Isolation and Identification of *Aspergillus* sp. in Tilapia (*Oreochromis* sp.) Sold for Consumption in Bogor

Khirthanaa Arumugam¹, Novericko Ginger Budiono²*, Budhy Jasa Widyananta³

¹Undergraduate Study Program of Veterinary Medicine, School of Veterinary Medicine and Biomedical Sciences, IPB University, Bogor, Indonesia, ²Division of Medical Microbiology, School of Veterinary Medicine and Biomedical Sciences, IPB University, Bogor, Indonesia, ³Division of Veterinary Surgery and Radiology, School of Veterinary Medicine and Biomedical Sciences, IPB University, Bogor, Indonesia. *Corresponding author: novericko-gi@apps.ipb.ac.id

Abstract

This study investigated the prevalence of *Aspergillus* sp. in tilapia sold for consumption at Pasarean Village in Bogor District. A total of 50 fish were sampled for further investigation. The clinical signs of fish were eroded fins, gills, haemorrhages, and wounds. The presence of pathogenic fungi was confirmed through fungal isolation from the skin, gills, and cloaca and subsequent culturing on potato dextrose agar. Macroscopic and microscopic observations determined *Aspergillus* sp. The results showed that four *Aspergillus* species were identified i.e., *A. terreus* (2%), *A. flavus* (4%), *A. fumigatus* (42%), and *A. niger* (4%), with the occurrence of co-infection between *A. fumigatus* and *A. flavus* (2%); *A. fumigatus* and *A. terreus* (2%); and between *A. fumigatus*, *A. flavus*, and *A. niger* (2%) reported a total prevalence of 58%. Further study is necessary to mitigate the crucial impact of fungal diseases in aquaculture systems, leading to effective prevention and control strategies, thus ensuring the safety and sustainability of aquaculture practices in Indonesia.

Keywords: Aspergillus sp., aquaculture, pathogenic fungi, threat, tilapia

Received: 12 September 2023 Revised: 28 December 2023 Accepted: 1 February 2024

INTRODUCTION

One of the essential nutrients that people require in large quantities is protein. The two main types of proteins consumed by humans are animal and plant proteins. One of the natural sources of animal protein Indonesians consume is fish (Yanestria et al., 2020). In 2018, Indonesians consumed 50.68 kg of fish per person per year (KKP 2019). At current prices, the Indonesian fisheries sector's gross domestic product (GDP) expanded significantly from 2010 to 2018, with growth rates as high as 13.19 percent a year. The expected value of the GDP in 2018 was US \$27.293 (BI 2019). The production cost, generally less than other protein sources, is another crucial factor. Fish demand will likely dramatically rise as people become more aware of the future health benefits of eating fish. This condition will increase the number of cultivated fish to meet production demand through aquaculture (Wibowo et al., 2021). According to the Food and Agriculture Organization of the

United Nations (FAO), aquaculture is the raising of aquatic animals and plants, including fish, mollusks, crabs, and fish. Farming typically entails some intervention to boost productivity, such as frequent stocking, feeding, and predator protection. In some areas, it also necessitates the reuse of wastewater. However, due to untreated sewage, this aquaculture-related waste-water reuse may raise questions about food safety (Fedorova *et al.*, 2022). In addition, farming entails the production and transportation of raised livestock and the planning, developing, and managing of aquaculture sites, facilities, and procedures (Palma and Viegas, 2022).

Tilapia (*Oreochromis* sp.) is a genus of fish that is primarily cultured and has an essential economic impact globally. More than 100 tilapia species have been identified (Naraballobh *et al.*, 2021). Tilapia is a vital source of protein in many developing countries. It is known that the three countries with the highest production of tilapia are China, Egypt, and Indonesia. Despite being a fish species with a relatively long lifespan, tilapia is susceptible to parasitic, viral, bacterial, and fungal infections (Al-Hussinee *et al.*, 2019). However, studies that reported fungal infection occurrence in Indonesian tilapias are limited.

Indonesia is the world's biggest archipelago, with 17,504 islands and a 99,093 km-long coastline. The country is located strategically between the Pacific and Indian Oceans (Ariansyach, 2017). Since fish is a substantial component of the typical person's diet and most of Indonesia's villages are situated along the shore, the nation's fisheries industry is essential to preserving national food security. The fishing sector in Indonesia benefits from both capture fishing and aquaculture. While capture fisheries marine and interior encompass waters. aquaculture includes marine, seaweed, floating net, brackish water pond, freshwater pond, cage, floating cage net, and pen fish (Sapari, 2019). West Java Province is one of Indonesia's provinces that has become the country's largest tilapia producer. In addition, Bogor City is one of the largest tilapia producers in the province. Information about fungal diseases in Tilapia in West Java, including Bogor City, has not been reported (Soetipto et al., 2019).

However, environmental contaminants from both natural and anthropogenic sources can harm living organisms. potentially They frequently relate to chemical, biological, and physical pollutants, and aquatic animals like fish are vulnerable to them due to bioaccumulation. Over 118 environmental contaminants related to fish have been discovered, some of which may harm human health. Humans are essential in finding and controlling environmental pollutants (Alam et al., 2016). Thus, this study aimed to investigate the presence of Aspergillus sp. found in tilapia fish sold for consumption in the Bogor District.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Ethical Approval

This study did not require ethical approval because the researchers purchased fish sold for consumption from the aquaculture farm. However, the researchers used the most appropriate method to provide the most satisfactory result while minimising the sampled fish's pain, suffering, and distress.

Study Period and Location

The sample collection was performed between September–December 2022 at Pasarean Village, Pamijahan Sub-district, Bogor District.

Samples

The samples were 50 red tilapias. A total of 50 tilapia fish were collected in the pond using a large fish net provided by the workers in the fishing village and transferred into a bucket. The fish samples will then be collected and separated into sterile plastic, with a specific label assigned to each plastic with fish for more accessible documentation. The samples were transferred to the lab using an ice box maintained at 2°C for swabbing.

Gill, Skin, and Cloacal Cavity Swab Procedure

The procedure of collecting swab samples from skin, gills, and cloaca was carried out according to Noga (2010). The gills were visually inspected before swabbing. The inspection of the gills includes the colour. Gills in good health are bright crimson. On the contrary, unhealthy can be seen as the pale pink gills indicate anaemia, and pale tan gills indicate the production of methaemoglobin (Noga, 2010; Fikri et al., 2022). A sterile cotton bud was used to collect swab samples from the gills. The operculum that covered the gills was lifted, and a sterile swab was rolled around the gills following the procedures carried out by previous studies (Clinton et al., 2021; Salawudeen et al., 2017; Touhali, 2018). Skin samples were obtained by carefully swabbing the skin of each fish where skin and fin lesions occurred and throughout the body using a sterile cotton swab (Melaku et al., 2017; Roslan et al., 2023). The swabbing direction is particularly crucial when dealing with fish that have scales (Breacker et al., 2017). The cloacal cavity was opened, and the swab was inserted into the cloacal cavity. The residual faeces can be collected with a swab from the cloaca for 5 seconds in a circular motion (Rivera et al., 2018).

Inoculating Swab Samples from Gills, Skin, and Cloaca on Potato Dextrose Agar (PDA) Plates

Each gill, skin, and cloaca swab sample was swabbed on PDA (OxoidTM CM139, Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., the United States of America) plates and incubated at 25°C for 3 to 14 days. The growing fungi were then moved to a new agar to obtain a pure fungal colony. The pure culture was repeatedly carried out until the agar was occupied by only one species of fungus (Roslan *et al.*, 2023).

