ORIGINAL PAPER

Effect of essential oil from fresh leaves of *Ocimum* gratissimum L. on mycoflora during storage of peanuts in Benin

Euloge S. Adjou • Sandrine Kouton • Edwige Dahouenon-Ahoussi • Mohamed M. Soumanou • Dominique C. K. Sohounhloue

Received: 7 July 2012 / Revised: 13 October 2012 / Accepted: 16 October 2012 / Published online: 9 November 2012 © Society for Mycotoxin Research and Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg 2012

Abstract The aim of this study was to evaluate the effect of essential oil from fresh leaves of Sweet Fennel (Ocimum gratissimum) on mycoflora and Aspergillus section Flavi populations in stored peanuts. Aspergillus, Fusarium and Mucor spp. were the most common genera identified from peanuts at post-harvest in Benin by using a taxonomic schemes primarily based on morphological characters of mycelium and conidia. The isolated fungi include Aspergillus niger, A. parasiticus, A. flavus, A. ochraceus, Fusarium graminearum, F. solani, F. oxysporum and Mucor spp. The most prevalent fungi recorded were A. niger (94.18 %), A. flavus (83.72 %), A. parasiticus (77.90 %), A. ochraceus (72.09 %), F. graminearum (59.30 %) and F. oxysporum (51.16 %). Antifungal assay, performed by the agar medium assay, indicated that essential oil exhibited high antifungal activity against the growth of A. flavus, A. parasiticus, A. ochraceus and F. oxysporium. The minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC) of the essential oil was found to be 7.5 µl/ml for A. flavus and A. parasiticus and 5.5 µl/ml for A. ochraceus and F. oxysporium. The minimal fungicidal concentration (MFC) was recorded to be 8.0 µl/ml for A. flavus and A. parasiticus, 6,5 µl/ml for A. ochraceus and 6.0 µl/ml for F. oxysporium. The essential oil was found to be strongly

E. S. Adjou · S. Kouton · E. Dahouenon-Ahoussi ·
M. M. Soumanou (⊠) · D. C. K. Sohounhloue
Laboratory of Research and Study in Applied Chemistry,
Polytechnic School of Abomey-Calavi,
University of Abomey-Calavi,
01 P.O.B: 2009, Cotonou, Benin
e-mail: mohamed.soumanou@epac.uac.bj

M. M. Soumanou e-mail: msoumanoufr@yahoo.fr fungicidal and inhibitory to aflatoxin production. Chemical analysis by GC/MS of the components of the oil led to the identification of 31 components characterized by myrcene (6.4 %), α -thujene (8.2 %), p-cymene (17.6 %), γ -terpinene (20.0 %), and thymol (26.9 %) as major components. The essential oil of Sweet Fennel, with fungal growth and mycotoxin inhibitory properties, offers a novel approach to the management of storage, thus opening up the possibility to prevent mold contamination in stored peanuts.

Keywords Essential oil $\cdot O$ cimum *gratissimum* \cdot Aflatoxin \cdot Fungi and peanuts \cdot Benin

Introduction

Fungal deterioration of stored seeds and grains is a main problem in the storage system in Benin. Harvested seeds are colonized by various species of *Aspergillus*, under conditions leading to deterioration and mycotoxin production (Reddy and Raghavender 2007). Among the mycotoxins, aflatoxin B1 (AFB₁) is the most toxic form for mammals and presents hepatotoxic, teratogenic and mutagenic properties, causing damage such as toxic hepatitis, hemorrhage, edema, immunosuppression, and hepatic carcinoma (Magan et al. 2004).

Peanuts (*Arachis hypogaea*) are one of the most important food and oilseed crops cultivated and utilized in most parts of the world. They are widely accepted as an excellent source of nutrition due to their high protein content. The seed has several applications such as peanut butter, oil, and other products (Yaw et al. 2008).

In Benin, peanuts are an important legume and are eaten with boiled maize to reduce the impact of hunger during the lean season when most foodstuffs are in short supply (Honfo et al. 2010). Extracting oil from peanuts provides an income for women and their dependants in a small-scale cottage industry (Bankole et al. 2005). However, the structure and chemical composition of peanuts allows the growth of several fungal species. This contamination occurrs before and during harvesting, as well as during storage (Mutegi et al. 2009).

To overcome these problems, the usual practice is to fumigate or treat the stored commodities using different synthetic preservatives. However, most of the synthetic chemicals used during post-harvest treatment of food commodities are novel man-made xenobiotics. Hence, most of the synthetic antimicrobials are not easily biotransformed into simpler forms and, as a result, remain in the food chain for longer periods, causing adverse effects to different mammalian systems through residual toxicities (Moosavy et al. 2008).

There is considerable on-going research on methods to prevent pre-harvest contamination of crops. These approaches include developing host resistance through plant breeding and through enhancement of antifungal genes by genetic engineering and targeting regulatory genes in mycotoxin development (Brown et al. 2001). However, none of these methods has solved the problem (Atanda et al. 2012). Methods for managing mycotoxins are largely preventive. They include good agricultural practices, sufficient drying of crops after harvest, and also knowledge about fungal sources and their control is needed (Lisker and Lillehoj 1991).Several strategies have been investigated for lowering mycotoxin contamination of foods at post-harvest, which can be divided into natural, biological, chemical, and physical methods. However, restrictions imposed by the food industry and regulatory agencies on the use of some synthetic food additives have led to renewed interest in searching for alternatives, such as natural antimicrobial compounds, particularly those from plants (Hammer et al. 1999).

Essential oils (EOs) as well as derived compounds possess a wide range of activities of which the antimicrobial activity is most studied (Hammer et al. 2003; Adjou et al. 2012a, b). Their applications as preservatives in food or antiseptics and disinfectants have been widely investigated (Yehouenou et al. 2010). The biological activities of EOs depend on the qualitative and quantitative characteristics of their components, which are affected by the plant genotype, plant chemotype, organ of plant, geographical origin, season, environmental, agronomic conditions, extraction method, and storage conditions of plants and the EOs (Suhr and Nielsen 2003). The importance of alternative indigenous products to control phytopathogenic fungi is urgently needed (Bankole 1997).

