



The *in vitro* and *in situ* effect of selected essential oils in vapour phase against bread spoilage toxicogenic aspergilli

Miroslava Císarová^{a,*}, Lukáš Hleba^b, Juraj Medo^b, Dana Tančinová^b, Zuzana Mašková^b,
Juraj Čuboň^c, Anton Kováčik^d, Denisa Foltinová^b, Matěj Božik^e, Pavel Klouček^e

^a University of SS. Cyril and Methodius, Department of Biology, Faculty of Natural Sciences, Nám. J. Herdu 2, SK-91701, Trnava, Slovak Republic

^b Slovak University of Agriculture in Nitra, Department of Microbiology, Faculty of Biotechnology and Food Sciences, Tr. A. Hlinku 2, 94976, Nitra, Slovak Republic

^c Slovak University of Agriculture in Nitra, Department of Evaluation and Processing of Animal Products, Faculty of Biotechnology and Food Sciences, Tr. A. Hlinku 2, 94976, Nitra, Slovak Republic

^d Department of Animal Physiology, Faculty of Biotechnology and Food Sciences, Slovak University of Agriculture in Nitra, Tr. A. Hlinku 2, 949 76, Nitra, Slovak Republic

^e Czech University of Life Sciences, Faculty of Agrobiography, Food and Natural Resources, Department of Quality of Agricultural Products, Kamýcka 129, 16521, Prague, Czech Republic

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

Aspergillus spp.
Aflatoxins
Ochratoxins
Bread
Essential oils
Antifungal activity
Vapour contact

ABSTRACT

The major objective of this study was to determine the antifungal, anti-toxicogenic and anti-sporulation effect of selected essential oils in the control growth of *Aspergillus* spp. by contact vapour method in *in vitro* and *in situ* condition. In continue, the effect of the essential oils treatment on the sensory profile of the bread was evaluated. In this study, ten essential oils (EOs), namely: thyme, clove, lavender, cumin, oregano, cinnamon, basil, rosemary, sage and lemongrass were tested against four strains of *Aspergillus* [*Aspergillus flavus* (SLO-B-201), *Aspergillus parasiticus* (SLO-B-219), *Aspergillus ochraceus* (SLO-B-245) and *Aspergillus westerdijkiae* (SLO-B-249)] isolated from bread samples. The *Aspergillus* strains were tested for potential production of mycotoxins by thin layer chromatography (TLC). The chemical composition of all tested EOs was identified by GC-MS and by gas chromatography with flame ionization detector (GC-FID). The antifungal activity, the minimum inhibitory doses (MIDs), anti-toxicogenic and antsporulation effect of the selected EOs were investigated by gas diffusion method in both, *in vitro* and *in situ* analyses. The results indicated that the thyme, clove, oregano, cinnamon and lemongrass were highly effective against tested toxigenic *Aspergillus* species in vapour phase. A treated bread sample with EOs does not have negative effect on the sensory properties of the breads, with exception of oregano and lemongrass. In this context, application EOs in vapour phase seems to be an effective, sustainable and safe method and promising alternative to the use of chemical inhibitors for bread preservation.

1. Introduction

Bread is an essential and primary food resource in many cultures. It contains essential constituents such as proteins, fiber, lipids, vitamins, salts, that collectively make bread an important product in the traditional diet and resource of nutrients and energy (Herras-Mozos et al., 2019; Shewry, Halford, Belton, & Tatham, 2002). Because of its water activity and storage conditions bread is a highly perishable product (Legan, 1993) and is prone to mould spoilage (Magan, Arroyo, & Aldred, 2003). Spoilage caused by filamentous fungi is serious economic concern due to incurred losses (1–5%), but another concern is the possibility of mycotoxin production (Saranraj & Sivasakthivelan, 2016). Only a small number of mycotoxins are important for bread and bakery products, in terms of economic effect, toxicity and frequency of

occurrence. One of them are aflatoxins and ochratoxin A (de Koe & Juodeikiene, 2012). Aflatoxins (AFs) are highly toxic secondary metabolites produced by some species of *Aspergillus*, especially *A. flavus* and *A. parasiticus* (Khayoon et al., 2010). Moreover, *A. flavus* produces as well cyclopiazonic acid (Lalitha Rao & Husain, 1985; Sacchi et al., 2009) which occurs as a co-contaminant with aflatoxins (Pitt, Taniwaki, & Cole, 2013). Aflatoxin B₁ (AFB₁) is the most potent mammal hepatocarcinogen known and the International Agency of Research on Cancer (IARC, 1993) classifies it as a Group 1 carcinogen. The majority of OTA-producing species are included in the genus *Aspergillus* section *Circumdati*. Although, *A. ochraceus* used to be considered as the most important OTA producer, the new species are also able to produce OTA, in particular *A. steynii* and *A. westerdijkiae*. OTA has been considered as an important contaminant in different dietary

* Corresponding author.

E-mail address: miroslava.cisarova@ucm.sk (M. Císarová).

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodcont.2019.107007>

Received 27 August 2019; Received in revised form 13 November 2019; Accepted 13 November 2019

Available online 14 November 2019

0956-7135/ © 2019 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

products commonly consumed by humans (Frisvad, Frank, Houbraken, Kuijpers, & Samson, 2004; Varga, Baranyi, Chandrasekaran, & Vágvölgyi, 2015). The International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC, 1993) classified this toxin as a possible human carcinogen (group 2B). EU regulation (No. 1881/2006) defines maximum level for the mycotoxins, aflatoxin (2 µg/kg) and ochratoxin A (OTA) (3 µg/kg) in all the cereal products (European Commission, 2010). One of the traditional ways of managing the moulds spoilage of food is through the addition of synthetic preservatives. But their continuous application has led to the development of fungal resistance (Gemedá, Woldeamanuel, Asrat, & Debella, 2014) and some of these chemicals exhibit side effects on human health and environment (Damalas & Eleftherohorinos, 2011; Prakash, Kedia, Mishra, & Dubey, 2015). However, consumers do not like artificial preservatives in their food, especially not in their everyday bread (Krisch, Rentskenhand, Horváth, & Vágvölgyi, 2013). In this context, plant essential oils (EOs) which have been used in traditional medicine and pharmaceutical preparations are gaining interest by the food industries for the development of eco-friendly food preservatives with functional properties (Cherrat, Espina, Bakkali, Pagán, & Laglaoui, 2014; Corthouts & Michiels, 2016; Prakash et al., 2015). EOs are a good source of several bioactive compounds which possess antioxidative and antimicrobial properties. Several studies with EOs have reported their antifungal activity (Rajkovic, Pekmezovic, Barac, Nikodinovic-Runic, & ArsićArsenijević, 2015; Tyagi, Malik, Gottardi, & Guertzoni, 2012), inhibition of spore formation and germination in *Aspergillus* species (Gemedá et al., 2014; Paranagama, Abeysekera, Abeywickrama, & Nugaliyadde, 2003), or the effect of EOs on aflatoxins biosynthesis (Ferreira et al., 2013; Quiles, Manyes, Luciano, Mañes, & Meca, 2015). On the other hand, the unique odour associated with the volatiles may limit the use of EOs in some foods since it may alter the typical smell/flavour of foods (Tongnuanchan & Benjakul, 2014). Therefore, one advantage of EOs is their biological activity in the vapour phase (Bernardos et al., 2015; Tyagi et al., 2012) and in this case, they could be used at lower concentrations (Laird & Phillips, 2012).

Thus, the major objective of this study was to determine the efficacy of selected essential oils in the control growth of *Aspergillus* spp. by contact vapour method. Further objectives were to evaluate minimum inhibitory doses (MIDs) of selected essential oils, to investigate any potential influence on the sporulation and production of mycotoxins, as well as to evaluate the effect of essential oil treatments on the sensory acceptability of bread.

2. Material and methods

2.1. Essential oils samples

The original essential oils (EOs) of thyme (*Thymus vulgaris* L.), clove (*Syzygium aromaticum* [L.]), lavender (*Lavandula angustifolia* Mill.), cumin (*Carum carvi* L.), oregano (*Origanum vulgare* L), cinnamon (*Cinnamomum zeylanicum* Nees. [C. *verum* J.S.Presl.]), basil (*Ocimum basilicum* L.), rosemary (*Rosmarinus officinalis* L.), sage (*Salvia officinalis* L.) and lemongrass (*Cymbopogon citrati* [DC] Stapf.) were obtained from commercial supplier Calendula a.s. (Nová Lubovna, Slovakia). All samples were obtained by hydrodistillation and stored in hermetically sealed flasks at 4 °C in the dark until *in vitro* and *in situ* analysis. The chemical composition of all tested EOs was identified by GC-MS and relative proportions of EOs constituents were assessed by gas chromatography with flame ionization detector (GC-FID) as described by Božik et al. (2017). The relative proportion of the EOs constituents were confirmed by comparison their spectra with the authentic standards (Sigma-Aldrich, CZ) (Table 1).

2.2. Fungal strains

Four strains of *Aspergillus*, namely *Aspergillus flavus* (SLO-B-201), *Aspergillus parasiticus* (SLO-B-219), *Aspergillus ochraceus* (SLO-B-245)

and *Aspergillus westerdijkiae* (SLO-B-249) were used. All tested strains were previously isolated from bread samples collected from different commercial markets in Slovakia. The fungal isolates were identified by ITS rDNA sequencing (Čisarová et al., 2016). Fungal strains were cultivated on Sabouraud dextrose agar (Oxoid, Czech rep.) at 25 °C for four days before the *in vitro* and *in situ* analysis. Sequences of used isolates were deposited in genbank database under following accession numbers: *A. flavus* isolate (SLO-B-201), ITS: MH517574. *A. parasiticus* isolate (SLO-B-219), ITS: MH517575. *A. ochraceus* isolate (SLO-B-245), ITS: MH517572. *A. westerdijkiae* isolate (SLO-B-249), ITS: MH517573.

2.3. In vitro antifungal analysis

The antifungal activity of selected EOs was investigated by gas diffusion method following the method of Guynot et al. (Guynot et al., 2003) with some modifications. Czapek yeast extract agar (CYA, Sigma-Aldrich, Germany) was used for fungal strains cultivation, in this study. In the first step, all EOs were tested at the highest concentration (500 µL/L of air). Ethyl acetate was used for dilution of EOs to give the final volume of 100 µL. This solution was evenly distributed on a sterile filter paper. Then the paper was left to dry for 1 min to evaporate ethyl acetate by previous study Klouček et al., (2012) and Božik et al. (2017). Blank filter papers with ethyl acetate served as positive control. Diameters of the growth colonies were measured on the 3rd, 7th, 11th and 14th day of incubation in two perpendicular directions. The percentage of mycelial growth inhibition was calculated according to the following formula:

$$\text{Mycelial growth inhibition (MGI \%)} = [(d_c - d_t)/d_c] \times 100$$

Where d_c = Average (mm) increases in mycelial growth in control, d_t = Average (mm) increases in mycelial growth in treatment (Marandi et al., 2011).

