

## **ENTOMOLOGY**

# Evaluation of the mosquitocidal activity of *Photorhabdus* and *Xenorhabdus* extracts against the larvae of *Aedes aegypti* (Diptera: Culicidae)

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#### **Abstract**

Aedes aegypti is the main vector for dengue viruses. Alternative control of this mosquito was proposed because of its resistance to chemical insecticides. The symbiotic bacteria Photorhabdus associated with Heterorhabditid nematodes and Xenorhabdus associated with Steinernematid nematodes may be alternative resources for controlling this mosquito vector. Therefore, the present study evaluated extracts from Photorhabdus and Xenorhabdus bacteria against A. aegypti larvae. The larvicidal bioassay was performed according to the World Health Organization guidelines for laboratory and field testing of mosquito larvicides. Survival curves were analyzed to compare the mortality of the A. aegypti larvae between the ethyl acetate extracts and the control group. In addition, high-performance liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry analysis was performed to elucidate the natural compounds produced by these bacteria. Among 4 Photorhabdus isolates, the Photorhabdus luminescens subsp. hainanensis (bWT8.5 TH) extracts resulted in the greatest mortality (69%), whereas among 8 Xenorhabdus isolates, the Xenorhabdus stockiae (bWT8.5 TH) extracts resulted in the greatest larvicidal activity against A. aegypti, with 99% mortality after exposure to the 1% extracts for 96 hours. In contrast, at concentrations of 0.1, 0.01, and 0.001% of the extracts, no or less mortality of A. aegypti larvae was detected after exposure to the extracts for 24, 48, 72, and 96 hours. A natural compound, xenoamicine, is a common natural compound produced by Xenorhabdus bacteria. Therefore, extracts of





Xenorhabdus and Photorhabdus bacteria may be used as biocontrol compounds for killing A. aegypti larvae.

# Introduction

Aedes aegypti, a culicine mosquito in the order Diptera, is the main vector for several viruses, such as Japanese encephalitis, West Nile, Chikungunya, and dengue viruses (Martinet et al., 2019). Aedes spp. have also been reported as vectors for the Zika virus, which is considered a major public health threat worldwide (Benelli & Mehlhorn, 2016; Gebre et al., 2016). In addition, Aedes spp. are vectors of filarial worms, which are the cause of elephantiasis in humans (Gleave et al., 2016). Importantly, A. aegypti is recognized as the main vector for dengue virus, which causes hemorrhagic fever in humans (Bhatt et al., 2013). In the last two decades, the number of dengue cases has increased from 505,430 cases in 2000 to over 2.4 million in 2010 and 5.2 million in 2019 (World Health Organization, 2022). In Thailand, from January 1 to September 28, 2020, 59,842 dengue cases with 38 deaths were reported from all regions of the country (Department of Disease Control, Ministry of Public Health, 2022).

Efforts to control Aedes mosquitoes must be implemented while the development of vaccines and effective drugs for the treatment of their associated diseases are still in progress. In general, chemical control for Aedes, applying organophosphates and organochlorines, is commonly used because these are highly efficient and rapidly effective on both adult and larval mosquitoes. However, the repeated use of these chemicals has led to the emergence of chemical-resistant mosquitoes (Elia-Amira et al., 2018). Moreover, accumulated insecticidal chemicals are toxic to animal and human health (Hassaan & El Nemr, 2020). The biological control of Aedes may be an alternative method to overcome these problems. Several organisms have been reported to have the potential to control Aedes mosquitoes. Copepods, turtles, tilapia, and entomopathogens are effectively used to control A. aegypti larvae (Marten et al., 2022; Maurya et al., 2022). In addition, the entomopathogenic bacteria Photorhabdus and Xenorhabdus are promising biocontrol agents for Aedes mosquitoes (da Silva et al., 2020).

