

# Genetic diversity of aflatoxin-producing *Aspergillus flavus* isolated from groundnuts in selected agro-ecological zones of Uganda

**Amos Acur**

National Agricultural Research Laboratories, Kawanda <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4279-6791>

**Renée S. Arias**

USDA-ARS National Peanut Research Laboratory

**Steven Odongo**

Makerere University

**Samuel Tuhaise**

National Agricultural Research Laboratories, Kawanda

**Joseph Ssekandi**

National Agricultural Research Laboratories, Kawanda

**Dennis Muhanguzi**

Makerere University

**John Adriko**

National Agricultural Research Laboratories, Kawanda

**Stephen Buah** (✉ [buahs@yahoo.com](mailto:buahs@yahoo.com))

**Andrew Kiggundu**

National Agricultural Research Laboratories, kawanda

---

## Research article

**Keywords:** Mycotoxins, secondary metabolites, *Aspergillus* species and agro-ecological zone.

**Posted Date:** August 21st, 2019

**DOI:** <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.2.13266/v1>

**License:**   This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License. [Read Full License](#)

---

# Abstract

**Background** *Aspergillus* is the main fungal genus causing pre- and post-harvest contamination of groundnuts. *Aspergillus flavus* belongs to section Flavi, a group consisting of both the aflatoxigenic species (*A. flavus*, *A. parasiticus* and *A. nomius*) and non-aflatoxigenic species (*A. oryzae*, *A. sojae* and *A. tamarii*). Aflatoxins are food-borne toxic secondary metabolites produced by *Aspergillus* species, causing hepatic carcinoma and stunting in children and are the most toxic carcinogenic mycotoxins ever identified. Despite the well-known public health problems associated with aflatoxicosis in Uganda, information about the genetic diversity of the main aflatoxin causing fungus, *Aspergillus flavus* in this country is still limited.

**Results** A cross-sectional survey was therefore carried out in three main groundnut-growing agro-ecological zones (AEZs) of Uganda; West Nile farming system, Lake Kyoga basin mixed farming system and Lake Victoria basin farming system. This was to assess the genetic diversity of *A. flavus* and to establish the contamination rates of groundnuts with *Aspergillus* species at pre- and post-harvest stages. Out of the 213 *A. flavus* isolates identified in this study, 96 representative isolates were fingerprinted using 16 insertion/deletion microsatellite markers. Data from fingerprinting were analyzed through Neighbor Joining while polymorphism was determined using Arlequin v 3.5. The pre- and post-harvest contamination rates were; 2.5% and 50.0% (West Nile farming system), 55.0% and 35.0% (Lake Kyoga basin mixed farming system) and 32.5% and 32.5% (Lake Victoria basin farming system) respectively. The Chi-square test showed no significant differences between pre- and post-harvest contamination rates among AEZs ( $p = 0.199$ ). Only 67 out of 96 isolates produced suitable allele scores for genotypic analysis. Analysis of genetic diversity showed higher variation within populations than among populations. Two major clusters (aflatoxigenic and non-aflatoxigenic isolates) were identified as colonizing groundnuts at pre- and post-harvest stages.

**Conclusions** These findings provide a first insight on the existence of non-aflatoxigenic strains of *A. flavus* in Uganda. These strains are potential candidates for developing local *Aspergillus* bio-control agent.

## Background

Groundnut (*Arachis hypogaea* L.), is a major legume grown in approximately 25 million hectares of the semi-arid tropical and sub-tropical regions of the world between latitudes 40 °N and 40 °S with an estimated yield of 36 million tons every year (1). Groundnut contains proteins, fats, vitamins and fiber as the major components and all are present in their beneficial forms (2). Proteins (25.8 %) with all the 20 amino acids in variable proportions, total lipid/fats (49.2 %), carbohydrates (16.1 %) and dietary fiber (8.5 %) (3). In Uganda, groundnuts are consumed in either of the following forms: roasted seeds, groundnut stew, groundnut paste and sometimes raw seed cake is used as animal feed. Groundnut is the second most important legume in Uganda after common bean (*Phaseolus vulgaris*) (5). However, groundnut faces production and export constraints from mycotoxin accumulation that results from contamination by *Aspergillus* species favoured by the tropical climate experienced in Uganda (4). Mycotoxins are secondary metabolites produced by the fungal metabolism in response to environmental stress which are later channeled by the fungus in defense, virulence or cell signaling (6). Mycotoxins are stable compounds that cannot be degraded by any ordinary cooking temperature or food processing procedures (7, 8). Mycotoxins, when ingested, are a problem to both human and livestock health; causing acute illness, chronic illness, instant death or immunosuppression

among others (9). In most cases the effects of mycotoxins are manifested much later after exposure (10). Human and livestock exposure to mycotoxins in developing countries results from over reliance on a single staple food crop which is normally grown only once a year (11). Therefore, this food commodity is kept much longer under storage in order to prolong its availability awaiting new harvest in the succeeding year. Since most storage facilities in developing countries are improvised structures, a great proportion of the stored crop produce get contaminated by *Aspergillus* species, resulting into changes in, taste, color, odor and nutritional value of food and feeds (12). The economic losses due to *Aspergillus* contamination may reach 100 % when the presence of aflatoxins beyond acceptable levels results in produce rejection (13). Acute aflatoxicosis is often as a result of subject exposure to high doses of aflatoxins resulting into instant death, whereas chronic aflatoxicosis is due to exposure to sub-lethal doses over a long period of time (7). Chronic aflatoxicosis results into liver cancer, immune suppression and teratogenicity among other complications (7). This problem is a common occurrence in developing countries like Uganda where farmers have inadequate food storage facilities and handling practices (14). In addition, in developing countries, no strict regulatory measures exist against high levels of aflatoxins in food and feed stuffs, leading to frequent episodes of aflatoxicosis and often death in humans (15). In Uganda, the most recent study on aflatoxins in groundnut was done in 2006 by (16). This present study was done to assess the contamination rates of groundnut with major *Aspergillus* species and to examine the genetic diversity of *Aspergillus flavus* isolated from groundnut in six representative districts within the agro-ecological zones (AEZs) of Uganda. These included: West Nile farming system, high altitude districts (districts of Arua and Koboko), Lake Kyoga basin mixed farming system, low altitude districts (districts of Soroti and Ngora) and Lake Victoria basin farming system, mid altitude districts (districts of Tororo and Kamuli).