It is essential to minimise contamination from other microorganisms, such as bacteria, so the petri dish lid was kept as close to the base as possible. The discontinuous streaking pattern, where the inoculation loop was sterilised at the end of each quadrant before streaking over the next quadrant, helps prevent cross-contamination between quadrants (Dahal, 2022). This method was repeated on the PDA plates for all 50 tilapia fish samples from skin, gills, and cloaca.

Macroscopic Observation of PDA Agar Plates

The inoculated samples were incubated for two weeks at 25-30°C. The procedure of incubation was not performed under an incubator. The incubation of filamentous fungi can be performed at temperatures between 25°C and 30°C, as reported by previous studies (Chauhan et al., 2014; Haroon et al., 2014; Iqbal and Khatoon, 2019). The fungal cultures' appearance, growth rate, texture and colour of the surface colonies, and the colour of the reverse side colonies were all used to identify the fungi growing on the plates (Refai et al., 2010). If more than one mould colony grew on each plate, each colony was subcultured on the new PDA plate. The subcultured isolates on the agar plates were carefully observed for another 2 weeks for the mould to grow to its complete form for further identification (Hapsari, 2014).

Microscopic Observation of PDA Agar Plates

Preliminary recognition of moulds was accomplished using wet mount preparation. A little bit of fungal growth was placed on a glass slide with a drop of distilled water; the mycelial mass was teased with two dissecting needles, covered with a clean cover slide, and inspected under the microscope (Abd El Tawab et al., 2020). Microscopic observation was carried out by observing the morphology of the hyphae, the shape of the spores, and the location of the spores (Hapsari, 2014). In this study, two types of microscopic observations were performed to identify the species of Aspergillus: direct observation and tape method observation. Direct microscopic mounts or squash preparations were carried out by removing a small portion of the colony with an inoculation needle with a sterile technique, and it was mounted in a drop of lactophenol cotton blue (LPCB) stain on a clean microscope slide and covered with a coverslip. The preparations were squashed with the butt of the inoculation needle, and the excess fluid was blotted off (Campbell et al., 2013; Kidd et al., 2022; Walsh et al., 2018). Tape or cello tape flag preparations are an excellent method for the rapid mounting of sporulating fungi because they keep more of the reproductive structures intact. The procedure used a clear, 2 cm-wide cello tape and a wooden applicator stick to make a small cello tape flag $(2 \times 2 \text{ cm})$. Using a sterile technique, the sticky side of the flag was gently pressed onto the surface of the culture. A drop of 95% alcohol was applied to the flag. The alcohol acted as a wetting agent and dissolved the adhesive glue holding the flag to the applicator stick. A small drop of LPCB was placed on the flag onto a clean glass slide, and the applicator stick was removed and discarded; another drop of LPCB stain was added, and the slide was covered with a coverslip, gently pressed, and mopped up any excess stain (Campbell et al., 2013; Kidd et al., 2022; Walsh et al., 2018). The diagnostic microscope needs to have a variety of magnifications ($40\times$, $100\times$, and 400×). A low-power $(4\times)$ objective was used to scan the sample. The iris diaphragm was cut down on light, boosting the contrast. In contrast, an adjustable condenser on the microscope can be lowered to improve contrast (Noga, 2010).

Data Collection and Analysis

The macroscopic and microscopic observations were compared to the reference

books to determine the fungi species and were written down for data collection (Campbell et al., 2013; Walsh et al., 2018; Kidd et al., 2022). Primary data for fungi identification were taken by collecting swab samples from the fish samples' gills, skin, and cloaca. A visual examination of the internal and exterior components of the diseased fish was done. Morphological and clinical characterizations were performed for isolation and identification (Noga, 2010). The primary reference source for identifying the fungal species found in tilapia was Ellis et al. (2007). The results of the isolation and identification of fungi on tilapia were presented in a table. The figures of fungal colonies on the agar plates and the observation of the fungi on the microscope were captured. The percentage of samples that tested positive for a particular fungus was determined by dividing that number by the total number of samples analysed (Al-Niaeem et al., 2015). The following equation was used to calculate the prevalence of fungus:

Prevalence (%) = $\frac{\sum \text{ infected fish} \times 100}{\sum \text{ examined fish}}$

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The Tilapia Fish Samples

The fish samples came from a farming village named Pasarean, where tilapia was one of the species bred and sold for consumption. There were multiple ponds where different man-made tilapia variants that were the products of ongoing selective breeding, mainly red tilapia, and black tilapia, were cultivated at the place of sampling. Red tilapia was chosen as the primary sample for the study because it is popular among farmers and is highly sought after in many markets. The fish samples were taken from two different ponds, labelled A and B. The total number of fish samples collected was 50, of which 24 were taken from Pond A and 26 from Pond B. The average body weight of the sampled fish in Pond A was 111.7 g, whereas for Pond B, it was 46.9 g, giving an average total weight of 79.3 g. Dead fish samples were discarded immediately and were not included in the study.

Observation of the Pathological Lesions

The tilapia samples exhibited various clinical signs upon observation in the lab, including eroded tails, fins, gills, gill marbling, bleeding, wound lesions, and more (Figure 1). However, it was observed that not all samples that displayed clinical signs in their skin, gills, and cloaca were infected with Aspergillus. It was also noted that some samples tested positive for Aspergillus infection despite showing no apparent clinical signs. Of the total, 13 samples demonstrated both clinical signs and were confirmed to be infected with Aspergillus. Clinical symptoms of fungal infection in fish can vary depending on the fungus type and the disease's severity. In this regard, the fish samples presented in Figure 1 visually represent the physical manifestations of fungal infection. The first image (a) shows mucous, marbling, slight erosion, and bleeding on the gills, common symptoms of Aspergillus infection. The second image (b) displays complete erosion on the pectoral and caudal fins, resulting from fungal or parasitic infection or physical injury. Finally, image (c) displays an apparent lesion on the chin, another possible clinical symptom of an infectious disease. Lesions were noticed on many samples, but deep wounds were not observed in any fish. These visual representations of fungal infection in fish highlight the importance of early detection and monitoring of clinical symptoms to prevent outbreaks and minimize economic and health impacts.

As mentioned in the study, the clinical symptoms observed in fish can serve as a conduit for introducing diverse pathogens, including fungal infections such as *Aspergillus*. It is important to note that these clinical symptoms, such as eroded tails and fins, wound lesions, and gill marbling, may also be caused by a fungal infection. The presence of *Aspergillus*, a common fungal pathogen, highlights the potential role of this specific pathogen in contributing to the observed clinical symptoms in this study. This study observed the link between clinical symptoms and fungal infections. The observation of clinical symptoms is crucial for the diagnosis and treatment of diseases in fish.

According to a study by Saleemi *et al.* (2020), silver carp infected with *Aspergillus* sp. exhibited comparable clinical symptoms such as scale erosions, damaged fins, and lesions. Haroon *et al.* (2014) also reported fin erosions, haemorrhages, and body surface lesions from freshwater ornamental fish infected by fungi. A study conducted by Podeti and Benarjee (2016) revealed similar symptoms observed in fish infected with fungi, such as damaged fins, erosions, and skin lesions, and identified the presence of *A. fumigatus* and *A. niger* infections in *Channa striatus* (Bloch) among other species of different genera.