After incubation, the minimum inhibitory doses (MIDs) of EOs with the most significant activity were recorded, using the method by Klouček et al. (Klouček et al., 2012). EOs were tested at concentration range between 15.625 and 250 µL/L⁻¹ of air. The MID was defined as the lowest concentration of the oil that cause any visible growth after all days of cultivation (14) in comparison with control.

2.4. In situ antifungal analysis on bread

2.4.1. Breads inoculation and treatment with essential oils

The bread samples (obtained from different markets in Slovakia) without damage on the surface were cut into slices (height of the bread slices was 150 mm). The bread slices were placed into 0.5 L sterile glass jars (Bromioli Rocco, Italy). Fungal spore suspension of each strain (final concentration of spores 1×10^6 spores/mL) was prepared (Božik et al., 2017). This suspensions were diluted in 20 mL sterile phosphate-buffered saline with 0.5% Tween 80 by adjusting the density to 1–1.2 McFarland, depending on the strain (Espinell-Ingroff & Kerkerling, 1991; Petrikou et al., 2001). Then, 5 µL of inoculum was added on top of the bread at four different places.

Thyme, clove, oregano, lavender, cumin, lemongrass and cinnamon at concentration of 125, 250 and 500 µL/L of air were used for the treatment. EOs were selected according to their best activity in evaluation of MIDs. Next, 100 µL of solution (EOs + ethyl acetate) was evenly distributed on a sterile paper-filter disc (6 cm). The paper-filter disc with EOs was inserted into the cover of the jar. The control group did not receive any EOs treatment. Jars were hermetically closed and kept at room temperature (22 °C ± 1 °C) for 14 days in the dark. After 14 days of storage, the colonies with visible mycelial growth and visible sporulation were counted.

2.4.2. Production of mycotoxins and anti-toxicogenic effect of essential oils

Aspergillus strains were tested for potential production of

Table 1
Essential oils composition determined using by GC–MS and quantified by GC–FID techniques.

RI ^b	Component	Thyme ^c	Clove	Lavender	Cumin	Oregano	Cinnamon	Basil	Rosemary	Sage	Lemongrass
938	^a α-Pinene	1.31	0.12	1.13	0.10	0.27	1.17	0.26	10.57	5.52	0.37
953	^a Camphene	1.52		0.69	0.10	0.29	0.41	0.11	5.01	6.09	2.13
964	^a Benzaldehyde						0.18	0.05			
980	^a β-Pinene	0.12		0.83			0.31	0.30	7.39	2.27	
982	1-Octen-3-ol	0.73		0.19							1.86
993	β-Myrcene	1.36		0.89	0.20	0.47		0.17	0.91	0.52	0.11
997	3-Octanol					0.21					
1006	^a α-Phellandrene	0.14					0.36		0.16		
1019	^a α-Terpinene	1.12		0.15		0.91					
1029	^a p-Cymene	17.88		0.58		7.43	1.79	0.80	2.57	2.59	
1031	^a D-Limonene	0.36		1.34	41.15		0.77	0.25	2.13	1.98	0.42
1032	β-Phellandrene							0.15			
1034	^a Eucalyptol	1.47	0.26	12.01		1.19	0.17	3.78	43.11	10.87	
1062	^a γ-Terpinen	5.27		0.14		3.49		0.77		0.48	
1074	Linalool oxide			0.51							1.23
1090	^a Terpinolene	0.13				0.12			0.18	0.30	
1091	Nonanone										0.11
1101	Linalool	4.81		40.59	0.86	3.19	2.48	1.53	0.60	0.39	1.50
1108	α-Thujone									21.19	
1119	β-Thujone									6.46	
1147	^a Camphor	1.98		4.62		0.89		0.33	12.89	19.18	
1158	^a (+/-)-citronellal										0.39
1160	Isoborneol										0.24
1168	^a Borneol	1.85		7.43		0.87		3.89	4.05	0.81	
1171	Lavandulol			3.36							
1179	^a 4-Terpineol	1.93		6.93		0.77	0.11	0.46	0.48	0.45	
1192	α-Terpineol	0.18		0.73	0.18	0.41	0.28	2.27		0.78	
1198	γ-Terpineol				0.78					0.27	
1202	Methyl chavicol							86.58	0.33	0.21	
1222	(+)-cis-Carveol				0.52						
1234	b-citronellol									0.19	
1238	Thymol methyl ether	0.70									
1244	^a Neral										31.65
1247	^a (-)-carvone	1.01			54.93	0.10					
1259	^a Geraniol										4.76
1260	Linalyl anthranilate			10.15							
1272	^a Cinnamaldehyde						1.12				
1273	^a Geranial										40.06
1287	Bornyl acetate			0.12				0.16	1.28	2.37	0.17
1289	Safrole						1.40				
1296	^a Thymol	44.34				4.06					
1297	Menth-1-en-9-ol	2.88									0.12
1302	Cinnamyl alcohol						0.16				
1306	^a Carvacrol					69.78					
1360	^a Eugenol	0.22	82.3			0.15	72.53				0.14
1370	m-Eugenol										0.21
1373	Benzenepropyl acetate						0.22				0.15
1376	Copaene	0.16				0.14	0.81	0.16			0.14
1386	^a Geranyl acetate			0.26							4.08
1399	Vanillin						0.18				
1412	Isocaryophyllene		0.18								
1420	^a Caryophyllene	6.94	7.40	3.79		1.84	2.69	0.14	3.76	5.38	1.99
1435	α-Bergamotene							2.28			
1445	Cinnamyl acetate						2.01				
1448	Citronellyl propionate										0.37
1452	^a α-Caryophyllene		2.18	0.12		0.45	0.52		0.33	6.35	0.24
1478	Germacrene D							0.73			
1481	α-Curcumene							0.14			
1491	Varidiflorene										0.11
1493	α-Zingiberene										
1505	α-Bisabolene					0.11					
1510	γ-Cadinene			0.12				0.45			1.95
1521	β-Sesquiphellandrene							0.94			
1524	δ-Cadinene	0.32	0.46			0.44	0.19				0.46
1525	Aceteugenol						2.67				0.16
1531	Eugenol acetate		6.10								
1570	Caryophyllenyl alcohol										
1574	^a Caryophyllene oxide	0.19	0.94	0.26		0.44	1.35		0.25	0.92	0.52
1627	tau.-cadinol							0.58			
1725	Benzyl Benzoate						4.13				
	total	98.92	99.94	96.90	98.81	98.02	98.01	99.71	99.01	97.39	98.35

^a Identification confirmed by co-injection of authentic standard.

^b RI: identification based on Kovat's retention indices (HP-5MS capillary column) and mass spectra.

^c Relative proportions were calculated in % by dividing individual peak area by total area of all peaks.

mycotoxins by thin layer chromatography (TLC) (Labuda & Tancinová, 2006). The method is described by Císarová et al. (Císarová, Tančinová, & Brodová, 2015). *A. flavus* (SLO-B-201) was tested for production of aflatoxin B₁ and cyclopiazonic acid, *A. parasiticus* (SLO-B-219) was tested for production of AFB₁ and AFG₁, *A. ochraceus* (SLO-B-245) and *A. westerdijkiae* (SLO-B-249) were tested for production of ochratoxin A (OA). After developing the plates, aflatoxins spots AFB₁ (R_f = 0.65), AFG₁ (R_f = 0.39) and OA (R_f = 0.45) were observed directly under UV light (366 nm) as blue (AFB₁), blue-green (AFG₁) and bluish-green (OA) spots respectively. CPA (R_f = 0.65) was observed by spraying Ehrlich reagent (Sigma-Aldrich, Germany), which revealed as a violet tailing-spot visible at daylight. The mycotoxins were determined by visual comparison with prepared standards (Sigma-Aldrich, Germany). The same method was used to detect production of mycotoxins after treatments with EOs in both, *in vitro* (after treatment of fungal strain with the concentration of 500 µL/L of air) and *in situ* (after treatment of fungal strain on bread samples with the concentration range from 500 to 125 µL/L of air) analysis. The inoculated growing colonies on the surface of the bread samples were used for *in situ* analysis of anti-toxicogenic effect of EOs by tested fungi after 14 days. The inhibition of mycotoxin production was expressed in percentage (%) over control. Anti-toxicogenic effect was determined only with essential oils treatments, which did not inhibit the growth of tested strains completely in *in vitro* and *in situ* assays.

2.5. Sensory evaluation of treated bread

Non-inoculated bread slices treated as described in section 2.4.1 with three concentrations (125, 250 and 500 µL/L of air) of the most effective EOs were used for sensory evaluation. Triangle tests (two-tail) were used to evaluate any differences between sensory characteristic of treated samples and their respective control samples. The tests were performed according to ISO Standards 4120 (2004) with a sensory panel consisting of 15 untrained assessors. Each panelist received three coded samples each time, two from the same treatment and one without treatment. The subjects were asked to select samples that differ from the other two to assess the acceptability of the odour and taste of the samples. Water was provided to assessor as neutralizer of the taste and coffee beans as neutralizer of the odour between the samples. Sensory analysis was accomplished on the 3rd, 7th, 11th and 14th day of storage at 22 ± 1 °C in the dark.

2.6. Statistical evaluation

All experiments were carried out in triplicate in this study, independently. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Tukey HSD 95% multiple range test were performed at a significance level of $p < 0.05$ using SAS (one-factorial variance analysis and multifactorial variance analysis ANOVA 16.1 statistical program). The results shown in Table 4 of the MFC₅₀ and MFC₉₀ value (concentration causing 50% and 90% reduction of mycelial growth) were estimated by probity analysis. Suitable regression model was selected by Statgraphic Centurion XV software and calculated by log-log linear regression with following equation Radial growth = 10^{(slope*log(Days of cultivation) + Yintercept)}. Regression curves and values were obtained where using GraphPad Prism 6 software. The results shown in Table 5 were expressed by percent of spore germination inhibition in comparison with the control assay.

