Synergistic effect of *Pongamia pinnata* bark and *Tamarindus indica* fruit extract against aflatoxin producing fungi i.e. *Aspergillus flavus*

Harish Chandra^{1*}, O.P. Sidhu³, Jatin Srivastava⁴, Nishant Rai¹, Sachin Chauhan¹, Ajay Singh² and A.R. Nautiyal⁵

Department of Microbiology

Gayatri college of Biomedical Science, Ballupur Chowk, Dehradun

² Department of Chemistry

Gayatri college of Biomedical Science, Ballupur Chowk, Dehradun

³ National Botanical Research Institute (CSIR), Lucknow (U.P), India

⁴Dept. of Environmental Sciences, C.S.J.M. University, Kanpur

HAPTRC, HNB Garhwal Univ., Srinagar, Garhwal

Abstract

Aflatoxin is the most toxic of many naturally occuring toxins produced by fungi. Aspergillus flavus and Aspergillus parasiticus are the major casual organisms. These co-exist and grow on almost all crops. Pongamia pinnata (Karanj) and Tamarindus indica (Imli) and other tree species producing non edible oil were screened for their possible antifungal activity. Methanolic fraction were assayed to control the fungi and significant reduction in fungus growth was observed when applied synergistically than the individual plant extract. It was found that Combination of both extract were more effective than the individual extract when tested alone i.e 62% inhibition of fungal growth as comapared to Pongamia bark alone (33.20%) and Tamarindus indica alone (34.12%).

Keyword: Aflatoxin, Tamarindus indica, Pongamia pinnata.

Introduction

Aflatoxin are the secondary metabolite i.e. the metabolite not required during the growth of microorganism and it was mainly produced by the fungi Aspergillus flavus and Aspergillus parasiticus and in some cases by Aspergillus nomius. The most important group of toxigenic Aspergilli are the Aflatoxigenic molds, A. flavus, A. parasiticus and the recently described but much less common species A. nomius all of which are classified in Aspergillus section Flavi (Gams et al., 1985). Although these three species are closely related and shares many similarities a number of characteristics may be used in their differentiation. A. flavus is widely distributed in nature but A. parasiticus is less wide spread, the actual extent of its occurrence being complicated by the tendency for both species to be reported indiscriminately as A. flavus. In a wide ranging survey of the mycoflora of commodities in Thailand. A. flavus was the most common species in the peanut and second most common (after Fusarium moniliforme) in corn. A. nomius was reported from both commodities. Soyabeans, mung bean, sorghum and other commodities also contained considerable population of A. flavus but A. parasiticus.

A. flavus and A. parasiticus have strong affinity with nuts and oil seeds, corn, peanuts and cotton seed are the most important crops invaded by these mold and in many instances, invasion takes place before harvest not during storage. Peanuts are invaded while still in the ground if the crops suffer drought stress or related factor (Cole et al., 1982; Pitt et al., 1991; Sanders et al., 1981). In corn insect damage to developing kernels allow entry of Aflatoxigenic molds but invasion can also occur through the silks of developing

cars (Lilehoj et al., 1980) cotton seeds invaded through nectaries. (Klich et al, 1984). Cereals and spices are common substrate for A. flavus (Pitt et al, 1991), but aflatoxin production in these commodities is almost always a result of poor drying, handling or storage and aflatoxin levels are rarely significant.

Significant amount of aflatoxin can occur in peanuts, corn and other nuts and oil seeds particularly in some tropical countries where crops may be grown under marginal condition and where drying and storage facilities are limited.

A. flavus can produce Aflatoxin B_1 , B_2 and cyclopiazonic acid, but only a proportion of isolates are toxigenic. A. parasiticus produces Aflatoxin B_1 , B_2 , G_1 and G_2 but not cyclopiazonic acid, and almost all the isolate are toxigenic. A. nomius is morphologically similar to A. flavus, but like A. parasiticus produces B and G aflatoxin without cyclopiazonic acid. Because these species appear to uncommon, it has been little studied, so the potential toxigenicity of isolates is not known and practical importance of this species is hard to access.