## Materials And Methods

### Sample collection

The study was conducted in the selected major groundnut-growing AEZs of Uganda and selection was based on the groundnut production statistics in Uganda and the degree of variations in abiotic factors between AEZs. Basing on the groundnut production statistics provided by Uganda Bureau of Statistics, 2014, two districts with the highest groundnut production levels were selected from an AEZ and surveyed.

A total of 240 households and groundnut fields combined, were surveyed. From each household / groundnut field surveyed, at least a sample of groundnut was collected (120 field samples and 120 storage samples). A total of 40 samples were collected from each district (20 field samples and 20 storage samples). From each field, a quadrant measuring 1 m x 1 m was thrown randomly at five different sampling points at least 10 m apart. Then three groundnut stands were pulled and handpicked on the same day of sampling. Extra care was taken to sort out pods that were damaged by soil fauna and later clean pods packed in a paper bag. The groundnut pods were sun-dried for a week, disinfected using a 0.5 % (v/v) sodium hypochlorite solution, hand shelled followed by storage at 4 °C until fungal isolation according to (18). For the case of storage samples, sub-samples of shelled groundnuts from each bag or container were taken randomly from the top, middle and bottom using a sampling probe and later mixed to form a uniform mixture. From this mixture, 250 g were drawn and packed in a sterile paper bag for isolating fungi. Unshelled groundnuts were taken

only once from each storage bag or container and packed for laboratory analysis following the method of (19).

### **Isolation of *Aspergillus* species from groundnut seeds**

*Aspergillus* species were isolated at National Peanut Research Laboratory, Dawson, Georgia, USA. A selective growth medium, modified dichloran Rose Bengal (MDRB) was used for isolation of *Aspergillus* section *Flavi* (20). The MDRB medium is composed of 10 g/L dextrose, 2.5 g/L peptone, 1.0 g/L di-potassium phosphate ( $\text{KH}_2\text{PO}_4$ ), 0.5 g/L magnesium sulphate hepta hydrate ( $\text{MgSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ), 0.5 g/L yeast extract, 20 g/L agar, 0.5 mL of 0.05 % (w/v) Rose Bengal stock solution in acetone, adjusted to 1 L with distilled water and later modified with 0.8 mg/L dichloran. After sterilization, 30 mg/L streptomycin and 0.15 mg/L tetracycline were added to the medium. Twenty seeds per sample were separately put into a sterile 50 mL falcon tube and 15 mL sterile distilled water added. The seeds were washed by shaking in a pulverizing machine, KLECO (Visalia, California, USA) for 2 minutes (21). Thereafter, 50  $\mu\text{L}$  of each of the suspensions was separately plated onto MDRB medium (22), followed by incubation at 37 °C for 3 days. The *Aspergillus* colonies were counted, and contamination levels (%) were deduced by sample type and AEZ. In a biosafety cabinet, a stereo microscope and a flame sterilized needle were used to isolate conidia from a colony of interest. The conidia were then transferred onto freshly prepared plates of MDRB medium and streaked in a clock-wise pattern so as to effectively disperse the spores into single colonies. After three days of incubation at 37 °C, hyphal tips from single colonies were picked using a flamed scalpel and transferred into Czapek Dox agar (OXOID Ltd, Hampshire, England) slants for identification and storage.

### ***Aspergillus* species and strain identification**

Morphological characterizations were done on 12-day old pure cultures of *Aspergillus* grown on Czapek Dox agar at 30 °C. This was to identify the different species and strains in accordance to (23) and comparison to reference cultures in the collection at National Peanut Research Laboratory, Dawson, GA, USA.

### **Genomic DNA extraction and quantification**

Genomic DNA from the *Aspergillus flavus* isolates was extracted at National Peanut Research Laboratory, Georgia, USA, using Qiagen DNeasy Plant kit (QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany). Sterile disposable plastic loops were used to harvest 3 loopfuls of spores from the culture slants and loaded into each sample tube. Following the manufacturer's instructions, a 500  $\mu\text{l}$  clear lysate were pipetted into a 2 ml eppendorf tube and later loaded into a QIAcube robot (QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany). The concentration of the eluted DNA was determined using a Nanodrop ND 2000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Wilmington, DE, USA)

### **Genotyping of *Aspergillus flavus* isolates**

Primers that were previously developed to detect insertions-deletions (InDel) within the aflatoxin-biosynthesis cluster of *Aspergillus* (21) were used in this study for the genetic fingerprinting of the *Aspergillus* isolates (Table 1). Since deletions/insertions in this gene cluster are associated to aflatoxin production (21), clustering of isolates were deduced from the shared deletions/insertions patterns that correspond to aflatoxigenicity or non-aflatoxigenicity.

Table 1: Primer pairs that were used in amplification of aflatoxin biosynthesis gene (21)

| Marker | Forward 5'→3'         | Reverse 5'→3'         | Amplicon size (bp) |
|--------|-----------------------|-----------------------|--------------------|
| AFLC01 | CCGACCTCACGACGCATTAT  | CCGGCTAGCTTCAACAGACG  | 140-370            |
| AFLC02 | GGTTGGCGGATTGAGAGGTA  | GGAGATCAGCCGAGAAGACA  | 100-296            |
| AFLC03 | TCCGCCGAGAGCCATAATAG  | GGATGCTGACACCTCGATAG  | 120-160            |
| AFLC07 | GTCAGCAAGAGGAGCCTTCA  | GGTCACGGAGATCCTCCATA  | 159-404            |
| AFLC08 | CGCCAGCACGGAGATCGAAT  | CGTCTCCTCAGGCGGTCTAT  | 224-399            |
| AFLC12 | CGCAAGGAGCTCGACCAATA  | TTCAGCTCAGCGACGAGAGT  | 241-360            |
| AFLC13 | TCGGTTCAATGCTCGAACAC  | TCCAACCTTCGGCCTAGTCT  | 140-410            |
| AFLC15 | GCTCTACAGGCTGATTCAAG  | TCGACAGTCCGACAATATGC  | 204-370            |
| AFLC16 | ATCGCAGCGGAAGCTTGGAA  | AGTCTCGGACTCCGGTGACA  | 145-410            |
| AFLC17 | GCACAACCTCGTACAGCTATC | TCTAAGTGCGAGGCAACGAA  | 125-390            |
| AFLC18 | GGCAGCCAGACCAAGGAATA  | CCTTCTCGTAGCCGCTCATC  | 130-400            |
| AFLC19 | ACAGGACCGCACGGATCAAT  | AGGAGCGGATGTCTGAAGTCT | 260-491            |
| AFLC20 | GCCTAGCGCTCCATTCTCAG  | CCATCGTATCCGGCTCTATC  | 120-370            |
| AFLC21 | TACCTTACTCCGCTAAGCAG  | GCGGTCACCTACCAATGAAT  | 150-368            |
| AFLC22 | TTCGCAGGAGTGTAGCCAAG  | GTTGGAACACGCTCCATAGG  | 120-371            |
| AFLC24 | GAACGAGATAACGGCTGCAT  | ATCAATCCACGGACCGTTGT  | 100-430            |

