Diversity of entomopathogenic fungi associated with Mediterranean fruit fly (C. capitata) in Moroccan Argan forests and nearby area: impact of soil factors on their distribution

Ayoub HALLOUTI
Universite Ibn Zohr Faculte des Sciences Agadir

Mohamed AIT HAMZA (mohamed.aithamza@edu.uiz.ac.ma)
Universite Ibn Zohr
https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6141-8433

Abdelaziz ZAHIDI
Universite Ibn Zohr Faculte des Sciences Agadir

Rachid AIT HAMMOU
Universite Ibn Zohr Faculte des Sciences Agadir

Rachid BOUHARROUD
Institut National de la Recherche Agronomique

Abdellah AIT BEN AOUMAR
Universite Ibn Zohr Faculte des Sciences Agadir

Hassan BOUBAKER
Universite Ibn Zohr Faculte des Sciences Agadir

Research article

Keywords: Entomopathogenic fungi, Communities, soil ecology, Ceratitis capitata, biological control

DOI: https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-29914/v1

License: This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License.
Read Full License
Abstract

Background: Studying the ecology of biocontrol-agents is a prerequisite to effectively control medfly (C. capitata) with entomopathogenic fungi. In this context, factors affecting the occurrence and distribution of medfly-associated entomopathogenic-fungi were studied. Soil samples (22) were collected from natural and cultivated areas of Souss-region Morocco. Results: A total of 260 fungal isolates belonging to 22 species and 10 genera were obtained by using medfly pupae as bait. Medfly-associated fungi were detected in all studied soils and pupae infection percentages ranged from 3.33% to 48%. Two genera, Fusarium and Beauveria were the most frequent with 83 isolates (32%) and 50 isolates (19.23%) respectively. Pathogenicity test of isolated species against medfly pupae showed high mortality rates up to 91% for some strains. Principal component analysis (PCA) demonstrated strong influence of origin, physical and chemical properties of soil on the abundance of these fungi. In general, medfly-associated fungi were more abundant in soils with moderate pH (7.5 to 8) having high sand and organic content. High relative humidity negatively influenced the abundance of these fungi. Both factors directly affected the fungal infection percentages in pupae. The response of fungi to these parameters varied among species. According to principal component analysis (PCA) the soils of argan elds and forests were more suitable for the development of medfly-associated fungi than citrus orchards.

Conclusions: These results provide guidance on identifying suitable soils for effective application of entomopathogenic fungi as biological control agents. In summary, isolated indigenous strains seem to be a promising option to control C. capitata.

Introduction

Soil is the natural habitat for entomopathogenic fungi which plays an essential role in regulating the populations of soil inhabiting insects. Mediterranean fruit fly (Ceratitis capitata) or medfly is one of the most destructive fruit pest in Morocco and several parts of the world such as: Europe, South America, North America and Asia [1-3]. Traditionally, the control of C. capitata populations is often based on chemical insecticides, which are known for toxicity to the environment and human health [4, 5]. Therefore, the use of entomopathogenic fungi provides a promising bio-control alternative.

In order to effectively control C. capitata by using entomopathogenic fungi (EPF), identification and selection of indigenous fungi strains is necessary. Except the studies of Imoulan, et al. [6] and Imoulan and Elmeziane [7], the tested entomopathogenic fungi strains against C. capitata have never been isolated from medfly infected individuals or from soils containing larvae and pupae of this insect. The introduction of non-indigenous entomopathogenic strains can reduce the effectiveness of biocontrol agents and pose ecological risks [8-10]. Therefore, isolation of medfly-associated entomopathogenic fungi must be carried out from its natural environment. The selection of indigenous fungi strains increases the probability of an effective control [10, 11]. Besides, if applied as bio-pesticides, these strains can overcome environmental stress by improved adaptation to environmental conditions [6, 12]. Several
studies have reported that the tolerance of entomopathogenic fungi to climatic conditions is strongly related to its natural habitat [6, 13, 14].

Soils of argan forests and citrus orchards in the Souss region are known as natural refuge for medfly and thus are optimum locations to search for medfly-associated entomopathogenic fungi. In fact, these soils are natural habitat of C. capitata L3 larvae and pupae [15, 16]. Imoulan et al [6] has isolated more than 118 isolates of Beauveria bassiana and many strains of Verticillium lecanii from argan soils. These isolates showed significant pathogenicity against C. capitata larvae and pupae during laboratory experiments [6, 7]. Moreover, its pupation in soil offers an opportunity to develop effective control strategy against this pest. Nevertheless, this opportunity has never been thoroughly explored.

Soil provides a nutritious environment for entomopathogenic fungi and protection against climatic conditions. However, the parameters of this medium such as texture, pH, electrical conductivity, relative humidity, carbon/nitrogen ratio and organic matter content directly affect the availability and abundance of fungal species [17-19]. Several studies have reported the effect of soil type, climatic factors and agricultural practices on the distribution of entomopathogenic fungi [20-22]. Thus, suitable levels of these soil parameters may promote the development of specific species than others. Quesada-Moraga, et al. [19] demonstrated that soil organic matter content significantly affects cation-exchange capacity (CEC), which influences water absorption and fungal spore germination. Moreover, they found that Metarhizium anisopliae strains prefer soils with a pH below 7 whereas Beauveria bassiana strains adapt better to basic soils. In addition, water availability and soil texture have been reported to directly affect the vertical movements, availability and survival of the conidia of Beauveria bassiana, Metarhizium anisopliae and Verticillium lecanii [10, 18].

