

## THE POTENTIAL OF ENTOMOPATHOGENIC NEMATODES AS BIOCONTROL AGENTS FOR CLOVER ROOT WEEVIL (*SITONA LEPIDUS*)

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### ABSTRACT

The efficacy of the entomopathogenic nematodes *Heterorhabditis zealandica*, *H. bacteriophora*, *Steinernema carpocapsae* and *S. feltiae* against clover root weevil (CRW) larvae and pupae was determined in petri dish and pot experiments. Field collected third instar (L3)–pupal CRW immature stages were used, and experiments were conducted in a controlled environment room at 18°C. Weevil survival and development was assessed 7 and 10 days after nematode inoculation for petri and pot experiments respectively. All nematodes significantly reduced CRW survival, and all except *S. feltiae* prevented adult development. Under the conditions used in this study, *Heterorhabditis* spp. were generally more effective than *Steinernema* spp. Results are discussed in terms of the potential use of entomopathogenic nematodes as biocontrol agents for this clover pest.

**Keywords:** clover root weevil, *Heterorhabditis zealandica*, *H. bacteriophora*, *Steinernema carpocapsae*, *S. feltiae*.

### INTRODUCTION

The clover root weevil (*Sitona lepidus* Gyllenhal – CRW) was first recognised in New Zealand in 1996 (Barratt *et al.* 1996) and has the potential to be a serious pest of white clover (*Trifolium repens*) in pastures (Willoughby *et al.* 1997; Murray and Willoughby 1998). Adult CRW feed on foliage, but more seriously, larvae feed on roots. Management options for CRW currently being explored include agrochemicals, attractants, pasture management, plant selection and biocontrol with microbial pathogens and parasitoids (Willoughby *et al.* 1999).

The successful use of entomopathogenic nematodes as biocontrol agents for root feeding weevils has been demonstrated in New Zealand for control of garden weevil (*Phlyctinus collosus*) in asparagus (Prestidge and Willoughby 1990); black vine weevil (*Otiiorhynchus sulcatus*) in strawberries (Jackson *et al.* 1985) and nursery plants (Ferguson *et al.* 1990); and white fringed weevil (*Naupactus leucoloma*) in the laboratory (Jackson *et al.* 1981).

The entomopathogenic nematodes *Steinernema feltiae* Filipjev, *S. bibionis* Boven and *Heterorhabditis bacteriophora* Poinar have been found to be effective against *Sitona* spp. weevils (including CRW) in laboratory experiments in Poland (Wiech and Jaworska 1990). Since concerns about non-target effects coupled with rigorous biosecurity regulations mean that it may now take 5–7 years before being able to release imported biocontrol agents, this study investigated the efficacy of locally occurring entomopathogenic nematodes which could be adopted more rapidly.

## METHODS

### Petri dish experiment

Motumaho shallow silty peat from beneath pasture at the Ruakura Agricultural Research Centre was sieved, moistened and placed into 25 petri dishes to a depth of ca 5 mm. CRW larvae were collected from soil beneath pasture on 18 February 2000 from the same site as the soil. Five field collected L3–pupal CRW were placed into each dish and covered with a further ca 5 mm layer of moistened soil. Head capsules of 34 further larvae collected at the same time as those above were measured after killing in 70% ethanol using a stereomicroscope at 63× magnification. Larvae were assigned to stages as described by Müller (1963) and this allowed subsequent determinations to be estimated visually without the need for microscopic examination.

*Heterorhabditis zealandica* Poinar, *H. bacteriophora*, *Steinernema carpocapsae* Weiser and *S. feltiae* entomopathogenic nematodes were extracted from Greater wax moth (*Galleria mellonella*) larvae by the method of White (1927). Nematodes were used for inoculum within seven days of beginning extractions. Nematodes were counted using a Doncaster dish (Doncaster 1962) and diluted to obtain the desired numbers for inoculum. Each nematode species was inoculated onto each of five dishes in a suspension with tap water, with five dishes receiving only tap water. One ml of nematode suspension was applied onto the surface of the soil layer covering CRW larvae, immediately after CRW larvae were placed into dishes. The soil surface was then watered with tap water to wash the nematodes into the soil. Dishes were sealed with Parafilm® and placed in a controlled environment room at 18°C inside liver pails (170 mm square × 190 mm tall) covered with black polythene, in a randomised block design.

CRW survival and development was assessed by hand sorting soil seven days after inoculation with nematodes. The data were analysed using the generalised linear regression model of Genstat 5 (Release 4.2) after logit transformation.

