

Review

ANTIMICROBIAL ACTIVITY OF *LACTOBACILLUS PLANTARUM* AGAINST PATHOGENIC AND FOOD SPOILAGE MICROORGANISMS: A REVIEW

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Summary

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One of the most important properties of probiotic bacteria is their antimicrobial activity against many species of microorganisms which could be useful to prevent food spoilage caused by certain sensitive bacteria and fungi as well as to control the speed of propagation of potentially pathogenic bacteria by probiotic application. Lactobacillus plantarum is considered one of the probiotic bacteria with broadest spectrum of antibacterial activity which makes it useful in veterinary, human medicine and food industry. According to a number of studies Lactobacillus plantarum exerts inhibitory activity against many Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria - Escherichia coli (including E. coli 0157:H7), Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Helicobacter pylori, Yersinia enterocolitica, Campylobacter jejuni, Listeria monocytogenes, Staphylococcus aureus, Klebsiella, Salmonella, Shigella, Bacillus, Clostridium, Enterococcus, Lactobacillus spp., etc. as well as a number of moulds and yeasts - Aspergillus, Fusarium, Mucor, Candida spp., etc. The main antibacterial compounds of Lactobacillus plantarum are the bacteriocins and organic acids whereas the antifungal compounds are the organic acids, hydroxy fatty acids and cyclic dipeptides. Because of the high antifungal activity of some L. plantarum strains against food spoilage microorganisms they can be used as effective biopreservatives in food industry. Also, some L. plantarum strains could be applied as supporting therapeutic agents in treatment of infections caused by the corresponding susceptible microorganisms.

Key words: antimicrobial activity, *Lactobacillus plantarum*, food spoilage microorganisms, pathogens

INTRODUCTION

Spoilage of food products by bacteria and fungi is a worldwide problem. They can cause extensive damage of the food such as unpleasant smell, taste or appearance as well as formation of harmful substances for the consumer's health. Also, another important aspect of food contamination by microorganisms is the presence of potentially pathogenic species, which pose a great risk for the human and animal health (Broberg *et al.*, 2007). One of the most important properties of probiotic bacteria is their antimicrobial activity against many species of microorganisms which could be useful in order to avoid the constant application of antibiotics and to control the speed of propagation of potentially pathogenic intestinal bacteria (Arias *et al.*, 2013).

Lactobacillus plantarum (L. plantarum) is a member of lactic acid bacteria (LAB). It is an important species taking part in the fermentation of many plant products (silage, sauerkraut, brined olives, pickles), sourdough, cheeses, fermented sausages and stockfish (Cebeci & Gürakan, 2003). It belongs to the probiotic Lactobacillus species inhabiting the human digestive system and producing bacteriocins, exopolysaccharides, extracellular proteins and lipoteichoic acids. They improve the health and physiology of the host by interacting with epithelial cells and enhancing the host immune system (Arasu et al., 2016). Recently L. plantarum has been applied in human medicine for treatment of chronic inflammation associated with various diseases including cancer, Parkinson's disease, Alzheimer's disease and cardiovascular diseases (Woo et al., 2014). Kurhan & Cakir (2016) reported that L. plantarum has DNA-bioprotective effect reducing the aflatoxin B₁ genotoxic effect on colon adenocarcinoma (Caco-2) cells. Comparative studies between different probiotics showed that L. plantarum strains demonstrated the broadest spectrum of antimicrobial activity among the probiotic bacteria examined (Dembélé et al., 1998; Wang et al., 2010; Ren et al., 2014; Dubourg et al., 2015; Davoodabadi et al., 2015).

Considering the increasing importance of the LAB as antibiotics alternative, the knowledge of the antimicrobial activity of the main LAB species and *L. plantarum* in particular is of especially high significance. The antimicrobial activity of *L. plantarum* can show if its products can be helpful in the treatment of a particular infection or if they can prevent the development of undesirable microbiota in food products. In that way the supplementation of *L. plantarum* products could be made on the basis of the antimicrobial activity of the particular *L. plantarum* strain.

