Volume.5, Issue.2, pp: 77-88 May (2024)

Article 7

Evaluating Mosquito Biocontrol Effectiveness by Isolating and Characterizing Some Fungi Against Culex Pipiens and Anopheles Stephensi in Sothern Part of Iraq

Zahraa Falah Azeez, Majida M. Abid Falhy

Received: 15/12/2023 Revised: 15/1/2024 Accepted: 17/2/2024

DOI: https://doi.org/10.31559/VMPH2024.5.2.7





www.refaad.com

Veterinary Medicine and Public Health Journal (VMPH)

Journal Homepage: https://www.refaad.com/Journal/Index/7

E-ISSN 2707-7195 | P-ISSN 2707-7187



Evaluating Mosquito Biocontrol Effectiveness by Isolating and Characterizing Some Fungi Against *Culex Pipiens* and *Anopheles Stephensi* in Sothern Part of Iraq

Zahraa Falah Azeez^{1*}, Majida M. Abid Falhy²

- ¹Collage of Biotechnology, University of Al-Qadisiyah, Iraq.
- ² Department of Biology, College of Science, University of Al-Qadisiyah, Iraq.
- * Corresponding author: Zahraa Falah Azeez (zahraa.azeez@qu.edu.iq)

How to cite this article: Azeez, Z. & Falhy, M. (2024). Evaluating Mosquito Biocontrol Effectiveness by Isolating and Characterizing Some Fungi Against Culex Pipiens and Anopheles Stephensi in Sothern Part of Iraq. Veterinary Medicine and Public Health Journal, 5(2), 77-88.

Abstract:

Objectives: Isolation *Aspergillus tamarii*, *Cladosporium herbarum*, and *Verticillium lecanii* fungi from naturally infected *Culex pipiens* and *Anopheles stephensi* insects were morphologically and molecularly identified. **Methods:** In this study, populations of mosquitoes were cultured and examined to determine fungal infection and evaluated as potential agents against *C. pipiens* and *A. stephensi*.

Results: A variety of fungal isolates demonstrated differing degrees of pathogenicity 24 hours after treatment against *C. pipiens* and *A. stephensi* eggs, four-instar mosquito larvae, and adults. and as a biological control, it was found that the fungal suspension of each of the used fungi affected the life roles of the two mosquitoes. as it was more than the fungus suspension *A. tamarii*, *Cl. herbarum* on *V. lecanii*. The highest percentage of eggs mortality were (36.72, 48.97) %, (29.14, 42.25) %, and (24.45, 35.70) % of *C. pipiens* and *A. stephensi* when using the highest concentration of 1*10⁵ spore/ml, 3*10⁵ spore/ml and 2*10⁵ spore/ml of fungicide *A. tamarii*, *C. herbarum*, *V.lecanii* and respectively after 24 hours. The highest mortality rate was for the fourth larval stages, and the mosquito *A. stephensi* is more sensitive to type *C. pipiens* infection., as, in order (75.6, 67.19, 56.8) %, (74.18, 59.81, 50) %, and (65, 52,42.71) %.

Conclusions: Results highlight the significance of a mosquito's natural fungal opponent. All isolates had an impact on adults and larvae, although they were less successful against eggs. Both have the potential to develop, particularly against the larvae of the primary arbovirus, malaria, and lymphatic filariasis vectors, *A. stephensi*, and *C. pipiens*.

Keywords: Entomopathogenic fungi; mosquito control; Culex pipiens; Anopheles stephensi.

1 Introduction

Mosquitoes pose a serious risk to human health worldwide because they can spread infectious diseases such as arboviruses, malaria, and lymphatic filariasis., A. stephensi is a major vector of malaria in many countries of the world, including Iraq (Matthews, 2011). where more than 250 million people, as well as more than a million deaths every year in the world, are infected with malaria (W.H.O, 2018.) while mosquitoes are C. pipiens a vector for various dangerous viral pathogens, including St. Louis virus (which causes encephalitis), West Nile, and dengue fever (W.H.O, 2014). It also transmits nematode Wuchereria bancrofti which causes elephantiasis or the so-called Filariasis disease, which wastes the lives of millions of people. He scored more than 700 million people infected with filariasis, and about 103 million people in more than 80 countries face the risk of infection with this disease (Ishak et al., 2017) Perhaps chemical control was and is still the most effective in eliminating mosquitoes and reducing their damage in different regions of the world, where many manufactured pesticides have been used, but the damage caused by them was not little, as their use led to pollution of the air, water, and soil, Moreover, the target insects gained the ability to quickly adapt to toxic substances and to start developing immunity against them (Thongwat et al., 2018). Because of their selective specificity and environmental safety, fungi entomopathogenic represent environmentally benign alternative that is gaining popularity in efforts to reduce the burden of vectorborne diseases (Bandani et al., 2000). Previous research has demonstrated the vast potential of microbial agents in the biocontrol of mosquitoes, so attention has turned to the use of fungal spore suspension in insect control to be a safe alternative to manufactured pesticides. This is because they are toxic, nutrientinhibiting, or inhibitory substances in insects (Nielsen and Lewis 2012, Thakur et al., 2020) Among the eukaryotic organisms on Earth, fungi are the second biggest group, with an estimated 1.5 to 5.1 million species. (1-3) The fungal kingdom has important significance in human existence. (Hawksworth & Lücking, 2017; Pandian, 2023). and among these fungi species subordinate genera Aspergillus, Verticillum, and Cladosporium, are pathogenic to mosquitoes when the appropriate conditions are available for the development of spores of these fungi, (Kamalakannan et al., 2022; Pathan et al.,2021; Vivekanandhan et al., 2018), V. lecanii is considered one of the deficient fungi as it is found in the soil and infects all soil insects, and it can infect mosquitoes (Sharma and Sharma, 2021). Previous

studies have shown A. tamarii reported better larvicidal properties against mosquitoes, as for the fungus C. herbarum of the cystic fungi (Rana et al., 2020), and its effect on the whitefly Bemisia sp. and scale insects (Baskar et al., 2020). Fungal species identification is crucial in both basic (ecology, taxonomy) and applied (genomics) fields. Of the studies, 27% relied solely on molecular data, primarily from the internal transcribed spacer (ITS) region, for fungal identification (Tedersoo & Nilsson, 2016), while approximately 14% combined molecular morphological data. This indicates that standardizing the taxonomic identification of fungi is a topic that could benefit from standardization, particularly in the application of bioactive (Raja et al., 2017). Because of the medicinal importance of the used mosquitos, and the fact that previous research that contributed to isolating local types of fungi and their use as a vital factor in the control is almost very few, and it did not previously address the fungus A. tamarii, V. lecanii, and C. herbarum Therefore, this study aimed to isolate three mentioned fungi from the of *Culex* spp. and Anopheles spp. that infected naturally for the first time in Iraq and evaluating their efficiency in controlling two types of mosquitoes; *C. pipiens* and *A.* stephensi.

