

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29

The Isolation and Identification of Fungi Gathered from Districts in Bangkok, Thailand Where Dengue Fever Is at Epidemic Levels

Ladawan Wasinpiyamongkol^{1¶} and Panan Kanchanaphum^{2¶*}

¹Microbiology Unit, Faculty of Science, Rangsit University, Patumthani, Thailand :
ladawan.w@rsu.ac.th

²Biochemistry Unit, Faculty of Science, Rangsit University, Patumthani, Thailand :
panan.k@rsu.ac.th

*Corresponding author: E-mail, panan.k@rsu.ac.th

¶This author contributed equally to this work.

¶This author also contribute equally to this work.

30

31 The Isolation and Identification of Fungi Gathered from Districts in
32 Bangkok, Thailand Where Dengue Fever Is at Epidemic Levels

33

34 **Abstract**

35 Background: The *Aedes* mosquito is a major vector of many important
36 diseases such as dengue, chikungunya, Zika, and yellow fever. Biological
37 methods of controlling mosquitos are desirable because they are
38 ecologically friendlier, safer, and more cost effective than chemical and
39 physical methods of controlling mosquitos.

40 Methods: Water samples in the mosquitoes' breeding containers from
41 districts in Bangkok were collected from the mosquitoes breeding
42 containers situated in seven districts of Bangkok, Thailand. The DNA
43 was extracted from each sample of the isolated fungi. Purified DNA
44 specimens were amplified in a PCR reaction with universal primers of
45 ITS1 and ITS4. All the PCR product was sequencing, alignment and
46 comparing the homologous sequence in GenBank database .

47 Results: Fourteen strains of fungi were isolated. The most commonly
48 found strain was *Penicillium citrinum*, which was discovered in six of the
49 30 isolated fungi samples.

50 Conclusion: Biological control strategies for the mosquito population
51 should be further investigated because they are considered to be
52 ecologically friendlier, safer, and more cost effective than chemical
53 insecticides.

54

55 Keywords: biological control; entomopathogenic fungi; dengue; mosquito

56

57

58

59

60 **Introduction**

61 Mosquitoes are an important vector species for arboviruses that
62 belong to the following three families: Flaviviridae, which causes dengue
63 fever, Bunyaviridae, which causes chikungunya, and Zika Togaviridae,
64 which causes arthritis, encephalitis, and rubella [1, 2]. The *Anopheles*
65 species of mosquitoes, which belongs to the *Aedes* and *Culex* genera, is
66 responsible for the majority of arbovirus transmission. *Aedes aegypti* is a
67 highly anthropophilic species known for transmitting several emerging
68 arboviruses such as dengue, Zika, chikungunya and yellow fever, which
69 have had a significant impact on human public health [3].

70 Dengue fever outbreaks occur intermittently in Thailand. A
71 reduction in dengue transmission could be achieved by controlling the
72 population density of *Aedes aegypti* and ensuring it is maintained at a
73 level below the critical threshold that results in an epidemic [4]. A variety
74 of chemical, physical, and biological methods have been used to decrease
75 the incidence of vector-borne diseases such as dengue fever transmitted
76 by mosquitoes. However, the use of chemical insecticides has caused
77 resistance in mosquitoes, serious health hazards, and harmful effects on
78 beneficial non-target animals [5]. Biological control methods are
79 ecologically friendlier, safer, and more cost effective than chemical and
80 physical methods, which are more expensive and time-consuming for the
81 regular entomological observation of mosquito breeding sites [3].
82 Biological control depends on the use of predators such as fish, the larvae
83 of *Toxorhynchites*, and copepods or parasitic organisms such as *Bacillus*
84 *thuringiensis israelensis* and *Lysinibacillus sphaericus* as well as
85 entomopathogenic fungus targeting disease vectors [3].

86 The purpose of this research is to discover fungi with
87 entomopathogenic properties that could be used to control the mosquito
88 population. To achieve this objective, the water samples taken from the
89 mosquito breeding containers situated in the dengue-endemic areas in
90 Bangkok, where is the one of the provinces in the list of the highest
91 outbreak area.

92

93 **Materials and methods**

94 Water sample collection

95 Water samples were collected from the mosquitoes breeding
96 containers situated in seven districts of Bangkok, Thailand where dengue
97 fever was reported to be at endemic levels (Bang Khen, Lat Krabang, Min
98 Buri, Phra Khanong, Rat Burana, Taling Chan, and Thung Khru). The
99 water samples were kept in 250 ml screw capped sterilized bottles that
100 were sealed and then stored at 4°C prior to the isolation procedure.