Plants belonging to Lamiaceae family like Sweet Fennel (*Ocimum gratissimum* Linn.) have retained the attention of researchers, not only because of their high diversity and their distribution around the world but also for their variable

use as popular medicines to treat diseases. Several studies have revealed the antimicrobial and fungicidal activities of *O. gratissimum* (Nguefack et al. 2009; Kpadonou-Kpoviessi et al. 2012).

Ethnobotanic studies and preliminary surveys revealed that plant leaves are also used to preserve food. For this, fresh leaves are introduced into grain barns to preserve stored cowpea and maize from insect and fungal damage (Illiassa 2004). The present work aims to evaluate the effects of EO extracted from fresh leaves of *O. gratissimum* on the mycelial growth and aflatoxin production by strains of *Aspergillus parasiticus* and *A. flavus* isolated from peanuts at post-harvest in Benin.

Materials and methods

Collection of plant leaves

Plant materials used for EO extraction were fresh leaves from *Ocimum gratissimum* L. Plants were collected at Abomey-calavi (south Benin) and identified at the Benin national herbarium, where voucher specimens are deposited (AA 6430/HNB).

Essential oil extraction

The EO tested was extracted by the hydro-distillation method using Clevenger-type apparatus. The oil recovered was dried over anhydrous sodium sulfate and stored at 4 °C until it was used (de Billerbeck et al. 2001).

Gas chromatography-mass spectrometry analysis

The EO were analyzed by gas chromatography (PerkinElmer Auto XL GC; Waltham, MA, USA) equipped with a flame ionisation detector, and the GC conditions were EQUITY-5 column (60 m x 0.32 mm x 0.25 μ m); H₂ was the carrier gas; column head pressure 10 psi; oven temperature programme isotherm 2 min at 70 °C, 3 °C/min gradient 250 °C, isotherm 10 min; injection temperature, 250 °C; detector temperature 280 °C. Gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS) analysis was performed using a Perkin Elmer Turbomass GC-MS. The GC column was EQUITY-5 (60 m x 0.32 mm x 0.25 µm); fused silica capillary column. The GC conditions were injection temperature, 250 °C; column temperature, isothermal at 70 °C for 2 min, then programmed to 250 °C at 37 °C/min and held at this temperature for 10 min; ion source temperature, 250 °C. Helium was the carrier gas. The effluent of the GC column was introduced directly into the source of MS and spectra obtained in the EI mode with 70 eV ionisation energy. The sector mass analyzer was set to scan from 40 to 500 amu for 2 s. The identification of individual compounds is based on their retention times, retention indices relative to C_5-C_{18} n-alkanes, and matching spectral peaks available in the published data (Adams 2007).

Collection of peanut samples

A total of 86 samples (each 500 g) of peanut in shell samples were purchased from street hawkers, markets and retail shops in the different locality of peanut production in Benin (*Avrankou*, *Adjarra*, *Pahou*, *Ouidah*, *Bohicon*, *Glazoué*, *Savalou*, *Wèssè*, *Kèrè*, *Dassa*, *Banigbé*, *Bassila*, *Pira*, *Natitingou*, *Takissari*, *Tchoudigou*). The samples were purchased from five different points in each locality, except in *Bohicon* and *Savalou* where eight collection points were investigated, because these two localities were the major peanut production localities in Benin. Each sample was shelled in a sterile flow bench to obtain the peanut seeds which were kept at 4 °C until fungal enumeration.

Preparation of media

Three different media were used in this study: Potato Dextrose Agar (PDA) for isolation of toxigenic fungi, Yeast Extract Sucrose Agar (YES) for testing antifungal potential of essential oil, and the conventional Dessicated Coconut Agar medium (DCA) for the detection and visualization of aflatoxin production. PDA and YES was prepared as described by Nguyen (2007). DCA was prepared by modification of the method of Davis et al. (1987) as reported by Atanda (2005), as follows: 200 g of desiccated coconut were soaked in 1 L of hot distillated water for 30 min and filtered through four layers of cheese cloth. Two percent of bacteriological agar was added to the filtrate and heated to boiling. The media was then sterilized at 121 °C for 15 min.

Fungal isolation and identification

The samples were examined by the direct plating technique described by Pitt et al. (1994). One hundred peanut seeds per sample were surface disinfected in 0.4 % active chlorine solution for 1 min at room temperature. Then, they were placed directly on Yeast Extract Sucrose Agar medium (YES). Plates were incubated at 25 °C for 5 to 7 days. This method permits recovery of the fungi actually growing in the particles. The dilution plating method was also used in other to recovery of the fungi growing on the particles as described by Nguyen (2007). Fungi that developed were purified by repeated subcultures. Pure cultures of fungi were examined macroscopically and microscopically and their identification was carried out by using a taxonomic schemes primarily based on morphological characters using the methods given by Singh et al. (1991), Filtenborg et al. (1995), and Tabuc (2007). After identification, the frequency of fungi was recorded. The isolates of Aspergilla were collected and maintained on YES at 4 °C, until examination for their aflatoxigenic potential.

Toxinogenic potential assay

The aflatoxinogenic potential of Aspergilla strains isolated from the peanuts was investigated using DCA medium according to the method described by Atanda et al. (2011) as follows: about 20 ml of DCA medium were poured into glass Petri dishes. Care was taken to avoid trapping air bubbles in the media. Each Petri dish was inoculated with 40 µl of spore suspension of A. flavus, A. parasiticus, A. ochraceus, or Aspergillus spp. Each spore suspension was harvested by adding 10 ml of sterile distilled water to cultures of fungi maintained on YES at 4 °C. The inoculated plates were incubated at 30 °C for 48 h. Thereafter, the plates were examined with some media characteristics. The reverse side of each plate, which consisted of a single large colony, was observed daily for 8 days at 25 °C under long wave (365 nm) UV light in a dark cabinet to verify the presence of a blue/blue green fluorescence ring which indicates the presence of aflatoxins (Sultan and Magan 2010; Atanda et al. 2011).

