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Review

Mycotoxins in maize: mitigation actions, with a chain management approach

Roberta PALUMBO¹, Ana GONÇALVES², Athanasios GKRILLAS³, Antonio LOGRIECO⁴, Jean-Lou DORNE⁵, Chiara DALL'ASTA³, Armando VENÂNCIO², Paola BATTILANI¹

¹ Faculty of Agriculture, Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore, Via Emilia Parmense 84, 29100 Piacenza, Italy

² CEB - Centre of Biological Engineering, University of Minho, 4710-057 Braga, Portugal

³ Università degli studi di Parma, Via Università 12, 43121, Parma, Italy

⁴ National Research Council, Institute of Sciences of Food Production, via Amendola 122/O, 70126, Bari, Italy

⁵ European Food Safety Authority (EFSA), Via Carlo Magno 1A, 43126, Parma, Italy *Corresponding author: paola.battilani@unicatt.it

Summary. Maize is the principal staple food/feed crop exposed to mycotoxins, and the co-occurrence of multiple mycotoxins and their metabolites has been well documented. This review presents the infection cycle, ecology, and plant-pathogen interactions of *Aspergillus* and *Fusarium* species in maize, and current knowledge on maize chain management to mitigate the occurrence of aflatoxins and fumonisins. Preventive actions include at pre-harvest, as part of cropping systems, at harvest, and at post-harvest, through storage, processing, and detoxification to minimize consumer exposure. Preventive actions in the field have been recognized as efficient for reducing the entrance of mycotoxins into production chains. Biological control of *Aspergillus flavus* has been recognized to minimize contamination with aflatoxins. Post-harvest maize grain management is also crucial to complete preventive actions, and has been made mandatory in government food and feed legislation.

Keywords. Aspergillus, Fusarium, aflatoxins, fumonisins, deoxynivalenol.

INTRODUCTION

Maize is one of the most important cereals produced for human and animal consumption in the European Union (EU), and is grown mainly for grain and forage. More than 80% of maize grain is used for feed, and the rest is used for production of starch and semolina (Eurostat, 2019). In 2017/2018, the EU maize yields reached approx. 65 million tons (European Commission, 2019), approx. 5% of the global maize production. Maize is second to wheat in total EU cereal production (Statista, 2018). Since 2017, the EU has been importing significant volumes of maize, mainly coming from Ukraine, Brazil, and Canada. This is partly due to the increased demand for maize feed (+8%), and significant reductions in the production of barley and other cereals for feed consumption (European Commission, 2019). As well, there has been significant reduction in maize growing areas in some European countries, where mycotoxin contamination is a major concern. That is because of the economic losses caused by discarded lots that are non-compliant with legal mycotoxin limits, and the consequent income uncertainty for farmers.

Maize is exposed to mycotoxins, which are secondary metabolites of fungi with toxic effects on humans and animals, and which cause illnesses and also economic losses. Mycotoxin contamination is the major non-tariff trade barrier for agricultural products, which negatively impacts the health and income of small-holder farmers, regional and international trade, and the world economy (Logrieco et al., 2018). A range of toxic effects has been associated with exposure to mycotoxins in humans and in many animal species (Eskola et al., 2018). Hence, the maximum concentrations of the main class of mycotoxins in agricultural food and feed products, as well as in their commodities, are regulated in Europe, or recommendations are listed for animal consumption (Commission Regulation (EU) 576/2006; Commission Regulation (EU) 1881/2006; Commission Regulation (EU) 574/2011; Commission Recommendations (EU) 165/2013).

One of the major issues in the contamination of maize is infection with *Aspergillus flavus* and *Aspergillus parasiticus*, and the resulting occurrence of aflatoxins (AFs). In addition, the occurrence of aflatoxin B1 (AFB1) in feed can lead to contaminated milk, because the toxin is metabolized to aflatoxin M1 (AFM1) by dairy cattle when fed with contaminated feed, and there is carry-over to dairy products (EFSA, 2004; van der Fels-Klerx and Camenzuli, 2016).

Fusarium species also infect maize and contaminate grains with mycotoxins, which include deoxynivalenol (DON), zearalenone (ZEN), fumonisins (FBs), nivalenol (NIV), T-2 toxin (T2), and HT-2 toxin (HT2). In maize the co-occurrence of AFs and FBs is common (Camardo Leggieri et al., 2015). Although there are no data demonstrating significant interaction between these toxins, reports suggest that both additive and synergistic interactions may occur (Torres et al., 2015; Abbès et al., 2016; Qian et al., 2016). Mycotoxins are very stable compounds and accumulate in maize grain in the field after fungal infections during the crop growing season, with possible post-harvest increases when the environment remains suitable for fungal activity. Main factors affecting maize infection are: environmental conditions, plant susceptibility (depending on crop genetics and health status) as well as insect populations.

Many efforts have been devoted to develop strategies, both at the pre- and post-harvest crop stages, to reduce production and occurrence of these mycotoxins in maize, and their entry into the food and feed chains. The present provides an account of advances since 2000 in strategies to reduce the occurrence of AFs, FBs, and DON across the maize supply chain.

ASPERGILLUS AND FUSARIUM SPECIES IN MAIZE

Many of the most relevant mycotoxins in maize are synthesized by two fungal genera: Aspergillus and Fusarium. Aspergillus spp. include all validated AFproducing fungi and most of the known species belong to the Aspergillus section Flavi, including A. flavus and its close relative A. parasiticus. Aspergillus flavus and A. parasiticus are very similar species of the section, sharing 96% DNA similarity of the aflatoxin gene clusters (Cary and Ehrlich, 2006). These species can be distinguished from one another using morphological and physiological characteristics, but A. flavus commonly only produces B series AFs, while A. parasiticus can produce both B and G series AFs. Non-aflatoxigenic strains also naturally occur in both species (Smith and Moss, 1985). Aspergillus flavus almost exclusively occurs in maize (Giorni et al., 2007).

The most frequently isolated Fusarium species from maize are F. verticillioides, F. proliferatum, F. graminearum, and F. subglutinans (Leslie and Logrieco, 2014). These cause two different types of ear rot: (i) Fusarium ear rot or pink ear rot is caused primarily by members of the Liseola section, including F. verticillioides, F. proliferatum and F. subglutinans, now preferably referred to as the Gibberella fujikuroi species complex (GFsc); and (ii) Gibberella ear rot or red ear rot which is caused by species of the Discolor section, with F. graminearum being the prevalent species. Fusarium verticillioides and F. proliferatum can synthesize large amounts of FBs. Other species can be involved in the pathogenesis of maize ear rot, including F. culmorum and F. equiseti (Logrieco et al., 2002). These two fungi produce trichothecenes (DON and NIV) and ZEN. Studies reporting the presence of F. sporotrichioides and F. langhsethiae in maize are scarce (Görtz et al., 2008), but these two species have been shown to produce T2 and HT2, and their roles in maize contamination with these two mycotoxins needs to be clarified. Recently, a new mycotoxin-producing species of Fusarium, F. temperatum, has been reported in Europe and South America by different authors. This species is morphologically similar and phylogenetically close to F. subglutinans, and has been reported as a producer of FBs, beauvericin (BEA), fusaproliferin (FUS) and moniliformin (MON) (Scauflaire et al., 2012; Fumero et al., 2016).

