Particle size distribution of the major *Alternaria alternata* allergen, Alt a 1, derived from airborne spores and subspore fragments

Łukasz Grewling, PhD, Paweł Bogawski, PhD, Agata Szymańska, MSc, Małgorzata Nowak, MSc, Łukasz Kostecki, MSc, Matt Smith, PhD

Fungal Biology

PII: \$1878-6146(20)30025-8

DOI: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.funbio.2020.02.005

Reference: FUNBIO 1114

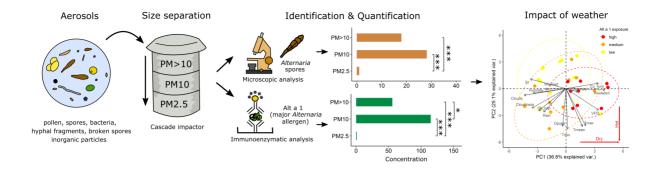
To appear in: Fungal Biology

Received Date: 10 October 2019
Revised Date: 7 February 2020
Accepted Date: 9 February 2020

Please cite this article as: Grewling, Ł., Bogawski, P., Szymańska, A., Nowak, M., Kostecki, Ł., Smith, M., Particle size distribution of the major *Alternaria alternata* allergen, Alt a 1, derived from airborne spores and subspore fragments, *Fungal Biology*, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.funbio.2020.02.005.

This is a PDF file of an article that has undergone enhancements after acceptance, such as the addition of a cover page and metadata, and formatting for readability, but it is not yet the definitive version of record. This version will undergo additional copyediting, typesetting and review before it is published in its final form, but we are providing this version to give early visibility of the article. Please note that, during the production process, errors may be discovered which could affect the content, and all legal disclaimers that apply to the journal pertain.

© 2020 The Author(s). Published by Elsevier Ltd on behalf of British Mycological Society.



### **MANUSCRIPT**

Particle size distribution of the major *Alternaria alternata* allergen, Alt a 1, derived from airborne spores and subspore fragments.

Łukasz Grewling, PhD,<sup>a</sup> Paweł Bogawski, PhD,<sup>b</sup> Agata Szymańska, MSc,<sup>a</sup> Małgorzata Nowak, MSc,<sup>a</sup> Łukasz Kostecki, MSc,<sup>a</sup> Matt Smith, PhD,<sup>c</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Laboratory of Aerobiology, Department of Systematic and Environmental Botany, Faculty of Biology, Adam Mickiewicz University, Uniwersytetu Poznańskiego 6, 61-614 Poznań,

Poland

<sup>b</sup>Laboratory of Biological Spatial Information, Department of Systematic and Environmental Botany, Faculty of Biology, Adam Mickiewicz University, Uniwersytetu Poznańskiego 6, 61-614 Poznań, Poland

<sup>c</sup>School of Science and the Environment, University of Worcester, Henwick Grove, WR2 6AJ, Worcester, United Kingdom

Correspondence to: Łukasz Grewling, Laboratory of Aeropalynology, Faculty of Biology, Adam Mickiewicz University, Uniwersytetu Poznańskiego 6, 61-614 Poznań, Poland, phone: +48 61 829 5700, email: <a href="mailto:lukaszgrewling@gmail.com">lukaszgrewling@gmail.com</a>

# 1 Abstract

2	Fungal fragments are abundant immunoreactive bioaerosols that may outnumber the
3	concentrations of intact spores in the air. To investigate the importance of Alternaria
4	fragments as sources of allergens compared to Alternaria spores, we determined the levels of
5	Alternaria spores and Alt a 1 (the major allergen in Alternaria alternata spores) collected on
6	filters within three fractions of particulate matter (PM) of different aerodynamic diameter: (1)
7	$PM_{>10}$ , (diameter> $10\mu m$ ); (2) $PM_{2.5-10}$ (2.5- $10\mu m$ ); (3) $PM_{2.5}$ (0.12- $2.5\mu m$ ). The airborne
8	particles were collected using a three stage high-volume ChemVol cascade impactor during
9	the Alternaria sporulation season in Poznań, Poland (30 days between 6 July and 22
10	September 2016). The quantification of Alt a 1 was performed using the enzyme-linked
11	immunosorbent assay. High concentrations of Alt a 1 were recorded during warm and dry
12	days characterized by high sunshine duration, lack of clouds and high dew point values.
13	Atmospheric concentrations of <i>Alternaria</i> spores correlated significantly (r=0.930, p<0.001)
14	with Alt a 1 levels. The highest Alt a 1 was recorded in $PM_{2.5-10}$ (66.8% of total Alt a 1), while
15	the lowest in $PM_{2.5}$ (<1.0%). Significantly more Alt a 1 per spore (>30%) was observed in
16	PM <sub>2.5-10</sub> than in PM <sub>&gt;10</sub> . This Alt a 1 excess may be derived from sources other than spores,
17	e.g. hyphal fragments. Overall, in outdoor air the major source of Alt a 1 are intact Alternaria
18	spores, but the impact of other fungal fragments (hyphal parts, broken spores, conidiophores)
19	cannot be neglected, as they may increase the total atmospheric Alt a 1 concentration.

Keywords: fungal allergy; bioaerosols; hyphal fragments; ELISA; cascade impactor.

20

# 23 Highlights

- 1. Alt a 1 (major allergen of *Alternaria*) was quantified in different air fractions
- 25 2. *Alternaria* spores and Alt a 1 levels correlated significantly (r=0.930, p<0.001)
- 3. The highest Alt a 1 level was detected in  $PM_{2.5-10}$ , while the lowest in  $PM_{2.5}$
- 4. Significantly more Alt a 1 per spore (31.3%) was observed in  $PM_{2.5-10}$  than in  $PM_{>10}$
- 5. Spores are the main source of Alt a 1, but the impact of hyphae cannot be neglected

### Introduction

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

42

43

44

45

46

47

48

49

50

51

52

53

Fungal aerosols include generative and vegetative particles of different size and shapes, fragmented, whole or aggregated, that can be passively or actively released into the air (Afanou et al. 2014; Despres et al. 2012; Green et al. 2006). Airborne fungal particles are very common both in indoor and outdoor environment comprising a large proportion of total aerosol particle mass (Elbert et al. 2007; Frohlich-Nowoisky et al. 2009; Womiloju et al. 2003). The size of reproductive fungal propagules (spores, conidia) varies from approximately 1µm to over 100µm (Lacey and West 2006). Airborne fragments of vegetative mycelium may be even smaller, reaching submicron dimensions (Green et al. 2006). Spores, conidiophores and hyphal fragments could be released simultaneously, but the releasing mechanism is different and depends on factors such as fungal species, weather conditions, mechanical disturbance (e.g. action of animals) as well as the texture, moisture and the vibration of the substrate (Afanou et al. 2014; Afanou et al. 2015; Frankel et al. 2014; Górny et al. 2002; Green et al. 2005a; Green et al. 2005b; Green et al. 2006; Madsen et al. 2016). Furthermore, morphological differences between intact spores and fungal fragments suggest that the atmospheric behaviour of these particles, e.g. deposition velocity, may vary substantially. For instance, measurement of fungal aerosols during aerolisation experiments have shown that counts of fungal fragments do not always correlate well with spore concentrations (especially in low air velocity) (Górny et al. 2002).

Fungal particles contain potentially harmful substances (mycotoxins and allergens) that may cause serious health problems (Rick et al. 2016). Development, persistence, and severity of allergic rhinitis and asthma have been associated with mold sensitivity, and it is estimated that around 6.5 million people worldwide have severe asthma with fungal sensitizations (Andersson et al. 2003; Denning et al. 2006; Knutsen et al. 2012). Allergenic proteins have been detected both in fungal spores (that are traditionally linked with allergic

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

68

69

70

71

72

73

74

75

76

77

78

reactions) (Twaroch et al. 2015) and in hyphal fungal fragments (Green et al. 2005c; Levetin et al. 2009). The degree that these fragments function as sources of allergens and contribute to adverse health effects has not, however, been determined (Green et al. 2006). On the one hand, subspore fragments (fragments of hyphae and conidiophores, and broken spores) are abundant bioaerosols and due to their small size may stay airborne longer and penetrate into the lower regions of the respiratory tract more easily than larger intact spores (Cho et al. 2005; Lacey and West, 2006; Pady and Gregory 1963; Pulimood et al. 2007). Also, as fragments have large surface area relative to their mass (in comparison to larger particles) they may show higher biological activity (Frankel et al. 2014). For instance, a positive association has been observed between asthma admission and the level of broken spores (but not hyphae) during thunderstorms (Pulimood et al. 2007). On the other hand, fungal allergens have predominantly been localized in the cell wall of mature spores, as shown for Alternaria sp. one of the most clinically important fungal taxa (Burbach et al. 2009; Twaroch et al. 2012). Also, significant positive correlations have been found between atmospheric levels of the major Alternaria alternata allergen (Alt a 1) and both Alternaria spore concentrations (Agarwal et al. 1983; da Silva et al. 2019) and allergy symptoms (Feo Brito et al. 2012) suggesting close dependencies between intact spores, allergens, and symptoms.