Photorhabdus and Xenorhabdus are gram-negative bacilli belonging to the Enterobacteriaceae family and are symbiotically associated with entomopathogenic nematodes in the genera Heterorhabditis and Steinernema, respectively (Sajnaga &

Kazimierczak, 2020). The nematode-bacterium complex produced by their secondary metabolites causes the death of insect larvae within 24 to 48 hours (Goodrich-Blair & Clarke, 2007; Askary & Abd-Elgawad, 2021). Photorhabdus and Xenorhabdus bacteria have been reported as biocontrol agents for controlling several insect pests (Cimen et al., 2022; Tomar et al., 2022). These symbiotic bacteria also showed molluscicidal activity against mollusks (Ardpairin et al., 2024; Dumidae et al., 2024). These bacteria produce several secondary metabolites with a broad range of bioactivities, including insecticidal (Bode, 2009; Shi et al., 2022; Mollah, 2024) and apoptotic activity (Mollah, Yeasmin, et al., 2020) to kill insects. In an earlier study on the use of these bacteria, *Photorhabdus* and *Xenorhabdus* were reported to be orally pathogenic agents to Aedes spp. (da Silva et al., 2013). During the present decade, more than 30 isolates of Xenorhabdus and Photorhabdus, with approximately 10 species, have shown potential larvicidal activity against Aedes spp. following oral treatment (Fukruksa et al., 2017; Vitta et al., 2018; Yooyangket et al., 2018; Suwannaroj et al., 2020; Thanwisai et al., 2021; Thanwisai et al., 2022; Subkrasae et al., 2022). However, a study on the use of extracts from Xenorhabdus and Photorhabdus has been experimentally evaluated for the control of Aedes mosquitoes (Subkrasae et al., 2022). In addition, the ethyl acetate extract of Xenorhabdus ehlersii KSY was shown to be immunosuppressive to Spodoptera exigua, an agricultural pest (Kim et al., 2018). Therefore, we hypothesized that ethyl acetate extracts of Photorhabdus and Xenorhabdus might have good potential to kill Aedes larvae. With this connection, the objective of the present study was to evaluate the ability of the ethyl acetate extracts of different Photorhabdus and Xenorhabdus Thai isolates to kill A. aegypti larvae. Moreover, natural compounds produced by these symbiotic bacteria were identified by high-performance liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (HPLC-MS) analysis.

## **Materials and Methods**

#### **Bacterial strains**

Four *Photorhabdus* and eight *Xenorhabdus* isolates were randomly selected for evaluation of their potential to control *A. aegypti* larvae (Table 1). The bacteria recovered from culture stocks at -40°C were cultured on nutrient bromothymol blue agar (NBTA) in the dark at room temperature (RT) for 4 days.

Table 1. Bacterial isolates used for testing their mosquitocidal activity against Aedes aegypti.

Bacteria	Isolate code	GenBank Accession Number (recA gene)	References
Photorhabdus luminescens subsp. akhurstii	bCM17.3_TH	KY436924	Fukruksa et al. (2017)
Photorhabdus luminescens subsp. akhurstii	bNN121.4_TH	MG209233	Yooyangket et al. (2018)
Photorhabdus luminescens subsp. hainanensis	bWT8.5_TH	MK478134	Suwannaroj et al. (2020)
Photorhabdus asymbiotica subsp. australis	bWT11.2_TH	MK478133	Suwannaroj et al. (2020)
Xenorhabdus ehlersii	bMH9.2_TH	KY404034	Fukruksa et al. (2017)
Xenorhabdus japonica	bNN165.4_TH	MG209251	Yooyangket et al. (2018)
Xenorhabdus stockiae	bCTK4.4_TH	MK478088	Suwannaroj et al. (2020)
Xenorhabdus stockiae	bNSM40.5_TH	KY809288	Yimthin et al. (2021)
Xenorhabdus stockiae	bWB4.2_TH	MK478098	Suwannaroj et al. (2020)
Xenorhabdus stockiae	bWB5.4_TH	MK478100	Suwannaroj et al. (2020)
Xenorhabdus stockiae	bWB9.1_TH	MK478104	Suwannaroj et al. (2020)
Xenorhabdus stockiae	bWT12.5_TH	MK478108	Suwannaroj et al. (2020)