Triangle tests, concretely two-tail test were analysed by consulting tables from ISO Standards 4120:2004. When the number of correct replies was greater than or equal to the value in the table, it can be stated that there is a difference between samples. The significant differences between treated and control samples were evaluated by the chi-square binomial distribution with value of α -risk = 0.05 by program R Core Team 2016.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Essential oils analyses

Qualitative and quantitative analysis of the essential oils are listed in Table 1. The main essential oils (EO) and their components which inhibited growth of *Aspergillus* strains completely were followed. Clove (*Syzygium aromaticum* L.) with content of eugenol (82.3%) and cinnamom (*Cinnamomum zeylanicum* Nees. [C. *verum* J.S.Presl.]) (72.53%). Authors (Pinto, Vale-Silva, Cavaleiro, & Salgueiro, 2009) studied antimicrobial effect of eugenol as main compounds of clove essential oils against fungi (*Aspergillus* and *Candida*) and they confirmed mechanism of action as lesion on cytoplasmic membrane which leads to inherent loss of cell viability. Further, authors determined changes in metabolic activity by FUN 1 membrane-permeant fluorescent probe, where detected that increasing of eugenol proportion in essential oils is directly dose-dependent. Also these authors (Pinto et al., 2006) confirmed that thyme (*Thymus vulgaris* L.) essential oil inhibit cell wall growth by disruption of normal sterol biosynthetic pathway which leads to reduction in ergosterol biosynthesis. The main compounds in thyme essential oils were thymol (44.34%) and p-Cymene (17.88%). Cumin (*Carum carvi* L.) as the only one contained carvone (54.93%) whose mechanisms of action is not clear and completely understood, but authors Oosterhaven et al., 1995 demonstrated that it acts by disrupting the metabolic energy status of the cell, whereas Helander et al. (1998) found that it did not affect the membrane system or the adenosine triphosphate pool. Carvacrol as main compounds in oregano (*Origanum vulgare* L.) and it's using as antimicrobial agent may be leads to inactivation of essential enzymes, react with cell membrane or disrupt genetic material functionality (Davidson, 2001). Neral and geranial as two isomeric acyclic monoterpene aldehydes are a natural mixture of compounds known as citral founded in lemongrass (*Cymbopogon citrati* [DC] Stapf.) (Silva, Guterres, Weisheimer, & Schapoval, 2008). Neral as cis-citral (citral B) (31.65%) and geranial as trans-citral (citral A) (40.06%). Both these compounds neral and geranial can inhibit spore germination in *Aspergillus* species. It was found that citral injected the wall and the membrane of *A. flavus* spore, resulting in a decrease in it's elasticity. After entering the cell, citral not only affected by the genetic expression of mitochondrion reduplication and it's morphology, but also changed the aggregation of protein-like macromolecules. As results, cell, organelles and macromolecules lost normal structures and functions, eventually leading to the loss of germination ability of *Aspergillus flavus* spores (Luo et al., 2004; Xie, Fang, & Xu, 2004; Zhang, Wei, Shen, & Jiang, 2011). In the context of lavender (*Lavandula angustifolia* Mill.) essential oil was found to be more effective in the inhibition of germ tube than of hyphal growth. It was confirmed that gaseous contact suppressed growth of filamentous fungi but not solution contact (Inouye et al., 1998). This was reported to be caused by the direct binding of gaseous oil on the arial mycelia that formed the spore-forming organ. When the activity of two major constituents was examined, linalyl acetate was found to be capable of suppressing spore formation while linalool was not inhibitory for sporulation but was effective for the inhibition of germination and fungal growth. The inhibition of sporulation appeared to arise from respiratory suppression of arial mycelia (Cavanagh & Wilkinson, 2002). Mechanisms of action of essential oils are different and it is depended on contained compounds in specific essential oils as describe collective of authors (Tian et al., 2012) in their study where they tested dill (*Anethum graveolens* L.) essential oils against *Aspergillus flavus*. Dill essential oils contain mainly compounds as D-limonene, carvone and dihydrocarbone (Delaquis, Stanich, Girard, & Mazza, 2002). Authors Tian et al., 2012 detected more mechanisms of action in antimicrobial activity of mentioned dill essential oil. They detected the following mechanisms of action: lesion of cytoplasmic membrane which can leads to loss cell viability, decreasing of ergosterole in plasmic membrane, reduction of mitochondrial membrane potential (MMP) in mitochondria, acidification of

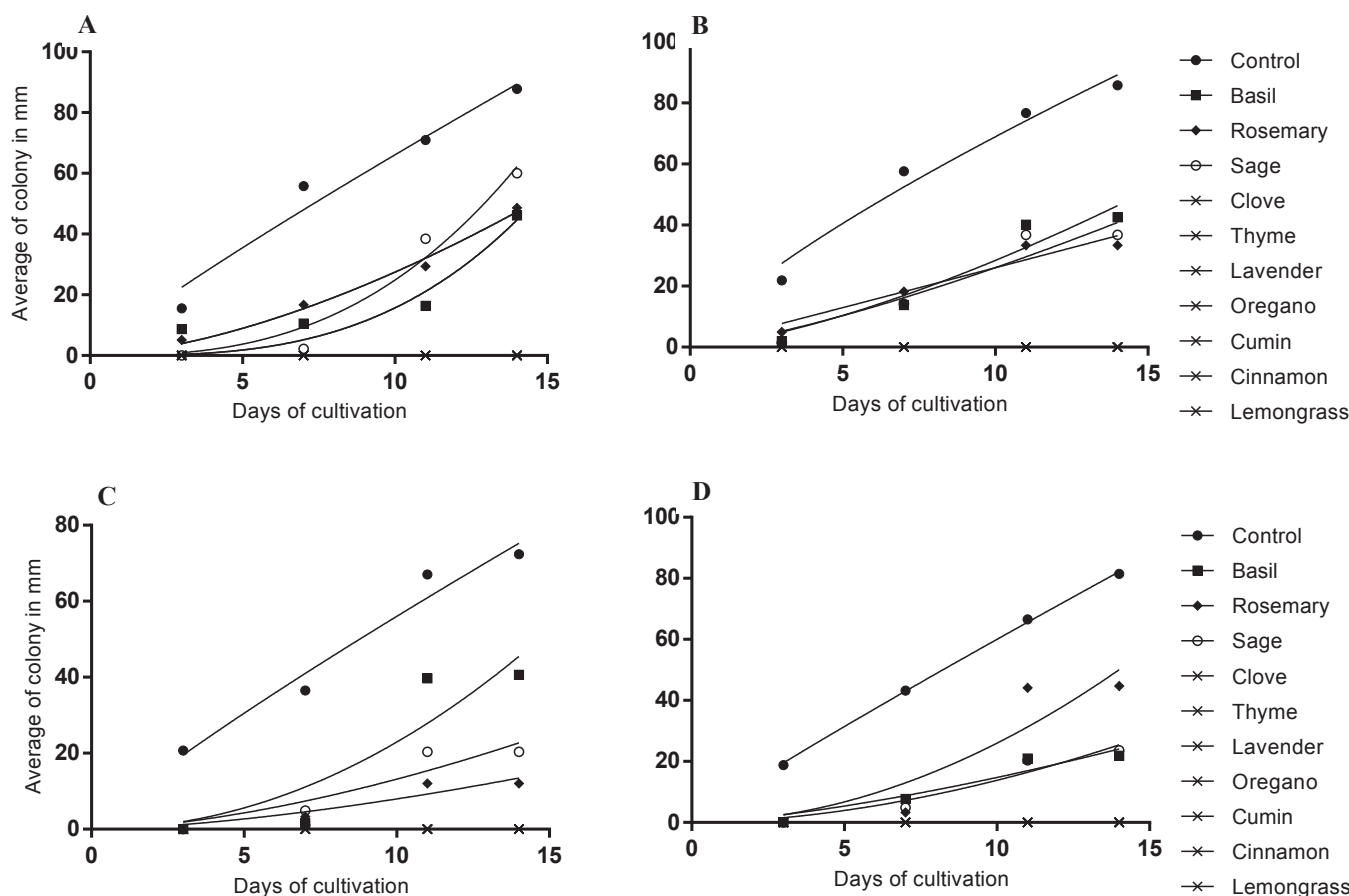


Fig. 1. Regression growth lines (mm/d) of fungi on CYA in treatment with essential oils (500 µL/L of air). (A) *A. flavus* (SLO-B-201), (B) *A. parasiticus* (SLO-B-219), (C) *A. ochraceus* (SLO-B-243), (D) *A. westerdijkiae* (SLO-B-249).

external medium, decreasing of ATPase and dehydrogenase activities in *A. flavus* were also observed in a dose-dependent manner.

3.2. In vitro fungicidal effect of essential oils

Foods preserved with natural additives have become popular due to greater consumer awareness and concern regarding to synthetic chemical additives. This has led researchers and food processors to look for a natural food additives with a broad spectrum of antimicrobial activity (Marino, Bersani, & Comi, 2001). Among promising alternative methods to control food spoilage belong use of essential oils (EOs) and their activity in vapour phase (Kloucek et al., 2012). The fungicidal effect of the 10 essential oils was evaluated by using the gas diffusion method in this study. At first, the concentration of EOs (500 µL/L of air) was used for all tested strains: *Aspergillus flavus* (SLO-B-201), *Aspergillus parasiticus* (SLO-B-219), *Aspergillus ochraceus* (SLO-B-243) and *Aspergillus westerdijkiae* (SLO-B-249). The results showed a different activity against all tested strains of *Aspergillus*. The EOs caused significant differences ($P < 0.05$) in the mycelial growth of all tested strains during the 14 days of cultivation presented in Fig. 1 as timeline regression curves with log-log linear regression values showed in Table 2.

Seven essential oils, namely thyme, clove, cinnamon, lemongrass, cumin, oregano and lavender totally inhibited the growth of all tested fungi (100%) during the all days (14 days) of cultivation. Similar results for these EOs (thyme, clove, cinnamon, lemongrass, cumin, oregano and lavender) have been reported by numerous studies (Bluma & Etcheverry, 2008; Carmo, Lima, De Souza, & De Sousa, 2008; Santamarina, Roselló, Giménez, & Amparo Blázquez, 2016; Tarazona et al., 2018; Tian et al., 2012).

Only three essential oils, namely basil, rosemary and sage, partially

Table 2

Regression values in mycelial growth of *Aspergillus* strains after essential oils treatment.

Species	Reg. value	Essential oils				
		T/CL/LA/CU/O/CI/LE	B	R	S	Control
AF-SLO-B-201 ^a	YIntercept	ND	-1.909	-0.1769	-1.330	0.9234
	Slope		3.105	1.616	2.726	0.8966
	R ²		0.8340	0.9451	0.9261	0.9568
AP-SLO-B-219 ^a	YIntercept	ND	0.0001762	0.4083	0.2638	1.072
	Slope		1.453	1.007	0.2431	0.7662
	R ²		0.9214	0.9154	0.8898	0.9313
AO-SLO-B-243 ^a	YIntercept	ND	-0.6735	-0.6588	-0.4989	0.8719
	Slope		2.034	1.560	1.619	0.8764
	R ²		0.8323	0.8684	0.8529	0.9353
AW-SLO-B-249 ^a	YIntercept	ND	-0.2869	-0.5321	-0.6721	0.8447
	Slope		1.456	1.947	1.813	0.9335
	R ²		0.9069	0.8280	0.9206	0.9948

Regression model was calculated by log-log linear regression. Regression equation is following Radial growth = 10^{(slope^alog (Days of cultivation) + Yintercept).}

T-Thyme, CL-Clove, LA-Lavender, CU-Cumin, O-Oregano, Ci-Cinnamon, LE-Lemongrass, B-Basil, R-Rosemary, S-Sage.