2 Materials and Methods

2.1 Collection, Isolation, Identification, and Phylogenetic Analysis of Fungi associated with Mosquito

Naturally infected insects were obtained from Diwaniyah city, Al-Dagharai District (Iraq). In summary, external conidia from infected insects were placed onto potato dextrose agar (PDA) medium supplemented with 0.01% (w/w) chloramphenicol plate (PDA+) and 5% (w/w) sodium chloride. The plates were then incubated for seven days at 30 °C. To achieve pure culture isolation, the hyphal tip of the fungal colony was then moved to PDA plates. To identify the isolated fungi preliminary, the macro- and microscopic characteristics of the isolates were analyzed using the techniques of Samson Al-Rawei et al., (2018) and Hubka et al. (2016). The internal transcribed spacer (ITS) region of the rRNA gene was utilized for PCR amplification and for DNA extraction, sequencing, and BLAST, which were used to characterize fungi (Schoch et al., 2012). The ITS universal primer set is positioned in front of the ITS 1, 5.8S, and. The nucleotide sequence of the ITS 1 primer is 5' GTAACAAGGTTTCCGTAGGTG-3' and that of the ITS 2 is 5'TTCTTTTCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC-

3' (AL-RIFAIE, 2023). A PCR program comprising an initial denaturation at 94 °C for 5 min was followed by 30 cycles of denaturing at 94 °C for 30 sec, elongations at, annealing of primer at 55 °C and 72 °C for 1 min 30 sec, and a final termination at 72 °C for 10 min was used in the GeneAmp 9700 PCR System Thermal cycler (Applied Biosystem Inc., USA) (Killelea et al.,2014). The primer pairs (ITS) and PCR products were delivered to the Macrogen DNA sequencing service in Korea after being refrigerated at 4°C. Direct sequencing was done on the PCR products in both directions. Using the Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST), nucleotide sequences were aligned and compared with the sequences of the other fungal isolates that were accessible in the NCBI database (Abdullah et al., 2019). Using MEGA 11, phylogenetic analysis of all fungal nucleotide sequences was compared.

2.2 Experimental conditions

All experiments were performed in rooms with climatic conditions similar to the outside environment.

Preparation of Spore Suspension: The isolates were cultivated for ten days at 37 °C on sterile substrates. Following the completion of the solid-state fermentation, the substrate (10 g) was gathered and overtaxed in a sterile test tube to suspend and loosen the spores. The mixture was then combined with 20 mL of 0.01% Tween 80. The contents of the dish were filtered through a fixed glass funnel containing a sterile piece of gauze with the addition of another 5 ml of distilled water to ensure the filtering of all fungal spores (Choi et al., 1999) To calculate the number of spores, take 1 ml of the filtrate and put on a slide count the modified white blood cells to count the spores: Improved Neubauer Haemocytometer to estimate the number of spores per unit volume, according to the number of spores in each of the four large squares in the corners of the slide to obtain the average number of spores in the box one (Bauer et al., 2002) and then multiply the result by 1*104 spore/ ml for the fungus A. tamarii (volume conversion factor) to obtain the number of spores in 1 ml of the fungal suspension. 3*105 spore/ ml for the fungus C. herbarum and 2*105 spore/ml for the fungus V. lecanii. To obtain a lower concentration, the following equation was applied (Lacey, 1997). Volume (ml) taken from the main suspension = desired concentration/concentration of the original suspension

Then the result is multiplied by the volume of the suspension to be prepared, and this is how the concentrations were prepared: Fungal spore suspension *A. tamarii* (1*10⁵, 1*10⁴, 1*10³, 1*10²).

Fungal spore suspension C. herbarum (3*105, 3*104, $3*10^3$, $3*10^2$) and Fungal spore suspension *V*. lecanii (2*105, 2*104, 2*103, 2*102). Pathogenicity to the mortality rate of two mosquito species C. Pipiens and A. stephensi: The method of Altre et al. (1999), was employed to investigate the pathogenicity assays. In a nutshell, third-instar C. pipiens and A. stephensi larvae were taken from a lab colony, reared on blood or individual eggs at 100 eggs per replicate of type A. stephensi was used with a soft brush and placed separately in a 250 ml plastic container containing 100 ml of each concentration of suspended fungi from the tested fungi, as well as spraying the eggs on the surface at the same concentration in which it was placed by a hand sprinkler at an amount of 5 ml for each replicate from a height of 15 cm., and maintained in laboratory conditions of 15:9 h light: dark and 30 °C until used. Only sterile distilled water is sprayed on the control treatment to guarantee that every egg is exposed to the fungal solution. The eggs were observed until they hatched and the mortality rate was computed when the pots were placed in the incubator at a temperature of 25 ± 2 °C (Ali and Haitham, 2017).

2.3 The effect on the mortality rates of the fourth larval stage

Each fungus from the tested fungi for the two types of mosquitoes (separately) was taken and distributed into four containers, each containing 100 ml of each concentration of the suspension concentrations. The fifth contains sterile distilled water (control treatment). Then the treated larvae were transferred with a soft brush to 250 ml glass containers containing sterile distilled water to which the larvae food was added by 10 mg. The vessels were placed in the incubator at a degree of 25 ± 2 m and a light period (D) / L) 10/14 h, then the mortality rate was calculated within 24 hours of treatment (Mamai *et al.*, 2019).