# **Extraction of organic compounds**

The crude organic compounds from whole-cell cultures of selected bacteria were extracted using ethyl acetate. A single colony of each isolate on the NBTA was transferred into a 15-mL centrifuge tube containing 5 mL of Luria-Bertani (LB) broth. The tube was incubated at RT with shaking at 180 rpm for 24 hours. Subsequently, 5 mL of each bacterial culture was transferred into a 2000-mL Erlenmeyer flask containing 500 mL of LB broth. The flask was then placed in an incubator at 180 rpm with shaking at 28°C for 72 hours. Then, 1000 mL of ethyl acetate was added to the bacteria-culture flask and mixed well by shaking. To allow the crude organic compounds from bacteria to dissolve in the ethyl acetate, the flask was placed at RT for 24 hours or up to one week. The top layer, containing the bacterial organic compounds dissolved in ethyl acetate, was transferred to the evaporating flask. All the crude organic extracts were concentrated via a rotary vacuum evaporator (Buchi, Flawil, Switzerland). Extraction from each bacterial isolate was performed 3 times to maximize the amount of crude organic compounds. The condensed extracts of all the bacterial isolates were weighed and stored at -20°C until use.

# Mosquito strains

Eggs of *A. aegypti* (laboratory strain) on filter paper were purchased from the Taxonomy and Reference Museum of the Department of Medical Sciences at the National Institute of Health of Thailand, Ministry of Public Health, Nonthaburi Province, Thailand. The eggs were placed in distilled water to allow the first instar larvae to hatch, which were fed minced pet food. Late thirdand early fourth-instar larvae were used in the bioassays.

# **Biological assay**

The mosquitocidal activity of the bacterial extracts against the larvae of A. aegypti was performed according to guidelines for laboratory and field testing of mosquito larvicides (World Health Organization, 2005). The crude organic compounds were thawed at RT for 1 hour. To prepare a 1% stock solution (10 mg/mL) in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), 0.2 g of each crude organic compound from each bacterial isolate was dissolved in 20 mL of DMSO. A 10-fold dilution of the 1% stock solution with DMSO was subsequently performed to obtain dilutions of 0.1, 0.01, and 0.001%. For the biological assay, a 7-oz plastic container (plastic cup) was used. A total of 25 third- or early fourth-instar larvae of A. aegypti were carefully pipetted into a plastic cup containing 100 mL of dechlorinated water (5 cm depth). A total of four cups (100 larvae/time/concentration) were used for each bacterial extract. Subsequently, 1 mL of each extract (1, 0.1, 0.01, or 0.001%) was added to each cup. Cups containing dechlorinated water and 2% DMSO were used as a control. The assay was performed at RT (25-28°C) with a photoperiod of 12:12 hours (L:D). The dead larvae in each tested cup were observed and counted at 24, 48, 72, and 96 hours after exposure to the extracts. The larvae were considered dead when they remained immobilized after activation by light or a toothpick. The experiment was performed 3 times on different days. The average mortality of A. aegypti larvae after exposure to the bacterial extracts was calculated from 12 replicates.

## **Analysis of bacterial extracts**

The secondary metabolites produced by the symbiotic bacteria were determined by HPLC-MS. The symbiotic bacteria were cultured in LB broth for 72 hours. Subsequently, the bacterial cultures

were dissolved in a 1/10 culture volume of methanol. HPLC-MS analysis was performed via a a Dionex Ultimate 3000 system (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Massachusetts, USA) coupled with a Bruker AmaZon X mass spectrometer (Bruker Corporation, Massachusetts, USA) and an Acquity UPLC BEH C18 1.7  $\mu m$  RP column (Waters Corporation, Milford, Massachusetts, USA) with an acetonitrile (0.1% formic acid) in  $H_2O$  (0.1% formic acid) gradient ranging from 5 to 95% over 16 minutes at a flow rate of 0.4 mL/min at 40°C. The Bruker Compass Data Analysis version 4.3 program was used to analyze the chromatograms.