Antifungal assay

Antifungal assay was performed by the agar medium assay (de Billerbeck et al. 2001). Yeast Extract Sucrose (YES) medium with different concentrations of EO (5.0, 5.5, 6.0, 6.5, 7.0, 7.5, or 8.0 μ L/mL) were prepared by adding appropriate quantity of EO and Tween 20 to melted medium, followed by manual rotation of Erlenmeyer to disperse the oil in the medium. About 20 ml of the medium were poured into glass Petri dishes (9 cm). The molds (*A. flavus*, *A. parasiticus*, *A. ochraceus*, or *F. oxysporium*) grown on YES for 48 h are transplanted (subcultured), using a disc of 6 mm in diameter which carries spores from the anamorph

Table 1 Fungi isolated from peanuts in Benin

Fungi	NCI	Occurrence (%)
Aspergillus niger	81	94.18
Aspergillus flavus	72	83.72
Aspergillus parasiticus	67	77.90
Aspergillus ochraceus	62	72.09
Fusarium graminearum	51	59.30
Fusarium oxysporum	44	51.16
Fusarium solani	31	36.04
Aspergillus oryzae	27	31.39
Mucor spp.	16	18.60
Aspergillus spp.	3	3.48
Fusarium spp.	1	1.16

NCI Number of cases of isolation out of 86 samples

Items	Aspergillus strains isolated from peanut							
	A.flavus A.parasiticus		A.ochraceus	Aspergillus spp.				
Number of cases of isolation from 86 samples	72	67	62	3				
Number of cases exhibited fluorescence under UV light	65	62	00	00				
Percentage of toxinogenic fungi (%)	90.27	92.53	00	00				
Percentage of non-toxinogenic fungi (%)	9.73	7.47	100	100				
Ratio of producing/non producting fungi	9.27	12.38	00	00				

Table 2 Aflatoxinogenic assay of Aspergillus strains isolated from peanuts during storage

mold, on the surface of a Petri dish containing the former medium YES and EO at different concentrations. Control plates (without essential oil) were inoculated following the same procedure. Plates were incubated at 25 °C for 8 days and the mycelial growth was appreciated every day by measuring the average of two perpendicular diameters passing by the middle of the disc (Khallil 2001; Yehouenou et al. 2012). The percentage inhibition (PI) of fungal growth was evaluated by the following equation: $PI = [1- (d/dc)] \times 100$ (Kumar et al. 2007), where d is the diameter of growth zone in the test plate, and dc the diameter of growth zone in the control plate (Petri dish without essential oil).

Determination of the fongiostatic or fungicidal activity

With the experimental concentrations where neither growth nor germination was observed, the fungiostatic or fungicidal activity was tested. This assay consisted by taking the mycelial disc not germinated at the end of the incubation of the Petri dish and reintroducing it in a new culture medium (former one) without essential oil. If the mycelial growth is always inhibited, the plant extract is fungicidal at this concentration and allows the determination of the Minimal Fungicide Concentration (MFC). In the contrary case, it becames fungiostatic activity which is related to the Minimal Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) (Yehouenou et al. 2012)

Antifungal activity of the oil compared to the *Nystatine* fungicide assay

The disk diffusion method was used as described by Yin and Tsao (1999). Filter paper disks (6 mm diameter) containing 5.0 μ L of the crude EO of *O. gratissimum* were applied on the surface of the Yeast Extract Sucrose (YES) medium plates previously inoculated at surface with 0.1 mL of spore suspension of fungi strains *A. flavus*, *A. parasiticus*, *A. ochraceus* or *F. oxysporium*. The inoculated plates were incubated at 25 °C for 5 days. At the end of the period, antifungal activity was evaluated by measuring the zone of inhibition (mm) against the tested fungi. The fungicide Nystatine disc (Bio Merieux) was used as a positive control.

All treatments consisted of three replicates, and the averages of the experimental results were determined.

 Table 3
 Major components identified as constituents of essential oil of

 Ocimum gratissimum from Benin

Constituents	IR	Percentage
α-thujene	992	8.2
α-pinene	934	1.2
Camphene	948	0.3
β-pinene	974	0.7
Myrcene	985	6.4
α-phellendrene	997	0.5
α-terpinene	1,011	4.2
p-cymene	1,018	17.6
Limonene	1,024	2.5
1,8-cineole	1,025	2.1
(E)-β-ocimene	1,041	0.3
γ-terpinene	1,054	20.0
p-cyménene	1,077	2.2
Terpinolene	1,085	0.1
Linalol	1,091	0.2
Borneol	1,160	0.2
terpinen-4-ol	1,180	1.2
p-cymen-8-ol	1,185	0.2
α-terpineol	1,188	0.1
thymol méthylether	1,235	0.3
Thymol	1,281	26.9
Carvacrol	1,288	0.7
α-copaene	1,370	0.1
β-caryophyllene	1,417	1.2
trans-a-bergamotene	1,429	0.1
α-humulene	1,449	0.2
germacrene D	1,478	0.1
β-selinene	1,485	0.4
α-selinene	1,592	0.2
δ-cadinene	1,515	0.1
oxyde of caryophyllene	1,611	0.2
Total		99.0

RI Retention index (KI)

Days	Essential oil of Ocimum gratissimum									
	5.0 µl/ml	5.5 µl/ml	6.0 µl/ml	6.5 µl/ml	7.0 µl/ml	7.5 μl/ml	8.0 µl/ml			
1	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a			
2	9.1±0.04 b	7.5±0.06 b	7.2±0.01 b	6.6±0.01 b	$6.0{\pm}0.00$ a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a			
3	18.6±0.04 c	12.4±0.01 c	10.5±0.09 c	7.3±0.08 c	6.9±0.02 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a			
4	32.8±0.02 d	27.3±0.08 d	21.6±0.02 d	11.3±0.07 d	10.2±0.07 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a			
5	50.7±0.06 e	41.3±0.09 e	33.7±0.06 e	19.1±0.04 e	11.6±0.09 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a			
6	$68.6 {\pm} 0.08 {\rm f}$	52.1±0.04 f	46.3±0.01 f	28.2±0.05 f	14.4±0.06 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a			
7	74.2±0.05 g	61.5±0.08 g	54.8±0.06 g	35.8±0.02 g	16.0±0.04 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a			
8	84.8±0.04 h	79.3±0.02 h	$64.9 {\pm} 0.07$ h	43.7±0.06 h	21.6±0.03 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a			

Diameter of 6 mm is the inoculation point. Values (mm) are mean $(n=3) \pm SE$. The means followed by same letter in the same column are not significantly different according to ANOVA and Tukey's multiple comparison tests