2.4 The effect on the adult mortality rates

A sufficient number of pupae of each species were taken from the stock culture, and they were placed individually into 10 ml tubes and closed the tubes with a piece of cotton until they were transformed into adults, then I prepared glass balls of 1-liter capacity in each of them with a piece of cotton saturated with a sugary solution 10 % was placed in a small dish, spraying each baker with 5 ml of each concentration of fungal suspensions with a hand sprinkler from a height of approximately 15 cm, while the control treatment was sprayed with sterile distilled water, after which 10 adults were transferred by an aspirator from each of the newly emerging males and females of the two species .to the treatment bikers, this

experiment was repeated three times for each concentration and the same for the control treatment, the treatments were incubated under the same conditions, the mortality rate was calculated daily for a period of 24 h. (Leisnham *et al.*, 2014; W. H. O, 2006).

2.5 Data analysis

The results were analyzed statistically using SPSS software using the Completely Randomized Design (CRD) with two factors and a single-factor experiments. The percentages of data were analyzed after the Acrsine transformation and the averages were compared using the Revised least significant difference (RLSD) at a significant level. (P = 0.05) (Al-Rawei *et al.*,2000), percentages of depreciation were calculated and corrected according to the Abbott Formula (Abbott, W. 1925): % Corrected Loss = Mortality % in treatments - Mortality % in control x 100 ÷100 - Mortality % in control.

3 Results

The identification of more than a hundred mosquito's specimens from five provinces (Dywanyah, Kut, Babylon, Najaf, and Karbalah) in the central of Iraq, indicated that they were *C. pipiens* and *A. stephensi* according to Keys (Al-Rawei *et al.*,2000), and Three fungal species were identified from naturally infected

insects and accounted for 12.3% of the total qualityfiltered reads: A. tamarii, C. herbarum and V. lecanii. where the anatomy of A. tamarii colonies on SDA expanding quickly medium, white mycelium, fluffy; Reverse uncolor, sometimes pinkish; nonetheless, conidia have thick, rough walls and are roughly pyriform to globose, with a conspicuously olive brown conidial color; In tiny heads, phialides are biseriate, whereas in large heads, they are uniseriate (De Hoog, and Guarro, 1995; Käärik et al., 2012). Colonies produced by *C. herbarum* can be They are flat, green, or brown, with a diameter of 3-7 mm. The conidia (5.5-13 * 3.8-6 µm) also exisare branched and have swollen ends, with smooth or rough walls. The spores are lemon-shaped, conical, or oval, and are usually single-celled and carried terminally on a short, neck-like structure (Prasil, and de Hoog, 1988). The developing colony of the fungus *V. lecanii* is characterized by the radial shape of cottony eggs and appears to be zero due to its production of pigments. The conidiophores are transparent, smooth-walled, and carry near their end secondary radial branches, and metulaue, and each one bears phialid structures carrying several conidia at its end (AlAVO, 2015). This fungus produces three types of the conidia are oval or lemon-shaped, namely Macroconidia, Intermediateonidia, and Microconidia (Figure 1).

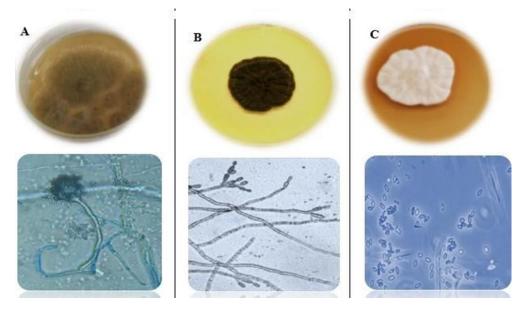


Figure 1: Morphological features of Cladosporium and cladosporioides cultured on SDA medium. Light microscopy of conidiophores, ramoconidia, and conidia (a-r x40). A. *A. tamarii, B. C. herbarum, C. V. lecanii.*

The results showed that the sequence of nitrogenous bases of study isolates, their number was 569 PB, the result was identical percentage (90%) with many global and local isolates found in the NCBI gene bank (Figure 2) which confirms and supports the validity of the phenotypic and microscopic diagnosis of this fungus (Kozel and Wickes, 2014; Abdullah *et al.*, 2019). The fungal isolates' phylogenetic tree demonstrates It

is assumed that certain species are more closely related than others. For instance, it was discovered that *A. tamari* shared a closer ancestry with *A. aflatoxiformans* and pseudomonas. Similar nonentity isolates are known to survive, according to the evolutionary tree of the fungi used in this study. The species underwent a small amount of elaboration to assist assure their survival (Goettel & Glare, 2010).

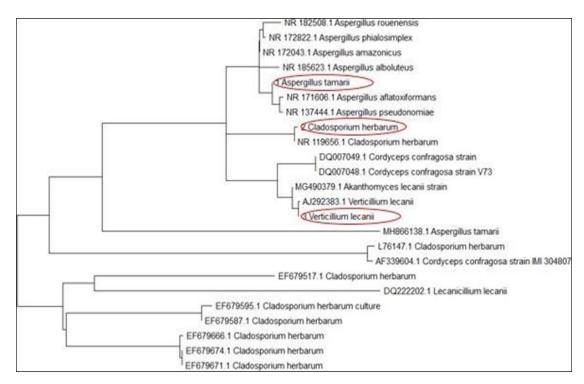


Figure 2: Phylogenetic tree of partial ITS gene sequences by maximum likelihood. Note: Sequences from this study are shown in the rectangle red.

3.1 The effect of fungicide suspensions A. tamarii, C. herbarum and V. lecanii in the mortality of two mosquitoes C. pipiens and A. stephensi:

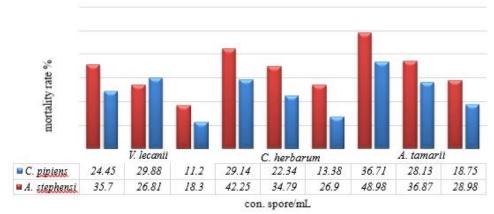


Figure 3: Effects of using different concentrations of fungal spore suspensions *A. tamarii, C. herbarum* and *V. lecanii* on eggs mortality of two mosquitoes species *C.pipiens* and *A. stephensi* L.S.D value below 0.05 significance level for interference =

(Figure 3) Results of the effect of different concentrations of *A. tamarii*, *C. herbarum* and *V. lecanii*, respectively, in the egg decimation percentages of two *C. pipiens* and *A. stephensi* were observed that there was a direct relationship between the concentration of the fungal suspension and the percentage of hatching as the mortality rate increased with the increase in

concentration and the statistical analysis showed that there are significant differences between the concentrations of the fungal suspensions and that the type of mosquito *A. stephensi* is more sensitive to the fungal suspension compared to the second type in all stages.