Infection cycle of Aspergillus and Fusarium species on maize

Maize is susceptible to mycotoxin-producing fungi from flowering, at growth stage BBCH63 (male: beginning of pollen-shedding; female: when tips of stigmata are visible), and fungus infection efficacy is optimized at BBCH67 (female: stigmata drying) (Battilani et al., 2003; Battilani et al., 2013). Aspergillus and Fusarium species commonly reproduce by asexual spores (Battilani et al., 2013). The conidia of Aspergillus are dispersed mainly by air movement (Battilani et al., 2003). Fusarium species produce macroconidia which, for F. graminearum, are typically dispersed by splashing rain, and for the GFsc, also by air movement (Shaner, 2003; Paul et al., 2004; Manstretta and Rossi, 2015; Manstretta and Rossi, 2016). Conidia in crop debris are considered the main sources of infection, and they enter host plants through natural openings or wounds (Cotten and Munkvold, 1998). Sexual reproduction is possible for Fusaria, and the relevance of this depends on the species and the crop location, while for A. flavus sexual reproduction has been demonstrated in the laboratory, and some evidence suggests that it could occur in nature although not vet observed (Horn et al., 2009; Horn et al., 2016).

Systemic development of *Fusarium* species from maize seeds and roots to the stalks and to cobs can also contribute to kernel infection, but the role of systemic infections remains to be confirmed (Munkvold *et al.*, 1997; Murillo-Williams and Munkvold, 2008). Systemic infection by *Aspergillus* has never been considered.

Beside silk and systemic infection, insect-assisted infections by mycotoxigenic fungi have also been identified as important pathway for maize ear infections by Aspergillus and Fusarium species. Insects can be vectors of inoculum and host entry can be assisted by larvae feeding on kernels (Munkvold and Carlton, 1997). Lepidoptera typically have the greatest impacts on mycotoxin-producing fungi in maize. Much attention has been given to the interactions between Lepidoptera, including the European corn borer (ECB; Ostrinia nubilalis), and F. verticillioides infections (Blandino et al., 2015; Drakulic et al., 2017). ECB is the main maize pest in Central and Southern Europe, and this insect has been shown to promote F. verticillioides and F. proliferatum infections in maize grains and consequent FB contamination, in temperate areas (Blandino et al., 2015). The incidence of the western flower thrips (Frankliniella occidentalis) on maize ears has also been correlated with the presence of F. verticillioides (Parsons and Munkvold, 2012). Further evidence also indicates that kernel injury attributed to the western bean cutworm (WBC; Striocosta albicosta) can lead to increased levels of *F. verticillioides* and subsequent increased levels of FBs in maize (Parker *et al.*, 2017).

Ecology

Every fungal species has unique ecological requirements, and optimum conditions for fungal growth are not always those that are most appropriate to mycotoxin biosynthesis (Figures 1 and 2). Therefore, it is difficult to identify common ecological trends across different fungal species. Nevertheless, *A. flavus* is well adapted to warm and dry weather conditions (Giorni *et al.*, 2016). In contrast, the optimum conditions for the development of *F. verticillioides* include warm temperature (T) and moderate rainfall. Mild T and high rainfall during maize grain maturation are best for infections by *F. graminearum* (Bhatnagar *et al.*, 2014). T, relative humid-



Figure 1. Temperatures (°C) required for fungal growth and mycotoxin production for *Aspergillus* and *Fusarium* species isolated from maize.



Figure 2. Water activity (a_w) required for fungal growth and mycotoxin production for same of the most relevant *Aspergillus* and *Fusarium* species isolated from maize.

ity (RH), and, above all, grain water activity (a_w) are the most important ecological factors influencing fungal colonization of maize grain substrates (Giorni *et al.*, 2011; Lazzaro *et al.*, 2012; Battilani *et al.*, 2016).

In vitro trials have indicated that the optimum a_w for growth of A. flavus is in the range of 0.96 to 0.98 at 25°C, 0.98 at 30°C, and 0.96 at 37°C (Pitt and Miscamble, 1995). In the field, A. flavus can grow in maize grain at a_w as low as 0.73 (8–12 % moisture content), and produce AFs down at $a_w = 0.85$ (17–19% moisture) (Giorni et al., 2011; Battilani et al., 2013; Battilani et al., 2016). In vivo trials also shown that AFB1 is positively correlated with a_w when $a_w \ge 0.95$, confirming the *in vitro* data, and is negatively correlated when $a_w < 0.95$ (Giorni *et al.*, 2016). Therefore, a_w of 0.95 is proposed as a threshold, at which AF production increases rapidly. The influence of abiotic stresses on A. flavus infection is complicated by the co-existence of different fungal species in maize kernels during the crop growing season. Previous in vitro studies considered the competition between F. verticillioides and A. flavus (Giorni et al., 2014). Dominance of one species over the other was demonstrated only under extreme conditions, while mutual antagonism was more common (Giorni et al., 2016).

Growth of F. verticillioides occurs within a wide range of T, with an optimum T range of 22.5 to 27.5°C and a minimum $a_w = 0.87$. The optimum T and a_w reported for inducing FB production are from 20 to 25°C and 0.95 to 0.99 aw, while no production was observed at 10°C and $a_w \le 0.93$ (Medina *et al.*, 2013). Fusarium temperatum strains reached maximum growth rate at T values greater than 22°C and the least growth was at 15°C and 0.95 a_w, and these strains produced maximum amounts (1000 μ g g⁻¹) of fumonisin B1 (FB1) at 0.98 a_w and 15°C (Fumero et al., 2016). Fusarium graminearum grew over a wide range of T and moisture conditions, with the optimum growth at approx. 25°C and $a_w = 0.977-0.995$. The influence of incubation T (15, 20, 28, or 32°C) and a_w (0.96, 0.97, or 0.98) on the production on DON by F. graminearum on maize kernels was studied by Llorens et al. (2004). They demonstrated that a_w in the range considered did not significantly affect trichothecene synthesis, while T affected DON production with the optimum T being 28°C.