#### Data analysis

The cumulative mortality of the larvae of *A. aegypti* was calculated. Survival analysis for comparing mortality among the control and tested bacterial isolates was statistically analyzed *via* a stata version 13 (StataCorp LP, College Station, Texas, USA) (Kaplan-Meier estimate, p<0.05).

# Results

# Larvicidal activity of bacterial extracts against Aedes aegypti

A. aegypti larvae began to die at 24 hours after exposure to the highest dose of the *Photorhabdus* and *Xenorhabdus* extracts. Among the Photorhabdus extracts at 24 hours after exposure, the highest mortality (60%) of A. aegypti larvae was observed after exposure to the 1% extract of P. luminescens subsp. hainanensis (bWT8.5 TH). At 96 hours, the mortality of A. aegypti gradually increased to 69% after exposure to the 1% extract of this bacterial isolate (bWT8.5 TH). In contrast, at concentrations of 0.1, 0.01, and 0.001%, no or less mortality of A. aegypti larvae was detected after exposure for 24, 48, 72, and 96 hours. In the control groups (2% DMSO and dechlorinated water), the mortality of the larvae was similar to that of the low-concentration extract (Table 2 and Figure 1). At 96 hours after exposure, the highest mortality of A. aegypti larvae was observed after treatment with P. luminescens subsp. hainanensis (bWT8.5 TH) extracts, whereas the lowest mortality was found after contact with P. luminescens subsp. akhurstii extracts (bCM17.3 TH).

Among the *Xenorhabdus* extracts at 24 hours after exposure, the highest mortality (49%) of *A. aegypti* larvae was observed after exposure to the 1% extract of *Xenorhabdus stockiae* (bWT9.1\_TH), and the mortality rate gradually increased to 85% at 96 hours after exposure. Similar to the findings with *X. stockiae* (bWT9.1\_TH) extracts, the mortality rate was the highest (99%) in this study after larvae were exposed to *X. stockiae* (bNSM40.5\_TH) extracts. In contrast, at extract concentrations of 0.1, 0.01, and 0.001%, no or less mortality of *A. aegypti* larvae was detected after exposure for 24, 48, 72, and 96 hours (Table 3 and Figure 2).

# High-performance liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry analysis

Two symbiotic bacteria in this study were selected for the detection of their natural compounds. The extracts from *X. stockiae* (bWT12.5\_TH) contained xenocoumacine II (Xcn2), xenocoumacine I (Xcn1), GameXPeptide (GXPs) C, and xenoamicine. Another isolate, *X. ehlersii* bMH9.2\_TH, produced tetrapeptide, xenoamicine, and protoporphyrin IX (*Supplementary Table 1*). These natural metabolites have been identified as common compounds produced by *Photorhabdus* and *Xenorhabdus* bacteria.





Table 2. Mortality rates of Aedes aegypti larvae after exposure to crude extracts from Photorhabdus.

Symbiotic bacteria	Isolate code	Extract concentration (%)	Mortality rate (%) ± standard deviation  Aedes aegypti			
			24 hours	48 hours	72 hours	96 hours
Photorhabdus luminescens subsp. akhurstii	bCM17.3_TH	1	22±7.29	34±6.15	35±5.38	35±4.81
		0.1	$0\pm0.00$	$1\pm0.48$	$1\pm0.40$	$4\pm0.59$
		0.01	$0\pm0.00$	$1\pm0.28$	$1\pm0.28$	$4\pm1.32$
		0.001	$1\pm0.89$	$2\pm0.68$	$4\pm0.75$	$7\pm0.99$
Photorhabdus luminescens subsp. akhurstii	bNN121.4_TH	1	13±2.23	26±2.42	34±2.24	43±2.11
		0.1	$0\pm0.29$	$0\pm0.20$	$0\pm0.17$	1±0.20
		0.01	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$
		0.001	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$
Photorhabdus luminescens subsp. hainanensis	bWT8.5_TH	1	$60\pm8.80$	67±9.23	68±8.42	69±7.67
		0.1	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$
		0.01	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$
		0.001	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$
Photorhabdus asymbiotica subsp. australis	bWT11.2_TH	1	29±6.40	44±5.31	47±4.90	48±4.51
		0.1	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.17$	$0\pm0.14$
		0.01	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$
		0.001	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	0±0.00
2% dimethyl sulfoxide: control			$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.14$
Dechlorinated water: control			$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	0±0.00