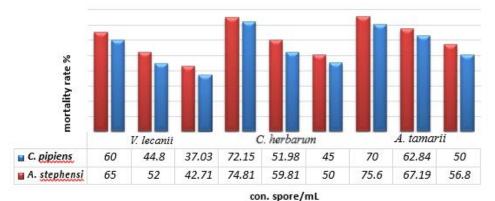


Figure 4: The effect of using different concentrations of fungi on the fourth larval stage of *C. pipiens* and *A. stephensi* L.S.D below 0.05 significance level for interference = 0.156

(Figure 4) shows the effect of using concentrations of fungi spore suspensions under investigation on the *tamarii*, B. *C. herbarum*, C. *V. lecanii* percentage of mortality of the fourth larval stages of two mosquitoes *C. pipiens* and *A. stephensi* was superior to the fungus

suspension *A.tamarii* and *C. herbarum*, in all concentrations in *V. lecanii* had a mortality rate when using the fungi suspension, while the mortality was absent in the control treatment, which indicates the existence of a direct relationship between concentration and mortality rates.

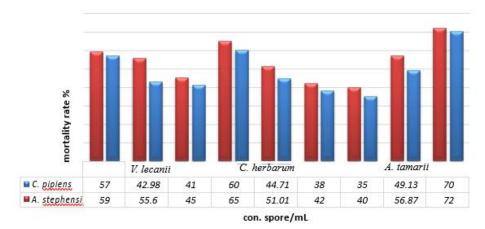


Figure 5: The effect of overlapping different concentrations of fungi A. tamarii, C. herbarum and V. lecanii in the percentages of mortality of adults in the two C. pipiens and A. stephensi L.S.D below 0.05 significance level for interference = 0.769

indicates the effect of concentrations in adult mortality of *C. pipiens* and *A.* stephensi percentage were (70,72) % when using highest concentration of 3*105 spore / ml of the fungus suspension A. tamarii while lowest concentration 1*10² spore/ml, (35, 40)%, and (60, 65)% in highest concentration of fungus suspension C. herbarum a while the lowest mortality was at the lowest concentration 3*10² spore/ml, (38, 42)%, and as for the fungus suspension V. lecanii, the highest mortality was at the highest concentration 2*10⁵ spore/ml (57, 55) %, for both two types of mosquitoes, respectively, in the same period. The mortality in the control treatment was non-existent. Moreover, we conclude from the above figure that the relationship between the concentrations of innate suspensions and each of the percentages of mortality and the duration of exposure was positive, and the statistical analysis demonstrated the presence of significant differences in the percentages of adult mortality. For the concentrations used, the statistical analysis also showed that there are significant differences according to concentration *A*. stephensi was more sensitive to infection with fungal suspensions compared with *C. pipiens*. This means that when used, all mushrooms contribute equally to reducing the spread of malaria. It's critical to have a formula that distributes the spores while keeping them on the surface for optimal concentration. This not only simplifies application but also lowers the quantity of spores needed. Using organic dry formulations is crucial for controlling Anopheles sp. because of the way spores enter the larval body (Daoust et al., 1982). The permanence of fungal spores must also be increased, which calls for UV radiation, humidity, preparation. temperature can all affect fungal spores. Because high relative humidity encourages spore germination, releasing spores above the water's surface may have unfavorable effects (Gunnarsson et al., 2011). To measure the virulence of the fungi, the values of LC_{50} and LC_{90} were calculated, which represent the basic value in test methods.

Table (1): Shows the LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ values for the bioassay of suspensions *A.tarmaii*, *C. herbarum* and *V.lecanii* in the eggs and fourth larva stage and adults of my *C. pipiens* and *A. stephensi* mosquito

			L	L	X	P -	Regression
			C	C9	2	val	equation
			5		2		equation
			0	0		ue	
				val			
			v	ue			
	sə	S	a 1	(LC			
	, seci	age	1	L-			
igr	Iso	SS	u	UC			
Fungi	Ē	ਰੇ	e	L)			
	Mosquitospecies	Insect' sstages	(L				
	Ĭ	П	C				
			L				
			_				
			U				
			C				
			L				
)				
		Egg	3.06×10 ⁶	1.153×10 ⁷	3	0.1	Y=-
		-00	(1.964×10 ⁶ -	(7.273×10 ⁶ -		74	0.47+1.53E
			7.414×10 ⁷)	7.512×10 ⁶)	5		7*X
	C.pipins		-,	, ,	0		
	- T · L · · · · ·				0		
	-	L4	1.109×10 ⁷	2.507×10 ⁷	0	0.6	Υ=-
A.tamarii			(9.427×10 ⁶ -	(1.714×10 ⁷ -		96	1.03+9.5E-
			1.319×10 ⁷)	3.213×10 ⁷)	7		8*X
			,	,	2		
					6		
	- -	Adult	1.074×10 ⁷	2.574×10 ⁷	1	0.5	Υ=-
			(8.940×10 ⁶ -	(1.472×10 ⁷ -	•	18	0.93+9.07E
			1.275×10 ⁷)	4.26×10 ⁷)	3		8*X
					1		
					5		
		Egg	2.778×10 ⁶	1.588×10 ⁷	5	0.0	Y=-
			(1.231×10 ⁶ -	(9.631×10 ⁶ -		50	0.28+9.96E
	A.stephensi		5.622×10 ⁶)	5.986×10 ⁷)	9		7*X
					8		
	-	T 4	4.000.405	0.504.505	9		•
		L4	1.078×10 ⁷	2.584×10 ⁷	0	0.7	Υ=-
			(8.314×10 ⁶ -	(1.96×10 ⁷ -		52	0.92+8.75E
			1.371×10 ⁷)	3.484×10 ⁷)	6		8*X
					4		
	-	A 1 1:	7.507407	1.005407	4	0.0	1/
		Adult	7.596×106	1.895×10 ⁷	0	0.9	Y=-
			(5.194×106-	(1.375×10 ⁷ -		00	0.86+1.14E
			9.006×10 ⁶)	1.25×10 ⁷)	2		7*x
					1		
		Т-	4.074406	1.490×10 ⁷	0	0.1	1/
		Egg	4.874×10 ⁶		3	0.1	Y=-
			(1.983×10 ⁶ -	(8.53×10 ⁶ -		49	0.63+1.31E
	Carinina		7.524×10 ⁷)	4.965×10 ⁷)	8		7*X
	C.pipins				1		
	-	T 4	1.475107	0.515.407	1	0.0	1/
C le aule a		L4	1.475×10 ⁷	2.517×10 ⁷	0	0.9	Y=-
C.herbarum			(9.324×10 ⁶ -	(2.034×10 ⁷ -		59	1.12+9.63E
			1.389×10 ⁷)	3.10×10 ⁷)	0		8*X
					8		
	-	A 1 1.	4.10105	0.550404	4	0.4	1/
		Adult	4.18×10 ⁵ (2.986×10 ⁶ -	8.558×106	1	0.4 52	Y=- 0.07+1.57E
			(2.006.4106	(6.50×10 ⁶ -		E'1	0.07.1 575