There is an immense potential of active fractions from many biodiversity resources available in the country. The proposed study focuses on a systematic study with respect to antifungal potential of bioactive compounds of these resources in relation to fungal infestation and aflatoxin production in high risk groundnut, its oil and cake. Pongamia pinnata Pierre (Leguminosae) is commonly known as Karanja. It is distributed throughout Western Ghats and chiefly found in tidal forests of India (Krishnamurthi, 1969). Different parts of the plant have been used in traditional medicines for bronchitis, whooping cough, rheumatic joints and to quench dipsia in diabetes (Kirtikar et al., 1995). Previous phytochemical examination of this plant indicated the presence of furanoavones, furanoavonols, chromenoavones, avones, and furanodiketones (Talapatra et al., 1980,1982; Murty et al., 1944; Rangaswami et al., 1942; Sharma et al., 1973; Pathak et al., 1983; Toshiyuki et al., 1992). In the present communication, we describe the isolation and characterization of three new furano-.avonoid glucosides, pongamosides A-C (1-3), and anew .avonol glucoside pongamoside D (4). Tamarind (Tamarindus indica L.) belongs to the family Leguminaceae and grows naturally in many tropical and sub-tropical regions. In Thailand, two types of Tamarind are found in abundance, the so-called sweet and sour varieties. Tamarind is an important food resource for the Thai population. The flower and leaf are eaten as vegetables, while the germ obtained from the seed is used for manufacturing Tamarind gum, which is well known as a component of jelly (Phakruschaphan, 1982). Tamarind seeds are also reported to contain phenolic antioxidants, such as 2-hydroxy-30, 40dihydroxyacetophenone, methyl 3,4-dihydroxybenzoate, 3,4-dihydroxyphenyl acetate and epicatechin (Tsuda et al., 1994). Extracts exhibit antioxidant potential by reducing lipid peroxidation in vitro (Tsuda et al., 1993, 1994) and anti-microbial activity (De et al., 1999). Pumthong (1999) described the antioxidant activity of extracts of Tamarind pericarp, and reported the presence of mainly polymeric tannins and oligomeric procyanidins but these were not identified or quantitated. From this stand point it was of interest to compare the polyphenolic content in methanolic extracts of Tamarind pericarp and seeds, utilizing the methods of Owen et al. (2000a, 2003b).

Material and Methods

Collection and extraction of plant materials

Pongamia bark were collected from the campus of Banthara Research Station of National Botanical Research Institute (CSIR), Lucknow and Fruits of Tamarindus were purchased from the local market of

Lucknow. Pongamia bark were then air dried to a uniform moisture level. Fruits of *T. indica* obtained were extracted in methanol using Polytron homogenizer (PT 6100 KINEMETICA). Methanolic extracts collected by filtration (Whatman No. 1) were concentrated under vacuum at low temperature using Rotary Evaporator of Heidolph, Switzerland. The residue then dissolved in 15% ethyl alcohol to get the desired concentration for the activities.

Maintenance of fungal strains

The strain of Aspergillus flavus MTCC2799 were obtained from Microbial Type Culture Collection from IMTECH, Chandigarh. The culture was maintained at $4 \pm 1^{\circ}$ C on Slants of Potato Dextrose Agar (PDA)

Antifungal assay

Antifungal activity of *P.pinnata* and *T. indica* was tested against aflatoxin producing fungal strains of *A. flavus* obtained from IMTECH, Chandigarh, India.

Preparation of Inoculum

The spore suspension was prepared as described by Fan & Chen (1999). A. flavus was grown on PDA (HiMedia) slant for 5-7 days at $25\pm3^{\circ}$ C and the spore were harvested by adding 10 ml of sterile water and aseptically dislodging the spore with a sterile inoculating loop. This was diluted to obtain desired concentration of spore suspension.

Agar Well Diffusion Method

The Potato Dextrose Agar media (HiMedia) was cooled down up to 40-45 °C after autoclaving and added desired amount or concentration of plant extract. Shaked it very well and poured the media in Petriplates. After solidifying the media, three wells of 8mm diameter were made in each Petriplates. Without addition of plant extract were used as controls. 40 μ L of spore suspension contained 18 x 10⁴ spores mL⁻¹ of *A. flavus* were added to each wells and incubated at 28°C for 5 days. Fungal growth of both the treated and untreated control plates was measured at every 24 hrs for 5 days (Perea *et al.*, 1990).

The percentage of inhibition was calculated using the following formula (Rasooli et al., 2004)

$$I = C - T/C * 100$$

Where I = percentage inhibition

C = radial growth in control

T = radial growth in treatment

Result and Discussion

Production of toxin are linked to fungal growth and the environment in which the grains/ cereals are stored (especially Relative Humidity and Temperature). Fungal growth and subsequent mycotoxin product in stored grain can be inhibited by physical method (aeration, modified atmosphere, etc.) or by fungistatic of which is propionic acid, acetic acid and sorbic acid are the most common used (Paster et al., 1988). Report by several authors (Monzumi, 1978; Azzouz and Bullerman, 1982; Bahk and Marth, 1983; Bullerman et al., 1980; Yin & Cheng, 1998; Hitokoto et al., 1980) supports the fact that the extract of certain spices and herbs

of medicinal importance exhibit antifungal property. These natural antifungal agents can be potential exploited in controlling the growth of fungi consequently inhibiting aflatoxin formation (Yin and Cheng, 1998; Grayer & Harborne, 1994).