The forward primers were tailed with a 5'-CAGTTTTCCCAGTCACGAC-3' sequence and labeled with 6-carboxyfluorescein (6-FAM). The reverse primers were tailed with 5'-GTTT-3' sequence to promote non-template adenylation (24). Amplifications were performed using 10 ng of DNA and Titanium Taq polymerase (Clontech) in 5 µl reactions as described before (25). The labeled PCR amplicons were analyzed using an ABI 3730XL DNA analyzer and data were processed by GeneMapper v 4.0 (Applied Biosystems, Foster city, California, USA).

### Data analysis

The GenStat Discovery Edition 4 (2002) for windows (VSN International Ltd, Rothamsted Experimental station, UK) software was used for data analysis. The Chi-square test and One –Way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were used to compare the frequencies of groundnut contamination with *Aspergillus* species and to determine the relative abundance of isolated *Aspergillus* species and strains at pre- and post-harvest stages. Allele sizes observed as relative fluorescence units were converted to binary data, where presence of an amplicon of any size was scored as '1' whereas its absence was scored as '0'. Relationships among the isolates based on InDel data were determined through Neighbor Joining with 1000 bootstrap replications (26), using TREECON for Windows 1.3b version. Analysis of Molecular Variance (AMOVA) in Arlequin version 3.5.2.2 software package using 1000 permutations provided genetic structure based on the AEZs from which

groundnut samples were collected. The principal co-ordinate analysis (PCoA) and Mantel test were done to identify genetic clusters and their associations with geographical locations using GenAlEx version 6.502.

## Results

### Contamination frequencies of *Aspergillus* in the groundnut samples

Overall, 34.58 % (83/240) of the groundnut samples had *Aspergillus*. The frequencies (%) of *Aspergillus*-contaminated groundnuts are summarized in Table 2. Lake Kyoga basin mixed-farming system had the highest number of groundnut samples contaminated with *Aspergillus* and West Nile farming system had the lowest number of groundnut samples contaminated with *Aspergillus* (Figure 2). However, there were no significant differences in the overall contamination frequencies across AEZs ( $p > 0.05$ ). Pre- and post-harvest contamination frequencies were 30.00% and 39.17 % respectively. Lake Kyoga basin mixed-farming system had the highest pre-harvest contamination frequency whereas West Nile farming system had the lowest pre-harvest contamination frequency (Table 2). West Nile farming system had the highest post-harvest contamination frequency while Lake Victoria basin farming system had the lowest post-harvest contamination frequency (Table 2). Examination of the fungal species contaminating groundnuts revealed presence of *A. flavus*, *A. parasiticus* and *Aspergillus* section *Nigri*. More than one *Aspergillus* species were found co-existing on 70 % (168/240) of the total groundnut samples collected and on 61 % (73/120) of the post-harvest groundnut samples. An example of multiple fungal species co-existing in a groundnut sample is shown below (Figure 2). *Aspergillus flavus* was the most abundant, both as S- and L-strains, whereas *A. parasiticus* was the least abundant species observed (Table 3). The three *Aspergillus* species were distributed throughout the AEZs surveyed (Table 3) and the abundance and distribution of each species never differed significantly across AEZs ( $p > 0.05$ ).

Table 2: Prevalence of *Aspergillus* contaminated groundnut at pre-and post-harvest by AEZs

| Agro-ecological zone   | Pre-harvest contamination (n = 40) | Post-harvest contamination (n = 40) | Overall contamination (n = 80) |
|------------------------|------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| West Nile              | 1 (2.50 %)                         | 20 (50.00 %)                        | 21 (26.25 %)                   |
| L. Kyoga basin         | 22 (55.00 %)                       | 14 (35.00 %)                        | 36 (45.00 %)                   |
| L. Victoria basin      | 13 (32.50 %)                       | 13 (32.50 %)                        | 26 (32.50 %)                   |
| <b>Total (N = 120)</b> | <b>36 (30.00 %)</b>                | <b>47 (39.17 %)</b>                 | <b>83 (34.58 %)</b>            |

Table 3: *Aspergillus* species and strains identified by AEZs.

| Agro-ecological zone   | <i>A. flavus</i> (S strain)<br>n = 88 | <i>A. flavus</i> (L strain)<br>n = 46 | <i>A. parasiticus</i> n = 3 | <i>Aspergillus</i> section <i>Nigri</i><br>n = 94 |
|------------------------|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------|---|
| West Nile              | 10 (11.36 %)                          | 2 (4.35 %)                            | 1 (33.33 %)                 | 18 (19.15 %)                                      |
| L. Victoria basin      | 36 (40.91 %)                          | 14 (30.43 %)                          | 1 (33.33 %)                 | 46 (48.94 %)                                      |
| L. Kyoga basin         | 42 (47.73 %)                          | 30 (65.22 %)                          | 1 (33.33 %)                 | 30 (31.91 %)                                      |
| <b>Total (N = 231)</b> | <b>88 (38.10 %)</b>                   | <b>46 (19.91 %)</b>                   | <b>3 (1.30 %)</b>           | <b>94 (40.69 %)</b>                               |

Only 67 out of 96 representative isolates of *A. flavus* had adequate allelic regions amplified by all the 16 microsatellite markers for analysis. Analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) indicated higher degree of variation among individuals within a population compared to that among individuals between populations (Table 4).