Intact spores, due to the action of unfavourable weather conditions or mechanical disturbances, may be additionally fragmented to enrich the subspore fraction of fungal aerosols (China et al. 2016; Pulimood et al. 2007). Also, many fungal spores are hygroscopic and can absorb water from the surrounding atmosphere. Eventually, due to osmotic shock, spores may burst in humid conditions releasing submicronic size fragments (China et al. 2016; Pasanen et al. 1991). Whether these fragments contain allergens remains unclear, but pollen-orientated studies revealed high amounts of pollen allergens in cytoplasmic content derived from fragmented pollen grains (Buters et al. 2015; Hoidn et al. 2005; Schäppi et al.

1997b; Schäppi et al. 1999; Taylor et al. 2002). The bursting of hyphal tips in water has also been documented (Bartnicki-Garcia and Lippman 1972). This process resembles the abortive pollen germination in rainwater, when allergens are expelled from the tip of the pollen tube (Grote et al. 2003; Schäppi et al. 1997b). A recent study showed a positive correlation between Alt a 1 and *Alternaria* spores was only observed in buildings that had high relative humidity (da Silva et al. 2019). In general, moisture is essential in fungal spore germination (Dagno et al. 2011; Hatzipapis et al. 2002; Vloutoglou et al. 1996), and it has been shown that *Alternaria* spores in extraction liquid release allergens in just 15 minutes (Sweeney et al. 1985). Germinating spores were also observed in the warm and moist environment of the nasal cavity, and this mechanism was postulated as an additional source of allergens (Green et al. 2003; Sercombe et al. 2006).

This study aims to determine whether subspore fragments of *Alternaria* can be a significant source of Alt a 1 in ambient air (in comparison to intact *Alternaria* spores) and to investigate the relationship between allergen content and environmental conditions, especially those related to moisture. This was achieved by examining the levels of Alt a 1 allergen released from airborne particles collected on filters within three fractions of particulate matter (PM) and relating these to various weather parameters.

### **Materials and Methods**

Fungal aerosol collection and quantification

Airborne *Alternaria* particles were collected using a high-volume (400 l/min) ChemVol cascade impactor (Butraco Inc., Son, Netherlands) (Buters et al. 2012; Demokritou et al. 2002). The ChemVol contains three impaction stages for collecting particles of different aerodynamic cut-off diameters i.e. (1) >10μm (PM<sub>>10</sub>); (2) 2.5-10 μm (PM<sub>2.5-10</sub>); (3) 0.12-2.5

103	μm (PM <sub>2.5</sub> ). Alternaria spores are large with the aerodynamic diameters ranging from about
104	$10\ to\ 30\ \mu m$ (McCartney et al. 1993). The ChemVol sampler therefore seemed a suitable
105	collecting device for separation intact Alternaria spores from smaller fungal fragments
106	(hyphal parts and dissected spores). Alternaria particles were collected in Poznań, during the
107	main Alternaria sporulation season (30 days between 6 July and 22 September 2016, Tab.
108	1S). The highest daily Alternaria spore concentrations in Poznań are observed from the end of
109	June to the middle of September, with the seasonal peak recorded usually in the beginning of
110	August (Grewling et al. 2019; Kasprzyk et al. 2013). A previous study showed that the mean
111	seasonal Alternaria spore concentration in Poznań was the highest among other cities in
112	Central and Eastern Europe (Kasprzyk et al. 2015), which is related to the fact that the city is
113	located in the agricultural region of Western Poland. Field crops are considered the main
114	source (host plants) of various Alternaria species. In the studied area the predominant species
115	are Alternaria alternata, A. brassicicola, and A. brassicae as they infect oilseed rape fields
116	that are abundant in Western Poland (Jajor et al. 2012; Baranowski et al. 2015). In addition,
117	other crop pathogens are locally common, such as A. solani (infecting potatoes), A. porri
118	(pathogen of onion), and A. dauci that infects carrots (Gawińska-Urbanowicz and Kapsa
119	2013, Ogórek et al. 2011). However, it should be stressed that spores of different <i>Alternaria</i>
120	species are morphologically similar and so, when airborne samples are investigated,
121	Alternaria spores cannot be identified to species level and are therefore grouped to genus
122	level. The ChemVol was located at roof level (18 m a.g.l.) in the northern part of Poznań
123	(52.46'N, 16.92'E) (Fig. S1). The sampling time was 24 hours, from 12:00 to 12:00 of the
124	next day, but is described as a "daily average" throughout. The collection substrates were
125	polyurethane foam filters. Each filter (three filters per day) was cut into three equal pieces and
126	extracted in the dark (4 hours in 0.1 M ammonium bicarbonate buffer). After filter extraction
127	the content was centrifuged (10 min at 1699g). The supernatant was used for quantification of

128	the major Alternaria alternata allergen (Alt a 1), while sediment was used for Alternaria
129	spore calculation. The quantification of Alt a 1 in each air fraction was performed using the
130	enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) following the protocol described in Grewling
131	et al. (2019). Due to a high degree of structural similarity between Alt a 1 homologues
132	proteins (Saenz-de-Santamaria et al., 2006; Hong et al. 2005, Amado et al. 2016), fungal
133	species closely related to A. alternata could also be detected by ELISA. Therefore, when
134	describing the Alt a 1 concentration in the air the results are not limited only to A. alternata,
135	but may also refer to other Alternaria species. Other fungal genera, e.g. Urocladium and
136	Stemphylium that show close phylogenetic relationship to Alternaria (Gutierrez-Rodriguez et
137	al., 2011), should not markedly affect the obtained results as concentrations of their spores in
138	the air are often very low (Bednarz and Pawłowska 2016; Šcevkova and Kovac 2019). The
139	daily mean Alt a 1 concentration was expressed as pg/m <sup>3</sup> . The number of spores extracted
140	from filters was calculated using a method adopted from the estimation of pollen production
141	(Bogawski et al. 2016). After centrifugation, the sediment with spores was diluted in 200 $\mu$ l of
142	distilled water. This was vortexed to obtain a homogenous solution and 25ul was transferred
143	to a microscope slide and gently spread within 1.5 x 1.5 cm area. The spores were counted
144	under a light microscope (magnification 200x) in three horizontal lines. Taking into account
145	the microscope field of view and number of lines the total examined area was 49.5 mm <sup>2</sup> , i.e.
146	$22\%$ of total slide area ( $225~\text{mm}^2$ ). This procedure was repeated three times and the number of
147	spores was averaged. The obtained value was used to calculate the mean spore concentration
148	in $1\mu l$ of solution. We decided to not express the spore concentration in 1 $m^3$ of air due to the
149	uncertainty in estimating the total number of spores collected on filters (this value cannot be
150	precisely calculated using proposed method of spore extraction).
151	To validate the correctness of spore enumeration from filters, the results were compared with
152	the mean "daily" level of spores (from 12:00 to 12:00 of the next day) obtained by routine

methods used in aerobiology, i.e. volumetric Hirst spore trap (Hirst, 1952), located next to the ChemVol impactor. The Hirst (1952) spore trap is a impaction type sampler where air is sucked at a rate of 10 l/min through a 2 mm ×14 mm orifice. Behind the orifice the air flows over a rotating drum that moves past the inlet at 2 mm/h and is covered with an adhesive coated, transparent plastic tape. Airborne spores impact on the tape to give a time related sample. Following its removal from the trap, the tape is divided into segments corresponding to 24-h periods (48 mm in length). Each segment is mounted between a glass slide and cover slip, and the samples are examined by light microscopy (×400 magnification). Spores were counted along two longitudinal transects following the method described in literature (Maya-Manzano et al. 2016). The correlation between both datasets was positive and statistically significant (Pearson correlation coefficient, r = 0.930, p<0.05) ensuring that selected methods give comparable results. The usefulness of the ChemVol impactor for bioaerosols collection has also been validated during the EU funded HIALINE project (Buters et al. 2015). Weather data collection Weather data were retrieved from the official weather station of the National Institute of Meteorology and Water Management located at the Poznań Ławica airport (app. 5 km southwest from aerobiological station) (Fig. S1). The temporal resolution of weather data was adjusted to the Alt a 1 collection time (12:00-12:00). The following meteorological parameters were analysed: daily mean, minimum and maximum air temperature (°C), dew point (°C), vapour pressure deficit - VPD (kPa), relative humidity (%), rainfall (mm), sunshine duration (h), wind speed (m/s), cloudiness (unit 1/8), daily fraction of specific cloud types (%): Cumulus humilis (Cu hum)/Cumulus fractus (Cu fra), Cumulus mediocris (Cu med)/Cumulus congestus (Cu con), Stratocumulus (Sc), Cumulonimbus capillatus (Cu cap),

#### Statistical analysis

and daily fraction of all types of clouds (%).

