern of tissue damage was observed in the male and female rat livers. Elevated sphinganine levels and an increase in the sphinganine/sphingosine ratio observed in the urine of these rats may have been due to FB₁-induced kidney or liver toxicity. The male rats appeared to be slightly more sensitive to FB₁ than female rats as perceived by the urine and ultra-structural damage data. These data supported the theory that FB₁ inhibited ceramide synthase because sphinganine was increased in rats dosed with FB₁.

Martinova and Merrill (1995) dosed BALB/c mice by iv with 0.028 μ moles of FB₁ (>95% pure)/kg BW/d for 5 d resulting in a 294-fold increase in liver sphinganine and a 6-fold increase in liver sphingosine. These data suggested that FB₁ produced similar signs of liver toxicity in mice as those seen in rats.

Weibking *et al.* (1993) fed 100 μ moles FB₁/kg diet to broiler chicks for 21 d and observed a 3-fold increase in serum sphinganine levels and a 6-fold increase in the sphinganine/sphingosine ratio. The FB₁ was produced by *F. moniliforme* M-1325 on corn and extracted with acetone:chloroform (75:25). These data suggested that chickens may be less toxic to FB₁ than rats.

The FB₁ (>95% pure) concentration causing 50% inhibition of ceramide synthase in mouse brain microsomes (IC₅₀) was 0.075 μ M FB₁ (Merrill *et al.*, 1993). Fumonisin B₁ was

shown to competitively inhibit ceramide synthase with sphinganine and stearoyl-CoA as substrates. Mouse brain microsomes produced ¹⁴C-sphingolipids when incubated with [¹⁴C]-serine and 25 μ M FB₁, the amount of [¹⁴C]-sphingolipids were decreased. This same dose of FB₁ caused free sphinganine to increase 20-fold within 24-h while no change occurred in sphingosine concentrations from the mouse brain microsomes. Harel and Futerman (1993) treated rat hippocampal neurons with 10 μ M FB₁ (>95% pure) *in vitro* resulting in an inhibition of sphingolipid synthesis after 2 to 3 d of incubation. Control neuron cells increased their axonal length from 170 to 240 μ m, while no increase in axonal length were observed in FB₁ treated neurons. Furthermore, when ceramide was added to FB₁ treated neurons may be due to inhibition of ceramide synthesis. These data suggested that FB₁ affected sphingolipid metabolism of mouse brain microsomes and the axonal growth of rat neuron cells.

Fumonisin B_1 affects kidneys, livers, and brains of rats and or mice as noted by tissue damage and increases in sphinganine and the sphinganine/sphingosine ratio associated with these organs. These data suggested that FB₁ altered sphingolipid metabolism which may be the mechanism for its toxicity.

3. Liver and kidney toxicity

Animal dosing of FBs, intraperitoneally or orally, may result in different bioavailabilities due to the low absorptions of FBs by the GI tract of mammals. Bondy *et al.* (1996) dosed male Sprague-Dawley rats (120-170 g BW) intraperitoneally with 14 µmoles

FB₁ (98% pure)/kg BW/d causing liver and kidney toxicity and a reduction in BW, food consumption, and feces production after 4 d. Hepatotoxicity was correlated with histopathology. Nephrotoxicity was correlated with an elevated blood urea nitrogen and with changes in kidney morphology. In addition, FB₁ was toxic to the immune system based on reduced thymus weight, disseminated thymic necrosis, and elevated serum immunoglobulin M levels. Martinez-Larranaga et al. (1996) administered male Wistar rats (200-210 g BW) with 0.35 µmoles of FB₁ (>95% pure)/kg BW/d for 6 d intraperitoneally which caused an increase in the activity of microsomal and peroxisomal enzymes. However, no metabolites of FB₁ were found confirming the findings of Cawood (1994) that rat liver enzymes did not modify FB1. Suzuki et al. (1995) dosed male Sprague-Dawley rats (120-170 g BW) with 10.4 µmoles FB₁ (98% pure)/kg BW/d for 4 d intraperitoneally resulting in kidney toxicity as determined by increased urine volume, decreased urine osmolality, proteinuria, enzymuria, and ion transport. These data suggested that FB₁, administered orally or intraperitoneally. may induce liver and kidney toxicity in rats. Rats dosed intraperitoneally with FB₁ developed an acute toxicity to FB₁. However, rats dosed by gavage were not acutely intoxicated, suggesting that very little of the FB₁ may have been absorbed by the GI tract of these rats.

Gelderblom *et al.* (1991) fed 69 μ moles FB₁ (\geq 90% pure)/kg diet to male BD-IX rats (70-80 grams [g] BW) for 26 months causing kidney toxicity in the rats. The FB₁ was produced by *F. moniliforme* MRC-826. Elevated serum levels of AST, glutamine serum transferase (GST), and TB were observed in the rats. However, serum levels of ALT and ALP were not elevated. Other toxic effects (esophageal, heart, and fore-stomach lesions).

previously associated with rats fed corn diets containing FBs were not observed. Osweiler *et al.* (1992) reported subacute hepatotoxicosis with hepatocellular necrosis,

hepatomegalocytosis, and an increased number of mitotic figures in livers of weanling swine (7-15 kg BW) fed a corn diet containing 167 μ moles of FBs/kg diet for 6 d. Similar results of hepatotoxicosis occurred in 2 other weanling swine (7-15 kg BW) dosed by iv with 1.1 μ moles of FB₁ (98 % pure)/kg BW/d for 14 d. These swine became cachextic and, after 12 d. icterus (jaundice) was obvious in the skin, sclera (white portion of the eyes), and oral mucous membranes. Haschek *et al.* (1992) administered 11 μ moles of FB₁ (>95% pure)/kg BW/d for 9 d to a pig (4 wk old) by iv causing liver (hepatocyte disorganization and necrosis) toxicity. Similar findings resulted in another pig (4 wk old) dosed by iv with 6.4 μ moles FB₁ (>95% pure)/kg BW/d for 4 d. Fumonisin B₁ caused an increase in the activity of serum liver enzymes (AST, ALP, GGT), TB, and cholesterol resulting in liver toxicity in these animals.

Motelin *et al.* (1994) fed a corn diet, that was found to contain 139 µmoles of FBs/kg diet, for 14 d to male weanling pigs (6-13 kg BW) which induced liver toxicity. Increases in serum bilirubin and cholesterol concentrations and in GGT, ALP, alanine amino transferase (ALT), AST, and arginase (ARG) activities were observed in the pigs. Based on regression analysis of the 14 d serum chemistry profiles (with ALP being the most sensitive), the NOEL for liver toxicity in the FB fed swine was ≤ 17 µmoles of FBs/kg diet. Liver enzyme biomarkers may be a more sensitive assay for FB toxicity than adverse toxic effects in swine after consumption of FBs. For instance, the NOEL which Motelin *et al.* (1994) found to cause PPE in swine fed corn screenings for 14 d was 243 µmoles of FBs/kg diet. However,

the FBs consumed by the swine may have induced biomarkers of liver toxicity when the swine consumed $\leq 17 \mu$ moles of FBs/kg BW.

Edrington *et al.* (1995) intraruminally gavaged corn containing 15 µmoles of FBs/kg diet/d to crossbred Suffolk × Rambouillet wether ruminant-lambs (32 kg BW) for 4 d which induced liver damage. The blood serum liver enzyme (ALP, GGT, AST, and LDH) activities and liver and kidney damage indicators (cholesterol, triglycerides, urea nitrogen, and creatinine) were increased in the FB treated lambs compared to control lambs. However, lambs developed more severe toxic symptoms such as tubular nephrosis, mild hepatopathy, diarrhea, lethargy, decrease in feed intake, and death, when gavaged with corn containing 61 µmoles of FBs/kg diet/d for 4 d. Osweiler *et al.* (1993) reported increased activity of serum enzymes (AST, GGT, and LDH) and serum bilirubin and cholesterol concentrations in 6 crossbred Limousine x Angus-Hereford ruminant steer calves (230 kg BW) fed a corn diet containing 205 µmoles of FBs/kg diet for 31 d. The FBs were produced by *F. moniliforme* culture on corn. All of the calves experienced impaired lymphocyte blastogenesis and two of the calves developed mild microscopic liver lesions. These data suggested that FBs were acutely toxic to liver and kidneys of ruminant lambs and, to a lesser extent, ruminant steer calves.

Fumonisins caused an increase liver and kidney toxicity biomarkers in nonruminants, rats and pigs, and ruminants, lambs and steers. However, FBs were at least 14-fold less toxic to steers than lambs suggesting that bovine may absorb less FBs than lambs.

4. Developmental toxicity

Floss (1994) administered 11 µmoles FBs/kg BW/d to 8 d post-mated pregnant Syrian hamsters by gavage for 3 d resulting in prenatal fetal death. The FBs were produced by F. moniliforme M-1325 on SCM, extracted with water, and filtered. The FB-dosed hamsters had decreased BW gains and serum bilirubin levels compared to control hamsters. There were no differences in fetal BW, numbers of prenatal deaths, or resorptions in 8 d postmated pregnant Syrian hamsters gavaged with ≤ 8.3 µmoles FBs/kg BW/d for 3 d. Serum AST activities between FB₁ treated and control dams were not different indicating that the fetal deaths were not induced by liver toxicity in the hamster dams. Floss et al. (1994), administered 25 µmoles FB₁ (98% pure)/kg BW/d to 9 d post-mated pregnant Syrian hamsters by gavage resulting in prenatal fetal death. The FB_1 was produced by F. moniliforme M-1325 on SCM. In a similar experiment, reported by Floss et al. (1994), 9 d post-mated pregnant Syrian hamsters were gavaged with 31 µmoles of FBs/kg BW/d for 2 d which also resulted in prenatal fetal death. The FBs were produced by F. moniliforme M-1325 on SCM, extracted with water, and filtered. These FB doses that were toxic to fetuses did not induce clinical maternal intoxication confirming the findings of Floss (1994) that the fetal deaths were not induced by liver toxicity in hamster dams. Lebepe-Mazur (1993) administered 84 µmoles FB₁ (80% pure)/kg BW/d to 9 d post-mated pregnant Fisher rats by gavage for 5 d resulting in suppressed fetal growth and bone development. The FB_1 was produced by F. proliferatum M-5991 in SCM.

Javed *et al.* (1993) injected 1 and 10 d old fertile chicken eggs with 1, 10, or 100 μ moles FB₁ (>95% pure)/egg resulting in embryo toxicity. Mortalities of chicken embryos

from 1 d old FB_1 -treated eggs were 50, 70, and 100%, respectively, and from 10 d old FB_1 -treated eggs were 30, 60, and 90%, respectively. These data suggested that FB_1 was less toxic to the 10 d old chicken embryos than the 1 d old embryos.

In summary, these data suggested that consumption of FBs was teratogenic to hamsters, rats, and chickens.

5. Cytotoxicity

Incubating FB₁ with mammalian cells *in vitro* can induce cytotoxicity as evaluated by a decrease in cell proliferation or morphologic damage. Yoo et al. (1992) incubated rat renal epithelial LLC-PK1 cells with 35 µM FB₁ (>95% pure) for 72-h resulting in an inhibition of LLC-PK1 cell proliferation. The FB₁ was produced by F. moniliforme MRC-826 on SCM. After removal from the FB₁ treatment, the LLC-PK1 cells exhibited normal growth kinetics and morphology. Therefore, the cytotoxic effect of FB, may have been reversible in these LLC-PK1 cells. Concentrations of \geq 70 μ M FB₁ were cytotoxic to the LLC-PK1 cells 72-h after exposure. Qureshi and Hagler (1992) incubated chicken peritoneal macrophages (PMs) with 0.69 μ M FB₁ (95% pure) for 2-h causing PM cytotoxicity. Morphological damage of the PM cells caused by FB₁ exposure included cytoplasmic blebbing and/or nuclear disintegration. Phagocytic potential of PM cells decreased after 4-h of incubation with 27.7 μ M FB₁. There were no increases in FB₁ cytotoxicity caused by the addition of hepatic mixed function oxidase (MFO) enzymes to the incubation medium. Furthermore, the addition of 55 μ M FB₁ to the PM culture medium had no effect on the secretion of a cytolytic factor after exposure to lipopolysaccharide. Chatterjee et al. (1995) incubated chicken PMs with 8.3 μ M FB₁ for 4-h causing nuclear disintegration in the PMs. The FB₁ was produced

by an unidentified fungi that, based on morphology, may have been *F. moniliforme* MRC-826. Fumonisin B₁-damaged macrophages could have caused impaired immune functions in chickens making them susceptible to diseases. However, FBs were not acted on by chicken hepatic MFOs, and FB₁ did not inhibit the secretion of a cytolytic factor by chicken PMs. These data suggested that chickens or turkeys may have had a decreased resistance to bacterial infection after consumption of FBs. Gelderblom *et al.* (1996) incubated male Fisher primary rat hepatocytes with 500 μ M FB₁ (98% pure) for 24-h resulting in inhibition of palmitate incorporation into the rat hepatocytes suggesting altered lipid synthesis. The FB₁ induced cytotoxic effects and altered growth responses may have been attributed to fatty acid changes in the major membrane phospholipids and altered fatty acid content of the rat hepatocytes. These data suggested that FB₁ may have caused cytotoxicity in rat epithelial LLC-PK1, chicken PMs, and rat hepatocyte cells.