			6.782×10 ⁶)	1.135×10 ⁷)	5		7*X
			0.762^10*)	1.155^10-)	8		<i>,</i> , ,
					8		
		Egg	4.484×10 ⁶	1.850×10 ⁷	3	0.1	Y=-
		00	(1.964×106-	(1.106×107-		99	0.41+9.31E
			5.642×10 ⁶)	6.170×10 ⁷)	2		7*X
	A.				2		
	stephensi				7		
		L4	1.465×10^7	3.744×10^7	0	0.7	Y=-
			(9.321×10 ⁶ -	(2.41×10 ⁷ -		65	1.13+6.72E
			2.391×10 ⁷)	4.322×107)	5		8*X
					3		
					5		
		Adult	9.750×10 ⁶	2.287×10^7	1	0.5	Y=-
			(5.550×10 ⁶ -	(1.689×10 ⁷ -	•	49	0.96+1.03E
			1.165×10 ⁷)	3.09×10 ⁷)	1		7*X
					9		
					9		
		Egg	6.094×10 ⁶	1.539×10 ⁷	2	0.3	Y=-
			(3.754×10 ⁶ -	(9.138×10 ⁶ -		01	0.85+1.41E
			2.202×10 ⁷)	5.977×10 ⁷)	4		7*X
	C.pipins				0		
					1		
		L4	1.436×10^7	3.384×10^7	0	0.8	Y=-
V.lecanii			(1.216×10 ⁷ -	(2.46×10 ⁷ -	•	68	0.95+6.7E
			1.812×10 ⁷)	5.098×10 ⁷)	2		8*X
					8		
					3	0.1	
		Adult	2.001×10 ⁷	4.367×10 ⁷	0	0.6	Y=-
			(1.141×10 ⁷ -	(3.167×10 ⁷ -		48	1.1+5.86E
			2.217×10^7)	5.84×10^7)	8		7*X
					9		
			F F (/ 10/	1 505 407	1	0.2	
		Egg	5.566×10 ⁶	1.585×10 ⁷	2	0.3	Y=-
			(2.633×106-	(9.742×10 ⁶ -		50	0.7+1.27E-
	4		5.782×10 ⁶)	5.997×10 ⁷)	0		7*X
	A.				9		
	stephensi	L4	1.116×10 ⁷	5.208×10 ⁷	9	0.9	Y=-
		L4				0.9 54	
			(1.7233141-	$(3.705 \times 10^7 - 7.25 \times 10^7)$		34	0.88+4.18E
			2.918×10 ⁷)	7.25×10^{7})	0 9		8*X
					4		
		Adult	1.076×10 ⁷	2.752×10 ⁷	0	0.8	Y=-
		Auuit	(8.801×10 ⁶ -	(1.32×10 ⁷ -	U	37	0.83+7.77E
			(8.801×10°- 1.206×10 ⁷)	(1.32×10 ⁷ - 3.342×10 ⁷)	3	3/	0.83+7.77E 7*X
			1.200^10')	J.J42^10 ⁻)	5		/ A
					9		

(LC50) concentration that kills 50% of population, (LC90) concentration that kills 90% of population, (LCL) lower confidence limit, (UCL) upper confidence limit, (χ 2) chi-squared. Three replicates were used in each treatment, n = (375). No mortality was recorded in the negative control group.

Tables (1) show the LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ values that the mosquito species A. stephensi is more sensitive to the fungal suspension compared to the eggs of the second type, as it reached less than these values after 24 hours of treatment, and these values increase directly as the insect stage progresses.

The P-value was also calculated (which is a measure to clarify the extent to which we have proof or evidence to reject the hypothesis The null and we take the alternative hypothesis in the test that we have), and the regression equation, which is a statistical equation that expresses the relationship between two variables and is used to estimate past values and predict future values and helps in describing the degree of the relationship between the variables. In the laboratory, the three fungi have shown potential as larval control agents. To check its suitability in the field, experiments must be carried out under natural conditions, in which, in addition to the persistence and effectiveness of the spores, the influence of the fungal species on its non-target effects must be observed.

4 Discussion

Resistance of mosquito vectors to pesticides is frequently regarded as a serious danger to the recent

advancements in the management of malaria. Nonetheless, research evaluating the effects of treatments and pesticide resistance has revealed a patchy application of epidemiological entomological criteria. Firstly, the efficacy insecticides may be underestimated as the assessment test does not account for mosquito susceptibility to infection. Moreover, relationships between vector competency and pesticide resistance have unexpected implications for interventions. This study intended to highlight the role of isolated fungi as an alternative control measure against mosquitoes, the reason for the ability of these fungi to penetrate the eggshell is due to the complementarity of the enzymatic and mechanical activities they have, as they can secrete the enzymes protease, chitinase, and lipase, in addition to the power of mechanical action (Liu et al., 2007; Frey, 2019). The increase in mortality rates by increasing the concentration is due to the increase in the number of spores, and then the increase in the percentage of spores developing when attacking the host and weakening the immune system of the insect, in addition to the immune system of the larvae can defend the body at concentrations Sessile However, when the concentration increases, the device may lose mechanically block the pathways that allow them to enter through the mouth or siphon. The linked spores harm the larval tissues when they germinate because of their vegetative (ONG'WEN, 2018). The latent immune system needs to address a wide range of offenses in this situation. Resistance to the control agent is less likely to develop the more diverse the modes of action are (Mulla et al., 2003). The lack of a lasting effect is a major drawback, even though exposure for just one day is sufficient to result in a considerable death rate. By looking for tolerant isolates and formulations, this can be resolved (Rutjens, 2023). According to observations made by Lord *et al.* (1987), Wilson *et al.* (1990), and Sandhu et al. (1993), infection can also move from larvae to adults. This study documents the transmission of infection from the larvae of A. stephensi to the pupae and adults of A. tamarii, C. herbarum, and V. lecanii. (Šebesta et al., 2022). non-target effects V. lecanii is a suspended fungus that contains enzymes that help the fungus penetrate the shell of insect eggs and cause the death of the embryos inside it (Damialis et al., 2015), while another study (Aboelhadid et al., 2018), confirmed that exposing Rhipicephalus annulatus eggs to V. lecanii spores at a concentration of 1*101