Table 4: Analysis of molecular variance statistics for the 67 isolates from four populations

| Source of variation       | df | SS      | MS    | Est. var | Percentage |
|---------------------------|----|---------|-------|----------|------------|
| <b>Among populations</b>  | 3  | 12.807  | 4.269 | 0.180    | 9.000%     |
|                           | 63 | 115.939 | 1.840 | 1.840    | 91.000%    |
| <b>Within populations</b> |    |         |       |          |            |
|                           | 66 | 128.746 |       | 2.021    | 100.000%   |
| <b>Total</b>              |    |         |       |          |            |

Only 16 out of 25 InDel markers used in genotyping the 96 isolates showed polymorphism. Neighbor Joining of the microsatellite data revealed two major clusters; one with most of the isolates having many loci in the aflatoxin biosynthesis gene cluster amplified and another with most of its isolates possessing few loci in their aflatoxin biosynthesis gene cluster amplified. These two clusters were; aflatoxigenic and non-aflatoxigenic respectively (Figure 3). However, isolates in these two clusters were not distinctively differentiated by the number of gene loci present in each isolate. For example, some few isolates (1608, 1478, 1567, 1631 and 1570) whose aflatoxin biosynthesis gene cluster had minimal deletions were clustered with isolates having major deletions in their aflatoxin biosynthesis gene clusters. Similarly, some isolates (1554, 1462, 1605, 1470, 1482, 1483 and 1546) had very few loci in their aflatoxin biosynthesis gene clusters but were clustered in the same clade with those having almost intact loci in their aflatoxin biosynthesis gene cluster. Principal co-ordinate analysis of the microsatellite data showed four distinct clusters for the entire population. However, isolates were not clustered based on their geographical origins but rather on similar deletion patterns shared among them (Figure 4). The Mantel test revealed insignificant negative correlation

between genetic distances and geographical distances among *A. flavus* isolates ( $R^2 = 0.0085$ ,  $p = 0.220$ ) (Figure 5).

Non-aflatoxigenic strains of *A. flavus* were dominant (65.67 %), whereas the aflatoxigenic strains were fewer (34.33 %). The highest proportion of aflatoxigenic *A. flavus* strains was in L. Kyoga basin mixed farming system (68.20%) and none in West Nile. Whereas the highest proportion of non-aflatoxigenic strains was in L. Victoria basin farming system (65.22 %) and West Nile had the lowest proportion (8.70 %).

## Discussion

Contamination of groundnut by *Aspergillus* species originates at pre-harvest stage as was previously noted by (27) in their study. This is because *Aspergillus* species are well adapted in soil as conidia, hyphae and sclerotia, which are in direct contact with groundnut pods (28). Other abiotic factors like drought stress, a common experience in the Lake Kyoga basin mixed farming system could be responsible for high susceptibility of groundnut at pre-harvest (29, 30). Cropping system and climate could be responsible for *Aspergillus* species distribution pattern and abundance within these AEZs that are far apart and with different climatic conditions as was noted by (20). No significant statistical difference existed between pre-harvest and post-harvest contamination levels of groundnut with *Aspergillus* species across AEZs. This could be due to common pre- and post-harvest handling methods employed as previously noted by (31).

*Aspergillus* section *Flavi* and *Aspergillus* section *Nigri* were the most abundant *Aspergillus* species encountered in groundnut samples. This finding concurs with that from a study done by (32). Most of the *Aspergillus* species in section *Nigri* are of great importance in industrial manufacture of amylases, lipases, citric acid and gluconic acid (33). However, they cause food deterioration with subsequent production of mycotoxins; ochratoxin A (OTA), ochratoxin B, fumonisin B2, fumonisin B4, and secalonic acids, A, D, F as the major natural products toxic to humans and animals (34). Ochratoxin A has been reported to be a nephrotoxic compound causing renal cancer (35). Groundnut contamination with *A. flavus* and some species from *Aspergillus* section *Nigri* is also known for lowering the germination ability of groundnut seeds under storage (36), and the longer the storage duration, the higher the frequency of contamination by *Aspergillus* species (37). Thus, reduction in seed quality due to *Aspergillus* contamination results in poor seed germination ability, low productivity and hence food insecurity.

Isolates of *A. flavus* were more genetically diverse within populations than among populations. This could be as a result of genetic exchange and recombination events that normally occur between different *Aspergillus* strains and species (38). Low genetic diversity among populations of *A. flavus* could be due to small sample size (39) or an evidence that the bulk of the isolates shared similar deletions in the aflatoxin biosynthesis gene cluster. Because of this, the clustering of isolates were not based on their geographical origins but rather on the shared deletions pattern. This could be an evidence of gene flow among *A. flavus* populations in the different groundnut-growing AEZs of Uganda.

Our study also shows that amplicon sizes produced by each marker varied so greatly and some isolates had huge chunks of unamplified loci in their aflatoxin biosynthesis gene cluster. Existence of unamplified loci in this gene cluster is an indication of large deletions that may result from complete knock out of a protein-

coding gene, rendering the gene inactive (40). These isolates which had very few loci amplified as a result of large deletion in this gene cluster were therefore non-aflatoxigenic strains, as was observed by (41) in his study. These *A. flavus* strains could be of value as bio-control agents against aflatoxin-producing *A. flavus* strains through exploitative competition (42). Clustering using Neighbor Joining did not reveal any clear cut difference between clusters of aflatoxigenic and non-aflatoxigenic isolates. This was observed where some few isolates meant to be in the aflatoxigenic cluster were clustered with the non-aflatoxigenic isolates and vice versa. The principal co-ordinate analysis and the Mantel test also support the clustering pattern of the Neighbor Joining analysis. These could be due to the inability of the microsatellite markers used in this study to sufficiently resolve the genetic differences among the isolates with respect to aflatoxin production as well as their geographic origins. This same observation was noted by (43) in their study on *A. flavus* isolated from sorghum seeds.

## Conclusion

*Aspergillus flavus* and *Aspergillus* section *Nigri* are the most abundant species contaminating groundnuts in Uganda and they co-exist in groundnuts, therefore human and livestock health are at risk of intoxication by their combined mycotoxins in food and feed. Since contamination starts at pre-harvest stage due to drought stress, early planting should be emphasized so that there is enough rain to take the plants through their growth and development. In case drought sets in unexpectedly, simple irrigation technologies should be used to meet the water demands of the plants, especially during pod development stage.

Both aflatoxigenic and non-aflatoxigenic *A. flavus* strains exist in all the AEZs of Uganda. This finding could provide a basis for the selection and application of indigenous non-aflatoxigenic *A. flavus* strains as bio-control strains against aflatoxigenic *Aspergillus* strains. This technology has been proven to be successful and it is already being applied in many countries that produce groundnut intensively, like the US (44). Low genetic diversity in *A. flavus* across AEZs can be of great value during the design of a control measure, like RNAi technology for groundnut breeding programs. The existing *A. flavus* culture collection from this study can be employed during a screening process to identify groundnut genotypes that are resistant to aflatoxigenic *Aspergillus* contamination and also subsequent aflatoxin formation.