The present study was aimed to isolate and identify the medfly-associated entomopathogenic fungi. The isolation was carried out from three type of soils: soils of argan forests, cultivated fields containing argan trees and citrus orchards of Souss region, Morocco. Physical and chemical properties of these soils were studied to understand their relationship with the abundance and distribution of entomopathogenic fungal strains as well as the ecology of the fungal communities.

Materials And Methods

Insects

C. capitata larvae were collected form infested argan fruits and reared in the laboratory under controlled temperature (25±2 °C) and photoperiod (14h/10h, L/D). Medfly adults were provided with water and a sugar-yeast nutrient medium (¾ sucrose + ¼ yeast extract). Larval medium consisted of 940g wheat bran, 50g yeast extract, 5g Nipagine and 5g glucose in 1000ml distilled water [16]. C. capitata pupae were used as EPF baits in trapping bait test and pathogenicity test.

Soil samples
Soil samples were collected from Souss argan forests and nearby areas (figure1). Soil of argan sub-tree is the natural habitat of *C. capitata* L3 larvae and pupae [6, 15, 16]. Therefore, choosing this soil increases the chance of trapping entomopathogenic fungi isolates with greater virulence against *C. capitata* compared to other fungal species.

Soil samples containing three subsamples were collected from twenty-two different sites. For each subsample, 1kg soil was collected from the sub-tree area of about ten trees. Samples were taken at a depth of 10-20 cm after removing surface litter [20]. Soil obtained for the subsamples was mixed to obtain a homogeneous sample representing the sampling site. Sampling sites were selected to represent the variability of soil types, soil origin and climate (figure 1). To study the effect of the soil's origin on the availability of EPF, soil samples were collected from argan forest (natural area), argan fields (intercropping plants) and citrus orchards (conventional crops).

Samples were placed in plastic bags to prevent water loss and, immediately transferred to the laboratory to store at 4°C in dark [20]. Each bag was provided with a unique reference code to identify the sampling site. In order to differentiate between soil samples, an analysis was performed to study the physical and chemical properties such as texture (sand, silt, and clay), pH, electrical conductivity (EC), humidity (RH), organic matter content (OM) and carbon/nitrogen ratio (C/N). The pH, relative humidity and electrical conductivity of these samples were immediately measured in the laboratory [23].

**Trapping of entomopathogenic fungi**

*C. capitata* associated entomopathogenic fungi were isolated by following the bait method [24]. Medfly pupae were used as a bait to trap medfly specific EPF strains. To our knowledge, this is the first report of using medfly pupae as bait for the isolation of entomopathogenic fungi.

To prepare the baits, *C. capitata* pupae were disinfected for 1 minute in a solution of distilled water containing 0.3% sodium hypochlorite and then rinsed with sterile distilled water [25]. Twenty pupae were buried in Petri dish containing 40g of soil moistened with sterile distilled water [26]. Petri dishes were sealed with parafilm and incubated at 25°C for 10 days. To obtain reliable data and to increase the chances of trapping EPF, previous studies recommend using more than 5 individuals of bait insects [19, 27]. Three replicates were prepared from each soil sample and a total of 60 pupae were used.

Pupae which were unable to go to adults emergence were collected. These pupae were surface sterilized then placed in sterile Petri dishes containing moistened Whatman paper with sterile distilled water and incubated at 25°C [28]. Towards the end of this second incubation, fungal infection percentage of pupae was calculated after determining the number of individuals (cadavers) representing fungal infection "N". The infection percentage (Ir) was determined according to the following formula:

\[
Ir(\%) = \frac{N}{60} \times 100
\]
Isolation and identification of fungi

Pupae with external mycelial growth of fungi were disinfected and placed directly in Petri dishes containing PDA (potato dextrose agar) supplemented with chloramphenicol (0.25 g/l) [29, 30]. In order to eliminate saprophytic microbial flora, dead pupae were disinfected for 1 minute with a solution of distilled water containing 0.3% sodium hypochlorite and rinsed five times with sterile distilled water [25]. Petri dishes were incubated at 25°C for 3 to 5 days. The colonies around pupae were purified through successive subcultures on PDA medium. Fungal isolates were identified on the basis of macroscopic and microscopic criteria by following specific taxonomic keys [31, 32].

Fungi ecological indices

The diversity parameters such as species richness (R), Shannon-wiener index (H'), evenness of fungal communities (J) and frequencies (F) were estimated based on Mo, et al. [33] and Magurran [34] methods. The species richness was calculated according to the formula

\[ R = \frac{(S - 1)}{\ln(N)} \]

where S is the number of species and N is the total number of isolates. Shannon index (H') was measured by the formula

\[ H' = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{X_i}{N} \ln \left( \frac{X_i}{N} \right) \]

[33], where Xi is the number of observations of “i” species and N is the total number of isolates observed in each sample. The evenness (J) of fungal communities was represented by \( J = \frac{H'}{H_{\text{max}}} \). The occurrence frequencies (F) of each species was calculated as

\[ F = \left( \frac{\text{individual number of a species}}{\text{individual number of all species}} \right) \times 100 \]

Preliminary pathogenicity test (Koch’s postulates)