In vitro antiaflatoxin assay

Antiaflatoxin assay was performed using DCA medium and the method described by Tatsadjieu et al. (2009) and Adjou et al. (2012a, b). DCA medium with different concentrations of EO (5.0, 5.5, 6.0, 6.5, or 7 μ l/ml) were prepared by adding an appropriate quantity of essential oil and Tween 20 to the melted medium, followed by manual rotation to disperse the oil in the medium. About 20 ml of the medium were poured into glass Petri dishes. Care was taken to avoid trapping air bubbles in the media. Each Petri dish was inoculated with spore suspension of aflatoxinogenic strains, A. flavus and A. parasiticus, isolated from peanuts and incubated at 30 °C for 8 days. Control plates (without EO) were inoculated following the same procedure. Thereafter, the plates were examined with some media characteristics. The reverse side of each plate, which consisted of a single large colony, was observed under long wave (365mn) UV light for blue/blue green fluorescence each day (Nguyen 2007; Atanda et al. 2011).

Statistical analysis

Experiments were performed in triplicate, and data analyzed are means \pm SE subjected to one-way Anova. Means are separated by the Tukey's multiple range test when Anova was significant (*P*<0.05) (SPSS 10.0; Chicago, IL, USA).

Results

The result of microbial analysis and isolation of fungi in pure culture revealed that peanut samples collected from street hawkers, markets and retail shops were highly contaminated by fungi (Table 1). Fungal isolates include *A. niger, A. parasiticus, A. flavus, A. ochraceus, F. solani, F.oxysporum* and *Mucor* spp. The most prevalently fungi recorded are *A. niger* (94.18), *A. flavus* (83.72 %), *A. parasiticus* (77.90 %), *A. ochraceus* (72.09 %), *F. graminearum* (59.30 %). and *F. oxysporum* (51.16 %).

Table 5 Aspergillus parasiticus colony diameters recorded (mm) with essential oil of Ocimum gratissimum

Days	Essential oil of Ocimum gratissimum									
	5.0 µl/ml	5.5 µl/ml	6.0 µl/ml	6.5 µl/ml	7.0 µl/ml	7.5 μl/ml	8.0 µl/ml			
1	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a			
2	11.4±0.06 b	$10.7 {\pm} 0.08$ b	9.1±0.04 b	9.4±0.02 b	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a			
3	33.7±0.09 c	21.6±0.02 c	22.5±0.04 c	13.9±0.06 c	9.5±0.04 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a			
4	41.7±0.06 d	36.5±0.06 d	34.2±0.06 d	21.4±0.08 d	15.6±0.01 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a			
5	57.5±0.09 e	54.2±0.09 e	48.6±0.07 e	29.7±0.04 e	19.3±0.04 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a			
6	$69.8 \pm 0.03 \ f$	$66.1 \pm 0.01 \ f$	$54.3 \pm 0.07 \ f$	$33.8 {\pm} 0.02 \text{ f}$	21.6±0.02 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a			
7	79.3±0.01 g	73.8±0.05 g	68.4±0.04 g	46.3±0.08 g	23.7±0.04 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a			
8	89.3±0.07 h	$81.7{\pm}0.05$ h	72.9±0.07 h	51.2±0.04 h	38.8±0.07 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a			

Diameter of 6 mm is the inoculation point. Values (mm) are mean $(n=3)\pm$ SE. The means followed by same letter in the same column are not significantly different according to ANOVA and Tukey's multiple comparison tests

Days	Essential oil of Ocimum gratissimum									
	5.0 µl/ml	5.5 µl/ml	6.0 µl/ml	6.5 µl/ml	7.0 µl/ml	7.5 µl/ml	8.0 µl/ml			
1	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a			
2	8.2±0.05 b	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a			
3	14.5±0.01 c	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a			
4	17.3±0.04 d	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a			
5	25.4±0.06 e	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a			
6	30.6±0.03 f	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a			
7	41.6±0.04 g	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a			
8	45.3±0.07 h	6.0±0.00 a	$6.0 {\pm} 0.00$ a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a			

Table 6 Colony diameters recorded (mm) of Aspergillus ochraceus isolated from peanut exposed to the essential oil of Ocimum gratissimum

Diameter of 6 mm is the inoculation point. Values (mm) are mean $(n=3) \pm SE$. The means followed by same letter in the same column are not significantly different according to ANOVA and Tukey's multiple comparison tests

Results of aflatoxinogenic assay based on the rapid detection of aflatoxinogenic fungi and the visual determination of aflatoxins method showed that the major part of strains of *A. flavus* (90.27 %) and *A. parasiticus* (92.53 %) exhibited very bright and moderate blue fluorescence under UV light after 4 days of incubation (Table 2). However, no fluorescence was detected with strains of *A. ochraceus* and *Aspergillus* spp. after 8 days of incubation.

By hydrodistillation, fresh leaves of *O. gratissimum* yielded 1.24 % of EO. Chemical analysis by GC and GC-MS analysis of EO enabled the identification of 31 components, (Table 3) representing 99.0 % of the EO. In the volatile extract, different groups of terpene and terpenoid were detected. The EO has chemical composition characterized by Myrcene (6.4 %), α -thujene (8.2 %), p-cymene (17.6 %), γ -terpinene (20.0 %), and thymol (26.9 %) as major components.

EO exhibited pronounced antifungal activity against the growth of *A. flavus* and *A. parasiticus*. The MIC of the EO was found to be 7.5 μ l/ml for *A. flavus* and *A. parasiticus*

(Tables 4, 5) and 5.5 µl/ml for A. ochraceus and F. oxysporium (Tables 6, 7). The MFC was recorded to be 8.0 µl/ml for A. flavus and A. parasiticus, 6,5 µl/ml for A. ochraceus, and 6.0 µl/ml for F. oxysporium. The radial growth of strains was totally inhibited by the essential oil. Percentage of growth inhibition (PI) evaluated by direct method was significantly (P < 0.05) affected by incubation time and EO concentration. Mycelia growth was considerably reduced with increasing concentration of EO while their growth increased with incubation time. The EO was more active on the mycelia growth of A. ochraceus and F. oxysporium than A. parasiticus and A. flavus. The percentages of inhibition (PI) of the EO were 76 and 56.9 %, respectively, on A. flavus and A. parasiticus at 7.0 µl/ ml while the radial growth of A. ochraceus and F. oxysporium was totally inhibited (PI: 100 %) by the oil at lower concentration (5.5 µl/ml) after 8 days of incubation (Table 8).

