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# Comparative bioactivity and metabolites produced by fungal coculture system against myco-phytopathogens

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Abstract: Co-culture is the simultaneous cultivation of two or more microorganisms in the same culture or growth medium. This technique allows observation and analysis of the interactions between microorganisms, such as competition for nutrients, cooperative behavior, or even the production of novel compounds that would not be synthesized by either species alone. This study aimed to use fungal co-culture for finding new sources of novel antifungals via a biological approach. In the current study, only 9 of 40 tested endophytic fungal isolates interacted positively with Fusarium proliferatum AUMC 15541by dual culture plate assay. Using well diffusion assay, extracts of Aspergillus ochraceus AUMC 15539 co-culture with F. proliferatum showed a greater inhibition action than monoculture. Large scale for Aspergillus-Fusarium co-culture (AF) was performed and its ethyl acetate extract exhibited significant inhibitory activity against different phytopathogens with potential effect against F. proliferatum (MIC = 6.25 mg/mL). The coculture AF extract had LC50 values of 1972 (µg/mL) which is lower toxicity than single culture A and F. The total flavonoid, phenolic, and tannin contents of fungal extracts were significantly higher in the co-culture (AF) than in the single cultures A and F. Highperformance liquid chromatography (HPLC) profiling of Aspergillus-Fusarium axenic and co-cultures (A), (F), and (AF) at different monitored wavelengths revealed the presence of a new peak at retention time 9.487 min in 235 nm chromatogram, in AF co-culture extract over A and F extracts. In general, it was found that co-culture led to an increase in the synthesis of some chemicals which had been present in the single-species cultures of (A) and (F) axenic cultures and suppressed the biosynthesis of others when comparing the production of compounds in cultures of single fungal species (A and F) to co-cultures (AF) across various wavelengths tested. These results indicate the possible use of fungi in coculture to find new or more biologically active natural compounds.

Keywords: Endophytic fungi, Aspergillus ochraceus, Fusarium proliferatum, MIC, HPLC.

### Introduction

Microbial natural products are an important resource for the development of new drugs (Koehn & Carter, 2005). Filamentous fungi are responsible for over 42% of the bioactive compounds that have been identified so far (Serrano *et al.*, 2017). Many of these compounds have medicinal properties used in various applications such as antibiotics and antifungal medications (Demain, 2014; Schueffler & Anke, 2014). Microbial interactions within a range of microorganisms' communities have been extensively documented, these interactions have been found to influence fungal metabolism.

As a result, novel bioactive secondary metabolites have been discovered through these interactions. These findings highlight the potential of studying microbial interactions in co-cultures to discover new compounds with therapeutic applications (Brakhage *et al.*, 2008; Combès *et al.*, 2012; Martínez-Buitrago *et al.*, 2019). The efficacy of co-cultures in which secondary metabolites are produced in one organism after sensing the secondary metabolites produced in another organism (Ueda & Beppu, 2017; Tan *et al.*, 2019). Coculture stimulates specific biosynthetic pathways that are triggered when the cultures are grown together, mostly related to cellular defence (Ishikawa *et al.*, 2017).

There are several techniques for fungal co-culture, including physical co-culture, where two fungi are grown together on the same plate or in the same flask; sequential culture, where one fungus is grown first and then another is introduced (Serrano et al., 2017). Competition for food and space between different microorganisms is one of the major ecological forces that induces silent biological genetic clusters that trigger the accumulation of cryptic secondary metabolites that cannot be traced in axenic cultures (Nai & Meyer, 2018). In actuality, it has been proven by various investigations that when microbes interact with one another, they create specialized metabolites that can have either beneficial (like communication with other microorganisms) or toxic (like antibiotics) reactions with others (de Weert et al., 2004; Bertrand et al., 2014; Abrudan et al., 2015).

A few research projects have investigated the mapping and assessment of fungal-fungal actions, while a lot of studies have concentrated on bacterial-bacterial and fungal-bacterial interactions in a petri plate (Tata *et al.*, 2015; Wang *et al.*, 2015; Michelsen *et al.*, 2016; Sica *et al.*, 2016; Bai *et al.*, 2018; Chen *et al.*, 2018; Eckelmann *et al.*, 2018; González-Menéndez *et al.*, 2018). Through the support of analytical techniques like high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC), and liquid chromatography mass spectrometry (LC-MS), it has become available to identify modifications in the metabolite profiles that are dependent on the interacting fungi (Peiris *et al.*, 2008; Estrada *et al.*, 2011).

A large and phylogenetically diverse variety of microorganisms known as phytopathogenic fungi infect plants or can cause dangerous diseases in plants (Heydari & Pessarakli, 2010). Plant diseases induced by pathogenic fungi cause significant losses in crop output. In order to control plant diseases, synthetic fungicides are usually used as both treatment and preventive measures. The increasing number of resistant strains of pathogens and pollution in the environment are the results of the overuse of a variety of fungicides (Park *et al.*, 2005).

The continual use of chemical fungicides leads to

residue issues, disease resistance and cost constraints to the farmers. To overcome these problems and effectively control plant pathogens, there is a necessity to identify antifungal compounds using a biological approach (Marimuthu et al., 2020). The demand for pesticide- and fertiliser-free organic agriculture is rising. Due to these events, many scientists are researching integrated fungal disease management, includes biological which controls utilising antagonistic microorganisms and less harmful agents such as food preservatives and extracts from plant products (Copping & Menn, 2000; Ujváry, 2002). Phytochemical studies of endophytic microorganisms have been carried out worldwide, resulting in the isolation of more than 500 new functional chemicals, which have had a major impact on the development of new therapeutics and pesticides (Zhang et al., 2006,2018). There is increasing proof that the one strain many compounds (OSMAC) strategy is a quick and efficient way to improve the variety of chemical substances in microorganisms. Examples of this include varying the medium's composition and culture state, co-cultivating with other strains, and adding enzyme inhibitors and biosynthetic precursors for secondary metabolites produced by microorganisms (Pan et al., 2019).