Comparing the cytotoxic effects of FB₁ and FB₂ in cell cultures may suggest a possible toxicity mechanism based on lipophilicity of these compounds FBs. Cawood *et al.* (1994) incubated primary hepatocytes from male Fisher rats with [¹⁴C]-FB₁ or [¹⁴C]-FB₂ (>95% pure) for 48-h resulting in hepatocyte cytotoxicity. The minimum cytotoxic concentrations were 300 μ M for [¹⁴C]-FB₁ and 150 μ M for [¹⁴C]-FB₂. The FBs were produced by *F. moniliforme* MRC-826 on SCM. Cytotoxicity was correlated with the release of LDH from the hepatocytes. The effective dose levels (EDL) [i.e. the lowest level of toxin required to elicit a cytotoxic effect] for binding of FBs to hepatocytes were similar at about 320 µmoles of FB₁ or FB₂/mg protein. There was no indication of metabolism of FB₁ by the rat liver microsomes after incubating them with ≤600 µM FB₁. Dombrink-Kurtzman *et al.*

(1994) incubated turkey lymphocytes with FB₁ or FB₂ (both >95% pure) for 72-h inhibiting cell proliferation. The FBs were produced by *F. proliferatum* in SRM. The IC₅₀ for inhibition of turkey lymphocytes was 1.9 μ M FB₁ and 0.6 μ M FB₂ suggesting that FB₂ was over 3-fold more cytotoxic than FB₁ to turkey lymphocyte cells. Cell proliferation was evaluated by the MTT bioassay in which the tetrazolium salt, MTT, was reduced to MTT formazan by metabolically active cells. These data suggested that FB₂ exhibited a higher cytotoxicity and specific binding to primary rat hepatocytes than FB₁. These data are consistent with the higher lipophilicity of FB₂ than FB₁, which suggests that FB₂ is better at penetrating cell membranes than FB₁.

The fact that FB₂ was more lipophilic than FB₁ and was more toxic to cell cultures suggested that the more lipophilic HFBs would be more toxic, on a dietary basis, than their respective FBs. In addition, the FAs would be expected to be less toxic than their respective FBs based on the blocked amine group which was thought to play a role in cytotoxicity. Gelderblom *et al.* (1993) incubated male primary Fisher rat hepatocytes with FB₁, FB₂, FB₃, HFB₁, HFB₂, FA₁, and FA₂ (all >90% pure) for 48-h resulting in hepatocyte cytotoxicity. Cytotoxicity was correlated to the release of LDH from the hepatocytes into the culture medium. Fumonisin B₂ had the highest cytotoxicity on a molar basis to the hepatocyte cells followed by FB₃ and then by FB₁. The CD₅₀ which caused a 50% release of LDH from the hepatocytes for FB₂ and FB₁ were 1000 and 2000 μ M, respectively. The cytotoxicities of HFB₁ and HFB₂ were greater and the cytotoxicities of FA₁ and FA₂ were less than their respective parent compounds (FB₁ and FB₂). There was no cytotoxicity observed in these cells when incubated with the TCA groups. Abbas *et al.* (1993) incubated rat hepatoma

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(H4TG), dog kidney (MDCK), and mouse 3T3 fibroblast (3T3) cells with FB₁, FB₂, HFB₁, HFB₂, FA₁, and FA₂ (all >90% pure) for 24-h. The FBs and FAs were produced by F. moniliforme MRC-826 on SCM. The IC₅₀ values for FB₁ and FB₂ were 18 and 2 μ M, respectively, for H4TG cells and 36 and 20 μ M, respectively, for MDCK cells. The IC₅₀ values for HFB₁ and HFB₂ were 5 and 37 μ M, respectively, for H4TG cells, 93 and 20 μ M. respectively, for MDCK cells, and 33 and 4.7 µM, respectively, for mouse 3T3 cells. There was no observed toxicity to3T3 cells incubated with \leq 70 µM of FB₁ or FB₂. The FAs were not toxic to any of these cell lines at $\leq 132 \ \mu M$ FAs. These data suggest that FB₂ was more toxic to cell cultures than FB₁ which is consistent with Cawood et al. (1994) and Dombrink-Kurtzman et al. (1994). The HFBs appear to be equally cytotoxic to their relative FBs when incubated with cell cultures at equal concentrations. Detoxification of FBs may require the removal or blockage of the free amino group which may be needed for its cancer initiating activity. The lack of toxicity of the FAs to rat hepatocytes, H4TG, MDCK, and 3T3 cell lines may be due to their blocked amine group which could play a crucial role in the toxicity of the FBs and HFBs. The FBs had different cytotoxicities to mammalian cell lines. Fumonisin B₂ was more cytotoxic than FB₁ to rat hepatocytes, turkey lymphocytes, H4TG, MDCK, and 3T3 cells. Furthermore, HFB₂ was more cytotoxic than FB₂ in rat hepatocytes and 3T3 cells suggesting increased penetration of cells by HFB₂ than by FB₂. This same pattern of toxicity and lipophilicity existed between HFB₁ and FB₁.

Huang *et al.* (1995) incubated African green monkey kidney (CV-1) cells with 1 μ M FB₁ (>98% pure) for 3-h which caused a 2-fold decrease in PKC expression. At 5 μ M FB₁, there was a 5-fold AP-1-dependent transcription repression confirming that FB₁ causes PKC

repression in CV-1 cells. The FB₁ caused a 10-fold stimulation of a simple promotor which contained a cyclic AMP response element independent of protein kinase A (PKA). The ability for FB₁ to repress specific PKC isoforms and alter signal transduction pathways may play a role in its toxicity towards CV-1 cells. The ability for FB₁ to decrease PKC expression may suggest a role in its ability to cause cancer.

6. Carcinogenicity

Previous studies have suggested that carcinogens may cause an increase in GGTaltered hepatic foci (AHF) in rats (Goldsworthy *et al.*, 1986; Scherere and Emmelot, 1975). The induction of cancer by chemical compounds can occur by initiation followed by promotion (Emmelot and Scherer 1980; Pitot and Sirica, 1980). A compound that causes initiation or promotion is considered a carcinogen. Gelderblom et al. (1993) fed Male Fisher rats (150 g BW) 1400 µmoles FBs/kg diet for 21 d followed by 0 µmoles FBs/kg diet for 14 d. The rats were dosed with 2-acetylaminofluorene followed by a partial-hepatectomy and fed 0 µmoles FBs/kg diet for 14 d. The rats were sacrificed and liver cancer was observed as determined by the presence of GGT-AHF. The control rats did not develop liver cancer. The FBs were produced by *F. moniliforme* on SCM. No carcinogenicity was observed in rats which consumed 1400 µmoles of FAs, HFBs, or tricarboxylic acid (TCA)/kg diet for 21 d followed by the promoting treatment suggesting that the intact FBs are cancer initiators in male Fisher rats. These data suggested that FB₁ may have been a cancer initiator.

Gelderblom *et al.* (1988) fed a corn diet containing 10.4 μ moles FB₁/kg diet for 4 wk to male BD-IX rats (150 g BW) that have been initiated for liver cancer with DEN resulting in elevated numbers of GGT-(+) altered hepatic foci (AHF) relative to that of rats which

received only the DEN-initiation treatments. The FB₁ was produced by *F. moniliforme* MRC-826 on SCM. Cancer and toxic effects (decreased BW and hepatitis) were evident in the FB₁ treated rats. Hendrich *et al.* (1993) fed a corn diet containing 69 μ mole FB₁/kg diet to DEN-initiated male Fisher rats causing an increase in plasma glutamate-pyruvate transaminase and hyperplastic liver nodules. Lebepe-Mazur *et al.* (1995) fed a corn diet containing 27 μ moles FB₁/kg diet for 6 months to female DEN-initiated Sprague-Dawley rats (6 wk old) resulting in an increased number of placental glutathione S-transferase (+)-AHF. The FB₁ was prepared from *F. proliferatum* M-5991 grown on SCM. These data suggested that FB₁ was a cancer promoter to male and female rats in these experiments.

Voss *et al.* (1993) fed 69 µmoles FB₁ (\geq 99% pure)/kg diet for 4 wk to non-initiated male and female Sprague-Dawley rats (4 wk old) resulting in liver and kidney cancer in the rats. The FB₁ was produced by *F. moniliforme* MRC-826 on SCM. All rats developed microscopic liver lesions characterized by scattered focal (single cell) hepatocellular necrosis and hepatocellular cytoplasmic vacuolation which appeared more advanced in females. No differences in behavior, food consumption, or BW were observed in any of the rats. Cortical nephrosis was found in male rats fed 21 µmoles FB₁/kg diet and in female rats fed 69 µmoles FB₁/kg diet. Relative kidney weights were decreased in male rats but not female rats fed 69 µmoles FB₁/kg diet compared to controls. Hepatic and renal lesions were observed. Both male and female rats developed liver cancer after they consumed \geq 69 µmoles FB₁/kg diet. However, the kidneys of male rats were more sensitive to than female rats to FB₁.

These data suggested that male rats were 3-fold more sensitive than female rats to FB_1 induced kidney cancer but equally sensitive to FB_1 induced liver cancer.

7. Atherosclerotic effects of FBs

Vervet monkeys (1.4 y, 1.76 kg BW) were fed corn containing 2.5 µmoles FBs/kg BW/d for 4.5 yr which induced indicators of atherosclerosis such as plasma fibrinogen and blood coagulation factor VII (Fincham *et al.*, 1992). The FBs were produced by *F. moniliforme* MRC-826 on SCM. In addition, there was an elevation in plasma low density lipoprotein-C and apolipoprotein-B in these primates suggesting that symptoms of atherosclerosis may have been caused by FBs. Smith *et al.* (1996) fed a corn diet containing 50 µmoles HFB₁/kg BW/d for 7 d to male castrated cross-bred pigs (40 kg BW) resulting in cardiovascular disease in the pigs. Symptoms of cardiovascular disease caused by HFB₁ in the pigs included decreases in maximal rate of change of left ventricular pressure, heart rate. cardiac output, mean aortic pressure, arterial and mixed venous blood O₂ tension, and systemic O₂ delivery. Other cardiovascular symptoms caused by HFB₁ in the pigs included increases in mean pulmonary artery pressure, pulmonary vascular resistance. O₂ consumption, and O₂ extraction ratio. These data suggested that low levels of FBs may have increased the risk of secondary vascular disease in primates. Also, HFB₁ induced left-sided heart failure in swine.

I. Bioavailability of Fumonisin in Rats

The measure of a compound's bioavailability includes administering the compound in an animal model and quantification of that compound in excreted material or in tissues. Bioavailability of FBs in rats is an estimate of the dose exposure these compounds have in the animals which is affected by absorption, excretion, and accumulation. Absorption of an

oral dose is hindered by the GI tract barrier. Analysis of FBs in biological tissues is difficult. Furthermore, enzymatic degradation of FBs could result in decreased FB recoveries using HPLC-fluorometric analysis. However, there have been no reports of enzymatic degradation of FBs.

Amounts of unmetabolized FB₁ in the urine and feces of rats dosed by gavage with FB, were quantified by HPLC fluorometric analysis of the OPA-FB, derivative. Shephard et al. (1992a) administered 10.4 µmoles of FB₁/kg BW to fed male BD-IX rats (150 g BW) by gavage and observed 0.4% of the FB₁ dose was excreted in the urine after 48-h. Hopmans et al. (1997) gavaged fed male Fisher rats (9-10 wk old, 160-190 g BW) with 0.69, 6.93. or 69.3 µmoles of FB₁ (70% pure)/kg BW and observed 110, 92, and 98% of the dose, respectively, was excreted in the feces and 7.4, 1.2, and 0.5% of the dose, respectively, was excreted in the urine over 96-h after dosing. The combined data of the three FB₁ levels suggested that FB₁ was excreted nearly completely in the feces (101%) with only a small part in the urine (2.7%) of the rats after 96-h. However, increasing the FB₁ dose decreased the percentage of the total dose that was recovered in the urine suggesting that at a higher FB₁ dose, a lesser percentage of total dose was absorbed or a greater percentage of total dose was excreted though bile of these rats. These data suggested that FB₁ administered by gavage was eliminated in the urine at 7% of the 0.69 µmoles of FB₁/kg BW dose in fed male Fisher rats. However, only 0.4% of the 10.4 µmoles of FB₁/kg BW dose was excreted in the urine of fed male BD-IX rats (Shephard et al., 1992a) and 1.2% of the 6.9 µmoles of FB₁/kg BW dose recovered in the urine of the Hopmans's et al. (1997) male Fisher rats.

Similar to the gavage treatments, biological tissues of rats dosed intraperitoneally were quantified using HPLC-fluorometric analysis. Shephard *et al.* (1992a) administered 10.4 μ moles of FB₁/kg BW to fed male BD-IX rats (150 g BW) intraperitoneally. The FB₁ was rapidly absorbed into the blood reaching a maximum concentration of 12 nmoles/ml in plasma of the rats after 20 min. The FB₁ had a relatively short plasma half life of 18 min after dosing. Only 16% of the dose was eliminated unmetabolized in the urine of the rats 24h after dosing. These data suggested that urinary excretion was a major route for elimination of FB₁ by rats.