153

154

155

156

157

158

159

160

161

162

163

164

165

166

167

168

169

170

171

172

173

174

175

176

177

178	The concentrations of Alt a 1 and <i>Alternaria</i> spores collected in three air fractions were
179	compared by the Kruskal-Wallis H test and Dunn's procedure for multiple pairwise
180	comparison. P-values have been adjusted using Benjamini-Hochberg correction.
181	Relationships between Alt a 1 levels and Alternaria spore concentrations in selected air
182	fractions were checked by simple linear regression analysis. Daily mean concentration of Alt
183	a 1 in every stage of ChemVol sampler has been correlated (by Pearson correlation
184	coefficient) with meteorological parameters. Also, the ratio in the level of Alt a 1 (or spores)
185	between three investigated air fractions has been correlated with meteorological parameters.
186	Data that were right (positively) skewed have been transformed (log+1). The multivariate
187	principal component analysis (PCA) was performed to select the major weather conditions
188	affecting the daily Alt a 1 concentration. Days with Alt a 1 concentration were divided into
189	three groups based on two cut points estimated via probability quantiles (33.3% and 66.6%),
190	i.e.: "low" (daily Alt a 1 levels< 1.98 pg Alt a 1/m <sup>3</sup> , n=10), "medium" (1.98-6.71 pg Alt a
191	1/m <sup>3</sup> , n=10) and "high" concentration (>6.71 pg Alt a 1/m <sup>3</sup> , n=10). Before PCA analysis, the
192	data were Box-Cox transformed, scaled and centred. All statistical analysis has been
193	performed using computing environment R (R Core Team 2018) and packages: FactoMineR
194	(Lê et al. 2008), corrplot (Wei and Simko 2017), caret (Kuhn 2008), and factoextra
195	(Kassambara and Mundt 2017).

196

197

198

199

200

201

# Results

Distribution of Alt a 1 in different fraction of particulate matter

The highest amount of Alt a 1 was detected in the 2.5-10  $\mu$ m (PM<sub>2.5-10</sub>) air fraction (Fig. 1) and was significantly higher (p<0.05) than in two other air fractions (Fig. 2). The Alt a 1 concentration was extremely low (<1% of total Alt a 1) in the PM<sub>2.5</sub> air fraction that contained

the smallest particles (i.e. <2.5  $\mu$ m). A similar pattern was observed in relation to *Alternaria* spores, as the highest spore level was observed in PM<sub>2.5-10</sub>, while the lowest in PM<sub>2.5</sub>. Airborne concentrations of Alt a 1 were significantly (p<0.001) related to *Alternaria* spore levels collected in PM<sub>>10</sub>, PM<sub>2.5-10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> (R<sup>2</sup>=0.801, R<sup>2</sup>=0.819, and R<sup>2</sup>=0.454, respectively) (Fig. 3). The correlation between total Alt a 1 and *Alternaria* spores was positive and significant (R<sup>2</sup>=0.865, p<0.001). Significantly more Alt a 1 per spore (31.3%) was observed in PM<sub>2.5-10</sub> than in PM<sub>>10</sub> (p=0.015).

# Impact of weather on Alt a 1 distribution

There were significant positive correlations (p<0.05) between daily *Alternaria* spore levels collected in the Hirst type trap and daily mean, maximum and minimum temperature, VPD, dew point, and sunshine duration. Similar relationships were recorded between daily levels of Alt a 1 (collected by ChemVol sampler) and weather conditions (Fig. 4). For instance, the Alt a 1 in every air fraction correlated positively with daily maximum (r>0.387, p>0.05) and mean temperature (r>0.384, p>0.05). Furthermore, statistically significant positive correlations were recorded between Alt a 1 in the PM<sub>2.5</sub> fraction and fair weather *Cumulus humilis* clouds (r= 0.584, p<0.001), sunshine duration (r= 0.567, p=0.001), and VPD (r= 0.505, p=0.004).

On the other hand, humidity (r= -0.447, p=0.013), the occurrence of all types of clouds (r= -0.552, p=0.001) and cloudiness (r= -0.495, p=0.005) all had significant negative associations with levels of Alt a 1 in the PM<sub>2.5</sub> fraction. In addition, there was a significant negative correlation between Alt a 1 and wind speed (r= -0.372) in the larger fractions. There were no significant relationships between Alt a 1 concentrations and rainfall or *Cumulonimbus capillaris* clouds. Finally, no significant relationships have been observed between *Alternaria* spores and meteorological parameters related to "humid conditions", such

226 as cloudiness, the occurrence of *Stratocumulus* and all types of clouds, rainfall and increased 227 humidity.

Considering the impact of meteorological conditions on the ratio of Alt a 1 (or spores) recorded in different air fractions, only two significant correlations have been observed: (1) Alt a 1 in PM2.5 to Alt a 1 in >PM2.5 was negatively correlated with humidity (r= -0.411, p=0.024); (2) Spores in PM2.5 to spores collected in >PM2.5 correlated significantly with sunshine duration (r=-0.413, p=0.023) (Fig. 5).

PCA supports results of correlation analysis, i.e. higher Alt a 1 concentrations were generally recorded during warm and dry days characterized by high sunshine duration (PC1), dew point and daily mean, maximum and minimum temperatures (PC2) (Fig. 6, Fig. S2 & S3). In addition, the occurrence of *Stratocumulus* clouds and all types of clouds (PC1) showed strong negative relationship with Alt a 1 concentrations. The first two principal components explained 65.7% of variability in the dataset (Fig. S2).

### **Discussion**

Sources of Alt a 1

Our study demonstrates that the daily levels of *Alternaria* spores correlated significantly with Alt a 1 (r=0.930, p<0.001), and we can therefore assume that the majority of atmospheric Alt a 1 was derived from intact *Alternaria* spores. Spores take part in the infection of plants and Alt a 1 is a protein involved in plant pathogenesis, i.e. interacts with plant defence proteins such as PR5 (Garrido-Arandia et al. 2016). In other words, spores need Alt a 1 to block plant defences and to favour fungal entry into the plant. In view of these findings, it is not surprising that Alt a 1 was located in the highest concentrations in the cell walls of old and

249

250

251

252

253

254

255

256

257

258

259

260

261

262

263

264

265

266

267

268

269

270

271

272

273

germinating spores (Mitakakis et al. 2001; Twaroch et al. 2012) because the allergen is located exactly where it is most needed. The length of Alternaria spores vary from approximately 20 µm to as much as 200 µm (Simmons 2007) and are many times larger than micronic sized fungal fragments. In addition, only part of the hyphal fragments are immunoreactive, as around 25% of all hyphae expressed detectable allergens (Green et al. 2005c). Hundreds of fragments are therefore needed to exceed the allergen load of a single spore, and comparative studies showed that the differences between the levels of airborne hyphal fragments and spores are not in fact as high. According to Green et al. (2005c) fungal hyphae concentrations surpassed spores only by around 2-3 times. Higher differences (exceeding even 300-fold) have been observed in aerosolization experiments (Górny et al. 2002), but the mean difference between the number of hyphal fragments and spores was much lower (varying from 10 to 60-fold depending on air velocity). In addition, in a study conducted in two US cities, fungal fragments were present on 99% of all days, although spores rather than hyphae predominated in the air (Levetin et al. 2009). What is more, it should be stressed that in environmental samples, it is extremely difficult to morphologically distinguish the hyphae of different fungal species (immunostaining and DNA extraction techniques may be a solution) (Green et al. 2005b; Rittenour et al. 2012). In some of the studies mentioned previously (Green et al. 2005c; Levetin et al. 2009), only total hyphae fragments were counted (without species recognition). This approach, although valuable, does not allow for the direct comparison between spores and hyphae of particular fungal species, so the contribution of mycelial fragments could be overestimated.

