

1 **Susceptibility of adults of *Anticarsia gemmatalis* Hübner, 1818 (Lepidoptera:**  
2 **Noctuidae) to the entomopathogenic nematode *Steinernema rarum***  
3 **(Doucet, 1986) Mamiya, 1988 (Rhabditida: Steinernematidae)**  
4 **under laboratory conditions**  
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6 Susana R. CAGNOLO \*, María L. PESCHIUTTA and María A. BERTOLOTTI  
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11 Soybean is attacked by a great diversity of pests  
12 that cause economically important damage from seed  
13 germination through to maturity (Aragón *et al.*, 1997;  
14 Aragón, 2002). The velvetbean caterpillar *Anticarsia*  
15 *gemmatalis*, a foliage-feeding insect, attacks the upper  
16 part of the plant. The peak stage of pest infestation extends  
17 from flowering to the start of grain maturation (Aragón,  
18 2002). One of the methods employed in the control of  
19 *A. gemmatalis* and other soybean pests is the use of  
20 insecticides (Aragón & Flores, 2006). Several of them  
21 are pyrethroid formulations (alfamethrine, cypermethrin,  
22 betacyfluthrin, deltamethrin, lambdacyalothrin) and they  
23 are recommended in very small doses (Gamundi &  
24 Perotti, 2008). Pyrethroids are applied during the early  
25 stages of crop development (Massaro, 2008).

26 Biological control agents are also used against *A. gem-*  
27 *matalis*. Available bio-insecticides are based on *Bacil-*  
28 *lus thuringiensis* Berliner (Aragón & Flores, 2006), *Bac-*  
29 *ulovirus* (Moscardi, 1999) and *Saccharopolyspora*  
30 *spinosa* (Aragón & Vázquez, 2000). Fungi, such as *Nomu-*  
31 *raea rileyi*, and hymenopterous and dipteran insects have  
32 been found naturally associated with *A. gemmatalis* and  
33 they are considered as important naturally occurring an-  
34 tagonists controlling the populations of this pest (Aragón  
35 *et al.*, 1997; Avalos *et al.*, 2004). Entomopathogenic ne-  
36 matodes (families Steinernematidae and Heterorhabditi-  
37 dae) are another group frequently used in the control  
38 of agricultural pests, mainly lepidopterans, coleopterans,  
39 dipterans and orthopterans (Adams & Nguyen, 2002).  
40 Laboratory assays with *Steinernema rarum* have shown  
41 the marked susceptibility of insects belonging to different  
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51 orders (Doucet *et al.*, 2008) as well as the great virulence  
52 of the OLI strain, compared with other isolates known  
53 for the province of Córdoba, Argentina (Cagnolo *et al.*,  
54 2004).

55 The susceptibility of larvae and pupae of *A. gemmatalis*  
56 to *Heterorhabditis bacteriophora* (RIV and RN strains),  
57 *S. rarum* (NOE strain), and *S. feltiae* (LCHOR strain)  
58 has been demonstrated (Doucet & Giayetto, 1994; Doucet  
59 *et al.*, 1999). However, the effect of nematodes on the  
60 adult stage of *A. gemmatalis*, has still not been studied.  
61 The objectives of this work were: *i*) to evaluate the  
62 susceptibility of *A. gemmatalis* adults to *S. rarum* (OLI  
63 strain) under laboratory conditions; *ii*) to investigate the  
64 length of the nematode life cycle inside the host insect;  
65 *iii*) to quantify the production of infective juveniles (IJ)  
66 at the end of the parasitic cycle; and *iv*) to analyse possible  
67 spatio-temporal synchrony between the life cycles of the  
68 pathogen and the insect.  
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70 *Steinernema rarum* (OLI strain) was detected in soil  
71 samples from a soybean field in the locality of Oliva,  
72 province of Córdoba (Agüera de Doucet *et al.*, 1990).  
73 This isolate is permanently maintained in culture at the  
74 Laboratory of Parasitology by *in vivo* rearing on *Galle-*  
75 *ria mellonella* larvae (Lepidoptera: Pyralidae), following  
76 conventional techniques (Kaya & Stock, 1997). IJ that  
77 had emerged from *G. mellonella* larvae no longer than 30  
78 days prior to the experiment were used. Adults of *A. gem-*  
79 *matalis* were collected from the locality of Río Ceballos,  
80 province of Córdoba, in late March 2008. Infections were  
81 performed in Petri dishes (5 cm diam.) by distributing the  
82 nematode suspension on a filter paper disc and adding  
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45 *Cátedra de Parasitología, Facultad de Ciencias Exactas, Físicas y Naturales, Universidad Nacional de Córdoba, Av. Vélez*  
46 *Sársfield 299, 5000 – Córdoba, Argentina*

47 \* Corresponding author, e-mail: scagnolo@efn.uncor.edu

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## Short communication

one adult of *A. gemmatalis* per dish. The nematodes were stored at  $23 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$  prior to use. Three nematode doses were applied: 0 (control), 50 and 500 IJ host<sup>-1</sup>. Fifteen insects per dose were evaluated. Experiments were conducted at  $25^\circ\text{C}$ . Insect mortality was recorded every 24 h. Dead insects were transferred individually to White traps 4 days after dying and incubated at  $25^\circ\text{C}$  until IJ emerged (Kaya & Stock, 1997). Emerging IJ were collected from each insect for the following 10 days and stored in plastic boxes at room temperature for counting. The IJ emerging from each infected insect were counted using the volumetric dilution technique and mean value and standard deviation were calculated (InfoStat, 2004). Insect cadavers from which no IJ had emerged within 10 days of being placed in the White traps were dissected under stereomicroscope to confirm nematode presence.