Plant-pathogen interactions

Differences in chemical composition of maize kernels during each growing season and related plant physiology, can be variedly associated with fungal colonization and mycotoxin contamination (Luo *et al.*, 2008; Luo *et al.*, 2011).

The dynamics of a_w in grains during the growing season determines the competitiveness of A. flavus against other co-occurring ear rot fungi (Giorni et al., 2011). The ability of A. flavus and other ear rot fungi such as F. verticillioides to utilize carbon sources at different T and a_w conditions could also influence the dynamics of AF contamination (Giorni et al., 2016). Other factors, such as crop growth stage, physiology, active plant defenses, and grain composition, are also likely to influence the dynamics of AF production during grain ripening (Ojiambo et al., 2018). The rate of drying of the ripening kernels critically affects their contamination with AFs and FBs (Medina et al., 2013). The most significant increase in FB production and accumulation occurs after the dent stage. This stage is also characterized by acidification and maximum levels of amylopectin content; both of which enhance FB synthesis (Picot et al., 2011).

Lipid composition of maize kernels also affects fungal infection and toxin accumulation by *Aspergillus* and *Fusarium* species (Dall'Asta *et al.*, 2012; Dall'Asta *et al.*, 2015; Battilani *et al.*, 2018). Plant and fungal oxylipins play crucial roles in cross-talk between the pathogens and their host (Scala *et al.*, 2013; Ludovici *et al.*, 2014; Battilani *et al.*, 2018).

OCCURRENCE OF MULTIPLE MYCOTOXINS

A survey by Streit *et al.*, (2013) indicated that, on a global scale, 84% of maize was contaminated with at least one mycotoxin, and 46% was co-contaminated with multiple mycotoxins. The natural co-occurrence of mycotoxins produced by different fungi in maize and maize products has been reported, and most surveys have focused on the major mycotoxins AFs, FBs, ZEN, and trichothecenes (mainly DON) (Smith *et al.*, 2016; Ingenbleek *et al.*, 2019). Only a few studies have specified the percentage of the co-contaminated samples. Common co-occurrence of AFs + FBs, FBs + DON, and FBs + DON + ZEN has been reported (ranging from 25% to 40%). More details of the main reported mycotoxin combinations are summarized in Table 1.

Apart from the occurrence of parent forms, modified mycotoxins have been frequently reported to co-occur in cereals, including maize (Rasmussen *et al.*, 2012; Nakaga-wa *et al.*, 2013; Kovalsky *et al.*, 2016). Glucosides of DON, ZEN, and other minor trichothecenes have been frequently described. Mycotoxin modification in wheat is part of the biotransformation machinery expressed by host plants in response to pathogen attacks (Berthiller *et al.*, 2009a). However, toxin biotransformation has been little investi-

Mycotoxin	Commodity	Observation	References
AFs; FBs	Maize	95.6% of samples with AFB1 and FBs (FB1+FB2)	Camardo Leggieri <i>et al.</i> (2015)
FBs; DON	Maize products	High co-occurrence of fb1, fb2 and don strong evidence of co-occurrence of fb1 and fb2	Cano-Sancho et al. (2012)
	Maize and maize products	38% of samples with fbs and don	Kirincic et al. (2015)
	Maize	25% of samples with don+fb1	Zachariasova et al. (2014)
FBs; BEA	Maize	 97% of samples with fb1 and fb2 10% of samples with ota 17% of samples with bea 15% of samples with bea, fb1 and fb2 3% of samples with bea and ota 	Jurjevic <i>et al.</i> (2002)
FBs; ZEN	Maize	40% of samples with fb1 and zen	Domijan et al. (2005)
FBs; DON; ZEN; OTA	Maize and maize products	57% of samples with co-occurring mycotoxins 38% of samples with fbs, don and zen	Kirincic et al. (2015)
	Maize	40% of samples with fb1, zen and ota 6% of samples with fb1, fb2 and ota	Domijan <i>et al.</i> (2005)
DON; DON derivates	Maize	High occurrence of don and don3g	Desmarchelier and Seefelder (2011)
	Maize and maize products	High co-occurrence of don, 3-adon, 15-adon and don3g	De Boevre et al. (2012)
	Maize	Consistent co-occurrence of don and don3g in all tested samples	Berthiller et al. (2009b)
	Maize	50% of sample with don + its acetylated and/or glycosylated derivates	Zachariasova et al.(2014)
DON; BEA	Maize	38% of sample with don and bea	Zachariasova et al. (2014)
DON; ZEN	Maize and maize products	25% of samples with don and zen	Kirincic et al. (2015)
	Maize	26% of sample with don and zen	Zachariasova et al. (2014)
DON; T2-HT2	Maize and maize products	High co-occurrence of don and ht2	Cano-Sancho et al.(2012)
DON;NIV; T2-HT2	Maize	Relatively high content of niv, higher than for don for same samples	Rasmussen et al. (2012)

Table 1. Co-occurrence of mycotoxins in maize and derived products.

Abbreviations: AFs = aflatoxins, FBs = fumonisins, FB1 = fumonisin B1, FB2 = fumonisin B2, DON = deoxynivalenol, DON3G = deoxynivalenol-3-glucoside, 3-ADON = 3-acetyl-deoxynivalenol, 15 ADON = 15-acetyl-deoxynivalenol, BEA = beauvericin, ZEN = zearalenone, T2 = T-2 toxin, HT2 = HT-2 toxin, NIV = nivalenol, OTA = ochratoxin A.

gated in maize. Occurrence of modified FBs in maize has been reported (Bryła *et al.*, 2013a; Dall'Asta and Battilani, 2016), and conjugation of FBs with fatty acids (oleic and linoleic acids) through the formation of ester bonds has been described (Bartók *et al.*, 2010; Bartók *et al.*, 2013; Falavigna *et al.*, 2016). Recent evidence strongly supports the hypothesis that fatty acid esters of FB1 are produced by *F. verticillioides* using fatty acids from the substrate (Falavigna *et al.*, 2016). These compounds are formed by the fungus in a substrate concentration-dependent manner (Falavigna *et al.*, 2016), and they may undergo cleavage in the gastrointestinal tracts of mammals.