ANTIMICROBIAL COMPOUNDS PRODUCED BY L. PLANTARUM

Bacteriocins

Bacteriocins are ribosomally synthesised antimicrobial peptides produced by various bacteria, including LAB. Some of them have great potential in food preservation and can reduce or eliminate the need for addition of chemical preservatives or the intensity of processing the food and in that way can satisfy the demand for high-quality foods (Perez et al., 2014). To guarantee bacteriocin effectiveness when supplemented to the food it should be tested against specific target microorganisms in the type of food for which they are intended to be used. Most of the bacteriocins kill the susceptible bacteria by inducing permeabilisation and pore formation on the cytoplasmic membrane or by interactions with essential enzymes (Wen et al., 2016). Because bacteriocins are degraded by the proteolytic enzymes of the gastrointestinal tract and seem to be non-toxic and non-antigenic to animals and humans they can be used to improve the safety and shelf-life of many food products (Amenu, 2013). When selecting bacteriocins for food application the following criteria should be considered: the bacteriocin-producing strain should be generally recognised as safe; the bacteriocin should: 1) have a broad spectrum of inhibition against a variety of food-borne pathogens or specificity against a particular pathogen specific for given food; 2) have high degree of heat stability; 3) lead to beneficial effects in the product such as improved safety and quality; 4) have a high specific activity (O'Sullivan *et al.*, 2002).

Organic acids

L. plantarum is facultative heterofermentative species that ferment carbohydrates to produce lactic acid and ethanol or acetic acid. Organic acid lowers the local pH and therefore inhibits the growth of bacteria, sensitive to acidic conditions. The low pH makes organic acids liposoluble, allowing them to break through the cell membrane and reach the cytoplasm of target microorganisms (Haller et al., 2001). However, the microorganisms differ considerably in their sensitivity to lactic acid. At pH 5.0 lactic acid exert inhibitory activity towards spore- forming bacteria but is ineffective against yeast and moulds (Amenu, 2013). Acetic and propionic acids produced by L. plantarum strains through heterofermentative pathways, may interact with cell membranes and cause intracellular acidification and protein denaturation (Urga et al., 1992). They have higher antimicrobial activity than lactic acid due to their higher pKa values (lactic acid 3.08, acetic acid 4.75, and propionic acid 4.87), and higher percent of undissociated acids than lactic acid at a given pH (Earnshaw, 1992).

Hydroxy fatty acids

There are several studies indicating that 3hydroxy fatty acids have antifungal activity which is due to detergent-like properties of the compounds that alter cellular membrane structure in the target organisms (Sjögren *et al.*, 2003). According to studies on LABproduced antimicrobial fatty acids, they have a broad spectrum of antifungal activity (Sjögren *et al.*, 2003; Dalié *et al.*, 2010).

Hydrogen peroxide

Hydrogen peroxide is produced by L. plantarum and the other LAB in the presence of oxygen as a result of the action of flavoprotein oxidases or NADH peroxidase. The antimicrobial activity of hydrogen peroxide could be the result of the oxidation of sulfhydryl groups causing denaturation of a number of enzymes, and from the peroxidation of membrane lipids leading to increased membrane permeability (Amenu, 2013). Hydrogen peroxide can be a precursor for the production of bactericidal free radicals such as superoxide (O_2^{-}) and hydroxyl (OH^{-}) radicals which can damage DNA (Byczkowski & Gessner, 1988). According to Gerez et al. (2013) hydrogen peroxide does not exert any antifungal activity.

Carbon dioxide

Carbon dioxide is mainly produced by heterofermentative LAB. Because L. plantarum is facultative heterofermentative species, depending on the carbon source it can switch between using heterofermentative and homofermentative ways of metabolism (Kleerebezem et al., 2003). The precise mechanism of the antimicrobial action of carbon dioxide is still poorly understood. However, carbon dioxide may play a role in creating an anaerobic environment, which inhibits enzymatic decarboxylations, and the accumulation of carbon dioxide in the membrane lipid bilayer is a possible cause for permeability dysfunction (Eklund, 1984).