The influence of standard fungicide (Nystatine) and the EOs on the inhibitory zone against the tested fungi strains ranged from 2.6 to 4.0 mm (average n=3) for the fungicide

Days	Concentration of the essential oil									
	5.0 µl/ml	5.5 µl/ml	6.0 μl/ml	6.5 µl/ml	7.0 µl/ml	7.5 μl/ml	8.0 µl/ml			
1	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a	6.0±0.00 a			
2	$8.2{\pm}0.05$ b	6.0±0.00 a								
3	9.7±0.01 c	6.0±0.00 a								
4	$10.3 \pm 0.04 \text{ d}$	6.0±0.00 a								
5	15.7±0.06 e	6.0±0.00 a								
6	$23.6 {\pm} 0.03 {\rm f}$	6.0±0.00 a								
7	25.4 ± 0.02 g	6.0±0.00 a								
8	$30.2 {\pm} 0.03$ h	6.0±0.00 a								

Table 7 Colony diameters recorded (mm) of Fusarium oxysporium isolated from peanut exposed to the essential oil of Ocimum gratissimum

Diameter of 6 mm is the inoculation point. Values (mm) are mean $(n=3) \pm SE$. The means followed by same letter in the same column are not significantly different according to ANOVA and Tukey's multiple comparison tests

Table 8 Percentage of mycelial growth inhibition (PI)	Concentration of essential oil	Percentage of in				
		Strains isolated from peanut				
		A. flavus	A. parasiticus	A. ochraceus	F. oxysporium	
	5.0 µl/ml	5.77±0.7 a	0.77±0.5 a	49.66±0.2 a	66.44±0.5 a	
	5.5 µl/ml	11.88±0.9 b	9.22±1.1 b	$100{\pm}0.00$ b	$100{\pm}0.00$ b	
	6.0 μl/ml	27.88±0.3 c	19.0±0.3 c	$100{\pm}0.00$ b	$100{\pm}0.00$ b	
Values are mean $(n=3) \pm SE$.	6.5 μl/ml	51.44±0.5 d	43.11±0.3 d	$100{\pm}0.00$ b	$100{\pm}0.00$ b	
I he means followed by same letter in the same column are not significantly different according	7.0 μl/ml	76.0±0.2 e	56.88±0.7 e	100±0.00 b	100±0.00 b	
	7.5 μl/ml	$100{\pm}0.00~{\rm f}$	$100{\pm}0.00~{\rm f}$	100±0.00 b	100±0.00 b	
to ANOVA and Tukey's multiple comparison tests	8.0 µl/ml	$100{\pm}0.00~{\rm f}$	$100{\pm}0.00~{\rm f}$	100 ± 0.00 b	100±0.00 b	

and 1.4 to 3.3 mm for the EO. The results obtained by the disk diffusion method showed, respectively, 53.84, 60.71, 82.5, and 78.1 % of inhibition on *A. parasiticus*, *A. flavus*, *A. ochraceus*, and *F. oxysporium* growth for the EO, when compared with control (Table 9).

The results of antiaflatoxinogenic assay listed in Table 10 show that EO of *O.gratissimum* has important aflatoxin inhibition potential on toxigenic strains *A. flavus* and *A. parasiticus*. At the concentration of 7.0 μ l/ml, aflatoxin production by *A. flavus* and *A. parasiticus* was totally inhibited.

Discussion

The results of microbial analysis clearly showed that the peanut samples we collected were highly contaminated with fungi. These results were similar to those obtained by Nesci et al. (2011) in stored peanut samples from Argentina. As shown in Table 2, *A. flavus* and *A. parasiticus* isolated from peanuts were aflatoxin-producing. This could explain the high level of aflatoxin contamination as reported by Ediage et al. (2011) and Adjou et al. (2012c) in peanut samples from Benin, Bankolé et al. (2005) in dry-roasted peanuts from Nigeria, Mutegi et al. (2009) in stored peanuts from

Table 9 Antifungal assay (disk diffusion method)

Inhibition zone (cm)							
Fungi species	EO of Ocimum gratissimum	Nystatine fungicide					
A. flavus	1.7±0.02 a	2.8±0.05 a					
A. parasiticus	1.4±0.09 a	2,6±0.07 a					
A. ochraceus	3.3±0.07 b	4.0±0.09 b					
F. oxysporium	2.5±0.03 c	3.2±0.05 c					

Values are mean $(n=3) \pm SE$. The means followed by same letter in the same column are not significantly different according to ANOVA and Tukey's multiple comparison tests

western Kenya, and Ding et al. (2012) in post-harvest peanuts from China. The presence of Aspergillus ochraceus strains in peanut samples could also constitute a serious threat to food safety due to their toxigenic potential for producing ochratoxins A (Awad et al. 2012). These findings underline the possible coexistence of aflatoxins and ochratoxin A in peanuts and should be taken into consideration as stated by the European community (CEC 1998). This is also particularly important with regard to possible synergism and additive effects of these mycotoxins. Such co-contamination has been previously observed with other food samples (Ediage et al. 2011) and, accord to Atanda et al. (2012), some molds are capable of producing more than one mycotoxin and some mycotoxins are produced by more than one fungal species. The present study also explores the bioefficacy of EOs of O. gratissimum as the promising plant-based antimicrobial against peanut-infecting fungal growth and aflatoxin production. This EO was found to be effective against all Aspergillus and Fusarium strains tested. The antifungal activity was very pronounced on F. oxysporium and A. ochraceus compared with A. flavus and A. parasiticus. This bioefficacy may be due to the presence of some highly fungitoxic components in the oil such as terpenoids. Indeed, Ocimum gratissimum oil has a chemical composition characterized by terpenes (p-cymene and γ -terpinene) and terpenoids (thymol) as the main chemical groups. Several studies have indicated that terpenes do not represent a group of constituents with a high inherent antimicrobial activity. For example, Koutsoudaki et al. (2005) compared the effect of α -pinene, β -pinene, p-cymene, β -myrcene, β -caryophyllene, limonene, and γ -terpinene against *Escher*ichia coli, Staphylococcus aureus, and Bacillus cereus and reported that their antimicrobial activity was low or absent. Rao et al. (2010) also reported that *p*-cymene and γ -terpinene were ineffective as fungicides against Saccharomyces cerevisiae. In contrast, terpenoids are a large group of antimicrobial compounds that are active against a broad spectrum of microorganisms (Dorman and Deans 2000). Their antimicrobial activities are linked to their functional groups and it has also