The highest level of *Alternaria* spores (and Alt a 1) was observed in the PM<sub>2.5-10</sub> air fraction. This is surprising as, according to previous studies, the aerodynamic diameter of *Alternaria* spores exceeds 10  $\mu$ m (McCartney et al. 1993; Yamamoto et al. 2014). Most of the spores should therefore be deposited in the PM<sub>>10</sub> air fraction, as it was presented in pollen-

274

275

276

277

278

279

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

291

292

293

294

295

296

297

298

oriented studies (based on the same experimental setup) where around 90% of pollen allergens (and therefore also pollen grains) were detected in PM>10 fraction (Buters et al. 2012; Buters et al. 2015; Galan et al. 2013; Grewling et al. 2016). It is worth noting, however, that *Alternaria* colonies were also isolated from air samplers with particle diameter lower than 10µm (Kim et al. 2010; Sayer et al. 1969). Furthermore, DNA barcoding analysis (Yamamoto et al. 2012) showed that the concentration of Alternaria DNA was also very high in the PM<sub>2.5</sub>-<sub>10</sub> fraction (although DNA might originate from both fungal spores and fragments). Presumably, the high number of Alternaria spores in the PM<sub>2.5-10</sub> fraction derived from their characteristic elongated club shape (in contrast to spherical pollen grains). McCartney et al. (1993) stressed that because of the shape of Alternaria spores, the mass is not uniformly distributed along their length, and thus it is difficult to predict their aerodynamic characteristics. In addition, the aerodynamic diameter of fungal spores cannot be accurately estimated solely based on the physical diameter but needs additional information, e.g. on the density of the spores and ambient air humidity (Reponen et al. 2001). For instance, it has been shown that high humidity may increase the diameter of Cladosporium spores by as much as 180% (Pasanen et al. 1991).

Our study revealed that the proportion of Alt a 1 to spores in the PM<sub>2.5-10</sub> fraction was around 30% higher than in PM<sub>>10</sub>. Presumably, the 30% excess of Alt a 1 in PM<sub>2.5-10</sub> derived from subspore hyphal fragments. However, it should be noted, that we did not quantify the level of *Alternaria* fungal fragments (based on their morphology) in air samples in this study (only Alt a 1 derived from fragments). When interpreting the peculiarities in allergen concentrations in the air, one should also remember about high variation in the allergenicity of fungal spores (Grewling et al. 2019; Mitakakis et al. 2001). Grewling et al. (2019) revealed differences of up to eightfold in day-to-day variations in *Alternaria* spore allergenicity that could be linked to varying species composition during the sporulation season. Spores of

different *Alternaria* species vary in their aerodynamic properties (McCartney et al. 1993), and so species-specific variations in the aerodynamic behaviour of spores (with different Alt a 1 content) may also affect the amount of Alt a 1 recorded in different fractions of particulate matter.

# Impact of weather on Alt a 1 concentration

The results of PCA and correlation analysis showed that the highest Alt a 1 levels were recorded during sunny, warm and dry days, when weather conditions favoured the upward movement of air currents (high temperature, sunshine duration, dew point and VPD, and presence of *Cumulus* clouds). These conditions are known to positively affect the daily concentrations of *Alternaria* spores (Grinn-Gofroń and Bosiacka 2015; Hjelmroos 1993; Stennett and Beggs 2004; Troutt and Levetin 2001). It is striking to note that the strength and direction of correlations between meteorological factors and both Alt a 1 (especially in PM<sub>>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5-10</sub> fractions) and *Alternaria* spore concentrations were generally very similar (see Fig. 4), which supports the idea that the main sources of Alt a 1 are *Alternaria* spores.

In contrast to findings from pollen-oriented studies where humid conditions increased the fraction of allergens related to small fragments (Buters et al. 2015; Schäppi et al. 1997a), our experiment showed an opposite situation. The ratio of Alt a 1 in PM<sub>2.5</sub> to Alt a 1 in larger fractions increased with decreasing relative humidity. This result concurs with previous findings (Madsen 2012) showing that the fraction of the fungal particles being of respirable size was the highest for particles aerosolized at low relative humidity. We suspect that the different behavior of pollen and fungal spores arises from differences in the wall structure and the role of water in pollen/fungal spore germination. The release of subpollen allergens through pollen wall bursting (due to high humidity) was mainly described for pollen grains

323

324

325

326

327

328

329

330

331

332

333

334

335

336

337

338

339

340

341

342

343

344

345

346

347

characterized by a delicate and thin pollen wall like grasses (Poaceae) (Schäppi et al. 1999, Taylor et al. 2002; Buters et al. 2015). It has not, however, been documented in pollen with thicker walls like mugwort (Artemisia sp.). In this species the concentration of subspore particle does not show positive relationship with air humidity (Grewling et al. 2020). Water has an adverse effect on pollen longevity and viability and so plants developed certain protective mechanisms (e.g. specific floral morphology, production of germination inhibitors) to prevent pollen from water damaging or undesirable germination (outside the stigma) (Eisikowitch and Woodell, 1974; Mao and Huang 2009). In contrast, water is essential for fungal spore germination, and spores of some Alternaria species only germinate at 100% relative humidity (Dickinson and Bottomley, 1980; Hatzipapas et al., 2002). Fungal spores are therefore adapted to moisture conditions and likely more resistant to rupturing by osmotic shock than thin-wall pollen grains. The recent study by Lawler et al. (2020) documented the occurrence of fungal nanoparticles in the air, which peaked around 1.5 days after the rainfall. Similar behavior was also observed in the Amazon, where daily increase in fungal particles was related to high nighttime relative humidity (China et al. 2016). This suggests that postrain processes related to fungal spore germination may play a role in the release of nanoparticles (Lawler et al. 2020). Considering the fragmentation of Alternaria spores, the mechanical damage to spores (e.g. observed during grass moving or harvesting (Pulimood et al. 2007)) seems to be more important than osmotic rupture.

In addition, our study showed that fine fungal fragments were more likely, than larger particles, to become airborne when *Cumulus humilis* clouds were observed. This type of cloud indicates unstable atmospheric conditions below the clouds, especially during their formation. Such turbulent conditions could occur during intense sunshine duration preceding *Cumulus humilis* formation and/or in the presence of *Cu hum* clouds (Stull 1985). Indeed, *Cu hum* and sunshine duration are highly positively correlated with the amount of Alt a 1 in smallest air

fraction (see Figure 4). Consequently, higher numbers of small, immunoreactive fungal particles may occur during weak or moderate convection (e.g. warm air ascending with velocity 2-5 m s<sup>-1</sup>). Larger fungal fragments (>2.5µm) therefore seem to be more loosely connected with weak convection, probably because they require stronger air movements to overcome gravity and drag.

Deposition velocity of airborne particles is the lowest (<0.03 cm s<sup>-1</sup>) for particles of aerodynamic diameter between 0.1-1.0μm. For larger particles (>5.0μm) deposition velocity strongly increases (>1.0 cm s<sup>-1</sup>) and sedimentation becomes a predominant atmospheric process of particle removal (Nicholson 1995). According to Woo et al. (2018) *Alternaria* spores with aerodynamic diameter of 10μm had a deposition velocity of 0.63 cm s<sup>-1</sup>. Fine hyphal fragments (0.12-2.5μm) might hypothetically gain in importance in indoor environments (Górny et al. 2002) or during specific weather conditions, e.g. thunderstorm events when many particles are uplifted, mixed and damaged (D'Amato et al. 2017; Pulimood et al. 2007). In our study, we investigated the effect of "storm-like" conditions, e.g. presence of *Cumulonimbus* clouds on Alt a 1 concentrations, but no significant relationships have been observed. Also, episodes of rain were uncommon during the study period and so we could not test the hypothesis linking occurrence of light rainfall (<1 mm) with increased level of allergens (Schäppi et al. 1997a; Schäppi et al. 1997b).

Alt a 1 in finest air fraction (PM 0.12-2.5 µm)

Previous studies have shown that the concentration of the smallest fungal fragments ( $\sim 1\mu m$ ), in comparison to spores, can be relatively high in the air (Reponen et al. 2007, Adhikari et al. 2009, Lee and Liao 2014). In these studies, the detection and enumeration of fungal fragments was mainly based on the concentration of  $(1\rightarrow 3)$ - $\beta$ -D-glucan, i.e. polysaccharide abundant in

fungal cell walls (Rylander 1999). Such methods do not, however, allow fragments belonging to specific fungal taxa to be identified, so all fungal fragments were grouped and counted together. When a molecular technique was applied, no sign of Alternaria DNA was found in the PM<sub>2.5</sub> fraction (Yamamoto et al. 2012). In the current study, we used a family-specific allergen that occurs in A. alternata and other members of Pleosporaceae family (as Alt a 1 homologs) (Hong et al. 2005; Sáenz-de-Santamaría et al. 2006). Based on this detection method, the total level of Alt a 1 in 0.12-2.5 µm air fraction was extremely low (1% of total Alt a 1). This result concurs with pollen allergen studies where no allergens was found in the PM<sub>2.5</sub> fraction (Buters et al. 2010; Buters et al. 2012). Green et al. (2005b) postulated that the amount of allergens released from a hyphal fragment might be a function of the critical fragment size, which is the minimum size at which a fungal fragment remains viable. In the study conducted by Górny et al. (2002) it was shown that immunoreactive fungal fragments of Aspergillus, Penicillium and Cladosporium might be as small as 0.3µm. The critical sizes for Alternaria species have not, however, been established. In addition, Buters et al. (2010) showed that airborne pollen allergens of micronic size are easily absorbed by diesel soot particles. It was postulated that this phenomenon could be responsible for the lack of pollen allergens in micron-sized air fraction (de Weger et al. 2013). These studies and our results suggest that the vast majority of immunoreactive airborne Alternaria particles belongs to spores and larger fungal fragments.