its efficiency (Bossen et al., 2023). Insects infected with fungi may live 3 to 5 days as a result of spores germination and penetration of fungal hyphae through the respiratory orifices, which causes suffocation of larvae as a result of closing the respiratory openings, as well as the growth of the fungus in the middle channel of the larvae and depletion of nutrients and after 72 hours the fatty tissue is destroyed and thus the percentage of larvae mortality may reach 100% after 96 hours, and some treated larvae die during molting as they fail to molt and remain attached to the molted layers (Goettel, and Glare, 2010; Sarowar et al., 2013). The additional Toxins released by the fungus and its larvae induce blood poisoning when spores are consumed. The larvae may have rejected the spore mass as food because of the enormous clump size and density of the mass, which inhibited spore attachment. As a result, high concentrations did not provide better temporal and spatial coverage, which might have increased the death rate. To maximize the benefits of natural control, fungal spores should be used instead of uprooted endotoxins (Bossen et al., 2023) While most spores adhere to the inside of the larval body, some

spore/ml did not significantly affect the hatching rate of these eggs. A study (Abdullah et al., 2009) indicated that exposing the eggs of C. pipiens of B. bassiana spores at a concentration of 3*10⁵ spore/ml led to all of them being destroyed, as for study used C. quinquefasciatus and A. pulcharhimus (Al-Karawi and Hanaa, 2012), showing that the treatment of eggs C. quinquefasciatus and A. pulcharhimus pylori spores of L. lundbergii led to their mortality by 56% and 59.33%, respectively, at a concentration of 3 *107 spore/ml. (Sissani et al., 2014) indicated. The hatching ratio of C. pipiens exposed to M. anisopliae spores at a concentration of 3 *103 spore/ ml decreased to 40%, and ALmshkur and Saeed (2014) also noted a decrease in the incidence of mosquito eggs C. quinquefasciatus increased by 59% at a concentration of 2 *106 spore/ml when exposed to C.keratinophilum spores, However, these tests were performed under lab conditions, which is almost impossible to occur under field conditions because the fungal spores themselves are sensitive to environmental factors (Souza et al., 2023). Therefore, it is important to test the off-target effects of these fungi in a more realistic setting. In humans, this is a clinical case.

5 Conclusions

This study has demonstrated that the fungus species employed affects the mosquito mortality rate at all phases. It's interesting to note that all fungal species can destroy mosquitoes. Nevertheless, there was no correlation observed between the mortality rate and either elevating the concentration of fungal spores or decreasing the duration of spore exposure. Spore clumping made it difficult to achieve uniform coverage over time and space, which led to inconsistent outcomes. It's critical to have an effective delivery system and a spreadable formulation for the spores to spread across the water's surface to stop fungus from injuring unintentional targets. For best results, a formulation of this kind needs to be created. **Recommendations:**

To ensure effective and safe mosquito control, it is important to develop appropriate delivery methods and formulations that allow for even dispersion of fungal spores across the water's surface.

Acknowledgments:

Many thanks to the School of Biotechnology and Science for their support throughout the completion of the work.

References:

Abbott, W. (1925). Amethod of computing the effectiveness of insecticide. *J. Econ. Entomol.* 18, 265-267. https://doi.org/10.1093/jee/18.2.265a

Abdullah, A. A., Dewan, M. M., & AL-Abedy, A. N. (2019, November). *Genetic variation of some isolates of Cladosporium sphaerospermum isolated from different environments*. In IOP Conference Series: Earth and Environmental Science (Vol. 388, No. 1, p. 012016). IOP Publishing.

Abdullah, H. al-Din, Hala H. Muhammad & Mahmoud Ammar Ahmad. (2009). Study of the effect of Beauveria bassiana (Balsomo) on the life performance of some life roles of the Culex pipiens mosquito. The third scientific conference of the College of Science / University of Baghdad, 1140-1147

Aboelhadid, S. A., Ibrahium, S. M., Arafa, W. M., Mahrous, L. N., Abdel – baki, A. S. & Whahba, A. A. (2018). Invitro efficacy of Verticillium lecanii and Beauveria bassiana of commercial source against cattle tick, Ribipicephalus (Boophilus) annulatus. *Advances in animal and Veterinary Sciences*, 6 (3), 139-147. https://doi.org/10.17582/journal.aavs/2018/6.3.139.147

AlAVO, T. B. (2015). The insect pathogenic fungus Verticillium lecanii (Zimm.) Viegas and its use for pests control: A review. *Journal of experimental biology and agricultural* sciences, 3(4), 337-345. https://doi.org/10.18006/2015.3(4).337.345

Ali, H. & Muhammad, H. (2007). Study of the effect of ethanolic extract of leaves and fruits of Duranta repens L. and Beauveria bassiana on the life performance of Cluex pipiens L. Master thesis, College of Science for Girls / University of Baghdad, 137 pages.

Al-Karawi, Hanaa R. & Lafta, (2012). *A laboratory study of the efficacy of some control methods in two types of mosquitoes*. Master Thesis, College of Science / Al-Qadisiyah University, 94 pages

ALmshkur, B. & Saeed, J. (2014). Evaluation of the efficacy of some microbial control agents in controlling Culex quinquefasciatus (Diptera: Culicidae). *Al-Qadisiyah Journal of Pure Sciences*, 22 (3), 200.