After the purification of fungal isolates, 22 potential entomopathogen strains were selected. A preliminary test was performed to check their pathogenicity on \( C. \) capitata pupa. Disinfected medfly pupae were placed on Whatman paper in Petri dishes and inoculated by spraying 2 ml of fungal suspension at a concentration of \( 1 \times 10^6 \) conidia/ml. This concentration of EPF has already been reported as effective in previous studies [35-37]. Twenty pupae per replicate were sprayed with fungal suspension and three replicates (n=60) were prepared for each strain. The control pupae were sprayed with sterile distilled water containing 0.1% of Tween 80. Treated pupae were maintained at a temperature of 25°C. The infection percentage was determined under binocular loupe (40x magnification) after 24 hours of inoculation and every 48 hours later on. To prevent horizontal transmission of the pathogen (EPF) between treated pupae, infected individuals were regularly removed. Towards the end of the test, re-isolation of the entomopathogens was carried out from pupae to confirm that the tested fungi have caused the observed mortality (Koch's postulates).
In order to eliminate the natural mortality of the insect, mortality rates were corrected using Abbott's formula

\[ CM(\%) = \frac{(Mt-Mc)}{(100-Mc)} \times 100 \]

where Mt is the mortality rate in treatment and Mc represents the average of mortality rates in control.

**Data analysis**

Statistical analyses were performed in open source “R” software [39, 40]. Principal component analysis (PCA) of soil parameters, abundance of medfly-associated fungi in soil and co-inertia between abundance of genera and soil parameters were performed by using "Factoextra" [41] and "Factominer" [42] packages. In addition, the circles of correlations were obtained by using "Psy" [43] and "Corrplot" [44] packages. One-way ANOVA and Fisher’s LSD tests were carried out in Statistica (V6.0) software to compare isolates according to mortality rates [45].

**Results**

**Occurrence and pathogenicity of medfly-associated fungi**

**Occurrence frequencies**

During this study, 1320 *C. capitata* pupae were used as bait to trap and isolate entomopathogenic fungi from 22 soil samples. Approximately 23% (300) pupae were fungi infected. Results demonstrated that all studied soil samples contain medfly-associated fungi with infection percentages ranged from 3.33 to 48%. The isolation of these fungi on PDA yielded 260 fungal isolates belonging to 22 species and 10 genera. Further, the abundance and richness of fungal species vary according to soil samples.

The occurrence frequencies of fungal species varied as illustrated in figure 2. *Fusarium* was the most frequent genus in the studied soils and accounted for 32% (83 isolates) followed by *Beauveria bassiana* species with 19% (50 isolates) and *Penicillium* sp, *Cladosporium* sp and *Scedosporium* sp with more than 8% isolates (22 isolates for each). The occurrence frequencies of *Aspergillus flavus*, *Aschersonia* sp. and *Aspergillus niger* strains were ranged from 4.6% to 5.7%. On the other hand, results showed that *Acremonium* sp, *Epicoccum* sp, *Neoscytalidium* sp. and *Aspergillus nidulans* were less frequent in argan and citrus soils with less than 3.1% occurrence frequency. Among isolated strains, genus *Fusarium* spp represented a higher diversity with seven different strains.

**Pathogenicity tests**

In order to confirm their pathogenicity, virulence test of 22 fungal isolates was carried out (figure 3). Analysis of the results showed highly significant differences between the isolates (p-value = 0.0000 –
F_{\text{isolate}} = 7.994 - df = 21). Determination of homogeneous groups by Fisher's LSD demonstrated that *Acremonium* sp. was the most virulent strain and caused 100% pupae mortality. Strains of the second group consisted of *Fusarium* sp. (Pi21), *Fusarium* sp. (OS11), *Beauveria bassiana* (NS10), *Aschersonia* sp. (Pt14), *Beauveria bassiana* (OS1) and *Aspergillus flavus* with corrected mortality rates up to 91% followed by 89.99% mortality by *Fusarium oxysporum* (NS1) and 87.99% mortality by *Cladosporium* sp. These strains formed homogeneous groups as “a”, “ab”, “abc”, “abcd” and “abcde”, respectively with mortality rates over 87%.

On the contrary, strains of *Scedosporium* sp, *Penicillium* sp., *Neoscytalidium* sp. NS7, *Aspergillus niger* and *Fusarium* spp. (NS11 and Pt31) caused 55% pupae mortality and *Fusarium* sp. (NS8) have no effect on the mortality of medfly pupae (0%).

**Influence of soil parameters on the abundance of medfly-associated fungi**

Principal component analysis (PCA) results (figure 4) showed the effect of soil parameters on the abundance of medfly-associated entomopathogenic fungi.

Results revealed significant differences between soil samples with a general variability of 64.7%. First axis of PCA (Dim1) represents 48.9% variability related to soil texture (sand and silt content), relative humidity and nitrogen content (N), Shannon index, evenness and generic richness. The second axis of PCA (Dim 2) represents 15.8% variability that is strongly related to pH, organic matter content, infection percentages and C/N ratio. Distribution of these parameters revealed that the generic richness and ecological balance of these soils increases the chances of fungal infection in insects. Likewise, high sand content in the soil promotes infection process. In addition, the abundance of entomopathogenic fungi in soils requires high organic matter content and moderate pH (around 8). Moreover, our results showed that the high relative soil humidity negatively influences EPF’s abundance and insect infection percentages (Ir). C/N ratio is an indicator of soil health and is generally related to microbial activity and abundance of fungi in the soils.