However, Co-culture system can effectively alter individual microbial cellular physiology and access chemical diversity (Abdalla et al., 2017; Ueda & Beppu, 2017; Abdelwahab et al., 2018; Tan et al., 2019). One of the most serious fungal infections is Fusarium spp. (Cramer, 2000; Wang et al., 2019), It influences every stage of plant development in the preand post-harvest phases. from damping off and delayed seedling emergence to bulb rot (Galeano et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2019). According to the majority of the literature on Fusarium dry rot (FDR), which can account for up to 30% of post-harvest garlic output losses, the main cause of the disease is the fungus F. proliferatum. Additionally, F. proliferatum has the capacity to produce a wide variety of toxins (Laura & Palmero, 2022). Some of which can be toxic to humans and animals (Desjardins, 2006). The treatment with synthetic fungicides is not entirely effective due to its resistance to highly stressful environment (Gupta et al., 2020).

In this work, we proposed using fungal co-cultures with F. proliferatum for evaluating and stimulating cryptic pathways in endophytic fungal isolates and finding new sources for antifungals using a biological approach.

### Materials and methods

Fungal isolates

Forty endophytic fungal isolates were obtained from the culture collection at the Al-Azhar University (Assiut), Egypt. The isolates were cultivated on

Czapek-Dox agar (Cz) and potato dextrose agar (PDA) and incubated for 7-10 days at 28°C. The fungal cultures were identified morphologically by their macroscopic and microscopic characters and the promising isolates were deposited in the culture collection of Assiut University Mycological Center (AUMC) with new accession numbers. For phytopathogenic fungi inhibition tests, Alternaria solani F12 (KT721910), Botrytis cinerea AUMC Fusarium proliferatum AUMC 14436. 15541. Rhizoctonia solani AUMC 15102, Sclerotium cepivorum AUMC 15542. and Sclerotinia sclerotiorum AUMC 11690 were used.

#### Selection of fungal isolates for co-culture

*Fusarium proliferatum* AUMC 15541, which was isolated from onion (*Allium cepa*) with *Fusarium* base rot, was chosen from a preliminary screening of fungal co-cultures together with *A. ochraceus* AUMC 15539 to test its potential to produce long-distance interactions.

#### Dual culture plate assay

A fungal disc (5mm) from the test pathogen was put at 2 cm from the plate's edge on PDA and yeast extract sucrose agar (YES) (9 cm in diameter). In a similar way, a disc (5mm) of the endophytic fungus/antagonist was put on the pathogen disc's direct opposite. The plates were incubated for 15 days at 28°C. Negative controls were plates inoculated with *F. proliferatum* in the absence of antagonist fungus; three replicates were utilized for each experiment (Hajieghrari *et al.*, 2008; Albert *et al.*, 2011).

#### Metabolites extraction and analysis

All fungal isolates of co- and mono-cultures, had their interaction zones, were removed with a razor blade (about 2 mm width). Controls were set up using empty plates and plates inoculated with a single fungal strain. To extract each sample, ethyl acetate was used twice, then filtered and dried using a rotary evaporator at 40°C (Mohamed *et al.*, 2021).To reconstitute the samples, 500  $\mu$ L of dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) were added consecutively (Costa et al., 2019).

### Antifungal assay

The antifungal activity of different extracts was determined and described their specificity against 6 distinct phytopathogens were *Alternaria solani* F12 (KT721910), *Botrytis cinerea* AUMC 14436, *Fusarium proliferatum* AUMC 15541, *Rhizoctonia solani* AUMC 15102, *Sclerotium cepivorum* AUMC 15542. Sclerotinia sclerotiorum AUMC 11690. Depending on the phytopathogenic fungus, PDA, potato sucrose agar (PSA), and Cz media were utilized for antifungal activity tests. Twenty-five mL of media containing spores (1 x  $10^5$  spores/mL) were dispensed in assay plates. Once solidified, a hole with a diameter of 8 mm was punched aseptically with a sterile corkborer, and a volume (100 µL) of the extract solution (A, F, AF, and A+F) at desired concentration was introduced into the well. Then, agar plates were incubated under suitable conditions depending upon the test microorganism. Bellis (Boscalid Pyraclostrobin) was evaluated as a positive control (Magaldi et al., 2004; Valgas et al., 2007; Serrano et al., 2017).

#### **Fermentation and Extraction**

Fifteen Erlenmeyer flasks (1L each) were prefilled with solid rice (100 g rice and 110 mL of distilled water) and autoclaved for the primary fermentation (Al Mousa et al., 2021). Once the flasks were cooled to room temperature, they were seeded with two types of fungi, A. ochraceus and F. proliferatum, using  $2 \text{ cm}^2$ fungal discs. Both co-culture and axenic control cultures were set up. The fermentation process was carried out for a duration of 30 days under static conditions at a temperature of 28°C (Chen et al., 2015; Moussa et al., 2019). After that, 500 mL of ethyl acetate was added to each flask for extraction overnight. The ethyl acetate extracts were filtered and dried using a vacuum rotary evaporator (BÜCHI R-114, Switzerland) at 40°C until producing an oily residue (Frank et al., 2019).