ANTIMICROBIAL ACTIVITY OF L. PLANTARUM AGAINST PATHOGENIC AND FOOD SPOILAGE MICROORGANISMS

Antibacterial activity of L. plantarum

According to the experimental data L. plantarum is active against many Gramnegative pathogens and food spoilage microorganisms - Escherichia coli (including enteropathogenic, enterotoxigaenic, enteroinvasive, multidrug-resistant enteroaggregative E. coli and E. coli 0157:H7), Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Yersinia enterocolitica, Campylobacter jejuni, Helicobacter pylori, Klebsiella, Salmonella, Shigella spp., etc. (Table 1). Also L. plantarum exerts inhibitory activity against a variety of potentially harmful Gram-positive bacteria - Listeria monocytogenes, Staphylococcus aureus and some members of the genera Bacillus, Clostridium, Enterococcus, Lactobacillus, etc. (Table 2). It is important to emphasise that the antimicrobial activity of L. plantarum (and the other LAB) is strain specific, i.e. only some strains of L. plantarum are inhibitory toward specific strains of the microbial species (Denev et al., 2015). There are three mechanisms that could explain the antimicrobial activity of LAB and L. plantarum in particular: the production of bacteriocins; the yield of organic acids and other inhibitory substances such as ethanol, carbon dioxide and hydrogen peroxide; and the competition for nutrients (Magnusson et al., 2003).

L. plantarum strains produce a broad range of bacteriocins such as ST28MS, ST26MS, bacST202Ch, bacST216Ch, ST71KS, AMA-K, plantaricin B, D, G, K, K25, S, BN, UG1, S, T, C19, CTC 305, CTC 306, 35d, Q7, MG, 163, ASM1, EF, JK, N, NC8, ZJ008, etc. (Enan *et al.*, 1996; Todorov & Dicks, 2005; Todorov et al., 2007; 2010; Hata et al., 2010; Gong et al., 2010; Martinez et al., 2013; Buntin & Hongpattarakere, 2014; Zhu et al., 2014; Jiang et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2016; Wen et al., 2016). Different L. plantarum bacteriocins have bactericidal mode of action and diverse antimicrobial spectrum of activity. They usually have narrow spectrum of activity against closely related Gram-positive bacteria from Lactobacillaceae, whereas producer cells are immune to their own bacteriocins (Abo-Amer, 2013). It is well established that Gram-negative bacteria are intrinsically resistant to bacteriocins produced by LAB due to the presence of external membrane, which constitutes a physical barrier to the passage and binding of bacteriocins (Pehrson et al., 2015). However, it has been reported that the destabilisation of the outer membrane can make Gram-negative bacteria susceptible to these bacteriocins. It is found that lactic acid acts as a permeabiliser of the outer membrane of Gramnegative bacteria, thus increasing their susceptibility to antimicrobials (including bacteriocins), allowing their molecules to penetrate the bacteria (Alakomi et al., 2000).

There are also some bacteriocins having a broad range of inhibition against Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria including food-borne pathogens such as Listeria monocytogenes, Escherichia coli, Staphylococcus aureus, Clostridium perfringens, Pseudomonas spp. etc., and antimicrobial resistance is not likely to be induced after their application (Gong et al., 2010; Todorov et al., 2010). Because the bacteriocins produced by certain strains of L. plantarum sometimes exert antibacterial activity against a large number of Gram-positive and Gram-negative spoilage and pathogenic bacteria, the respective L. plantarum strains are suitable

Table 1. Antibacterial activity of Lactobacillus plantarum strains against Gram-negative bacteria