PCA demonstrated that soils of argan fields (argan with crops) and soils of argan forests were more suitable for the development of medfly-associated entomopathogenic fungi. Moderate pH, high organic matter content, adequate moisture and sandy texture make these soils a good habitat for medfly entomopathogenic fungi. However, citrus soils may contain pesticide residues that prevent the growth of microorganisms and possess high C/N ratio, pH and EC. Besides their silty texture (figure 4), irrigation in citrus orchards increases the soil relative humidity which influences the development of entomopathogenic fungi.

To illustrate the effect of soil parameters on generic richness and fungal infection percentages (Ir), we studied the correlation between each parameter to these two factors (figure 5). The results demonstrated strong correlation between infection percentages and soil texture, organic matter content and evenness.
The infection percentages were positively correlated to evenness (J) by more than 70% and approximately 60% to organic matter (OM) and sand content. Relative humidity (RH) and silt content were negatively correlated with the infection percentages by approximately -60%. In general, soil rich in organic matter with adequate humidity was noted to be rich in microorganism, which increases the probability of insect's infection by fungi. In addition, high sand content in soil facilitates the mobility of insects as well as fungal conidia. The generic richness of soil was negatively related to pH by -65% but positively correlated to the evenness (J) by more than 80% and organic matter content (OM) by more than 40%. Moderate pH, high organic matter content and adequate moisture promote the growth of different fungal species in soil.

**Influence of soil parameters on the distribution of medfly-associated fungi strains**

To understand the relationship between soil parameters and distribution of EPF strains, an analysis of co-inertia was performed by joining tables of soil parameters and distribution of strains in the soils. Schematization of these results was carried out in the software “R” by using "Factoextra" and "ggplot2" packages (figure 6). Principal component analysis (PCA) showed that the distribution and abundance of fungi genera are directly influenced by soil health (generic richness, Shannon index and evenness), pH, C/N and texture. In general, increased pH and sand content whereas decreased C/N and organic matter content promote the development of highly potent entomopathogenic fungi such as: *B. bassiana*, *A. flavus* and *Acremonium* sp. These species generally grow and develop in the same soils with low generic richness. On the other side, strains of genera *Aschersonia* sp., *Penicillium* sp., *A. nidulans* and *Cladosporium* sp. require high relative humidity and very high silt, clay and organic matter content. These genera are usually saprophytes except *Aschersonia* sp. *Fusarium* spp are better adapted to soils with low generic richness, organic matter content, C/N ratio and pH as well as toto soils with high relative humidity. The results of this study revealed that there was no effect of soil texture on the availability of species belonging to genus *Fusarium*.

Besides physical and chemical properties of soil, results of fungi isolation showed the influence of soil’s origin on the distribution of medfly-associated fungi (figure 7). The classification of strains according to the origins of soils revealed that soils of argan forest and argan fields (argan with crops) are favourable to most of these fungi. In contrast, soil of citrus orchards was observed to be less suitable for the development of medfly-associated entomopathogenic fungi. The strains of *Aspergillus flavus*, *Epicoccum* sp., *Neoscytalidium* sp. and *Acremonium* sp. were more abundant in forest soils. However, strains of *Penicillium* sp., *Scedosporium* sp., *A. nidulans* and *Aschersonia* sp. are better adapted to argan fields (argan with crops). The strains of *Fusarium* sp., *A. niger* and *Beauveria bassiana* were abundant in all soils of argan trees (forest and fields).

In short, results of this study proved the significant effects of physical and chemical properties of soil and its origin (forest or agricultural soil) on the availability and distribution of medfly-associated
entomopathogenic fungi.

**Discussion**

Soil is the natural reservoir of entomopathogenic fungi that protects them from abiotic factors (Zimmermann, 1986). Hence, most entomopathogenic fungi are isolated from soil by using either selective media [46, 47] or bait trapping method [26, 27]. To our knowledge, except Imoulan et al [6, 7] study, entomopathogenic strains against Medfly have never been isolated from soils naturally containing the populations of this insect or from infected individuals. The introduction of non-native entomopathogenic strains can reduce the effectiveness of these biocontrol agents and may pose ecological risks [8, 10]. Thus, by using medfly pupae as bait in its natural environment soils increase the probability to isolate highly virulent indigenous strains that can adapt to the area environmental conditions [7, 10, 12]. In addition, this technique can also determine the diversity of medfly-associated fungi in the studied area.

EPF strains were isolated on PDA medium after trapping with medfly pupae bait. To our knowledge, this is the first report of using *C. capitata* pupae as bait to trap entomopathogenic fungi. During the trapping test, 300 bait pupae (23%) out of 1320 pupae were infected with fungi. Moreover, all of the studied soil samples contained medfly-associated fungi and pupae infection percentages ranged from 3.33% to over 48% in some samples. Similar results have been reported by Imoulan et al [6] in the Moroccan’s *Argania spinosa* forests and by Keller et al [48] in Switzerland, where respectively 91% and 96% soil samples contained entomopathogenic fungi. However, these rates are very high compared to other studies such as, 71.7% soil samples in Spain [19, 49], 55.5% in China [20], 43% in southern Italy [50], 33.6% in Palestine [51], 20.59% in Turkey [12] and 17.5% in UK [27] contained entomopathogenic fungi. These comparisons must be made cautiously due to the differences in bait species, number of individuals and number of soil samples.