Macroscopic and Microscopic Observation of Isolated Fungi

Two weeks after incubation at 25-30 °C, macroscopic and microscopic observations of the cultured fungi were carried out. Previous showed literature that macroscopic and microscopic are essential for identifying fungal species, including Aspergillus sp. The macroscopic observation was carried out by observing the colour of the colony surface, the colony colour from the reverse, the texture, and the topography. The suspected Aspergillus sp. from macroscopic observation is confirmed through further microscopic observation. In microscopic observation, the Aspergillus structures that should be observed for septate-hyphae, identification are vesicle, conidia, conidiophore, metulae, phialides, and foot cells. According to macroscopic and microscopic observations, this study reported four species of Aspergillus from tilapia, namely A. fumigatus, A. flavus, A. niger, and A. terreus. The aspergillum-like conidial bearing structure, or conidial head, primarily defines the genus' microscopic traits. The development of conidiophores with enormous stipes and inflated apices, or vesicles, distinguishes the genus Aspergillus. Vesicles are typically spherical; however, other fungal species have elongated vesicles or vesicles that are less obviously inflated. Vesicles typically bore metulae and phialides, sometimes known as crowded

phialides, simultaneously (Li Yee and Zakaria 2018).

Aspergillus niger

In this study, A. niger colonies in PDA agar were observed as black on the surface with a reverse of tan or green. The texture was observed as powdery, and the topography was observed as flat (Table 1). The analysed sample depicted in Figure 2 was identified as A. niger, one of the most widespread and easily recognisable species of Aspergillus. Macroscopic observation of the isolated sample on the PDA plate (Figures 2A and 2B) revealed a black powdery surface with tan in the centre, surrounded by a green circular colony with yellowish white in reverse. Further microscopic observation was conducted using an LPCB stain, showing the vesicle, conidia, phialides, and conidiophores (Figures 2C and 2D). The biseriate phialides radiated around the entire vesicle, and the globose conidia were abundant and blackish brown. The vesicle was globose and had a colourless to yellowish-brown hue, while the smooth conidiophores were These observations colourless. provide а comprehensive understanding of the morphological features of A. niger and further validate its identification in the analysed sample. Based on Figure 2, the identification of fungi related to the description of A. niger; therefore, A. niger was confirmed.

The characteristics of *A. niger* observed in this study agreed with those of other studies (Campbell *et al.*, 2013; Kidd *et al.*, 2022; Walsh *et al.*, 2018). Macroscopically, this study observed the dark brown to black conidial heads covered by a compact white or yellow basal felt. The conidial heads are globose, large, dark brown to black, with a diameter of 3 mm by 15 to 20 μ m. The conidiophore stipes were smooth-walled, hyaline, or turned black toward the vesicle. The phialides are carried on brown, frequently septate metulae, and are biseriate with the conidial heads. The conidia have a rough-walled, globose to subglobose shape, measuring 3.5 to 5 μ m in diameter.

Code of Comme	Succession of Function			Colony	Colony				
Code of Sample	Species of Fungi	Colour	Texture	Reverse colour	Topography				
A1K	A. flavus	Gr	V	Т	Flat				
A1K	A. fumigatus	Dg	V	Т	Rugose				
A2K	A. fumigatus	Dg	Р	Lg	Rugose				
A4Kulit	A. flavus	Gr	Р	Т	Rugose				
A5K	A. fumigatus	Dg	Р	Т	Flat				
A7K	A. niger	B1	Р	Gr	Flat				
A8I	A. fumigatus	Dg	V	Т	Rugose				
A9I	A. niger	B1	Р	Т	Flat				
A14I	A. terreus	Db	V	Т	Flat				
A15I	A. fumigatus	Gr	Р	Lg	Rugose				
A19Kulit	A. fumigatus	Dg	Vp	Т	Flat				
A22Kulit	A. fumigatus	Dg	С	Gb	Rugose				
A22Kulit	A. fumigatus	Dg	V	Gr	Flat				
B3K	A. fumigatus	Dg	V	Т	Rugose				
B5Kulit	A. flavus	Lg	Р	Т	Flat				
B6I	A. terreus	Db	V	Т	Flat				
B6Kulit	A. fumigatus	Dg	V, P	Lg	Rugose				
B7Kulit	A. fumigatus	Dg	V	T	Flat				
B8K	A. fumigatus	Dg	Р	Lg	Rugose				
B9Kulit	A. fumigatus	Dg, Wb	V	Т	Rugose				
B10Kulit	A. fumigatus	Dg	Р	Lg	Rugose				
B10Kulit	A. fumigatus	Dg	V, P	Т	Rugose				
B13I	A. fumigatus	Dg	Vp	Lg	Rugose				
B13Kulit	A. fumigatus	Dg	V	Lg	Flat				
B14K	A. fumigatus	Dg	V	Т	Rugose				
B14I	A. fumigatus	Gr	V, P	Gr	Flat				
B15K	A. fumigatus	Dg	V	Т	Flat				
B15K	A. fumigatus	Dg	V	Т	Rugose				
B16K	A. fumigatus	Dg	V	Т	Flat				
B18K	A. fumigatus	Gr	V	Lg	Flat				
B19Kulit	A. fumigatus	Dg	V, P	Lg	Rugose				
B21Kulit	A. fumigatus	Dg	V	T	Rugose				
B22K	A. fumigatus	Dg	V	Т	Flat				
B23Kulit	A. fumigatus	Dg	V	Lg	Rugose				
B24I	A. fumigatus	Dg	V	Ť	Flat				
B24Kulit	A. fumigatus	Dg	V	Lg	Flat				
B24K	A. flavus	Dyg	V	Ť	Flat				
B24K	A. niger	Black	Р	Т	Flat				
B25Kulit	A. fumigatus	Dg	V, P	Lg	Rugose				

Table 1. Macroscopic characteristics of Aspergillus isolates on tilapia

The code of sample "A" represents the source of the fish sample from pond A, and the code of sample "B" represents the source of the fish sample from pond B. The letter "K" represents cloaca; the letter "I" represents gills; and "Kulit" represents skin, wound, or fins. Colour code represents (Gr) green; (Dg) dark green; (Bl) black; (Lg) light green; (Db) dark brown; (Wb) white border; (Dyg) dark yellowish green. Texture code represents (V) velvety; (P) powdery; (Vp) velvety patches; (C) cottony. Reverse colour code represents (T) tan; (Gr) green; (Lg) light green; (Gb) greenish brown.

Species of Fungi	Code of Sample Isolate(s)	Frequency	Prevalence (%)
• A. fumigatus	A2, A5, A8, A15, A19, A22, B3, B7,	21	42
	B8, B9, B10, B13, B14, B15, B16,		
	B18, B19, B21, B22, B23, B25		
• A. flavus	A4, B5	2	4
• A. terreus	A14	1	2
■ A. niger	A7, A9	2	4
• Coinfection of <i>A. fumigatus</i> and <i>A. flavus</i>	A1	1	2
• Coinfection of <i>A. fumigatus</i> and <i>A. terreus</i>	B6	1	2
• Coinfection of <i>A. fumigatus</i> , <i>A. flavus</i> and <i>A. niger</i>	B24	1	2
Total	58	29	58

Table 2. Number of same	ples infected with single and	multiple <i>Aspergillus</i> sp.
Tuble 1 (annour of bann	pies infected with single and	manipie insper gritus spi

Table 3. Aspergillus sp. prevalence based on organ predilection

	Skin		Gills		Cloaca	
Aspergillus species	Infected	Prevalence (%)	Infected	Prevalence (%)	Infected	Prevalence (%)
A. fumigatus	12	24	5	10	8	16
A. flavus	2	4	-	-	3	9
A. terreus	-	-	2	4	-	-
A. niger	-	-	1	2	2	4
Total	14	28	8	16	13	29



Figure 1. The clinical symptoms of tilapia from Pasarean Village. Shown by green circles: (a) Marbling of gills; (b) Eroded tail and fins; (c) Wound lesion at the chin.

