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1 **Significant High Mortality** of eggs and young larvae of two Pine
2 **Processionary Moth** species due to the entomopathogenic fungus
3 *Metarhizium brunneum*

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**Significant High Mortality of eggs and young larvae of two Pine
Processionary Moth species due to the entomopathogenic fungus
*Metarhizium brunneum***

Bioassays were conducted to determine the susceptibility of egg masses and young larvae of two pine processionary moth species, *Thaumetopoea pityocampa* and *Thaumetopoea wilkinsoni*, to two strains (ARSEF4556, V275) of the entomopathogenic fungus *Metarhizium brunneum*. Mortality of treated eggs by both strains ranged from 96 to 99% but not all of this was caused by *M. brunneum* since control groups also experienced high egg mortality due to saprophytic fungi. Still, larvae hatched in the laboratory from eggs treated with *M. brunneum* were all killed by this fungus, acquiring *M. brunneum* conidia, whereas larval mortality was 0% in the control groups. Young larvae of both pine processionary moth species were also highly susceptible to ARSEF4556 and V275 with larval mortality ranging between 94 and 100%, eight days post inoculation, with the vast majority of larvae being killed within the first 2-4 days. Larval mortality was dose-dependent. Results were consistent across the two pine processionary moth species, showing that the pathogenicity of *M. brunneum* to both eggs and young larvae might be promising for biological control of these insect pests. The study also showed that non-target parasitoids of pine processionary moth eggs were also susceptible to *M. brunneum*. Further work is required to understand and reduce the *M. brunneum* effect on non-target insects/organisms.

Keywords: Pine processionary moth, entomopathogenic fungi, *Metarhizium brunneum*, ovicidal activity, larval mortality, egg masses.

64 Introduction

65 Two species of pine processionary moth, the western *Thaumetopoea pityocampa* (Schiff.) and
66 the eastern *Thaumetopoea wilkinsoni* Tams (Lep.: Thaumetopoeidae), are major pests of *Pinus*
67 and *Cedrus* in Europe, North Africa and the Middle East (Battisti et al., 2015). Feeding damage
68 by the larvae results in reduced and stunted tree growth and yield losses of pine nuts. In extreme
69 situations, defoliation leads to host tree death (Jacquet et al., 2012). Peri-urban forests, urban
70 trees and forest edges are especially at high risk of attack by pine processionary moth since
71 they prefer border and isolated trees for oviposition and nest construction (Rossi et al., 2016).

72 Both *T. pityocampa* and *T. wilkinsoni* are univoltine and have similar life cycles. The short-
73 lived adults emerge from pupae in the soil and mate in the summer. Each mated female moth
74 lays between 70 and 300 eggs in highly conspicuous cylindrically shaped egg masses around
75 pairs of needles at the tips of pine shoots. Each egg mass is 4-5 cm in length and is covered
76 with the scales from the female anal tuft, which mimics the pine shoots. The delicate 1st instar
77 larvae emerge 30-45 days after oviposition. In the spring, mature larvae descend the tree in
78 processions in order to seek out suitable pupation sites in the soil.

79 The pine processionary moth is also a health risk since the urticating hairs of the larvae trigger
80 severe allergic reactions in people and animals. The hairs contain a proteinaceous toxin,
81 thaumetopoein, which elicits allergic reactions affecting the skin, respiratory system, mouth
82 and eyes (Lamy et al., 1986; Vega et al., 2014). The urticating hairs are only produced by older
83 (3rd-5th) instars, which live gregariously in silken nests (Battisti et al., 2015). The dart-like hairs
84 are produced in large quantities in special abdominal pockets of the larvae and, when
85 discharged, are transported considerable distances by the wind. The hairs may remain active in
86 the environment for several months, when on the surface of tree trunks and soil. During the
87 period when larvae are descending to find pupation sites that they are most dangerous as this
88 is when the larvae are most likely to encounter humans with forest workers, eco-tourists,
89 children and animals being at high risk.

90 The pine processionary moth control options are very limited. *Bacillus thuringiensis* (bacteria)
91 and synthetic chemical diflubenzuron are the most widely used pesticides in forested areas, but
92 these can give varied results depending upon the climate and larval instar (Battisti et al., 1998;
93 Gatto et al., 2009). **The potential exists to reduce oviposition through the use of sex pheromones**
94 **in mating disruption and mass trapping programmes and through use of non-host volatiles**
95 **(Halperin, 1985; Chenchouni et al., 2010; Jactel et al., 2011).** In urban areas, ~~the same~~

96 insecticides may be used but these are not approved in many countries due to the risk they pose
97 to human health and the environment. The Eco-trap, which is wrapped around tree trunks,
98 captures larvae as they descend to seek out pupation sites in the ground (Martin, 2015). These
99 traps are environmentally friendly **but** are costly to deploy on a large scale and do not preclude
100 operator exposure to the urticating hairs. Targeting the eggs or early instar larvae would offer
101 a safer and more efficient strategy particularly for the urban and semi-urban environment.