Identification of isolated medfly-associated fungi revealed that the most common strains belonged to genus *Fusarium* (32%) with 83 isolates followed by *Beauveria* (19.23%) with 50 isolates, *Penicillium*, *Cladosporium* and *Scedosporium* with frequencies over 8%. High occurrence rates of these genera have been reported in soils of Italy, Palestine and China (Tarasco et al., 1997, Ali-Shtayeh et al., 2003, Sun et al., 2008). Species of these genera, particularly of genus *Fusarium* and *Beauveria* exhibit a wide variety of life strategies including associations with insects and plants [32, 52]. On the other hand, our results showed that strains of *Acremonium* sp., *Aschersonia* sp., *Epicoccum* sp. and *Aspergillus* sp. were less abundant in argan and citrus soils with frequencies less than 6%. Several studies have reported most of these species as entomopathogens [51, 53-55]; while others are classified as opportunistic pathogens [20, 32]. The virulence of these species against medfly was proved during pathogenicity tests. The present study demonstrates that entomopathogenic fungi are common inhabitants in the soils of Souss region. Hence, results of this study confirm the findings of Imoulan, et al. [6] in Moroccan argan endemic forest; nevertheless, diversity of the species observed during this study (10 fungal genera) was greater than obtained by Imoulan (2 genera: *Beauveria* and *Paecilomyces*). This difference can be explained by the
fact that Imoulan, et al. [6] used *Galleria mellonella* larvae as bait and selective media for isolation whereas we used a general medium (PDA) and *C. capitata* pupae as bait.

Principal component analysis (PCA) demonstrated that soil factors are directly correlated to the fungal abundance and infection of pupae. In general, PCA showed that generic richness and ecological balance of soils enhance the chances of insect's fungal infection. Moreover, high sand content and low silt and clay content in the soil favour fungal abundance and infection process. The effect of soil texture on the abundance and availability of entomopathogenic fungi has been reported by several authors. Quesada-Moraga, et al. [19] demonstrated that soil texture particularly clay content directly influences the abundance and viability of *B. Bassiana* conidia. They also suggested that high soil clay content improves the abundance and persistence of many entomopathogenic fungi as conidia are adsorbed onto clay particles. Furthermore, Garrido-Jurado, et al. [18] proved that the movement of *B. bassiana* and *M. anisopliae* conidia are directly influenced by the soil texture and, adequate sand content promotes the mobility as well as infection percentages of the medfly pupae. On the contrary, excessive sand reduces fungal inoculum due to water drainage. In addition, our results showed that the abundance of entomopathogenic fungi in soil requires a high organic matter content and moderate pH (around 8).

Similar results have been reported by previous studies which revealed that entomopathogenic fungi are more abundant in soils with high organic matter content and pH around 8 [14, 19, 48]. This can be explained by the fact that soils with high organic matter content have an ecological balance with low C/N ratio and a large diversity of arthropod and hosts on which entomopathogenic fungi can grow [10]. However, Meyling and Eilenberg [56] showed that high organic matter content influences antagonistic effect and biological activity in soil, which negatively affects entomopathogenic species of *Beauveria* and *Metarhizium*. It has also been shown that pH can influence the toxin production of entomopathogenic fungi [19, 57]. The response of fungi to these parameters varies among species. Our results also demonstrated that high level of relative humidity negatively effects the abundance of entomopathogenic fungi and rate of pupae infection. This can be explained by the leaching of inoculum and fast development of saprophytic genera. It is known that the leaching of inoculum is correlated with the amount of water and soil texture [58]. In addition, high relative humidity improves the development of saprophytic fungi and competition over space and nutrients [56].

PCA analysis showed that the soils of argan fields and forests are more suitable for the development of medfly-associated fungi compared to citrus orchards soils. Similarly, Tarasco, et al. [50] reported that entomopathogenic fungi are more abundant in uncultivated and forest soils. In general, citrus and agricultural soils may contain pesticides, which causes high C/N ratio and can prevent the growth of microorganisms. In addition to silty texture, citrus soils have high pH and ionic charge as well as a high relative humidity due to irrigation, which affects the development of entomopathogenic fungi [18, 19]. This environment may also improve the invasion of soil by saprophytic microorganisms that increases the competition for nutrients and space. Contrarily, soils of argan fields and forests do not generally contain chemical residues and are more suitable for microbial growth by maintaining ecological balance between these organisms. Moderate pH, good organic matter content, adequate humidity, silty-sandy texture and absence of toxic pesticides in these soils constitute a good habitat for medfly-associated
entomopathogenic fungi. Entomopathogenic fungi also act as endophytes in the absence of host that explains their high abundance in the soils of argan fields having vegetation throughout the year [11, 59, 60]. On the other hand, recently Uzman, et al. [21] have reported that entomopathogenic fungi can even persist in intensively managed vineyard systems. They reported that application of chemicals had no significant effect on the presence of entomopathogenic fungi in vineyard soils of Germany. Hence, this resistance of entomopathogenic fungi to fungicides can be exploited for the biological control of pests even in intensively managed agricultural systems.

Understanding the ecology of entomopathogenic fungi and assessment of their insecticidal efficiency under controlled conditions are necessary before their large-scale applications as biological control agents. Furthermore, the use of indigenous strains seems to be environmentally and ecologically safe strategy.