Scintillation counting of radioactive [¹⁴C]-FB allows for improved detection of FBs in biological tissues over HPLC-fluorescence methods. Fumonisin B₁ has been radioactively labeled when [¹⁴C]-acetate or [¹⁴C]-methionine were added to cultures of *F. moniliforme* or *F. proliferatum* in LM. Norred *et al.* (1993) dosed fasted male Sprague-Dawley rats (150-200 g BW) by gavage with 1.4 µmoles of [¹⁴C]-FB₁/rat. The rats excreted 80% of the [¹⁴C]-dose in the feces 48-h after dosing. Within 96-h after dosing, 2-3% of the [¹⁴C]-dose was excreted in the urine, while the liver accumulated a maximum of 0.5% of the [¹⁴C]-dose 4-h after dosing. The blood and kidneys retained 0.2 and 0.1% of the [¹⁴C]-dose 96-h after dosing. Shephard *et al.* (1992b) dosed fed male BD-IX rats (6 wk old, 150 g BW) by gavage with 10.4 µmoles of [¹⁴C]-FB₁ (96% pure)/kg BW. All of the [¹⁴C] was recovered in the feces and trace amounts were found in the urine, liver, kidneys, and blood after 24-h. Shephard *et al.* (1994a) cannulated and dosed by gavage fed male Wistar rats (6-8 months old, 350-400 g BW) with 10.4 µmoles of [¹⁴C]-FB₁ (93% pure)/kg BW. The rats excreted 0.2% of the [¹⁴C] dose in the bile within 24-h. Comparing fasted Sprague-Dawley rats gavaged with 6.9

μmoles of [¹⁴C]-FB₁/kg BW (Norred *et al.*, 1993) to fed Fisher rats gavaged with 6.9 μmoles of FB₁/kg BW (Hopmans *et al.*, 1997), the fasted rats absorbed and excreted in the urine 2fold more FB₁ than fed rats. However, biliary excretion of FB₁ may have been responsible for excretion of 0.2% of the dose in both studies. In addition, scintillation counting of [¹⁴C]-FB₁ may have quantified metabolized and unmetabolized FB₁ (Norred *et al.*, 1993), while the fluorometric analysis of FB₁ only quantified unmetabolized FB₁ (Hopmans *et al.*, 1996).

Norred et al. (1993) administered 6.2 nmoles of [14C]-FB1/rat to fasted male Sprague-Dawley rats (150-200 g BW) by iv. The [¹⁴C]-FB₁ dose was equivalent to 0.03 µmoles of [¹⁴C]-FB₁/kg BW for a 200 g rat and produced 10,000 decays per min (dpm). The rats excreted 35 and 10% of the [14C]-dose in the feces and urine, respectively, and 30, 10, and 2% of the [14C]-dose was recovered in the liver, kidneys, and GI tract, respectively, after 96h. Shephard et al. (1992b) dosed fed male BD-IX rats (6 wk old, 150 g BW) intraperitoneally with 10.4 µmoles of [¹⁴C]-FB₁ (96% pure)/kg BW. The [¹⁴C]-FB₁ dose produced 100,000 dpm/rat. The rats excreted 66% of the [¹⁴C] in the feces and 32% in the urine 24-h after dosing. Trace amounts of $[^{14}C]$ were recovered in the liver, kidneys, and blood 24-h after dosing. Shephard et al. (1994a) dosed bile duct cannulated male Wistar fed rats (6-8 months old, 350-400 g BW) intraperitoneally with 10.4 µmoles of [¹⁴C]-FB₁ (93% pure)/kg BW. The rats dosed intraperitoneally eliminated 67% of the [¹⁴C] dose in the bile within 24-h after dosing. These data suggested biliary excretion was a major route of elimination of $[^{14}C]$ -FB₁ dosed in these rats. Over half of the absorbed dose of FB₁ was excreted in the bile indicating that FB₁ dosed by gavage to rats may have been absorbed by the GI tract to a greater extent than previously reported.

The bioavailability of compounds similar to FB₁, such as HFB₁ and FB₁-FRU, in rats has recently been reported. Amounts of unmetabolized HFB₁ and FB₁-FRU in urine and feces of fed rats were hydrolyzed and quantified for their OPA-HFB1 derivatives by HPLC fluorometry. Hopmans et al. (1997) gavaged male Fisher fed rats (9-10 wk old, 160-190 g BW) with 0.69, 6.93, or 69.3 µmoles HFB₁ (70% pure)/kg BW and observed 15.1, 1.3, and 0.2% of the total dose, respectively, was excreted in the urine. Similarly, fed rats gavaged with 0.69 or 6.93 µmoles FB₁-FRU/kg BW excreted 9.8 and 0.8% of the total dose in the urine, respectively. Increasing the HFB₁ or FB₁-FRU dose decreased the percentage of the doses that were recovered in the urine. Similar to the FB₁ treatments by Hopmans et al. (1997), increasing the HFB₁ or FB₁-FRU dose decreased the percentage of the total dose that was recovered in the urine suggesting that at a higher HFB₁ or FB₁-FRU dose, a lesser percentage of total dose was absorbed or a greater percentage of total dose was excreted though bile of these rats. These data suggested that absorption of 0.69 µmoles of HFB₁ or FB₁-FRU occurred in these rats dosed by gavage and was eliminated in the urine at 15.1 and 9.8% of the total dose, respectively. Biliary excretion may have been responsible for some of the elimination of these compounds from the rats as suggested by biliary excretion of [¹⁴C]-FB₁ by Shephard et al. (1994a). If biliary excretion of HFB₁ and FB₁-FRU occurred to a lesser extent than FB₁, then this might explain why higher percentages of HFB₁ and FB₁-FRU relative to FB₁ were eliminated in the urine of these rats.

Fumonisin B_1 , HFB₁, and FB₁-FRU are absorbed by the GI tract of rats. With respect to FB₁, less than 5% of a gavaged dose is absorbed and excreted in the urine or accumulated in the tissues. However, biliary excretion of FB₁ is only slightly occurring suggesting that

the absorption of FB_1 is only slightly greater than the amount excreted in the urine. Gavaging unfed rats appears to increase the absorption of FB_1 . However, a study of similar rats and at the same doses which could measure this has not been reported.

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CHAPTER 3. FUMONISIN B, PRODUCTION BY FUSARIUM PROLIFERATUM STRAIN M5991 IN A MODIFIED MYRO LIQUID MEDIUM

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Abstract

Fusarium proliferatum strain M5991 cultures were grown in shake flasks containing modified Myro (MM) medium (MgSO₄ reduced to 0.5 g/L) plus 0. 0.25, 0.50, 0.75, 1.00, or 1.25% (v/v) hot-water corn-hull-extract (CHE) for 69 days. After 4 days of incubation, shake flask liquid cultures with 0.75, 1.00, and 1.25% (v/v) CHE showed a reduction in pH from 6.0 to 2.6 and consumed sucrose at >6.3 g/L/d. After 69 days of incubation, the same shake flask cultures produced over 7.8 g/L cell mass and over 990 mg/L fumonisin B₁ (FB₁). A minimum CHE level of 0.75% was recommended for enhanced FB₁ production by *F*. *proliferatum* strain M5991. During three serial (10, 12, and 12-L) batch fermentations in MM medium + 1.00% (v/v) CHE (first batch only), *F. proliferatum* strain M5991 produced FB₁ concentrations of 619, 659, and 375 mg/L after 35, 47, and 52 days of incubation, respectively. By analysis, a total yield of 20 g FB₁ was obtained from three serial batch fermentations.

Key words: Liquid Fermentation, Corn Hull Extract, Maize Pathogen, FB₁, Fungus

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Introduction

The fumonisins (FBs) are a family of mycotoxins including FB_1 , FB_2 , FB_3 , and FB_4 (Wilkes *et al.*, 1995; Beier *et al.*, 1995) with FB_1 the most predominant. Fumonisins are produced by the maize pathogens, *Fusarium proliferatum* and *Fusarium moniliforme*. The fumonisins cause various toxic symptoms in different animal species.

Leucoencephalomalacia (LEM) was induced in a male horse after 20 doses containing 1 to 4 mg of 95% pure FB₁/kg diet (total dose 8.4 g FB₁) for 29 days (Kellerman *et al.*, 1990). Five ponies developed LEM after feeding on diets containing 8 mg FB₁/kg diet for 180 days (Wilson *et. al.*, 1992). Pulmonary edema was induced in weanling pigs fed 92 mg FB₁/kg diet (Osweiler *et al.*, 1992) and in 16-24 kg pigs fed corn screening diets containing 155 mg FB₁/kg diet for 7 days (Colvin and Harison 1992). Embryopathenicity was induced in chicken embryos when eggs were inoculated with 72 ng FB₁ per egg (Javed *et al.*, 1993). Developmental toxicity was observed in hamsters dosed by gavage with >6 mg FB₁/kg diet (Floss *et al.*, 1994). Liver cancer occurred in rats fed a 50 mg pure FB₁/kg diet for 26 months (Gelderblom *et al.*, 1991). Renal lesions developed in male rats fed 15 mg of a 99% pure FB₁/kg diet for 4 weeks (Voss *et. al.*, 1993). In contrast, FBs appeared to be only slightly toxic to calves fed 148 mg total FBs/kg diet (Osweiler *et al.*, 1992). The effects of FBs on human health are not known, but human esophageal cancer may be associated with FB consumption (Chu and Li, 1994). FB₁ has been declared a class 2B carcinogen (IARC, 1993).

The purified FB_1 used in most of the previous studies cited has been isolated from solid corn culture fermentations of either *F. moniliforme* or *F. proliferatum*. Liquid-culture

fermentations alleviate some purification problems caused by impurities derived from solidstate fermentations of F. proliferatum on corn or rice which co-purify with FB₁ (Miller *et al.*, 1994).

Preliminary data illustrated that growth and fumonisin production of *F. proliferatum* strain M5991 were enhanced by the addition of 10 ml Corn-hull-extract (CHE) to 1-L modified Myro (MM) medium. In this paper, we report significantly enhanced cell growth and FB₁ production by *F. proliferatum* strain M5991 through the addition of a hot-water CHE in shake flask cultures and in a 10-L repeated batch fermentation.

Materials and Methods

Liquid media

Myro (M) medium consisted of 1.0 g (NH₄)₂HPO₄ (Fisher Scientific, Fair Lawn, N. J.), 3.0 g KH₂PO₄ (Fisher), 2.0 g MgSO₄ • 7H₂O (Baker Chemical Co., Phillipsburg, N.J.), 5.0 g NaCl (Fisher), 40 g sucrose (Fisher), and 10 g glycerin (Fisher) in 1-L distilled-water (dH₂O); pH 5.9 (Chelkowski, 1989). Modified Myro (MM) medium consisted of M medium reduced to 0.5 g/L MgSO₄ • 7H₂O. Reduced sucrose modified Myro (RSMM) medium consisted of MM medium reduced to 20 g/L sucrose.

Corn-hull extract (CHE) was prepared by autoclaving 10 g of corn hulls (crude corn fiber, Penford Product Corn, Cedar Rapids, IA) with 100 ml of dH₂O for one hour 121°C followed by centrifugation at 13,776 x g for 10 minutes. The clarified CHE was made to 100 ml volume using dH₂O, sterilized at 121°C for 20 minutes, and stored at ambient temperature until needed.

Fungal culture

Lyophilized fungal spores of *F. proliferatum* strain M5991, a predominant FB₁ fumonisin-producing isolate, were obtained from Dr. Paul Nelson (Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA). The fungal spores were rehydrated in capped 1-L baffled Erlenmeyer flasks containing 500 ml of sterile RSMM medium. The rehydration flasks were incubated for 7 days at ambient temperature on a New Brunswick G10 rotary shaker (New Brunswick Scientific Co., Inc. Edison, NJ) at 220 rpm (2.5 cm throw) and the cells were collected by centrifugation at 8,671 x g for 10 minutes . The fungal cells were stored as followed using the method of Windels *et al.* (1988). The concentrated fungal cells were resuspended in 100 ml of sterile 10% skim milk broth (Shoppers Value Instant nonfat dry milk, Preferred Products Inc., Eden Prairie, MN). Aliquots (0.5 mL) containing the resuspended fungal cells were added drop-wise to 19×150 mm screw-capped tubes containing 15 g of sterile silica gel beads (grade 40, 6-12 mesh) (Aldrich Chemical Co., Milwaukee, WI), shaken, and stored at 4°C until needed.

Inoculum was prepared by transferring 10 to 20 of the fungal-containing silica beads into a 1-L baffled Erlenmeyer flask containing 500 ml of sterile MM medium plus 1% (v/v) CHE and incubating for 4 days at ambient temperature with shaking at 220 rpm. These conditions yielded 5×10^7 CFU/mL in logarithmic phase.

Shake flask cultures

Cultures (5 ml inoculum) were grown in 1-L Erlenmeyer flasks containing 500 ml of MM medium plus 0.00, 0.25, 0.50, 0.75, 1.00, or 1.25% (v/v) CHE. Incubation was at ambient temperature with shaking at 220 rpm (2.5 cm throw) for 69 days. Samples (5 mL)

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were removed weekly, filtered through a 0.45 μm (25 mm diameter) filter (Micron Separations Inc., Westboro, MA), and stored at -20°C until analyzed. Cultures were grown in triplicate, and 10 samples from each culture were obtained.