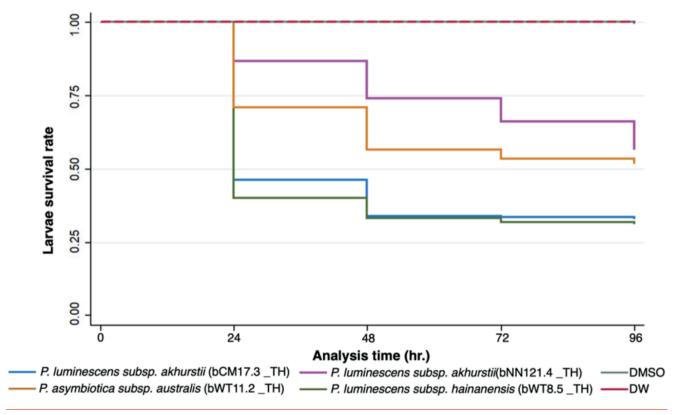


Figure 1. Survival curves of *Aedes aegypti* larvae after exposure to 1% crude extracts of four *Photorhabdus* isolates, 2% dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), and dechlorinated water (DW) at 24, 48, 72, and 96 hours.





Table 3. Mortality rates of Aedes aegypti larvae after exposure to a crude extract of Xenorhabdus.

Symbiotic bacteria	Isolate code	Extract concentration (%)	Mortality rate $(\%) \pm standard deviation$			
			Aedes aegypti			
			24 hours	48 hours	72 hours	96 hour
Xenorhabdus ehlersii	bMH9.2_TH	1	2 ±0.51	5±1.01	8±1.05	10±1.02
		0.1	$1\pm0.58$	$1\pm0.41$	$1\pm0.33$	$1\pm0.29$
		0.01	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$
		0.001	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$
Xenorhabdus japonica	bNN165.4_TH	1	27±4.96	35±4.32	37±3.95	41±3.55
		0.1	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$
		0.01	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.17$	$0\pm0.14$
		0.001	$0\pm0.00$	0±0.00	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$
Xenorhabdus stockiae	bCTK4.4_TH	1	$2\pm0.79$	$6\pm1.00$	14±1.49	22±1.78
		0.1	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$
		0.01	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$
		0.001	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$
Xenorhabdus stockiae	bNSM40.5_TH	1	22±5.85	74±6.11	91±5.85	99±5.78
		0.1	0±0.29	2±0.66	3±0.59	5±0.87
		0.01	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$1\pm0.46$	2±0.42
		0.001	$0\pm0.00$	2±1.00	4±1.04	5±0.95
Xenorhabdus stockiae	bWB4.2_TH	1	27±7.18	55±5.70	71±5.00	85±4.67
		0.1	$1\pm0.39$	$2\pm0.41$	$2\pm0.40$	$2\pm0.36$
		0.01	$1\pm0.58$	$3\pm0.97$	$3\pm0.81$	$4\pm0.76$
		0.001	$0\pm0.00$	$1\pm0.61$	$3\pm0.69$	$4\pm0.66$
Xenorhabdus stockiae	bWB5.4_TH	1	1±0.65	4±0.78	6±0.74	7±0.71
		0.1	1±0.39	1±0.34	1±0.28	$3\pm0.76$
		0.01	$0\pm0.00$	0±0.20	2±0.51	$3\pm0.54$
		0.001	0±0.29	1±0.34	3±0.48	3±0.43
Xenorhabdus stockiae	bWB9.1_TH	1	49±7.74	65±7.36	$79\pm6.71$	85±6.29
		0.1	$1\pm0.62$	$1\pm0.45$	$1\pm0.37$	$3\pm0.54$
		0.01	$0\pm0.00$	$1\pm0.48$	$3\pm0.54$	$4\pm0.56$
		0.001	$1\pm0.62$	$1\pm0.45$	$2\pm0.42$	$2\pm0.37$
Xenorhabdus stockiae	bWT12.5_TH	1	14±3.92	45±4.53	57±4.15	80±3.89
		0.1	0±0.29	0±0.20	1±0.23	3±0.68
		0.01	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.14$
		0.001	2±1.44	3±1.09	4±0.92	9±1.89
2% dimethyl sulfoxide: negative control			$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.14$
Dechlorinated water: negative control			$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	$0\pm0.00$	0±0.00