FBs can also occur as non-covalently bound forms, also known as "hidden fumonisins", now referred to as

modified mycotoxins (Rychlik *et al.*, 2014). Several studies have demonstrated the complexation of FBs with maize macro-constituents, the main one being starch (Dall'Asta *et al.*, 2009; Dall'Asta *et al.*, 2010; Dall'Asta *et al.*, 2012; Bryła *et al.*, 2015). This complexity may significantly affect the quantification of FBs under routine conditions, requiring additional hydrolysis steps under alkaline conditions. The amounts of modified FBs are closely related to environmental factors and chemical composition of maize, and may significantly contribute to the overall amount of FBs occurring in each sample. The ratio between free and total FBs has been reported at between 0.4 to 0.7, depending on yearly variations and host hybrid examined (Dall'Asta *et al.*, 2012; Bryła *et* *al.*, 2015; Giorni *et al.*, 2015). Dry milling of maize also increased free FBs in bran by 69% and total FBs partitioning in fractions by 46%, while free FBs decreased in flour by 28% and total FBs partitioning in fractions by 20% (Bryła *et al.*, 2015). Total release of this fraction under digestive conditions has been considered by the European Food Safety Authority. The contribution of modified FBs to overall FB exposure in animals, using an additional factor of 1.6 with respect to the free FB contents has been proposed. This factor has been extrapolated from several studies and a broad database (n = 316) (Dall'Asta *et al.*, 2010; Dall'Asta *et al.*, 2012; Bryła *et al.*, 2013b; Bryła *et al.*, 2014; Bryła *et al.*, 2015; Oliveira *et al.*, 2015).

In contrast to *Fusarium* mycotoxins, no modification of AFs in maize has yet been reported.

FIELD PREVENTION STRATEGIES FOR MAIZE MYCOTOXINS

Several research efforts have defined good agricultural practices (GAPs) to apply during pre-harvest stages, including: (i) farming systems, (ii) host resistance and hybrid selection, (iii) soil management, crop residues and crop rotations, (iv) irrigation, (v) pest and disease control, and (vi) biological control agents (BCAs) (Blandino *et al.*, 2009a; Blandino *et al.*, 2009b; Battilani *et al.*, 2012).

Farming systems

Little information is available on fungal incidence in organic *versus* conventional farming of maize. Lazzaro *et al.* (2015) demonstrated that *Fusarium* incidence was different between farming systems in Italian maize (20% in conventional production and 35% for organic production). However, *Aspergillus* incidence was not linked to the farming system but to weather conditions. Mycotoxin occurrence was not considered by Lazzaro *et al.*, (2015).

The most relevant agricultural factors that should be considered essential for integrated programmes to reduce *Aspergillus* and *Fusarium* toxins are outlined below, and are summarized in Supplementary Table S1.

Host resistance and hybrid selection

Comprehensive knowledge of plant defense mechanisms may help to identify kernel resistance mechanisms, and assist the development of targeted and innovative approaches for breeding resistant crops (Alberts et al., 2016). Plant breeding has been used as a tool to develop maize varieties resistant to abiotic and biotic stresses (Cary et al., 2011; Lanubile et al., 2011; Brown et al., 2013; Farfan et al., 2015; Lanubile et al., 2017). These efforts have resulted in a number of germplasm releases. However, no maize hybrids were found to be completely resistant to fungal infection and/or mycotoxin contamination, because of the need to select for multiple traits and associated genes that contribute collectively to plant resistance. Resistance mechanisms are interconnected processes involving many gene products and transcriptional regulators, as well as host interactions with environmental factors, particularly, drought stress and high T (Jiang et al., 2011). The molecular mechanisms underlying maize resistance have yet to be determined. Research has been devoted to understanding kernel resistant mechanisms at the transcriptional level, and to identify stress and/or defense related genes induced during A. flavus infection in maize (Chen, et al., 2001; Chen et al., 2015). Microarray or proteomic studies have led to the discovery of many genes involved in maize resistance including several resistance-related quantitative trait loci (QTLs) (Kelley et al., 2012; Brown et al., 2013). Comparisons between the resistant and susceptible lines indicate differences in gene expression networks (Luo et al., 2011). Several research outputs are available on plantpathogen interactions and host resistance; these are promising starting points for future developments, but clear suggestions regarding hybrid selection, considered the best prevention tool, is not feasible.

Soil management, crop residues and crop rotation

Crop rotation and tillage are recommended practices to reduce inoculum of fungi on overwintering crop residues. Studies on the effects of these practices in maize show variable results, depending on the nature of the pathogen, the geographical location and the combinations with other strategies (Leslie and Logrieco, 2014). Under conditions of high T and low a_w, A. flavus becomes the dominant fungal species in the soil and produces abundant inoculum (Horn, 2003). Fusarium inoculum is always copious in crop residue in soil, irrespective of environmental conditions. Therefore, soil tillage is commonly considered to reduce inoculum availability. The effects of crop rotation are likely to be negligible, however, in areas with high prevalence of maize, because of long-distance air dispersal of A. flavus and GFsc (Munkvold, 2014).

Baliukoniene et al., (2011) demonstrated that F. verticillioides, F. proliferatum and F. subglutinans survive

for at least 630 d in maize stalk residues left on the soil surface or buried up to 30 cm deep. Under conventional tillage, the soil was contaminated with 7.0 \pm 0.5 log₁₀ CFU g⁻¹ of fungal spores belonging to 17 genera of fungi. They identified Fusarium from 80% soil samples from conventional tillage. In contrast, the soil under notillage was contaminated with 13.5 \pm 12.5 log₁₀ CFU g⁻¹ fungal spores. There is evidence that crop rotation has greater impacts on F. graminearum and F. culmorum and relative mycotoxins, especially DON and ZEN, rather than FB- and AF-producing fungi (Munkvold, 2014). This is consistent with splash dispersal of their inoculum. Besides affecting fungal population growth, soil conditions also influence plant root development. Crops with poorly developed root systems are more susceptible to water and nutritional stresses, and consequently, are more susceptible to Aspergillus and GFsc infections. Adequate soil drainage to avoid drought stress, especially in clay soils, and adapting tillage strategies to soil conditions (Arino et al., 2009; Blandino et al., 2009a) may reduce fungal activity. Furthermore, crop rotation is applied to control maize pests. This practice is recommended in maize to reduce larval populations of western corn rootworm (Diabrotica virgifera) (Munkvold, 2014).

Irrigation

Maize has low tolerance to drought-stress, which is considered to be the most crucial factor promoting mycotoxin contamination, in addition to causing significant yield losses. Limited water availability predisposes plants to AF contamination (Battilani *et al.*, 2008; Abbas *et al.*, 2012; Torelli *et al.*, 2012; Damianidis *et al.*, 2018). For *A. flavus* infection, water stress is particularly critical during silk emergence and kernel ripening, so it is recommended to irrigate according to water needs taking into account also the evapo-transpiration precipitation (water balance). For geographical areas where water can be limiting, maize hybrids tolerant to water stress, in addition to early sowing, should be considered.