101

102 Isolation of filamentous fungi

103 Initially, the water samples were filtered through a 47 mm diameter
104 sterile 0.45 µm membrane cellulose nitrate filter (Whatman, 7141-104;
105 Whatman International Ltd, UK) using Millipore vacuum apparatus in a
106 laminated flow chamber. Then, using sterile forceps, the filter was
107 transferred to a petri dish containing 4 ml of sterile water where it was
108 thoroughly washed for 30 sec. Next, 1 ml of sterile water was cultured on
109 Potato Dextrose Agar (PDA, Difco, BBL / USA) supplemented with
110 Chloramphenicol 50 mg/l and Gentamycine 25 mg/l. Three replicates
111 were used for each water sample. After that, the agar plates were
112 incubated at 28 ± 2°C for 7-10 days and then monitored daily for the
113 appearance of fungal colonies. Finally, the fungal isolates were
114 subcultured separately to obtain pure cultures on PDA for identification.

115

116

117

118 Identification of filamentous fungi

119 Colony descriptions were based on PDA observations under
120 ambient daylight conditions. Microscopic observations and measurements
121 were made from preparations that were mounted in lactic acid. The
122 morphological characteristics of the fungi were septation of hypha,
123 formation, morphology, the branching frequency of fruiting-bodies and
124 conidiophores. Characteristics of the colony form, structure, size, and
125 color were also observed and recorded. Filamentous fungi were identified
126 at the generic level according to morphological characteristics as
127 described in fungal atlases [6, 7].

128

129 The sequencing of fungal strains by ITS

130 The DNA was extracted from each sample of the isolated fungi by
131 a fungal DNA extraction kit using the manufacturer's instructions
132 (Presto™ Mini gDNA Yeast kit; Geneaid, New Taipei City, Taiwan).
133 Purified DNA specimens were amplified in a PCR reaction with universal
134 primers of ITS1: 5'-TCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGC-3' and ITS4: 5'-
135 TCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC-3'. The PCR reaction included 0.4 μM
136 of ITS1 and ITS4 primers, 0.2 mM dNTPs, 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 1xPCR
137 buffer (50 mM KCl, 10 mM Tris-HCl), 1.25 units of *Taq* DNA
138 polymerase (New England Biolabs). The reaction was carried out in a
139 BIO-RAD MJ Mini Personal Thermal Cycler. The cycle conditions
140 consisted of a single initial denaturation at 94°C for 5 min followed by 35
141 cycles at 94°C for 30 sec, 50°C for 30 sec, 72°C for 1 min, and a final
142 extension step at 72°C for 5 min. The PCR product size was about 550

143 bp. All the PCR product was sent to Solution of Genetic Technology,
144 South Korea for sequencing.

145 The resulting sequences were checked and aligned using the
146 BioEdit 7.0 sequence alignment editor (Isis Pharmaceuticals, Inc.,
147 Carlsbad, CA, USA). The sequences were compared with a homologous
148 sequence stored in the GenBank database then evaluated using the
149 BLAST program on the National Center for Biotechnology Information
150 (NCBI) website.

151

152 **Results**

153 Thirty fungal isolates were isolated from water samples gathered
154 from seven areas around Bangkok. The results of the rDNA-ITS
155 sequencing show that 550 bp of PCR product was sequenced from all the
156 isolate strains. The resulting sequences were compared with the 18S
157 rDNA BLAST sequence stored at the GenBank database using the
158 BLAST tool. The 14 isolated fungal strains were shown in Fig. 1.

159

160 Fig. 1 Colony and conidia of isolated fungi on PDA agar medium

161

162 *Penicillium citrinum* was found to be the most dominant of all
163 strains isolated. Six isolates of *Penicillium citrinum* were found,
164 accounting for 19.98 % of the total population, as shown in Fig. 2.
165 *Aspergillus oryzae*, *Fusarium chlamydosporum*, *Geotrichum candidum*,
166 *Ceratocystis paradoxa*, and *Trichoderma harzianum* were present in 3.33
167 % of the total population. *Aspergillus terrrus*, *Aspergillus niger*,
168 *Penicillium oxalicum*, *Cladosporium oxysporum*, and *Metarhizium*
169 *anisopliae* were present in 6.67 % of the total population. And,
170 *Aspergillus micronesiensis*, *Alternaria alterata*, and *Trichoderma*
171 *asperellum* were present in 9.99 % of the total population.

