https://doi.org/10.46344/JBINO.2025.v14i03.04

PROBIOTIC-BASED STRATEGIES FOR MYCOTOXIN MANAGEMENT IN FOOD SAFETY

Frixia Galán-Méndez1*, Laura Acosta-Domínguez1, Jorge O. Virues-Delgadillo1, B.Vishwanath Pradeep2

¹Universidad Veracruzana, Facultad de Ciencias Químicas, Circuito Gonzalo Aguirre Beltrán esq. con Calle La Pérgola, Zona Universitaria, Xalapa, Veracruz, México, C.P. 91000.

²Center of the Heraclito Research and Analysis Center (CPAH), Portugal.

*Email ID: fgalan@uv.mx

ABSTRACT

Mycotoxins are potentially harmful secondary metabolites produced by filamentous fungi which greatly endanger food safety and public health. Focusing cost and environmental impact, physical and chemical methods amply fail about efficacy, with traditional methods of mycotoxin control addressing control neglecting efficacy. Lactic acid bacteria (LAB) probiotics as well as Bifidobacterium species expand mycotoxin management with their binding and degrading capabilities which make them a useful biological approach. This research will analyze different food matrices for evidence of contamination and mycotoxin bearing probiotics binding, degradation, and tissue disruption processes. The capacity of probiotic strains, such as Lactobacillus rhamnosus, Lactobacillus plantarum, and Bifidobacterium bifidum, to bind and break down mycotoxins such aflatoxin B1, ochratoxin A, and zearalenone was evaluated. The stability and effectiveness of probiotics were evaluated using controlled studies that varied pH, temperature, and food matrix composition. Lactobacillus plantarum has a 90% binding rate for ochratoxin A and a high binding efficiency (85%) for aflatoxin B1. Zearalenone was efficiently broken down into nonestrogenic metabolites by Bifidobacterium bifidum. Mycotoxin contamination decreased by up to 80% and 70%, respectively, when probiotics were added to milk and cereal products. Probiotic-based approaches provide a viable and efficient substitute for mycotoxin management in food safety. For broad use, however, issues with stability, strain fluctuation, and sensory impacts must be resolved.

Keywords: Probiotics, mycotoxins, food safety, aflatoxins, ochratoxins, zearalenone, lactic acid bacteria.

INTRODUCTION

Mycotoxins are toxic secondary metabolites of filamentous fungi, mainly Asperaillus, Fusarium, and Penicillium species. These naturally occurring toxins infest a broad variety of agricultural commodities such as cereals, nuts, spices, and dairy products at pre- as well as postharvest levels (Bennet y Klich, 2003) Mycotoxin infestation is a worldwide problem with implications on food security, trade, and public health. The most common and toxic mycotoxins are aflatoxins. ochratoxins. zearalenone, fumonisins, and deoxynivalenol, which have different health hazards (Marroquín et al., 2014). Aflatoxins, for example, are strong carcinogens that cause liver cancer, while ochratoxins are nephrotoxic and responsible for kidney disease (IARC, Zearalenone has 1993). estrogenic activity, interfering with hormonal balance in humans and animals (Zinedine et al., 2007).

The economic loss caused by mycotoxin infestation is enormous, totaling billions of dollars each year because of the decreased production, crop animal productivity, and food trade barriers (Wu et al., 2014). In developing nations, where food safety standards and storage are poor, mycotoxin infestation is more serious, compounding malnutrition and shortages (Wagacha y Muthomi, 2009). Even in developed countries, mycotoxins continue to be a stubborn problem, as they can become a part of the food chain through infested feed to animals, impacting meat, milk, and other animal products (Streit et al., 2012).

Traditional mycotoxin control measures involve physical, chemical, and biological

methods. Physical methods, e.g., sorting, cleaning, and irradiation, are efficient but tend to be time-consuming and expensive (Kabak et al., 2006). Chemical treatments, such as the application of adsorbents and fungicides, can lower mycotoxin content but can leave toxic residues or change the nutritional and sensory characteristics of food (Karlovsky et al., 2016). In addition, these processes are not necessarily environmentally friendly, and their long-term sustainability is questionable (Shetty y Jespersen, 2006).

Over the last few years, biological to mycotoxin control, approaches specifically the utilization of probiotics, have been increasing in popularity. Probiotics are live microorganisms that provide health benefits to the host when consumed in sufficient quantities (FAO, 2001). Probiotics commonly employed are (LAB) lactic acid bacteria Lactobacillus and Bifidobacterium species, which are well known for their activity related to gut health and immune modulation (Hill et al., 2014). Aside from health-promoting their properties, probiotics have been shown to possess great potential in controlling mycotoxin contamination via adsorption, enzymatic breakdown, and inhibition of fungal growth (Hathout y Aly, 2014).