^a -strain ID, AF- *A. flavus*, AP- *A. parasiticus*, AO- *A. ochraceus*, AW- *A. westerdijkiae*.

inhibited the growth of all *Aspergillus* strains tested. In model conditions, at the higher doses assayed, the most resistant fungi against the sage essential oil were *A. flavus* (SLO-B-201) and *A. parasiticus* (SLO-B-219), with a lowest differences in mycelial growth inhibition compared

to the control, where sage essential oil inhibited growth of *A. flavus* about 31.56% and *A. parasiticus* about 57.05%, respectively. Despite the fact that *A. parasiticus* (SLO-B-219) is phenotypically similar to *A. flavus*, the most resistant were found against basil (specifically 50.45%), further to sage (57.05%) and the greater inhibitory effect on this species showed rosemary essential (61.09%) oil after 14 days of cultivation (Fig. 1B). Also Atanda et al. (Atanda, Akpan, & Oluwafemi, 2007) recorded that sweet basil oil at optimal protective dosage of 5% (v/v) was fungistatic on *A. parasiticus* CFR 223. The sage and basil essential oils also inhibited the growth of *A. flavus* (SLO-B-201) until the 3rd day of cultivation only. On the other hand, basil essential oil in comparison to the control and *A. parasiticus* (SLO-B-219) species had better inhibitory effect on the growth of *A. flavus* (SLO-B-201) until the 11th day of cultivation (Fig. 1A). The most effective antifungal activity against *A. ochraceus* (SLO-B-243) was shown after 14 days of cultivation by rosemary oil, where 83.34% inhibition compared to control were found. Further, continued inhibitions by sage oil (71.91%) and basil oil (43.86%) with significant differences ($P < 0.05$) between each other. Basil essential oil was the least effective during the whole cultivation period. Similar results were observed against *A. westerdijkiae* (SLO-B-249), however this strain was more inhibited by sage (75.65%), followed by basil (73.12%) and the least by rosemary essential oil (45.13%) after 14 days of cultivation and during the whole cultivation period. Sage essential oil inhibited the growth of *A. ochraceus* and *A. westerdijkiae* until the 7th day as well as rosemary essential oil (Fig. 1C and D). Stupar et al. (Stupar et al., 2014) tested oregano, rosemary and lavender essential oils against some fungi species, included *A. ochraceus*. Their results showed that rosemary oil had a strong inhibition effect on this species but with lower inhibition potential.

Therefore, the lower concentrations (15.625–250 µL/L of air) of these EOs were used to determine the minimum inhibitory doses (MIDs) on tested fungi. The obtained results of MIDs determination are summarized in Table 3.

The highest MIDs value against the tested aspergilli was found in lavender (MIDs 250 µL/L of air) for *A. westerdijkiae* (SLO-B-249) strain and this essential oil had no inhibition effect at lower concentration on all other tested strains. Stupar et al. (Stupar et al., 2014) also m obtained highly values of MIC and MFC for *L. angustifolia* (from 10.0 to 100.0 µL/L) oil tested by gas diffusion method. Therefore, due to the low ability to inhibit strains in evaluating of MIDs, lavender oil was not included in *in situ* experiments. The best MIDs values obtained against the tested fungal strains were lemongrass (15.625 µL/L of air), followed by clove oil (31.25 µL/L of air), both for all tested strains. The most sensitive strain was *A. flavus* (AF-SLO-B-201) with the best values of MIDs after 14 days of cultivation for lemongrass + cinnamon (15.625 µL/L of air) > thyme + oregano + clove (31.25 µL/L of air) EOs. Cinnamon and lemongrass EOs has been used in study of Mahilraján et al. (Mahilraján, Nandakumar, Kailayalingam, & Manoharan, 2014) against *A. niger*, *A. flavus* and *Penicillium* spp. They recorded a strong inhibition activity for cinnamon oil with MIC value of 10, 15 and

Table 3

Minimum inhibitory doses (µL/L of air) of essential oils in vapour phase effective against the tested aspergilli strains on CYA at 25 ± 1 °C after 14 days.

Essential oils	MIDs (µL/L of air) of essential oils			
	AF-SLO-B-201	AP-SLO-B-219	AO-SLO-B-243	AW-SLO-B-249
Thyme	31.25	31.25	15.625	15.625
Clove	31.25	31.25	31.25	31.25
Cumin	125	62.5	62.5	62.5
Lavender	NA	NA	NA	NA
Cinnamon	15.625	31.25	31.25	31.25
Oregano	31.25	62.5	62.5	62.5
Lemongrass	15.625	15.625	15.625	15.625

NA-non-active, CYA-Czapek yeast extract agar.

Table 4

Minimum inhibitory doses (MID₅₀ and MID₉₀) for used essential oils able to inhibit growth of *Aspergillus* species on bread samples at 25 ± 1 °C after 14 days.

Species		Essential oils					
		CI	CL	T	LE	O	CU
AF-SLO-B-201 ^a	MID ₅₀	131.62	445.90	296.01	96.91	156.22	367.17
	MID ₉₀	558.44	679.49	474.20	134.12	319.85	636.47
AP-SLO-B-219	MID ₅₀	357.44	488.90	267.55	70.26	< 125	453.58
	MID ₉₀	575.41	866.27	564.41	235.06	711.00	802.28
AO-SLO-B-243	MID ₅₀	226.74	343.40	70.81	106.65	167.91	364.06
	MID ₉₀	445.90	788.08	587.27	141.52	351.77	643.65
AW-SLO-B-249	MID ₅₀	227.83	205.02	< 125	96.91	126.65	304.58
	MID ₉₀	417.64	505.69	430.52	134.12	285.37	586.97

MID₅₀-concentration causing 50% reduction in mycelial growth, MID₉₀-concentration causing 90% reduction in mycelial growth.

^a -strain ID, T-Thyme, CL-Clove, CU-Cumin, O-Oregano, CI-Cinnamon, LE-Lemongrass, AF- *A. flavus*, AP- *A. parasiticus*, AO- *A. ochraceus*, AW- *A. westerdijkiae*.

Table 5

The effect of essential oils on spore germination of *Aspergillus* species at 22 ± 1 °C after 14 days of cultivation in *in situ* condition (results expressed in percent of spore germination inhibition in comparison with the control assay).

Essential oils	conc. (µL/L of air)	Species			
		AF-SLO-B-201 ^a	AP-SLO-B-219	AO-SLO-B-243	AW-SLO-B-249
Cinnamon	125	41.67%	58.33%	66.67%	75%
	250	83.33%	66.67%	75%	83.33%
	500	91.67%	91.67%	100%	100%
Clove	125	66.67%	75%	58.33%	50%
	250	83.33%	83.33%	83.33%	66.67%
	500	91.67%	91.67%	91.67%	91.67%
Thyme	125	75%	66.67%	50%	83.33%
	250	91.67%	91.67%	75%	91.67%
	500	100%	100%	100%	100%
Lemongrass	125	100%	100%	100%	100%
	250	100%	100%	100%	100%
	500	100%	100%	100%	100%
Oregano	125	83.33%	83.33%	75%	58.33%
	250	91.67%	91.67%	91.67%	83.33%
	500	100%	100%	100%	100%
Cumin	125	25%	33.33%	0%	25%
	250	50%	50%	33.33%	50%
	500	66.67%	66.67%	50%	75%
Control		0% ^{NT}	0% ^{NT}	0% ^{NT}	0% ^{NT}

^a -strain ID, conc.-concentration, ^{NT} – Not treated with essential oils, AF-*A. flavus*, AP-*A. parasiticus*, AO-*A. ochraceus*, AW-*A. westerdijkiae*.

25 mL/dL and for lemongrass oil were obtained MIC value of 25 mL/dL. The strong inhibitory activity of lemongrass oil was also confirmed by Tyagi and Malik (Tyagi & Malik, 2010). They found that the vapour phase of essential oils is more effective (MID 32.7 mg/L) than adding the oil to cultivated medium (288 mg/L). In our study, cumin essential oil were effective against all tested strains at lower concentration of 62.5 (µL/L of air), except AF-SLO-B-201 strain. Here was obtained the MID value of 125 (µL/L of air).

The better results for cumin essential oil was obtained by Zhavéh et al. (Zhavéh et al., 2015). They found the minimum inhibitory concentration of free and encapsulated *C. cyminum* EOs against *A. flavus* under sealed condition at 650 and 350 ppm, respectively. Different results obtained could be explained due to various method used for evaluating of the antifungal activity.