## List Of Abbreviations

|       |                                |
|-------|--------------------------------|
| AEZs  | Agro-ecological zones          |
| AMOVA | Analysis of molecular variance |
| ANOVA | Analysis of variance           |
| DNA   | Deoxyribonucleic acid          |
| InDel | Insertion /deletion            |
| MDRB  | Modified dichloran Rose Bengal |

|      |                                |
|------|--------------------------------|
| Pop  | Population                     |
| PCoA | Principal Co-ordinate analysis |
| RNA  | Ribonucleic acid               |
| RNAi | Ribonucleic acid interference  |
| UBOS | Uganda Bureau of Statistics    |

## Declarations

### Acknowledgements

Valerie Orner trained me at National Peanut Research Laboratories, Dawson, Georgia, USA.

Michael Hillary Otim. Reviewed the manuscript. National Crops Resources Research Institute, P.O Box 7084, Uganda.

Francis Onyilo. Reviewed the manuscript. Muni University, P.O Box 725 Arua, Uganda.

### Funding

The data collection and subsequent analyses were funded by the NARO under PEARL Project, a project sponsored by Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation. The fungal isolation, genomic DNA isolation, purification and fingerprinting were funded by the US Department of Agriculture - Agricultural Research Services, National Peanut Research Laboratories.

**Availability of data and materials:** The majority of the data is included herein. The raw data and other materials used in the reported study shall be availed only on request. Please contact Amos Acur (amosacur4@gmail.com) or Stephen Buah (buahs@yahoo.com) to request for additional data.

### Authors' contributions

AA - Designed the study, collected the data, analyzed the data, interpreted the results and a major contributor to writing the manuscript

AK - Designed the study, supervised the study and a major contributor to writing the manuscript

RA - Processed the fingerprint results and a major contributor to writing the manuscript

SB - Analyzed the data, interpreted the results and a major contributor to writing the manuscript

JA - A major contributor to writing the manuscript

DM - A major contributor to writing the manuscript

SO - A major contributor to writing the manuscript

ST – Participated in data collection and a major contributor to writing the manuscript

JS – Participated in data collection and a major contributor to writing the manuscript

## Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate - Not applicable

Consent for publication - Not applicable

Competing interests – There were no competing interests

## References

1. Chen X, Li H, Pandey MK, Yang Q, Wang X, Garg V, et al. Draft genome of the peanut A-genome progenitor (*Arachis duranensis*) provides insights into geocarpy, oil biosynthesis, and allergens. Proc Natl Acad Sci [Internet]. 2016;(2):201600899. Available from: <http://www.pnas.org/lookup/doi/10.1073/pnas.1600899113>
2. Arya SS, Salve AR, Chauhan S. Peanuts as functional food: a review. J Food Sci Technol. 2016;53(1):31–41.
3. Davis JP, Dean LL. Peanut Composition, Flavor and Nutrition [Internet]. Peanuts: Genetics, Processing, and Utilization. Elsevier Inc.; 2016. 289–345 p. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/B978-1-63067-038-2.00011-3>
4. Bhat, R.V. and Vasanthi S. Food Safety in Food Security and Food Trade. Mycotoxin Food Saf Risk Dev Countries IFPRI Br 3. 2003;1–2.
5. Okello DK, Biruma M, Deom CM. Overview of groundnuts research in Uganda: Past, present and future. 2010;9(39):6448–59.
6. Valiante V. The Cell Wall Integrity Signaling Pathway and Its Involvement in Secondary Metabolite Production. J Fungi [Internet]. 2017;3(4):68. Available from: <http://www.mdpi.com/2309-608X/3/4/68>
7. Kumar P, Mahato DK, Kamle M, Mohanta TK, Kang SG. Aflatoxins: A global concern for food safety, human health and their management. Front Microbiol. 2017;7(JAN):1–10.
8. Ryu D, Bianchini A, Bullerman LB. Effects of processing on mycotoxins. Stewart Postharvest Rev. 2008;4(6).
9. Mohsenzadeh MS, Hedayati N, Riahi-Zanjani B, Karimi G. Immunosuppression following dietary aflatoxin B1 exposure: a review of the existing evidence. Toxin Rev. 2016;35(3–4):121–7.
10. Ismaiel AA, Papenbrock J. Mycotoxins: Producing Fungi and Mechanisms of Phytotoxicity. 2015;492–537.
11. Bryden WL. Mycotoxins in the food chain: Human health implications. Asia Pac J Clin Nutr. 2007;16(SUPPL.1):95–101.
12. Perrone G, Susca A, Cozzi G, Ehrlich K, Varga J, Frisvad JC, et al. Biodiversity of *Aspergillus* species in some important agricultural products. Stud Mycol [Internet]. 2007;59:53–66. Available from: <http://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0166061614601755>