Methanolic extract of *Pongamia* bark were tested for their antifungal activity against aflatoxin producing fungi. Fungal growth was significantly reduced in all the treatments as compared to that of control. Antifungal activity varied significantly among different treatments (Table 1). Methanolic extract of bark inhibited fungal growth from 26.44% to 33.20%.

Different concentrations i.e 500ppm, 1000ppm, 1500ppm and 2000ppm of methanolic extract of tamarind fruits were tested for their efficacy against aflatoxin producing fungi. All the concentrations tested were found to decrease fungal growth as compared to that of control. Percentage inhibition of fungal growth ranged from 11.60 to 34.12% at 500ppm and 2000ppm concentration, respectively (Table2). Another experiment was also set to study the synergistic effect of both extract. Percentage inhibition of fungal growth ranged from 39.75 to 62.72% at 500ppm and 2000ppm concentration, respectively it was found that at 2000 ppm i.e percentage inhibition increased approximately 50 times higher than individual extract.

Table 1. Efficacy of bark of P. pinnata against aflatoxin producing fungal strain A. flavus

Plant parts used	Concentration (in ppm)	Radial dia in mm after 72 hrs	Percentage inhibition in %
Bark	Control	30.21 ± 1.436	8 6
	500	22.22 ± 0.780	26.44
	1000	21.78 ± 1.080	27.9
	1500	20.35 ± 0.800	32.6
	2000	20.18 ± 0.980	33.20

Table 2. Efficacy of polar fraction of Tamarindus indica against A. flavus.

Plant parts used	Concentration (ppm)	Radial dia in mm after 72 hrs	Percentage inhibition
Fruit	Control	30.21± 1.436	0
	500	26.70 ± 0.025	11.6
	1000	25.03 ± 0.095	17
	1500	23.13 ± 0.145	23.4
	2000	19.9 ± 0.295	34.12

Table.3 Combined effect of methanolic extract *Tamarindus* Fruit and *Pongamia* bark against aflatoxin producing *A. flavus*.

Plant parts used	Concentration (ppm)	Radial dia in mm after 72 hrs	Percentage inhibition in %
Fruit + Bark	Control	30.21± 1.436	0
	500	18.20 ± 0.010	39.75
	1000	16.13 ± 0.085	46.6
	1500	12.45 ± 1.055	58.78
	2000	9.75 ± 0.470	62.72

In conclusion, the present study reports the antifungal properties of *P. pinnata* and *T.indica* extracts, which can be commercially exploited and applied to foodsystems. Further studies are needed on the isolation and characterization of individual compounds to elucidate their different antifungal components.

References

- Gams, W., Christensen, M., Onions., A.H.S., Pitt, J.I. and Samson, R.A., 1985. Intrageneric taxa of *Aspergillus*. In: R.A. Samson and J.I. Pitt (Ed.). Advances in Penicillium and Aspergillus systematics. Plenum press, New York, NY.pp 55-62
- Pitt, J.I., Dyer, S.K. and Mc Cammon, S. (1991). Systemic invasion of developing peanut plants by Aspergillus flavus. Letter Appl. Microbial. 13: 16-20.
- Lillehoj, E.B., Kwolek, W.F., Horner, E.S., Wild strom, N.W., Josephson, L.M., Franz, A.O. and Catalano, E.A., 1980. Aflatoxin contamination of preharvest corn; role of Aspergillus flavus inoculum and insect damage. Cereal chemistry, 57: 255-257.
- Cole, R.J., Hill, R.A, Blankenship, P.D., Sanders, T.H.& Garren, H., 1982. Influence of irrigation and drought on invasion of *Aspergillus flavus* in corn kernel and peanut pods. *Dev. Ind. Microbiol.* 23: 299-326.
- Sanders, T.H., Hill R.A., Cole, R.J. and Blankenship, 1981. Effects of Drought on the occurrence of Aspergillus flavus in maturing peanuts. J. Am. Oil. Chem. Soc. 58: 966A-970A.
- Klich, M.A., Thomas, S.H. & Mellon, J.E., 1984. Field study on the mode of entry of *Aspergillus flavus* into cotton seeds. *Mycologia*. 76: 665-669.
- Perea, C, Paul, M. and Bazerque, P., 1990. Antibiotic assay by Agar well diffusion method. *Acta Biol Med. Exp.* 15: 113-115.
- Yin, M. C. and Cheng, W. S., 1998. Inhibition of Aspergillus niger and Aspergillus flavus by some herbs and spices. Journal of food Protection. 61: 123-125.
- Morozumi, S., 1978. Isolation, Purification and antibiotic activity of O- Methoxycinnm aldehyde from cinnamon. *Applied Environmental Microbiology*. 36: 577-583.