Table 10 Antia	flatoxinogenic assay	of toxinogenic A.	flavus and A. parasiticus	strains isolated from peanuts
----------------	----------------------	-------------------	---------------------------	-------------------------------

Days	Fluorescence intensity										
	A. flavus					A. parasiticus					
	5.0 μl/ml	5.5 µl/ml	6.0 μl/ml	6.5 μl/ml	7.0 μl/ml	5.0 µl/ml	5.5 µl/ml	6.0 μl/ml	6.5 μl/ml	7.0 μl/ml	
1	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	
2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
3	+	+	_	-	-	+	+	_	-	-	
4	+++	+	—	-	—	+++	+++	—	—	-	
5	+++	+	-	-	-	+++	+++	++	-	-	
6	+++	+++	+	-	-	+++	+++	+++		-	
7	+++	+++	+++	—	—	+++	+++	++	++	-	
8	+++	+++	+++	-	-	+++	+++	+++	+++	_	

Bright fluorescence (+++); moderate fluorescence (++); weak fluorescence (+); no fluorescence (-)

been reported that the hydroxyl group of phenolic terpenoids and the presence of delocalized electrons are important for the antimicrobial activity (Dorman and Deans 2000). The most active monoterpenoids identified so far are carvacrol and thymol (Hyldgaard et al. 2012). Moreover, the antimicrobial activity of carvacrol, thymol, linalool, and menthol were evaluated against Listeria monocytogenes, Enterobacter aerogenes, Eschericha coli, and Pseudomonas aeruginosa. The most active compound was carvacrol followed by thymol with their highest MIC being 300 and 800 µg/mL, respectively (Bassole et al. 2010). These results confirm the high antimicrobial activity of a broad collection of terpenoids especially of thymol which is the major component of the EO of O. gratissimum. A range of EO components (linalool, thymol, eugenol, carvone, cinnamaldehyde, vanillin, carvacrol, citral, and limonene) have been accepted by the European Commission for their intended use as flavorings in food products (Hyldgaard et al. 2012). The United States Food and Drug Administration (FDA) also classify these substances as generally recognized as safe (GRAS). In our study, GC-MS data depicted remarkable variation in the earlier reports on the oils (Kpadonou-Kpoviessi et al. 2012). The chemical profile of EO is reported to be influenced by the harvest period, and by climatic, seasonal, and geographical conditions, which can significantly affect the amount and composition of the active constituents(Bakkali et al. 2008; Kpadonou-Kpoviessi et al. 2012). Thus, the biologically active EOs should be qualitatively standardized before their recommendation for practical exploitation as has been done in the present investigation. The findings of the present study clearly showed that aflatoxin production was significantly inhibited at concentrations lower than MIC of the oil. Hence, the EO would be acting by two different modes of action as an inhibitor of fungal growth and aflatoxin production (Rasooli and Abyaneh 2004). Based on such observations, it may be also concluded that the EOs are more active as aflatoxin inhibitors than as fungal growth suppressors as emphasized in the literature (Kumar et al. 2009; Prakash et al. 2010). Several strategies are used in controlling fungal growth and mycotoxin biosynthesis in stored grains using chemical, physical, and biological methods. These methods require sophisticated equipment and expensive chemicals or reagents. Attempts have been devoted to researching for new antifungicides from natural sources for food preservation (Reddy et al. 2010). Awuah (1996) reported that the following plants: Cymbopogon citratus, Xyloppia aethiopica, and Cinnamomum verum are effective in inhibiting the formation of norsolorinic acid, a precursor in the aflatoxin synthethis pathway. Fandohan et al. (2004) showed that Ocimum basilicum EO from Benin possesses significant inhibitory effects on the growth of Fusarium verticilloides and fumonisin B1 production. According to Sánchez-González et al. (2011), one option is to use EOs in active packaging rather than as an ingredient in the product itself. EOs can also be encapsulated in polymers of edible and biodegradable coatings or sachets that provide a slow release to the food surface or to the headspace of the packages (Pelissari et al. 2009). The EO from fresh leaves of O. gratissimum, having fungal growth and mycotoxin inhibitory properties, offers a novel approach to the management of storage fungi. It is a promising method for preserving stored products in rural areas, which do not have access to modern storage systems.

Conclusion

This work underlined the bioactivity of EO of fresh leaves of *O. gratissimum* from Benin as an aflatoxin inhibitor and fungal growth suppressor. Different major components such as myrcene (6.4 %), α -thujene (8.2 %), p-cymene (17.6 %), γ -terpinene (20.0 %), and thymol (26.9 %) were present in the volatile extract. Based on its antifungal and antiaflatoxin potentials, this natural plant product may successfully replace synthetic chemicals and provide an alternative method to protect peanuts as well as other agricultural commodities of nutritional significance from toxigenic fungi and aflatoxin production.

Acknowledgments The authors are grateful to the Department of Food Engineering of Polytechnic School of Abomey-Calavi University for their financial support. Authors wish to express their gratitude to Mrs. Boniface Yehouenou and Jean-Pierre Noudogbessi for the technical assistance.