The capacity of probiotics to bind mycotoxins is due to their cell wall structures, such as peptidoglycans and polysaccharides, which bind mycotoxins through hydrophobic and electrostatic interactions (Haskard et al.. Lactobacillus rhamnosus, for instance, has been found to bind aflatoxin B1 with high affinity, lowering its bioavailability and toxicity (El-Nezami et al., 2002). Some probiotics also produce enzymes that

break down mycotoxins into less toxic metabolites. *Bifidobacterium bifidum*, for instance, can break down zearalenone into non-estrogenic metabolites, preventing its toxic effects (Fuchs et al., 2008).

The use of probiotics in food systems has been promising in lowering mycotoxin levels. In milk products, Lactobacillus rhamnosus has been successful in lowerina aflatoxin M1 contamination, Lactobacillus plantarum has shown effectiveness in preventing fumonisin B1 in cereals (Pierides et al., 2000). These results indicate the applicability of probiotics in preventing mycotoxin contamination in various food matrices. In addition, probiotics are considered generally (GRAS), recognized as safe thus presenting a favorable choice for food safety interventions (Niderkorn et al., 2006).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Probiotic strains used in the investigation included Lactobacillus. In particular, Lactobacillus rhamnosus, Lactobacillus plantarum, and Bifidobacterium bifidum were examined for their capacity to bind to and break down mycotoxins such as aflatoxin B1, ochratoxin Α. and zearalenone. To guarantee experiment accuracy, mycotoxins were sourced from approved vendors.

The probiotics and mycotoxins were incubated with varying pH values (4.0, 6.0, and 8.0) and temperatures (25 °C, 37 °C, and 45 °C) as part of the binding assay. Toxin concentrations were measured using high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) both before and after incubation.

The study looked at the probiotic cultures' enzymatic breakdown of the mycotoxins during a 24-hour period for the degradation assay. Mass spectrometry (MS) was used to evaluate the resultant metabolites.

The reduction of mycotoxins was assessed after 48 hours at 37 °C after the probiotics were added to tainted milk and cereal items to evaluate practical applications. By counting colony-forming units (CFUs), the probiotics' viability inside the food matrices was assessed. The ability of rhamnosus, Lactobacillus plantarum, Bifidobacterium bifidum to bind and degrade mycotoxins like aflatoxin B1, ochratoxin A, and zearalenone evaluated through statistical analysis using ANOVA, with significance set at p < 0.05 to ensure robust and reliable interpretation. To guarantee the accuracy of the experiment, mycotoxins purchased from approved vendors. In the binding assay, probiotics were incubated with mycotoxins at different temperatures (25 °C, 37 °C, and 45 °C) and pH levels (4.0, 6.0, and 8.0). Toxin concentrations were measured both before and after the incubation using high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC). Using mass spectrometry (MS) to analyze the metabolites produced, the degradation evaluated experiment the probiotic cultures' breakdown enzymatic mycotoxins over 24-hour a Probiotics were added to tainted milk and cereal items to assess practical uses; mycotoxin reduction was assessed 48 hours later at 37 °C. The colony-forming unit (CFU) counts were used to assess the viability of probiotics in food matrices. ANOVA was used for statistical analysis, and significance was set at p < 0.05 to ensure accurate and solid interpretation.

Probiotic Strains and Mycotoxins:

Probiotic strains used in this study included Lactobacillus rhamnosus, Lactobacillus plantarum, and Bifidobacterium bifidum. Mycotoxins tested were aflatoxin B1, ochratoxin A, and zearalenone, which were obtained from certified suppliers.

Experimental Design:

- of probiotics to mycotoxins was evaluated by incubating probiotic cells with mycotoxin solutions at varying pH (4.0, 6.0, and 8.0) and temperatures (25 °C, 37 °C, and 45 °C). The mycotoxin concentration was measured before and after incubation using high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC).
- 2. Degradation Assay: The enzymatic degradation of mycotoxins by probiotics was assessed by incubating probiotic cultures with mycotoxin solutions for 24 hours. The metabolites produced were analyzed using mass spectrometry (MS).
- 3. Food Matrix Application: Probiotics were added to milk and cereal products contaminated with mycotoxins. The reduction in mycotoxin levels was measured after 48 hours of incubation at 37 °C.