102 Entomopathogenic fungi have shown promise for the control of late instar *T. pityocampa* larvae
103 (Er *et al.*, 2007; Sevim *et al.*, 2010). As far as we are aware entomopathogenic fungi have not
104 been tested against pine processionary moth egg masses and early larval stages. Pine
105 processionary moth eggs are rarely infected by fungi, even though they are often exposed to a
106 wide range of fungi inoculum. Deliberate exposure of mite (Shi and Feng, 2004), and insect
107 eggs (Maniania, 1991; Samuels *et al.*, 2002; Ekesi *et al.*, 2002; Lacey *et al.*, 1999; Marannino
108 *et al.*, 2006) to entomopathogenic fungi inoculum such as *Metarhizium anisopliae* (Metschn.)
109 Sorokin, *Beauveria bassiana* (Bals.-Criv.) Vuill. or *Isaria fumosorosea* Wize has been shown
110 to significantly reduce egg viability. Targeting eggs of arthropod pest species with
111 entomopathogenic fungi has several benefits. To suppress pest populations it is vital to control
112 all pest developmental stages, being thus important to identify fungal strains that kill all stages
113 including the egg stage of the pest. Where eggs are laid in clusters then destruction of the egg
114 mass offers a cost effective method of pest control. Less inoculum and time is required to treat
115 an egg mass than targeting the larvae once they have dispersed. For some pest species, such
116 as *Haematobia irritans* (Linnaeus), entomopathogenic fungi fails to kill the eggs but are
117 efficacious in killing the emergent larvae (Mochi *et al.*, 2010).

118 The aim of the study was to determine the susceptibility of egg masses and young larvae of
119 two different pine processionary moth species, *T. wilkinsoni* and *T. pityocampa*, to two strains
120 of the entomopathogenic fungus *Metarhizium brunneum* Petch.

121 **Materials and Methods**

122 ***Fungal strains and preparation of inoculum***

123 Trials were carried out in two countries with two different moth species, *T. pityocampa* in
124 Portugal and *T. wilkinsoni* in Turkey to test the impact of species differences. Two strains of
125 *Metarhizium brunneum* V275 (= Met52) and ARSEF4556, were used in this study. Details of
126 their origin are summarised in Table 1. Air dried conidia of both strains were prepared using
127 the methods outlined by Ansari and Butt (2011). Conidial concentration was determined using

128 a Thoma haemocytometer and the final concentration adjusted to 1×10^7 conidia/ml in 100 ml
129 0.03% w/v Aqueous Tween® 80. Conidial viability was determined by inoculating 1×10^5
130 conidia/ml spore suspension on Sabouraud dextrose agar (SDA) and evaluating the
131 germination of 100 spores after 24 h of incubation at $25 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$. Conidia viability always
132 exceeded 90% for both strains of *M. brunneum*.

133 Table 1.

134 ***Collection of egg masses***

135 Due to the difficulties in rearing and mating under laboratory conditions the pine processionary
136 moth (Berardi et al., 2015; Branco et al., 2017), it was not possible to have egg masses produced
137 in laboratory reason why egg masses were collected from the field. Egg masses of both the
138 eastern (*T. wilkinsoni*) and western (*T. pityocampa*) pine processionary moth were collected
139 between September and October 2015. Over 200 egg masses of the eastern pine processionary
140 moth egg masses were collected from *Pinus brutia* Tenore and *Pinus nigra* J. F. Arnold in the
141 Isparta and Antalya regions of Turkey. Egg masses and samples of *Pinus* were kept in
142 ventilated plastic boxes (15 cm length X 20 cm width) lined with moist tissue to prevent the
143 pine shoots from dehydrating. About 180 eggs masses of the western pine processionary moth
144 were collected from *Pinus pinaster* Aiton and *Pinus pinea* L. trees in the Setubal Peninsula
145 region, ca. 15-30 Km south of Lisbon. The egg masses were placed in separate glass test tubes,
146 and kept at $25 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ and 50–70% RH, until required. The egg masses were placed in separate
147 glass test tubes, and kept at $25 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ and 50–70% RH, until required. **From the pine**
148 **processionary moth egg masses collected from both countries two hymenopteran egg**
149 **parasitoids species emerged *Baryscapus servadeii* Dom. and *Ooencyrtus pityocampae* Mercet.**
150 **Egg masses parasitism rates ranged from 0 to 34% on *T. pityocampa* and from 0 to 6.2% on *T.***
151 ***wilkinsoni*.**