# Determination of the minimum inhibitory concentration of fungal extracts

The minimum inhibitory concentrations (MIC) of fungal extracts (A, F, and AF) were determined against pathogenic *F. proliferatum* AUMC 15541 by agar well diffusion method. To assess the MICs against *F. proliferatum*, fungal extracts were pipetted into wells of inoculated plates at doses of 200, 100, 50, 25, 12.5, 6.25, 3.12, 1.56, and 0.78 mg/mL. Bellis was used as a reference or standard control, while DMSO was employed as a comparison or baseline control. The fungus under examination was subjected to incubation at 28°C, with three repetitions of each concentration. The MIC was defined as the lowest concentration of fungal extracts that totally inhibited mycelial growth (Park *et al.*, 2005).

#### The Brine shrimp cytotoxicity test

The brine shrimp cytotoxicity test (BSCT) is a method used to determine the cytotoxicity of a fungal extract to brine shrimp larvae. In this experiment, the extracts were dissolved in DMSO at varying concentrations. 100  $\mu$ l of each extract was then added to duplicate vials containing 5 ml of seawater and 10 brine shrimp larvae. Bellis, an antifungal drug, was used as a positive control. DMSO was used as a negative control. After 24 hours, the number of surviving brine shrimp larvae in each vial was counted. The mean percentage mortality was determined for each extract. The concentration of the extract that killed 50% of the larvae (LC<sub>50</sub>) was calculated using probit analysis with the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) application with the 16<sup>th</sup> Version (Meyer *et al.*, 1982; Moshi *et al.*, 2007).

# Estimation of total phenolic, flavonoid and tannin content

The total phenolic content of a specimen was measured using modified procedures (Kupina et al., 2018) by reacting it with Folin-Ciocalteu's reagent and sodium carbonate and then reading the absorbance at 750 nm. The phenolic content was calculated in gallic acid equivalent (GAE mg/g) using a standard curve of gallic acid with the equation y = 266.13x -13.943. To measure the total flavonoid content of a fungal extract, 0.5 mL of each extract (10 mg/mL) was mixed with 1.0 mL of a 2% (v/v) ethanolic solution of AlCl<sub>3</sub>.6H<sub>2</sub>O. The absorbance of the mixture was measured at 430 nm after 10 minutes (Quettier-Deleu et al., 2000). The flavonoid content was expressed in quercetin equivalent (QE mg/g) using a standard curve with the equation y = 33.472x + 0.7975. To estimate the tannin content of fungal extracts, the methanolic extract (1 mL) was mixed with Folin-Ciacolate's reagent (0.5 mL), followed by the addition of saturated Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> solution (1 mL) and distilled water (8 mL). The mixture was allowed to stand for 30 minutes at room temperature and then centrifuged to obtain the supernatant. The absorbance of the supernatant was measured at 725 nm using a UV-Visible Spectrophotometer (Janeway, 7315) described by Fagbemi et al. (2005). The tannin content was calculated in milligrams of tannic acid equivalent using a standard curve with the equation y = 442.66x -7.8387.

### High-performance liquid chromatography-diodearray detection analysis (HPLC-DAD)

Water (photodiode array) was used for HPLC analysis. Separation was achieved through the use of an Eclipse Plus  $C_{18}$  column with dimensions of 4.6 mm x 100 mm i.d. and a particle size of 5µm. The mobile phase consisted of 0.1% formic acid in water (A), 0.1% formic acid in acetonitrile (B) at a flow rate 0.8 mL/min. The mobile phase was programmed consecutively in a linear gradient. The DAD was monitored at (235, 254, 280, and 340 nm) (Bandwidth 4 nm). The column temperature was maintained at 30°C. The injection volume was 10  $\mu$ L for each of the sample solutions (Akpotu *et al.*, 2017).

# Results

# Detection of the antagonistic effect of the different tested fungi

In this study, 40 isolates of endophytic fungal species belonged to different genera, including Aspergillus, Penicillium, Fusarium, Alternaria, Trichoderma, Cladosporium, and Drechslera, were co-cultivated with F. proliferatum AUMC 15541 on agar plates to determine whether they have antifungal properties. Nine isolates out of the tested 40 fungal isolates showed positive antagonism with significant inhibition against the growth of F. proliferatum, suggesting that they may have potential as sources of bioactive compounds. We studied the antifungal activity of the extract from the interaction zone between endophytic fungi and F. proliferatum. Two isolates' extracts showed inhibition on both PDA and YES agar media, while 10 isolates on YES medium and 13 isolates on PDA medim indicated inhibition in the single culture only. Aspegillus ochraceus showed strong inhibitory activity when co-cultured on YES medium compared to moderate inhibition activity when co-cultured on PDA medium (Table 1, Figure 1A). Large scale fermentation of axenic cultures of A. ochraceus and F. proliferatum and their co-cultures on solid rice medium was performed to further investigation.

# Antifungal activity of different co-culture extracts against different plant pathogens

Results illustrated that co culture (AF) exhibited a significant inhibitory activity against *F. proliferatum, S. sclerotiorum, B. cinerea* and *A. solani* (19.3, 19.0, 15.3 and 12.3 mm, respectively). while given moderate inhibition rate by extract of *A. ochraceus* (A) against *S. sclerotiorum, R. solani, F. proliferatum, B. cinerea* and *A. solani* (16.0, 15.0, 13.3, 13.3 and 12.3mm, respectively). On the other hand, both of (F) and the combination of (A+F) extracts showed less impact on the mycelial growth of all examined phytopathogen (Table 2).