## **Discussion and Conclusions**

A. aegypti is the major insect vector of dengue virus, which is the cause of dengue hemorrhagic fever and is a global public health concern. Biological control of A. aegypti is an alternative disease control measure. Our report revealed that Photorhabdus and Xenorhabdus extracts were highly effective against A. aegypti larvae. In earlier research, the oral toxicity of Photorhabdus and Xenorhabdus was elucidated, with variable effectiveness against A. aegypti larvae. Da Silva et al. (2013) reported that P. luminescens was effective at killing A. aegypti, with 73% and 83% mortality in fed and unfed larvae, respectively. A lower mortality rate was observed in A. aegypti treated with X. nematophila in both fed (52%) and unfed (42%) larvae.

In addition, the culture fluid of *X. nematophila* was more effective against *A. aegypti* larvae, with a mortality rate of up to 50% after exposure for 8 days (da Silva *et al.*, 2017). Fukruksa *et al.* (2017) demonstrated *X. ehlersii* bMH9.2\_TH with 100% efficiency and *X. stockiae* bLPA18.4\_TH with above 60% efficiency for killing *A. aegypti* larvae under both fed and unfed conditions. In contrast, the ethyl acetate extracts of *X. ehlersii* bMH9.2\_TH in the present study showed low effectiveness against *A. aegypti* larvae.

This might be due to bacteria that produce various natural compounds with variable bioactivities. Vitta et al. (2018) reported that the mortality rate of A. aegypti was as high as 87-99% at 96 hours after exposure to X. stockiae (bNBP22.2 TH). Yooyangket et al. (2018) reported that the highest larval mortality of A. aegypti was 99% after exposure to X. stockiae (bNN112.3 TH) at 96 hours. Additionally, Suwannaroj et al. (2020) reported that Xenorhabdus WB5.4 TH and Xenorhabdus WB12.5 TH, which are closely related to X. stockiae, resulted in high mortality of A. aegypti (99.99% and 70%, respectively) at 96 hours after exposure. In addition, the larvicidal activity of the X. stockiae strain KUT6 was observed against A. aegypti within 24 to 72 hours after treatment (Jissin & Vani, 2020). Like in previous reports, X. griffiniae whole cells showed potential larvicidal activity against A. aegypti (91% mortality at 72 and 96 hours after exposure) (Thanwisai et al., 2021). Recently, Subkrasae et al. (2022) reported that ethyl acetate extracts from X. indica (bSNK8.5\_TH) caused 50% mortality in A. aegypti larvae after 96 hours of exposure. Similarly, whole cells of Photorhabdus (bPP7.1 TH) presented moderate mortality (48.89%) because they killed A. aegypti larvae after 96 hours of exposure (Thanwisai et al., 2022). Most recently, cell-free supernatants from X. cabanillasii resulted in 100% mortality of A. aegypti, and fabclavine was proven to be an effective compound