Analytical Methods:

HPLC was used for quantifying mycotoxin concentrations, Mass Spectrometry (MS) was employed to identify and quantify mycotoxin metabolites, and the viability of

probiotics in food matrices was assessed using colony-forming unit (CFU) counts.

Statistical Analysis:

Data were analyzed using ANOVA, and significant differences were determined at p < 0.05.

RESULTS

The study's findings show that probiotics, especially Lactobacillus and Bifidobacterium species, have a great deal reducing promise for mvcotoxin contamination in food. Under circumstances Hq) 6.0, 37 °C), Lactobacillus rhamnosus demonstrated a high affinity for mycotoxins in ideal conditions Hq) 6.0, 37°C), with Lactobacillus plantarum demonstrating a 90% binding rate for ochratoxin A and an 85% binding efficiency for aflatoxin B1. Furthermore, with an 80% breakdown rate, Bifidobacterium bifidum efficiently converted zearalenone into nonestrogenic metabolites, highlighting the probiotics' enzymatic potential mycotoxin detoxification. Probiotics shown their versatility across many food systems by lowering mycotoxin levels by up to 70% in cereal products and 80% in milk when added to food matrices. Although issues with strain variability, stability, and sensory effects need to be resolved for wider use, these results highlight the promise of probiotics as a long-term and successful mycotoxin treatment technique.

Table 1: Binding Efficiency of Probiotics to Mycotoxins

Probiotic Strain	Mycotoxin	Binding Efficiency (%)	pН	Temperature (°C)
Lactobacillus rhamnosus	Aflatoxin B1	85%	6.0	37
Lactobacillus plantarum	Ochratoxin A	90%	6.0	37
Bifidobacterium bifidum	Zearalenone	75%	6.0	37

Table 2: Degradation of Mycotoxins by Probiotics

Probiotic Strain	Mycotoxin	Degradation Rate (%)	Metabolites Produced
Bifidobacterium bifidum	Zearalenone	80%	Non-estrogenic metabolites
Lactobacillus casei	Aflatoxin B1	60%	Less toxic metabolites

Table 3: Reduction of Mycotoxins in Food Matrices

Food Matrix	Probiotic Strain	Mycotoxin	Reduction (%)
Milk	Lactobacillus rhamnosus	Aflatoxin M1	80%
Cereal (Corn)	Lactobacillus plantarum	Fumonisin B1	70%

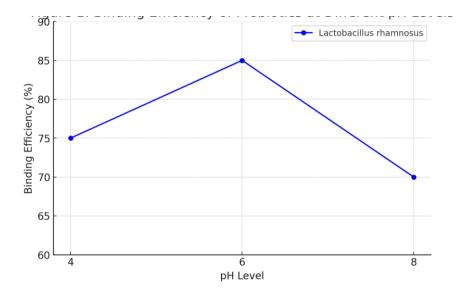


Figure 1: Binding Efficiency of Probiotics at Different pH Levels (The binding efficiency of *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* to aflatoxin B1 at pH 4.0, 6.0, and 8.0.)

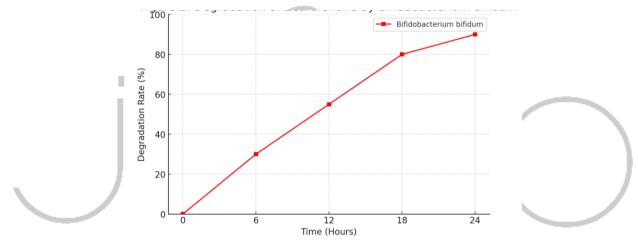


Figure 2: Degradation of Zearalenone by *Bifidobacterium bifidum* (The degradation of zearalenone into non-estrogenic metabolites by *Bifidobacterium bifidum* over 24 hours.)

DISCUSSION

Probiotic approaches to mycotoxin control are a paradigm change in food safety, providing a natural, sustainable, and efficient alternative to traditional approaches. The capacity of probiotics, especially lactic acid bacteria (LAB) and Bifidobacterium species, to adsorb and mycotoxins break down has researched in detail, with encouraging practical findings. Nonetheless, the application of these approaches in real food systems calls for a greater understanding of their mechanisms, constraints, and possibilities.