172

173 Fig. 2 The percentage of isolated strains of fungi gathered from the water
174 samples

175

176 **Discussion**

177 Monitoring the diversity of filamentous fungi as part of mosquito
178 vector management could considerably benefit public health. This is the
179 first study in Thailand to isolate and identify fungi gathered from
180 mosquito breeding containers in districts where dengue fever is prevalent
181 around Bangkok. The results show that two strains of the
182 entomopathogenic fungi *Metarhizium anisopliae* and *Penicillium*
183 *citrinum* could be potential candidates for the biological control of
184 mosquitoes.

185 Both *M. anisopliae* and *Entomophthora anisopliae* are the fungi
186 that are found in nature throughout the world, which causes disease in
187 various insects by acting as a parasitoid [8]. *M. anisopliae* can infect a
188 wide range of mosquitoes in the genera of *Aedes* and *Culex* [9, 10]. A
189 histological study has reported that the ingestion of conidia eventually
190 leads to blockage of the anatomic structure [11]. The gut of larvae was
191 found to contain high concentrations of conidia, which suggests that it is
192 usually ingested [11]. The mortality of larvae has been related to stress-
193 induced apoptosis, as confirmed by experimental evidence, which
194 demonstrated that treatment with protease inhibitors substantially
195 increased the survival of larvae [12]. Blastospores produced by the
196 *Metarhizium* species have potential for field applications because they
197 exhibit a high degree of host specificity and kill rapidly after penetration
198 [3].

199 Besides *M. anisopliae*, the other major fungi isolated, which has
200 the potential to kill mosquitoes biologically, was *Penicillium citrinum*. *P.*

201 *citrinum* has been found to cause mortality in *Culex quinquefasciatus* or
202 the southern house mosquitoes [13] that acts as a vector of the West Nile
203 and Japanese encephalitis viruses [14]. The results of this research show
204 that six of thirty isolated fungi were found to be of the *P. citrinum*
205 species. Therefore, further research should evaluate whether a
206 combination of *M. anisopliae* and *P. citrinum* could be enhanced the
207 effectiveness of the killing mosquito larvae.

208 Normally, entomopathogenic fungi, endotoxin of *Bacillus*
209 *thuringiensis israelensis* (*Bti*) and *Lysinibacillus sphaericus* (*Ls*) are used
210 to control the population of mosquitoes. The toxins produced by *Bti* and
211 *Ls* have the advantage of being highly effective as larvicides for various
212 vector species of arboviruses. *Bti* is broadly effective against mosquitoes
213 in the genera of *Aedes*, *Culex*, and *Anopheles*, whereas the toxicity of *Ls*
214 is limited to *Culex* and *Anopheles* [15].

215 Research into the application of microorganism insecticides has
216 found that the mosquito-fish, *Gambusia affinis* was compatible with the
217 simultaneous use of other chemical or biological control tools [16]. An
218 experiment in the rice fields of California that mainly focused on *Culex*
219 *tarsalis* evaluated the release of *G. affinis* followed by treatment with
220 *Bacillus thuringiensis israelensis* [17].

221

222 **Conclusions**

223 Entomopathogenic fungi could be used as the potential biological
224 control strategies for mosquito population. Because of these potential
225 fungal isolates are considered to be ecologically friendlier, safer, and
226 more cost effective than chemical insecticides. Further research should be
227 investigated their extracellular metabolites that may be used in integrated
228 the management programs for mosquito population.

229

230 **Acknowledgements**

231 We would like to sincerely thank Mr. Stewart Miller for critical
232 correcting English grammar. This work was funded by a grant from
233 Research Institute of Rangsit University, Thailand (Grant no. 63/2560).