Al-Rawei, K. M. & Khalaf Allah, A. (2000). *Design and analysis of agricultural experiments. Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research*. House of Books for Printing and Publishing. University of Al Mosul. Second edition 488 pages.

AL-RIFAIE, A. A. A Simple and Rapid DNA Extraction Protocol for Molecular Identification of Fungi.

Altre, J. A., Vandenberg, J. D., & Cantone, F. A. (1999). Pathogenicity of Paecilomyces fumosoroseus Isolates to Diamondback Moth, Plutella xylostella: Correlation with Spore Size, Germination Speed, and Attachment to Cuticle. *Journal of Invertebrate Pathology*, 73(3), 332-338. https://doi.org/10.1006/jipa.1999.4844

Bandani, A. R., Khambay, B.P.S., Faull, J.; Newton, R. & Deadman, M. (2000). Production of Eftrapeptins by Tolypocladium species (Deuteromycotina: hyphomycetes) and evaluation of their insecticidal and antimicrobial properties. *Myco Res*, 104, 537 – 44. https://doi.org/10.1017/s0953756299001859

Baskar, K., Chinnasamy, R., Pandy, K., Venkatesan, M., Sebastian, P. J., Subban, M., ... & Devarajan, N. (2020). Larvicidal and histopathology effect of endophytic fungal extracts of *Aspergillus tamarii* against *Aedes aegypti* and *Culex quinquefasciatus*. Heliyon, 6(10). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2020.e05331

Bauer, H., Kasper-Giebl, A., Löflund, M., Giebl, H., Hitzenberger, R., Zibuschka, F., & Puxbaum, H. (2002). The contribution of bacteria and fungal spores to the organic carbon content of cloud water, precipitation and aerosols. *Atmospheric Research*, 64(1-4), 109-119. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0169-8095(02)00084-4

Bossen, J., Kühle, J. P., & Roeder, T. (2023). The tracheal immune system of insects-A blueprint for understanding epithelial immunity. *Insect Biochemistry and Molecular Biology*, 157, 103960. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ibmb.2023.103960

Choi, Y. W., Hyde, K. D., & Ho, W. H. (1999). *Single spore isolation of fungi*. Fungal diversity.

Damialis, A., Mohammad, A. B., Halley, J. M., & Gange, A. C. (2015). Fungi in a changing world: growth rates will be elevated, but spore production may decrease in future climates. *International Journal of Biometeorology*, 59, 1157-1167. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00484-014-0927-0

Daoust RA, Roberts DW. (1982). Virulence of natural and insect-passaged strains of Metarhizium anisopliae to mosquito larvae. *J Invertebr Pathol.*, 40, 107-117. https://doi.org/10.1016/0022-2011(82)90042-8

De Hoog, G. S., & Guarro, J. (1995). *Atlas of clinical fungi*. Centraalbureau voor schimmelcultures.

Frey, T. S. (2019). An Investigation of The Role of Amino Acids in Plant-Plant Parasitic Nematode Chemotaxis and Infestation. The Ohio State University.

Goettel, M. S., & Glare, T. (2010). 11 Entomopathogenic fungi and their role in regulation of insect populations. Insect Control.

Hawksworth, D. L., & Lücking, R. (2017). Fungal diversity revisited: 2.2 to 3.8 million species. Microbiology spectrum, 5(4), 10-1128. https://doi.org/10.1128/microbiolspec.funk-0052-2016

Hubka, V., Nováková, A., Samson, R. A., Houbraken, J., Frisvad, J. C., Sklenář, F., ... & Kolařík, M. (2016). Aspergillus europaeus sp. nov., a widely distributed soil-borne species related to A. wentii (section Cremei). *Plant Systematics and Evolution*, 302, 641-650. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00606-016-1293-7

Ishak, I. H., Kamagang, B., Ibrahim, S.S., Riveron, J. M., Irving, H. & Wondji, C. S. (2017). Pyrothroid resistance in Malaysian Populations of dengue vector Aedes aegypti is method by CYPq family of Cytochrome P450 genes. *PLOS. Negl Trop. Dis.*, 11 (1), e005302. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pntd.0005302

Käärik, A., Keller, M. J., Kiffer, M. E., Perreau, J., & Reisinger, M. O. (2012). *Atlas of airborne fungal spores in Europe*. Springer Science & Business Media.

Kamalakannan, S., Kovendan, K., Balachandar, V., Naik, K. G., & Chauhan, A. (2022). Sources of potential fungi generated biogenic nanoparticles for the control of diseases. transmitting

Mamai, W., Maiga, H., Gárdos, M., Bán, P., Bimbilé Somda, N. S., Konczal, A., ... & Bouyer, J. (2019). The efficiency of a new automated mosquito larval counter and its impact on larval survival. *Scientific Reports*, 9(1), 7413. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-019-43333-0

Matthews, G. (2011). Integrated vector management: controlling vectors of malaria and other insect vector borne diseases. John Wiley & Sons.

Mulla MS, Thavara U, Tawatsin A, Chomposri J, Su T. (2003). Emergence of resistance and resistance management in field populations of tropical Culex quinquefasciatus to the microbial control agent Bacillus sphaericus. *J Am Mosq Control Assoc.*, 19, 39-46.

Nielsen, A. L. & Lewis, E. E. (2012). Designing the ideal habitat for entomopathogen use in nursery Production. *Pest Managsci*, 68 (7), 1053-1061. https://doi.org/10.1002/ps.3267

ONG'WEN, F. (2018). Additive effects of DRAGONFLY (Pantala Flavescens) Nymph and Fungus (Beauveria Bassiana) on development and survival of Malaria Mosquito (Anopheles gambiae) (Doctoral dissertation, Maseno University). Hegedus DD, Khachatourians GG: The impact of biotechnology on hyphomycetous fungal insect biocontrol agents. *Biotech Adv.* 13, 455-490. https://doi.org/10.1016/0734-9750(95)02006-0

Pandian, T. J. (2023). Evolution and Speciation in Fungi and Eukaryotic Biodiversity. CRC Press.

Pathan, E. K., Ghormade, V., Tupe, S. G., & Deshpande, M. V. (2021). Insect Pathogenic Fungi and Their Applications: An Indian Perspective. Progress in Mycology: An Indian

mosquitoes: a review. Lett. Appl. NanoBioScience, 11, 3523-3536.