152 ***Inoculation of egg masses with Metarhizium brunneum***

153 ***Thaumetopoea wilkinsoni* – The eastern pine processionary moth from Turkey**

154 Egg masses consisted of two groups, relatively young eggs collected shortly after they were
155 laid, and egg batches that were 15 days older. For both young and older eggs, two subgroups
156 were generated, one in which eggs were denuded of the female tuft scales from the adult moth,
157 to see if these interfered with the infection process, and another subgroup with intact scales.
158 The scales were gently removed using sterile fine forceps under a dissecting microscope. The

159 egg masses with and without scales were treated with *M. brunneum* V275 and ARSEF4556.
160 Individual egg masses were immersed for 5 s in 100 ml of conidial suspension of 1×10^7
161 conidia/ml, then transferred to 9 cm diameter Petri dishes lined with moist sterile filter paper.
162 There were two controls, the first consisted of 0.03% w/v Aqueous Tween® 80 only and the
163 second consisted of no treatment. There were five replicates per treatment and the experiment
164 was carried out twice for the young egg masses and once for the older egg mass. The Petri
165 dishes were kept at $25 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ and $60 \pm 5\%$ RH with a 16:8 hours Light: Dark photoperiod. Egg
166 masses were checked daily and the number of live larvae, dead fungal infected pine
167 processionary moth larvae, and parasitoid infection recorded. Dead larvae were transferred to
168 clean Petri dishes lined with moist filter paper to encourage external sporulation on mycosed
169 larval cadavers.

170 *Thaumetopoea pityocampa* – *The western pine processionary moth from Portugal*

171 The egg masses were inoculated with *M. brunneum* V275 and ARSEF4556 as outlined above
172 with slight modifications. The treatments included: (1) Egg masses dipped in liquid suspension
173 of each strain of *M. brunneum* for 5 s using two doses: 1×10^6 (n=5 replicates) and 1×10^7
174 conidia/ml (n=25 replicates); (2) Egg masses “dusted” with dry conidia of each isolate ($9 \times$
175 10^{10} conidia /g) (n=10, repeated twice); (3) Egg masses without any treatment (control group,
176 n=10); (4) Egg masses dipped in 0.01% aqueous Tween® 80 (n=10). Treated egg masses were
177 kept individually in aerated glass test tubes at $25 \pm 0.5^\circ\text{C}$ and 60% RH. Egg hatching was
178 monitored daily and the number of emergent live and dead larvae and presence of parasitoid
179 infections recorded. The latter were incubated as described earlier to confirm infection by *M.*
180 *brunneum*.

181 Additional studies were done to determine the susceptibility of the pine processionary moth
182 egg parasitoids *B. servadeii* and *O. pityocampae* to *M. brunneum*. Briefly, 4-7 adult wasps were
183 released in glass tubes in which egg masses inoculated with 1×10^7 conidia/ml of V275 or
184 ARSEF4556 had been placed. Parasitoids were provided 50% sucrose as a food source and
185 monitored daily with dead insects being transferred to SDA+ 1% yeast extract to encourage
186 fungal growth.

187 ***Susceptibility of early instars to Metarhizium brunneum***

188 *Thaumetopoea wilkinsoni*

189 Pine needles were first surface-sterilized in 1% sodium hypochlorite for 2 min, 70% ethanol
190 for 1 min and then washed three times in sterile distilled water. Sterilized pine needles were
191 then dipped for 5 sec in 10 ml of a conidial suspension (1×10^7 conidia/ml) of V275 or
192 ARSEF4556, or 0.03% Aqueous Tween only (control). Two treated pine needles were placed
193 with ten 1st instar larvae in Petri dishes (9 cm) lined with moist sterile filter paper. There were
194 five replicates per treatment, and the experiment was repeated on two different days. Larval
195 mortality was checked daily for 10 days. Dead larvae were collected and placed into Petri
196 dishes with moist filter paper to observe any fungal development.

197 *Thaumetopoea pityocampa*

198 Ten 2nd instar larvae of *T. pityocampa* were sprayed with a dose of either 1×10^5 or 1×10^6
199 conidia/ml of V275 or ARSEF4556. The control group was treated with 0.01% aqueous Tween
200 80 only. There were eleven replicates per treatment for all but larvae treated with ARSEF4556
201 at 10^6 conidia/ml where there were only six replicates. After treatment with conidia the larvae
202 were gently transferred to transparent plastic cups (12 height x 10 diameter cm) containing
203 freshly collected and sterilized pine needles inserted into moist floral foam to prevent
204 dehydration. The cups were incubated at $23 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$, 12h light:dark photoperiod and monitored
205 daily. Needles were replaced as needed. After 10 days, the dead and live larvae were counted.
206 Dead larvae were incubated in Petri dishes, as described earlier, to encourage external
207 sporulation of *M. brunneum*.