# Determination of minimum inhibitory concentration

The results showed that the MIC of extracts against F. *proliferatum* was 6.25 mg/mL in co-culture (AF) and 12.5 mg/mL in a single extract (A) (Table 3, Figure 1B).

### The brine shrimp lethality test

The result in Table 3 showed the  $LC_{50}$  values of brine shrimp exposed to extracts of these fungi and the positive control, Bellis. The degree of lethality was

No.	Fungi	Code	Source	Antifungal activity			
				PDA extract		YES extract	
				Mono	Co-culture	Mono	Co-culture
1	Alternaria alternata	MLBM306	Artemisia judaica	-	-	-	-
2	A. alternate	MLBM501	Avicennia marina	-	-	+	-
3	A. solani	MLBM401	Allium cepa	-	-	-	-
4	Aspergillus flavus	MLBM514	Avicennia marina	-	-	-	-
5	A. flavus	MLBM402	Allium cepa	-	-	-	-
6	A. fumigatus	MLBM403	Allium cepa	-	-	-	-
7	A. nidulans	MLBM504	Avicennia marina	++	-	-	-
8	A. niger	MLBM506	Avicennia marina	-	-	+	-
9	A. niger	MLBM507	Avicennia marina	-	-	+	-
10	A. niger	MLBM508	Avicennia marina	+	-	++	-
11	A. niger	MLBM516	Avicennia marina	-	-	++	++
12	A. niger	MLBM522	Avicennia marina	-	-	-	-
13	A. niger	MLBM404	Allium cepa	-	-	-	-
14	A. ochraceus	MLBM405	Allium cepa	-	++	+	+++
15	A. terreus	MLBM406	Allium cepa	++	-	-	-
16	A. ustus	MLBM409	Allium cepa	-	-	+	-
17	A. versicolor	MLBM510	Avicennia marina	+	-	-	-
18	A. versicolor	MLBM511	Avicennia marina	+	-	+	-
19	Cladosporium cladosporioides	MLBM411	Allium cepa	+	-	-	-
20	Drechslera spicifera	MLBM413	Allium cepa	-	-	-	-
21	Fusarium moniliforme	MLBM415	Allium cepa	-	-	-	-
22	F. oxysporum	MLBM416	Allium cepa	-	-	-	-
23	F. oxysporum	MLBM417	Allium cepa	-	-	-	-
24	F. solani	MLBM419	Allium cepa	++	-	++	-
25	F. proliferatum	MLBM606	Sesamum indicum	+	-	-	-
26	F. proliferatum	MLBM607	Sesamum indicum	-	-	-	+
27	F. oxysporum	MLBM605	Sesamum indicum	-	-	-	-
28	F. tricinctum	MLBM610	Sesamum indicum	+	+	++	-
29	F. camptoceras	MLBM602	Sesamum indicum	+	-	-	-
30	F. verticillioides	MLBM611	Sesamum indicum	+	-	-	+
31	F. dimerum	MLBM603	Sesamum indicum	-	-	-	-
32	F. solani	MLBM609	Sesamum indicum	+	+	-	-
33	F. verticillioides	MLBM422	Allium cepa	++	-	++	-
34	F. verticillioides	MLBM423	Allium cepa	-	-	-	-
35	Penicillium chrysogenum	MLBM425	Allium cepa	-	-	+	+
36	P. rubrum	MLBM426	Allium cepa	++	-	++	+
37	P. aurantiogriseum	MLBM428	Allium cepa	-	+	-	-
38	Trichoderma. harzianum	MLBM431	Allium cepa	++	-	++	-
39	T. harzianum	MLBM432	Allium cepa	-	-	-	-
40	T. longibrachiatum	MLBM433	Allium cepa	-	-	-	-

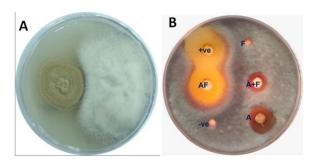
Table 1: Antifungal activity of mono- and co-culture extracts from PDA and YES media against F. proliferatum.

(-) Negative inhibition; (+) the inhibition zone ranged from 7~9 mm (weak); (++) between 10mm and 15 mm (moderate); (+++) from 15 – 20 mm (strong).

Extract	Inhibition zone (mm)						
Extract	A. solani	B. cinerea	F. proliferatum	R. solani	S. cepivorum	S. sclerotiorum	
A. ochraceus (A)	12.30±1.20 <sup>b</sup>	13.30±1.20 <sup>bc</sup>	13.30±1.20 <sup>b</sup>	15.00±1.00 <sup>b</sup>	00.00	16.00±1.00 <sup>b</sup>	
F. proliferatum (F)	9.00±1.00 <sup>c</sup>	10.70±1.20 <sup>c</sup>	00.00	11.00±1.00 <sup>c</sup>	00.00	$8.00{\pm}1.00^{c}$	
Co-culture (AF)	12.30±0.60 <sup>b</sup>	15.30±1.50 <sup>b</sup>	19.30±0.60 <sup>a</sup>	10.70±0.60 <sup>c</sup>	00.00	19.00±1.00 <sup>b</sup>	
Mix (A+F)	11.30±1.50 <sup>bc</sup>	00.00	9.00±1.00 <sup>c</sup>	10.70±1.20 <sup>c</sup>	00.00	10.30±1.50 <sup>c</sup>	
Bellis (+ve control)	24.30±0.60 <sup>a</sup>	24.30±0.60 <sup>a</sup>	21.30±0.60 <sup>a</sup>	22.70±0.60 <sup>a</sup>	23.70±1.50 <sup>a</sup>	24.00±1.00 <sup>a</sup>	

 Table 2: Antifungal activity of ethyl acetate crude extracts from mono- and co-culture isolates against six phytopathogens.