Fermentor conditions

Batch fermentation 1

The fermentor vessel (15-L New Brunswick microferm fermentor vessel, New Brunswick Scientific Co., Inc. Edison, NJ), containing sterilized MM medium (9.8-L) and CHE (0.1-L) was inoculated with the previously described inoculum (0.1-L) and maintained at 28°C with 220 rpm agitation. Filter sterilized (0.2 µm) air was pumped into the culture medium at 2.1 vvm. Foam was controlled by an automatic antifoam controller with antifoam FM (Hodag Corp., Skokie, IL). Samples were taken every 12 hours for 3.5 days and then weekly throughout the fermentation. After 35 days of incubation, the agitation was terminated for 24 hours and the cell mass allowed to settle. Culture filtrate (7-L) was pumped out via a "J" tube leaving about 2-L of residual cell mass and culture filtrate in the fermentor vessel. The harvested culture filtrate was stored at 5°C until analyzed for FB₁.

Batch fermentation 2

The fermentor, containing residual cell mass and culture filtrate, was refilled aseptically to a total 12-L with sterile MM medium. Samples were taken weekly throughout the fermentation. After 47 days of incubation, the agitation was terminated for 12 hours and the cell mass allowed to settle. Culture filtrate (7-L) was pumped out via a "J" tube leaving about 4-L of residual cell mass and culture filtrate in the fermentor vessel. The harvested culture filtrate was stored at 5°C until analyzed for FB₁.

Batch fermentation 3

The fermentation proceeded as described in batch fermentation 2. After 52 days of incubation, all of the residual cell mass and culture filtrate (11-L) were collected from the fermentor vessel and stored at 5°C until analyzed for FB₁.

Each serial batch fermentation lost about 0.9-L dH_2O due to evaporation and an additional 0.1-L of culture filtrate was removed during sampling.

Fungal growth analysis

pН

The pH of liquid culture samples from shake flasks and fermentation batches 2 and 3 were measured using a Corning Model 12 research pH meter. The pH from batch fermentation 1 medium was measured in the fermentor vessel using an Ingold sterilizable pH electrode.

Reducing sugars

Total reducing sugars were quantified by Somogyi-Nelson method (Somogyi, 1945; Nelson 1944). Samples containing < 120 μ g reducing sugar were prepared by transferring 1 ml of sample into 10 ml volumetric flasks containing 5 ml of HCl (6 N), mixing, and allowing to stand at room temperature for 24 hours. The pH was adjusted to 7 with NaOH (10 N), filled to volume (10 mL) with dH₂O then mixed. The samples were analyzed for absorbance at 520 nm and compared to a hydrolyzed sucrose standard curve.

Cell density

Cell densities were determined by filtering measured volumes (2-5 mL) of liquid culture samples through a preweighed 0.45 μ m (25 mm diameter) filter (Micron Separations

Inc., Westboro, MA). Cells were dried at 60°C for 24 hours, equilibrated to room temperature, then weighed.

Fumonisin analysis

Fumonisin B₁ concentrations were measured according to the procedure of Hopmans and Murphy (1993). Aliquots (100 μ l) containing 0.45 μ m filtered fermentation medium were derivatized for 10 minutes with 100 μ l *o*-phthaldialdehyde (OPA) solution (5 mg OPA, 5 ml acetonitrile, and 10 μ l 2-mercaptoethanol), 100 μ l buffer (0.05 M K₂HPO₄ pH adjusted to 8.3 with 0.05 M KH₂PO₄), and 100 μ l dH₂O. The derivatized samples were diluted with 100 μ l of dH₂O and injected (20 μ l) into a high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC), (Beckman Instruments, Fullerton CA) with analytical reverse phase C₁₈ column (Perkin and Elmer Corp., Norwalk, CT) (3mm ID, and 4.6 cm length). The mobile phase was 40% acetonitrile and 60% 0.05 M KH₂PO₄ (pH adjusted to 3.3 with concentrated phosphoric acid) at a flow rate of 1.5 ml per minute. The FB₁ fluorescent derivatives were quantified using a Turner fluorometer (Corning 7-60 primary filter and Wratten 2a secondary filter, 15 μ l flow cell) and compared against a FB₁ standard generously donated by P.G. Thiel of the Research Institute for Nutritional Diseases, South African Medical Research Council, South Africa. **CHE analysis**

A 10-ml preweighed sample of CHE was evaporated in a weighed crucible over a Bunsen burner flame followed by heating in a muffled furnace at 1000°C for 8 hours. The ashed sample was analyzed for calcium (Ca), potassium (K), magnesium (Mg), sodium (Na), phosphorous (P), and zinc (Zn) by inductively coupled plasma-atomic emission (ICP-AE)

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spectroscopy (Fisons, 3410 ICP with minitorch, Beverly MA.) (Analytical Services Division of Ames Laboratory, United States Dept. of Energy, Iowa State University, Ames IA).

Statistical analysis

The experimental design for the CHE study consisted of six treatments: 0.00, 0.25, 0.50, 0.75, 1.00, and 1.25% (v/v) CHE. Each treatment was replicated in three different flasks. Data were analyzed using ANOVA least significant difference (LSD) Test for variable: Y (model y = treatment, n = 3) on SAS system v. 6.07 (Cary, NC) (p < 0.05).

Results and Discussion

Corn hull extract

The enhancement of cell growth and FB₁ production by *F. proliferatum* strain M5991 by the addition of CHE was discovered while investigating surface attachment abilities of the mold to plastic composite supports (40% of either oat, soy, barley, or corn hulls; 10% yeast extract; and 50% polypropylene; Demirci *et al.* [1993]). The CHE used in this study was made from 10 g wet-milled corn hulls per 0.1-L of dH₂O and contained 47.0 g dissolved solids/L (3.9 g ash/L). The ICP-AE-analyzed CHE contained: Ca (0.02 g/L), K (1 g/L), Mg (0.3 g/L), Na (0.06 g/L), P (0.71 g/L), and Zn (0.01 g/L).

Shake flask liquid culture study

The culture pH reduction could not be attributed to lactic, acetic, or propionic acid production as determined by HPLC (Demirci *et al.*, 1993). However, there were two unidentified chromatographic peaks observed by refractive index detection. The pH of the culture medium decreased quickest in the treatments containing the highest levels of CHE (Fig. 1). The shake flask cultures containing the two highest levels of CHE (1.00 and 1.25%) consumed all of the sucrose in the shortest incubation time (32 d) (Fig. 2A). The cell mass production plateaued at 32 days incubation for the 0.75, 1.00, and 1.25% CHE media (Fig. 2B). The FB₁ concentration plateaued after 32 days of incubation in the 1.00 and 1.25% CHE media, after 48 days in the 0.50 and 0.75% CHE media, and was still increasing after 69 days of incubation in the 0.00 and 0.25% CHE media (Fig. 2C). Negligible amounts of FB₂ and FB₃ were detected in media of *F. proliferatum* M5991.

The rate of pH change for all treatments was evaluated between 0 and 2 days because the pH of the 1.25% CHE treatment plateaued after 2 days of incubation (Fig. 1). The rate of reducing sugar and cell density change were evaluated between 0 and 4 days of incubation and represented initial rates (Fig. 2A,B). Rates of pH drop after 2 days of incubation and rates of cell mass production after 4 days of incubation with *F. proliferatum* strain M5991 were significantly greater in the culture media containing 0.50, 0.75, 1.00, and 1.25% CHE than the culture medium containing no CHE (p < 0.05) (Fig.s 1 and 2B). The rate of reducing sugar consumption after 4 days of incubation was significantly greater in the culture media containing 0.75, 1.00, and 1.25% CHE than the culture medium containing no CHE (p < 0.05) (Fig. 2A).

The 21 days incubation time, in which reducing sugar, cell density, and FB₁ concentrations were evaluated, represented the incubation time in which the FB₁ culture medium containing 1.25% CHE plateaued (Fig. 2A-C). The reducing sugar, cell density, and FB₁ concentrations were significantly greater in the culture media containing 0.50, 0.75, 1.00, and 1.25% CHE than the culture medium containing no CHE after 21 days of incubation (p <

0.05). The cell density and FB₁ concentrations evaluated after 69 days of incubation represented the final experimental values (Fig. 2B,C). The cell density and FB₁ concentrations were significantly greater in the culture media containing 0.50, 0.75, 1.00, and 1.25% CHE than the culture medium containing no CHE after 69 days of incubation (p <0.05). However, FB₁ concentrations were not significantly different from the culture media containing 0.75, 1.00, or 1.25% CHE after 69 days of incubation. These latter CHE concentrations suggest that the minimum concentration of CHE which was required for optimum production of FB₁ by *F. proliferatum* is 0.75%.

These data are consistent with those of Blackwell *et al.* (1994), who found that, under similar conditions, a higher inoculum of *F. moniliforme* strain NRRL 13616 resulted in increased amounts of total fumonisins produced.



Figure 1. pH response from *Fusarium proliferatum* grown in shake flask cultures. Shake flask cultures of *F. proliferatum* strain M5991 inoculated into modified Myro medium containing 0.00 (O), 0.25 (\blacksquare), 0.50 (\blacktriangle), 0.75 (\triangledown), 1.00 (\diamondsuit), or 1.25 (\bigcirc) % (v/v) corn-hull-extract. Flasks were incubated at 220 rpm and ambient temperature. Data points represent means. Error bars represent standard deviations (n = 3).



Figure 2. Growth characteristics of *Fusarium proliferatum* in shake flask cultures. (A) Reducing sugar concentration (g/L), (B) cell density (g/L), and (C) FB₁ concentration (mg/L) from shake flask cultures of *F. proliferatum* strain M5991 inoculated into modified Myro medium containing 0.00 (O), 0.25 (\blacksquare), 0.50 (\blacktriangle), 0.75 (\triangledown), 1.00 (\diamondsuit), or 1.25 (\bigcirc) % (v/v) corn-hull-extract. Flasks were incubated for 69 d at 220 rpm and ambient temperature. Data points represent means. Error bars represent standard deviations (n = 3).

Fermentation study

Batch fermentations produced 25-L of spent fumonisin culture medium in 136 days and yielded 20.4 g of crude FB₁. Changes in pH, reducing sugars, cell mass, and FB₁ were continuously monitored. The pH drop to 2.9 after 2 days (Fig. 3) of incubation during each batch fermentation was similar to the pH drop observed in the shake flask cultures.

After compensating for evaporation and subtracting initial starting concentrations (Fig. 4-C), the repeated serial-batch-fermentations yielded a maximum FB₁ production of 619, 659, and 375 mg/L and a maximum cell mass production of 8.3, 4.4, and 3.3 g/L (dry weight), respectively. The best production of FB₁ and cell mass was achieved during the first fermentation. In addition, the first batch fermentation may have been terminated too early because FB₁ production and sucrose consumption were still occurring at the time of harvest. If the first batch fermentation were to continue to 48 days, the maximum yield of FB₁ could be assumed to reach over 800 mg/L (Fig. 4A). This assumption could lead to the logical conclusion that the yield of FB₁ decreases during the fermentation because the cells were not as healthy during the second and third batches as they were during the first batch. Another factor that could lead to these results is the fact that CHE was only added to the first batch fermentation.

Foaming was apparently not a problem during the first (10-L) batch fermentation; therefore, the volumes of the second and third batch fermentations were increased to 12-L. Because there is cell mass and culture filtrate carryover, the second and third serial batch fermentations were calculated to have initial FB₁ concentrations of 113 and 349 mg/L, respectively. However, the respective FB₁ concentrations were found to be 310 and 320

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mg/L. The high measured level of FB_1 at 0 hour, in the second batch fermentation, was probably the result of a sampling error and was omitted from Fig. 4B.

Miller *et al.*, (1994) reported total fumonisin (FB₁ + FB₂) levels of almost 300 mg/L. cell masses of 5.35 g/L, and consumption of all but about 10 g of sucrose after 10 days of fermentation in a similar fermentation system with *F. moniliforme*. In our fermentation with *F. proliferatum* strain M5991, a predominant FB₁ producer, FB₁ levels (200 mg/L) and cell mass (2 g/L) achieved from our first batch fermentation (Fig. 4A), after 10 days of fermentation, were less than those reported by Miller *et al.*, (1994). However, *F. proliferatum* M5991 is preferred for FB₁ purification in our hands since negligible levels of FB₂ and FB₃ were produced. The cell mass obtained after 10 days of fermentation in the first repeated batch fermentation was about half of that obtained during Miller's fermentation but our cell mass continued to increase throughout 35 days of fermentation.



Figure 3. pH response for *Fusarium proliferatum* from fermentation 1 of the repeated batch fermentation.



Figure 4. Repeated batch fermentation 1 (A), fermentation 2 (B), and fermentation 3 (C), quantified for fumonisin production (mg/L) (\bullet), reducing sugar consumption (g/L) (\bullet), and changes in dry weight cell-mass (g/L) (\bullet) for *Fusarium proliferatum* strain M5991. Batch fermentation 1 contained 10-L of Modified Myro medium plus 1% (v/v) corn-hull-extract. Batch fermentations 2 and 3 contained 12-L of Modified Myro medium. These data were measured prior to compensating for evaporation.

Conclusions

Growth and FB₁ production by *F. proliferatum* strain M5991 were about the same with 0.75, 1.00, and 1.25% (v/v) CHE additions in MM medium. Therefore, we recommend that 0.75% CHE be added to the MM medium for the production of FB₁ by *F. proliferatum* M5991. Repeated batch fermentation has the advantages over non-repeated batch fermentations by decreasing the down time that would be needed for cleaning, reinoculating, and initial growth of the culture.