391

392

393

394

395

396

372

373

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

390

### **Conclusions**

Our study showed that the main source of airborne Alt a 1 in the outdoor environment are intact *Alternaria* spores (app. 80%), which are deposited in both the  $PM_{>10}$  and  $PM_{2.5-10}$  air fractions. The possible contribution of other fungal particles is the most visible in  $PM_{2.5-10}$ , where fungal fragments may be responsible for more than 30% of total Alt a 1. The amount of

allergen related to the finest fungal fragments (PM <sub>2.5</sub> ) is very low, almost negligible from
clinical and epidemiological point of view. This is important news, as the quantification of
Alternaria spores in the air (without mycelial fragments) is currently a routine practice in
many aerobiological laboratories. Our results suggest that such information could be used as a
relevant approximation of exposure to airborne Alt a 1 (based on very strong correlation
between spores and Alt a 1). Nevertheless, high variations in allergen content between
individual spores should also be considered to fully evaluate the exposure level to Alternaria
allergens.

405

406

397

398

399

400

401

402

403

404

# Acknowledgements

- 407 The study was supported by the Polish National Science Centre grant no.
- 408 2013/09/D/NZ7/00358. Authors would like to thank Karolina Mizeraczyk and Julia
- 409 Gwiazdowska for their help with samples preparations.

410

411

# **Conflict of Interest**

- The authors report no conflicts of interest. The authors alone are responsible for the content
- and the writing of the paper.

414

415

## References

- 416 Adhikari A, Jung J, Reponen T, Lewis JS, DeGrasse EC, Grimsley LF, Chew GL,
- Grinshpun SA, 2009. Aerosolization of fungi,  $(1\rightarrow 3)$ - $\beta$ -D-glucan, and endotoxin from

118	flood-affected materials collected in New Orleans homes. Environmental Research
119	<b>109(3):</b> 215-224.
120	Afanou KA, Straumfors A, Skogstad A, Nilsen T, Synnes O, Skaar I, Hjeljord L, Tronsmo A,
121	Green BJ, Eduard W, 2014. Submicronic Fungal Bioaerosols: High-Resolution
122	Microscopic Characterization and Quantification. Applied and Environment
123	Microbiology, <b>80(22):</b> 7122-7130.
124	Afanou KA, Straumfors A, Skogstad A, Skaar I, Hjeljord L, Skare O, Green BJ, Tronsmo A,
125	Eduard W, 2015. Profile and Morphology of Fungal Aerosols Characterized by Field
126	Emission Scanning Electron Microscopy (FESEM). Aerosol Science and Technology,
127	<b>49(6):</b> 423-435.
128	Agarwal MK, Swanson MC, Reed CE, Yunginger JW, 1983. Immunochemical quantitation of
129	airborne short ragweed, Alternaria, antigen E, and Alt-I allergens: a two-year
130	prospective study. Journal of Allergy and Clinical Immunology, 72(1): 40-45.
131	Amado M and Barnes C, 2016 Allergenic Microfungi and Human Health: A Review on
132	Exposure, Sensitization, and Sequencing Allergenic Proteins. In Biology of
133	Microfungi, Springer, pp. 429-449.
134	Andersson M, Downs S, Mitakakis TZ, Leuppi J, Marks G, 2003. Natural exposure to
135	Alternaria spores induces allergic rhinitis symptoms in sensitized children. Pediatric
136	Allergy and Immunology, <b>14</b> : 100-105.
137	Baranowski P, Jedryczka M, Mazurek W, Babula-Skowrońska D, Siedliska A, Kaczmarek J,
138	2015. Hyperspectral and thermal imaging of oilseed rape (Brassica napus) response to
139	fungal species of the genus Alternaria. PLoS ONE, 31(10(3)): e0122913.
140	Bartnicki-Garcia S, Lippman E, 1972. The Bursting Tendency of Hyphal Tips of Fungi:
141	Presumptive Evidence for a Delicate Balance between Wall Synthesis and Wall Lysis
142	in Apical Growth. Journal of General Microbiology, 73: 487-500.

143	Bednarz A, Pawłowska S, 2016. A fugal calendar for the atmosphere of Szczecin, Poland.
144	Acta Agrobotanica 69(3):1-9.
145	Bogawski P., Grewling Ł., Frątczak A. 2016. Flowering phenology and potential pollen
146	emission of three Artemisia species in relation to airborne pollen data in Poznań
147	(Western Poland). Aerobiologia 32:265-276.
148	Burbach GJ, Heinzerling LM, Edenharter G, Bachert C, Bindslev-Jenses C, Bonini S,
149	Bousquet J, Bousquet-Rouanet L, Bousquet PJ, Bresciani M, Bruno A, Canonica GW,
150	Darsow U, Demoly P, Durham S, Fokkens WJ, Giavi S, Gjomarkaj M, Gramiccioni C
151	Haahtela T, Kowalski ML, Magyar P, Murakozi G, Orosz M, Papadopoulos NG,
152	Rohnelt C, Stingl G, Todo-Bom A, Von Mutius E, Wiesner A, Wohrl S, Zuberbier T,
153	2009. GA2LEN skin test study II: clinical relevance of inhalant allergen sensitizations
154	in Europe. Allergy, <b>64</b> : 1507-1515.
155	Buters J, Prank M, Sofiev M, Pusch G, Albertini R, Annesi-Maesano I, Antunes C, Behrendt
156	H, Berger U, Bandao R, Celenk S, Galan Soldevilla C, Grewling Ł, Jackowiak B,
157	Kennedy R, Rantio Lehtimäki A, Resse G, Sauliene I, Smith M, Thibaudon M, Weber
158	B, Cecchi L., 2015. Variation of the group 5 grass pollen allergen content of airborne
159	pollen in relation to geographic location and time in season. Journal of Allergy and
160	Clinical Immunology, <b>136(1):</b> 87-95.e6.
161	Buters J, Thibaudon M, Smith M, Kennedy R, Rantio Lehtimäki A, Albertini R, Reese G,
162	Weber B, Galán C, Brandao R, Antunes C, Jäger S, Berger U, Celenk S, Grewling Ł,
163	Jackowiak B, Sauliene I, Weichenmeier I, Pusch G, Sarioglu H, Ueffing M, Behrendt
164	H, Prank M, Sofiev M, Cecchi L, 2012. Release of Bet v 1 from birch pollen from 5
165	European countries. Results from the HIALINE study. Atmospheric Environment, 55:
166	496-505.

167	Buters JT, Weichenmeier MI, Ochs S, Pusch G, Kreyling W, Boere AJF, Schober W,
168	Behrendt H, 2010. The allergen Bet v 1 in fractions of ambient air deviates from birch
169	pollen counts. Allergy, 65: 850-858.
170	China S, Wang B, Weis J, Rizzo L, Brito J, Cirino GG, Kovarik L, Artaxo P, Gilles MK,
171	Laskin A, 2016. Rupturing of biological spores as a source of secondary particles in
172	Amazonia. Environmental Science and Technology, 50(22): 12179-12186.
173	Cho S-H, Seo S-C, Schmechel D, Grinshpun SA, Reponen T, 2005. Aerodynamic
174	characteristics and respiratory deposition of fungal fragments. Atmospheric
175	Environment, <b>39</b> : 5454-5465.
176	D'Amato G, Annesi-Maesano I, Molino A, Vitale C, D'Amato M, 2017. Thunderstorm-
177	related asthma attacks. Journal of Allergy and Clinical Immunology, 139(6): 1786-
178	1787.
179	Dagno K, Lahlali R, Diourte M, Jijakli MH, 2011. Effect of temperature and water activity on
180	spore germination and mycelial growth of three fungal biocontrol agents against water
181	hyacinth (Eichhornia crassipes). Journal of Applied Microbiology, 110(2): 521-528.
182	Da Silva HA, Divjan A, Dannemiller KC, Acosta LM, Miller RL, Green BJ, Perzanowski M,
183	2019. Correlations between Alt a 1 concentrations, Alternaria alternata and
184	Pleasporaceae measured by molecular methods in New York City house dust. Journal
185	of Allergy and Clinical Immunology, AB122 Abstracts
186	de Weger LA, Bergmann KC, Rantio Lehtimäki A, Dahl A, Buters J, Dechamp C, Belmonte
187	J, Thibaudon M, Cecchi L, Besancenot J-P, Galan C, Waisel Y, 2013. Impact of
188	Pollen. In: M. Sofiev and K.C. Bergmann (Editors), Allergenic Pollen. A Review of the
189	Production, Release, Distribution and Health Impacts Springer, Dordrecht.