The data were given as averages of three replicates (Mean  $\pm$ SE). Values followed by the different letters are significantly different at p < 0.05.



**Figure 1**: (A) Competitive interactions between Aspergillus ochraceus and Fusarium proliferatum; (B) Anti-fungal activity of fungal extracts (A, F, A+F, and AF) determined against pathogenic *F. proliferatum* AUMC 15541 by agar well diffusion method.

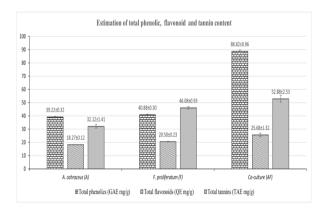
**Table 3:** Crude extracts' minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC, mg/mL) and cytotoxic effect on brine shrimp (LC<sub>50</sub>).

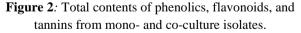
Extract	MIC (mg/mL)	LC <sub>50</sub> (µg/mL)	
A. ochraceus (A)	12.5	1892	
F. proliferatum (F)	0.0	1508	
Co-culture (AF)	6.25	1972	
Bellis (+ve control)	1.56	1690	

found to be directly proportional to the extract's concentration. The co-culture AF extract and axenic culture A extract had  $LC_{50}$  values of 1972 µg/mL and 1892 µg/mL, respectively. The F extract showed high toxicity to shrimps, with an  $LC_{50}$  value of 1508 µg/mL. The Bellis (positive control) had moderate toxicity to shrimps, with an  $LC_{50}$  value of 1690 µg/mL.

#### Total phenolic, flavonoid and tannin content

This study measured the total phenolic concentrations of single and co-culture fungi varied greatly during solid-state fermentation, with values ranging from 39.22 to 88.82 mg/gm. The highest concentration was found in the co-culture of AF (88.82 GAE mg/gm), followed by the single culture of F. proliferatum (40.88 GAE mg/gm). the total flavonoid content of ethyl acetate extracts of axenic and co-culture fungi. Figure 2 showed that the ethyl acetate extracts of coculture (AF) had higher flavonoid content than the ethyl acetate extracts of single cultures A and F. The highest total flavonoid content of 25.68±2.29 QE mg/gm was found in co-culture (AF). The total tannin content of fungal extracts varied from 32.12 to 52.88 TAE mg/gm, with the highest content found in the coculture (AF) at 52.88 TAE mg/gm. This was significantly higher than the total tannin content of the single culture of A. ochraceus, which was 32.12 TAE mg/gm.





# HPLC analysis of the secondary metabolites produced by co-culture.

Significant chemical changes were observed during the initial screening of solid-state fermentation (SSF) extracts when *A. ochraceus* was co-cultured with *F. proliferatum*, as compared to their individual cultures. HPLC analysis revealed alterations in the profiles of

secondary products in the co-culture, as compared to the pure culture counterparts (Tables S1-S4, Figure 3). The pattern of HPLC peaks used to identify the variations in metabolites included new metabolite peak appearance, loss of original peak appearance. HPLC profile at 235 nm: three peak areas were significantly enhanced at RT (3.79, 4.43, 8.13, respectively), ten peaks were decreased (35%, 20%, 84%, 85%, 70%, 73%, 67%, 20%, 82%, and 50%, respectively), at RT (1.86, 2.78, 6.34, 6.90, 9.01, 9.96, 11.15, 12.95, 27.54, and 33.88, respectively). and three peaks that had been observed in the A culture were missing from the AF culture at RT (2.37, 14.11, and 15.90, respectively). When comparing extracts from co-culture AF to F culture, 14 peak areas increased (3.4, 2.2, 1.7, 2.5, 1.6, 1.5, 1.6, 4.8, 11, 10, 10, 1.8, 47, and 1.8, respectively) fold of F extract at RT (2.96, 3.79, 4.43, 6.04, 6.34, 6.90, 7.52, 8.13, 9.01, 11.15, 12.95, 27.54, 29.68, and 33.88, respectively), 4 peaks decreased at RT (1.868, 4.942, 11.77, and 36.301, respectively), and three peaks that were present in the F extract were not present in the AF extract at RT (5.406, 12.138 and 15.906, respectively). Peak area at retention time (9.487 min) was detected only in AF co-culture extract over A and F extracts.

HPLC profile at 254 nm: two peak regions were greatly enlarged at RT (1.41 and 36.41), and nineteen peaks were dramatically lowered when compared to A extract at RT (1.91, 2.31, 2.81, 4.27, 4.75, 6.08, 6.91, 8.13, 9.00, 9.95, 11.15, 13.06, 14.30, 15.88, 22.28, 25.87, 27.51, 30.46, and 33.81, respectively), while appears that the four peaks present in the A culture are absent in the AF culture at RT (6.339, 17.06, 19.054, and 24.125, respectively). 13 peak regions increased (2.1, 5.5, 1.5, 1.1, 2.2, 2.0, 3.5, 2.7, 5.3, 53.0, 58.0, 27.0, and 378.0, respectively) fold of F extract at RT (1.41, 2.31, 2.81, 4.277, 4.75, 6.08, 8.13, 9.00, 11.15, 13.06, 15.88, 25.87, and 33.81, respectively), and 4 peaks decreased by comparing co-culture AF extract to F extract at RT (1.918, 6.91, 22.28 and 27.517, respectively), respectively., meanwhile, 1 peak disappeared in AF but not in F extracts at RT (17.06).