208 **Statistical analyses**

209 *Thaumetopoea wilkinsoni*

210 The proportion of dead eggs, in relation to the initial total number of eggs per egg mass, was
211 compared among treatments using a Generalized Linear Model (GLM) with Binary response
212 data, logit link function and robust model estimation. Results are presented as Wald Chi-Square
213 (Wald Chi²) test and P values. Pairwise comparison among treatments were done with least
214 significance deviance ($\alpha=0.05$). Survival rate of 1st instar larvae till 8 days following treatments
215 was estimated by a Kaplan-Meier procedure. The equality of survival distributions were tested
216 among pairwise treatments using Log rank (Mantel-Cox) test.

217 *Thaumetopoea pityocampa*

218 Differences among the two treatments with the fungal strains and the control, on the proportion
219 of hatched egg masses was analysed by Chi-square test or Fisher exact probability test. The

220 proportion of 2nd instar larvae infected by *M. brunneum* was tested by GLM with Binary
221 response data and logit link function and pairwise comparison were done as described above.
222 Mortality of the larvae (larval bioassay) was corrected by natural mortality observed for the
223 control treatment according to Abbott's formula (Abbott, 1925).

224 All statistical analyses for both moth species were performed using IBM SPSS version 23.0
225 software (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL).

226

227 **Results**

228 *Thaumetopoea wilkinsoni*

229 *Metarhizium brunneum* strains V275 and ARSEF4556 were highly pathogenic to both young
230 and old eggs and emergent 1st instar larvae of *T. wilkinsoni* (Table 2). Larvae started to die
231 within 2 days of inoculation, with the majority being killed 4-5 days post inoculation. Within
232 4-5 days of treatment, saprophytic fungi developed on some egg masses (with or without
233 covering of adult moth scales) often leading to little or no eclosion.

234 Larvae emerged from young egg masses 15-20 days post treatment. The hatch rate in controls
235 was 17-28% but zero if saprophytic fungi were present. The egg mortality for V275 and 4556
236 was 100% in all but six egg masses, whereas the average egg mortality ranged between 96-
237 99% (Table 2). All larvae that hatched from eggs in the control groups survived, whereas there
238 was 100% mortality in the *M. brunneum* treated group with all cadavers becoming mycosed
239 (Table 2), however very few larvae emerged from treated eggs. The interaction between scale
240 cover and treatment was not significant (Wald $\chi^2 = 0.897$, $df = 3$, $p = 0.826$) nor the presence
241 or absence of scale cover (Wald $\chi^2 = 0.137$, $df = 1$, $p = 0.712$). There were significant
242 differences in the proportion of egg mortalities among treatments (Wald $\chi^2 = 23.387$, $df = 3$,
243 $p < 0.001$). Pairwise comparisons showed that all fungi treated groups had significantly higher
244 mortality than control groups (Table 2). Of the entomopathogenic fungi treated groups, the
245 strain V275 caused less mortality than the strain ARSEF4556, still in all cases mortality was
246 above 96% and differences were not significant (Table 2).

247 Table 2.

248 Larvae emerged from older egg masses 4-5 days post-treatment, much earlier than from
249 younger egg masses. Half of the older egg masses from control groups became contaminated

250 with saprophytic fungi with zero eclosion whereas the other half that escaped saprophytic fungi
251 infection (with or without scales) hatched with all live larvae surviving during the observation
252 10 day period (Table 3). The hatch rate from egg masses (with and without scales) exposed to
253 V275 and 4556 ranged from 0 to 96.2% with all emergent larvae being killed by *M. brunneum*
254 and becoming mycosed (Table 3).

255 Table 3.

256 For the older egg masses, the scale cover was not significant (Wald $\text{Chi}^2 = 0.172$, $\text{df} = 1$,
257 $p=0.678$), nor the treatment (Wald $\text{Chi}^2 = 3.458$, $\text{df} = 3$, $p=0.326$) or the interaction term (Wald
258 $\text{Chi}^2 = 1.728$, $\text{df} = 3$, $p=0.631$). The average mortality varied across treatments, and ranged
259 from 71% to 87% (Table 3).

260 Parasitoids emerging from egg masses were identified as *Ooencyrtus pityocampae*.
261 Approximately 66 parasitoids emerged from the total of 80 egg masses in the control, and 26
262 parasitoids emerged from EPF treated young egg masses. All parasitoids that emerged from
263 the *M. brunneum* treated egg masses died, and were susceptible to both *M. brunneum* strains.
264 Only one egg mass from the older control group had parasitoids with only six adults emerging.

