

A CUP OF TEA: TRANSFER OF MYCOTOXINS FROM SPIKED MATRIX INTO INFUSION

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Mycotoxin

AFL B1

AFL B2

AFL G1

AFL G2

STC

OTA

MPA

ZEA

FB1

FB2

T-2

ALT

TTX

AOH

AME

ENN BDW

ENN A

HT-2

DONNMW

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Camellia sinensis and herbal tea are daily basic food products. In general, their consumption depends on traditions, occupation and age. Turkey, Libya, Morocco, Ν Ireland and the UK demonstrate the highest per capita consumption, China, the Russian Federation, Japan and India are in the list of the most important consuming Т countries [1]. Estimates of average chronic daily intake per capita are: 446 mL (C. sinensis black tea; all population; the RF) [2]; 124 mL (C. sinensis tea) and 61 mL R ("herbal and other non-tea infusions"; all adults; the EU) [3].

0 Recent surveys reveal occurrence of AFLs, and STC up to dozens of $\mu g/kg$; OTA, ZEA and FBs – up to hundreds $\mu g/kg$; DON, MPA and Alternaria toxins – up to D several mg/kg in these kinds of foods [4-12]. Regulations concern mainly AFLs and OTA: maximum level (ML) was set in the RF for AFL B1 in tea (5 µg/kg), in Argentina for AFL B1 and AFLs (5 and 20 µg/kg correspondingly), in Japan, China, Sri Lanka and India in the category "all foods" [13]. AFLs and OTA are regulated by U the EU in ginger, liquorice root and extracts. MLs for AFLs in herbal drugs were set by European Pharmacopeia, while herbal teas and food supplements are not C subjected to control (except mentioned above selected species) [12]. Risk assessments for mycotoxins in beverages are traditionally carried out basing on their T concentration in dry matrix. Meanwhile, input is due to infusion only. The present study was aimed at evaluation of transfer rate of mycotoxins.

Ι

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Model: two grams of spiked C. sinensis green tea "clean" matrix were infused with 100 mL of water heated to 99.9°C for 30 minutes

Studied factors: mycotoxins chemical and physical properties; water characteristics (hardness and pH)

M E	Micromycetes	Mycotoxins/spiking level, µg/kg:	Water	TDS*, mg/L	pН	Detection	
Τ	<i>Aspergillus</i> spp. <i>Penicillium</i> spp.	AFLs (B1, B2, G1, G2), OTA – 80; STC -200; MPA – 6,000;	Distilled (DW) Deep-well (DW-W)	4.4	3-9	HPLC-MS/MS with HESI+ DON, ENNs and BEA	
H O	<i>Fusarium</i> spp.	DON – 10,000; ZEA – 1,000; T-2, HT-2 – 800; FB1, FB2* – 400;	Natural mineral	155	(8 points with a	Titan C18, 100 × 2.1 mm, 1.9 μm ACN gradient	
D S	Alternaria spp.	ENN B, ENN A, BEA – 2,000; TTX – 200; ALT – 1,000; AOH, AME – 2,000	water (NMW)	238	unit step)	<u>Other studied mycotoxins</u> Ascentis Express F5, 100 × 3.0 mm	
3	* - may be produced by Aspergillus spp. also		* - water hardness: total dissolved solids			2.7 μm; MeOH gradient	

Details: sample preparation: centrifugation of infusion; three replicates for each point (TDS, pH), quantification using "matrix-matched" calibration

Water characteristics: TDS and pH*



Mycotoxins characteristics: acidic/basic properties and polarity





BEA	neutral	18.8 ²	8.4	<5**

[1] PubChem DataBase (for neutral molecules); [2] Lauwers M., et al. DOI: 10.3390/toxins11030171; [3] Tolgyesi A., et al. DOI: 10.1080/19440049.2015.1072644; * - transfer is pH-dependent; ** - was not quantified in infusions (maximum transfer evaluated using LOQ).

Highlighted blue - transfer is pH-dependent; green – TDS affects transfer rate; all others – polarity is decisive factor

Transfer from naturally contaminated herbal tea samples: STC – 7-13%, OTA – 83%, MPA – 23-96%, ZEA – 30%, TTX – 59-84%; AOH – 28-61%, AME – 11%, ENN A, ENN B < 0.03%, BEA – 0.3-0.4% [14]

CONCLUSIONS within the	$\frac{\text{polarity}}{\text{infusion pH}(\text{compounds with} - \text{COOH})}$, % > 60% kins DON, T-2, HT-2	<20% ZEA, STC, AOH,	pH-dependent OTA, MPA, FB2
studied model	rate , % TDS (not significant for the most of studied mycotoxins)	ALT, TTX, FB1	AME, ENNs, BEA	

References: [1] FAO, 2018. CCP:TE 18/2, Emerging trends in tea consumption among Russian population (in Russian). Voprosi pitanija, 2005. 74(3): p. 42-46; [3] EFSA: Comprehensive European Food Consumption Database; [4] Mannani N., et al., DOI: 10.1016/j.foodcont.2019.106882; [5] Pakshir K., et al., DOI: 10.1155/2020/2456210; [6] Cui P., et al., DOI: 10.1016/j.foodcont.2019.106882; [5] Pakshir K., et al., DOI: 10.1155/2020/2456210; [6] Cui P., et al., DOI: 10.1016/j.foodcont.2019.106882; [5] Pakshir K., et al., DOI: 10.1155/2020/2456210; [6] Cui P., et al., DOI: 10.1016/j.foodcont.2019.106882; [5] Pakshir K., et al., DOI: 10.1155/2020/2456210; [6] Cui P., et al., DOI: 10.1016/j.foodcont.2019.106882; [5] Pakshir K., et al., DOI: 10.1155/2020/2456210; [6] Cui P., et al., DOI: 10.1016/j.foodcont.2019.106882; [5] Pakshir K., et al., DOI: 10.1155/2020/2456210; [6] Cui P., et al., DOI: 10.1016/j.foodcont.2019.106882; [5] Pakshir K., et al., DOI: 10.1155/2020/2456210; [6] Cui P., et al., DOI: 10.1016/j.foodcont.2019.106882; [5] Pakshir K., et al., DOI: 10.1155/2020/2456210; [6] Cui P., et al., DOI: 10.1016/j.foodcont.2019.106882; [7] Pakshir K., et al., DOI: 10.1155/2020/2456210; [6] Cui P., et al., DOI: 10.1016/j.foodcont.2019.106882; [7] Pakshir K., et al., DOI: 10.1016/j.foodcont.2019.106882; [7] Pakshir K., et al., DOI: 10.1155/2020/2456210; [6] Cui P., et al., DOI: 10.1016/j.foodcont.2019.106882; [7] Pakshir K., et al., DOI: 10.1155/2020/2456210; [6] Cui P., et al., DOI: 10.1016/j.foodcont.2019.106882; [7] Pakshir K., et al., Pakshir K., 10.1016/j.fct.2020.111830; [7] Ye Z., et al., DOI: 10.1016/j.envpol.2020.114180; [8] Reinholds I., et al., DOI: 10.21668/health.risk/2020.1.04.eng; [10] Qin Lu et al., DOI: 10.1080/21501203.2020.1727578; [11] Chen L., et al., DOI: 10.3390/toxins12010030; [12] Altyn I., et al., DOI: 10.3390/toxins12030182; [13] Uarte S.C., et al., DOI: 10.3390/toxins12030182; [13] Sedova I., et al., DOI: 10.3390/toxins10110444; [14] Kiseleva M., et al., Mycotoxins in herbal tea: transfer into the infusion., 2021, WMJ, in press