3.3. *In situ* antifungal assays on the bread samples

The determination of MID₅₀ and MID₉₀ values of tested essential

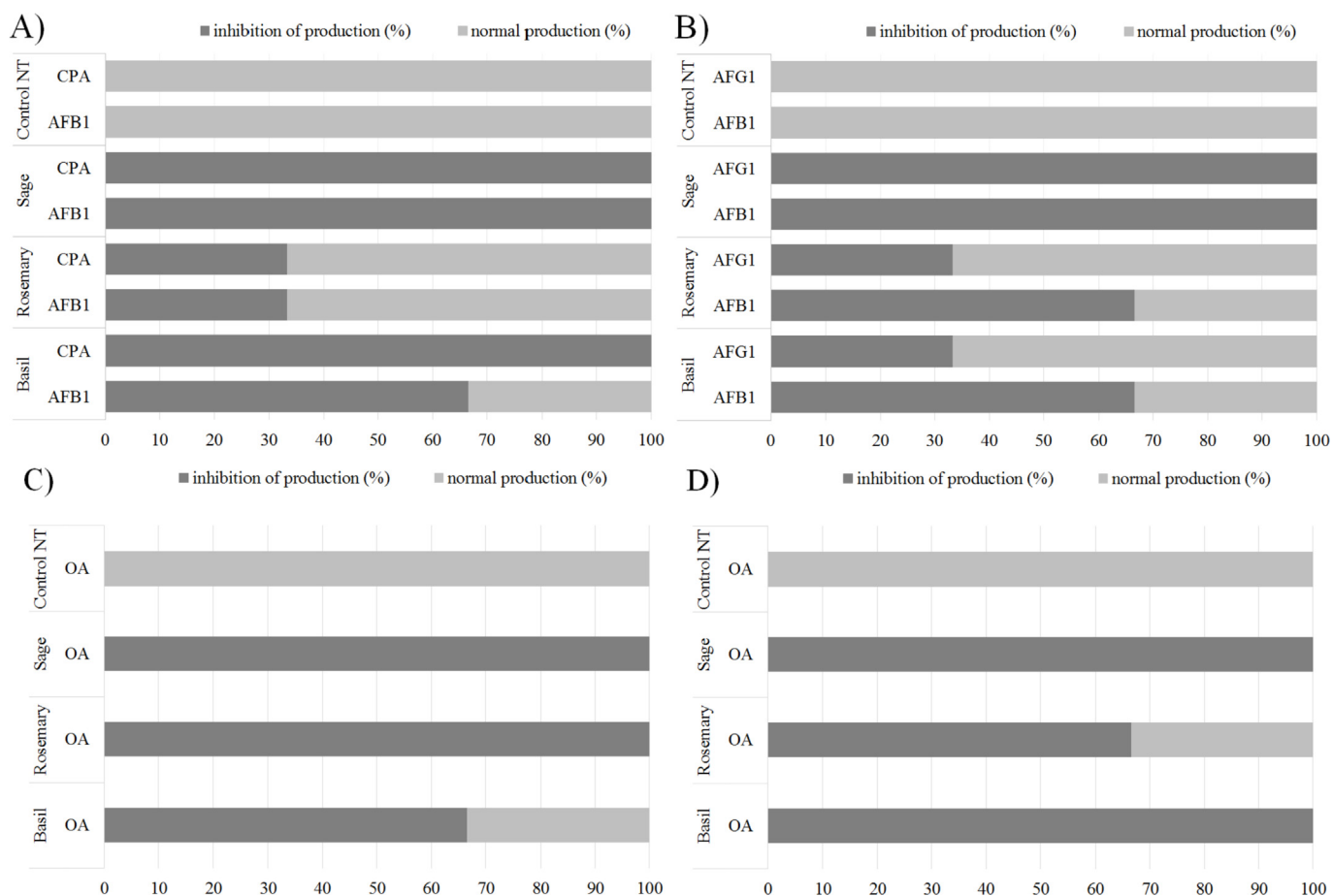


Fig. 2. Inhibitory effect of essential oils (500 µL/L of air) on production mycotoxins by *Aspergillus* species after 14 days of cultivation. (A) *A. flavus* (SLO-B-201), (B) *A. parasiticus* (SLO-B-219), (C) *A. ochraceus* (SLO-B-243), (D) *A. westerdijkiae* (SLO-B-249), AFG1-aflatoxin G₁, AFB1-aflatoxin B₁, CPA-cyclopiiazonic acid, OA-ochratoxin A, Control NT-control non treated.

oils, namely thyme, clove, cumin, oregano, cinnamon and lemongrass, was evaluated in hermetically closed sterile glass jars for 14 days at 25 ± 1 °C in the dark after treatment using concentration of 125, 250 and 500 µL/L of jars volume. The results were estimated by probity analysis and are summarized in Table 4.

The lowest value of MID₅₀ was determined for lemongrass (70.26 µL/L of air), followed by thyme (70.81 µL/L of air) > oregano (< 125 µL/L of air) > cinnamon (131.62 µL/L of air) > clove (205.02 µL/L of air) and finally for cumin essential oil (304.58 µL/L of air). Our results showed that lemongrass essential oil strongly inhibited the growth of three tested strains at relatively low concentrations: *A. parasiticus* (AP-SLO-B-219) with MID₅₀ 70.26 (µL/L of air), *A. flavus* (AF-SLO-B-201) and *A. westerdijkiae* (AW-SLO-B-249) with MID₅₀ of 96.91 (µL/L of air), respectively. According to the probity analysis, the best MID₉₀ values were found at concentration 134.12 (µL/L of air), which inhibited the radial mycelial growth of *A. flavus* and *A. westerdijkiae* during 14 days. Krisch et al. (Krisch et al., 2013) tested the antifungal activity of marjoram and clary sage essential oils against bread spoilage moulds *A. niger*, *Penicillium chrysogenum* and *Rhizopus* spp. by the reversed Petri dish method on wheat, wheat-rye mixed, and rye bread slices by modelling an active packaging. Their results showed that the essential oils are able to inhibit and significantly reduce the growth of all investigated moulds by vapour treated bread slices. However, they found that *A. niger* was the most resistant fungi.

Our results showed that essential oils were effective but at higher concentration in comparison with the *in vitro* evaluation. For example, thyme essential oil vapour completely eliminated *Alternaria alternata* growth in *in vitro* but only reduced growth on cherry tomatoes (Feng,

Chen, Zheng, & Liu, 2011). The reason of different antifungal activity is the food products, due to high concentrations needed to achieve sufficient antimicrobial activity. In many food products, the hydrophobic essential oil constituents are impaired by interactions with food matrix components, such as starch, fat and proteins (Rattanachaikunsopon & Phumkhachorn, 2010; Kyung, 2012). The antimicrobial effect of EOs and their constituents also depends on used extraction methods of EOs, temperature and pH (Rattanachaikunsopon & Phumkhachorn, 2010), and the contamination level of food products (Hyldgaard, Mygind, & Meyer, 2012).

The effect of EOs on the sporulation of tested strains is shown in Table 5. The essential oils of lemongrass (all tested concentration), oregano and thyme (concentration of 500 µL/L of air) showed strongest inhibitory effect (100%) on the sporulation of all tested *Aspergillus* species.

Table 5: The effect of essential oils on spore germination of *Aspergillus* species at 22 ± 1 °C after 14 days of cultivation in in situ condition (results expressed in percent of spore germination inhibition in comparison with the control assay)

At the same concentration, clove and cinnamon oil inhibited more than 90% of sporulation. Moderate inhibitory effect was observed for all essential oils at concentration 250 (µL/L of air), except cumin essential oil which showed the very poor inhibitory effect on sporulation at the highest concentration (less than 80%). Our results agree with authors Paranagama et al. (Paranagama et al., 2003), Tzortzakis and Economakis (Tzortzakis & Economakis, 2007) or Aguiar et al. (Aguiar et al., 2014), who clearly demonstrated that lemongrass oil at different concentrations completely retarded and inhibited fungal sporulation.

A. ochraceus was the most resistant species from all tested strains in our study. Thyme oil was able to inhibit sporulation of this strain only at concentration of 500 µL/L of air completely. The lower concentration (125 µL/L of air) inhibited only 50% of sporulation. Cumin essential oil at the same concentration had no or stimulating effect on sporulation of *A. ochraceus*. Numerous studies (Kadoglidou et al., 2011; Kuate et al., 2006) demonstrated that essential oils could have the stimulating effect on sporulation of fungi. The same authors suppose that sporulation *per se* is part of a defence mechanism enabling fungi to overcome the chemical stress caused by the monoterpenoids in their growth medium. Moreover, the differentiating part of the aerial hyphae seems to be more sensitive to the respiratory inhibition than other aerial and vegetative hyphae. Interestingly enough, the anti-sporulating effect was observed only by gaseous contact, but not by solution contact. Gaseous oils can directly bind to reproductive hyphae, but the oils in the medium cannot bind to hyphae standing in air (Inouye, 2003).

Anti-toxicogenic effect of essential oils in *in vitro* and *in situ* condition.

The production of mycotoxins was confirmed by TLC method for all tested strains. The presence of aflatoxin B₁ and aflatoxin G₁ was confirmed in *Aspergillus parasiticus* (SLO-B-219). *Aspergillus ochraceus* (SLO-B-245) and *A. westerdijkiae* (SLO-B-249) produced ochratoxin A. Cyclopiazonic acid and aflatoxin B₁ were confirmed for *Aspergillus flavus* (SLO-B-201). The potential inhibitory effect on mycotoxins production by *Aspergillus* species was tested after treatment with essential oils (500 µL/L of air, 14 days of cultivation). For each assay was selected only essential oils which did not inhibit the growth of the tested strains completely in both, *in vitro* and *in situ* assay. Fig. 2 show *in vitro* anti-toxicogenic activity of basil, rosemary and sage essential oils.

Results showed a various spectrum of fungal toxicity inhibition by EOs in *in vitro* screening. The best results were obtained from treatments with sage essential oil, which totally (100%) inhibited the mycotoxin production of all tested strains after 14 days. The production of AFB₁ and CPA by *A. flavus* (SLO-B-201) (Fig. 2A), AFB₁ and AFG₁ by *A. parasiticus* (SLO-B-219) (Fig. 2B) and OA synthesis by *A. ochraceus* (SLO-B-245) (Fig. 2C) and *A. westerdijkiae* (SLO-B-249) (Fig. 2D) was inhibited, respectively. The complete anti-toxicogenic effects of sage essential oil have also been confirmed in previous studies (Císarová et al., 2015; Císarová, 2015; Císarová et al., 2016). Basil oil was able to completely (100%) inhibited production of CPA by *A. flavus* (SLO-B-201) and OA production by *A. westerdijkiae* (SLO-B-249). The least effective essential oil was rosemary, in this study. This oil completely (100%) inhibited only production of OA by *A. ochraceus* (SLO-B-245). The different effects of individual oils on mycotoxins production or growth of fungi could be explained by using different species of microscopic fungi. For example, Santos et al. (Santos et al., 2010) in their study demonstrated that OA production was the most inhibited in *A. tubingensis* and the least in *A. westerdijkiae* species. Inhibitory effects of essential oils on mycotoxins accumulation are not always associated (Bluma, Amaiden, & Etcheverry, 2008). Prakash et al. (Prakash et al., 2015) suggested that lack of sporulation in fungal mycelia treated with essential oils may be a strong reason for their anti-mycotoxigenic activity as such correlation between secondary metabolite production and sporulation. This suggestion correlated with our results from *in situ* assay on bread samples (Table 6).

Lemongrass, oregano, thyme, cinnamon and clove belonged to the most effective essential oils, with the best inhibition effect on sporulation of all tested *Aspergillus* strains. Lemongrass completely inhibited the growth and sporulation of each fungus, so the anti-toxicogenic effect of this essential oil could not be demonstrated by TLC method. Very good anti-toxicogenic activity of lemongrass EO recorded Paranagama et al. (Paranagama et al., 2003) against aflatoxin B₁ produced by *A. flavus* on rice. Cinnamon and clove essential oils completely inhibited all mycotoxin production only at a high concentration (500 µL/L of air), cinnamon in *A. parasiticus* (SLO-B-219) and *A. flavus* (SLO-B-201) and clove in all tested species. Only oregano oil was able to inhibit the

Table 6

In situ inhibitory effects of essential oils at 22 ± 1 °C after 14 days of cultivation on the mycotoxin production by *Aspergillus* spp. [three replications in treatments with each essential oil were screened (four colonies in three repetition, n = 12)].