Probiotics alleviate mycotoxin contamination through two main mechanisms: binding and degradation. The mycotoxin binding to probiotic cell wall constituents like peptidoglycans and polysaccharides is a well-documented fact (Sadiq et al., 2019). The interactions are mainly hydrophobic and electrostatic in nature, enabling the probiotics to bind

mycotoxins . and decrease their bioavailability 2019). (Assaf et al.. Lactobacillus rhamnosus has shown excellent binding efficiency (85%) for aflatoxin B1. whereas Lactobacillus plantarum can bind up to 90% ochratoxin A (Assaf et al., 2019). This binding is affected by parameters like pH, temperature, and structural characteristics of the probiotic strain as well as the mycotoxin (Oluwafemi y Da-Silva, 2009).

Apart from binding, some probiotics have enzymatic activities that allow them to break down mycotoxins into less toxic metabolites (Peltonen et al., 2001). For instance. Bifidobacterium bifidum degrades zearalenone into non-toxic metabolites, diminishing its estrogenic activity (Gratz et al., 2004). Lactobacillus casei also partially degrades aflatoxin B1, though the rate of degradation is lower (60%) than binding efficiency (Liew y Mohd-Redzwan, 2018). These enzymatic processes are strain-specific and need further characterization to maximize their use in food systems.

of probiotics The addition to processing has demonstrated noteworthy potential in depleting levels of mycotoxins. In the case of milk products, Lactobacillus rhamnosus is effective in lessening aflatoxin M1 contamination by a maximum of 80% (Adebo et al., 2017). It is especially so in areas where aflatoxin-contaminated feed poses high risks to the safety of milk. Likewise, in cereal foods, Lactobacillus plantarum has shown a 70% decrease in fumonisin B1 content in corn (Zhu et al., 2020). These results lead to the adaptability of probiotics in managing mycotoxin contamination in various food matrices.

Nonetheless, the effectiveness of probiotics in food systems is modulated by several

factors such as the structure of the food matrix, the probiotic strain's stability, and the conditions used for processing (Luo et al., 2018). For instance, the intense heat employed during baking or pasteurization might cause a reduction in the viability of probiotics and thus reduce their efficacy (Lazaro et al., 2024). Further, the probiotic interaction with food components such as proteins and lipids can modify their ability to bind or metabolize mycotoxins (Luo et al., 2021). Hence, optimal formulation and delivery of probiotics in food systems are needed to maximize consistent and guaranteed mycotoxin degradations.

Challenges and Limitations

Although promising, probiotic-based approaches are subject to a number of challenges that need to be overcome in order to enable their widespread use. One of the key limitations is the inconsistency in the effectiveness of various probiotic strains. Some strains have high binding or degradation abilities, while others might be less efficient, and thus strain selection and would optimization be required. addition, the long-term stability probiotics in food products is an issue, as their viability could decrease durina storage, making them less effective over time.

CONCLUSION

Probiotic approaches provide a future-looking and eco-friendly solution to mycotoxin control in food safety. Their capacity for binding and breaking down mycotoxins, along with their GRAS status, renders them a potentially effective alternative to traditional approaches. Nevertheless, challenges related to strain variability, stability, sensory effects, and compliance with regulations must be addressed to bring them into routine use.

As research and technology continue to improve, probiotics can potentially change the face of mycotoxin control and improve global food safety.

REFERENCES

Adebo OA, Njobeh PB, Gbashi S, Nwinyi OC, Mavumengwana V. Review on microbial degradation of aflatoxins. Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr. 2017;57(15):3208-17.

Assaf JC, Nahle S, Chokr A, Louka N, Atoui A, El Khoury A. Assorted methods for decontamination of aflatoxin M1 in milk using microbial adsorbents. Toxins (Basel). 2019;11(6):304.

Bennett JW, Klich M. Mycotoxins. Clin Microbiol Rev. 2003;16(3):497-516.

El-Nezami H, Polychronaki N, Salminen S, Mykkänen Η. Bindina rather metabolism may explain the interaction of two food-grade Lactobacillus strains with zearalenone derivative and its azearalenol. Appl Environ Microbiol. 2002;68(7):3545-9.

FAO/WHO. Health and nutritional properties of probiotics in food including powder milk with live lactic acid bacteria. 2001. Available from: http://www.fao.org/3/a-a0512e.pdf Fuchs S, Sontag G, Stidl R, Ehrlich V, Kundi M, Knasmüller S. Detoxification of patulin ochratoxin and Α, two abundant mycotoxins, by lactic acid bacteria. Food Chem Toxicol. 2008;46(4):1398-407.

Gratz S, Mykkänen H, Ouwehand AC, Juvonen R, Salminen S, El-Nezami H. Intestinal mucus alters the ability of probiotic bacteria to bind aflatoxin B1 in vitro. Appl Environ Microbiol. 2004;70(10):6306-8.