13. Bhatnagar-Mathur P, Sunkara S, Bhatnagar-Panwar M, Waliyar F, Sharma KK. Biotechnological advances for combating *Aspergillus flavus* and aflatoxin contamination in crops. *Plant Sci* [Internet]. 2015;234:119–32. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.plantsci.2015.02.009>
14. Klich MA. *Aspergillus flavus*: The major producer of aflatoxin. *Mol Plant Pathol*. 2007;8(6):713–22.
15. Horn BW, Moore GG, Carbone I. Sexual reproduction in *Aspergillus flavus*. *Mycologia*. 2009;101(3):423–9.
16. Kaaya a. N, Harris C, Eigel W. Peanut Aflatoxin Levels on Farms and in Markets of Uganda. *Peanut Sci*. 2006;33(July 2003):68–75.
17. Uganda Bureau of Statistics. Uganda Bureau of Statistics Statistical. 2014;1–305. Available from: [http://www.ubos.org/onlinefiles/uploads/ubos/statistical\\_abstracts/Statistical Abstract 2014.pdf](http://www.ubos.org/onlinefiles/uploads/ubos/statistical_abstracts/Statistical Abstract 2014.pdf). Accessed: August 15, 2016
18. Mutegi C, Wagacha M, Kimani J, Otieno G, Wanyama R, Hell K, et al. Incidence of aflatoxin in peanuts (*Arachis hypogaea* Linnaeus) from markets in Western, Nyanza and Nairobi Provinces of Kenya and related market traits. *J Stored Prod Res* [Internet]. 2013;52:118–27. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jspr.2012.10.002>
19. Ndungu JW, Makokha AO, Onyango CA, Mutegi CK, Wagacha JM, Christie ME. Prevalence and potential for aflatoxin contamination in groundnuts and peanut butter from farmers and traders in Nairobi and Nyanza provinces of Kenya. *J Appl Biosci*. 2013;65:4922–34.
20. Horn B. W DJW. Mycological Society of America Soil populations of *Aspergillus* species from section Flavi along a transect through regions of the United States. 1998;90(5):767–76.
21. Faustinelli PC, Palencia ER, Sobolev VS, Horn BW, Sheppard HT, Lamb MC, et al. Study of the genetic diversity of the aflatoxin biosynthesis cluster in *Aspergillus* section Flavi using insertion / deletion markers in peanut seeds. *Mycologia* [Internet]. 2017;00(00):1–10. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1080/00275514.2017.1307095>
22. Faustinelli PC, Wang XM, Palencia ER, Arias RS. Genome Sequences of Eight *Aspergillus flavus* spp. and One *A. parasiticus* sp., Isolated from Peanut Seeds in Georgia. *Genome Announc* [Internet]. 2016;4(2):3–4. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27081142>
23. Diba K, Rezaie S, Mahmoudi M, Kordbacheh P, Diba CK. Identification of *Aspergillus* Species using morphological characteristics. *Pakistan J Med Sci* [Internet]. 2007;23(6):867–72. Available from: [www.pjms.com.pk](http://www.pjms.com.pk)
24. Carpten JD, Smith JR, Brownstein MJ, Hu G. United States Patent ( 19 ) A / G /. 2000;(19).
25. Arias RS, Ray JD, Mengistu A, Scheffler BE. Discriminating microsatellites from *Macrophomina phaseolina* and their potential association to biological functions. *Plant Pathol*. 2011;60(4):709–18.
26. Saitou N, Nei M. Neighbor\_Method. 1998;4(4):1–20. Available from: [papers://92fd5174-9e31-4983-9b1c-5a79350234b8/Paper/p6217](https://papers://92fd5174-9e31-4983-9b1c-5a79350234b8/Paper/p6217)
27. Martins LM, Sant’Ana AS, Fungaro MHP, Silva JJ, Nascimento M da S do, Frisvad JC, et al. The biodiversity of *Aspergillus* section Flavi and aflatoxins in the Brazilian peanut production chain. *Food Res Int*. 2017;94:101–7.

28. Horn BW. Colonization of wounded peanut seeds by soil fungi: selectivity for species from *Aspergillus* section Flavi. *Mycologia*. 2008;97(1):202–17.
29. Sibakwe CB, Kasambara-donga T, Njoroge SMC, Msuku WAB, Mhango WG. The Role of Drought Stress on Aflatoxin Contamination in Groundnuts (*Arachis hypogaea* L.) and *Aspergillus flavus* Population in the Soil. 2017;3(5):22–9.
30. Diao E, Dong H, Hou H, Zhang Z, Ji N, Ma W. Factors Influencing Aflatoxin Contamination in Before and After Harvest Peanuts: A Review. 2015;4(1):148–54.
31. Dube M, Maphosa M. Prevalence of Aflatoxigenic *Aspergillus* Spp and Groundnut Resistance in Zimbabwe. 2014;7(11):8–12.
32. Lr R, Sm N. Biodiversity of *Aspergillus* spp. on Groundnut seeds. 2015;(December):47–50.
33. Varga J, Frisvad JC, Kocsubé S, Brankovics B, Tóth B, Szigeti G, et al. New and revisited species in *Aspergillus* section Nigri Extrolite analysis. 2011;1–17.
34. Hoof JB, Frisvad JC. Diversity in Secondary Metabolites Including Mycotoxins from Strains of *Aspergillus* Section Nigri Isolated from Raw Cashew Nuts from Benin, West Africa. 2016;1–14.
35. Abarca ML, Accensi F, Cano J, Cabañes F. Taxonomy and significance of black aspergilli. [Taxonomía y significado de los aspergillus negros]. *Antonie Van Leeuwenhoek* [Internet]. 2004;86(1):33–49. Available from: <https://bit.ly/2BIG3GM>
36. Guchi E, Ayalew A, Dejene M, Ketema M, Asalf B, Fininsa C. Occurrence of *Aspergillus* Species in Groundnut (*Arachis hypogaea* L.) along the Value Chain in Different Agro-Ecological Zones of Eastern Ethiopia. *J Appl Environ Microbiol* [Internet]. 2014;2(6):309–17. Available from: <http://pubs.sciepub.com/jaem/2/6/7>
37. Guchi E. Effect of Storage Time on Occurrence of *Aspergillus* species in Groundnut (*Arachis hypogaea* L.) in Eastern Ethiopia. *J Appl Environ Microbiol* [Internet]. 2015;3(1):1–5. Available from: <http://pubs.sciepub.com/jaem/3/1/1/index.html>
38. Moore GG, Olarte RA, Horn BW, Elliott JL, Singh R, O’Neal CJ, et al. Global population structure and adaptive evolution of aflatoxin-producing fungi. *Ecol Evol*. 2017;(August):9179–91.
39. Mauro A, Battilani P, Callicott KA, Giorni P, Pietri A, Cotty PJ. Structure of an *Aspergillus flavus* population from maize kernels in northern Italy. *Int J Food Microbiol* [Internet]. 2013;162(1):1–7. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2012.12.021>
40. Lind AL, Wisecaver JH, Lameiras C, Wiemann P, Palmer JM, Keller NP, et al. Drivers of genetic diversity in secondary metabolic gene clusters within a fungal species. *PLoS Biol* [Internet]. 2017;15(11):1–26. Available from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.2003583>
41. Callicott KA. Method for monitoring deletions in the aflatoxin biosynthesis gene cluster of *Aspergillus flavus* with multiplex PCR Method for monitoring deletions in the aflatoxin biosynthesis gene cluster of *Aspergillus flavus* with multiplex PCR. 2014;(July 2018).
42. Abbas HK, Shier WT, Carbone I, Weaver MA, Monacell JT, Horn BW. Selection of *Aspergillus flavus* isolates for biological control of aflatoxins in corn. *Toxin Rev*. 2013;30(2–3):59–70.
43. Divakara ST, Aiyaz M, Moore GG, Venkataramana M, Hariprasad P, Nayaka SC. Analysis of genetic and aflatoxin diversity among *Aspergillus flavus* isolates collected from sorghum seeds. 2015;1255–64.