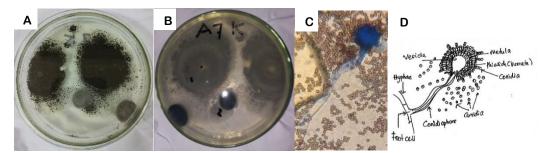


Figure 2. Macroscopic and microscopic observation of *A. niger*. (A) macroscopic morphology of *A. niger* from the surface; (B) macroscopic morphology of *A. niger* from the reverse;
(C) microscopic image of *A. niger* (magnification 400×); (D) labelled microscopic drawing of *A. niger*.

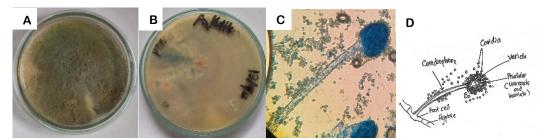


Figure 3. Macroscopic and microscopic observation of *A. flavus*. (A) Macroscopic morphology of *A. flavus* from the surface; (B) macroscopic morphology of *A. flavus* from the reverse;
(C) microscopic image of *A. flavus* (magnification 400×); (D) labelled microscopic drawing of *A. flavus*.

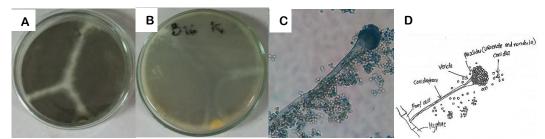


Figure 4. Macroscopic and microscopic observation of *A. fumigatus*. (A) Macroscopic morphology of *A. fumigatus* from the surface; (B) macroscopic morphology of *A. fumigatus* from the reverse; (C) microscopic image of *A. fumigatus* (magnification 400×); (D) labelled microscopic drawing of *A. fumigatus*.

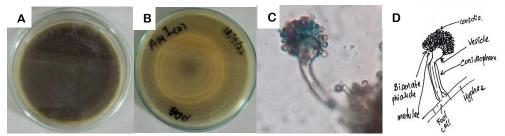


Figure 5. Macroscopic and microscopic observation of *A. terreus*. (A) Macroscopic morphology of *A. terreus* from the surface; (B) macroscopic morphology of *A. terreus* from the reverse;
(C) microscopic image of *A. terreus* (magnification 400×); (D) labelled microscopic drawing of *A. terreus*.

Aspergillus flavus

In this study, *A. flavus* colonies in the PDA agar were observed as green, light green, and dark yellowish green. The reverse colour was observed as tan, and the texture was observed as powdery or velvety. The topography was observed as flat or rugose (Table 1). The image presented in Figure 3 was identified as *A. flavus*, another widely spread species of *Aspergillus*. Upon macroscopic observation of the isolated sample on the PDA plate (Figures 3A and 3B), it was found to have a velvety light greenish-yellow surface with a deep greenish-yellow to tan-like

reverse colour. Further microscopic observation was conducted using an LPCB stain, showing the globose-shaped vesicle (Okayo *et al.*, 2020). The conidia were smooth, globose, and slightly tan to colourless and were observed in abundance. The phialides were observed to be uniseriate and biseriate. The conidial heads are mostly biseriate and radiate (Figures 3C and 3D). Based on the features observed, the fungus is identified as *A. flavus*.

The *A. flavus* colonies observed in this study appeared to have a granular and flat appearance and frequently displayed radial grooves. The colony's visual characteristics were similar to previous studies (Arafat et al., 2022; Kidd et al., 2022). The colour of the colonies was observed as dark green from the surface and tan from the back. The conidial heads are mostly biseriate and radiate, forming loose columns of around 300-400 µm in diameter. Conidiophores are hyaline and coarsely roughened, and the conidiospores are noticeably echinulate, globose to sub-globose, and measure between 3-6 µm in diameter. The distinctive features of A. flavus include expanding vellow-green colonies, rough-walled stipes, mature vesicles carrying phialides (uniseriate and biseriate) on every surface, and noticeably echinulate conidia (Arafat et al., 2022; Kidd et al., 2022).

Aspergillus fumigatus

This study observed A. fumigatus colonies in PDA agar as green, dark green, or dark green with a white margin. The reverse colours were tan, light green, greenish-brown, or green. The texture was observed as velvety, powdery, velvety patches, cottony, or a mix of velvety and powdery. The topography was observed to be rugose or flat (Table 1). The image presented in Figure 4 was identified as A. fumigatus. The macroscopic observation of the isolated sample on the PDA plate showed a green powdery surface with a white to yellow, more to a tan-like reverse colour, a typical characteristic of A. fumigatus (Figures 4A and 4B). Under microscopic observation using LPCB stain, the uniseriate phialides were observed along the top of the flask-shaped vesicle, an essential characteristic for identifying A. fumigatus. The conidial heads were observed to be dark green. The conidia are bluish-green and globose in shape, and the conidiophores are smooth-walled (Figures 4C and 4D). These distinct features match the description of A. fumigatus. Colonies of A. fumigatus typically display a distinctive bluegreen surface.

The morphological description of the *A*. *fumigatus* colonies on PDA resembled the findings from a study by González-Ramírez *et al*. (2016). According to González-Ramírez *et al*. (2016) study, the colony structure of *A*. *fumigatus*

exhibited velvety characteristics with a flat surface. Furthermore, the surface of the colonies appeared greenish-grey, while the reverse side showed a similar coloration. This study also highlighted the consistency in the visual appearance of the colonies on PDA. The texture of the colonies was suede-like and made of a dense felt of conidiophores. The colour of A. fumigatus colonies on the surface was dark green, while the reverse showed a tan colour. Conidial heads are columnar and uniseriate, measuring up to 400 \times 50 µm but frequently considerably shorter and smaller. Short, smooth-walled conidiophore stipes feature conical terminal vesicles that sustain a single row of phialides on the upper two-thirds of the vesicle. Conidia are generated in long chains in a basipetal succession and range in size from globose to subglobose $(2.5-3.0 \ \mu m \text{ in diameter})$, are green, and have a rough or echinulate wall. Truly a universal mould, A. fumigatus has been discovered everywhere and on every imaginable kind of substrate. It is a significant human and animal pathogen. Uniseriate and columnar conidial heads are the crucial characteristics for identification, along with phialides confined to the top two-thirds of the vesicle and curved to be parallel. Based on Figure 4, the identification of fungi related to the description of A. fumigatus; therefore, A. fumigatus was confirmed (Kidd et al., 2022).

Aspergillus terreus

In the current study, the A. terreus colonies in the PDA agar were observed as dark brown with a reverse colour of tan. The texture was observed as velvety, and the topography was observed as flat (Table 1). The image presented in Figure 5 was identified as A. terreus. Macroscopic observation of the isolated sample on the PDA plate (Figures 5A and 5B) revealed a cinnamonbrown surface with a white to tan-like reverse colour. Further microscopic observation was conducted using LPCB stain, showing the vesicle, conidia, phialides, and conidiophores. The conidial heads were observed to be compact and biseriate. The conidiophores were smooth and colourless. The vesicles appear to be hemispherical, with the upper half to two-thirds

covered by phialides (sterigmata), and the phialides are seen to be in two series, giving a crowded appearance. The conidia appear to be smooth, small, and globose to slightly elliptical in appearance. They have a compact cinnamon to orange-brown shade (Figures 5C and 5D).

Typical colonies of *A. terreus* are suede-like, cinnamon-buff to sand brown in colour, with a yellow to deep dirty brown reverse. Conidial heads are small, columnar, biseriate, and can measure up to $500 \times 30{-}50 \mu m$ in diameter. Hyaline stipes on conidiophores have smooth walls. Conidia are smooth-walled, hyaline to slightly yellow, and globose to ellipsoidal (1.5– 2.5 µm in diameter) (Kidd *et al.*, 2022). Observing cinnamon-brown cultures and conidial heads biseriate with metulae of the phialides are some crucial characteristics in identification. Based on Figure 5, the identification of fungi related to the description of *A. terreus*; therefore, *A. terreus* was confirmed.