Spectrum of <i>L. plantarum</i> activity	References
Acinetobacter baumannii	Todorov & Dicks, 2005
Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron	Dubourg et al., 2015
Campylobacter jejuni	Patel <i>et al.</i> , 2013
Citrobacter freundii	Dal Bello et al., 2007
Enterobacter aerogenes	Tambekar & Bhutada, 2009
Enterobacter cloacae	Dubourg et al., 2015
Erwinia persicina	Jiang <i>et al.</i> , 2016
Escherichia coli	Todorov & Dicks, 2005; Dal Bello <i>et al.</i> , 2007; Todorov <i>et al.</i> , 2007; Tambekar & Bhutada, 2009; Gong <i>et al.</i> , 2010; Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2010; Todorov <i>et al.</i> , 2010; Patel <i>et al.</i> , 2013; Buntin & Hongpattarakere, 2014; Peres <i>et al.</i> , 2014; Ren <i>et al.</i> , 2014; Zhu <i>et al.</i> , 2014; Davoodabadi <i>et al.</i> , 2015; Dubourg <i>et al.</i> , 2015; Pehrson <i>et al.</i> , 2015; Venkadesan & Sumathi, 2015; Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2016; Aoudia <i>et al.</i> , 2016; Kumar <i>et al.</i> , 2016; Wen <i>et al.</i> , 2016
Helicobacter pylori	Sunanliganon et al., 2012
Klebsiella pneumoniae	Todorov <i>et al.</i> , 2007; Tambekar & Bhutada, 2009; Todorov <i>et al.</i> , 2010; Omemu & Faniran, 2011; Ren <i>et al.</i> , 2014; Khan & Kang, 2016
Pseudomonas spp.	Todorov et al., 2010
P. aeruginosa	Todorov & Dicks, 2005; Rodríguez <i>et al.</i> , 2012; Peres <i>et al.</i> , 2014; Todorov <i>et al.</i> , 2014; Zhu <i>et al.</i> , 2014; Dubourg <i>et al.</i> , 2015; Khan & Kang, 2016; Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2016; Wen <i>et al.</i> , 2016
P. fluorescens	Gong et al., 2010
Proteus vulgaris	Dal Bello et al., 2007; Tambekar & Bhutada, 2009
P. mirabilis	Omemu & Faniran, 2011; Dubourg et al., 2015
Salmonella enterica subsp. ari- zonae	Jiang <i>et al.</i> , 2016
S. enterica subsp. enterica	Wang et al., 2010; Rodríguez et al., 2012; Jiang et al., 2016
<i>S. enterica</i> subsp. <i>enterica ser</i> . Enteritidis	Davoodabadi et al., 2015; Pehrson et al., 2015; Aoudia et al., 2016
S. Paratyphi	Buntin & Hongpattarakere, 2014; Jiang et al., 2016
S. Typhi	Tambekar & Bhutada, 2009; Venkadesan & Sumathi, 2015
S. Typhimurium	Gong <i>et al.</i> , 2010; Patel <i>et al.</i> , 2013; Buntin & Hongpattara- kere, 2014; Hongpattarakere & Uraipan, 2014; Peres <i>et al.</i> , 2014; Ren <i>et al.</i> , 2014; Jiang <i>et al.</i> , 2016; Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2016
Shigella spp.	Venkadesan & Sumathi, 2015
S. flexneri	Tambekar & Bhutada, 2009; Zhu <i>et al.</i> , 2014; Davoodabadi <i>et al.</i> , 2015; Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2016
S. sonnei	Buntin & Hongpattarakere, 2014; Davoodabadi <i>et al.</i> , 2015; Pehrson <i>et al.</i> , 2015; Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2016
Vibrio parahaemolyticus	Zhu et al., 2014; Jiang et al., 2016
Yersinia enterocolitica	Patel et al., 2013; Davoodabadi et al., 2015

Antimicrobial activity of Lactobacillus plantarum against pathogenic and food spoilage microorganisms

Table 2. Antibacterial activity of Lactobacillus plantarum strains against Gram-positive bacteria