During the present study, about 10 genera and 22 different species of medfly-associated entomopathogenic fungi were isolated from different types of soil samples from Souss region of Morocco. Results confirmed the presence of entomopathogenic fungi in all soil samples. The genera of *Fusarium* (32%) and *Beauveria* (19.2%) were the most abundant. The abundance of these strains was directly affected by the physical and chemical properties of soil such as texture, pH, C/N and organic matter content as well as soil origin. These indigenous strains are a promising option to effectively control *C. capitata* using bio-control agents. In addition, these results can be useful to determine the suitable soils for applying entomopathogenic fungi against medfly and for the selection of the best adapted fungal species in a particular soil. However, further explorations are needed to select efficient and field-resistant strains.

**Abbreviations**

EC: Electrical conductivity; pH: Power of Hydrogen; RH: Relative humidity; OM: Organic matter content; C/N: Carbon/nitrogen ratio; Ir: Infection percentages; R: Species richness; H': Shannon-wiener index; J: Evenness of fungal communities; CM: Corrected mortality rates

**Declarations**

**Ethics approval and consent to participate**

The soil sampling did not require permission and the sample are not classified as endangered, and are not under any protection in any of the sampled areas.

**Consent to publish**

Not applicable.
Availability of data and material

The datasets used during and/or analysed during the current study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Funding

Research was funded by PhD grant from from the Moroccan National Centre for Scientific and Technical Research Scholarship (C.N.R.S.T).

Authors' contributions

AH, HB and AABA conceived and designed this research, AH, RB and RA conducted experiments. AH, MAH and AZ collected soil samples. RA and AZ contributed in insect rearing. AH, MAH analyzed data. AH, MAH and HB wrote the manuscript. All authors read and approved the manuscript.

Acknowledgments

We thank Pr. Abdelhamid El Mousadik (Head of the laboratory of Biotechnology and Natural Resources Development Laboratory, Faculty of science, Ibn Zohr University) for their collaboration and technical support. We also thank two anonymous reviewers and subject editor for their valuable and constructive suggestions.

References

1. Mazih A, Debouzie D: Infestation rate of argan fruit (Argania spinosa) by the Mediterranean fruit fly (Ceratitis capitata) in relation to phenology and maturation of the fruit. Entomol Exp Appl 1996, 81(1):31-38.

2. Morales P, Cermeli M, Godoy F, Salas B: A list of Mediterranean fruit fly Ceratitis capitata Wiedemann (Diptera: Tephritidae) host plants based on the records of INIA-CENIAP Museum of Insects of Agricultural Interest. Entomotropica 2004, 19(1):51-54.

3. European and Mediterranean plant protection organization, Distribution maps of quarantine pests for Europe Ceratitis capitata [https://gd.eppo.int/taxon/CERTCA/distribution]
4. Mazih A: Status of citrus IPM in the southern Mediterranean basin Morocco, North Africa. *Acta horticulturae* 2015, 1065:1079-1104.

5. Bernard JL: Face aux ravageurs, les solutions de lutte directe. *Phytoma - La défense des végétaux* 2014, 675:9-14.

6. Imoulan A, Alaoui A, El Meziane A: Natural occurrence of soil-borne entomopathogenic fungi in the Moroccan Endemic forest of *Argania spinosa* and their pathogenicity to *Ceratitis capitata*. *World J Microbiol Biotechnol* 2011, 27(11):2619-2628.

7. Imoulan A, Elmeziane A: Pathogenicity of *Beauveria bassiana* isolated from Moroccan Argan forests soil against larvae of *Ceratitis capitata* (Diptera: Tephritidae) in laboratory conditions. *World J Microbiol Biotechnol* 2014, 30(3):959-965.

8. Jaronski ST: Ecological factors in the inundative use of fungal entomopathogens. *BioControl* 2010, 55(1):159-185.

9. Goble T, Dames J, Hill M, Moore S: Investigation of native isolates of entomopathogenic fungi for the biological control of three citrus pests. *Biocontrol Sci Technol* 2011, 21(10):1193-1211.

10. Inglis GD, Goettel MS, Butt TM, Strasser H: Use of hyphomycetous fungi for managing insect pests. In: *Fungi as biocontrol agents: progress, problems and potential*. CAB International Wallingford; 2001: 23-69.

11. Vega FE, Goettel MS, Blackwell M, Chandler D, Jackson MA, Keller S, Koike M, Maniania NK, Monzon A, Ownley BH: Fungal entomopathogens: new insights on their ecology. *Fungal Ecol* 2009, 2(4):149-159.

12. Sevim A, Demir I, Höfte M, Humber RA, Demirbag Z: Isolation and characterization of entomopathogenic fungi from hazelnut-growing region of Turkey. *BioControl* 2010, 55(2):279-297.

13. St Leger RJ, Allee L, May B, Staples RC, Roberts DW: World-wide distribution of genetic variation among isolates of *Beauveria* spp. *Mycol Res* 1992, 96(12):1007-1015.

14. Bidochka MJ, Kasperski JE, Wild GA: Occurrence of the entomopathogenic fungi *Metarhizium anisopliae* and *Beauveria bassiana* in soils from temperate and near-northern habitats. *Can J Bot* 1998, 76(7):1198-1204.

15. Sacantanis KB: La forêt d’arganier : le plus grand foyer de *Ceratitis capitata* connu au monde. *Bull Lab Entomol Agric* 1957, 15:1-53.