Conflict of interest The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

References

- Adams RP (2007) Identification of essential oil components by gas chromatography/mass spectrometry. Allured, Carol Stream
- Adjou ES, Dahouenon-Ahoussi E, Degnon R, Soumanou MM, Sohounhloue DCK (2012a) Investigations on bioactivity of essential oil of *Ageratum conyzoides* 1, from Benin against the growth of fungi and aflatoxin production. Int J Pharm Sci Rev Res 13(1):143–148
- Adjou ES, Dahouenon-Ahoussi E, Degnon RG, Soumanou MM, Sohounhloue DCK (2012b) Bioefficacy of essential oil of *Lanta-na camara* from Benin against the growth of fungi and aflatoxin production. J Rec Adv Agric 1(4):112–121
- Adjou ES, Yehouenou B, Sossou CM, Soumanou MM, de Souza CA (2012c) Occurrence of mycotoxins and associated mycoflora in peanut cakes products (kluiklui) marketed in Benin. Afr J Biotechnol 11(78):14354–14360
- Atanda OO (2005) Development of diagnostic medium for direct visual determination of aflatoxin and its control using traditional spices. PhD thesis, University of Agriculture, Abaokuta
- Atanda OO, Ogunrinu MC, Olorunfemi FM (2011) A neutral red desiccated coconut agar for rapid detection of aflatoxigenic fungi and visual determination of aflatoxins. World Mycotoxin J 4 (2):147–155
- Atanda SA, Aina JA, Agoda SA, Usanga OE, Pessu PO (2012) Mycotoxin management in agriculture: a review. J Anim Sci Adv 2:250–260
- Awad WA, Ghareeb K, Böhm J (2012) Occurrence, health risks and methods of analysis for Aflatoxins and Ochratoxin A. J Vet Anim Sci 2:1–10
- Awuah RT (1996) Possible utilization of plant product in grain storage. Proceeding of the workshop in mycotoxin in food in Africa, Nov. 6– 10, International Institute of Tropical Agriculture, Benin, p 32–33
- Bakkali F, Averbeck S, Averbeck D, Idaomar M (2008) Biological effects of essential oils—a review. Food Chem Toxicol 46:446–475
- Bankole SA (1997) Effect of essential oil from two Nigerian medicinal plants (*Azadirachta indica* and *Morinda lucida*) on growth and aflatoxin B₁ production in maize grain by a toxigenic *Aspergillus flavus*. Lett Appl Microbiol 24:190–192
- Bankole SA, Ogunsanwo BM, Eseigbe DA (2005) Aflatoxins in Nigerian dry-roasted groundnuts. Food Chem 89:503–506
- Bassolé IHN, Lamien-Meda A, Bayala B, Tirogo S, Franz C, Novak J, Nebié RC, Dicko MH (2010) Composition and antimicrobial activities of *Lippia multiflora* Moldenke, Mentha x piperita L. and Ocimum basilicum L. essential oils and their major monoterpene alcohols alone and in combination. Molecules 15:7825–7839

- Brown D, McCormick SP, Alexander NA, Proctor RH, Desjardins AE (2001) A genetic and biochemical approach to study trichothecene diversity in Fusarium sporotrichioides and Fusarium graminearum. Fungal Genet Biol 32:121–133
- CEC (1998) Commission Regulation (EC) No. 1525/98. Official Journal of European Communities L20/143
- Davis ND, Iyer SK, Diener UL (1987) Improved method of screening for aflatoxins with coconut agar medium. Appl Environ Microbiol 53:1593–1595
- de Billerbeck VG, Roques CG, Bessière JM, Fonvieille JL, Dargent R (2001) Effect of *Cymbopogon nardus* (L) W. Watson essential oil on the growth and morphogenesis of Aspergillus niger. Can J Microbiol 47:9–17
- Ding X, Li P, Bai Y, Zhou H (2012) Aflatoxin B1 in post-harvest peanuts and dietary risk in China. Food Control 23:143–148
- Dorman HJD, Deans SG (2000) Antimicrobial agents from plants: antibacterial activity of plant volatile oils. J Appl Microbiol 88:308–316
- Ediage EN, Di Mavungu JD, Monbaliu S, Van Peteghem C, De Saeger S (2011) A validated multianalyte LC-MS/MS method for quantification of 25 mycotoxins in cassava flour, peanut cake and maize samples. J Agric Food Chem 59:5173–5180
- Fandohan P, Gbenou JD, Gnonlonfoun B, Hell K, Marasas WF, Wingfoeld MJ (2004) Effect of essential oils in the growth of *Fusarium verticilloides* and fumonisin contamination in Corn. J Agric Food Chem 52:6824–6829
- Filtenborg O, Frisvad JC, Thrane U (1995) Moulds in food spoilage. Int J Food Microbiol 33:85–102
- Hammer KA, Carson CF, Riley TV (1999) Antimicrobial activity of essential oils and other plant extracts. J Appl Microbiol 86: 985–990
- Hammer KA, Carson CF, Riley TV (2003) Antifungal activity of the components of *Melaleuca alternifolia* (tea tree) oil. J Appl Microbiol 95:853–860
- Honfo FG, Hell K, Akissoe N, Dossa RAM, Hounhouigan JD (2010) Diversity and nutritional value of foods consumed by children in two agro-ecological zones of Benin. Afr J Food Sci 4:184–191
- Hyldgaard M, Mygind T, Meyer RL (2012) Essential oils in food preservation: mode of action, synergies and interactions with food matrix components. Front Microbiol 3(12):1–24
- Illiassa N (2004) Analyse de la gestion post-récolte de Vigna unguculata (WALP) et évaluation de l'importance insecticide des huiles essentielles de trois plantes aromatiques. Mémoire de maîtrise en Biologie Animale Faculté des Sciences, Université de Ngaoundéré
- Khallil ARM (2001) Phytofungitoxic properties in the aqueous extracts of some plants. Pakistan J Biol Sci 4(4):392–394
- Koutsoudaki C, Krsek M, Rodger A (2005) Chemical composition and antibacterial activity of the essential oil and the gum of *Pistacialentiscus* Var. *chia*. J Agric Food Chem 53:7681–7685
- Kpadonou Kpoviessi BGH, Yayi Ladekan E, Kpoviessi DS, Gbaguidi F, Yehouenou B, Quetin-Leclercq J, Figueredo G, Moudachirou M, Accrombessi GC (2012) Chemical variation of essential oil constituents of *Ocimum gratissimum* L. from Benin, and impact on antimicrobial properties and toxicity against *Artemia salina* Leach. Chem Biodivers 9:139–150
- Kumar R, Dubey NK, Tiwari OP, Tripathi YB, Sinha KK (2007) Evaluation of some essential oils as botanical fungi toxicants for the protection of stored food commodities from fungal infestation. J Sci Food Agric 87:1737–1742
- Kumar A, Shukla R, Singh P, Dubey NK (2009) Biodeterioration of some herbal raw materials by storage fungi and aflatoxin and assessment of *Cymbpogon flexuosus* essential oil and its components as antifungal. Int Biodeterior Biodegrad 63:712–716
- Lisker N, Lillehoj EB (1991) Prevention of mycotoxin contamination (principally aflatoxins and Fusarium toxins) at the preharvest stage. In: Smith JE, Henderson RS (eds) Mycotoxins and animals foods. CRC, Boca Raton, pp 689–719