HPLC profile at 280 nm: nine peak areas were significantly enhanced (58.0, 86.0, 3.0, 1.9, 8.9, 6.3, 1.7, 3.2, and 217.0, respectively) fold of A extract at RT (1.41, 1.92, 2.32, 2.81, 3.79, 4.42, 6.08, 6.31, and 7.51, respectively), five peaks were decreased at RT (6.85, 8.13, 9.00, 13.50, and 28.45, respectively), and three peaks were present in A extract but not in AF extract at RT (14.115, 19.057, and 22.464, respectively). While 11 peak areas increased at RT (1.41, 1.92, 2.81, 2.97, 3.79, 4.42, 4.74, 6.08, 7.51, 8.13, 9.00, respectively), and 3 peaks decreased in AF compared to F culture extracts at RT (2.58, 6.31, and 6.85, respectively).

HPLC profile at 340 nm: seven peak areas were significantly enhanced (3.4, 1.5, 4.5, 1.2, 1.9, 4.7, and 2.3, respectively) fold of A extract at RT (1.41, 1.91, 2.81, 3.78, 4.75, 6.08, and 17.35, respectively), seven peaks were decreased at RT (4.27, 6.91, 11.15, 15.88, 25.61, 27.45, and 33.73, respectively), and 2 peaks were present in A extract but not in AF extract at RT (6.32 and 21.93) at 340 nm, whereas 13 peak areas increased at RT (1.41, 1.91, 2.31, 2.81, 3.78, 4.27, 4.75, 6.08, 7.50, 11.15, 15.88, 17.35, and 27.45, respectively), 3 peaks decreased at RT (6.91, 12.07, and 25.61), and 2 peaks appeared in F extract but not in AF extract at RT (3.567 and 6.32).

## Discussion

Endophytes live within the plant tissues in an invisible manner, causing no detectable infection to the host. The most significant element is to provide protection against plant pathogens and pests to the host plant (Hardoim et al., 2015). One of the most frequent endophytic fungi associated with both marine and terrestrial hosts is Aspergillus (Tawfike et al., 2017). Specifically, A. ochraceus has been isolated from the fern Selaginella stauntoniana (Luo, 2020), and a wide range of plants, including Euphorbia geniculata (Kamel et al., 2020), Polygonatum cyrtonema (Cheng, 2019), Medicago sativa (Attia et al., 2020), and Bauhinia forficata (Bezerra et al., 2015). Phytotoxicity and antifungal activity are the most common biological activities associated with A. ochraceus extract (Mishra et al., 2017). The reason for utilizing fungi to inhibit the growth of the F. proliferatum pathogen is not solely attributed to its rapid proliferation in pathogen-infected environments (such as the rhizosphere, phyllosphere, and endophytic environments), but also stems from its ability to generate bioactive compounds (Ghanbarzadeh et al., 2014). Antifungal activity has been documented in several previous studies for Aspergillus. For instance, Miao et al. (2016) found that A. tubingensis could effectively inhibit the growth of the pathogenic fungus Botrytis cinerea in tomato plants. Similarly, Karim et al. (2022) reported that Aspergillus tubingensis, Trichoderma asperellum, and Issatchenkia orientalis hold immense potential as biocontrol agents in the field for suppressing F. oxysporum. When different microorganisms are cultivated together, direct interactions occur, which may result in the synthesis of chemicals not previously seen when the strains were grown separately (Oh et al., 2005).

Studies have shown that some biosynthetic pathways in fungi remain inactive during standard laboratory culture conditions, with corresponding genes only becoming expressed in response to environmental stress or biotic signals (Schroeckh *et al.*, 2009).

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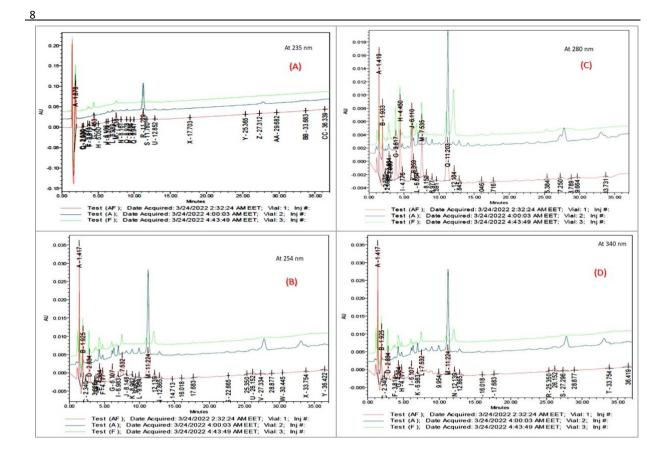


Figure 3: HPLC profiles of co-culture and single cultures of *A. ochraceus* and *F. proliferatum* at different wavelengths (A) at 235 nm, (B) at 254 nm, (C) at 280 nm, and (D) at 340 nm.