Prevalence of Aspergillus

The overall prevalence of aspergillosis among the 50 sampled tilapias in this study is 58% (29/50). However, a study by Al-Niaeem et al. (2015) reported a lower prevalence of Aspergillus sp. (49%) in tilapia compared to the present study. This study reported both single and co-infections of Aspergillus. A. fumigatus had the highest prevalence of 42% (21/50), whereas A. flavus had a prevalence of 4% (2/50), A. terreus had a prevalence of 2% (1/50), and A. niger had a prevalence of 4% (2/50), as recorded. Coinfection of A. fumigatus and A. flavus was observed to have a prevalence of 2% (1/50), coinfection of A. fumigatus and A. terreus was observed to have a prevalence of 2% (1/50), and co-infection of A. fumigatus, A. flavus, and A. *niger* was reported with a prevalence of 2% (1/50) (Table 2).

The results of this study, as shown in Table 3, indicate the distribution of *Aspergillus* sp. in various organs, namely the skin, gills, and cloaca. It was found that *Aspergillus* sp. was more commonly present on the skin compared to the gills and cloaca. *A. fumigatus* was isolated from all three locations, namely the skin, gills, and

cloaca, with the highest occurrence observed on the skin. A. flavus, on the other hand, was only found on the skin and cloaca, with the highest occurrence noted on the cloaca. A. terreus, however, was exclusively isolated from the gills. Additionally, A. niger was found in both the gills and cloaca, with a higher number observed in the cloaca. A. fumigatus can be detected in different organs of each fish. For instance, in samples B13 and B24, A. fumigatus was isolated from skin and gill samples. In addition, A. fumigatus can be detected in gills and cloaca samples from sample B14.

A significant portion, precisely 24%, of *A*. *fumigatus* was prevalent on the skin in this study, while the gills exhibited a prevalence rate of 10%. On the other hand, the cloaca demonstrated a prevalence rate of 16% for *A. fumigatus*. In contrast, *A. flavus* displayed a lower prevalence rate of 4% on the skin, with no prevalence observed on the gills but a 9% prevalence rate on the cloaca. *A. terreus*, however, exhibited a fungal prevalence of 4% exclusively on the gills, with no presence on the skin or cloaca. As for *A. niger*, a prevalence rate of 2% was detected on the gills, whereas a 4% prevalence rate was identified on the cloaca, but no presence was noted on the skin (Table 3).

The prevalence of A. fumigatus infection in this study was higher (9.1%) compared to the prevalence of A. fumigatus infection in tilapia (Younis et al., 2019). However, in the same study, A. niger (27.3%) and A. flavus (18.2%) were reported to be higher than in this study. In the study conducted by Saleemi et al. (2020), several species of Aspergillus were observed in carp, including A. terreus (8.40%), A. flavus (17.06%), A. fumigatus (24.02%), and A. niger (50.52%). The previous study revealed that the carp's fins exhibited the highest infection rate at 39.10%. Conversely, the intestine showed the lowest infection rate, with only 6.59% affected. The prevalence of A. fumigatus in this study was higher (42%), compared to the study by Saleemi et al. (2020) (24.02%), while the prevalence of A. niger was lower (4%) compared to their study (50.52%). Saleemi et al. (2020) reported a higher incidence of Aspergillus infection in fins (39.1%), skin (16.38%), and gills (12.7%) than other organs, i.e., the intestine (6.59%), heart (8.65%), liver (8%), and kidney (8.54%). Similarly, the current study observed that *Aspergillus* sp. had a higher prevalence in the skin and gills. These findings suggest potential variations in the distribution and manifestation of *Aspergillus* infections among different fish species, emphasizing the importance of considering the specific host and anatomical factors when studying fungal infections in aquatic organisms.

According to Lesmana et al. (2021), their study isolated and identified A. flavus and A. niger as the only types of Aspergillus sp. among various other fungal genera in tilapia and catfish. In contrast to their findings, the current study identified four different species of Aspergillus, indicating a greater diversity within this group of tilapias. This discrepancy in the number of detected highlights the species potential variations in fungal composition. It emphasizes the need for further exploration and comprehensive studies to fully understand the range of Aspergillus species in different environments.

Co-infections refer to infections caused by two or more genetically distinct pathogens, where each pathogen individually poses a risk to the host's health and their presence together exacerbates the harm caused (Kotob et al., 2016). However, a limited study has been published on co-infection between two fungal species in a sample. Mycosis in fish is opportunistic and might have a relationship with secondary invaders alongside other infectious pathogens (bacteria, viruses, or parasites) or environmental changes that cause fish stress (Abdel-Latif et al., 2020). However, some fungi can induce infection as the primary agent in some instances (Chauhan et al., 2014; Salter et al., 2012; Yanong, 2003). Nonetheless, there have been reports of coinfection between fungi and bacteria (Cutuli et al., 2015; Eissa et al., 2013; Oda et al., 2016). A study reported co-infection of previous hydrophila Saprolegnia Aeromonas and parasitica in sea bass with 18% mortality (Dinctürk et al., 2018).

Younis et al. (2019) conducted a study and found slightly similar results, whereby the skin had a significantly high occurrence of A. niger (50%), A. flavus (50%), and A. fumigatus (50%). Similarly, the gills had a prevalence of A. niger (27.8%), A. flavus (25%), and A. fumigatus (33.3%). The detection of fungal agents in fish intended for consumption in this study raises the possibility that mycosis is a severe illness. The pathological lesions and disease conditions observed in the fish may have been caused by the fungi discovered in this study, or they may have developed because of a bacterial or viral infection. Fungal diseases are a primary concern in aquaculture and have been linked to significant economic losses and potential health risks for consumers of contaminated seafood. Therefore, the findings from this study provide essential information that can contribute to the early detection and prevention of fungal outbreaks in fish farms. The fungal isolates in this study from the genus Aspergillus sp. are A. fumigatus, A. flavus, A. niger, and A. terreus. The fungi Aspergillus sp. were the predominant isolates from this observation, and their isolation is noteworthy because Aspergillus sp. have been linked to disease outbreaks in fish culture (Salawudeen et al., 2017). However, the presence of Aspergillus in fish can originate from several factors, such as contaminated feed (Marijani et al., 2019), contaminated water (Iqbal and Saleemi, 2013; Obire and Vincent, 2017), and environments such as diseased fish and fish carcasses (Patel et al., 2018; Safira et al., 2023). Using contaminated feed could be the source of fungal infection in aquaculture fish.

Feed contamination by fungi differs in a variety of geographic regions, temperature, sanitary conditions, and moisture (Mohamed *et al.*, 2017; Fikri *et al.*, 2023). If fish ingest this contaminated feed, it can have severe negative consequences, resulting in mass mortality (Mohamed *et al.*, 2017). The factors enhancing the fungal infection hazard through feed comprise a humidity level greater than 62%, an environmental temperature of 27° C, and a moisture level in the feed greater than 14%. Fungal concentrations in feed rise during feed

storage at higher humidity levels (Iqbal and Sajjad 2013). Iqbal and Saleemi (2013) isolated Aspergillus sp. from pond water, which showed contamination of these fungal species. Free-living fungal species collected from fish farm water, such as A. fumigatus, are the most common fungal species that cause diseases in humans with an immunity deficiency (Sousa Terada-Nascimento et al., 2023). A previous study reported that Aspergillus is the main fungal species isolated from pond waters. The entrance of these fungi from the environment to the pond waters has been reported through dead plants, which are thought to endure for a long time (Obire and Vincent 2017). Inappropriate pond management, a considerable amount of decomposing organic matter, sick or injured fish, and other stressful conditions are all possible sources of fungi in the study sites (Patel et al., 2018). Another study reported the possibility of introducing fungal agents from the poultry units to the ponds by the attendants because all the farms practiced mixed farming. So, it is easy for these isolates to be spread either by the attendants or by the wind dispersing the spores. The isolation of some of these isolates from fish in this study might make their consumption hazardous to human health (Salawudeen et al., 2017).