Data on FBs are less well defined compared with that for AFs. A field study by Arino *et al.* (2009) showed that drought stress during early maize reproductive growth was associated with increased risk for grain contamination with FBs due to *F. verticillioides*. However, the type of irrigation (flood or sprinkler) did not affect FB levels. Although the contribution of water stress to FB contamination is controversial, irrigation according to water needs to avoid drought stress to plants is still recommended, but avoiding excessive and prolonged irrigation close to the stage of milk ripening growth stage is important, as this could enhance FB accumulation (Blandino *et al.*, 2009a; Munkvold, 2014). Increases of DON concentration of up to 3.5 to 5-fold, caused by *F. graminearum*, were also documented by Oldenburg and Schittenhelm (2012) in kernels derived from limited watered plots compared to well-watered plots.

Pest and disease control

Several measures are applied against maize pests, including crop rotation, insecticides, fungicides and other chemical treatments, the use of resistant maize hybrids and biological control agents (BCAs), as well as monitoring and forecasting.

The use of insecticides reduces risk of mycotoxin contamination associated with insects (Folcher et al., 2009). The links between insecticide use (mainly pyrethroids) for the control of ECB and reduction of FB contamination have frequently been described (Blandino et al., 2009a; Blandino et al., 2009b; Blandino et al., 2009c; Folcher et al., 2009; Mazzoni et al., 2011; Folcher et al., 2012). Studies of beneficial effects of combined use of insecticides and fungicides have provided equivocal results. Folcher et al. (2009) demonstrated no synergy between deltamethrin and tebuconazole. Efficacy for reducing FBs was 89.96% reduction from the insecticide treatment and 89.97% from insecticide + fungicide. Mazzoni et al., (2011) demonstrated benefit from the combination deltamethrin + tebuconazole in reducing FB contamination, whereas no modification in AF content was observed after treatments. Content of FB1 decreased by 35% in plots treated with tebuconazole and by 56% with tebucoazole + deltamethrin.

Biological control agents (BCAs)

Several pre-harvest biological control systems have been developed for maize against *Aspergillus* spp. and *Fusarium* spp. These have used a variety of potential biocontrol agents (BCAs), including fungal and bacterial strains or atoxigenic fungal strains, as summarized in Table 2. Many microorganisms have been tested, but only *Trichoderma harzianum* (Nayaka *et al.*, 2010) and *Clonostachys rosea* (Luongo *et al.*, 2005; Xue *et al.*, 2014; Samsudin *et al.*, 2017) have been studied under field conditions, and only atoxigenic *A. flavus* strains have been applied on large scale.

Biological control of pathogenic *A. flavus* has been based on the use of atoxigenic isolates of this fungus, which act through competitive exclusion of AFproducers in the environment, and during crop tissue infection (Cotty and Bayman, 1993). The efficacy

BCA(s)	Target fungal species	Type of assay	References
Pre-harvest			
Atoxigenic A.flavus strains	A. flavus	In vitro and in field	Cotty and Bayman (1993); Cotty (2006); Mauro <i>et al.</i> (2015); Bandyopadhyay <i>et al.</i> (2016); Mauro <i>et al.</i> (2018)
Trichoderma harzianum	A. flavus	In greenhouse and in field	Sivparsad and Laing (2016)
Streptomyces spp.	A. flavus	In vitro	Verheecke et al. (2016)
Bacillus megaterium	A. flavus	In vitro	Kong et al. (2014)
Bacillus subtilis (CW14)	Aspergillus spp., Penicillium spp.	In vitro	Shi et al. (2014)
Saccharomyces cerevisiae	A. parasiticus	In vitro	Armando et al. (2012)
<i>Clonostachys rosea</i> , Gram negative bacterium (BCA5)	F. verticillioides	In vitro	Samsudin et al. (2017)
Atoxigenic F. equiseti, Clonostachys rosea, Epicoccum nigrum, Idriella bolleyi, Trichoderma harzianum, Trichoderma viride	F. culmorum F. graminearum F. proliferatum F. verticillioides	In field	Luongo <i>et al.</i> (2005)
Epicoccum nigrum	F. graminearum	In vitro and in planta	Abdallah et al. (2018)
Bacillus mojavensis (RRC101)	F. verticillioides	In vitro	Blacutt et al. (2016)
Bacillus spp., Pseudomonas spp. Paenibacillus spp.	F. verticillioides	In planta	Figueroa-López et al. (2016)
Trichoderma harzianum	F. verticillioides	In vitro, in greehouse and in field	Nayaka <i>et al.</i> (2010)
Clonostachys rosea	F. graminearum	In field	Xue et al. (2014)
Trichoderma asperellum	F. graminearum	In vitro and in planta	Yaqian <i>et al.</i> (2016)
Post-harvest			
Pichia anomala	A. flavus	In vitro	Tayel <i>et al.</i> (2013); Hua <i>et al.</i> (2014)
Lactobacillus plantarum	A. flavus	In vitro	Ahlberg et al. (2017)
Debaryomyces hansenii, BCS003	Aspergillus spp., F. proliferatum, F. subglutinans	In vitro	Medina-Cordova et al. (2016)
Lactobacillus plantarum MYS6	F. proliferatum	In vitro	Deepthi et al. (2016)
Lactobacillus delbrueckii, L. acidophilus, L. sakei, Pediococcus acidilactici, Enterococcus faecalis	F. proliferatum	In vitro	Khalil <i>et al.</i> (2013)

Table 2. Current information on reduction of mycotoxin-producing Aspergillus spp. and Fusarium spp., and mycotoxins production by biocontrol microorganisms in vitro, in planta, and in field trials in maize.

of this technique has been validated for control of AF contamination in maize. Two bio-pesticides with atoxigenic *A. flavus* active ingredients are registered for use on maize crops in the USA (Cotty, 2006), and several are available in the sub-Saharan Africa, grouped under AFLASAFE mark (Bandyopadhyay *et al.*, 2016). Atoxigenic *A. flavus* communities that are endemic to Italy have been identified, and their efficacy for reducing AF contamination by AF-producers has been demonstrated. One strain (MUCL 54911) displayed the greatest effi-

cacy against several AF-producers (Mauro *et al.*, 2015), and was selected as the active ingredient in AF-X1, now under consideration for registration in Europe (Mauro *et al.*, 2018). To maximize efficacy for preventing aflatoxin contamination, the product should be adapted to the target crop and environment (Cotty, 2006), and the product should also be applied at the 5th leaf crop growth stage (Mauro *et al.*, 2015).