234 **References**

- 235 1. Dutta P, Prakash A, Bhattacharyya DR, Khan SA, Gogoi PR,
236 Sharma CK, Mahanta J. Mosquito biodiversity of Dibru-Saikhowa
237 biosphere reserve in Assam, India. *J Environ Biol.* 2010;31:695-9.
- 238 2. Marcondes CB, Ximenes Mde F. Zika virus in Brazil and the danger
239 of infestation by *Aedes* (*Stegomyia*) mosquitoes. *Rev Soc Bras*
240 *Med Trop.* 2016;49:4-10. <http://doi:10.1590/0037-8682-0220-2015>
- 241 3. Huang YS, Higgs S, Vanlandingham D L. Biological Control
242 Strategies for Mosquito Vectors of Arboviruses. *Insects.* 2017;
243 8(1). <http://doi:10.3390/insects8010021>
- 244 4. Focks DA, Chadee DD. Pupal survey: an epidemiologically
245 significant surveillance method for *Aedes aegypti*: an example
246 using data from Trinidad. *Am J Trop Med Hyg.* 1997;56:159-67.
- 247 5. Sharma VP, Sharma RC, Gautam AS. Bio-environmental control of
248 malaria in Nadiad, Kheda district, Gujarat. *Indian J Malariol.*
249 1986;23:95-117.
- 250 6. Davise HL. *Medically Important Fungi: A Guide to Identification*, 4th
251 Edition, Washington, D.C.: American Society for Microbiology
252 Press, 2002. 409 pp., illustrated.
- 253 7. Colin KC, Elizabeth MJ, David WW. *Identification of Pathogenic*
254 *Fungi* 2nd Edition, Kindle edition: Wiley-Blackwell, 2013.
- 255 8. Frazzon AP, da Silva Vaz Junior I, Masuda A, Schrank A,
256 Vainstein MH. In vitro assessment of *Metarhizium anisopliae*
257 isolates to control the cattle tick *Boophilus microplus*. *Vet*
258 *Parasitol.* 2000;94:117-25.

- 259 9. Riba G, Keita A, Soares GG, Jr, Ferron P. Comparative studies
260 of *Metarhizium anisopliae* and *Tolypocladium cylindrosporum* as
261 pathogens of mosquito larvae. J Am Mosq Control Assoc. 1986;2:
262 469-73.
- 263 10. Agudelo-Silva F, Wassink H. Infectivity of a Venezuelan strain of
264 *Metarhizium anisopliae* to *Aedes aegypti* larvae. J Invertebr Pathol.
265 1984; 43:435-6.
- 266 11. Scholte EJ, Knols BG, Samson RA, Takken W. Entomopathogenic
267 fungi for mosquito control: a review. J Insect Sci. 2004; 4:19.
- 268 12. Butt TM, Greenfield BP, Greig C, Maffei TG, Taylor JW,
269 Piasecka J, Eastwood DC. *Metarhizium anisopliae* pathogenesis of
270 mosquito larvae: a verdict of accidental death. PLoS One. 2013;
271 8:e81686. <http://doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0081686>
- 272 13. Maketon M, Amnuaykanjanasin A, Kaysorngup A. A rapid
273 knockdown effect of *Penicillium citrinum* for control of the
274 mosquito *Culex quinquefasciatus* in Thailand. World J Microbiol
275 Biotechnol. 2014; 30:727-36. [http://doi:10.1007/s11274-013-](http://doi:10.1007/s11274-013-1500-4)
276 1500-4
- 277 14. Turell MJ. Members of the *Culex pipiens* complex as vectors of
278 viruses. J Am Mosq Control Assoc. 2012; 28:123-6.
279 <http://doi:10.2987/8756-971X-28.4.123>
- 280 15. Bellow TS, Fisher TW. Handbook of Biological Control : Principle
281 and Applications of Biological Control; Academic Press : San
282 Diego, CA, USA. 1999.
- 283 16. Bay EC. Mosquito control by fish: a present-day appraisal. WHO
284 Chron. 1967;21:415-23.
- 285 17. Haq S, Prasad RN, Prasad H, Shukla RP, Sharma VP.
286 *Gambusia affinis*: dispersal due to floods and its failure to colonize

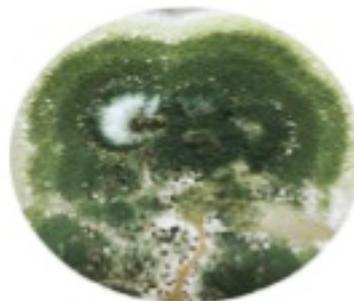
287	new water bodies in Shahjahanpur District (U.P.). Indian Malariol.
288	1992;29:113-8.
289	
290	
291	
292	
293	
294	
295	
296	
297	
298	
299	