Spectrum of <i>L. plantarum</i> activity	References
Bacillus cereus	Enan <i>et al.</i> , 1996; Elegado <i>et al.</i> , 2004; Gong <i>et al.</i> , 2010; Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2010; Omemu & Faniran, 2011; Ren <i>et al.</i> , 2014; Wen <i>et al.</i> , 2016; Zhang <i>et al.</i> , 2016
B. subtilis	Elegado <i>et al.</i> , 2004; Dal Bello <i>et al.</i> , 2007; Valerio <i>et al.</i> , 2008; Gong <i>et al.</i> , 2010; Peres <i>et al.</i> , 2014; Zhu <i>et al.</i> , 2014
Clostridium difficile	Schoster et al., 2013; Dubourg et al., 2015
C. perfringens	Enan et al., 1996; Gong et al., 2010; Schoster et al., 2013
Enterococcus avium	Inglin et al., 2015
E. casseliflavus	Inglin et al., 2015
E. durans	Inglin et al., 2015
E. faecalis	Elegado <i>et al.</i> , 2004; Todorov & Dicks, 2005; Dal Bello <i>et al.</i> , 2007; Todorov <i>et al.</i> , 2007; Hata <i>et al.</i> , 2010; Patel <i>et al.</i> , 2013; Peres <i>et al.</i> , 2014; Todorov <i>et al.</i> , 2014; Dubourg <i>et al.</i> , 2015; Inglin <i>et al.</i> , 2015
E. mundtii	Todorov et al., 2007
Lactobacillus alimentarius	Enan et al., 1996
L. casei	Enan et al., 1996; Elegado et al., 2004
L. curvatus	Enan <i>et al.</i> , 1996; Todorov <i>et al.</i> , 2007; Hata <i>et al.</i> , 2010; Todorov <i>et al.</i> , 2010; Inglin <i>et al.</i> , 2015
L. delbrueckii	Elegado et al., 2004; Todorov et al., 2010
L. fermentum	Enan et al., 1996; Todorov et al., 2010
L. helveticus	Enan et al., 1996
L. johnsonii	Todorov et al., 2010
L. lindneri	Hata et al., 2010
L. paraplantarum	Todorov et al., 2010
L. pentosus	Enan et al., 1996; Hata et al., 2010; Todorov et al., 2010
L. plantarum	Hata et al., 2010; Elegado et al., 2004
L. rhamnosus	Todorov et al., 2010
L. sakei	Todorov & Dicks, 2005; Todorov et al., 2007
L. salivarius	Todorov et al., 2007; Todorov et al., 2010
Lactococcus lactis	Enan et al., 1996; Todorov et al., 2007; Todorov et al., 2010
Leuconostoc mesenteroides	Elegado et al., 2004
Listeria spp.	Dembélé et al., 1998
L. monocytogenes	Enan <i>et al.</i> , 1996; Elegado <i>et al.</i> , 2004; Todorov <i>et al.</i> , 2007; Gong <i>et al.</i> , 2010; Nielsen <i>et al.</i> , 2010; Todorov <i>et al.</i> , 2010;Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2010; Rodríguez <i>et al.</i> , 2012; Martinez <i>et al.</i> , 2013; Buntin & Hongpattarakere, 2014; Peres <i>et al.</i> , 2014; Todorov <i>et al.</i> , 2014; Zhu <i>et al.</i> , 2014; Asurmendi <i>et al.</i> , 2015; Dubourg <i>et al.</i> , 2015; Engelhardt <i>et al.</i> , 2015; Inglin <i>et al.</i> , 2015; Venkadesan & Sumathi, 2015; Aoudia <i>et al.</i> , 2016; Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2016; Wen <i>et al.</i> , 2016
L. ivanovii	Todorov <i>et al.</i> , 2010; Inglin <i>et al.</i> , 2015
L. grayi	Elegado <i>et al.</i> , 2004

Table 2 (cont'd). Antibacterial activity of *Lactobacillus plantarum* strains against Gram-positive bacteria