Volume Cascade Impactor for Toxicological and Chemical Characterization Studies.  *Aerosol Science and Technology, 36: 925-933.  Denning DW, O'Driscoll R, Hogaboam CM, Bowyer P, Niven RM, 2006. The link between fungi and severe asthma: a summary of the evidence. *European Respiratory Journal*,
Denning DW, O'Driscoll R, Hogaboam CM, Bowyer P, Niven RM, 2006. The link between fungi and severe asthma: a summary of the evidence. <i>European Respiratory Journal</i> ,
fungi and severe asthma: a summary of the evidence. European Respiratory Journal,
<b>27:</b> 615-626.
Despres VR, Huffman JA, Burrows SM, Hoose C, Safatov AS, Buryak G, Frohlich-Nowoisky
J, Elbert W, Andreae MO, Poschl U, Jaenicke R, 2012. Primary biological aerosol
particles in the atmosphere: a review. Tellus B: Chemical and Physical Meteorology,
<b>64</b> (15598).
Dickinson CH, Bottomley D, 1980. Germination and Growth of Alternaria and Cladosporium
in Relation to Their Activity in the Phylloplane. Trans Br Mycol Soc 74: 309-319.
Eisikowitch D, Woodell SRJ, 1974. The Effect of Water on Pollen Germination in Two
Species of Primula. Evolution 28: 692-694.
Elbert W, Taylor PE, Andreae MO, Poschl U, 2007. Contribution of fungi to primary biogenic
aerosols in the atmosphere: wet and dry discharged spores, carbohydrates, and
inorganic ions. Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics, 7(17): 4569-4588.
Feo Brito F, Alonso AM, Carnes J, Martin-Martin R, Fernandez-Caldas E, Galindo PA,
Alfaya T, Amo-Salas M, 2012. Correlation between Alt a 1 levels and clinical
symptoms in Alternaria alternata-monosensitized patients. Journal of Investigational
Allergology and Clinical Immunology, 22(3): 154-159.
Frankel M, Hansen EW, Madsen AM, 2014. Effect of relative humidity on the aerosolization
and total inflammatory potential of fungal particles from dust-inoculated gypsum
boards. Indoor Air, <b>24(1):</b> 16-28.

514	Frohlich-Nowoisky J, Pickersgill DA, Despres VR, Poschl U, 2009. High diversity of fungi in
515	air particulate matter. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United
516	Stated of America, <b>106(31)</b> : 12814-12819.
517	Galán C, Antunes C, Brandao R, Torres C, Garcia-Mozo H, Caeiro E, Ferro R, Prank M,
518	Sofiev M, Albertini R, Berger U, Cecchi L, Celenk S, Grewling Ł, Jackowiak B, Jäger
519	S, Kennedy R, Rantio-Lehtimäki A, Reese G, Sauliene I, Smith M, Thibaudon M,
520	Weber B, Weichenmeier I, Pusch G, Buters JTM, 2013. Airborne olive pollen counts
521	are not representative of exposure to the major olive allergen Ole e 1. Allergy, 68:
522	809-812.
523	Garrido-Arandia M, Silva-Navas J, Ramirez-Castillejo C, Cubells-Baeza N, Gomez-Casado
524	C, Barber D, Pozo JC, Melendi PG, Pacios LF, Diaz-Perales A, 2016. Characterisation
525	of a flavonoid ligand of the fungal protein Alt a 1. Scientific Reports, 6: 3346.
26	Gawińska-Urbanowicz H, Kapsa J, 2013. Monitoring results of population Alternaria genus
527	in potato crops. Progress in Plant Protection 53(3):527-532.
528	Górny RL, Reponen T, Willeke K, Schmechel D, Robine E, Boissier M, Grinshpun SA, 2002.
529	Fungal fragments as indoor air biocontaminants. Applied and Environment
30	Microbiology, <b>68(7):</b> 3522-3531.
31	Green BJ, Mitakakis TZ, Tovey ER, 2003. Allergen detection form 11 fungal species before
32	and after germination. Journal of Allergy and Clinical Immunology, 111(2): 285-289.
33	Green BJ, Schmechel D, Sercombe JK, Tovey ER, 2005a. Enumeration and detection of
34	aerosolized Aspergillus fumigatus and Penicillium chrysogenum conidia and hyphae
35	using a novel double immunostaining technique. Journal of Immunological Methods,
36	<b>307:</b> 127-134.

537	Green BJ, Schmechel D, Tovey ER, 2005b. Detection of aerosolized Alternaria alternata
538	conidia, hyphae, and fragments by using a novel double-immunostaining technique.
539	Clinical and Diagnostic Laboratory Immunology, 12(9): 1114-1116.
540	Green BJ, Sercombe JK, Tovey ER, 2005c. Fungal fragments and undocumented conidia
541	function as new aeroallergen sources. Journal of Allergy and Clinical Immunology,
542	<b>115:</b> 1043-1048.
543	Green BJ, Tovey ER, Sercombe JK, Blachere FM, Beezhold DH, Schmechel D, 2006.
544	Airborne fungal fragments and allergenicity. Medical Mycology, 44(Suppl 1): 245-
545	255.
546	Grewling Ł, Bogawski P, Jenerowicz D, Czarnecka-Operacz M, Sikoparija B, Skjøth CA,
547	Smith M, 2016. Mesoscale atmospheric transport of ragweed pollen allergens from
548	infected to uninfected areas. International Journal of Biometeorology, 60(10): 1493-
549	1500.
550	Grewling Ł, Nowak M, Szymańska A, Kostecki Ł, Bogawski P, 2019. Temporal variability in
551	the allergenicity of airborne Alternaria spores. Medical Mycology, 4: 403-411.
552	Grewling Ł, Bogawski P, Kostecki Ł, Nowak M, Szymańska A, Frątczak A, 2020.
553	Atmospheric exposure to the major Artemisia pollen allergen (Art v 1): Seasonality,
554	impact of weather, and clinical implications. Science of the Total Environment 713:
555	136611.
556	Grinn-Gofroń A, Bosiacka B, 2015. Effects of meteorological factors on the composition of
557	selected fungal spores in the air. Aerobiologia, 31(1): 63-72.
558	Grote M, Valenta R, Reichelt R, 2003. Abortive pollen germination: A mechanism of allergen
559	release in birch, alder, and hazel revealed by immunogold electron microscopy.
560	Journal of Allergy and Clinical Immunology, 111(5): 1017-1023.

61	Gutierrez-Rodriguez A, Postigo I, Guisantes JA, Sunen E, Martinez J, 2011. Identification
62	of allergens homologous to Alt a 1 from Stemphylium botryosum and Ulocladium
63	botrytis. Medical Mycology <b>49</b> :892–896
64	Hatzipapis P, Kalosak K, Dara A, Christias C, 2002. Spore germination and appressorium
65	formation in the entomopathogenic Alternaria alternata. Mycological Research,
666	<b>106(11):</b> 1349-1359.
67	Hirst JM, 1952. An automatic volumetric spore trap. The Annals of Applied Biology 39: 257-
68	265.
69	Hjelmroos M, 1993. Relationship between airborne fungal spore presence and weather
570	variables Grana, 32: 40-47.
571	Hoidn C, Puchner E, Pertl H, Holztrattner E, Obermeyer G, 2005. Nondiffusional release of
572	allergens from pollen grains of Artemisia vulgaris and Lilium longiflorum depends
573	mainly on the type of the allergen. International Archives of Allergy and Immunology,
574	<b>137:</b> 27-36.
575	Hong SG, Cramer RA, Lawrence CB, Pryor BM, 2005. Alt a 1 allergen homologs from
576	Alternaria and related taxa: analysis of phylogenetic content and secondary structure
577	Fungal Genetic and Biology 42(2): 119-129.
578	Jajor E, Kozłowska M, Wójtowicz M, 2012. Prevalence of fungi of the genus Alternaria on
579	rape siliques and seeds depending on weather conditions. Progress in Pland
80	Protection <b>52(4):</b> 1011-1015.
81	Kasprzyk I, Sulborska A, Nowak M, Szymańska A, Kaczmarek J, Haratym W, Weryszko-
82	Chmielewska E, Jędryczka M, 2013. Fluctuation range of the concentration of
83	airborne Alternaria conidiospores sampled at different geographical locations in
84	Poland (2010-2011). Acta Agrobotanica 66(1): 65-76.