Data on mortality, time between nematode exposure and death and number of IJ produced in individual larvae were analysed using ANOVA ( $P > 0.05$ ). *A posteriori* Fisher test was used to determine differences between treatments (InfoStat, 2004).

Mortality of *A. gemmatalis* adults caused by *S. rarum* OLI was 80% at a dose of 500 IJ insect<sup>-1</sup> and 33.3% at 50 IJ insect<sup>-1</sup>. No mortality was recorded in the untreated control. Differences in mortality between the three doses applied were significant ( $F = 17.74$ ;  $P < 0.0001$ ). Host death occurred within 3 days of the start of the experiment at the 500 IJ dose, and within 4 days at the 50 IJ dose. A higher percentage of insect death was observed at day 1 of the treatments, and no dead caterpillars were detected at day 2. Differences in the time until death occurred proved to be statistically different between the three doses tested ( $F = 15.39$ ;  $P < 0.0001$ ) (Fig. 1). Production of new IJ was recorded at the doses ( $66\,622 \pm 35\,223$  and  $58\,150 \pm 20\,188$  for 500 and 50 IJ, respectively).

Adults of *A. gemmatalis* have nocturnal habits; during the day, they remain on the ground near soybean plants or among leaves. They feed at night with peak feeding from sunset to dusk. The primary food source of adults is flower nectar. Eggs are laid singly mainly on the under side of leaves. Then, larvae hatch and start to feed. They go through six larval instars and drop to the ground to pupate, penetrating the soil to a depth of 2 cm until the adult emerges. Based on the life cycle characteristics of this lepidopteron and the susceptibility observed at the different stages, different management strategies involving nematodes could be implemented. Foliar application of *S. rarum* could be used to control larvae that are located on the leaf surface. A good

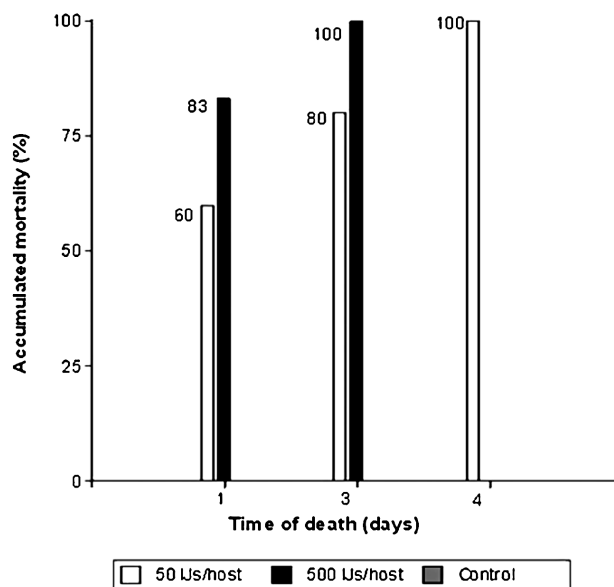


Fig. 1. Mortality of adults of *Anticarsia gemmatalis* by *Steinernema rarum* (OLI).

formulation might help the nematodes to survive on the plant but they also need to infect the larvae. The addition of some surfactants (e.g., glycerol, oil-based antidesiccants, or non-ionic surfactants) can enhance the retention of droplets containing IJ on foliage (Wright *et al.*, 2005). Moreover, these agents could be applied to the soil to control pupae and adults. In the latter case, treatments should be performed at sunset, because with reduced evaporation nematodes would remain active for a longer period and their efficacy could be improved. As for foliar application, using antidesiccants and oil-based formulations and applying them at hours of low solar radiation would help to counterbalance conditions unfavourable for the nematode (Begley, 1990; Grewal, 2002).

It has been frequently suggested that native pests should be controlled with native enemies. This advice is based on the fact that native enemies are best adapted to local climate conditions (Bedding, 1990). Indigenous nematodes are exempted from registration in many European countries, Australia, and the USA, while in other countries they are subject to similar registration procedures as for a chemical pesticide (Hazir *et al.*, 2003). Accordingly, it should be noted that this nematode species was originally detected in soybean-cultivated soils in temperate areas and would therefore be adapted to this habitat. Studies on survival and infectivity to different temperatures of this isolate have demonstrated that both parameters are greatest

at  $23 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$  (Cagnolo & Campos, 2008). These aspects would be expected to enhance *S. rarum* biopesticide efficacy in the cultivated area.

Besides killing *A. gemmatilis* adults, the nematode developed inside them, *i.e.*, the parasite's life cycle continued and new IJ were produced, as was reported for the isolate NOE in larvae of the same species (Doucet *et al.*, 1999). The present work demonstrates that *S. rarum* can parasitise *A. gemmatilis* adults and reproduce inside them. In relation to the time until death of the larva, regardless of the dose used, the greatest percentage mortality was recorded within day 1 of exposure to the nematode. This short time until host death occurrence would be related to the high virulence shown by this isolate (Cagnolo *et al.*, 2004).

The present results show that the adult of *A. gemmatilis* is a favourable host for *S. rarum* (OLI strain) since it provides the nematode with the necessary conditions to continue development and persist. Death of adults involves the interruption of the insect's life cycle, preventing the production of offspring and limiting population density. Furthermore, the emergence of a high number of IJ from the insect, naturally released to the environment, would increase the chances for the nematodes to persist in the habitat. If the capacity to persist in the environment is similar to the currently applied baculoviruses, *S. rarum* could become an equally cost effective and practical control method. Further field work is needed to improve the knowledge of this promising control agent of *A. gemmatilis*.

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## Short communication

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