16. Alaoui A, Imoulan A, El Alaoui-Talibi Z, El Meziane a: Genetic structure of Mediterranean fruit fly (*Ceratitis capitata*) populations from Moroccan Endemic Forest of *Argania spinosa*. *Int J Agric Biol* 2010, 12:291-298.

17. Fernández-Bravo M, Garrido-Jurado I, Valverde-Garcia P, Enkerli J, Quesada-Moraga E: Responses to abiotic environmental stresses among phylloplane and soil isolates of *Beauveria bassiana* from two holm oak ecosystems. *J Invertebr Pathol* 2016, 141:6-17.

18. Garrido-Jurado I, Torrent J, Barrón V, Corpas A, Quesada-Moraga E: Soil properties affect the availability, movement, and virulence of entomopathogenic fungi conidia against puparia of *Ceratitis capitata* (Diptera: Tephritidae). *Biol Control* 2011, 58(3):277-285.
19. Quesada-Moraga E, Navas-Cortés JA, Maranhao EA, Ortiz-Urquiza A, Santiago-Álvarez C: Factors affecting the occurrence and distribution of entomopathogenic fungi in natural and cultivated soils. *Mycol Res* 2007, 111(8):947-966.

20. Sun B-D, Liu X-Z: Occurrence and diversity of insect-associated fungi in natural soils in China. *Appl Soil Ecol* 2008, 39(1):100-108.

21. Uzman D, Pliester J, Leyer I, Entling MH, Reineke A: Drivers of entomopathogenic fungi presence in organic and conventional vineyard soils. *Applied Soil Ecology* 2019, 133:89-97.

22. Fargues J, Vidal C, Smits N, Rougier M, Boulard T, Mermier M, Nicot P, Reich P, Jeannequin B, Ridray G: Climatic factors on entomopathogenic hyphomycetes infection of *Trialeurodes vaporariorum* (Homoptera: *Aleyrodidae*) in Mediterranean glasshouse tomato. *Biol Control* 2003, 28(3):320-331.

23. Pansu M, Gautheyrou J: Handbook of soil analysis: mineralogical, organic and inorganic methods: Springer Science & Business Media; 2007.

24. Payen J: La «méthode des appâts» et ses applications en phytopathologie: Définition, revue bibliographique et applications à la prévision de la fonte des semis de betterave. *Bull Ec natl Super, agron* 1965:29-54.

25. Ebling PM: Efficacité de l’hypochlorite de sodium pour l’inactivation des spores de *Penicillium brevicompactum* dans une installation d’élevage d’insectes. In. Edited by Centre de recherches forestières des Grands Lacs SSM, Ontario. GLC - X - 8F: Ressources naturelles Canada; 2008: 5.

26. Zimmermann G: The ‘Galleria’ bait method for detection of entomopathogenic fungi in soil. *J Appl Entomol* 1986, 102(1-5):213-215.

27. Chandler D, Hay D, Reid A: Sampling and occurrence of entomopathogenic fungi and nematodes in UK soils. *Appl Soil Ecol* 1997, 5(2):133-141.

28. Davet P, Rouxel F: Détection et isolement des champignons du sol: Editions Quae; 1997.

29. Saiah F, Berkani A, Bendahmane BS, Benkadda MY, Lakhdari W, Kolai N: Isolement de champignons entomopathogènes à partir de *Phyllocnistis citrella* Stainton (Lepidoptera: *Gracillariidae*). *Entomologie faunistique-Faunistic Entomology* 2011, 63(3):199-202.

30. Badaoui MI, Berkani A, Lotmani B: Les entomopathogènes autochtones, nouvel espoir dans le contrôle biologique de *Tuta absoluta* Meyrick 1917 (Lepidoptera: *Gelechiidae*) en Algérie. *Entomologie faunistique-Faunistic Entomology* 2011, 63(3):165-169.

31. Pitt JI, Hocking AD, Diane A: Fungi and food spoilage, vol. 519: Springer; 2009.

32. Samson RA, Evans HC, Latgé J-P: Atlas of entomopathogenic fungi: Springer Science & Business Media; 2013.

33. Mo M-H, Chen W-M, Su H-Y, Zhang K-Q, Duan C-Q, He D-M: Heavy metal tolerance of nematode-trapping fungi in lead-polluted soils. *Appl Soil Ecol* 2006, 31(1-2):11-19.

34. Magurran AE: Measuring biological diversity: John Wiley & Sons; 2013.

35. Dimbi S, Maniania NK, Lux SA, Ekesi S, Mueke JK: Pathogenicity of *Metarhizium anisopliae* (Metsch.) Sorokin and *Beauveria bassiana* (Balsamo) Vuillemin, to three adult fruit fly species:
*Ceratitis capitata* (Weidemann), *C. rosa* var. fasciventris Karsch and *C. cosyra* (Walker) (Diptera: *Tephritidae*). *Mycopathologia* 2003, 156(4):375-382.

36. Konstantopoulou M, Mazomenos B: Evaluation of *Beauveria bassiana* and *B. brongniartii* strains and four wild-type fungal species against adults of *Bactrocera oleae* and *Ceratitis capitata*. *BioControl* 2005, 50(2):293-305.