585	Kasprzyk I, Rodinkova V, Šauliene I, Ritenberga O, Grinn-Gofroń A, Nowak M, Sulborska
586	A, Kaczmarek J, Weryszko-Chmielewska E, Bilous E, Jędryczka M, 2015. Air
587	pollution by allergenic spores of the genus Alternaria in the air of central and eastern
588	Europe. Environmental Science and Pollution Research 22: 9260-9274.
589	Kassambara A, Mundt F, 2017. Factoextra: Extract and visualize the results of multivariate
590	data analyses (1.0.4 ed.). R package; CRAN. Retrieved from
591	http://www.sthda.com/english/rpkgs/factoextra
592	Kim KY, Kim YS, Kim D, 2010. Distribution characteristics of airborne bacteria and fungi in
593	the general hospitals of Korea. <i>Industrial Health</i> 48: 236-243.
594	Knutsen AP, Bush RK, Demain JG, Denning DW, Dixit A, Fairs A, Greenberger PA, Kariuki
595	B, Kita H, Kurup VP, Moss RB, Niven RM, Pashley CH, Slavin RG, Vijay HM,
596	Wardlaw AJ, 2012. Fungi and allergic lower respiratory tract diseases. Journal of
597	Allergy and Clinical Immunology, 129(2): 280-91.
598	Kuhn M, 2008. Building predictive models in R using the caret package. Journal of Statistical
599	Software <b>28(5):</b> 1-26.
600	Lacey ME, West JS, 2006. The Air Spora. A manual for catching and identifying airborne
601	biological particles. Springer, Dordrecht, The Netherlands.
602	Lawler MJ, Draper DC, Smith JN, 2020. Atmospheric fungal nanoparticle bursts. Science
603	Advances 6: eaax9051.
604	Lê S, Josse J, Husson F, 2008. FactoMineR: An R Package for Multivariate Analysis. <i>Journal</i>
605	of Statistical Software. 25(1):1-18
606	Lee S-A, Liao C-H, 2014. Size-selective assessment of agricultural workers' personal
607	exposure to airborne fungi and fungal fragments. Science of the Total Environment
608	<b>466-467:</b> 725-732.

609	Levetin E, Owens C, Weaver H, Davis W, 2009. Airborne fungal fragments: are we
610	overlooking an important source of aeroallergens? Journal of Allergy and Clinical
611	Immunology, <b>123(2)</b> : S231.
612	Madsen AM, 2012. Effects of Airflow and Changing Humidity on the Aerosolization of
613	Respirable Fungal Fragments and Conidia of Botrytis cinerea. Applied and
614	Environment Microbiology, <b>78</b> (11): 3999-4007.
615	Madsen AM, Larsen ST, Koponen IK, Kling KI, Barooni A, Karottki DG, Tendal K, Wolkoff
616	P, 2016. Generation and Characterization of Indoor Fungal Aerosols for Inhalation
617	Studies. Applied and Environment Microbiology, 82(8): 2479-2493.
618	Magyar D, Vass M, Li DW, 2016. Dispersal Strategies of Microfungi. In: Li DW. (eds)
619	Biology of Microfungi. Fungal Biology. Springer, Cham.
620	Mao Y-Y, Huang S-Q, 2009. Pollen resistance to water in 80 angiosperm species: Flower
621	structures protect rain-susceptible pollen. New Phytologist 183: 892-899.
622	Maya-Manzano JM, Munoz-Trivino M, Fernandez-Rodriguez S, Silva-Palacios I, Gonzalo-
623	Garijo A, Tormo-Molina R, 2016. Airborne Alternaria conidia in Mediterranean rural
624	environments in SW of Iberian Peninsula and weather parameters that influence their
625	seasonality in relation to climate change. Aerobiologia 32(1): 95-108.
626	McCartney HA, Schmechel D, Lacey ME, 1993. Aerodynamic diameter of conidia of
627	Alternaria species. Plant Pathology, 42(2): 280-286.
628	Mitakakis TZ, Barnes C, Tovey ER, 2001. Spore germination increases allergen release from
629	Alternaria. Journal of Allergy and Clinical Immunology, 107: 388-390.
630	Nicholson KW, 1995. Physical Aspects of Bioaerosol Sampling and Deposition. In: Ch.S.
631	Cox and Ch.M. Wathes (Editors), Bioaerosols Handbook. Lewis Publishers, Boca
632	Raton.

633	Ogórek E, Pląskowska E, Kalinowska K, 2011. Characteristics and taxonomy of Alternaria
634	fungi. Mikologia Lekarska 18(3): 150-155.
635	Pady SM, Gregory PH, 1963. Numbers and viability of airborne hyphal fragments in England.
636	Transactions of the British Mycological Society 46(4): 609-613.
637	Pasanen A-L, Pasanen P, Jantunen MJ, Kalliokoski P, 1991. Significance of air humidity and
638	air velocity for fungal spore release into the air. Atmospheric Environment 25A(2):
639	459-462
640	Pulimood TB, Corden J, Bryden C, Sharples L, Nasser S, 2007. Epidemic asthma and the role
641	of the fungal mold Alternaria alternata. Journal of Allergy and Clinical Immunology,
642	<b>120(3):</b> 610-617.
643	R Core Team, 2018. R: A language and environment for statistical computing, Vienna,
644	Austria.
645	Reponen T, Grinshpun SA, Conwell KL, Wiest J, Anderson M, 2001. Aerodynamic versus
646	physical size of spores: Measurement and implication for respiratory deposition.
647	Grana, <b>40</b> : 119-125.
648	Reponen T, Seo S-C, Grimsley F, Lee T, Crawford C, Grinshpun SA, 2007. Fungal fragments
649	in moldy houses: a field study in homes in New Orleans and Southern Ohio.
650	Atmospheric Environment 41(37):8140-8149
651	Rick EM, Woolnough K, Pashley CH, Wardlaw AJ, 2016. Allergic fungal airway disease.
652	Journal of Investigational Allergology and Clinical Immunology, 26(6): 344-354.
653	Rittenour WR, Park J-H, Cox-Ganser JM, Beezhold DH, Green BJ, 2012. Comparison of
654	DNA extraction methodologies used for assessing fungal diversity via ITS sequencing.
655	Journal of Environmental Monitoring, 14(3): 766-774.
656	Rylander R, 1999. Indoor air-related effects and airborne (1→3)-β-D-glucan. <i>Environmental</i>
657	Health Perspective 107(suppl 3):501-503.

658	Saenz-de-Santamaria M, Postigo I, Gutierrez-Rodriguez A, Cardona G, Guisantes JA,
659	Asturias J, Martinez J, 2006. The major allergen of Alternaria alternata (Alt a 1) is
660	expressed in other members of the Pleosporaceae family. Mycoses 49(2):91-95
661	Sayer WJ, Shean DB, Ghosseiri J, 1969. Estimation of airborne fungal flora by the Andersen
662	sampler versus the gravity settling culture plate. <i>Journal of Allergy</i> , <b>44(4)</b> : 214-227.
663	Šcevkova A, Kovac J, 2019. First fungal spore calendar for the atmosphere of Bratislava,
664	Slovakia. <i>Aerobiologia</i> <b>35:</b> 343-356
665	Schäppi GF, Suphioglu C, Taylor PE, Knox RB, 1997a. Concentrations of the major birch
666	tree allergen Bet v 1 in pollen and respirable fine particles in the atmosphere. Journal
667	of Allergy and Clinical Immunology, 100(5): 656-61.
668	
669	Schäppi GF, Taylor PE, Staff IA, Suphioglu C, Knox RB, 1997b. Source of Bet v 1 loaded
670	inhalable particles from birch releaved. Sex Plant Reproduction, 10: 315-323.
671	Schäppi GF, Taylor PE, Pain MCF, Cameron PA, Dent AW, Staff IA, Suphioglu C, 1999.
672	Concentrations of major grass group 5 allergens in pollen grains and atmospheric
673	particles: implications for hay fever and allergic asthma sufferers sensitized to grass
674	pollen allergens. Clinical and Experimental Allergy, 29: 633-641
675	Sercombe JK, Green BJ, Tovey ER, 2006. Recovery of germinating fungal conidia from the
676	nasal cavity after environmental exposure. Aerobiologia, 22: 295-304.
677	Simmons EG, 2007. Alternaria. An identification manual. CBS Fungal Biodiversity Series,
678	Utrecht, Netherlands.
679	Stennett PJ, Beggs PJ, 2004. Alternaria spores in the atmosphere of Sydney, Australia, and
680	relationships with meteorological factors. International Journal of Biometeorology,
681	<b>49:</b> 98-105.