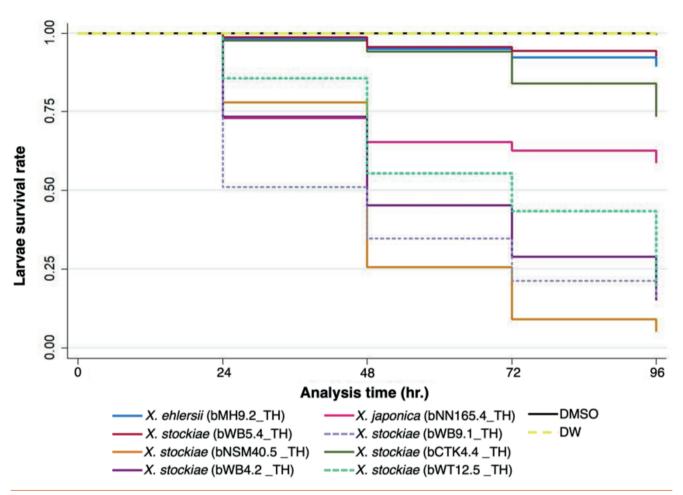


Figure 2. Survival curves of *Aedes aegypti* larvae after exposure to 1% crude extracts of eight *Xenorhabdus* isolates, 2% dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), and dechlorinated water (DW) at 24, 48, 72, and 96 hours.

against the larvae of this *A. aegypti* (Ulug *et al.*, 2024). Therefore, several forms of *Photorhabdus* and *Xenorhabdus* spp., including live whole cells, cell-free supernatants, and ethyl acetate extracts, have shown potential for killing *A. aegypti* larvae with variable mortality. Further studies on the sustainable effectiveness of these symbiotic bacteria against *A. aegypti* are needed. The identification and isolation of effective natural compounds may overcome this issue.

In the present study, xenoamicine, Xcn1, Xcn2, GXPs C, and protoporphyrin IX were identified in *Xenorhabdus* spp. In general, Photorhabdus and Xenorhabdus help their symbiotic nematodes by producing secondary metabolite compounds that kill the insect host and protect the host cadaver from other competing microorganisms (Reimer et al., 2013; Fuchs et al., 2014; Stock, 2019; Zhang et al., 2019). This natural compound induces immunosuppression, allowing bacteria and nematodes to survive within host insect cadavers (Hasan et al., 2019). These bacteria are effective biocontrol agents because they can produce compounds with antibiotic and antifungal properties that inhibit the growth of pathogens and produce insecticidal toxins that are harmful to a wide range of insect pests (da Silva et al., 2020). A previous study by Ji and Kim (2004) revealed that compounds produced by X. nematophila can significantly inhibit the formation of hemocyte nodules, one of the immune response processes to insect-invading pathogens, similar to the findings of Mollah, Dekebo et al. (2020), who demonstrated that butanol extracts from X. hominickii culture broth effectively inhibited phospholipase A<sub>2</sub> (PLA<sub>2</sub>) activity in *S. exigua* hemocytes, which is a primary cellular defense mechanism against insect pathogens. This mechanism is involved in inhibiting PLA<sub>2</sub>, which is required for eicosanoid production and the activation of insect immune responses (da Silva *et al.*, 2020; Mollah & Kim, 2020). The inhibition of PLA<sub>2</sub> leads to a weakened immune system and septicemia in insects (Singh *et al.*, 2023). Ji *et al.* (2004) reported that the first PLA<sub>2</sub>-inhibiting compound produced by *X. nematophila* was benzylideneacetone, which exhibited antibacterial activity against plant pathogenic bacteria. In addition, proline-tyrosine (PY), acetylated phenylalanine-glycine-valine, cis-PY, indole, oxindole, and p-hydroxyphenyl propionic acid have been identified as PLA<sub>2</sub> inhibitors produced by *X. nematophila* and *P. temperata* subsp. *temperata* (Shrestha *et al.*, 2010; Seo *et al.*, 2012; Mollah, *et al.*, 2020).

Another important compound produced by symbiotic bacteria is GXPs, which are synthesized by the NRPS enzyme GXP synthetase (GxpS) in *P. luminescens* TTO1. These GXPs are closely linked to the environment of the insect host. GXPs, consisting of GXP-A to GXP-D (Jin *et al.*, 2023) and GXP-E to GXP-H (Nollmann *et al.*, 2015), are produced only when the bacteria are inside the insect larvae because insect larvae can produce precursors for GXP production, such as p-aminophenylalanine (PAPA) and its monomethylated derivative. However, homologs of the GxpS gene have been found in several *Xenorhabdus* strains, which do not produce PAPA derivatives.