Essential oils	conc. (µL/L of air)	AF-SLO-B-201 ^a	AP-SLO-B-219	AO-SLO-B-243	AW-SLO-B-249
		number of tested strains/number of positive strains			
Cinnamon	125	7/2	12/2	7/2	8/2
	250	3/1	7/1	8/1	7/1
	500	2/0	3/0	NA	NA
Clove	125	8/2	11/5	9/4	7/3
	250	4/1	9/2	7/4	6/2
	500	3/0	6/0	4/0	1/0
Thyme	125	11/6	5/2	6/3	4/2
	250	3/0	1/0	3/0	2/0
	500	NA	NA	2/0	1/0
Lemongrass	125	NA	NA	NA	NA
	250	NA	NA	NA	NA
	500	NA	NA	NA	NA
Oregano	125	2/0	4/0	7/3	2/2
	250	1/0	3/0	4/2	6/2
	500	NA	2/0	NA	NA
Cumin	125	12/12	12/12	10/9	9/9
	250	6/6	7/6	9/8	8/8
	500	4/4	6/6	3/1	2/2
Control		12	12	12	12

^a -ID of tested strain, conc.-concentration, NA-not analysed (no visible growth of colony), AF-*A. flavus*, AP-*A. parasiticus*, AO-*A. ochraceus*, AW-*A. westerdijkiae*, CPA-cyclopiazonic acid, OA-ochratoxin A, AFB₁/AFG₁-aflatoxins.

aflatoxin production in both, *A. parasiticus* (SLO-B-219) and *A. flavus* (SLO-B-201), without concentration dependent manner, and inhibition of OA production by this oil was very good in a comparison with control sets. Thyme oil inhibited completely the production of OA and aflatoxin at concentration up to 250 µL/L of air in all tested strains. Cumin essential oils showed very poor or no effect on mycotoxins production by tested *Aspergillus* strains. Types of the EOs, the concentration used and time of incubation markedly influenced the anti-toxicogenic activity of the tested oil. Similar results were obtained by Azaiez et al. (Azaiez, Meca, Manyes, & Fernández-Franzón, 2013). They investigated the gaseous phase of allyl (AITC), phenyl (PITC) and benzyl isothiocyanates (BITC) on the bread inoculated with some toxigenic fungi. They also found that the fumonisins B₂ production was reduced by 73–100%, but this reduction was depended on the dose and time of exposure. In addition, the TLC method used in this study was a qualitative method; therefore, if there is any difference, it will not be detectable. However, it is rapid and low-cost method in a comparison with other methods (UHPLC, HPLC, LC-MS) used for detection of mycotoxins.

3.4. Sensory properties

The use of antimicrobials as preservatives in food systems can negatively influence the organoleptic properties, especially the use of essential oils. So the one objective of this study considered their impact on organoleptic properties of the used bread samples. In our study, the triangle test was chosen to distinguish between samples without necessity to specify the differing sensory characteristics (Lawless & Heymann, 2010). The results and the number of correct responses identified the treated samples in the triangle test and are summarized in Table 7. The treatment of bread samples with EOs did not have impact on the odour and taste, with the exception of oregano and lemongrass EOs. Nearly half of the panellists detected differences between breads treated with oregano and lemongrass at all days of treatment (3rd, 7th, 11th and 14th days). The most significant difference ($p < 0.001$) was observed at the concentration of 250 and 500 µL/L of air for both, oregano and lemongrass oil. The breads treated with the lowest

Table 7Sensory evaluation of the sliced bread treated by different essential oils 3rd, 7th, 11th and 14th days after storage at 22 ± 1 °C in the dark.

Essential oils	conc. $\mu\text{L/L}$	3rd day		7th day		11th day		14th day	
		Correct replies (%)	<i>p</i> -value	Correct replies (%)	<i>p</i> -value	Correct replies (%)	<i>p</i> -value	Correct replies (%)	<i>p</i> -value
Thyme	125	10 (22.22%) ^{ns}	0.153	12 (26.66%) ^{ns}	0.429	15 (33.33%) ^{ns}	1	19 (42.22%) ^{ns}	1
	250	12 (26.66%) ^{ns}	0.430	12 (26.66%) ^{ns}	0.429	13 (28.88%) ^{ns}	0.635	14 (31.12%) ^{ns}	0.874
	500	15 (33.33%) ^{ns}	1	15 (33.33%) ^{ns}	1	16 (35.56%) ^{ns}	0.753	16 (35.56%) ^{ns}	0.753
Clove	125	9 (20.00%) ^{ns}	0.058	11 (24.44%) ^{ns}	0.267	11 (24.44%) ^{ns}	0.267	12 (26.67%) ^{ns}	0.268
	250	10 (22.22%) ^{ns}	0.153	10 (22.22%) ^{ns}	0.153	10 (22.22%) ^{ns}	0.153	11 (24.45%) ^{ns}	0.268
	500	12 (26.26%) ^{ns}	0.429	13 (28.88%) ^{ns}	0.636	13 (28.88%) ^{ns}	0.635	14 (31.12%) ^{ns}	0.874
Cinnamon	125	8 (17.77%) ^{ns}	0.940	8 (17.77%) ^{ns}	0.940	8 (17.77%) ^{ns}	0.940	9 (20.00%) ^{ns}	0.268
	250	9 (20.00%) ^{ns}	0.058	9 (20.00%) ^{ns}	0.058	10 (22.22%) ^{ns}	0.153	11 24.45%) ^{ns}	0.268
	500	20 (44.44%) ^{ns}	0.116	20 (44.44%) ^{ns}	0.116	22 (48.89%) ^{ns}	0.208	22 (48.89%) ^{ns}	0.209
Lemongrass	125	21 (46.66%) ^{ns}	0.001	21 (46.66%) ^{ns}	0.006	22 (48.89%) ^{ns}	0.001	24 (53.34%) ^{ns}	0.001
	250	27 (60.00%) ^{ns}	0.001	27 (60.00%) ^{ns}	0.000	28 (62.22%) ^{ns}	0.001	30 (66.67%) ^{ns}	0.001
	500	30 (71.11%) ^{ns}	0.001	30 (71.11%) ^{ns}	0.000	33 (73.33%) ^{ns}	0.001	33 (73.33%) ^{ns}	0.001
Oregano	125	19 (42.22%) ^{ns}	0.001	19 (42.22%) ^{ns}	0.000	20 (44.44%) ^{ns}	0.001	24 (53.34%) ^{ns}	0.001
	250	23 (51.11%) ^{ns}	0.001	23 (51.11%) ^{ns}	0.002	23 (51.11%) ^{ns}	0.001	24 (53.34%) ^{ns}	0.001
	500	29 (64.44%) ^{ns}	0.001	29 (64.44%) ^{ns}	0.000	30 (66.67%) ^{ns}	0.001	30 (66.67%) ^{ns}	0.001
Cumin	125	5 (11.11%) ^{ns}	0.888	5 (11.11%) ^{ns}	0.888	6 (13.34%) ^{ns}	0.822	6 (13.34%) ^{ns}	0.822
	250	6 (13.33%) ^{ns}	0.058	6 (13.33%) ^{ns}	0.153	7 (15.55%) ^{ns}	0.153	8 (17.78%) ^{ns}	0.153
	500	10 (22.22%) ^{ns}	0.153	12 (26.66%) ^{ns}	0.429	12 (26.66%) ^{ns}	0.429	13 (28.88%) ^{ns}	0.636

conc.- concentration, ns-Not significantly different. For $n = 45$ the difference between samples would be significant if the number of correct answer was 24 or more ($p \leq 0.01$) ISO Standards 4120:2004, *p*-value-calculated according the correct and incorrect answers by the chi-square binomial distribution with value of α -risk = 0.05 (R Core Team, 2016).

concentration (125 $\mu\text{L/L}$ of air) of oregano and lemongrass essential oil were acceptable until 11th day of treatment. However, oregano EO caused the spicy flavour in treated bread and lemongrass EO caused an unacceptable citrus flavour. Thus, these EOs cannot be used at the most effective concentration against the growth of pathogenic fungi on bread. The treatment with other EOs did not have any significant influence on the sensory evaluation. The best result was obtained in treatment by thyme and cumin EOs at all used concentrations (125–500 $\mu\text{L/L}$ of air) throughout the all storage period. Also none of the triangle test attained the 24 correct replies needed (except with treatment by oregano and lemongrass EOs) to establish significant differences. According to these results, the use of EOs such as thyme, clove, cinnamon and cumin as sprout inhibitors in vapour phase does not imply any effect on the sensory properties of bread.

4. Conclusions

In this study, we have demonstrated that the antifungal, anti-toxicogenic and antisporeulation effect of EOs from thyme, clove, oregano, cinnamon and lemongrass are highly effective against tested toxigenic *Aspergillus* species in vapour phase in both, *in vitro* and *in situ* condition. Lemongrass showed the strongest activity, followed by thyme, cinnamon, clove and oregano. Other tested EOs, such as basil, rosemary and sage had not any significant antifungal activity, but they should find a practical application in the inhibition of the mycotoxin production of fungi. Moreover, a treated bread sample with EOs does not have negative effect on the sensory properties of the breads, with exception of oregano and lemongrass. In conclusion, it is possible to test a combination of different essential oils in order to reduce the growth, sporulation and mycotoxins, mainly aflatoxin and ochratoxin production of aspergilli. The use of essential oils promising alternative to the use of chemical inhibitors to avoid the growth and mycotoxins production without affecting the overall bread quality.