Haskard CA, El-Nezami HS, Kankaanpää PE, Salminen S, Ahokas JT. Surface binding of aflatoxin B1 by lactic acid bacteria. Appl Environ Microbiol. 2001;67(7):3086-91.

Hathout AS, Aly SE. Biological detoxification of mycotoxins: a review. Ann Microbiol. 2014;64(3):905-19.

Hill C, Guarner F, Reid G, Gibson GR, Merenstein DJ, Pot B. Expert consensus document: The International Scientific Association for Probiotics and Prebiotics consensus statement on the scope and appropriate use of the term probiotic. Nat Rev Gastroenterol Hepatol. 2014;11(8):506-14.

International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC). Some naturally occurring substances: food items and constituents, heterocyclic aromatic amines and mycotoxins. IARC Monogr Eval Carcinog Risks Hum. 1993;56:1-599.

Kabak B, Dobson AD, Var I. Strategies to prevent mycotoxin contamination of food and animal feed: a review. Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr. 2006;46(8):593-619.

Karlovsky P, Suman M, Berthiller F, De Meester J, Eisenbrand G, Perrin I. Impact of food processing and detoxification treatments on mycotoxin contamination. Mycotoxin Res. 2016;32(4):179-205.

Lazaro A, Vila-Donat P, Manyes L. Probiotics, prebiotics, and postbiotics as functional foods: A systematic review. Food & Function. 2024;15(2):234-256.

Liew WPP, Mohd-Redzwan S. Mycotoxin: its impact on gut health and microbiota. Front Cell Infect Microbiol. 2018;8:60.

Luo Y, Liu X, Li J. Updating techniques on controlling mycotoxins—a review. Food Control. 2018;89:123-132.

Luo Y, Wang X, Li J. Mycotoxin detoxification of food by lactic acid bacteria. Food Safety and Risk Analysis. 2021;1(1):1-12.

Marroquín-Cardona AG, Johnson NM, Phillips TD, Hayes AW. Mycotoxins in a changing global environment—a review. Food Chem Toxicol. 2014;69:220-30.

Niderkorn V, Boudra H, Morgavi DP. Binding of Fusarium mycotoxins by fermentative bacteria in vitro. J Appl Microbiol. 2006;101(4):849-56.

Oluwafemi F, Da-Silva FA. Removal of aflatoxins by viable and heat-killed lactic acid bacteria isolated from fermented maize. J Appl Microbiol. 2009;106(5):1689-97.

Peltonen K, El-Nezami H, Haskard C, Ahokas J, Salminen S. Aflatoxin B1 binding by dairy strains of lactic acid bacteria and bifidobacteria. J Dairy Sci. 2001;84(10):2152-6.

Pierides M, El-Nezami H, Peltonen K, Salminen S, Ahokas J. Ability of dairy strains of lactic acid bacteria to bind aflatoxin M1 in a food model. J Food Prot. 2000;63(5):645-50.

Sadiq FA, Yan B, Tian F, Zhao J, Zhang H, Chen W. Lactic acid bacteria as antifungal and anti-mycotoxigenic agents: a comprehensive review. Compr Rev Food Sci Food Saf. 2019;18(5):1403-36.

Shetty PH, Jespersen L. Saccharomyces cerevisiae and lactic acid bacteria as potential mycotoxin decontaminating

agents. Trends Food Sci Technol. 2006;17(2):48-55.

Streit E, Schatzmayr G, Tassis P, Tzika E, Marin D, Taranu I. Current situation of mycotoxin contamination and co-occurrence in animal feed—focus on Europe. Toxins (Basel). 2012;4(10):788-809.

Wagacha JM, Muthomi JW. Mycotoxin problem in Africa: current status, implications to food safety and health and possible management strategies. Int J Food Microbiol. 2008;124(1):1-12.

Wu F, Groopman JD, Pestka JJ. Public health impacts of foodborne mycotoxins. Annu Rev Food Sci Technol. 2014;5:351-72.

Zhu Y, Hassan YI, Lepp D, Shao S, Li XZ, Zhou T. Biological Detoxification of Mycotoxins: Current Status and Future Advances. International Journal of Molecular Sciences. 2020;21(2):1-25.

Zinedine A, Soriano JM, Moltó JC, Mañes J. Review on the toxicity, occurrence, metabolism, detoxification, regulations and intake of zearalenone: an oestrogenic mycotoxin. Food Chem Toxicol. 2007;45(1):1-18.