### Pot experiment

Motumaho shallow silty peat (as above) was sieved and placed into twenty five 350 ml pots (80 mm maximum diameter × 90 mm tall). Field collected white clover (*Trifolium repens*) rooted stolon cuttings were planted into soil filled pots on 27 January 2000. Pots were placed in a 5 × 5 Latin square design in a controlled environment room at 18°C and 16:8 h light:dark, and watered regularly. Ten field-collected L3–L5 CRW larvae were introduced into each pot seven days after planting.

*Heterorhabditis zealandica*, *Steinernema carpocapsae* and *S. feltiae* were extracted and counted from wax moth larvae as above. Each nematode species was inoculated into each of five pots, seven (*S. carpocapsae*) or eleven (*H. zealandica* and *S. feltiae*) days after introduction of CRW larvae, with five untreated control pots maintained for each inoculation day. For each pot, 1 ml of nematode suspension was inoculated into each of four ca 30 mm deep × 5 mm diameter holes made in the soil surface after which the holes were re-filled with soil and immediately watered.

CRW survival was assessed ten days after nematode inoculation by hand sorting soil from each pot, and developmental stages of live and dead weevils were estimated. Data comparisons were made by an exact 2 × 2 binomial test (Yates 1984).

## RESULTS

### Petri dish experiment

There was significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) greater survival of CRW larvae in the untreated dishes than those treated with any of the nematodes (Table 1). None of the dead CRW larvae recovered from untreated dishes contained entomopathogenic nematodes whereas all dead larvae from treated dishes did (data not shown). A significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) greater proportion of CRW survived treatment with *S. carpocapsae* than survived treatment with either of the *Heterorhabditis* species (Table 1).

**TABLE 1: Survival of CRW larvae untreated or treated with entomopathogenic nematodes in petri dishes. Figures in parentheses are SEM.**

| Treatment               | Nematodes/dish | CRW survival (%) |
|-------------------------|----------------|------------------|
| Untreated               | 0              | 85 (8)           |
| <i>S. carpocapsae</i>   | 161            | 57 (10)          |
| <i>S. feltiae</i>       | 153            | 42 (10)          |
| <i>H. bacteriophora</i> | 156            | 22 (9)           |
| <i>H. zealandica</i>    | 169            | 23 (9)           |

From the initial introductions, CRW pupae developed into adult weevils only in untreated and *S. feltiae* treated dishes ( $P < 0.10$ ) (Table 2). A similar result was observed for L3 larvae, which all moulted to L4 in untreated dishes but did not in nematode treated dishes ( $P < 0.10$  for *S. carpocapsae*, *S. feltiae* and *H. bacteriophora*). There was no significant effect of nematode treatment on other life stages of the weevil (Table 2).

**TABLE 2 Percentage of CRW developmental stages before (initial) and after treatment or non-treatment with entomopathogenic nematodes in petri dishes. Data include alive and dead weevils. Figures in parentheses are SEM.**

| Treatment               | Adults | Pupae  | L5      | L4      | L3     |
|-------------------------|--------|--------|---------|---------|--------|
| Initial                 | 0      | 12     | 36      | 36      | 16     |
| Untreated               | 15 (8) | 26 (9) | 30 (10) | 30 (10) | 0 (0)  |
| <i>S. carpocapsae</i>   | 0 (0)  | 21 (8) | 49 (10) | 18 (8)  | 13 (7) |
| <i>S. feltiae</i>       | 5 (4)  | 17 (8) | 40 (10) | 25 (9)  | 13 (7) |
| <i>H. bacteriophora</i> | 0 (0)  | 22 (8) | 39 (10) | 26 (9)  | 13 (7) |
| <i>H. zealandica</i>    | 0 (0)  | 22 (8) | 42 (10) | 27 (9)  | 9 (6)  |

### Pot experiment

In the pot experiment there was significantly ( $P < 0.001$ ) greater survival of CRW larvae in untreated pots than in those treated with any of the nematodes (Table 3). As with the dish experiment none of the dead CRW larvae recovered from untreated pots contained entomopathogenic nematodes. Of the treated pots one dead larvae not infected with nematodes was found only in the *S. feltiae* treatment (data not shown).