265 *Thaumetopoea pityocampa*

266 Immersion of egg masses resulted in hatch rates of 30% in aqueous Tween, 10% in spore
267 suspension of *M. brunneum* V275, and 10% from immersion in ARSEF4556. The low hatch
268 rate was attributed to saprophytic fungi and *M. brunneum* (Fig. 1). Differences among the three
269 treatments were not significant ($\text{Chi}^2 = 3.060$, $\text{df} = 2$, $p=0.216$). Where hatchings were observed,
270 eclosion was reduced to 1-5 larvae per egg mass (number of eggs per egg mass was about 70
271 to 130). From the entomopathogenic fungi treated groups, all larvae were infected with *M.*
272 *brunneum*. Mycosed cadavers from the aqueous Tween control group were contaminated by
273 *Aspergillus* sp., *Paecilomyces* sp., *Fusarium* sp. and *Beauveria bassiana*. Egg masses with no
274 treatment (natural control) had 100% eclosion with 62-118 larvae per egg mass. In total, ten
275 *Baryscapus servadeii* and four *O. pityocampae* parasitoids emerged from the control groups,
276 whereas no parasitoids emerged from *M. brunneum* treated groups. For egg masses with
277 parasitoids, mortality due to *M. brunneum* ARSEF4556 of *B. servadeii* and *O. pityocampae*
278 was 55% and 72 %, respectively; whereas for V275 was 78% and 57%, respectively. *M.*
279 *brunneum* emerged from all dead specimens.

280 Figure 1.

281 Eclosion from egg masses inoculated with dry conidia was 55% and 50% for ARSEF4556 and
282 V275, respectively. Hatching was 100% (10 out of 10) from untreated egg masses with the
283 proportion of hatched egg masses being significantly higher in the control compared with the
284 two entomopathogenic fungi treated modalities (Fisher Test; $p=0.01$). Of the newly emerged
285 larvae, the proportion which developed infection by *M. brunneum* during the two following
286 days was $13\% \pm 1.1$ and $5\% \pm 0.7$ for ARSEF4556 and V275 isolates, respectively. Differences
287 between the two isolates were significant (Wald $\chi^2 = 42.722$, $df=1$, $P<0.001$). No larvae from
288 the control group developed entomopathogenic fungal infection.

289 As regards the egg parasitoids, a total of 230 individuals of *B. servadii* and 46 *O. pityocampae*
290 emerged from the egg masses treated with the dried conidia formulation. The proportion of
291 parasitoids that became infected by *M. brunneum* was $35\% \pm 5.9$ and $66\% \pm 3.3$ for 4556 and
292 V275 isolates, respectively. Differences between isolates in infection of parasitoids was
293 significant ($\chi^2 = 20.957$, $P<0.001$).

294 ***Susceptibility of early instar pine processionary moth to M. brunneum***

295 Both strains of *M. brunneum* caused 100% mortality of 1st instar larvae of the eastern pine
296 processionary moth 8 days post-inoculation whereas there was 0% mortality in the control
297 groups (untreated and aqueous Tween). Control groups differed significantly from both 4556
298 and V275 strain of *M. brunneum*, $\chi^2= 225.048$, $df=1$, $p<0.001$ and $\chi^2= 230.054$, $df=1$,
299 $p<0.001$, respectively. There were no statistical differences between the V275 and ARSEF4556
300 ($\chi^2= 1.035$, $df=1$, $p=0.309$), which had similar survival curves (Fig. 2). All dead larvae
301 showed successfully entomopathogenic fungus development and sporulation.

302 Total mortality of the 2nd instar larvae of the western pine processionary moth depended on the
303 dose and strain of *M. brunneum*, ranging from $84.5\% \pm 6.1$, for *M. brunneum* strain V275 at 1
304 $\times 10^5$ conidia/ml, to $100\% \pm 0.0$, for *M. brunneum* strain ARSEF4556 at 1×10^6 conidia/ml; the
305 corrected mortality was only slightly lower (Table 3). Between 89 and 96% of the dead larvae
306 became mycosed with *M. brunneum* (Table 3, Fig. 3). Control mortality was very low (Table
307 3).

308 Figure 2.

309 Table 4.

310 Figure 3.

311 Discussion

312 Targeting pine processionary moth egg masses before larval dispersal offers an effective way
313 of controlling pine processionary moth. Once dispersed, far more inoculum needs to be applied
314 which increases costs. This study shows that the eggs and newly emerged larvae of both species
315 of pine processionary moth *T. pityocampa* and *T. wilkinsoni*, are highly susceptible to *M.*
316 *brunneum* ARSEF4556 and V275, as it caused 100% mortality within a relatively short time
317 of 7-10 days. Both ARSEF4556 and V275 have also been shown to be highly virulent strains
318 for other pest species including thrips (Ansari et al., 2007), midges (Ansari et al., 2010) and
319 mosquitoes (Greenfield et al., 2015). The pine processionary moth larvae appear to be naturally
320 susceptible to entomopathogens (Vargas-Osuna et al. 1994; Er et al., 2007; Sevim et al., 2010;
321 Draganova et al., 2013) with *B. bassiana* often reported as infecting larvae and pupae with
322 variable results (Battisti et al., 2000; Sevim et al., 2010). This current study, is the first to test
323 *M. brunneum* pathogenicity on pine processionary moth and to show that both pine
324 processionary moth eggs and young larvae are **susceptible** to this entomopathogenic fungi.