Far less field-based information is available on the effects of BCAs on FB-producing *Fusarium* spp. Results

of bio-assays conducted under controlled conditions have demonstrated moderate suppression of toxigenic *F. verticillioides* and *F. proliferatum* strains using non-pathogenic *Fusarium* strains, including *F. equiseti* (Luongo *et al.*, 2005). Samsudin *et al.*, (2017) studied the effects of two BCAs, a fungus (*C. rosea*) and a gram-negative bacterium (BCA5), on growth rates of *F. verticillioides* (FV1), the relative expression of the FUM1 gene and FB1 production. The fungal antagonist reduced FB1 contamination on maize cobs by >70% at 25°C, and almost 60% at 30°C regardless of the maize ripening stage. For the bacterial antagonist, however, FB1 levels on maize cobs were significantly decreased only in some temperature/a_w treatments (25° C and a_w=0.976-0.958; 30° C and a_w=0.976).

Abdallah *et al.*, (2018) demonstrated the capacity of two endophytic fungi (*Epicoccum nigrum* and *Sardoria fimicola*) to reduce ZEN amounts in maize under *in vitro* and *in planta* conditions. *Epicoccum nigrum* consistently reduced amounts of DON and 15-ADON. Some microorganisms have also been studied *in vitro* for their ability to inhibit spoiling *Aspergillus* spp. and *Fusarium* spp. species in maize feed and food products, and for use as natural post-harvest preserving agents (Table 2).

GRAIN HARVESTING AND DRYING

Late harvesting has major impacts on the levels of mycotoxins in maize grain, possibly due to high grain moisture levels and greater periods for fungal growth and toxin production (Munkvold, 2014). *Apergillus flavus* efficiently produces AFs when maize grain moisture content is less er than 28%. In this context, high T (>25°C) and a_w less than 0.95 have been suggested as thresholds above which AF accumulates rapidly (Giorni *et al.*, 2016). To reduce AF contamination, therefore, harvesting in hot and dry years should be carried out while avoiding very low moisture contents in maize grain, and limiting the time available for rapid growth of *A. flavus* and rapid synthesis of AFs. A working compromise for farmers would be to harvest at 22-24% grain moisture, but not at less than 20%.

Detrimental effects of a late harvesting are also confirmed in *Fusarium* spp. A study conducted on maize silage in Switzerland demonstrated that samples with high DON contents often came from fields harvested after September (Eckard *et al.*, 2011).

Moisture content of maize grain at harvest is commonly not low enough to guarantee safe storage, so the grain must be dried before storage commences (Bullerman and Bianchini, 2014). Drying is performed using heated air dryers. Many technologies, and different Ts and time combinations, can be applied for artificial drying of cereals. Treatments at 70°C for 24 h have been shown to be the more effective for reducing the incidence and extent of fungal populations, than greater T and shorter exposure time (95°C for 9 h) (Giorni *et al.*, 2015). Grain should also be dried to less than 14% moisture content to be stored safely, with rapid reduction of moisture content during the first 24 h post-harvest. A final moisture content <13% is suggested when *A. flavus* is present (Channaiah and Maier, 2014).

POST-HARVEST GRAIN MANAGEMENT TO MINIMIZE RISKS OF MYCOTOXIN CONTAMINATION

Grain cleaning and grading

Pest attacks, harvesting and subsequent handling of maize grain can generate broken kernels, as well as contamination from soil and foreign materials which may be sources of mycotoxin contamination. Several physical processes are used for automated grain cleaning and grading (e.g. sieving, flotation, density segregation). Maize cleaning is commonly applied to remove powder and small kernel pieces, commonly the portions with the greatest mycotoxin contamination. Grading gained increased interest for improving grain lots to comply with legislated standards for processed products. Originally, grain grading machines were based on particle weight and size and used centrifugation and flotation in air flows. Contemporary grading machines are mainly based on optical sensors. Grading using UV light illumination for AF reduction is widely used, although mycotoxins can accumulate without visible symptoms and so pose limits to the use of optical sorting techniques (Karlovsky et al., 2016).

Studies on the effectiveness of gain cleaning/grading processes have produced equivocal results, possibly due to the different initial levels of contamination of the raw materials tested (Pietri et al., 2009), and because of differences between mycotoxins. Intact kernels were shown to contain approx. 10 times less FBs than broken maize kernels (Murphy et al., 1993), and removal of broken kernels and other impurities from unprocessed maize reduced DON and ZEN by around 70-80 % (Trenholm et al., 1991). For FB, however, contrasting results have been published. The cleaning step did not affect FB concentration from unprocessed and cleaned maize grain with low contamination (Generotti et al., 2015), while a decrease of 45% was in medium-high contaminated grain (Fandohan et al., 2005). Removal of fine material (approx. 10% by weight) in maize grain has been shown to reduce AF levels by 84% (Hu et al., 2017).

Grain storage

After drying and cleaning, maize grain is placed in silos, for short or long periods, where it is prone to toxigenic fungal contamination and subsequent mycotoxin production, if conductive conditions occur. Air temperature, relative humidity and kernel moisture content have been identified as major storage factors influencing fungal activity and grain quality. Moderate T, kernel moisture less than 14% and dry environment have been demonstrated to limit A. flavus growth and subsequent AF contamination in stored maize (Giorni et al., 2008). Monitoring of T and moisture has been suggested for early detection of fungal growth (Mason and Woloshuk, 2010), and this can be done using manual grain inspection for spoilage by moulds and other quality parameters, and measuring grain T. Both approaches, however, have inherent limitations: human sensory detection could be influenced by subjectivity errors caused by individual biases. Cables used to monitor T inside bulk grain bins detect changes only when spoiling grain mass is large enough to raise the T, and these changes must happen close to the sensors. Recent studies have examined the use of CO₂ production as an early indicator of levels of AFs (Garcia-Cela et al., 2019) or FBs (Mylona et al., 2012) in stored maize, and in other cereals (Mylona et al., 2011; Martín Castaño et al., 2017). These studies have shown CO₂ production and trends in the respiration rates, measured by Gas Chromatographic (GC) equipment, can be used as 'storability risk indices' to predict overall quality changes in stored grain.

Hermetic storage in silo bags is an alternative method to mitigate variations of environmental parameters and prevent fungal activity. No variations in AFs, FBs, DON, and OTA or in fungal contamination was observed in silo bags when dynamics of fungi and related mycotoxins were examined during maize storage (Gregori *et al.*, 2013).