The primary causes of infection consist of fungal spores transported in the water and waste found on the bottoms of ponds. The affected fish may appear dull and exhibit behaviours such as gasping for air at the water's surface, also known as piping. As the tissue deteriorates and disintegrates, the spores are released into the water and spread to other fish (Patel et al., 2018). The challenging environmental conditions in fish farms during fish rearing can significantly stress the fish, making them more vulnerable to various pathogens such as parasites, bacteria, fungi, and viruses. When the fish's skin loses its protective mucus layer or lacks mucous, it becomes exposed, allowing fungal spores to develop and further increasing its susceptibility to fungal attacks. The injuries in fish are typically caused by factors like high stocking density, inadequate water quality, excessive organic manure, and other environmental elements (Iqbal et al., 2014). In the

case of gill infections caused by *Aspergillus*, it can damage the fish's secondary lamellae, potentially leading to respiratory difficulties for the fish (Saleemi *et al.*, 2020). When the gill tissue of fish becomes infected, it displays a striped or marbled pattern with pale areas, indicating the presence of infected and dying tissue (Patel *et al.*, 2018).

This study documented the presence of Aspergillus in three distinct organs i.e., gills, skin, and cloaca. The results agreed with previous studies that reported fungal infection in these organs (Abd El Tawab et al. 2020). In addition, other studies have reported Aspergillus infection in other organs, such as the liver and kidneys (Abd El Tawab et al. 2020). Abd El Tawab et al.'s (2020) isolated A. flavus and A. niger from the Aspergillosis, sometimes samples. called aspergillomycosis, is a fungal disease caused by Aspergillus sp. that has the potential to impact humans (Elad and Segal, 2018) and a diverse range of terrestrial (Seyedmousavi et al., 2015) and aquatic animal species (Chauhan et al., 2014; Iqbal and Saleemi, 2013; Safira et al., 2022). The terrestrial animals reported to be infected by Aspergillus include cats, dogs, birds, horses, cattle, and non-human primates (Seyedmousavi et al., 2015). In addition, aquatic animals reported to be contracted with aspergillosis include marine mammals and fish (Seyedmousavi et al., 2015). Respiratory complications are common in humans, particularly those with compromised immune systems or pre-existing lung conditions. The specific manifestations of aspergillosis in animals can vary depending on the species, but it poses a significant health risk. A study by Sudipa et al. (2023) reported A. fumigatus and A. niger from 15 samples of free-roaming dogs in Bali, with a prevalence of 53.33% infection. This condition is because Aspergillus is found in the environment.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this study revealed a significant presence of *Aspergillus* sp. infections among tilapia in Pasarean Village, highlighting the detrimental impact of fungal pathogens on

aquaculture. Aspergillosis, a systemic fungal infection caused by Aspergillus sp., poses a significant threat to the widely cultured tilapia species in the region. The high prevalence (58%) of Aspergillus sp. infection among the sampled tilapia population was reported. Among the 50 tilapia samples evaluated, 29 were detected with Aspergillus sp. infections, with A. fumigatus being the most prevalent species (42%) of the infected samples. Other identified species included A. flavus (4%), A. niger (4%), and A. terreus (2%), with the occurrence of co-infection between A. fumigatus and A. flavus (2%), A. fumigatus and A. terreus (2%), and between A. fumigatus, A. flavus and A. niger (2%). Notably, A. fumigatus displayed the highest prevalence, while A. terreus exhibited the lowest prevalence among the suspected Aspergillus sp. infections. Furthermore, the study found that Aspergillus sp. was more commonly present on the tilapia's skin compared to the gills and cloaca. These findings emphasized the effectiveness of disease management strategies to mitigate the impact of Aspergillus sp. infections and safeguard the sustainability of tilapia aquaculture in Pasarean Village and similar regions.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors thanked the Laboratory of Mycology and the Division of Medical Microbiology of the School of Veterinary Medicine and Biomedical Sciences for the permits, facilities, and support given to researchers to carry out this study. The authors thanked Mr. Ismet for his assistance with media preparation. The authors thanked the Directorate of Research and Innovation of IPB University for the support of the study through the Young Lecturer Scheme 2022 to NGB.

AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

NGB: Conceptualized and designed the study. NGB and BJW: Validation, supervision, and formal analysis. KA and NGB: Performed sample collection. KA: Performed sample evaluation under the supervision of NGB. KA and NGB: Performed the statistical analysis and the preparation of tables and figures. KA: Drafted the manuscript. All authors have read, reviewed, and approved the final manuscript.

COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

REFERENCES

- Abd El Tawab, A. A., Elhofy, F., Moustafa, E. M., & Halawa, M. R. (2020). Isolation and molecular identification of *Aspergillus* species from cultured Nile tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*). *Benha Veterinary Medical Journal*, 38(2), 136–140.
- Abdel-Latif, H. M. R., Dawood, M. A. O., Menanteau-Ledouble, S., & El-Matbouli, M. (2020). The nature and consequences of coinfections in tilapia: A review. *Journal of Fish Diseases*, 43(6), 651–664.
- Alam, L., Ahmed, M., Zolkaply, S., & Mokhtar, M. (2016). *Tilapia and Trout: Harvesting, Prevalence and Benefits*. New York (NY): Nova Science Publishers Inc.
- Al-Hussinee, L., Subramaniam, K., Surachetpong, W., Popov, V., Hartman, K., Starzel, K., Yanong, R., Watson, C., Ferguson, H., Frasca Jr, S., & Waltzek, T. (2019). Tilapia lake virus (TiLV): A globally emerging threat to tilapia aquaculture. *Electronic Document Information System*, 1–7.
- Al-Niaeem, K. S., Ameen, F., Hatamleh, A., & Bakri, M. (2015). Isolation and identification of pathogenic fungi on *Oreochromis aureus* (Steindachner, 1864) in the University of Basrah fish ponds. *Indian Journal of Geo-Marine Sciences*, 44(8), 1213–1216.
- Arafat, M., Islam, M., Ahamed, S., Mahmud, M., Rahman, M., & Nazir, K. (2022). Molecular

detection of *Aspergilli* from commercial chicken in selected areas of Bangladesh. *Journal of Advanced Veterinary and Animal Research*, 9(2), 184–190.