44. Dorner JW. Biological control of aflatoxin contamination of crops. J Toxicol - Toxin Rev. 2004;23(2-3):425-50.

## Figures

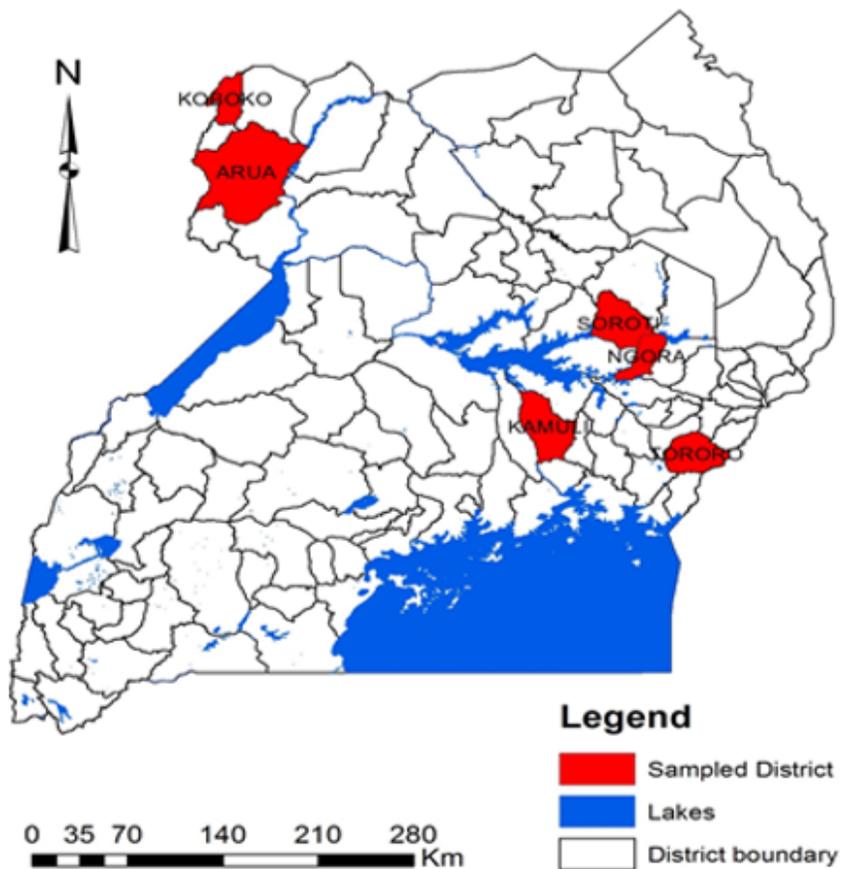
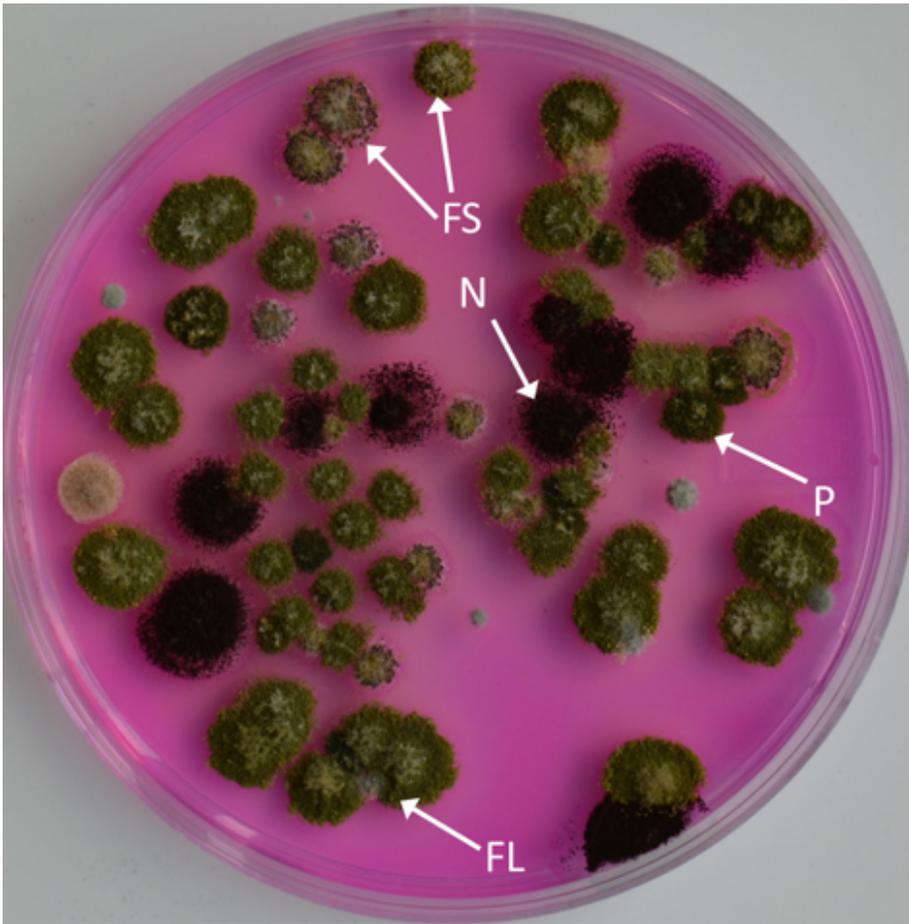


Figure 1

Study sites: Agro-ecological zones from which groundnut samples were collected; West Nile (Arua and Koboko), Lake Kyoga basin (Soroti and Ngora) and Lake Victoria basin (Kamuli and Tororo). Source: UBOS 2014



**Figure 2**

A mixed culture of *Aspergillus* species isolated from groundnut on MDRB medium. FS: Colony of *A. flavus* (S strain), FL: Colony of *A. flavus* (L strain), P: Colony of *A. parasiticus* and N: Colony of *Aspergillus* section Nigri