Natural compounds with fungicidal or fungistatic activity may be useful for preventing fungal growth in stored maize (Bullerman and Bianchini, 2014; Caceres *et al.*, 2016). Different categories of plant-based compounds with bioactivity against a wide range of fungi have been identified as alternative agents, including antioxidants (Coma *et al.*, 2011; Azaiez *et al.*, 2013; De Lucca *et al.*, 2013; Thippeswamy *et al.*, 2013; Tracz *et al.*, 2016), phenolic compounds (Ferrochio *et al.*, 2013; Thippeswamy *et al.*, 2013; Thippeswamy *et al.*, 2015), and essential oils (Da Gloria *et al.*, 2010; Matasyoh *et al.*, 2011; Elsamra *et al.*, 2012; Garcia *et al.*, 2012; Koc and Kara, 2014; Sahab *et al.*, 2014; Abhishek *et al.*, 2015; Kalagatur *et al.*, 2015; Liang *et al.*, 2015; Achugbu *et al.*, 2016; Kosegarten *et al.*, 2017; Sawaiet

al., 2017) (see Supplementary Table S2). It is difficult to draw general conclusions from available information, due to the diversity of variables considered, including the fungal species and the types of compounds tested. Results have mostly been from small scale experiments, and efficacy in maize storage trials remains to be tested and confirmed. Some general conclusions can be drawn, but results remain to confirmed in practical situations. Most studies have tested effects of particular compounds on fungal growth, whereas few have reported effects on mycotoxin reduction. The reported inhibition rates on AFs (Thippeswamy et al., 2013; Liang et al., 2015; Tracz et al., 2016) and on FBs (Coma et al., 2011; Elsamra et al., 2012; Thippeswamy et al., 2015) ranged from 30 to 100%. Eugenol (4-allyl-2-methoxyphenol) has been frequently reported as the active ingredient in the majority of the tested essential oils (eugenol concentration 34.7-78.4 %), highlighting the promise for this compound to reduce Aspergilli and Fusaria toxin production (Sahab et al., 2014; Kalagatur et al., 2015; Sawai et al., 2017).

Grain processing

Food and feed processing can have affect initial content of mycotoxins in raw materials and these processes are here discussed individually.

Milling of maize grain does not destroy mycotoxins, but this process leads to redistribution of mycotoxins among mill fractions. Distribution of Aspergillus and Fusarium toxins in maize products after dry-milling has been investigated in several studies, showing similar patterns of distribution. Mycotoxin contaminations increase, compared to unprocessed maize grain, in bran, germ and fractions intended for animal feed (Coradi et al., 2016), whereas they decrease in flaking grits and flour which are mainly destined to human consumption (Bullerman and Bianchini, 2014; Savi et al., 2016). The distribution of Fusarium toxins (FBs, ZEN and DON) in dry-milled maize products has been assessed, and these results indicate that average mycotoxin content in meals and grits was reduced by 65-88% compared to the unprocessed grain (Reyneri et al., 2004). A significant decrease (40%) in FB content from unprocessed maize to cornmeal semolina has also been demonstrated, whereas a significant increase in FB content has been found in middlings, commonly intended for feed production (Generotti et al., 2015). In wet-milling, mycotoxins may be dissolved in the steep water and further redistributed. Forty to 50% of AFs were moved from corn grain into steep water during wet milling, where 28-38% of these mycotoxins remained in the fiber fraction, 11-17% in the gluten fraction, 6-11% in

the germ, and only 1% in starch (Karlovsky *et al.*, 2016; Vanara *et al.*, 2018).

Thermal processing. Most mycotoxins are heat stable, but varying degrees of destruction can be achieved with the application of different time/T combinations. AFs have high decomposition Ts ranging from 237°C to 306°C, but all heat treatments (boiling, roasting, baking or steaming) have been reported to reduce foodstuff contamination (Jalili, 2015). Boiling maize grits reduced AF levels by 28%, while frying the boiled grits gave total reduction of 34-53% (Bullerman and Bianchini, 2014). Also, FBs are moderately stable compounds in high T, as a significant decrease in these compounds only occurs above 150-200°C, where thermal processing such as baking, frying, roasting or extruding are applied (Humpf and Voss, 2004; Mohanlall et al., 2013). Bread baking has been shown to reduce concentrations of free FBs by 30-32% and concentrations of modified FBs by 10-19%. The differences in reduction of modified FBs were explained by the presence of proteins or starch capable of stabilizing the mycotoxins during baking (Bryła et al., 2014). The effects of bread making on DON, T-2 and HT-2 toxin stability in naturally contaminated flour samples have been studied in wheat, but no data are available for maize derived products (Stadler et al., 2018). Increases of DON after bread making have been reported, whereas the conjugated form as glucoside derivative DON3G (deoxynivalenol-3-glucoside) was reduced by approx. 50% after baking (Monaci et al., 2013). In contrast, only 7.2% degradation of DON was recorded after baking at 100-250°C for 180 min (Numanoglu et al., 2012).

Decreases in FB contents after thermal processing could be ascribed to the masking phenomena, as well as possible modifications of mycotoxin structure through interactions with other food components leading to the formation of conjugates (Falavigna *et al.*, 2012). Free and total FBs have also been shown to increase after heated drying, especially at 70°C for 24 h exposure. This evidence suggests possible retrogradation of starch, after heating, particularly for amylose, was closely related to modifications in detectable FBs (Giorni *et al.*, 2015).

Flaking and extrusion processes, obtained with high pressure and heating, have been recently reviewed (Jackson *et al.*, 2012; Bullerman and Bianchini, 2014). Several reports showed that FBs decreased after cornflake processing. About 60 to 70% of the initial amounts of FB1 and FB2 were lost during entire cycle of cornflake processing, with less than 30% losses occurring during the intermediate extrusion-cooking step (De Girolamo *et al.*, 2001). During extrusion cooking, the product is forced through metal tubes by rotating screws and is subjected to high T, high pressure, and severe shear. Extrusion

usually causes decreases in mycotoxin concentrations. However, the effects on mycotoxin levels is probably influenced by the screw speed and T. Stability of FB1 in corn grits was affected by the extrusion parameters: up to 50% reduction in FB1 was measured when the grits were extruded at 160°C (Jackson et al., 2012). The effects of extrusion on AF levels was also influenced by the presence or absence of additives, moisture content and T. Extrusion alone reduced AF content by 50-80%, and with addition of ammonia, either as hydroxide (0.7-1.0%) or as bicarbonate (0.4%), the decreases in AF levels were greater than 95% (Jalili, 2015). Inclusion of sugar also altered the stability of FBs during extrusion processing (Castelo et al., 2006). This was also the case for DON for which extrusion decomposed DON, which was more susceptible to extrusion than AFB1 (Cazzaniga et al., 2001).