Accordingly, we conducted a comparison of metabolites produced by the endophytic fungus A. ochraceus during its interaction with F. proliferatum to those generated by the fungus in a single culture. The dual culture approach resulted in selective induction of multiple metabolites by the endophytic fungus, suggesting that some or all of these metabolites may contribute to the observed intense activity. Utilization antagonistic of yeast extract sucrose agar media is of great benefit studies that depend on secondary in taxonomic metabolites. The addition of yeast extract to the media serves to significantly reduce any discrepancies in morphological characteristics and secondary metabolite production that could be detected. This reduction is particularly crucial in addressing disagreements that may arise about the specific profiles of secondary metabolites (Filtenborg et al., 1990; Clemmensen et al., 2007).

In this work, the co-culture of AF extract showed significant inhibitory activity against several plant pathogens, including *F. proliferatum*, *S. sclerotiorum*, *B. cinerea*, and *A. solani* (19.30, 19.00, 15.30, and12.30 mm, respectively), as assessed by the agar well diffusion method. While extracts of *A. ochraceus* 

provided a moderate inhibitory rate against S. sclerotiorum, R. solani, F. proliferatum, B. cinerea, and A. solani (16.00, 15.00, 13.30, 13.30, and 12.30 mm, respectively). Similarly, A. ochraceus displays intermediate antifungal effects towards A. alternata, and B. cinerea, and F. oxysporum (Morales-Sánchez et al., 2021), moderate activity against B. cinerea (Zhao et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2014; Cimmino et al., 2019), F. oxysporum, and F. solani (Wang et al., 2018). In antagonism cultural tests, Donald et al. (2005) obtained similar results with endophytic fungi Acremonium zeae against Aspergillus flavus and Fusarium verticillioides. However, the morphological interaction patterns during the screening suggested that long-distance inhibition was not frequently observed (Bertrand et al., 2013). According to Yue et al. (2015), the antifungal activity of co-cultures and pure cultures was assessed against four plant pathogenic fungi: Rhizoctonia solani, Verticillium dahliae, Gibberella zeae, and Botrytis cinerea. The investigation revealed that A. versicolor effectively suppressed mycelial growth at concentrations of 50, 100, and 200 g/mL, with the strongest inhibition observed against R. solani at 200 g/mL (82.32%) and against B. cinerea at 50 g/mL (53.23%). Moreover, a co-culture of Tilletiopsis sp. and A. versicolor exhibited favorable antifungal

activity against R. solani and B. cinerea at 200 g/mL. Oppong-Danquah et al. (2020) noted significant indications of competitive interactions, such as the inhibition of a biosynthetic pathway in one strain and the stimulation of highly functional metabolites that mediate another competition. The co-culture extract of Plenodomus influorescens-Pyrenochaeta nobilis exhibited increased efficacy against Xanthomonas campestris (59%), which was further elevated to 90% upon testing the extract of the confrontation zone against Magnaporthe oryzae. Ochratoxin A, a nephrotoxic mycotoxin, is produced by Aspergillus ochraceus (Visagie et al., 2014; Bui-Klimke & Wu, 2015). Although the exact biological function of mycotoxins is still unclear, one of the most widely proposed theories is that mycotoxin-producing fungi have a greater ability to defend themselves against other organisms occupying the same ecological niche (Fox & Howlett, 2008).

BSCT is a practical, inexpensive method to assess toxicity of various compounds. It can detect bioactivities, antifungal, pesticide, teratogenic, and environmental toxicity (*Almeida et al. 2002; Saber et al.* 2016; Sasidharan & Elyas, 2019). The concentration of the extract was found to be directly proportional to the degree of lethality. The endophytic fungal strain CEDBE-1 exhibited the highest antioxidant activity with an IC<sub>50</sub> value of 31.07 µg/mL (Munshi *et al.*, 2021). The BSCT considers LC50 values lower than 1000 µg/mL as toxic (Sasidharan & Elyas, 2019). This study found that different fungal extracts of both AF and A extracts are non-toxic.

The result of phytochemical screening of extracts from single and co-culture samples revealed the presence of phenolics, flavonoids, and tannins in varied amounts. This is consistent with previous studies, which have shown that endophytic fungi often contain these compounds (Shalini & Sampathkumar, 2012; Ishaq et al., 2014). Khiralla et al. (2015) reported that the TPC value of ethyl acetate crude extracts of different endophytic fungi varied from 0.5 to 89.9 mg/g, with two Aspergillus sp. strains showing the highest values of 77.2 and 89.9 mg/g. Yadav et al. (2014) found that tannins contribute to the antioxidant activity of filamentous fungi. Fungal endophytes are a rich source of secondary metabolites with diverse biological including antibacterial, activities, antifungal, anticancer, and antiparasitic properties. Hassane et al. (2022b) reported that the endophytic fungus F. chlamydosporum had a high total phenolic content (TPC) of 26.64 (GAE mg/g) and a total flavonoid content (TFC) of 22.9 (CE mg/g). However, tannins and coumarins were only detected in trace. Hassane et al. (2022a) found that the n-butanol extracts of

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endophytic fungi (Aspergillus niger, Rhizopus oryzae, and Colletotrichum madrasense), contained high amounts of phenolics and flavonoids. These compounds possess various biological properties. Our findings are consistent with previous reports, such as the study by Satari et al. (2018) carried out the phytochemical screening of ethanolic extracts of three Aspergillus sp. and observed that A. niger contained all the phytochemical constituents, A. terreus had all phytochemicals except the glycosides and anthraquinones and A. flavus was deficient of tannin and anthraquinones.