Distance 0.1

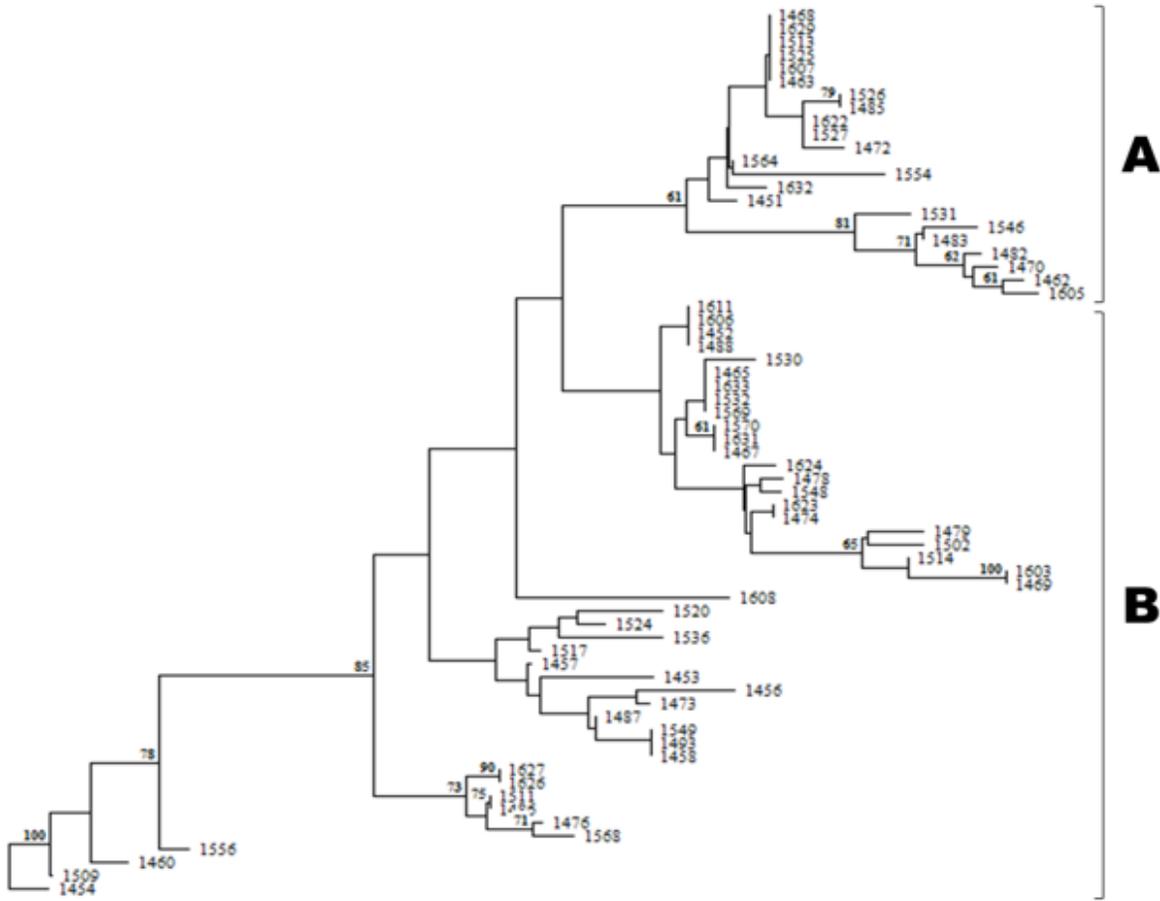


Figure 3

Neighbor Joining Clustal analysis of *Aspergillus flavus* isolates with 1000 bootstrap replications. Bootstrap values above 60% were considered significant. A: Aflatoxigenic strains B: Non-aflatoxigenic strains.

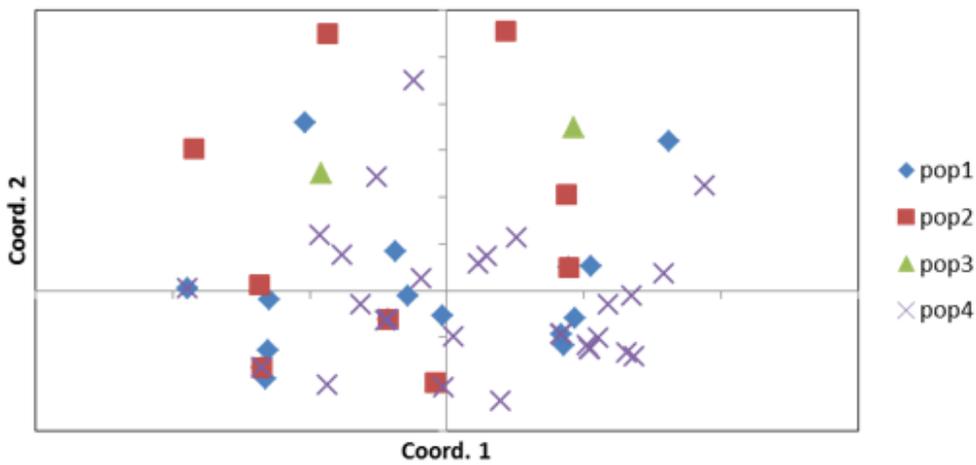


Figure 4

Principal co-ordinate analysis for 16 microsatellite markers used to fingerprint 67 *A. flavus* isolates.

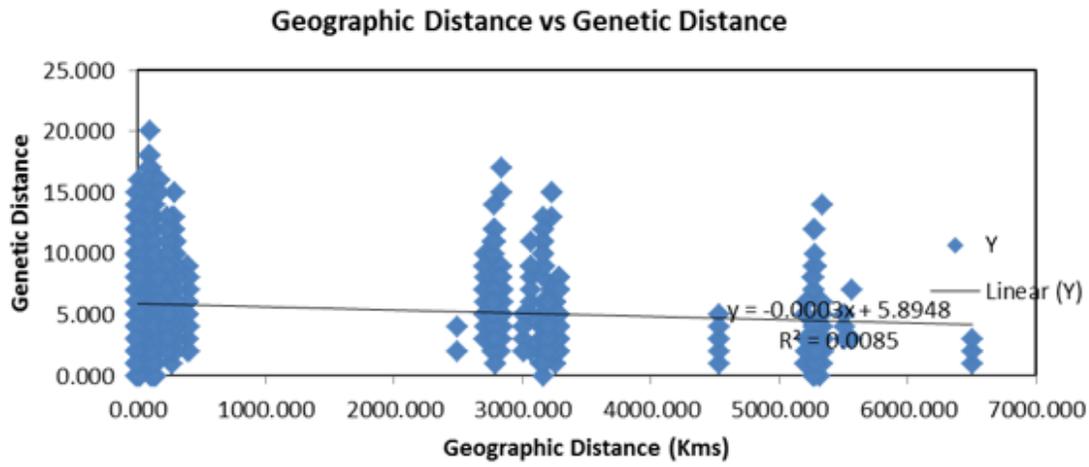


Figure 5

Correlation between the genetic distance and geographic distance of the 67 *A. flavus* isolates.