- Magan N, Sanchis V, Akdred D (2004) Role of spoilage fungi in seed deterioration. In: Aurora DK (Ed) Fungal biotechnology in agricultural, food and environmental applications. Marcell Dekker, New York, pp 311–323
- Moosavy MH, Basti AA, Ali M (2008) Effect of *Zataria multiflora* Boiss. essential oil and nisin on *Salmonella typhimurium* and *Staphylococcus aureus* in a food model system and on the bacterial. Int J Food Microbiol 43:69–76
- Mutegi CK, Ngugi HK, Hendriks SL, Jones RB (2009) Prevalence and factors associated with aflatoxin contamination of peanuts from Western Kenya. Int J Food Microbiol 130:27–34
- Nesci A, Montemarani A, Etcheverry M (2011) Assessment of mycoflora and infestation of insects, vector of *Aspergillus* section Flavi, in stored peanut from Argentina. Mycotox Res 27:5–12
- Nguefack J, Lekagne Dongmo JB, Dakole CD, Leth V, Vismer HF, Torp J, Guemdjom EFN, Mbeffo M, Tamgue O, Fotio D, Amvam Zollo PH, Nkengfack AE (2009) Food preservative potential of essential oils and fractions from *Cymbopogon citrates and Thymus vulgaris* against mycotoxigenic fungi. Int J Food Microbiol 131:151–156
- Nguyen MT (2007) Identification des espèces de moisissures potentiellement productrices de mycotoxines dans le riz commercialisé dans cinq provinces de la région centrale du Vietman : Etude des conditions pouvant induire la production de mycotoxines. Thèse de doctorat, Institut National Polytechnique de Toulouse (INPT), Toulouse
- Pelissari FM, Grossmann MVE, Yamashita F, Pined EAG (2009) Antimicrobial, mechanical, and barrier properties of cassava starch-chitosan films incorporated with oregano essential oil. J Agric Food Chem 57:7499–7504
- Pitt JI, Hocking AD, Bhudhasamai K, Miscamble BF, Wheeler KA, Tanboon EKP (1994) The normal mycoflora of commodities from Thailand: beans, rice, small grains and other commodities. Int J Food Microbiol 23:35–53
- Prakash B, Shukla R, Singh P, Mishra PK, Dubey NK, Kharwar RN (2010) Efficacy of chemically characterized *Ocimum gratissimum* L. essential oil as an antioxidant and a safe plant based antimicrobial against fungal and aflatoxin B₁ contamination of spices. Food Res Int 10:128–132
- Rao A, Zhang Y, Muend S, Rao R (2010) Mechanism of antifungal activity of terpenoid phenols resembles calcium stress and inhibition of the TOR pathway. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 54:5062–5069

- Rasooli I, Abyaneh MR (2004) Inhibitory effects of thyme oils on growth and aflatoxin production by *Aspergillus parasiticus*. Food Control 15:479–483
- Reddy BN, Raghavender CR (2007) Outbreaks of aflatoxicoses in India. Afr J Food Agric Nutr Dev 7(5):1–15
- Reddy KRN, Nurdijati SB, Salleh B (2010) An overview of plantderived products on control of mycotoxicogenic fungi and mycotoxins. Asian J Plant Sci 9(3):126–133
- Sánchez-González L, Vargas M, González-Martínez C, Chiralt A, Cháfer M (2011) Use of essential oils inbioactive edible coatings: a review. Food Eng Rev 3:1–16
- Singh K, Frisvad JC, Thrane U, Mathu SB (1991) An illustrated manual on identification of some seed borne Aspergilli, Fusaria, Penicillia and their mycotoxins. Danish Government, Institute of seed pathology for developing countries, Hellerup, Denmark
- Suhr KI, Nielsen PV (2003) Antifungal activity of essential oils evaluated by two different application techniques against rye bread spoilage fungi. J Appl Microbiol 94(4):665–674
- Sultan Y, Magan N (2010) Mycotoxigenic fungi in peanuts from different geographic regions of Egypt. Mycotox Res 26:133–140
- Tabuc C (2007) Flore fongique de différents substrats et conditions optimales de production des mycotoxines. Thèse de doctorat, Institut National Polytechnique de Toulouse et Université de Bucarest, Toulouse
- Tatsadjieu N, Jazet M, Ngassoum MB, Etoa X, Mbofung CMF (2009) Investigations on the essential oil of *Lippia rugosa* from Cameroon for its potential use as antifungal agent against *Aspergillus flavus* Link ex. Fries. Food Control 2:161–166
- Yaw AJ, Richard A, Osei SK, Seth OA, Adelaide A (2008) Chemical composition of groundnut, *Arachis hypogaea* (L) landraces. Afr J Biotechnol 7(13):2203–2208
- Yehouenou B, Noudogbessi JP, Sessou P, Wotto V, Avlessi F, Sohounhloué CKD (2010) Etude chimique et activités antimicrobiennes d'extraits volatils des feuilles et fruits de *Xylopia aethiopica* (Dunal) A. Rich. contre les pathogènes des denrées alimentaires. J Soc Ouest-Afr de Chim 29:19–27
- Yehouenou B, Ahoussi E, Sessou P, Alitonou GA, Toukourou F, Sohounhloue CKD (2012) Chemical composition and antimicrobial activities of essential oils (EO) extracted from leaves of *Lippia rugosa* A. Chev against foods pathogenic and adulterated microorganisms. Afr J Microbiol Res 6(26):5496–5505
- Yin MC, Tsao SM (1999) Inhibitory effect of seven Allium plants upon three *Aspergillus* species. Int J Food Microbiol 49:49–56