- Ariansyach, I. (2017). Fisheries country profile: Indonesia. Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center. http://www.seafdec.org/fisheries-countryprofile-indonesia/ (Accessed online on April 30, 2023).
- Bank Indonesia (BI). (2019). Kurs tengah USD IDR. https://www.bi.go.id/id/moneter/informasikurs/transaksi-bi/Default.aspx. (Accessed online on April 30, 2023).
- Breacker, C., Barber, I., Norton, W. H. J., McDearmid, J. R., & Tilley, C. A. (2017). A low-cost method of skin swabbing for the collection of DNA samples from small laboratory fish. *Zebrafish*, 14(1), 35–41.
- Campbell, C. K., Johnson, E. M., & Warnock, D.W. (2013). *Identification of Pathogenic Fungi* (2nd ed). Wiley-Blackwell.
- Chauhan, R., Lone, S., & Beigh, A. H. (2014). Pathogenicity of three species of Aspergillus (A. fumigatus, A. niger, and A. sydowii) on some fresh water fishes. Life Sciences Leaflets, 48, 65–72.
- Clinton, M., Wyness, A. J., Martin, S. A. M., Brierley, A. S., & Ferrier, D. E. K. (2021). Sampling the fish gill microbiome: A comparison of tissue biopsies and swabs. *BMC Microbiology*, 21(1), 313.
- Cutuli, M. T., Gibello, A., Rodriguez-Bertos, A., Blanco, M. M., Villarroel, M., Giraldo, A., & Guarro, J. (2015). Skin and subcutaneous mycoses in tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*) caused by *Fusarium oxysporum* in coinfection with *Aeromonas hydrophila*. *Medical Mycology Case Reports*, 9, 7–11.

- Dahal, P. (2022, August 28). Streak plate method-Principle, types, methods, uses. Microbe Notes. https://microbenotes.com/streakplate-method-principle-methodssignificance-limitations/ (Accessed online on April 30, 2023).
- Dinçtürk, E., Tanrikul, T. T., & Türk Çulha, S. (2018). Fungal and bacterial co-infection of sea bass (*Dicentrarchus labrax*, Linnaeus 1758) in a recirculating aquaculture system: Saprolegnia parasitica and Aeromonas hydrophila. Aquatic Sciences and Engineering, 33(3), 67–71.
- Eissa, A. E., Tharwat, N. A., & Zaki, M. M. (2013). Field assessment of the mid winter mass kills of trophic fishes at Mariotteya stream, Egypt: chemical and biological pollution synergistic model. *Chemosphere*, 90(3), 1061–1068.
- Elad, D., & Segal, E. (2018). Diagnostic aspects of veterinary and human aspergillosis. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, 9(2018), 1303.
- Ellis, D., Davis, S., Alexiou, H., Handke, R., & Bartley, R. (2007). *Mycology unit: Descriptions of Medical Fungi* (2nd ed.). North Adelaide (NA): The Authors.
- Fedorova, G., Grabic, R., Grabicová, K., Turek,
 J., Van Nguyen, T., Randak, T., Brooks, B.
 W., & Zlabek, V. (2022). Water reuse for aquaculture: Comparative removal efficacy and aquatic hazard reduction of pharmaceuticals by a pond treatment system during a one year study. *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, 421(2022), 126712.
- Fikri, F., Wardhana, D. K., Purnomo, A., Khairani, S., Chhetri, S., & Purnama, M. T.
 E. (2022). Aerolysin gene characterization and antimicrobial resistance profile of *Aeromonas hydrophila* isolated from milkfish (*Chanos chanos*) in Gresik, Indonesia. *Veterinary World*, 15(7), 1759.

- Fikri, F., Purnomo, A., Chhetri, S., & Purnama, M. T. E. (2023). Sea cucumber-based hydroxyapatite-chitosan ameliorates serum liver enzymes and cytokine levels in albino rats with femoral bone defect. *Indian Veterinary Journal*, 100(7), 23–26.
- González-Ramírez, A.I., Ramírez-Granillo, A., Medina-Canales, M.G., Rodríguez-Tovar, A.A., & Martínez-Rivera, M.A. (2016).
 Analysis and description of the stages of *Aspergillus fumigatus* biofilm formation using scanning electron microscopy. *BMC Microbiology*, 16(2016), 243.
- Hapsari, A. (2014). Isolation and identification of fungi in chef carp (*Carassius auratus*) at the Gunung Sari ornamental fish exchange in Surabaya, East Java. [Undergraduate Thesis]. Faculty of Fisheries and Marine Sciences, Universitas Airlangga.
- Haroon, F., Iqbal, Z., Pervaiz, K., & Khalid, A. N. (2014). Incidence of fungal infection of freshwater ornamental fish in Pakistan. *International Journal on Agriculture Biology*, 16(2), 411–415.
- Iqbal, Z., & Khatoon, Z. (2019). Fungal infection in commercially important fishes of Balloki Headworks, River Ravi, Punjab, Pakistan. *International Journal of Biology Research*, 7(1), 47–55.
- Iqbal, Z., Najam, U., & Saleemi, S. (2014).
 Fungal infection in silver carp, *Hypophthalmichthys molitrix* (Valenceinnes) reared in earthen pond. *Science International* (Lahore), 26(1), 261– 266.
- Iqbal, Z., & Sajjad, R. (2013). Some pathogenic fungi parasitizing two exotic tropical ornamental fishes. *International Journal of Agriculture and Biology*, 15(3), 595–598.
- Iqbal, Z., & Saleemi, S. (2013). Isolation of pathogenic fungi from a freshwater

commercial fish, *Catla catla* (Hamliton). *Science International* (Lahore), 25(4), 851– 855.

- Kementerian Kelautan dan Perikanan (KKP) Republik Indonesia. (2019). Kementerian Kelautan dan Perikanan Indonesia–Publikasi Materi. Capaian Kinerja KKP Tahun 2014– 2018. https://kkp.go.id/artikel/8941capaian-kinerja-kkp-tahun-2014-2018. (Accessed online on April 30, 2023).
- Kidd, S., Halliday, C., & Ellis, D. (2022). Descriptions of Medical Fungi (2016th ed.). North Adelaide (NA): The Authors.
- Kotob, M. H., Menanteau-Ledouble, S., Kumar,G., Abdelzaher, M., & El-Matbouli, M.(2016). The impact of co-infections on fish:A review. *Veterinary Research*, 47(1), 98.
- Lesmana, I., Yusnita, N. A., & Hendrizal, A. (2021). Isolasi dan identifikasi jamur penyebab penyakit pada benih ikan nila (*Oreochromis niloticus*) dan ikan lele (*Clarias gariepinus*). *Berkala Perikanan Terubuk*, 49(1), 767–774.
- Li Yee, T., & Zakaria, L. (2018). Microscopic characteristics as preliminary identification of Aspergillus spp. from beach sand. Malaysian Journal of Microscopy, 14, 28– 37.
- Marijani, E., Kigadye, E., & Okoth, S. (2019). Occurrence of fungi and mycotoxins in fish feeds and their impact on fish health. *International Journal of Microbiology*, 2019, 1–17.
- Maurya, S. P., Prakash, P. Y., & Bairy, I. (2011).
 A simplified touch tape preparation from tube cultures for microscopic examination of filamentous fungi. *Journal of Microbiological Methods*, 86(1), 128–129.
- Melaku, H., Lakew, M., Alemayehu, E., Wubie, A., & Chane, M. (2017). Isolation and

identification of pathogenic fungus from African catfish (*Clarias gariepinus*) eggs and adults in National Fishery and Aquatic Life Research Center Hatchery, Ethiopia. *Fisheries and Aquaculture Journal*, 08(03), 1000213.