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CHAPTER 4. PURIFICATION OF FUMONISIN B, FROM LIQUID CULTURES OF FUSARIUM PROLIFERATUM

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Abstract

Fumonisin B_1 (FB₁) was purified from liquid culture medium by adsorption. partition.

and ion exchange liquid chromatography. Liquid-culture filtrates of Fusarium proliferatum

strain M5991 grown in modified-Myro medium and containing \leq 750 mg FB₁/L were eluted

from XAD-16, C₈, DEAE-Sepharose, and C₁₈ resulting in 96-100% pure FB₁ with a 37%

recovery.

Introduction

Fumonisins (FBs) are a family of mycotoxins (FB₁, FB₂, FB₃, and FB₄) which are

produced by the maize pathogens Fusarium proliferatum and Fusarium moniliforme.

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Purification of FBs has been pursued for the purpose of establishing their acceptable levels in foods for human and animal consumption. The FBs have been purified from solid corn cultures of *F. moniliforme* strain MRC 826. Gelderblom et al. (1988), and Cawood et al. (1991), purified FBs by extraction, solvent partitioning, XAD (adsorption)-2, silica gel (adsorption), and C₁₈ (partition) liquid chromatography (LC). Cawood et al. (1991), obtained \geq 90% pure FB₁ with a 40% recovery. Voss et al. (1993), obtained \geq 99% pure FB₁ by XAD-2 and repeated C₁₈ LC steps. Miller et al. (1994), obtained 97% pure FB₁ (89% recovery) produced from liquid cultures of *F. moniliforme* strain MRC 826 by DEAE-Sephadex (ion exchange), silica gel, and gradient C₁₈ LC. Recently, Meredith et al. (1996), obtained >95% pure FB₁ with a >90% recovery from solid rice cultures of *F. moniliforme* strain MRC 826 using C₁₈ and cyano (partition) LC. In our lab, we have only obtained 85% pure FB₁ from solid corn or rice cultures of *F. proliferatum* strain M5991 by XAD-16, C₈ (partition), silica gel, and gradient C₁₈ LC. Using liquid cultures of *F. proliferatum* strain M5991, we have achieved a reproducible purification method of obtaining >95% pure FB₁ with a 37% recovery using XAD-16, C₈, DEAE-Sepharose (ion exchange), and C₁₈ LC.

Materials and Methods

The FB₁ produced from *Fusarium* cultures is a class 2B carcinogen (IARC, 1993) and caution should be taken during its handling.

Liquid cultures

Cultures of *F. proliferatum* strain M5991 were grown in liquid modified-Myro medium containing $\leq 1.00\%$ (v/v) corn hull extract (CHE) (Dantzer *et al.*, 1996). Modified

Myro medium consisted of 1.0 g (NH₄)₂HPO₄. 3.0 g KH₂PO₄, 0.5 g MgSO₄•7H₂O, 5.0 g NaCl, 40 g sucrose, and 10 g glycerin in 1-L distilled-water (dH₂O); pH 5.9. The CHE was prepared by autoclaving 10 g of corn hulls with 100 mL of dH₂O for one hour at 121°C followed by centrifugation at 13,776 x g for 10 minutes. The clarified CHE was made to 100 mL volume using dH₂O, sterilized at 121°C for 20 minutes, and stored at ambient temperature until needed. The cultures produced \leq 750 mg of crude FB₁/L. Upon harvest, the liquid cultures were centrifuged and passed through a Whatman #1 filter (Whatman Laboratory Division, Springfield Mill, Maidstone, Kent) followed by 0.8 and 0.45 µm MSi filters (4.5 cm dia, nylon; Micron Separations Inc., Westboro, MA).

XAD-16 adsorption LC

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A gravity-fed LC column was made with Amberlite nonionic polymeric adsorbent XAD-16 (Surface Area: 800 m²/g, Ave. Pore Dia.: 100 Å, Wet Mesh Size: 20-60; Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis MO) by transferring 1 kg of dry XAD-16 material into a 100 x 7.5 cm glass column containing a fritted glass filter. The XAD-16 was washed with >2-L of 50% acetonitrile (ACN), until the eluent was clear, followed by 6-L of dH₂O, and allowed to drain to the top of the column bed. Filtered liquid cultures containing ≤ 2 g of FB₁ were introduced onto the column. The XAD column was washed with 4-L of dH₂O and drained completely. The FBs were eluted with 4-L of 50% ACN. The XAD column was regenerated with 4-L of dH₂O. Eluted FB-containing fractions were concentrated by rotary evaporation (RE) to 30 mL (Rotavapor, Buchi/Brinkman Instruments Inc., Westbury, New York) at 50°C and filtered through a 0.45 μ m MSi filter. The FB-containing filtrates were adjusted to a pH of ≤ 3.3 using 6 M hydrochloric acid (HCl).

C₈ partition LC

The C₈ mobile phase solutions contained 0.1% (v/v) trifluoroacetic acid. The column pressure was maintained at 80 psi throughout. The low pressure C₈ LC column (Lobar C8. LiChroprep RP-8, 40-63 μ m, Size B; 310-25; EM Separations, Gibbstown, NJ) was conditioned by pumping 500 mL each of ACN and dH₂O through the column with a metering pump (LDC Analytical miniPump Model 396, Rainin Instruments Co. Inc., Woburn, MA). The pH-adjusted filtrates were partitioned to contain ≤ 0.5 g FB₁ and introduced onto the column via 1-3 injections (10 mL of filtrate per injection) with a Rheodyne injection valve (Model 7010, Rheodyne Inc., Cotati, CA) and an inline 10 mL injection loop. The column was washed with 250 mL each of dH₂0 and 20% ACN followed by 150 mL of 25% ACN. The FB₁ was eluted with 400 mL of 30% ACN into 12.5 x 1.5 cm tubes (10 mL of eluent/tube) using a fraction collector (FRAC-100, Pharmacia Fine Chemicals, Piscataway, New Jersey). The eluents were monitored for FB₁ by thin layer chromatography (TLC), concentrated by RE to 10 mL, filtered through a 0.45 μ m MSi filter, and pH adjusted to 6.5 using 10 N sodium hydroxide (NaOH). The remaining FBs and other contaminants were eluted from the column with 100 mL of ACN. The column was regenerated with ≥ 250 mL dH₂O.

DEAE-Sepharose ion exchange LC

All of the ammonium acetate (NH₄-Oac) solutions were pH adjusted to 6.5 using 10 N NaOH. Initially, DEAE-Sepharose (65 mL) CL-6B (wet bead size: 45-165 μ m, Sigma) was washed with 650 mL of milli-Q H₂O (MqH₂O), resuspended in 1.0 M NH₄-OAc:ACN [1:1], and stored at 5°C for 2 d with several resuspensions per day. The DEAE-Sepharose was washed with MqH₂O until no NH₄-OAc odor remained, degassed in 50% ACN, transferred into a 30 x 2

cm column, and allowed to settle by gravity. The column was washed with 200 mL of 50% ACN and drained to the top of the bed.

The FB₁-containing fractions were partitioned to contain ≤ 0.5 g FB₁ and transferred to the DEAE-Sepharose column. The sample was allowed to filter onto the column to the top of the bed followed by 10 mL of 50% ACN, which was allowed to drain to the top of the bed. The column was washed with 90 mL of 50% ACN followed by 100 mL each of 100 and 200 mM NH₄-OAc:ACN [1:1]. The FB₁ was eluted with 100 mL each of 300 and 400 mM NH₄-OAc:ACN [1:1]. The DEAE-Sepharose were regenerated with 100 mL of 500 mM NH₄-OAc:ACN [1:1] followed by 200 mL of 50% ACN. The eluents were monitored for FB₁ by TLC. concentrated by RE to 10 mL, filtered through a 0.45 µm MSi filter, and pH adjusted to ≤ 3.3 using 6 N HCl.

C₁₈ partition LC

The C₁₈ LC mobile phase solution contained 0.1% acetic acid and was pumped at a flow rate of 2 mL/min throughout. The YMC-Pack semi-preparatory C₁₈ high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) column (AM 323-5, Size: 25 x 1 cm I.D., Particle: S-5 μ m, 120A; YMC Inc., Wilmington, NC) was washed with 60 mL of ACN followed by 60 mL of MqH₂O. After MqH₂O equilibration, the FB₁-containing fractions were loaded onto the column by two injections (5 mL each) with a Rheodyne injection valve (Model 7010) and an in-line 5 mL injection loop. The column was washed with 60 mL each of 0, 20, and 25% ACN, respectively. The FB₁ was eluted with 60 mL each of 30 and 35% ACN into 12.5 x 1.5 cm tubes (10 mL of eluent/tube) using a fraction collector (Pharmacia Fine Chemicals). The collected eluents were monitored for FB₁ by TLC. Eluents containing FB₁ were concentrated by RE to 10 mL at 50°C and filtered through a 0.45 μm MSi filter. The column was reconditioned by washing with 60 mL each of 40, 100, and 0% ACN, respectively. **TLC**

All LC fractions were evaluated for FBs by TLC (Rottinghouse et al., 1992). Fractions containing FB₁ were identified by observing the fluorescence of the FB₁fluorescamine compound under UV light.

Freeze drying

Filtered FB₁ containing eluents were concentrated by RE, resuspended in 10-15 mL MqH_2O , and lyophilized in a freeze dryer (18 port, Labconco Corp., Kansas City, MO) for >12 hours.

Fumonisin analysis

Concentrations of FB₁ were estimated by HPLC o-pthaldialdehyde (OPA) fluorometry (Hopmans and Murphy 1993). Purity of FB₁ was determined by comparing the freeze-dried weight of a purified FB₁ culture sample to the HPLC-OPA quantified amount. The FB₁ standard curve was prepared with FB₁ generously donated by P.G. Thiel (Research Institute for Nutritional Diseases, South African Medical Research Council, South Africa). For independent confirmation of purity, sample 84 was analyzed using HPLC-OPA fluorometry and electrospray mass spectrometry (MS) by Dr. Ronald Plattner (National Center for Agricultural Utilization Research, Peoria, IL).

Results and Discussion

The results of nine representative liquid cultures are presented in Table 1. An average FB_1 purity of 102% with a 37% recovery was obtained. There were no differences in FB_1 purity or recovery from the liquid cultures containing different levels of CHE. A purification flow chart is presented in Figure 1. The crude FB_1 in the liquid cultures had a purity of 7%. The post-XAD-16 FB_1 purity was \geq 50%.

Table 1. Purity data of fumonisin B_1 containing samples. Fumonisin B_1 (FB₁) mass (mg), recovery (%), and purity (%) obtained from liquid cultures of *Fusarium proliferatum* strain M5991 by XAD-16, C₈, DEAE-Sepharose, and C₁₈ liquid chromatography.

CULTURE	CHE	CRUDE FB1	PURE FB ₁	FB₁ RECOVERY	FB₁ PURITY
SAMPLE	(%)	(mg)	(mg)	(%)	(%)
61	0.00	400	267	67	101
62	0.00	640	169	27	98
64	0.00	522	287	55	109
75	1.00	600	379	63	101
83	0.75	600	151	25	98
84	0.50	280	82	30	102
106	1.00	750	126	17	101
117	0.00	87.5	57	66	100
120	1.00	480	92	19	96
TOTAL		4360	1612	37	102

Liquid cultures were incubated in Myro medium containing 0-1.00% (v/v) corn hull extract (CHE) for >50 d at 22.5 \pm 2.5°C.

During the C₈ LC, FB₁ was eluted with 30% ACN: however, we observed FB₁ elution during the 25% ACN wash. Therefore, we decreased the volume of this wash from 250 to 150 mL. We limited the loading of FB₁ onto our XAD-16 and C₈ columns to 2 and 0.5 g, respectively. These mass limits of FB₁ did not cause overloading of the columns by FBs or contaminants. Previously, we obtained \geq 95% pure FB₁ by repeated DEAE-Sepharose and C₁₈ LC. The average recovery of FB₁ (37%) in Table 1 was similar to the 40% recovery obtained by Cawood et al. (1991). Figure 2 presents chromatograms of sample 84 containing \geq 95% pure FB₁ (A) and a water blank (B), analyzed by HPLC-OPA fluorescence. These figures show the lack of any OPA derivatizable contaminants in this sample purified by our procedure. This same sample was analyzed by Dr. Plattner using HPLC-OPA fluorometry (95.9% FB₁) and by electrospray-MS (96.8% FB₁) (Fig. 3).

We were unable to obtain pure FB₁ from solid corn, solid rice, or liquid-Myro media using Miller's (*et al.*, 1994) silica or Meredith's (*et al.*, 1996) cyano LC procedures. Our group found that FB₁ produced by *F. proliferatum* strain M5991 from liquid cultures was easier to purify than FB₁ produced on solid corn medium. The principal FB produced by *F. proliferatum* strain M5991 is FB₁ (>90%). We believe that FB₁ purified from liquid cultures of this strain has an advantage over that of other FB producers because of the production of high levels of FB₁ and low levels of other FBs.

Conclusions

We have demonstrated an alternate and reproducible method for purification of FB_1 from liquid cultures of *F. proliferatum* strain M5991. This method could be applied to the

purification of FB₂, FB₃, and FB₄ (work in progress) since they can be separated from FB₁ during C₈ LC. In addition, purification and recovery of FB₁ were not altered by the addition of CHE to the liquid Myro medium.