Spectrum of <i>L. plantarum</i> activity	References
Pediococcus sp.	Elegado et al., 2004
P. acidilactici	Elegado et al., 2004
P. pentosaceus	Elegado et al., 2004
Staphylococcus aureus	Dembélé <i>et al.</i> , 1998; Todorov & Dicks, 2005; Dal Bello <i>et al.</i> , 2007; Gong <i>et al.</i> , 2010; Todorov <i>et al.</i> , 2010; Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2010; Omemu & Faniran, 2011; Rodríguez <i>et al.</i> , 2012; Patel <i>et al.</i> , 2013; Buntin & Hongpattarakere, 2014; Peres <i>et al.</i> , 2014; Ren <i>et al.</i> , 2014; Zhu <i>et al.</i> , 2014; Dubourg <i>et al.</i> , 2015; Venkadesan & Sumathi, 2015; Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2016
S. epidermidis	Zhu et al., 2014; Jiang et al., 2016
Streptococcus spp.	Todorov et al., 2007; Todorov et al., 2010

for use as starter cultures in the fermentation of different products and to prolong shelf life (Todorov *et al.*, 2010).

The antibacterial effect of *L. planta-rum*-produced cyclic dipeptides could be explained by the hydrophobic nature of the compounds, which could interfere with outer membrane (Gram-negative) and cytoplasma membrane (Gram-positive) function (Milne *et al.*, 1998; Rhee, 2004). In previous studies, cyclic dipeptides showed a broad spectrum of antibacterial activity (Milne *et al.*, 1998; Ström *et al.*, 2002; Rhee, 2004).

Regarding the inhibition effect caused by LAB and *L. plantarum* in particular, it is considered that the LAB-produced organic acids, especially lactic and acetic acids, exert a strong inhibitory effect on Gram-negative bacteria (Makras & De Vuyst, 2006). Some authors observed probiotic-mediated inhibition effect on *Escherichia coli* and *Salmonella* Enteritidis that increased proportionally to the concentration of organic acid in the medium. They also stated that low pH may not be the sole reason for the observed inhibition effects. It could however be an important condition for the passage of organic acids environment, where they will accumulate and exert inhibitory activity (Fooks & Gibson, 2002). Antimicrobial compounds such as phenyllactic acid and lactic acid were effective against many Gram-negative and Gram-positive pathogenic bacteria – Citrobacter freundii, Escherichia coli, Proteus vulgaris, Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Salmonella enterica subsp. enterica, Listeria monocytogenes, Staphylococcus aureus, Bacillus subtilis, Enterococcus faecalis (Dal Bello et al., 2007; Rodríguez et al., 2012).

through the membrane to the intracellular

Because *L. plantarum* strains are effective against a variety of bacterial pathogens (including methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* and multidrug-resistant enteroaggregative *Escherichia coli*) they can serve as alternative therapeutic agents against the corresponding infections in humans and animals (Patel *et al.*, 2013; Kumar *et al.*, 2016). For example *L. plantarum* ZDY 2013 can significantly inhibit the adhesion of enterotoxin-producing and pathogenic strains of *Bacillus cereus* on intestinal epithelial cells by inhibition, competition and displacement (Zhang *et al.*, 2016). According to another

study, *L. plantarum* ZDY 2013 pretreatment could play an important role in preventing *Helicobacter pylori* induced gastric mucosal inflammation and gastric microbiota alteration. These findings suggest that targeting gastric microbiota through oral administration of specific probiotics might be an alternative strategy to prevent *H. pylori* infection (Pan *et al.*, 2016). *L. plantarum* activity against food spoilage bacteria could be used to prolong shelf life of the food products (Amenu, 2013).