Analysis of various strains of symbiotic bacteria revealed that while most strains are capable of producing GXPs, only some, including a few Xenorhabdus strains, produce PAPA-derived peptides (Nollmann et al., 2015). In the present study, the identification of GXP produced by X. stockiae revealed that this species can produce these peptides. However, further research is needed to fully understand the presence and production of GXP in X. stockiae. A previous study revealed that GXP significantly increased the toxicity of B. thuringiensis to S. exigua larvae, effectively suppressing the insect immune response (Hrithik et al., 2022). In particular, synthetic GXP-A was found to significantly inhibit the cytoplasmic expansion of hemocytes in S. exigua. Although GXP-A did not affect phenoloxidase activation, an insect humoral immune response that regulates the coagulation and melanization of hemolymph in response to pathogens, it was able to significantly reduce nodule formation in a dosedependent manner, with an IC50 value of 25.8 ng per larva (Shi et al., 2022), suggesting that this reduction in nodule formation was related to the suppression of the host immune response.

In addition to their immunosuppressive properties, symbiotic bacteria also produce other compounds, such as xenocoumacins, which are benzopyran rings in the amino acid chain, including Xcn1 and Xcn2. They are produced in the insect hemocoel and are active against both gram-positive and gram-negative bacteria and some fungi (Han et al., 2024). These compounds are synthesized by nonribosomal peptide synthetases (NRPSs) and polyketide synthases (Park et al., 2009; Qin et al., 2021). Xcn1 has more potent antifungal activity, however, the accumulation of Xcn1 is toxic to cells. To prevent self-toxicity, bacteria have evolved a mechanism to convert the stronger antibiotic Xcn1 into the weaker Xcn2. This regulatory mechanism helps bacteria avoid self-toxicity and optimizes antibiotic production for competitive advantage within the insect host (Park et al., 2009; Dong et al., 2020). Therefore, xenocoumacins are involved in antibiotic activity (Park et al., 2009). Our findings suggest that xenocoumacins may be effective against Aedes larvae. Moreover, a recent study revealed that fabclavines identified from various Photorhabdus and Xenorhabdus species (Tobias et al., 2017) exhibit strong ovicidal and larvicidal effects against A. aegypti (Ulug et al., 2024) and A. albopictus (Touray et al., 2024). Xenorhabdus cabanillasi is the most effective and causes high egg-hatching inhibition and larval mortality (Ulug et al., 2024). Fabelavines can also disrupt cell membranes, similar to xenorhabdus lipoprotein toxin, which causes cell apoptosis and membrane perforation in the anterior midgut of larvae (Kim et al., 2017; Ulug et al., 2024). Fabelavines also act as antibiotics (Fuchs et al., 2014).

Overall, the effects of secondary metabolites produced by *Photorhabdus* and *Xenorhabdus* bacteria on mosquito larvae include immune response dysfunction, disruption of crucial gut structures, and direct toxicity (Eom *et al.*, 2014; Kim *et al.*, 2017; Ulug *et al.*, 2024). In addition, this study identified GXP, xenoamicin, and protoporphyrin IX from *Xenorhabdus* bacteria. These natural compounds may be involved in the decrease in the gut microbiota of *A. aegypti* larvae, the imbalance of the immune response in *A. aegypti*, and direct toxicity to the intestinal tract, which subsequently leads to the death of *A. aegypti* larvae. Further research is needed to understand the function and role of these compounds in mosquito larvae.

In summary, *X. stockiae* extract has potential insecticidal and larvicidal effects on *A. aegypti*. Xenocoumacine is commonly found in *Xenorhabdus* bacteria and may be an effective compound against *A. aegypti*. *Xenorhabdus* bacteria are bioresources for identifying alternative insecticides.

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