325 The present study also demonstrated that both wet (aqueous Tween suspension) and dry conidia
326 reduce egg hatch rates significantly enough to warrant investigation at the field level. What is
327 perplexing is the high mortality of the egg masses of control groups treated with aqueous
328 Tween 80 or kept in high humidity. **Mortality was particularly high when the eggs masses were**
329 **inoculated using the dipping method.** One explanation is that hydration of saprophytic (e.g.
330 *Aspergillus*, *Fusarium*) and entomopathogenic (e.g. *Beauveria*) fungi at the egg mass surface
331 triggered spore germination and saprophytic fungi growth with egg death caused by the activity
332 of hydrolytic enzymes, toxic metabolites and mechanical damage; as reported for other
333 arthropods (Fernandes et al., 2003; Zhang et al., 2014; Santos et al., 2009). Rodrigues et al.,
334 (2015) reported that high humidity was essential for development of *M. anisopliae* on eggs of
335 *Triatoma infestans* (Klug), and under drier conditions the eggs completely resisted infection.
336 Similarly, Lord (2009) reported egg hatch was higher for stored product beetles exposed to *B.*
337 *bassiana* at high humidity than low. In this present study, significant egg mortality (45-50%)
338 was observed with dry conidia kept in aerated conditions with low humidity, presumably this
339 is due to preformed pathogenicity determinants such as the protease Pr1 (Butt et al., 2016).
340 Indeed, entomopathogenic fungi conidia have been shown to be active even before germination
341 with most activity being attributed to the spore bound enzymes such lipases and proteases (Butt
342 et al., 2013; Santi et al., 2010).

343 Mortality of the treated eggs depend on the fungal strain, dose, and formulation and
344 environmental factors especially temperature and humidity (Anand and Tiwary, 2009;
345 Fernandes et al., 2003; Maniania, 1991; Sabbour, 2015; Santos et al., 2009). In our study, pine
346 processionary moth egg mortality was also affected by the age of the egg mass but not by the
347 removal of the scales from the adult moth that usually cover the egg mass. In contrast, removal
348 of scales from the egg masses of another lepidopteran *Spodoptera litura* Fab. resulted in 100%
349 mortality when inoculated with either saprophytic (*e.g. Aspergillus, Fusarium*) or
350 entomopathogenic (*e.g. M. anisopliae*) fungi but mortality was significantly lower if scales
351 were left intact (Anand and Tiwari, 2009). Our study shows that young eggs are more
352 susceptible to entomopathogenic fungi ovicidal activity than older egg masses. These
353 observations are in accord with those reported for *Chilo partellus* Swinhoe, *T. infestans* and
354 *Nilaparvata lugens* (Stål) where susceptibility of the eggs to entomopathogenic fungi
355 decreased with egg age (Maniania, 1991; Rodrigues et al., 2015; Li et al., 2013). Well-
356 developed embryos inside the eggs presumably do not provide the right cues to encourage
357 fungal infection. It has also been shown that embryos have the ability to respond to microbes
358 with immune responses (Gorman et al., 2004). Such responses may be partially responsible for
359 the difficulty of infecting eggs, but the barrier presented by the egg chorion is the primary and
360 probably most important barrier to infection (Campbell et al., 2016).

361 Entomopathogenic fungi application to egg masses appears to be a viable strategy to reduce
362 the impact of pine processionary moth because the *M. brunneum* pathogen reduced egg
363 viability and also infected any surviving, emergent neonate larvae. In the current study, we
364 observed 100% mortality of emergent or young pine processionary moth larvae treated with
365 *M. brunneum* independently of the age of the egg mass, whereas mortality in the control group
366 was zero. Other studies (eg Mochi et al., 2010; Lord, 2009) have observed that independently
367 of the susceptibility of the eggs to entomopathogenic fungi infection, emergent larvae are
368 highly susceptible to infection. The larvae acquire conidia from the surface of eggs and
369 immediate surroundings (Mochi et al., 2010; Lord, 2009). Since pine processionary moth live
370 gregariously and larval survival depends on group activity, even if some larvae survived
371 infection they could not survive alone. Larvae from different nests on the same tree tend to
372 merge to produce larger colonies (Branco et al., 2008), which could facilitate horizontal
373 transmission of inoculum between infected and healthy larvae from different egg masses. In
374 practical terms, since egg laying is distributed over more than a one month period, and different
375 stages are found at the same date on individual trees, in these insect species (Battisti et al,

376 2015), a treatment targeting only the larval stage would be less effective than one that would
377 target both egg and larval stages at the same time.