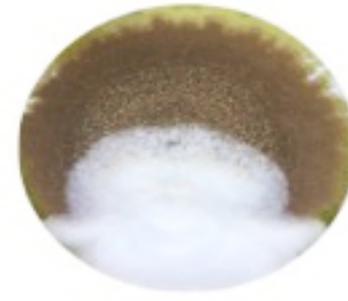
Aspergillus micronesiensis



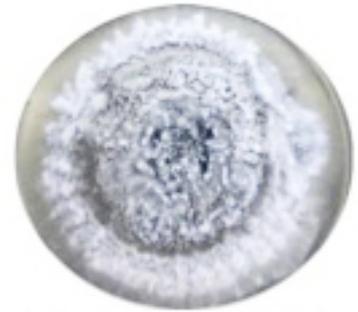
Aspergillus niger



Aspergillus oryzae



Aspergillus terreus



Alternaria alternata



Penicillium citrinum



Penicillium oxalicum



Trichoderma asperellum



Trichoderma harzianum



Cladosporium oxysprum



Ceratocystis paradoxa



Fusarium chlamydosporum



Geotrichum candidum



Metarhizium anisopliae

Figure 1

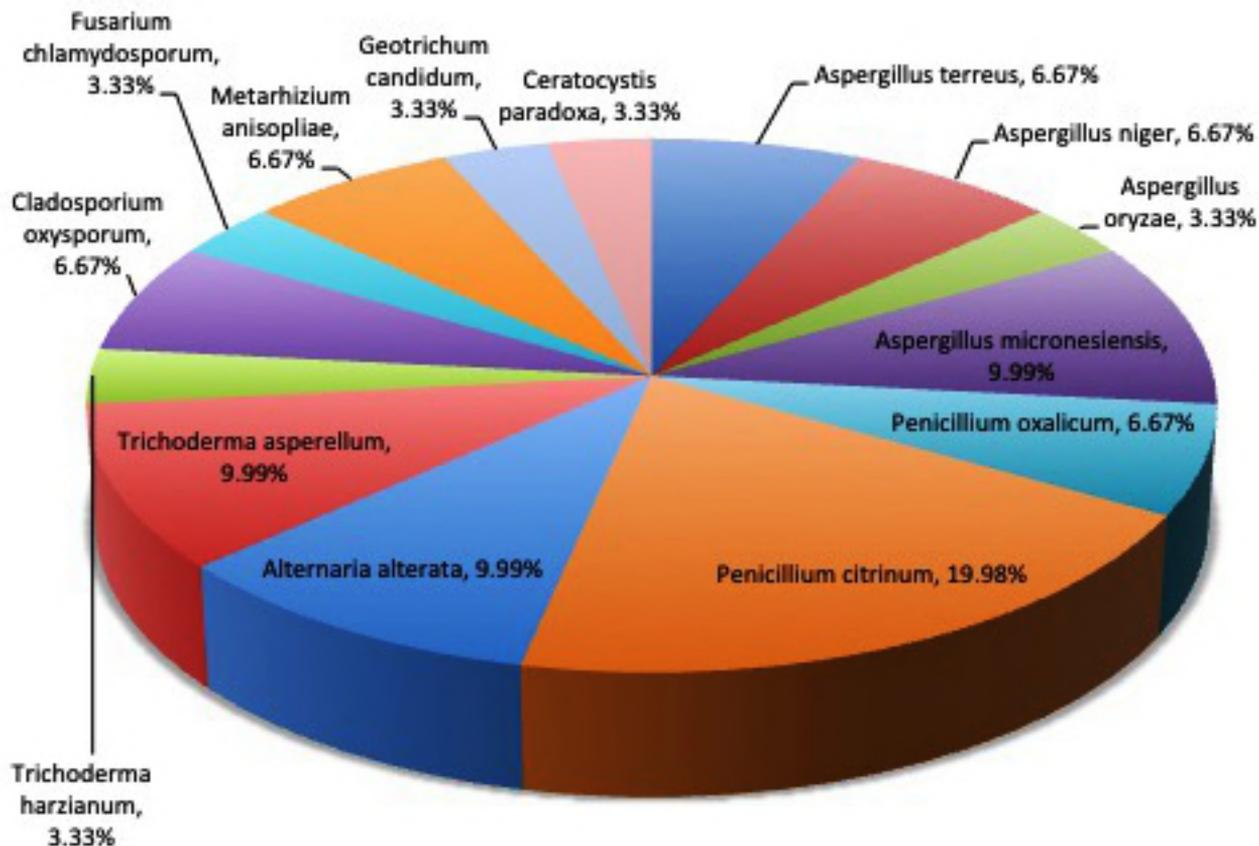


Figure 2