Antifungal activity of L. plantarum

According to a number of studies L. plantarum has inhibitory activity against many moulds and yeasts, including pathogenic and mycotoxigenic strains from the species Aspergillus, Fusarium, Mucor, Candida, etc. (Table 3). Organic acids are considered one of the main LAB compounds exerting antifungal effects (Russo et al., 2016). Sangmanee & Hongpattarakere (2014) also found that the antifungal activity of L. plantarum K35 was pHdependent and favourable to acidic conditions. The major antifungal substances found in that study were lactic acid, 2butyl-4-hexyloctahydro-1H-indene, oleic acid and palmitic acid. On the other hand Niku-Paavola et al. (1999) observed that fungal growth was not inhibited by lactic acid and the active compounds of L. plantarum VTT E-78076 were benzoic acid, methylhydantoin, mevalonolactone, cyclo (glycyl-L-leucyl). The major antifungal compounds of L. plantarum MYS6 reported by Deepthi et al. (2016) were 10octadecenoic acid, heptadecanoic acid, methyl ester, palmitic acid, stearic acid and lauric acid. The authors found that these compounds exert inhibitory effect on Fusarium proliferatum growth. In another study L. plantarum 21B showed

almost 100% fungicidal activity against moulds which was due to the phenyllactic and 4-hydroxy-phenyllactic acids (Lavermicocca *et al.* 2000). There are other experiments that confirm the excellent antifungal activity of phenyllactic acid (Ström *et al.*, 2002; Dal Bello *et al.*, 2007).

According to Ryu *et al.* (2014) antifungal activity of *L. plantarum* HD1 was due to the 3-hydroxy fatty acids: 5oxododecanoic acid, 3-hydroxy decanoic acid and 3-hydroxy-5-dodecenoic acid.

Some strains of L. plantarum produce cyclic dipeptides with broad spectrum of antifungal activity against moulds and yeasts, such as cyclo(Gly-Leu), cyclo (Phe-Pro), cyclo(Phe-OH-Pro), cyclo (Leu-Pro), which were considered one of the major components responsible for the antifungal activity of these strains (Niku-Paavola et al., 1999; Ström et al., 2002; Dal Bello et al., 2007). There are some authors that found different novel peptides obtained from L. plantarum strains exerting antifungal activity due to damage of the cell membrane and consequent leakage of intracellular contents such as K⁺ ions and ATP (Sharma & Srivastava, 2014; Muhialdin et al., 2016).

In the study of wide range of potentially useful probiotic strains L. plantarum CECT 749 caused 99-100% aflatoxin reduction in the contaminated bread, promoted by the inhibition of the mycotoxigenic fungi. In that way the bread sample studies showed a shelf life increase of about 3-4 days (Saladino et al., 2016). According to Kurhan & Çakir (2016) L. plantarum could safely reduce aflatoxin B₁ levels without producing any byproducts. Deepthi et al. (2016) reported that the 61.7% reducing of fumonisin levels by L. plantarum MYS6 in their experiment was possibly due to binding mechanism. Some authors found that the T. Dinev, G. Beev, M. Tzanova, S. Denev, D. Dermendzhieva & A. Stoyanova

treatment of wheat seeds with some antimicrobial peptides produced by *L. plantarum* LR/14 prevented fungal growth even after an extended storage under laboratory conditions for around 2.5 years. All fungi examined were inhibited and spore germination was more susceptible than hyphal growth (Gupta & Srivastava, 2014).