378 The pine processionary moth egg parasitoids, *B. servadeii* and *O. pityocampae* also acquired
379 conidia on emergence from the egg and became infected with *M. brunneum* V275 and
380 ARSEF4556. Still, these results were obtained in laboratory conditions in which adult
381 parasitoids were confined for several days with the treated egg masses, which is not the case in
382 natural conditions. The susceptibility of parasitoids to entomopathogenic fungi appears to
383 depend upon the fungal strain, parasitoid, and parasitoid host (Husberg and Hokkanen, 2001;
384 Nielsen et al., 2005; Hansen and Steenberg, 2007). ~~Most often, entomopathogenic fungi work
385 in concert with parasitoids to suppress pest populations (Hansen and Steenberg, 2007).~~ Some
386 predators and parasitoids avoid hosts infected with entomopathogenic fungi (Butt et al., 2016).
387 Rannback et al (2015) observed that *Trybliographa rapae* Westwood, a larval parasitoid of the
388 cabbage root fly, *Delia radicum* (L.), laid more eggs in healthy than entomopathogenic fungi
389 infected larvae. Parasitoids also vector entomopathogenic fungi carrying inoculum from
390 infected to uninfected hosts (Oreste et al., 2016). Although entomopathogenic fungi like *M.*
391 *brunneum* have been reported infecting non-target arthropods, most often the impact is either
392 low or can be mitigated. For example, *M. brunneum* will kill predatory mites but the target pest
393 species of spider mite (*Tetranychus urticae*) is even more susceptible allowing the two
394 biological control agents to be used together with interactions being synergistic (Dogan et al.,
395 2017).

396 In conclusion, this study demonstrates that *M. brunneum* strains have the potential to control
397 early stages of pine processionary moth and thus stop them causing harm to trees and humans.
398 Both wet and dry formulations of this fungus are effective ovicides and larvicides. The
399 advantages of dry conidia formulations is that they are more amenable; they enable control of
400 the pest in areas where it is difficult to access water to suspend the spores. A good microbial
401 biological control agent must be able to reproduce on its host and it will be more effective if it
402 allowed for horizontal transfer of inoculum among individuals to induce epizootics. The strains
403 of *M. brunneum* tested here are clearly able to infect and sporulate on the sister species of pine
404 processionary moth larvae from both Turkey and Portugal. Additional research is needed to
405 determine the effectiveness of *M. brunneum* in the field. Further studies are recommended to
406 carry out experiments with this fungus in nature. Application methods and long-term effects of
407 the fungus in the forest ecosystem should also be investigated.

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416

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Figure 1. Undetached egg mass of *T. wilkinsoni* (left) and detached egg mass of *T. pityocampa* colonised by saprophytic fungus (right).



Figure 2. Kaplan-Meier survival probability estimates (\pm SE) of 1st instar larvae of *T. wilkinsoni* at different time periods (up to 8 days) after application of *M. brunneum* strains V275 and 4556. Control groups had 100% survival.

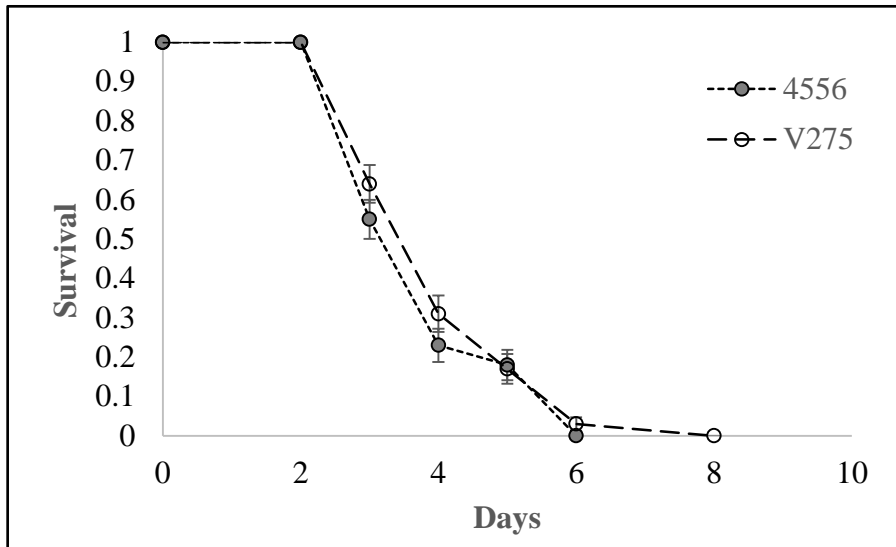


Figure 3. Larvae of healthy newly emerged *T. wilkinsoni* (left). Larvae of *T. pityocampa* infected with *M. brunneum*, most larvae are covered with white mycelium (Middle). Details of mycosed cadaver covered with green conidia of *M. brunneum* (Right).