682	Stull RB, 1985. A Fair-Weather Cumulus Clouds Classification Scheme For Mixed Layer
683	Studies. Journal of Climate and Applied Meteorology 24: 49-56
684	Sweeney M, Kroutil L, Recht M, Bush R, 1985. Kinetics of allergen release from alternaria
685	(ALT). Journal of Allergy and Clinical Immunology, <b>75(1):</b> 118.
686	Taylor PE, Flagan RC, Valenta R., Glovsky MM, 2002. Release of allergens as respirable
687	aerosols: A link between grass pollen and asthma. Journal of Allergy and Clinical
688	Immunology, <b>109(1):</b> 51-56.
689	Troutt C, Levetin E, 2001. Correlation of spring spore concentrations and meteorological
690	conditions in Tulsa, Oklahoma. International Journal of Biometeorology, 45: 64-74.
691	Twaroch T, Arcalis E, Sterflinger K, Stoger E, Swoboda I, Valenta R, 2012. Predominant
692	localization of the major Alternaria allergen Alt a 1 in the cell wall of airborne spores.
693	Journal of Allergy and Clinical Immunology, 129(4): 1148-1149.
694	Twaroch T, Curin M, Valenta R, Swoboda I, 2015. Mold allergens in respiratory allergy: from
695	structure to therapy. Allergy, Asthma & Immunology Research, 7(7): 205-220.
696	Vloutoglou I, Fitt BDL, Lucas JA, 1996. Germination of Alternaria linicola conidia on
697	linseed: effects of temperature, incubation time, leaf wetness and light regime. Plant
698	Pathology (Oxford), <b>45(3):</b> 529-539.
699	Wei T, Simko V, 2017. R package "corrplot": Visualization of a Correlation Matrix (Version
700	0.84). Avaiable from https://github.com/taiyun/corrplot
701	Womiloju TO, Miller JD, Mayer PM, Brook JR, 2003. Methods to determine the biological
702	composition of particulate matter collected from outdoor air. Atmospheric
703	Environment, <b>37(31):</b> 4335-4344.
704	Woo Ch, An Ch, Xu S, Yi S-M, Yamamoto N, 2018. Taxonomic divesity of fungi deposited
705	from the atmosphere. <i>The ISME Journal</i> , <b>12</b> : 2051-2060.

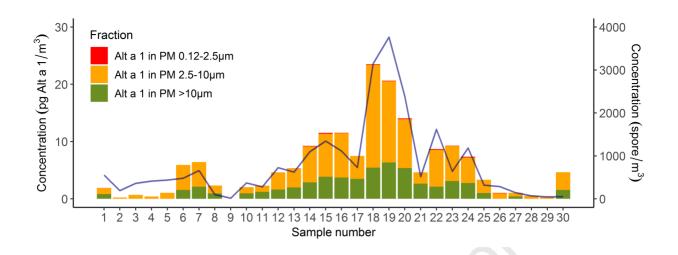
706	Yamamoto N, Bibby K, Qian J, Hospodsky D, Rismani-Yazdi H, Nazaroff WW, Peccia J,
707	2012. Particle-size distributions and seasonal diversity of allergenic and pathogenic
708	fungi in outdoor air. The ISME Journal, 6: 1801-1811.
709	Yamamoto N, Nazaroff WW, Peccia J, 2014. Assessing the aerodynamic diameters of taxon-
710	specific fungal bioaerosols by quantitative PCR and next-generation DNA sequencing.
711	Journal of Aerosol Science, 78: 1-10.

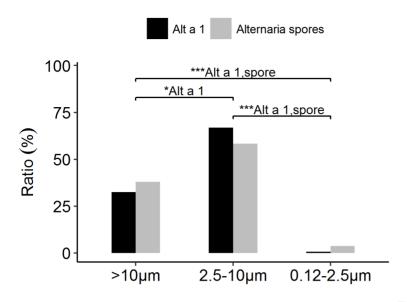
John Richard Control

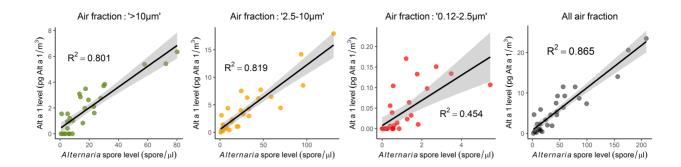
**Figures** 712 Fig. 1. Distribution of Alt a 1 in three investigated air fractions. *Alternaria* spores 713 concentration (line curve) collected using Hirst type volumetric trap (samples description in 714 Table S1). 715 Figure 2. Ratio (%) between the concentrations of Alt a 1 (pg/m<sup>3</sup>) and Alternaria spores 716 (spore/m<sup>3</sup>) in selected air fractions to the total levels of Alt a 1 and total *Alternaria* spores. 717 The statistically significant differences between spores and Alt a 1 levels in three air fractions 718 are marked by asterisks, i.e. \*p<0.05, \*\*p<0.01, \*\*\*p<0.001. 719 Figure 3. Correlations between Alt a 1 concentrations and Alternaria spore levels in selected 720 721 air fractions. Figure 4. Correlations matrix showing relationships between daily weather parameters and 722 both Alternaria spores (collected by Hirst trap) and Alt a 1 in three investigated fractions of 723 particulate matter (statistically significant correlations with p<0.05 are in bold). 724 Figure 5. Correlations matrix showing relationships between daily weather parameters and 725 ratio in the level of Alt a 1 (or spores) between investigated air fraction of particulate matter 726 (statistically significant correlations with p<0.05 are in bold). 727 Figure 6. Principal component analysis, using weather data collected during sampling period, 728 for Alt a 1 concentration levels (ellipses represent the 90% confidence interval of selected 729 groups). Additional information of PCA analysis in Suppl. Materials, Fig. S2 & S3. 730 731

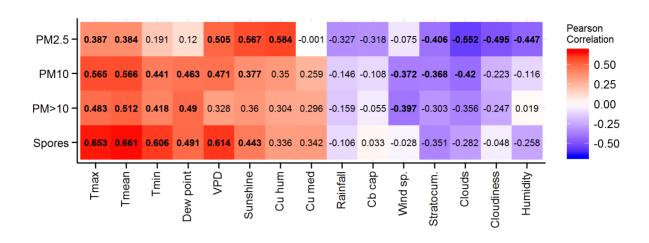
732

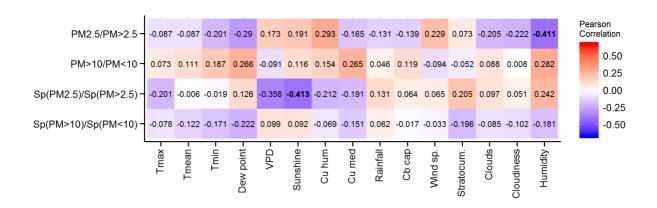
733

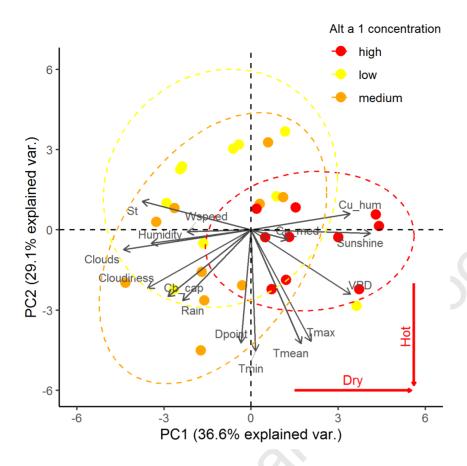












## **Highlights**

- 1. Alt a 1 (major allergen of Alternaria) was quantified in different air fractions
- 2. Alternaria spores and Alt a 1 levels correlated significantly (r=0.930, p<0.001)
- 3. The highest Alt a 1 level was detected in PM<sub>2.5-10</sub>, while the lowest in PM<sub>2.5</sub>
- 4. Significantly more Alt a 1 per spore (31.3%) was observed in  $PM_{2.5-10}$  than in  $PM_{>10}$
- 5. Spores are the main source of Alt a 1, but the impact of hyphae cannot be neglected