**TABLE 3: Survival of CRW larvae treated or untreated with entomopathogenic nematodes in pots. Figures in parentheses are SEM.**

| Treatment             | Nematodes /pot | CRW survival (%) |
|-----------------------|----------------|------------------|
| Untreated             | 0              | 97 (3)           |
| <i>S. carpocapsae</i> | 48,880         | 4 (4)            |
| Untreated             | 0              | 100 (0)          |
| <i>S. feltiae</i>     | 30,200         | 39 (14)          |
| <i>H. zealandica</i>  | 40,680         | 0 (0)            |

As in the dish experiment, CRW introduced in the L5 stage only developed into adults in the untreated and *S. feltiae* treated pots ( $P < 0.01$  for untreated versus *H. zealandica* comparison) (Table 4). There was a significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) greater proportion of L5 CRW larvae in pots treated with *H. zealandica* compared to untreated and *S. feltiae* treated pots (Table 4).

**TABLE 4: Percentage of CRW developmental stages before (initial) and after treatment or non-treatment with entomopathogenic nematodes in pots. Data include alive and dead (nematode infected and nematode free) weevils. Figures in parentheses are SEM.**

| Treatment             | Adults | Pupae   | L5      | L4      | L3      |
|-----------------------|--------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| Initial               | 0      | 0       | 53      | 41      | 6       |
| Untreated             | 6 (4)  | 42 (8)  | 25 (7)  | 8 (5)   | 19 (7)  |
| <i>S. carpocapsae</i> | 0 (0)  | 39 (10) | 44 (10) | 17 (8)  | 0 (0)   |
| Untreated             | 31 (8) | 37 (8)  | 3 (3)   | 20 (7)  | 9 (5)   |
| <i>S. feltiae</i>     | 8 (7)  | 54 (14) | 8 (7)   | 15 (10) | 15 (10) |
| <i>H. zealandica</i>  | 0 (0)  | 31 (9)  | 46 (10) | 23 (8)  | 0 (0)   |

## DISCUSSION

Under the conditions used in this study, it appears that all species of entomopathogenic nematodes were able to kill CRW within 7–10 days of application. *Heterorhabditis* spp. nematodes had a greater effect on CRW larvae than *Steinernema* spp. in the petri dish experiment and *H. bacteriophora* was more effective than *S. feltiae* in the pot experiment. In these trials, after treatment with *S. carpocapsae*, *H. bacteriophora* and *H. zealandica* none of the larvae or pupae present moulted to adults. In the pot experiment, larval development was not halted to the same extent as the petri dish experiment, probably due to the larger volume of soil and therefore greater searching behaviour needed for nematodes to encounter CRW larvae. Again, *S. feltiae* had less effect and some CRW emerged as adults following this treatment. Overall, it would appear that, under the conditions used in this study, the *Heterorhabditis* sp. nematodes are the most likely to be effective biocontrol agents for CRW.

For any biocontrol agent to be effective in the field it must be able to operate under realistic climatic conditions. Both the petri dish and pot experiments in this study were maintained at 18°C, which is similar to the 20 year (1977–1997) average monthly 10 cm earth temperatures experienced in the Waikato for December, January and February (e.g. 17.3, 18.6 and 18.5°C respectively at Ruakura Research Centre) (National Climate Centre, National Institute of Water and Atmospheric Research Ltd.). Large larval populations of CRW have been observed during these months (Gerard *et al.* 1999) indicating that the entomopathogenic nematodes studied here, which operate at realistic temperatures, may be effective in a field situation.

CRW larval abundance is not, however, determined solely by temperature but more importantly in summer by rainfall (Gerard *et al.* 1999; Willoughby and Hardwick 1999). It appears that rainfall from December to January may be important in determining whether a summer generation of CRW occurs (Gerard *et al.* 1999). Apart from this rainfall-dependant summer generation, CRW larval abundance peaks in August–September (Willoughby *et al.* 1997). The 20 year average 10 cm soil temperature during these months in Hamilton is 8.5 and 10.4°C respectively (National Climate Centre), so it may be that cool active entomopathogens would be effective.

Cold tolerant strains of *Steinernema* spp. (Finney-Crawley 1985; Wright and Jackson 1992; Mracek *et al.* 1997) and *Heterorhabditis* spp. (Griffin and Downes 1994) have been isolated overseas and in New Zealand it appears that *H. zealandica* may be a good candidate for selecting a cold tolerant strain (Wharton and Surrey 1994). A further advantage of field application of entomopathogenic nematodes during August–September is that conditions at this time of year may negate two of the limitations to establishment success of applied nematodes, namely low relative humidity (MacVean *et al.* 1982) and high UV radiation (Gaugler and Boush 1978). Experiments to determine the thermal activity range of the nematodes studied here are currently being carried out.

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