- Mohamed, H. M. A., Emeish, W. F. A., Braeuning, A., & Hammad, S. (2017).
 Detection of aflatoxin-producing fungi isolated from Nile tilapia and fish feed. *Experimental and Clinical Sciences (EXCLI) Journal*, 16, 1308–1318.
- Naraballobh, W., Pothakam, N., Norseeda, W., Sommit, N., Teltathum, T., Van Doan, H., Sringarm, K., Khamlor, T., & Mekchay, S. (2021). Association of genetic markers with sex determination in Thai red tilapia. *Veterinary Integrative Sciences*, 20(1), 73– 83.
- Noga, E. (2010). *Fish Disease: Diagnosis and Treatment* (2nd ed.). North Carolina (NC): Blackwell Publishing.
- Obire, O., & Vincent, O. (2017). Microbiological quality of fish pond water. *Current Studies in Comparative Education, Science and Technology*, 4(2), 279–288.
- Oda, S. S., Tohamy, H. G., & Massoud, R. G. (2016). Pathological alterations in Nile tilapia experimentally infected with *Streptococcus iniae* and *Candida albicans*. *Turkish Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences*, 16(4), 779–788.
- Okayo, R. O., Andika, D. O., Dida, M. M., K'Otuto, G. O., & Gichimu, B. M. (2020).
 Morphological and molecular characterization of toxigenic Aspergillus flavus from groundnut kernels in Kenya. International Journal of Microbiology, 2020, 1–10.
- Palma, M., & Viegas, I. (2022). Aquaculture: Farming Our Food in Water (W. Leal Filho,

A. M. Azul, L. Brandli, A. Lange Salvia, T. Wall, Eds.; pp. 44–52). Cham (CH): Springer International Publishing.

- Patel, A., Patel, S., Bariya, A., Pata, B., & Ghodasara, S. (2018). Fungal diseases of fish: A review. Open Access Journal of Veterinary Science Research, 3(3), 1–5.
- Podeti, K. R., & Benarjee, G. (2016). Studies on histological and histopathological mycosis variations of *Channa striatus* (Bloch) found that infected with *Aspergillus fumigatus* and *Aspergillus niger* caused EUS characteristics. *International Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences and Research*, 7(2), 660–665.
- Refai, M. K., Laila, A. M., Kenawy Amany, M., & Shimaa, E.S. (2010). The assessment of mycotic settlement of freshwater fishes in Egypt. *Journal of American Science*, 6(11), 595–602.
- Rivera, S. A., Torres, I., Metzger, G., Gonzalez,
 M., Marizzi, C., & Elefante, D. (2018).
 Cloacal vs. Jaw swabs: A novel technique to genetically determine diet of sharks. *Marine Biology Research Program*. https://harborseals.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/11/180606_seth_river a_isabella_torres_shark_diet.pdf
- Roslan, M. N. A. M., Arabi, N. A. A., Alwi, M. H. K. M., Musa, N., & Iberahim, N. A. (2023). Isolation and characterization of fungi associated with body and egg from diseased African catfish, *Clarias gariepinus*. *Universiti Malaysia Terengganu Journal of Undergraduate Research*, 5(3), 27–35.
- Safira, A., Rani, C. A. M., Puspitasari, R. A., Ayuningtyas, A. K. P., Mahendra, Y. A., Purnomo, A., Fikri, F., Chhetri, S., & Purnama, M. T. E. (2022). Amino Acid and Proximate Analysis of Type-1 Collagen from Sea Cucumber and Tilapia-Skin and its

Potential Application as Artificial Tendon. *Pharmacognosy Journal*, 14(4).

- Safira, A., Rani, C. A. M., Fikri, F., Purnomo, A., Khairani, S., Chhetri, S., Maslamama, S. T., & Purnama, M. T. E. (2023). Hydroxyapatite-chitosan composites derived from sea cucumbers and shrimp shells ameliorate femoral bone defects in an albino rat model. *Veterinary World*, 16(5).
- Salawudeen, M. T., Kazeem, H. M., Raji, M. A., Oniye, S. J., Kwanashie, C. N., & Ibrahim, M. J. (2017). Isolation and identification of fungi from apparently healthy and diseased *Clarias gariepinus* from freshwater in Zaria, Kaduna State, Nigeria. *Microbiology Research International*, 5(1), 8–15.
- Saleemi, S., Iqbal, Z., & Khalid, A. N. (2020). Morphological and pathological effects of aspergillosis in silver carp, *Hypophthalmichthys molitrix. Punjab University Journal of Zoology*, 35(1), 129– 133.
- Salter, C., O'Donnell, K., Sutton, D., Marancik, D., Knowles, S., Clauss, T., Berliner, A., & Camus, A. (2012). Dermatitis and systemic mycosis in lined seahorses *Hippocampus erectus* associated with a marine-adapted *Fusarium solani* species complex pathogen. *Diseases of Aquatic Organisms*, 101(1), 23– 31.
- Sapari, A. (2019). Country fisheries trade: Indonesia. Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center. http://www.seafdec.org/country-tradeindonesia/ (Accessed online on 30 April 2023).
- Seyedmousavi, S., Guillot, J., Arné, P., De Hoog,
 G. S., Mouton, J. W., Melchers, W. J. G., &
 Verweij, P. E. (2015). Aspergillus and
 aspergilloses in wild and domestic animals:
 A global health concern with parallels to

human disease. *Medical Mycology*, 53(8), 765–797.

- Soetipto, Ir. W., Andriansyah, R., A'yun, R. A.
 Q., Setiadi, T., Susanto, H., Solah, A., Hasan,
 U., Khaerawati, U., Aryshandy, C.,
 Moriansyah, L., Purnama, N. D., Wahyuni,
 S., Horida, E., & Kurnia, I. (2019). *Peluang*usaha dan investasi Nila. Kementerian
 Kelautan dan Perikanan (KKP).
- Sousa Terada-Nascimento, J., Vieira Dantas-Filho, J., Temponi-Santos, B. L., Perez-Pedroti, V., De Lima Pinheiro, M. M., García-Nuñez, R. Y., Mansur Muniz, I., Bezerra De Mira, Á., Guedes, E. A. C., & De Vargas Schons, S. (2023). Monitoring of mycotoxigenic fungi in fish farm water and fumonisins in feeds for farmed *Colossoma macropomum. Toxics*, 11(9), 762.
- Sudipa, P. H., Puja, I. K., Dharmayuda, A. A. G.
 O., Gunawan, I. W. N. F., Sudimartini, L.
 M., Jayanti, P. D., Sukernayasa, I. W., &
 Mufa, R. M. D. (2023). Identification and prevalence of *Aspergillus* sp isolated from bali dog's skin. *Jurnal Riset Veteriner Indonesia (Journal of The Indonesian Veterinary Research)*, 7(1), 47–53.
- Touhali, I. S. (2018). Isolation and identification of *Saprolegnia parasitica* and other fungi from farms fishes in the Province of Wasit, Iraq. *Journal of Global Pharma Technology*, 10(5), 135–142.
- Walsh, T. J., Hayden, R. T., & Larone, D. H. (2018). Larone's Medically Important Fungi: A Guide to Identification. ASM Press.
- Wibowo, T. A., Untari, D. S., & Anwar, R. (2021). Tingkat penerimaan masyarakat terhadap ikan nila (*Oreochromis niloticus*) segar dengan habitat yang berbeda. *Samakia: Jurnal Ilmu Perikanan*, 12(1), 72–79.

- Yanestria, S. M., Rahayu, A., Uru, B., & Chandra, A. (2020). Ekstrak daun salam (*Eugenia* polyantha, Weight.) sebagai pengawet alami pada ikan bandeng (*Chanos chanos*). Samakia: Jurnal Ilmu Perikanan, 11(2), 127–134.
- Yanong, R. P. E. (2003). Fungal diseases of fish. Veterinary Clinics of North America: Exotic Animal Practice, 6(2), 377–400.
- Younis, G. A., Esawy, A. E. K. M., Elkenany, R. M., & Deen, M. M. S. E. (2019). Conventional identification of pathogenic fungi isolated from fresh water aquarium fish (*O. niloticus* and *C. gariepinus*) combined with molecular identification of Saprolegnia parasitica in Egypt. Advances in Animal and Veterinary Sciences, 8(1), 77–88.