Figure 1. Purification procedure for fumonisin B_1 (FB₁).



Figure 2. HPLC-OPA chromatogram of fumonisin B_1 . Fumonisin B_1 containing sample 84 (4.6 mg fumonisin B_1/L) (A) and a water blank (B).



Figure 3. HPLC-MS Chromatogram of fumonisin B_1 . Analysis of underivatized fumonisin B_1 in sample 84 analyzed by Dr. R. Plattner using electrospray interface-MS detection (Mode: ESI +Q1MS LMR UP LR; Peak: 1000.00 mmu; Masses scanned: 250 - 950 m/z).

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CHAPTER 5. EXCRETION OF ¹⁴C-FUMONISIN B₁, ¹⁴C-HYDROLYZED FUMONISIN B₁, AND ¹⁴C-FUMONISIN B₁-FRUCTOSE BY RATS

A paper to be submitted to the Journal of Agriculture and Food Chemistry

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Abstract

[¹⁴C]-Fumonisin B₁ (FB₁) was produced by *Fusarium proliferatum* M-5991 in modified Myro liquid medium (LM) and purified to >95% purity with a specific activity of 1.7 mCi/mmole. Nine male and 9 female F344/N rats were dosed by gavage with 0.69 µmole [¹⁴C]-FB₁ or [¹⁴C]-HFB₁ or [¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU/kg BW. Urinary excretion of [¹⁴C]-HFB₁ by female rats was significantly greater than male rats at 17.3 and 12.8% of the dose, respectively. Urinary excretion by male and female rats combined was 4.4 and 0.5% of the [¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU and [¹⁴C]-FB₁ dose, respectively. In a biliary excretion study, 9 Sprague-Dawley female rats were dosed by gavage with 0.69 µmole [¹⁴C]-FB₁ or [¹⁴C]-HFB₁ or [¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU/kg BW. There was no difference in the biliary excretion of the 3 FB compounds in these rats with 1.35% of the dose being excreted in the bile 4 hr after dosing. These data

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suggested that HFB_1 was absorbed to a greater extent than FB_1 in these rats. In a comparison of HFB_1 and FB_1 , both were equally toxic but, on a dietary basis, HFB_1 was absorbed to a greater extent in rats suggesting that HFB_1 was less toxic at the cellular level. The detoxification of FB_1 by reaction with fructose was not explained by the absorption of FB_1 -FRU which was greater than FB_1 in rats.

Introduction

The fumonisins (FBs) are a family of mycotoxins including FB₁, FB₂, FB₃, and FB₄ (Gelderblom *et al.*, 1988; Cawood *et al.*, 1991) with FB₁ being the most predominant. Fumonisins are mainly produced by the maize pathogens *Fusarium proliferatum* and *Fusarium moniliforme*. Fumonisin consumption by horses can cause equine leucoencephalomalacia (ELEM) (Kellerman *et al.*, 1990) and by pigs can cause porcine pulmonary edema (PPE) (Osweiler *et al.*, 1992; Colvin and Harrison, 1992). Consumption of FBs has been associated with other diseases such as embryopathogenicity in chicken (Javed *et al.*, 1993), developmental toxicity in hamsters (Floss *et al.*, 1994), and kidney toxicity and liver cancer in rats (Gelderblom *et al.*, 1991; Voss *et al.*, 1993). The effects of FBs on humans are not known. However, epidemiological studies have suggested a correlation between high levels of FBs in corn consumed by humans and human esophageal cancer (Syndenham *et al.*, 1990; Rheeder *et al.*, 1992; Chu and Li, 1994). Fumonisin B₁ is a probable human class 2B carcinogen (IARC, 1993).

Fumonisin B₁ has been labeled using [¹⁴C]-acetate or [¹⁴C]-methionine in cultures of *F. moniliforme* or *F. proliferatum* in liquid medium (LM) (Norred *et al.*, 1993; Blackwell *et*

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al., 1994; Lebepe-Mazur, 1993). Norred *et al.* (1993) detected 80% and 2.3% of 1.4 µmole [¹⁴C]-FB₁/kg BW dosed by gavage in the feces and urine of fasted rats, respectively. The livers, kidneys, and blood of these rats retained 0.6% of the [¹⁴C]-FB₁-dose after 96 h. Shephard *et al.* (1992) detected 100% and trace levels of 10.4 µmole [¹⁴C]-FB₁/kg BW dosed by gavage in the feces and urine of fed rats, respectively after 24 h. Trace levels of the [¹⁴C]-FB₁-dose were detected in the livers, kidneys, and blood of rats. A comparison of Norred's *et al.* (1993) fasted rats to Shephard's *et al.* (1992) fed rats showed a greater urinary excretion in fed rats compared to fasted rats suggesting enhanced absorption in fasted rats. Shephard *et al.* (1994) reported 0.2% of a [¹⁴C]-FB₁-dose in the bile of fed rats dosed by gavage with 10.4 µmole [¹⁴C]-FB₁/kg BW after 24 h. Hopmans *et al.* (1997) administered 0.69, 6.93, or 69.3 µmoles of FB₁/kg BW to fed rats resulting in 7.4, 1.2, and 0.5% of the FB₁ dose was excreted in the urine, respectively.

Previous attempts to detoxify FB₁ by ammoniation and dry heat treatments have been unsuccessful (Norred *et al.*, 1991; Dupuy *et al.*, 1993). Alkaline hydrolysis of the tricarboxylic (TCA) groups of FB₁ produced hydrolyzed FB₁ (HFB₁) which was found to be as toxic as FB₁ to rats fed a nutritionally adequate diet (Hendrich *et al.*, 1993). However, HFB₁ may be less toxic than FB₁ because HFB₁ was absorbed 2-fold more than FB₁ by rats (Hopmans *et al.*, 1997). Detoxification of FB₁ may occur by formation of the Schiff's base, FB₁-FRU (Murphy *et al.*, 1995). Lu *et al.* (1997) reported FB₁-FRU did not cause rat hepatic cancer promotion. Hopmans *et al.* (1997) reported that FB₁-FRU had a greater urinary excretion than FB₁ in rats. The lack of toxicity of FB₁-FRU could not be explained by its lower absorption than FB₁ in rats. Norred *et al.* (1993) recovered 35% of the [¹⁴C]-dose in the feces from fasted rats dosed by iv with 6.2 nmole [¹⁴C]-FB₁/rat after 96 h. Shephard *et al.* (1992) recovered 66% of the [¹⁴C]-dose in the feces from fed rats dosed intraperitoneally with 10.4 μ mole [¹⁴C]-FB₁/kg BW after 24 h. In Shephard *et al.* (1994), 67% of a [¹⁴C]-dose was detected in the bile of fed rats dosed intraperitoneally with 10.4 μ mole [¹⁴C]-FB₁/kg BW after 24 h and 0.2% of a [¹⁴C]-dose was detected in the bile of fed rats dosed by gavage with 0.4 μ mole [¹⁴C]-FB₁/kg BW. The biliary excretion of the HFB₁ and FB₁-FRU have not been previously investigated. The objective of this study was to compare the urinary, fecal, and biliary excretion of 0.69 μ moles of [¹⁴C]-HFB₁ and [¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU/kg BW to [¹⁴C]-FB₁/kg BW dosed by gavage by rats.

Materials and Methods

Reagents were from Fisher Scientific (St. Louis MO) unless otherwise stated. The FB₁ produced from *Fusarium* cultures is considered class 2B carcinogens (IARC, 1993) and caution should be taken during their handling. We assume that HFB₁ is a potential carcinogen and should be treated accordingly.

Liquid cultures (500 ml) of *F. proliferatum* strain M5991 were prepared as in Dantzer et al. (1996a) and inoculated into Myro liquid medium (LM) which had MgSO₄ reduced to 0.5 g/L and contained 1.00% (v/v) corn hull extract (modified Myro LM). The inoculum culture was incubated for 4 days (d) on a rotary shaker at 220 rpm and 25°C. Aliquots (0.5 ml) of the *F. proliferatum* M-5991 inoculum culture were transferred into each of 3 rubber stoppered 125 ml Erlenmeyer flasks containing 50 ml of modified Myro LM. Compressed air was cleaned by passing through an enclosed 2 L plastic bottle containing air, then bubbled through a series of 4 enclosed 2 L plastic bottles containing; 1L of 2N KOH, 2N KOH, distilled water (dH₂0), and 2N H₂SO₄, respectively, passed through a moisture trap, and filtered with a 0.2 μ m inline filter. The purified air was bubbled through the *F. proliferatum* inoculated culture flasks at 0.5 ml/min while the flasks were incubated on a rotary shaker (220 rpm) at 20-25°C for 30 d. One ml aliquots were removed from the culture flasks every 7 d and stored at -20°C until FB analysis.

Iowa State University (ISU) Environmental Health and Safety guidelines for ¹⁴C use were followed throughout. Glassware was cleaned by soaking in Nochromix laboratory glass cleaner (GODAX Laboratories, Inc., Takoma Park, MD) for >15 min. An aliquot containing 0.5 ml of a 4 d old F. proliferatum M-5991 LM culture was transferred into a rubber stoppered 125 ml Erlenmeyer flask. The filtered purified air was bubbled into the flask at 0.5 ml/min and allowed to exit through Tygon tubing (3.2 or 4.8 mm ID x 6.4 mm OD; formula R-3603; Norton Performance Plastics, Akron, OH) to a CO₂ trap consisting of two rubber stoppered 20 x 150 mm test tubes assembled in series each containing 20 ml of 2N KOH. The flask was incubated at 220 rpm and 20-25°C on a rotary shaker for 10 d and a 100 μ l aliquot was removed once for pre-labeling FB₁ quantification. The ethanol (EtOH) containing 56 mCi/mmole of [1,2-14C]-acetate (American Radiolabeled Chemicals Inc. St. Louis, MO, Lot # 960214) was evaporated and the residue was redissolved in milli-Q water (MqH₂O). Four equal aliquots of 0.25 mCi of $[1,2^{-14}C]$ -acetate were transferred into the F. proliferatum flask after 12, 15, 18, and 21 d to equal a total of 1.00 mCi [1,2-14C]-acetate. Preliminary work indicated EtOH decreased production of FB_1 and cell density by F. proliferatum M-5991. The culture was agitated on a shaker at 220 rpm throughout and

harvested 13 d after [¹⁴C] addition. The KOH-¹⁴CO₂ trap tubes were replaced every 24 h after the initial addition of [¹⁴C] and counted in ScintiVerse BD scintillation fluid for 4 min using a Packard liquid scintillation analyzer Model 1900TR (Packard Instrument Co., Downers Grove, IL).

¹⁴C]-Fumonisin B₁ purification was performed according to the procedure of Dantzer et al. (1996b) with a few modifications. Briefly, the 50 ml of [¹⁴C]-FB, containing LM was filtered through a Whatman #1 filter (Whatman Laboratory Division, Springfield Mill, Maidstone, Kent) followed by 0.8 and 0.45 µm MSi filters (4.5 cm dia, nylon; Micron Separations Inc., Westboro, MA). The [14C]-FB1 was fractionated on XAD-16, C2, DEAE-Sepharose, and C₁₈ columns. The XAD-16 column was a 30 x 2 cm glass column with 50 g of Amberlite XAD-16 (Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis MO). The column was washed with 150 ml of MqH₂O and the FB₁ was eluted with 150 ml of 50% acetonitrile (ACN). All other purification procedures were the same as in Dantzer et al. (1996b). After elution of the [¹⁴C]-FB₁ from the C₁₈ column, the sample was concentrated by rotary evaporation at 45°C, freeze-dried, weighed, rehydrated in 50% ACN, and quantified for FB₁. Three aliquots, each containing 1.39 μ mole [¹⁴C]-FB₁, were rotary evaporated to dryness at 45°C and used to prepare [¹⁴C]-FB₁, [¹⁴C]-HFB₁, or [¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU dosing treatments. For preparation of the [¹⁴C]-FB₁ treatment, an aliquot containing 1.39 µmole [¹⁴C]-FB₁ was rehydrated in 10 ml of MqH₂O and stored at -20°C until used for animal dosing. For preparation of the [¹⁴C]-HFB₁ treatment, an aliquot containing 1.39 µmole [¹⁴C]-FB, was rehydrated in 5 ml MqH₂O and hydrolyzed in a marble capped test tube (12.5 x 1.5 cm) with 1 ml of 2N KOH for 2 h in boiling H₂O. The pH of the HFB₁ solution was adjusted to <3 using 12N HCl and loaded onto a PrepSep P479-C₁₈

extraction column (Fisher Scientific). The column was washed with 20 ml of MqH₂O and the HFB₁ was eluted with 10 ml MeOH (Hopmans *et al.*, 1997). The MeOH was removed from the [¹⁴C]-HFB₁ by rotary evaporation at 45°C. The [¹⁴C]-HFB₁ was rehydrated in 10 ml of MqH₂O and stored at -20°C until used for animal dosing. For preparation of the [¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU treatment, an aliquot containing 1.39 μ mole [¹⁴C]-FB₁ was rehydrated in 10 ml of 0.05 M K₂HPO₄ at pH 7 containing 0.1 M D-fructose and heated at 80°C for 48 h (Hopmans *et al.*, 1997). The volume of the heated FB₁-FRU solution was adjusted to 10 ml with MqH₂O and stored at -20°C until used for animal dosing.