Traditional nixtamalization production of tortillas, the process of cooking in alkaline solution, is reduced initial total AFs by 60-65% and FBs by 80% (Schaarschmidt *et al.*, 2019). This was through physical removal during steeping and washing, and by degradation after application of elevated pH and high T. However, the reductions varied depending on cooking time T, steeping time, and initial toxin concentration in maize grain (Mendez-Albores *et al.*, 2014). The impacts of different nixtamalization processes on AF and FB concentrations was reviewed by Schaarschmidt *et al.* (2019). Besides reduction in the free parent forms, nixtamalization can also cause modification, and/or binding or release of matrix-associated mycotoxins, but their toxicity has yet to be evaluated (De Girolamo *et al.*, 2016).

Detoxification

Preventive actions are not effective for fully avoiding mycotoxin contamination, so detoxification methods may still be necessary to recover contaminated commodities. These include the use of physical processes, or chemical and biological additives. The efficacy of these processes in reducing AFB1 was reviewed by Rushing et al., (2019). They reported a reduction range of AFB1 between 51 and 100% after thermal treatment at Ts between 150 and 200°C, and exposure times between 20 and 200 min. However, none of the reviewed studies were conducted on maize matrices, but were on other cereals (rice and wheat). Gbashi et al. (2019) examined decontamination effects of heating on maize flour, and demonstrated that AFs (AFB1, AFB2, AFG1) were completely degraded at 217°C for 35 min. Heat treatment is a low cost and simple approach for mitigating the presence of mycotoxins. However, thermal stability of mycotoxins requires the use of high Ts and long exposure times, which result in a significant impacts on grain quality factors.

Effects of UV or gamma irradiation have been reported in maize for AFB1 (Markov *et al.*, 2015) and FBs (Mansur *et al.*, 2014). Reductions of AFB1 by radiation were reported to range between 60 and 90% (Markov *et al.*, 2015).

Chemical treatments have included acidification, ammonization and ozonation, the latter has shown a decontamination rate of AFB1 in maize of 88% (Luo *et al.*, 2014).

Microbial degradation of mycotoxins in less-toxic products has been examined. These biological treatments include inoculation with *Bacillus* (Oluwafemi *et al.*, 2010; Noah Badr *et al.*, 2017) or yeast species (Verheecke *et al.*, 2016), and botanical extracts or enzymes from different biological sources (Karlovsky *et al.*, 2016), with reported reductions in mycotoxins of 60-100%. However, all the described methods are remain experimental, and have yet to be considered as practical management strategies for mycotoxin detoxification.

MODELLING, AND EFFECTS OF CLIMATE CHANGE

Mechanistic models, using weather data as inputs, can predict mycotoxin contamination during the maize growing season and at harvest. They provide valuable support to crop management in a whole food chain view aimed at minimizing mycotoxin contamination. Mechanistic models are available for the prediction of AF and FB occurrence in maize crops, based on actual weather data (Battilani et al., 2003; Maiorano et al., 2009; Battilani et al., 2013), but have not been developed for DON contamination. The impacts of cropping systems are yet to be included in these models. The models could be adapted for the post-harvest periods, but this has yet to be considered. Instead, risk maps have been drawn using historical meteorological data inputs to characterize the most common contamination in relevant geographic areas (Battilani and Camardo Leggieri, 2015).

Apart from seasonal prediction and risk maps, the interest in predictive models for mycotoxins contamination in crops is increasing to take account of climate change. At a global level, climate change is expected to have significant impacts on plant biogeography and fungal populations, with consequences on mycotoxin patterns, as confirmed with predictive approaches (Battilani *et al.*, 2016; van der Fels-Klerx *et al.*, 2016), and by field surveys in Europe (Piva *et al.*, 2006; Dobolyi *et al.*, 2013; Levic *et al.*, 2013). Uncertainties in climate

conditions and extreme events have been stressed, and also described as crucial at farm levels (Camardo Leggieri *et al.*, 2019), increasing the emerging risk of cooccurring mycotoxins. Predictive models have therefore become important, to address uncertainties and highlight risk conditions on a geographic basis. Predictive models are likely to be important tools in chain management for mycotoxin reduction as support for farmers, extension services and stakeholders. These willrationalize pre- and post-harvest crop and product management, and provide tools to policy makers for relevant strategic decisions.

CONCLUSIONS

This review has addressed Aspergillus and Fusarium species in maize, and provided an account of available strategies to mitigate the occurrence of AFs, FBs and DON in maize. Mycotoxin contamination with more than one congener, including modified mycotoxin forms, is an issue that needs further investigation, particularly regarding the consequences for human and animal health. A large body of literature exists on fungal growth and mycotoxin production, and on factors impacting plant-pathogen interactions. Research efforts to support the development of mycotoxin prevention strategies have resulted in sound mitigation methods, mainly at preharvest stages (Figure 3). Nevertheless, removal of mycotoxin contamination in maize cannot yet be foreseen, and further efforts are needed to increase the production of maize with mycotoxins below safe levels set by scientific advisory bodies. Key research areas that need further attention include:

- Management of maize genetic resistance, with particular focus on effectiveness towards all mycotoxin producing fungi;
- Increased understanding of plant-pathogen interactions and plant defense mechanisms, including the role of mycotoxins in maize-fungi cross-talk;
- Extension of biocontrol to Fusaria and pest control as sustainable approaches for mycotoxin mitigation;
- Improvement of the performance of predictive models, including investigating the impacts of cropping systems and of co-occurring fungi on model predictions;
- Prediction of future scenarios of mycotoxin occurrence as supporting tools for decision makers;
- Further development of alternative biological tools to be applied post-harvest, to improve safe storage or detoxification of contaminated grain and complete sustainable management of the maize value chain.



Figure 3. Crucial action in pre- and post-harvest management of maize to minimize mycotoxin contamination by *Aspergillus flavus* and *Fusarium vertcillioides*. Crop phenology is based on the BBCH scale edited by the Federal Biological Research Centre for Agriculture and Forestry.

Harmonized methodologies for human and animal health risk assessment have been recently developed (EFSA, 2019). Such methodologies need to be applied to multiple mycotoxins, using available co-occurrence data and comparative toxicity metrics, to investigate the potential impacts on human and animal health of multiple mycotoxins, in a range of crops including maize.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

R. Palumbo: literature review, paper writing. A. Gonçalves: literature review. A. Gkrillas: literature review. A. Logrieco: paper revision. J. L. Dorne: paper revision. C. Dall'Asta: paper writing and revision. A. Venâncio: conception and design, paper revision. P. Battilani: paper conception and design, paper coordination, revision, and final approval. All authors provided critical feedback and helped to shape the manuscript.

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