Killelea, T., Ralec, C., Bossé, A., & Henneke, G. (2014). PCR performance of a thermostable heterodimeric archaeal DNA polymerase. *Frontiers in microbiology*, 5, 195. https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2014.00195

Kozel, T. R., & Wickes, B. (2014). Fungal diagnostics. *Cold Spring Harbor perspectives in medicine*, 4(4).

Lacey, L. A. (1997), Manual of techniques in insect pathology (Biological techniques) academic press. Sandiego. London. Boston. 408 pp.

Leisnham, P. T., Sala, L. M., & Juliano, S. A. (2014). Geographic variation in adult survival and reproductive tactics of the mosquito Aedes albopictus. *Journal of medical entomology*, 45(2), 210-221. https://doi.org/10.1093/jmedent/45.2.210

Liu, S. Q., Meng, Z. H., Yang, J. K., Fu, Y. X., & Zhang, K. Q. (2007). Characterizing structural features of cuticle-degrading proteases from fungi by molecular modeling. *BMC Structural Biology*, 7(1), 1-14. https://doi.org/10.1186/1472-6807-7-33

Lord JC, Roberts DW: Host age as a determinant of infection rates with the mosquito pathogen Lagenidium giganteum (Oomycetes: Lagenidiales). J Invertebr Pathol. 1987, 50: 70-71. 10.1016/0022-2011(87)901

Perspective, 311-327. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-16-2350-9_11

Prasil, K., & de Hoog, G. S. (1988). Variability in Cladosporium herbarum. *Transactions of the British Mycological Society*, 90(1), 49-54.

Raja, H. A., Miller, A. N., Pearce, C. J., & Oberlies, N. H. (2017). Fungal identification using molecular tools: a primer for the natural products research community. *Journal of natural products*, 80(3), 756-770. https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.jnatprod.6b01085

Rana, K. L., Kour, D., Yadav, N., & Yadav, A. N. (2020). *Endophytic microbes in nanotechnology: current development, and potential biotechnology applications*. In Microbial endophytes (pp. 231-262). Woodhead Publishing.

Rutjens, S. (2023). *Ceftiofur and cefquinome-The emergence and selection of antimicrobial resistance in the porcine gut microbiome* (Doctoral dissertation, Ghent University).

Sandhu SS, Rajak RC & Sharma M. (1993). Bioactivity of Beauveria bassiana and Metarhizium anisopliae as pathogens of Culex tritaeniorhynchus and Aedes aegypti: effect of instar, dosages and time. *Indian J Microbiol*, 33, 191-194

Sarowar, M. N., Van Den Berg, A. H., McLaggan, D., Young, M. R., & Van West, P. (2013). Saprolegnia strains isolated from river insects and amphipods are broad spectrum pathogens. *Fungal Biology*, 117(11-12), 752-763. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.funbio.2013.09.002

Schoch, C. L., Seifert, K. A., Huhndorf, S., Robert, V., Spouge, J. L., Levesque, C. A., ... & White, M. M. (2012). Nuclear ribosomal internal transcribed spacer (ITS) region

as a universal DNA barcode marker for Fungi. *Proceedings of the national academy of sciences*, 109(16), 6241-6246.

Šebesta, M., Vojtková, H., Cyprichová, V., Ingle, A. P., Urík, M., & Kolenčík, M. (2022). Mycosynthesis of Metal-Containing Nanoparticles—Synthesis by Ascomycetes and Basidiomycetes and Their Application. *International Journal of Molecular Sciences*, 24(1), 304. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms24010304

Sharma, R., & Sharma, P. (2021). Fungal entomopathogens: a systematic review. *Egyptian Journal of Biological Pest Control*, 31, 1-13. https://doi.org/10.1186/s41938-021-00404-7

Sissani, I., Boutelis, A., Ramdan, A., Hallouane, F. G. Chahbar, N. & Bitan, I. (2014). Biological effect of the entomopathogenic fungus Metarhizium anisopliae Variety Acridum against the house Mosquito *Cluex pipiens*. *International Journal of Botany and Research*, 4 (3), 31 – 38.

Souza, M. E. C. E., Nóbrega, F., & Bento, A. A. (2023). Can Beauveria bassiana (Bals. -Criv.) Vuill. Control the Key Fruit Pests of the European Chestnut Tree, under Field Conditions? *Insects*, 14(4), 342. https://doi.org/10.3390/insects14040342

Tedersoo, L., & Nilsson, R. H. (2016). Molecular identification of fungi. *Molecular mycorrhizal symbiosis*, 299-322.

Thakur, N., Kaur, S., Tomar, P., Thakur, S., & Yadav, A. N. (2020). *Microbial biopesticides: current status and advancement*

for sustainable agriculture and environment. In New and future developments in microbial biotechnology and bioengineering (pp. 243-282). Elsevier.

Thongwat, D., Chokchaisiri, R., Ganranoo, L. & Bunehu, N. (2018). Larvicidal efficacy of crude and Fractionated extract of Dracaena loureiri against Aedes aegypti, Aedes albopictus, Culex quinqufasciatus and Anopheles. minimum isquitovections. *Asian Pacific Journal of Tropical Biomedicine*, 8 (5), 273. https://doi.org/10.4103/2221-1691.233009

Vivekanandhan, P., Arunthirumeni, M., Vengateswari, G., & Shivakumar, M. S. (2018). 5 .Bioprospecting of Novel Fungal Secondary Metabolites for Mosquito Control (pp. 61-89). Raton, FL, USA: Taylor & Francis.

W. H. O. (2006). Guidelines for testing mosquito adulticides for indoor residual spraying and treatment of mosquito nets. WHO/CDS / NTD / WHO PES / GCDPP /2006.3

W.H.O, (2018). *Malaria Programes Iraq.* C : I users / DELL / Videos / 2018 .

W.H.O. (2014). *Malaria, Vector control Commodities Landscape,* 2nd End, CH. 1211 Geneva 27. Switzerland.

Wilson ML, Agudelo-Silva F, Spielman A. (1990). increased abundance, size, and longevity of food-deprived mosquito populations exposed to a fungal larvicide. *Am J Trop Med Hyg.* 43, 551-556. https://doi.org/10.4269/ajtmh.1990.43.551