The concentrations of [¹⁴C]-FB₁ and -HFB₁ were estimated by HPLC opthaldialdehyde (OPA) fluorometry using a Turner fluorometer (Corning 7-60 primary filter and Wratten 2a secondary filter, 15 μ l flow cell) (Dantzer *et al.*, 1996b). Purity of [¹⁴C]-FB₁ was determined by comparing the HPLC-OPA quantified amounts to the freeze-dried weights of the purified [¹⁴C]-FB₁ sample. A purified sample of FB₁ was used to generate a FB₁ standard curve (Dantzer *et al.*, 1996b). The [¹⁴C]-HFB₁ sample was quantified for HFB₁ by comparing the HPLC-OPA quantified amounts to a HFB₁ standard curve. The HFB₁ standard was generated in our lab according to the procedure of Hopmans *et al.* (1997). The [¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU sample was analyzed for residual free [¹⁴C]-FB₁ by HPLC-OPA.

The animal protocol and use was approved by the ISU Animal Care Committee. Eighteen Fisher 344/NHsd rats, 9 male and 9 female at 7-8 and 9-10 wk of age, respectively, with a BW range of 135-160 g were used for the urine and fecal excretion study. All rats were housed individually and fed AIN 93M diet (Reeves *et al.*, 1993) and tap water *ad lib* for 1 wk with a 12 h light cycle. Following the 1 wk acclimation period and at the end of a light
cycle. 3 male and 3 female rats were administered 0.69 μ mole [¹⁴C]-FB₁. [¹⁴C]-HFB₁, or [¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU/kg BW by gavage. The rats were housed individually in metabolic cages and fecal and urine samples were collected at 12 h intervals. At 84 h, the rats were sacrificed by CO₂ asphyxiation, blood was drawn by heart puncture, and hearts, livers, lungs, kidneys, and brains were removed for [¹⁴C] analysis.

Nine female 15 wk old Sprague-Dawley rats with a BW range of 240-270 g were used for the biliary excretion study. All rats were housed individually and fed AIN 93M diet (Reeves et al., 1993) and tap water ad lib for 1 wk with a 12 h light cycle. Following the 1 wk acclimation period and at the end of a light cycle, the rats were anesthetized with 5 ml of urethane (Sigma) solution (0.25 g urethane/ml sterile H₂O)/kg BW intraperitoneally and their bile ducts were surgically cannulated with a 24 cm long piece of silicone rubber tubing (0.3 mm ID x 0.6 mm OD; BrainTree Scientific Inc., Braintree, MA). Following cannulation, the tubing was fed through a large bore needle placed in the right side of the abdomen of each rat. After passing the tubing through the needle, the needle was withdrawn and the abdomen surgically closed. Immediately after cannulation, 3 rats were gavaged with 0.69 µmole [¹⁴C]-FB₁, [¹⁴C]-HFB₁, or [¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU/kg BW and placed on their left sides on a hot water heating pad set at medium power. Bile was collected into 1.5 ml graduated micro centrifuge tubes every 30 min until the rats expired or at sacrifice 9.5 h after dosing. Livers, kidneys, stomach wash, stomach tissue, and the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd sections (I, II, and III) of the intestines were collected after the rats expired or at sacrifice 9.5 h after dosing. All samples were stored at -20°C until analyzed.

Fecal samples, oven-dried at 60°C overnight, and intestinal tissues, frozen with liquid N_2 , were ground in a porcelain mortar and pestle. Ground fecal and intestinal tissues, stomach tissues, stomach washes, kidneys, livers, lungs, blood, and brains were separately blended with a tissue homogenizer (Model TR-10, Tekmar Co., Cincinnati. OH) at 60% power for 0.5 to 1 min in 5 ml MqH₂O, brought to a known volume (10 to 35 ml) with MqH₂O, and quantified for [¹⁴C] on a scintillation analyzer. Quenching of [¹⁴C] was evaluated by measuring [¹⁴C] in 1 ml fecal, urine, liver, kidney, or dH₂O solutions or 0.5 ml of intestinal tissue, stomach wash, stomach tissues, or dH₂O, with and without 0.1 ml ACN containing 18,400 dpms from 0.02 µmoles of [¹⁴C]-FB₁. The quenching % was used to correct data from each sample.

The statistical treatment of the urine and fecal excretion of the FB forms, $[^{14}C]$ -FB₁, $[^{14}C]$ -HFB₁, and $[^{14}C]$ -FB₁-FRU, were a completely randomized design of 18 rats. Three male and 3 female rats were randomly assigned to each treatment. The statistical protocol of the biliary excretion of the FB forms, $[^{14}C]$ -FB₁, $[^{14}C]$ -HFB₁, and $[^{14}C]$ -FB₁-FRU, were a completely randomized design of 9 rats. Three female rats were randomly assigned to each treatment. Differences among treatment means were assessed by a students t-statistic with p ≤ 0.05 as level of significance using the SAS package (V 6.03, 1995, Cary, NC).

Results and Discussion

Log-phase production of FB₁ by *F. proliferatum* culture occurred during 10-14 d followed by a linear increase in FB₁ through 31 d yielding 1200 μ moles FB₁/L (Fig. 1). There was an average production of 0.18 μ Ci ¹⁴CO₂/h within the first 24 h period after each

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addition of 250 μ Ci [¹⁴C]-acetate (Fig. 1). The production of ¹⁴CO₂ decreased to undetectable levels 3 d after addition of the [¹⁴C]-acetate. The culture was harvested at 24 d. The FB₁ was purified to >95% purity with a yield of 24 μ moles and a specific activity of 1.7 mCi/mmole. [¹⁴C]-Fumonisin B₁ measurement in biological material allows for improved ability to monitor FB₁ compared to HPLC-fluorescence methods. However, quantifying for [¹⁴C]-FB₁ will not reveal any information on metabolic modification of FB or its related forms.

The doses for the urine and fecal excretion study contained 0.14 μ mole of [¹⁴C]-FB₁, [¹⁴C]-HFB₁, or [¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU/ml MqH₂O with specific activities of 1.7, 1.2, and 1.8 mCi/mmole, respectively. The lower specific activity of [¹⁴C]-HFB₁ suggested that some of the TCA groups had been labeled during [¹⁴C]-FB₁ production and were removed by hydrolysis to produce [¹⁴C]-HFB₁.

Dosing of rats during the urine and fecal excretion study occurred at the end of a light cycle suggesting the animals were not actively feeding for 12 h prior to dosing. The quenching analysis indicated that blood had the highest average quenching at 86% followed by liver at 28% of the added [¹⁴C]-FB₁. All other constituents had little quenching (Table 1). The data on time course of excretion of [¹⁴C] in urine of male and female rats, for each FB form, were combined because they were not significantly different except for urinary excretion of HFB₁ during 0-12 h after dosing (Fig. 2). There was 15.0, 4.4, and 0.6% of the [¹⁴C]-dose excreted in the urine dosed with 0.69 µmole [¹⁴C]-HFB₁, [¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU, and [¹⁴C]-FB₁/kg BW, respectively (Table 2). The average half-life of the FB compounds retained by these rats was 10 h. The urinary excretion of [¹⁴C]-HFB₁ persisted up to 60 h after dosing with a maximum of [¹⁴C]-HFB₁ being excreted between 12 and 24 h. The

excretion of [¹⁴C]-HFB₁ resembled a one-compartment model of elimination. The elimination of [¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU persisted in the urine of these rats up to 24 h after dosing (Fig. 2). The urinary excretion of [¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU persisted up to 24 h with a maximum of [¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU being excreted between 0 and 12 h. The excretion of [¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU in these rats resembled a one-compartment model of elimination. There were only trace amounts of [14C]-FB, excreted in the urine of these rats and most of that was excreted in the first 12 h after dosing (Fig. 3). Over 25-fold more [¹⁴C]-HFB₁ was excreted in the urine of male and female rats than $[^{14}C]$ -FB₁ suggesting that HFB₁ had a greater bioavailability. The greater bioavailability of HFB₁ than FB₁ with comparable toxicity (Hendrich et al., 1993) suggested that FB₁ was more toxic than HFB₁ at the cellular level to rats. Total excretion of [¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU in the urine of male and female rats was 8-fold greater than FB₁ suggesting that [¹⁴C]- FB_1 -FRU had a greater bioavailability than FB_1 in these rats (Table 2). Fumonisin B_1 -FRU was a detoxified form of FB₁ in rats (Lu et al., 1997). However, its detoxification mechanism was not due to reduced absorption since its bioavailability was greater than that of FB₁ in rats. Our total urinary excretion of 0.69 μ moles HFB₁ and FB₁-FRU/kg BW compared to 0.69 µmoles FB₁/kg BW by male and female Fisher rats after 84 h were similar to the urinary excretion by male Fisher rats observed by Hopmans et al. (1997) after 96 h. Both studies reported the same total percent urinary excretion of HFB, and relative absorptions of HFB₁ and FB₁-FRU compared to FB₁. However, in the study by Hopmans et al. (1997) rats dosed with 0.69 µmoles of FB1-FRU or FB1/kg BW excreted 2-fold more percent total dose of FB₁-FRU and 14-fold more percent total dose of FB₁ in the urine than our rats. Hopmans et al. (1997) correlated FB₁ and FB₁-FRU to the amount of OPA-HFB₁ in

the hydrolyzed rat urine. Hydrolysis of urine was performed to free up the amine group on the FB₁ molecule for OPA binding. In our study, FB₁ and FB₁-FRU were correlated to the amount of [¹⁴C] detected in the rat urine. The differences in these two studies may reflect the differences in analysis. Norred *et al.* (1993) found 2-3% of a gavaged dose of 1.4 μ mole [¹⁴C]-FB₁/kg BW was excreted in the urine of fasted Sprague-Dawley rats after 96 h suggesting that their fasted rats had a greater absorption of FB₁ than our fed rats. This apparent higher absorption by Norred's rats compared to our rats may have been attributed to differences in strain of rat or, more likely, in absorption of FBs between fasted and fed rats. In fed rats, solids may tie up the FBs and make them less available for GI tract absorption.

The data on the time course of fecal excretion of [¹⁴C] in male and female rats, dosed with the same compound, were combined because they were not significantly different according to gender (Fig. 3). The pattern of fecal excretion of [¹⁴C]-FB₁, [¹⁴C]-HFB₁, and [¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU followed a normal excretion of a compound through the fecal route (Casarett and Doull, 1991) with maximum excretion of [¹⁴C] from the 3 compounds to be recovered in the feces between 12 and 24 h. After 60 h, only trace amounts of [¹⁴C] were recovered in the feces from these rats. Total fecal excretion was not significantly different between compounds or gender and averaged 90% recovery of total dose after 84 h (Table 2).

The total [¹⁴C] recovered from the hearts, brains, livers. blood, kidneys, or lungs of rats dosed with 0.69 μ mole [¹⁴C]-FB₁, [¹⁴C]-HFB₁, or [¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU/kg BW was not significantly different from 0 for all rats indicating that accumulation of these compounds did not occur after 84 h (Fig. 4, Table 2).

In the biliary excretion study, Sprague-Dawley rats were used to obtain rats big enough for the canulation procedure. The same treatments were used for the biliary excretion study as in the urinary excretion study. However, to obtain proper volumes, the 0.14 µmole [¹⁴C]-HFB₁ and [¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU/ml MqH₂O treatments were diluted with unlabeled 0.14 µmole HFB₁ or FB₁-FRU/ml MqH₂O which resulted in specific activities of 0.7 and 1.0 mCi/mmole, respectively. In the bile excretion experiment, all 9 of the cannulated female rats survived for 4 h after dosing. Biliary excretion of 0.69 µmole [¹⁴C]-FB₁, [¹⁴C]-HFB₁, or ¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU/kg BW by female rats were not significantly different with 1.35% of the total [¹⁴C]-dose excreted 4 h after dosing (Table 3). Biliary excretion of the 3 FB compounds increased from 0 to 0.5% of the total dose per 0.5 h interval within 2 h after dosing (Fig. 5). The 3 forms of FB continued to be excreted in the bile by the rats up to 9.5 h after dosing (Fig. 6). The large error bars seen in the biliary excretion data may suggest the presence of fluorescent compounds that have been previously observed in rat bile (Hicks et al., 1984). Only 2 rats from the $[{}^{14}C]$ -FB₁ dose and 1 rat from the $[{}^{14}C]$ -HFB₁ and $[{}^{14}C]$ -FB₁-FRU doses survived for 9.5 h. Shephard et al. (1994) recovered almost 7-fold less at 0.2% of the total $[^{14}C]$ -dose in the bile of cannulated rats gavaged with $[^{14}C]$ -FB₁ compared to our rats. However, Shephard's et al. (1994) rats were not under anesthesia during gavaging of [14C]-FB₁ or bile collection. A large portion of the $[^{14}C]$ -dose of the 3 forms of FB₁ were recovered in the stomach contents of our rats (41% of the total dose) indicating that only about 1/2 of the dosed-FB compounds left the stomachs of these rats (Table 4). This could possibly be because these rats were under anesthesia throughout the duration of the experiment which may have resulted in a slower rate of GI tract absorption compared to Shephard's et al.