HPLC analysis of the EtOAc crude extracts provided additional information on the diversity of chemicals and differences in metabolite compositions between pure strains and co-cultures. Co-culture AF changed the secondary metabolism of A. ochraceus. Comparing extracts of AF co-culture to A culture at 235 nm, three peak areas were significantly enhanced, ten peaks were decreased, and three peaks were disappeared in AF but not in A culture. When comparing extracts from co-culture AF to F culture, 14 peak areas increased, 4 peaks decreased, and 3 peaks disappeared in AF but not in F extracts. Peak area at retention time (9.487 min) was detected only in AF co-culture extract over A and F extracts. Co-culture AF extract at 254 nm, two peak regions were greatly enlarged, and nineteen peaks were dramatically lowered when compared to A extract, while four peaks were disappeared in AF but not in A culture. 13 peak regions increased, and 4 peaks decreased by comparing co-culture AF extract to F extract, meanwhile, 1 peak disappeared in AF but not in F extracts. At 280 nm, nine peak areas were significantly enhanced, five peaks were decreased, and three peaks were present in A extract but not in AF extract. While, 11 peak areas increased, and 3 peaks decreased in AF compared to F culture extracts. Finally, seven peak areas were significantly enhanced, seven peaks were decreased, and 2 peaks were present in A extract but not in AF extract at 340 nm, whereas 13 peak areas increased, 3 peaks decreased, and 2 peaks appeared in F extract but not in AF extract.

Four peaks increased, nine declined, three were lost, and one "new" metabolite developed at 235 nm, with eleven peaks present in AF but not in A. Two peaks grew at 254 nm, while 19 receded. At 280 nm, ten peak regions were greatly enlarged, seven peaks were significantly reduced, and two peaks were present in AF but not in A. When comparing co-culture AF to A extract at 340 nm, seven peak regions were significantly increased, seven peaks were lowered, and three peaks were present in AF but not in A. Only AF, not A or F, can be observed. Similarly, The HPLC chromatograms of the *Trichoderma* and *Talaromyces* 

single fungal cultures (controls) and their co-culture revealed significant differences in peak intensity and retention time, particularly between 5-7 and 9-13 minutes. Notably, a unique peak at 5.9 minutes was observed exclusively in the co-culture chromatogram (Vinale et al., 2017). Yu et al. (2019) documented alterations in metabolites present notable in the fermentation broth of a co-culture containing the fungal strain Rhinocladiella similis and the actinomycete strain Streptomyces rochei. Analysis of the EtOAc extracts of the fermentation broth via HPLC revealed that, in single-strain cultivations, S. rochei produced two peaks while R. similis exhibited a weak peak. However, when compared to the control, the co-culture EtOAc extracts displayed two additional peaks and one peak showed a significant increase in peak intensity. According to Chagas et al. (2013), the HPLC profiles of the crude extract obtained from the co-culture of Alternaria tenuissima and with Nigrospora sphaerica displayed a peak a retention time of 19.9 minutes, which was absent in the single cultures. Furthermore, the mixed culture demonstrated a higher peak intensity at 21.0 minutes. dual cultures of the endophytic fungus In Paraconiothyrium and the phytopathogen F. oxysporum, twelve metabolites were uniquely induced, implying that some or all of these compounds may contribute to the marked antagonistic effect observed (Combes et al., 2012). Chagas et al. (2013) propose that the polyketides synthesized by A. tenuissima play a crucial role in inhibiting the growth of N. sphaerica. This is due to the fact that biologically active compounds can demonstrate their function in an ecological system, even when present in low amounts. Moreover, the combined effect of multiple compounds can increase their individual bioactivity.

Variations in metabolites are identified by changes in the pattern of HPLC peaks, which reflect alterations in metabolite production. Wang et al. (2021) investigated changes in the secondary metabolism of 40 Streptomyces strains by comparing their pure cultures with co-cultures involving Mycobacterium sp. The study found that 30 strains exhibited increased production of original metabolites, while 23 strains demonstrated decreased production. Additionally, 14 strains produced new metabolites that were not present in pure cultures, whereas seven strains lost some metabolites. Oppong-Danquah et al. (2020) observed an atypical pattern of distinctly suppressed peaks in the UPLC-MS chromatograms of the Plenodomus influorescen and Pyrenochaeta nobilis co-culture extracts, as compared to monocultures. Upon further examination of the HPLC chromatograms, Yue et al. (2015)found that multiple peaks with comparable retention times in diverse chromatograms had a common UV absorbance pattern, suggesting the presence of similar metabolites in both mono- and cocultures prepared under the same conditions. The existence of identical peaks is a valuable tool for gauging metabolite complexity since they validate the consistency of analytical conditions and can also serve as an effective guide for identifying other unique peaks.

## Conclusion

In conclusion, microbial co-culture (also known as mixed fermentation) has been shown to be a low-cost and time-tested method for generating novel microbial secondary metabolites. Although different interactions between bacteria and fungus have been studied in recent years, the current work offers a rare case of fungal-fungal interaction. Co-cultivation of phytopathogens and endophytic fungi results in the production of secondary metabolites, which diffuse to the microorganisms' point of contact. The fact that extracts showed high antifungal activity supports the importance of co-cultures as a method for finding novel natural antibiotics. Further research should be done on using the identified compounds as natural antifungals as opposed to synthetic fungicides. This work opens up new research directions and significantly enhances environmental and human health protection by utilising substance generated from natural sources. As a result, safer agricultural practices can be investigated. Future identification of the novel peaks in the coculture will be conducted.

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