Declaration of competing interestCOI

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by project no. FPPV-09-2018 and by Slovak Research and Development Agency under Contract no. APVV-16-0289.f

References

- Aguiar, R. W. D. S., Ootani, M. A., Ascencio, S. D., Ferreira, T. P. S., dos Santos, M. M., & dos Santos, G. R. (2014). Fumigant antifungal activity of *Corymbia citriodora* and *Cymbopogon nardus* essential oils and citronellal against three fungal species. *Science World Journal*, 1–8. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2014/492138>.
- Atanda, O. O., Akpan, I., & Oluwafemi, F. (2007). The potential of some spice essential oils in the control of *A. parasiticus* CFR 223 and aflatoxin production. *Food Control*, 18, 601–607. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodcont.2006.02.007>.
- Azaiez, I., Meca, G., Manyes, L., & Fernández-Franzón, M. (2013). Antifungal activity of gaseous allyl, benzyl and phenyl isothiocyanate *in vitro* and their use for fumonisins reduction in bread. *Food Control*, 32, 428–434. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodcont.2013.01.020>.
- Bernardos, A., Marina, T., Žáček, P., Pérez-Esteve, É., Martínez-Mañez, R., Lhotka, M., et al. (2015). Antifungal effect of essential oil components against *Aspergillus niger* when loaded into silica mesoporous supports. *Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture*, 95, 2824–2831. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jsfa.7022>.
- Bluma, R., Amaiden, M. R., & Etcheverry, M. (2008). Screening of Argentine plant extracts: Impact on growth parameters and aflatoxin B1 accumulation by *Aspergillus* section *Flavi*. *International Journal of Food Microbiology*, 122, 114–125. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2007.11.050>.
- Bluma, R. V., & Etcheverry, M. G. (2008). Application of essential oils in maize grain: Impact on *Aspergillus* section *Flavi* growth parameters and aflatoxin accumulation. *Food Microbiology*, 25, 324–334. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fm.2007.10.004>.
- Božik, M., Císarová, M., Tančinová, D., Kouřimská, L., Hleba, L., & Klouček, P. (2017). Selected essential oil vapours inhibit growth of *Aspergillus* spp. in oats with improved consumer acceptability. *Industrial Crops and Products*, 98, 146–152. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.indcrop.2016.11.044>.
- Carmo, E. S., Lima, E. D. O., De Souza, E. L., & De Sousa, F. B. (2008). Effect of *Cinnamomum zeylanicum* Blume essential oil on the growth and morphogenesis of some potentially pathogenic *Aspergillus* species. *Brazilian Journal of Microbiology*, 39, 91–97. <https://doi.org/10.1590/S1517-83822008000100021>.
- Cavanagh, H. M. A., & Wilkinson, J. M. (2002). Biological activities of lavender essential oil. *Phytotherapy Research*, 16(4), 301–308. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ptr.1103>.
- Cherrat, L., Espina, L., Bakkali, M., Pagán, R., & Laglaoui, A. (2014). Chemical composition, antioxidant and antimicrobial properties of *Mentha pulegium*, *Lavandula stoechas* and *Satureja calamintha* Scheele essential oils and an evaluation of their bactericidal effect in combined processes. *Innovative Food Science & Emerging Technologies*, 22, 221–229. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ifset.2013.12.016>.
- Císarová, M. (2015). Antimicrobial properties of selected essential oils in vapour phase against *Aspergillus flavus*. *Scientific Papers Animal Science and Biotechnologies*, 48, 55–62.
- Císarová, M., Tančinová, D., & Brodová, M. (2015). Antifungal activity of volatile components generated by essential oils against the genus *Penicillium* isolated from bread samples. *Journal of Microbiology, Biotechnology and Food Sciences*, 4(special 1), 1–5.

- <https://doi.org/10.15414/jmbfs.2015.4.special1.1-5>.
- Cisarová, M., Tančinová, D., & Medo, J. (2016a). Antifungal activity of lemon, eucalyptus, thyme, oregano, sage and lavender essential oils against *Aspergillus Niger* and *Aspergillus tubingensis* isolated from grapes. *Potravinárstvo*, 10, 83–88. <https://doi.org/10.5219/554>.
- Cisarová, M., Tančinová, D., Medo, J., & Kačániová, M. (2016b). The in vitro effect of selected essential oils on the growth and mycotoxin production of *Aspergillus* species. *Journal of Environmental Science and Health - Part B Pesticides, Food Contaminants, and Agricultural Wastes*, 51, 1–7. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03601234.2016.1191887>.
- Corthouts, J., & Michiels, C. W. (2016). Inhibition of nutrient- and high pressure-induced germination of *Bacillus cereus* spores by plant essential oils. *Innovative Food Science & Emerging Technologies*, 34, 250–258. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ifset.2016.02.011>.
- Damalas, C. A., & Eleftherohorinos, I. G. (2011). Pesticide exposure, safety issues, and risk assessment indicators. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 8, 1402–1419. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph8051402>.
- Davidson, P. M. (2001). Chemical preservatives and naturally antimicrobial compounds cit Celikel, N. And Kavas, G., 2008, antimicrobial properties of some essential oils against some pathogenic microorganisms. *Czech Journal of Food Sciences*, 26(3), 174–181.
- Delaquis, P. J., Stanich, K., Girard, B., & Mazza, G. (2002). Antimicrobial activity of individual and mixed fractions of dill, cilantro, coriander and eucalyptus essential oils. *International Journal of Food Microbiology*, 74(1–2), 101–109. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0168-1605\(01\)00734-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0168-1605(01)00734-6).
- Espinel-Ingroff, A., & Kerkerling, T. M. (1991). Spectrophotometric method of inoculum preparation for the in vitro susceptibility testing of filamentous fungi. *Journal of Clinical Microbiology*, 29, 393–394.
- European Commission (2010). Commission regulation (EU) No 165/2010 of 26 February 2006 amending regulation (EC) No 1881/2006 setting maximum levels for certain contaminants in foodstuffs as regards aflatoxins. *Official Journal of the European Union*, L 50, 8–12.
- Feng, W., Chen, J., Zheng, X., & Liu, Q. (2011). Thyme oil to control *Alternaria alternata* in vitro and in vivo as fumigant and contact treatments. *Food Control*, 22, 78–81. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodcont.2010.05.010>.
- Ferreira, F. D., Kemmelmeier, C., Arrotéia, C. C., Da Costa, C. L., Mallmann, C. A., Janeiro, V., et al. (2013). Inhibitory effect of the essential oil of *Curcuma longa* L. and curcumin on aflatoxin production by *Aspergillus flavus* Link. *Food Chemistry*, 136, 789–793. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2012.08.003>.
- Frisvad, J. C., Frank, J. M., Houbraeken, J. A. M. P., Kuijpers, A. F. A., & Samson, R. A. (2004). New ochratoxin A producing species of *Aspergillus* section *Circumdati*. *Studies in Mycology*, 50, 23–43.
- Gemeda, N., Woldeamanuel, Y., Asrat, D., & Debella, A. (2014). Effect of essential oils on *Aspergillus* spore germination, growth and mycotoxin production: A potential source of botanical food preservative. *Asian Pacific Journal of Tropical Biomedicine*, 4, 373–381. <https://doi.org/10.12980/APJTB.4.2014C857>.
- Guynot, M. E., Ramos, A. J., Setó, L., Purroy, P., Sanchis, V., & Marín, S. (2003). Antifungal activity of volatile compounds generated by essential oils against fungi commonly causing deterioration of bakery products. *Journal of Applied Microbiology*, 94, 893–899. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2672.2003.01927.x>.
- Helander, I. M., Alakomi, H. L., Latva-Kala, K., Mattila-Sandholm, T., Pol, I., Smid, E. J., & von Wright, A. (1998). Characterization of the action of selected essential oil components on Gram-negative bacteria. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 46(9), 3590–3595. <https://doi.org/10.1021/jf980154m>.
- Herras-Mozos, R., Mauriel-Galet, V., López-Carballo, G., Cataná, R., Hernández-Muñoz, P., & Gavara, R. (2019). Development of optimization of natifungal packing for sliced pan loaf based on garlic as active agent and bread aroma as aroma corrector. *International Journal of Food Microbiology*, 290, 42–48. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2018.09.024>.
- Hyldgaard, M., Mygind, T., & Meyer, R. L. (2012). Essential oils in food preservation: Mode of action, synergies, and interactions with food matrix components. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, 3, 1–24. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2012.00012>.
- Inouye, S. (2003). Laboratory evaluation of gaseous essential oils (Part 1). *International Journal of Aromatherapy*, 13, 95–107. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0962-4562\(03\)00081-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0962-4562(03)00081-X).
- Inouye, S., Watanabe, M., Nishiyama, Y., Takeo, K., Akao, M., & Yamaguchi, H. (1998). Antisporulating and respiration-inhibitory effects of essential oils on filamentous fungi: Hemmeffekte ätherischer Öle auf Sporulation und Atmung von Fadenpilzen. *Mycoses*, 41(9–10), 403–410. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1439-0507.1998.tb00361.x>.
- ISO Standards 4120 (2004). *Sensory analysis, methodology, triangle test*. Geneva, Switzerland: ISO.
- Kadoglidou, K., Lagopodi, A., Karamanoli, K., Vokou, D., Bardas, G. A., Menexes, G., et al. (2011). Inhibitory and stimulatory effects of essential oils and individual monoterpenoids on growth and sporulation of four soil-borne fungal isolates of *Aspergillus terreus*, *Fusarium oxysporum*, *Penicillium expansum*, and *Verticillium dahliae*. *European Journal of Plant Pathology*, 130, 297–309. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10658-011-9754-x>.
- Khayoon, W. S., Saad, B., Yan, C. B., Hashim, N. H., Ali, A. S. M., Salleh, M. I., et al. (2010). Determination of aflatoxins in animal feeds by HPLC with multifunctional column clean-up. *Food Chemistry*, 118, 882–886. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2009.05.082>.
- Kloucek, P., Smid, J., Frankova, A., Kokoska, L., Valterova, I., & Pavela, R. (2012). Fast screening method for assessment of antimicrobial activity of essential oils in vapor phase. *Food Research International*, 47, 161–165. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2011.04.044>.
- de Koe, W. J., & Juodeikiene, G. (2012). 25 - mycotoxin contamination of wheat, flour and bread(2nd ed.). Woodhead Publishing Limited <https://doi.org/10.1533/9780857095695.3.614> Breading (Second edition).
- Krisch, J., Rentskenhand, T., Horváth, G., & Vágvolgy, C. (2013). Activity of essential oils in vapor phase against bread spoilage fungi. *Acta Biologica Szegediensis*, 57, 9–12.
- Kuate, J., Foko, J., Ndindeng, S. A., Jazet-Dongmo, P. M., Fouré, E., Damesse, F., et al. (2006). Effect of essential oils from citrus varieties on in vitro growth and sporulation of *Phaeoaramularia angolensis* causing citrus leaf and fruit spot disease. *European Journal of Plant Pathology*, 114, 151–161. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10658-005-2928-7>.
- Kyung, K. H. (2012). Antimicrobial properties of allium species. *Current Opinion in Biotechnology*, 23, 142–147. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.copbio.2011.08.004>.
- Labuda, R., & Tancinová, D. (2006). Fungi recovered from Slovakian poultry feed mixtures and their toxinogenicity. *Annals of Agricultural and Environmental Medicine*, 13, 193–200.
- Laird, K., & Phillips, C. (2012). Vapour phase: A potential future use for essential oils as antimicrobials? *Letters in Applied Microbiology*, 54, 169–174. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1472-765X.2011.03190.x>.
- Lalitha Rao, B., & Husain, A. (1985). Presence of cyclopiazonic acid in kodo millet (*Paspalum scrobiculatum*) causing “kodia poisoning” in man and its production by associated fungi. *Mycopathologia*, 89, 177–180.
- Lawless, H. T., & Heymann, H. (2010). *Sensory evaluation of food principles and practices* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Springer.
- Legan, J. D. (1993). Mould spoilage of bread: The problem and some solutions. *International Biodegradation & Biodegradation*, 32, 35–53. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0964-8305\(93\)90038-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/0964-8305(93)90038-4).
- Luo, M., Jiang, L. K., Huang, Y. X., Xiao, M., Li, B., & Zou, G. L. (2004). Effects of citral on *Aspergillus flavus* spores by quasi-elastic light scattering and multiplex microanalysis techniques. *Acta Biochimica et Biophysica Sinica*, 36(4), 277–283. <https://doi.org/10.1093/abbs/36.4.277>.
- Magan, N., Arroyo, M., & Aldred, D. (2003). Mould prevention in bread. *Bread making: Improving quality* (2nd ed.). Woodhead Publishing Limited <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-1-85573-553-8.50028-9>.
- Mahilrajana, S., Nandakumar, J., Kailayalingam, R., & Manoharan, N. A. (2014). Screening the antifungal activity of essential oils against decay fungi from palmyrah leaf handicrafts. *Biological Research*, 47, 1–5. <https://doi.org/10.1186/0717-6287-47-35>.
- Marandi, R. J., Hassani, A., Ghosta, Y., Abdollahi, A., Pirzad, A., & Sefidkon, F. (2011). Improving postharvest quality of table Grape cv. “rish Baba” using *Thymus Kotschyanus* and *Carum Copticum* essential oils. *Journal of Food Safety*, 31, 132–139. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1745-4565.2010.00276.x>.
- Marino, M., Bersani, C., & Comi, G. (2001). Impedance measurements to study the antimicrobial activity of essential oils from *Lamiaceae* and *Compositae*. *International Journal of Food Microbiology*, 67, 187–195. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0168-1605\(01\)00447-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0168-1605(01)00447-0).
- Oosterhaven, K., Hartmans, K. J., & Scheffer, J. J. C. (1995). Inhibition of potato sprout growth by carvone enantiomers and their bioconversion in sprouts. *Potato Research*, 38(2), 219–230. <https://doi.org/10.1007/bf02357935>.
- Paranagama, P. A., Abeyssekera, K. H. T., Abeyswickrama, K., & Nugaliyadde, L. (2003). Fungicidal and anti-aflatoxigenic effects of the essential oil of *Cymbopogon citratus* (DC.) Stapf. (lemongrass) against *Aspergillus flavus* Link. isolated from stored rice. *Letters in Applied Microbiology*, 37, 86–90. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1472-765X.2003.01351.x>.
- Petrikkou, E., Rodríguez-Tudela, J. L., Cuenca-Estrella, M., Gómez, A., Molleja, A., & Mellado, E. (2001). Inoculum standardization for antifungal susceptibility testing of filamentous fungi pathogenic for humans. *Journal of Clinical Microbiology*, 39, 1345–1347. <https://doi.org/10.1128/JCM.39.4.1345-1347.2001>.
- Pinto, E., Pina-Vaz, C., Salgueiro, L., Gonçalves, M. J., Costa-de-Oliveira, S., Cavaleiro, C., & Martinez-de-Oliveira, J. (2006). Antifungal activity of the essential oil of *Thymus pulegioides* on *Candida*, *Aspergillus* and dermatophyte species. *Journal of Medical Microbiology*, 55(10), 1367–1373. <https://doi.org/10.1099/jmm.0.46443-0>.
- Pinto, E., Vale-Silva, L., Cavaleiro, C., & Salgueiro, L. (2009). Antifungal activity of the clove essential oil from *Syzygium aromaticum* on *Candida*, *Aspergillus* and dermatophyte species. *Journal of Medical Microbiology*, 58(11), 1454–1462. <https://doi.org/10.1099/jmm.0.010538-0>.
- Pitt, J. I., Taniwaki, M. H., & Cole, M. B. (2013). Mycotoxin production in major crops as influenced by growing, harvesting, storage and processing, with emphasis on the achievement of Food Safety Objectives. *Food Control*, 32, 205–215. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodcont.2012.11.023>.
- Prakash, B., Kedia, A., Mishra, P. K., & Dubey, N. K. (2015). Plant essential oils as food preservatives to control moulds, mycotoxin contamination and oxidative deterioration of agri-food commodities - potentials and challenges. *Food Control*, 47, 381–391. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodcont.2014.07.023>.
- Quiles, J. M., Manyes, L., Luciano, F., Mañes, J., & Meca, G. (2015). Influence of the antimicrobial compound allyl isothiocyanate against the *Aspergillus parasiticus* growth and its aflatoxins production in pizza crust. *Food and Chemical Toxicology*, 83, 222–228. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fct.2015.06.017>.
- Rajkovic, K., Pekmezovic, M., Barac, A., Nikodinovic-Runic, J., & Arsić Arsenijević, V. (2015). Inhibitory effect of thyme and cinnamon essential oils on *Aspergillus flavus*: Optimization and activity prediction model development. *Industrial Crops and Products*, 65, 7–13. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.indcrop.2014.11.039>.
- Rattanachaikunsopon, P., & Phumkhaichorn, P. (2010). Assessment of factors influencing antimicrobial activity of carvacrol and cymene against *Vibrio cholerae* in food. *Journal of Bioscience and Bioengineering*, 110, 614–619. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbiosc.2010.06.010>.
- Sacchi, C., González, H. H. L., Broggi, L. E., Pacin, A., Resnik, S. L., Cano, G., et al. (2009). Fungal contamination and mycotoxin natural occurrence in oats for race horses feeding in Argentina. *Animal Feed Science and Technology*, 152, 330–335. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.anifeeds.2009.04.008>.
- Santamarina, M., Roselló, J., Giménez, S., & Amparo Blázquez, M. (2016). Commercial