37. Quesada-Moraga E, Ruiz-García A, Santiago-Alvarez C: Laboratory evaluation of entomopathogenic fungi *Beauveria bassiana* and *Metarhizium anisopliae* against puparia and adults of *Ceratitis capitata* (Diptera: *Tephritidae*). *J Econ Entomol* 2006, 99(6):1955-1966.

38. Abbott W: A method of computing the effectiveness of an insecticide. *J Econ Entomol* 1925, 18(2):265-267.

39. Team R: RStudio: integrated development for R. *RStudio, Inc, Boston, MA* URL [http://www rstudio com](http://www rstudio com) 2015, 42:14.

40. Field A, Miles J, Field Z: Discovering statistics using R: Sage publications; 2012.

41. Kassambara A, Mundt F: Package ‘factoextra’. *Extract and visualize the results of multivariate data analyses* 2017, 76.

42. Husson F, Josse J, Le S, Mazet J: FactoMineR: multivariate exploratory data analysis and data mining with R. *R package version* 2013, 1(1.29).

43. Falissard B, Falissard MB: Package ‘psy’. *measurements* 2009, 20:37-46.

44. Wei T, Simko V, Levy M, Xie Y, Jin Y, Zemla J: Package ‘corrplot’. *Statistician* 2017, 56:316-324.

45. StafSoft I: STATISTICA (data analysis software system), version 6.0. In.; 2001.

46. Veen K, Ferron P: A selective medium for the isolation of *Beauveria tenella* and of *Metarrhizium anisopliae*. *J Invertebr Pathol* 1966, 8(2):268-269.

47. Chase A, Osborne L, Ferguson V: Selective isolation of the entomopathogenic fungi *Beauveria bassiana* and *Metarhizium anisopliae* from an artificial potting medium. *Fla Entomol* 1986:285-292.

48. Keller S, Kessler P, Schweizer C: Distribution of insect pathogenic soil fungi in Switzerland with special reference to *Beauveria brongniartii* and *Metarhizium anisopliae*. *BioControl* 2003, 48(3):307-319.

49. Asensio L, Carbonell T, López-Jiménez J, Lopez-Llorca L: Entomopathogenic fungi in soils from Alicante province [Spain]. *Span J Agric Res* 2003, 1(3):37-45.

50. Tarasco E, De Bievre C, Papiero B, Poliseno M, Triggiani O: Occurrence of entomopathogenic fungi in soils in Southern Italy. *Entomologica* 1997, 31:157-166.

51. Ali-Shtayeh MS, Mara’i A-BB, Jamous RM: Distribution, occurrence and characterization of entomopathogenic fungi in agricultural soil in the Palestinian area. *Mycopathologia* 2003, 156(3):235-244.

52. Vega FE: Insect pathology and fungal endophytes. *J Invertebr Pathol* 2008, 98(3):277-279.

53. Domsch KH, Gams W, Anderson T-H: Compendium of soil fungi, vol. 2: Academic Press (London) Ltd.; 1980.
54. Gunde-Cimerman N, Zalar P, Jeram S: Mycoflora of cave cricket *Troglophilus neglectus* cadavers. *Mycopathologia* 1998, 141(2):111-114.

55. Guesmi-Jouini J, Boughalleb-M N, Halima-Kamel MB: Etudes préliminaires sur les champignons entomopathogenes des pucerons de l’artichaut en Tunisie. *Entomologie faunistique-Faunistic Entomology* 2011, 63(3):171-181.

56. Meyling NV, Eilenberg J: Occurrence and distribution of soil borne entomopathogenic fungi within a single organic agroecosystem. *Agric, Ecosyst Environ* 2006, 113(1-4):336-341.

57. Holmquist G, Walker H, Stahr H: Influence of temperature, pH, water activity and antifungal agents on growth of *Aspergillus flavus* and *A. parasiticus*. *J Food Sci* 1983, 48(3):778-782.

58. Storey GK, Gardner WA: Movement of an aqueous spray of *Beauveria bassiana* into the profile of four Georgia soils. *Environ Entomol* 1988, 17(1):135-139.

59. Vega FE, Blackwell M: Insect-fungal associations: ecology and evolution: Oxford University Press; 2005.

60. Vega FE, Posada F, Aime MC, Pava-Ripoll M, Infante F, Rehner SA: Entomopathogenic fungal endophytes. *Biol Control* 2008, 46(1):72-82.

**Figures**
Figure 1

Sampling sites: location within the Moroccan territory and Souss-Massa region
**Figure 2**

Occurrence frequencies of isolated genera calculated from the number of the occurrence of a species/number of the occurrence of all the species.
Figure 3

Corrected mortality rates of medfly pupae related to the EPF strains calculated using Abbott [38] formula. - Mean (±SE) of corrected mortality, Means followed by different letters differ significantly (comparison were performed using Fisher-LSD test, P< 0.05), Treatments sharing the same letter are not significantly different.
Figure 4

PCA of the relationship between soil parameters, soil origin to the abundance and diversity of medfly-associated entomopathogenic fungi
Figure 5

Correlation of the infection percentages and generic richness with the physical and chemical properties of soil namely: texture (sand, silt, and clay), pH, electrical conductivity (EC), humidity (RH), organic matter content (OM) and carbon/nitrogen ratio (C/N).
Figure 6

Schematization of soil parameters and distribution of strains in the soils carried out in the software “R” by using "Factoextra" and "ggplot2" packages
Figure 7

PCA of the relationship between EPF genera and origin of the soil