(1994) rats. The pooled stomach tissues, intestines, and bile samples from the rats contained 10 ± 8 , 8 ± 9 and $3 \pm 4\%$ of the total dose, respectively. Kidneys and livers contained less than 1% of the [¹⁴C]-dose. Total recovery of the [¹⁴C]-doses from these rats of the bile excretion study averaged $63 \pm 17\%$.

Conclusions

The 25-fold greater absorption of [¹⁴C]-HFB₁ than that of [¹⁴C]-FB₁ in male and female Fisher rats suggested that, once in circulation, HFB₁ was less toxic than FB₁, on a molar basis, because both have been shown to be equally toxic on a dietary basis to rats (Hendrich *et al.*, 1993). Detoxification of FB₁ by formation of FB₁-FRU was not the result of decreased absorption since [¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU was absorbed 8-fold more than [¹⁴C]-FB₁ by these rats. These data compliment and extend the findings of Hopmans *et al.* (1997) suggesting that HFB₁ or FB₁-FRU were absorbed more than FB₁ by the GI tract of rats. In addition, there were no differences in biliary excretion of [¹⁴C]-FB₁, [¹⁴C]-HFB₁, or [¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU by these rats. This finding suggests that the observed decrease in urinary excretion of FB₁ compared with HFB₁ or FB₁-FRU was due to a decreased absorption of FB₁ relative to HFB₁ or FB₁-FRU by the GI tract of these rats.

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Table 1. Detectability of	[¹⁴ C	in biolo	gical sam	iples s	piked	with	[^{l₄} C	-FB,	ł
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		PERCENT
	AVE	OF DOSE
SAMPLE	DPM	DETECTABLE
Urine	17,902	97
Feces	22,662	123
Lung	17,231	94
Heart	17,521	95
Brain	18,188	99
Liver	13,358	72
Blood	2,536	14
Kidney	16,897	92
Bile	18,763	102
Intestine	17,708	96

Samples were spiked with 100 ml of acetonitrile containing 18,000 dpms from 0.02 mmoles of $[^{14}C]$ -FB₁.



Fig. 1. Production of ¹⁴CO₂ (μ Ci/h) and FB₁ (μ moles/L) by *Fusarium proliferatum* M-5991. Bar plot represents production of ¹⁴CO₂ (μ Ci/h) by *F. proliferatum* M-5991 in 50 ml of modified Myro liquid medium (LM) spiked with 0.25 mCi [¹⁴C]-acetate after 12, 15, 18, and 21 d of incubation. Line plot represents FB₁ (μ moles/L) produced by *F. proliferatum* M-5991 in 50 ml of modified Myro LM. Error bars represent ± 1 standard deviation of 3 replicates.



Fig. 2. Percent excretion in urine of total [¹⁴C]-dose per 12-h interval by groups of 3 male and 3 female rats dosed with 0.69 μ mole [¹⁴C]-FB₁ or [¹⁴C]-HFB₁ or [¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU/kg BW. Error bars represent ± 1 standard deviation (n=6). *There was a significant difference between male and female rats for treatment-time interval. Data within a time interval with different superscripts are statistically different (p≤0.05).

Table 2. Percent recovery of total ¹⁴C of 0.69 μ moles of [¹⁴C]-FB₁ or [¹⁴C]-HFB₁ or [¹⁴C]-FB₁ or [¹⁴C]-HFB₁ or [¹⁴C

	PERCENT TOTAL DOSE							
	RINE	F	FCES		SUES	TOTAL 		
DOSE	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE
[¹⁴ C]-FB ₁	0.44	0.72*	84.98	95.49	0.28	2.72	85.7	98.9
[¹⁴ C]-HFB ₁	12.83 ^C	17.30 ^D	86.81	91.42	0.14	1.31	99.8	110.0
[¹⁴ C]-FB ₁ -FRU	4.18 ^B	4.59 ^B	86.20	97.00	0.19	0.42	90.6	102.0

Different superscripts are significantly different ($p \le 0.05$). MSE_{urine} = 2; MSE_{feces} = 89; MSE_{tissues} = 2; MSE_{recovery} = 81. Data within feces, tissues, or total recovery are not significantly different ($p \le 0.05$).



Fig. 3. Percent excretion in feces of total [¹⁴C]-dose per 12-h interval by groups of 3 male and 3 female rats dosed with 0.69 μ mole [¹⁴C]-FB₁ or [¹⁴C]-HFB₁ or [¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU/kg BW. Error bars represent ± 1 standard deviation (n=6). Data within each time interval were not significantly different (p≤0.05).



Fig. 4. Percent tissue accumulation of total ¹⁴C dose by groups of 3 male and 3 female rats (n=6) dosed with 0.69 μ mole [¹⁴C]-FB₁ or [¹⁴C]-HFB₁ or [¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU/kg BW. Error bars represent ± 1 standard deviation. Data within each tissue group were not significantly different (p≤0.05).



Fig. 5. Percent biliary excretion of total ¹⁴C dose per 0.5 hour interval by groups of 3 female rats dosed with 0.69 μ mole [¹⁴C]-FB₁ or [¹⁴C]-HFB₁ or [¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU/kg BW. Error bars represent ± 1 standard deviation (n=3).



Fig. 6. Percent biliary excretion of total ¹⁴C dose per 0.5 hour interval by female rats dosed with 0.69 μ mole [¹⁴C]-FB₁ or [¹⁴C]-HFB₁ or [¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU/kg BW. Bars with error bars represent means ± range (n=2). Bars without error bars represent n=1.

Table 3. Biliary excretion of [¹⁴C]-dose by female rats gavaged with 0.69 μ mole [¹⁴C]-FB₁ or [¹⁴C]-FB₁ or [¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU/kg BW 4 hours after dosing.

	PERCENT BILLA OF [¹⁴ C]-DOSE	ARY EXCRETION AFTER 4 HOURS
DOSE	AVERAGE	STANDARD DEVIATION
FB ₁	1.55	2.51
HFB ₁	1.71	1.99
FB ₁ -FRU	0.80	0.82
$\frac{1}{n=3}$		

Table 4. Percent of total [¹⁴C] dose (%) recovered in constituents from female Sprague-Dawley rats dosed with 0.69 μ moles of [¹⁴C]-FB₁, -HFB₁, or -FB₁-FRU and the duration (hr) until expiration of each rat after dosing.

	PERCENT OF TOTAL [¹⁴ C]-DOSE (%)								
	FB ₁ RAT			HFB ₁ RAT			FB ₁ -FRU		
-							RAT		
PARAMETER	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
BILE	11.1	0.1	0.2	6.6	0.2	1.1	2.9	0.4	0.3
KIDNEYS	0.9	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.8	0.4	0.2	0.0
LIVER	1.4	0.0	0.9	0.2	0.0	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.0
STOMACH WASH	17.9	65.7	34.1	21.4	8 7.6	16.2	34.4	46.2	42.4
STOMACH TISSUE	16.8	3.7	7.6	7.0	7.3	4.1	29.5	4.4	7.0
INT I TISSUE	2.4	0.0	1.8	14.5	0.0	0.5	5.1	15.8	1.8
INT II TISSUE	0.0	0.1	0.0	2.5	0.0	4.9	0.0	0.0	0.0
INT III TISSUE	0.0	10.2	0.0	0.6	0.4	22.8	0.0	0.2	0.0
TOTAL	50.0	80.0	45.0	53.0	96.0	51.0	72.0	67.0	52.0
DURATION (hr)	9.0	9.0	4.0	9.0	7.0	4.0	9.0	4.5	3.5

CHAPTER 6. GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

A. Summary

The structure of fumonisin B_1 (FB₁) suggests that it is a symmetrical molecule that may be able to fold into different configurations and is water soluble. From a toxicologist's standpoint, the active groups on a FB molecule include the tricarboxylic acid groups, primary amine group, and a C20 backbone with 1 to 3 hydroxyl groups and 2 methyl groups attached. Fumonisin B₁ has been shown to be only slightly absorbed by the gastrointestinal (GI)-tract of animals. However, it is capable of causing major health problems such as leucoencephalomalacia, pulmonary edema, liver cancer, or kidney disease in different animals (Kellerman et al., 1991; Osweiler et al., 1992; Gelderblom et al., 1991; Voss et. al., 1993). In studies described in this dissertation, less than 2% of the [¹⁴C]-FB₁-dose was absorbed by the GI tract of rats. Of the 2% absorbed dose, it is estimated that 25% was excreted in the urine and 75% was excreted in the bile. Altering the form of [¹⁴C]-FB, to [¹⁴C]-hydrolyzed FB₁ ([¹⁴C]-HFB₁) or [¹⁴C]-FB₁-fructose ([¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU) resulted in an increased absorption by rats but not in an increased biliary excretion. The [¹⁴C]-HFB₁ form may be found in foods such as masa and tortilla flour and was absorbed 30-fold more in the GI tract of rats than was [¹⁴C]-FB₁. Based on these data and their similar dietary toxicity to rats (Hendrich et al., 1993), dietary HFB₁ may be less toxic than dietary FB₁ on a cellular basis. Another form of [¹⁴C]-FB₁ studied here was [¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU, which can be formed by heating [14C]-FB1 with fructose at pH 7. This form was found not to be a cancer promotor when fed to rats (Lu et al., 1977). The mode of detoxification of FB₁-FRU could have been a

decreased absorption by the GI tract of rats. However, Hopmans *et al.* (1997) reported FB₁-FRU was absorbed more by the GI tract of in rats than was FB₁. The decreased toxicity of FB₁-FRU compared with FB₁ was not based on absorption. In this study, [¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU was absorbed 10-fold more than [¹⁴C]-FB₁ by rats, confirming the findings of Hopmans *et al.* (1997). If FB₁-FRU can be shown not to cause some of the other animal toxicities such as ELEM and PPE, then the process of forming FB₁-FRU from FB₁ could be used to treat animal feeds that contain FBs.

These [¹⁴C]-FB₁, [¹⁴C]-HFB₁, and [¹⁴C]-FB₁-FRU animal experiments required production and purification of [¹⁴C]-FB₁. This required optimization of production, purification, and radiolabeling of FB₁. The production of FB₁ was optimized by incubating a FB₁-producing fungi, *Fusarium proliferatum* M-5991, in a modified Myro liquid medium (LM). The modification of the Myro LM included the addition of 1% (v/v) corn hull extract (CHE) which enhanced the overall growth characteristics of the fungi resulting in a 3-fold increase in the production of FB₁. The production of FB₁ in a large scale 12 L fermentation vessel was carried out in a serial batch fermentation in which the cell mass was retained from batch to batch. The serial batch fermentation demonstrated that the production of FBs could be scaled up and optimized to increase the production of FB₁ by *F. proliferatum*. This procedure also produced FB₁ in less time than shaker flasks because the vessel did not require cleaning after each fermentation batch. Possibly, the serial batch fermentation could have been improved. In this experiment, the CHE was only added to the first batch because purification of FB₁ produced from LM enhanced with CHE was not investigated. However, no purification problems were observed when the CHE was used in the production medium. The basic chromatography method existed prior to this study but required major optimization and the addition of an anion exchange column. Radiolabeling of FB₁ with [¹⁴C] included the addition of 1 mCi [¹⁴C]-acetate to a 12 d old culture of *F. proliferatum* M-5991 in 50 ml of LM spread out over 10 d and resulted in the production of radiolabeled FB₁ with a specific activity of 1.7 mCi/mmole. This specific activity could be increased by adding all of the [¹⁴C]-acetate at one time which would decrease the amount of non labeled FB₁ obtained after harvesting. However, due to the low recovery of FB₁ from the purification procedure, a greater loss of the [¹⁴C]-FB₁ may have occurred.

B. Recommendations for Future Research

This study answered some questions concerning the absorption of 3 forms of FB₁ in rats. However, the absorption of similar forms of FB₂, FB₃, and FB₄ need to be investigated. Some *Fusarium* strains have been shown to produce FB₂, FB₃, and FB₄ preferentially over that of FB₁. What are the effects that these other FBs and their various forms have on animals? Can they be detoxified? Can the detoxified FB₁-FRU, which is absorbed more than FB₁, cause ELEM in horses?

There is strong evidence suggesting that FBs are toxic, exist in human and animal foods, and pose a risk to the health of humans and animals if consumed. However, the levels of FBs and the forms of FBs found in foods have not been regulated. Determining the safe levels of these compounds in foods needs to be completed. This would also require enhanced improvements in the detection of FBs from foods. The ELISA methods offer the ability to screen large numbers of samples at one time. However, ELISA methods are not as accurate

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in quantifying levels of FBs in food systems as are the conventional HPLC-fluorometric methods. In summary, other forms of these mycotoxins should be investigated for their toxicity, acceptable levels in foods need to be determined, and quick, accurate methods for detection of FBs need to be developed.

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

William R. Dantzer was born on June 28, 1960 in Columbus, Ohio. He received the Bachelor of Science in Food Science and Technology from The Ohio State University in 1991 and the Master of Science in Food Science and Technology from the University of Massachusetts (UMASS) in 1993. He has served as a Research Assistant at UMASS and at Iowa State University. At UMASS he worked on evaluating the effects of external bacteria on toxin production by dinoflagellated "Red Tide" algae contradicting previous reports that the toxin was produced by bacteria associated with the algae. While at ISU, he studied the absorption of 3 forms of fumonisin B_1 in rats as reported in this dissertation.