In screening of wide range of 897 LAB isolates for antifungal activity

Table 3. Antifungal activity of Lactobacillus plantarum strains

Spectrum of <i>L. plantarum</i> activity	References
Moulds	
Aspergillus candidus	Coloretti et al., 2007
A. carbonarius	Djossou et al., 2011
A. flavus	Lavermicocca et al., 2000; Yang & Chang, 2010; Ryu et al., 2014; Sangmanee & Hongpattarakere, 2014; Muhialdin et al., 2016; Russo et al., 2016
A. fumigatus	Ström et al., 2002; Sjögren et al., 2003; Ryu et al., 2014
A. nidulans	Ström et al., 2002; Sjögren et al., 2003; Ryu et al., 2014
A. niger	Lavermicocca et al., 2000; Dal Bello et al., 2007; Gupta & Srivastava, 2014; Yasmin et al., 2015; Russo et al., 2016
A. ochraceus	Ryu et al., 2014
A. parasiticus	Sangmanee & Hongpattarakere, 2014; Saladino et al., 2016
A. petrakii	Ryu et al., 2014
A. versicolor	Cheong <i>et al.</i> , 2014
Cladosporium spp.	Russo et al., 2016
C. gossypiicola	Ryu et al., 2014
C. herbarum	Cheong <i>et al.</i> , 2014
Endomyces fibuliger	Lavermicocca et al., 2000
Eurotium repens	Lavermicocca et al., 2000
E. rubrum	Lavermicocca et al., 2000
Fusarium avenaceum	Niku-Paavola et al., 1999
F. culmorum	Dal Bello et al., 2007; Russo et al., 2016
F. graminearum	Dal Bello et al., 2007
F. oxysporum	Dal Bello et al., 2007
F. proliferatum	Deepthi et al., 2016
F. sporotrichoides	Ström <i>et al.</i> , 2002
Mucor spp.	Yasmin et al., 2015
Mucor racemosus	Gupta & Srivastava, 2014
Monilia sitophila	Lavermicocca et al., 2000
Penicillium spp.	Yasmin et al., 2015
P. chrysogenum	Gupta & Srivastava, 2014; Russo et al., 2016
P. commune	Ström et al., 2002; Sjögren et al., 2003; Cheong et al., 2014
P. corylophilum	Lavermicocca et al., 2000
P. expansum	Russo et al., 2016; Saladino et al., 2016
P. roqueforti	Lavermicocca et al., 2000; Sjögren et al., 2003; Ryu et al., 2014 Muhialdin et al., 2016; Russo et al., 2016
P. solitum	Cheong et al., 2014
Rhizopus stolonifer	Gupta & Srivastava, 2014

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Spectrum of L. plantarum References activity Yeasts Candida albicans Ström et al., 2002; Wynne et al., 2004; Ryu et al., 2014; Sharma & Srivastava, 2014 Ström et al., 2002 Debaryomyces hansenii Ryu et al., 2014 Kazachstania exigua Ström et al., 2002; Sjögren et al., 2003 Kluyveromyces marxianus Pichia anomala Ström et al., 2002; Sjögren et al., 2003 P. kudriavzevii Ryu et al., 2014 Saccharomyces bulderi Ryu et al., 2014 Ström et al., 2002; Jiang et al., 2016 S. cerevisiae S. servazzii Ryu et al., 2014 Ström et al., 2002; Sjögren et al., 2003; Inglin et al., 2015; Rhodotorula mucilaginosa Jiang et al., 2016

Table 3 (cont'd). Antifungal activity of Lactobacillus plantarum strains

against cheese spoilage moulds was found that 12 isolates possessed strong antifungal activity, and all of them were identified as *L. plantarum*. Further studies indicated that all *L. plantarum* isolates prevented the visible growth of *Penicillium commune* FRR 4117 on cottage cheese by 14–25 days longer than cottage cheese without added LAB with antifungal activity (Cheong *et al.*, 2014).

L. plantarum LR/14 showed potent fungicidal activity against Candida albicans SC5314 by affecting cell viability, membrane permeability and biofilm formation, thereby the authors suggested this strain as a probable natural candidate therapeutic agent (Sharma & Srivastava, 2014). Some authors reported powerful inhibitory activity of tetracycline-resistant L. plantarum strain against Candida albicans that may make this probiotic useful for improved management of yeast-related conditions such as thrush and irritable bowel syndrome (Wynne et al., 2004). Also, administration of L. plantarum is sometimes helpful for reducing the clinical symptoms and prevention of fungal infections (De Seta et al., 2014).

CONCLUSIONS

Based on a wide range of investigations, L. plantarum should be considered an important LAB species with excellent antimicrobial activity. Because of that some L. plantarum strains can be used as effective biopreservatives in food industry or supporting therapeutic agents in treatment of infections caused by susceptible microorganisms. Antimicrobial compounds produced by L. plantarum such as bacteriocins and organic acids, could also be applied as alternatives of preservatives and therapeutics.

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