- Laurus nobilis* L. and *Syzygium aromaticum* L. Merr. & Perry essential oils against post-harvest phytopathogenic fungi on rice. *Lebensmittel-Wissenschaft und -Technologie-Food Science and Technology*, 65, 325–332. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2015.08.040>.
- Santos, L., Kasper, R., Gil-Serna, J., Marín, S., Sanchis, V., & Ramos, A. J. (2010). Effect of Capsicum carotenoids on growth and ochratoxin A production by chilli and paprika *Aspergillus* spp. isolates. *International Journal of Food Microbiology*, 142, 354–359. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2010.07.018>.
- Saranraj, P., & Sivasakthivelan, P. (2016). Microorganisms involved in spoilage of bread and its control measures. In C. M. Rosell, J. Bajerska, & A. F. El Sheikh (Eds.). *Bread and its fortification: Nutrition and health benefits* (pp. 132–149). New York: CRC Press. <https://doi.org/10.1201/b18918>.
- Shewry, P. R., Halford, N. G., Belton, P. S., & Tatham, A. S. (2002). The structure and properties of gluten: An elastic protein from wheat grain. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London. Series B: Biological Sciences*, 357, 133–142. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2001.1024>.
- Silva, C. D. B. D., Guterres, S. S., Weisheimer, V., & Schapoval, E. E. (2008). Antifungal activity of the lemongrass oil and citral against *Candida* spp. *Brazilian Journal of Infectious Diseases*, 12(1), 63–66. <https://doi.org/10.1590/s1413-86702008000100014>.
- Stupar, M., Grbić, M. L., Džamić, a., Unković, N., Ristić, M., Jelikić, a., et al. (2014). Antifungal activity of selected essential oils and biocide benzalkonium chloride against the fungi isolated from cultural heritage objects. *South African Journal of Botany*, 93, 118–124. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sajb.2014.03.016>.
- Tarazona, A., Gómez, J. V., Gavara, R., Mateo-Castro, R., Gimeno-Adelantado, J. V., Jiménez, M., et al. (2018). Risk management of ochratoxigenic fungi and ochratoxin A in maize grains by bioactive EVOH films containing individual components of some essential oils. *International Journal of Food Microbiology*, 269, 107–119. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2018.02.002>.
- Tian, J., Huang, B., Luo, X., Zeng, H., Ban, X., He, J., et al. (2012). The control of *Aspergillus flavus* with *Cinnamomum jensenianum* Hand.-Mazz essential oil and its potential use as a food preservative. *Food Chemistry*, 130, 520–527. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2011.07.061>.
- Tongnuanchan, P., & Benjakul, S. (2014). Essential oils: Extraction, bioactivities, and their uses for food preservation. *Journal of Food Science*, 79, 1231–1249. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1750-3841.12492>.
- Tyagi, A. K., & Malik, A. (2010). *In situ* SEM, TEM and AFM studies of the antimicrobial activity of lemon grass oil in liquid and vapour phase against *Candida albicans*. *Micron*, 41, 797–805. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.micron.2010.05.007>.
- Tyagi, A. K., Malik, A., Gottardi, D., & Guerzoni, M. E. (2012). Essential oil vapour and negative air ions: A novel tool for food preservation. *Trends in Food Science & Technology*, 26, 99–113. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tifs.2012.02.004>.
- Tzortzakís, N. G., & Economakis, C. D. (2007). Antifungal activity of lemongrass (*Cymbopogon citratus* L.) essential oil against key postharvest pathogens. *Innovative Food Science & Emerging Technologies*, 8, 253–258. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ifset.2007.01.002>.
- Varga, J., Baranyi, N., Chandrasekaran, M., & Vágvölgyi, C. (2015). Mycotoxin producers in the *Aspergillus* genus: An update. *Acta Biologica Szegediensis*, 59, 151–167.
- World Health Organization, International Agency for Research on Cancer (1993). Some naturally occurring substances: Food items and constituents, heterocyclic aromatic amines and mycotoxins. Lyon A. *IARC Monographs on the Evaluation of the Carcinogenic Risk of Chemicals to Humans*, 56, 245–395. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0003-2670\(94\)80328-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/0003-2670(94)80328-5) 92-832-1256-8.
- Xie, X. M., Fang, J. R., & Xu, Y. (2004). Study of antifungal effect of cinnamaldehyde and citral on *Aspergillus flavus*. *Food Science*, 25(9), 32–34.
- Zhang, K. C., Wei, L. P., Shen, H., & Jiang, L. K. (2011). Comparative study of inhibitive effect of cinnamaldehyde and citral upon *Aspergillus Niger* growth. *Chinese Journal of Microecology*, 2.
- Zhaveh, S., Mohsenifar, A., Beiki, M., Khalili, S. T., Abdollahi, A., Rahmani-Cherati, T., et al. (2015). Encapsulation of *Cuminum cyminum* essential oils in chitosan-caffeic acid nanogel with enhanced antimicrobial activity against *Aspergillus flavus*. *Industrial Crops and Products*, 69, 251–256. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.indcrop.2014.01.033>.