Table 1. Origin of entomopathogenic fungi tested against the pine processionary moth larvae

Fungal isolate	Original host	Geographic origin
<i>M. brunneum</i> V275 (= Met52, BIPESCO 5)	<i>Cydia pomonella</i> (Lepidoptera: Tortricidae)	Austria
<i>M. brunneum</i> ARSEF ¹ 4556	<i>Boophilus</i> spec. (Acari: Ixodidae)	USA

¹The USDA-ARS Collection of Entomopathogenic Fungal Cultures (ARSEF)

Table 2. Mean percentage mortality of *T. wilkinsoni* young eggs and emergent 1st instar larvae following inoculation of egg masses with *M. brunneum* strains V275 and ARSEF4556 using a dose of 1×10^7 conidia/ml. Mortality was recorded over a 7 day period following larvae emergence. Letters indicate pairwise comparison among treatments, with least significance deviance ($\alpha=0.05$), following GLM analysis with Binary response data

Treatment of pine processionary moth egg masses	% Egg mortality (\pmSE)	% Mortality of emergent larvae (\pmSE)
Eggs with scales <i>M. brunneum</i> (V275)	96.7 \pm 3.1 a	100 \pm 0
Eggs without scales <i>M. brunneum</i> (V275)	96.1 \pm 3.5 a	100 \pm 0
Eggs with scales <i>M. brunneum</i> (4556)	97.8 \pm 2.2 a	100 \pm 0
Eggs without scales <i>M. brunneum</i> (4556)	99.1 \pm 0.9 a	100 \pm 0
Eggs with scales (Tween 80 control)	83.0 \pm 5.0 b	0 \pm 0
Eggs without scales (Tween 80 control)	79.5 \pm 6.2 b	0 \pm 0
Eggs with scales (untreated control)	81.6 \pm 6.1 b	0 \pm 0
Eggs without scales (untreated control)	72.0 \pm 10.3 b	0 \pm 0

Table 3. Mean percentage mortality of *T. wilkinsoni* older eggs and emergent 1st instar larvae following inoculation of egg masses with *M. brunneum* strains V275 and ARSEF4556 at 1×10^7 conidia/ml. Mortality was monitored over a 10 day period with the larvae being killed 4 (± 2) days post inoculation. Letters indicate pairwise comparison among treatments, with least significance deviance ($\alpha=0.05$), following GLM analysis with Binary response data

Treatment of old eggs	% egg mortality (\pmSE)	% mortality of emergent larvae (\pmSE)
<i>M. brunneum</i> (V275)	76.5 \pm 12.2 a	100 \pm 0
<i>M. brunneum</i> (4556)	87.3 \pm 6.0 a	100 \pm 0
Control (Tween 80)	70.6 \pm 10.7 a	0 \pm 0
Control (Natural - untreated)	72.2 \pm 11.6 a	0 \pm 0

Table 4. Percentage mortality of 2nd instar larvae (% ± SE) of *T. pityocampa* 10 days after application of *M. brunneum* strains. Mortality data were corrected by using Abbott's formula. Dead larvae were incubated in Petri dishes for fungi sporulation and identification. Proportion of dead larvae with confirmed *M. brunneum* sporulation is provided in the last column. Different letters represent statistically significant differences amongst mortality ($\alpha=0.05$).

Treatment	% Total Mortality	Corrected % Mortality	% of dead larvae with confirmed <i>M. brunneum</i> conidia
Untreated (Natural) control	2.7 ± 1.5 a		0 ± 0
Tween control	9.6 ± 2.8 b		0 ± 0
<i>M. brunneum</i> V275 10 ⁵	84.5 ± 6.1 c	82.8 ± 6.7 a	89 ± 3.3 a
<i>M. brunneum</i> V275 10 ⁶	98.3 ± 1.0 de	98.2 ± 1.2 b	96 ± 1.7 a
<i>M. brunneum</i> 4556 10 ⁵	95.5 ± 3.1 d	94.5 ± 3.5 ab	91 ± 2.8 a
<i>M. brunneum</i> 4556 10 ⁶	100 ± 0 e	99.3 ± 0 b	90 ± 4.0 a