- Azzour, M. A. and Bullerman, L. B., 1982. Comparative antimycotic effects selected herbs, Spices, Plant components and commercial antifungal agent.s. *Journal of Food Protection*. 45: 1298-1301
- Bahk, J. and Marth, E. H., 1983. Aflatoxin production is inhibited by selected herbal drugs. *Mycopathologia*. 8:129-134.
- Bullerman, L. B., Lieu, F. Y. and Seier, S. A., 1977. Inhibition of growth and aflatoxin production by cinnamon and clove oils, cinnamic aldehyde and Eugenol. *Journal of Food Science*. 42: 1107 1109
- Hitokoto, H., Morozumi, S., Wanke, T., Sakai, S. and Kurata, H., 1980. Inhibitory effects of spice on growth and toxin production of toxigenic fungi. *Applied Environmetal Microbiology*. 39:818-822.
- Grayer, R.J. and Harborne, J.B., 1994. A survey of antifungal compounds from higher plants. *Phytochemistry*. 37:19-42.
- Fan, J. J. and Chen, J. H., 1999. Inhibition of aflatoxin producing fungi by Welsh onion extracts. *Journal of Food Protection*. 62:414-417.
- Paster, N., Juven, B.J. and Harshemesh, H., 1988. Antimicrobial activity and inhibition of aflatoxin B1 formation by olive plant tissue constituents. *Journal of Applied Bacteriology.* 64: 293-297.
- Owen, R.W., Giacosa, A., Hull, W.E., Haubner, R., Spiegelhalder, B. and Bartsch, H., 2000a. The antioxidant/ anticancer potential of phenolic compounds isolated from olive oil. *European Journal of Can*cer, 36:1235–1247.
- Owen, R.W., Giacosa, A., Hull, W.E., Haubner, R., Wurtele, G., Spiegelhalder, B. & Bartsch, H., 2000b. Olive oil consumption and health: the possible role of antioxidants. *Lancet Oncology* 1:107–112.
- Pumthong, G., 1999. Antioxidative activity of polyphenolic compounds extracted from seed coat of *Tamarindus indica* Linn. PhDThesis, Chiangmai University, Thailand.
- Tsuda, T., Osawa, T., Makino, Y., Kato, H.& Kawakishi, S., 1993. Screening for antioxidant activity of edible pulses. *Bioscientific Biotechnological Biochemistry*, 57:1606–1608.
- Tsuda, T., Watanabe, M., Ohshima, K., Yamamoto, A., Kawakishi & S., Osawa, T., 1994. Antioxidative components isolated from theseed of Tamarind (Tamarindus indica L.). Journal Agricultural and Food Chemistry, 42: 2671–2674.
- De, M., Krishna, D. A.& Baneerjee, A.B., 1999. Antimicrobial screening of some *Indian spices*. *Phytotherapy Research*, 13 (7), 616–618.
- Phakruschaphan, T., 1982. Comparison of peeling and extraction methods in the production of Tamarind seed gum. *The Kasetsart Journal of Natural Sciences*, 16 (2), 74–81.
- Krishanamurthi, A., 1969. The wealth of India. Vol VIII. Publication and Information Directorate, CSIR, New Delhi, India, pp 206.
- Kirtikar, K.R. and Basu, B.D., 1995. Indian Medicinal Plants, International Book Distributors, Dehradun, India, Vol.1, Second ed. Pp 830.
- Talapatra, S.K, Malik, A.K. and Talapatra, B., 1980. Pongaglabol, a new hydroxyfuranoflavone and aurantimide acetate, a dipeptide rom the flower of *Pongamia glabra*. *Phytochemistry*. 19: 1199-1202.

- Murthy, P.B.R. and Seshadri, T.R., 1944. Chemical examination of the flowers of *Pongamia glabra* and a note on the glycoside component of *Butea frondosa* flowers. **Proceeding of Indian Academy of sciences.** 20A, 279-291.
- Rangaswami, S., Rao, J.V. and Seshadri, T.R., 1942. Kanugin, a crystalline compound of the root of *Pongamia glabra*. Proceeding of Indian Academy of Sciences. 16A, 319-322.
- Sharma, P., Seshadri, T.R. and Mukerjee, S.K., 1973. Some synthetic and Natural analogues of *Glabra chromene*. *Indian journal of Chemistry*.11: 965-986.
- Pathak, V.P, Saini, T.R. and Khanna, R.N., 1983. *Glabra chalcone* a chromenochalcone from *Pongamia glabra*. Proceeding of Indian Academis of Sciences. 16A, 319-322.
- Tosiyuki, T., Munekaza, I, Kaone, y., Yuku, F., and Mizuo, M., 1992. Flavonoids in root bark of *Pongamia pinnata*. *Phytochemistry*. 31 (3): 993-998.
- Rasooli, I. & Abyaneh, M.R., 2004. Inhibitory effect of Thymes oil on the growth and Aflatoxin production by Aspergillus parasiticus. Food Control. 15: 479-483.