

2 **Assessment of Entomopathogenic Fungi for**  
3 **the Biocontrol of Sucking Insect Pests:**  
4 **Pertaining to Red Spider Mites (*Tetranychus***  
5 ***urticae*)**  
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7 **ABSTRACT**

**Aim:** The study was undertaken to assess the efficiency and select the virulent entomopathogenic fungal isolates for the biological control of red spider mites (*Tetranychus urticae*) under *in vitro* conditions.

**Place and duration of work:** The study was carried out in Department of Agricultural Microbiology, University of Agricultural Sciences, GKVK, Bangalore, India.

**Methodology:** A leaf disc bioassay was employed to assess the virulence of entomopathogenic fungal isolates isolated from 2 agro-climatic zones of Karnataka, India under *in vitro* conditions. The lethal concentration and lethal time were determined by obtaining the mortality data from various conidial concentrations and the data was analysed using Probit analysis. For the molecular identification the fungal DNA was isolated through Cetyl trimethyl ammonium bromide (CTAB) extraction buffer, followed by purification through phenol/chloroform extraction and precipitation with isopropanol or ethanol and the ITS regions of the 18S rDNA were amplified using universal primers.

**Results:** Out of 81 fungal isolates, 16 (19.25%) showed insecticidal activity under *in vitro* conditions. The results of the *in vitro* studies revealed that two isolates, ENPF-8 and ENPF-58 had the significantly higher mortality rates (93-95 %) against mites at a concentration of  $1 \times 10^8$  conidia/ml after 9 days after treatment (DAT). The virulent fungal isolates were identified as *Isaria fumosorosea* (with accession no: MT997932) and *Hirsutella thompsonii* (MT997936) using the sequencing of the ITS region of the 18S rDNA gene. *H. thompsonii* (ENPF-58) was found to be more virulent against mites, with lower  $LC_{50}$  ( $7.6 \times 10^5$  conidia/ml) and  $LT_{50}$  (5.7, 5.89 and 5.99 days) values compared to the other EPF.

**Conclusion:** Based on results, it is evidenced that though all isolates caused mortality in the mite population but the percent mortality was varied. Based on these results, *H. thompsonii* (MT997935) and *Isaria fumosorosea* (MT997932) could be a promising biocontrol agent due to their high virulence against mites.

8 **Keywords:** Biological control, Sucking pest, Leaf disc bioassay,  $LC_{50}$ , *Hirsutella* sp.

## 9 1. INTRODUCTION

10 Sucking pests, also known as sap-sucking insects, include aphids, thrips, whiteflies,  
11 mites and leafhoppers. These pests are called "sucking" pests because of their piercing  
12 and sucking mouth parts, which they use to extract sap from host plants. As a result of  
13 this sap removal, the affected plants become stunted in growth, distorted in appearance,  
14 and lose chlorophyll content, leading to reduced strength and premature leaf loss. In  
15 addition to transmitting diseases, some of these pests also inject toxic substances into  
16 the host plants while feeding, resulting in significant agricultural losses (15-45 %) and  
17 increased management costs.

18 In recent times, the need for alternative, sustainable and eco-friendly pest management  
19 techniques in agriculture has become increasingly important due to the decline in global  
20 crop losses. Despite the use of approximately 2.5 million tonnes of pesticides annually,  
21 crop losses due to pests have only decreased from 41.1% during 1988-90 to 32.1 %  
22 during 2001-03 (Dhaliwal *et al.*, 2015). The use of pesticides has led to various  
23 problems, includes the development of resistance and resurgence of sucking pests  
24 (Sharma *et al.*, 2019) and residual toxic effects on humans, animals, insect parasites and  
25 predators. Additionally, the use of pesticides increases the cost of production. To  
26 address these challenges, it is essential to find a sustainable and environmentally  
27 friendly pest management solution. Microbial biocontrol agents (MBCAs) have gained  
28 popularity as an alternative to chemical pesticides in controlling insect pests. These  
29 natural enemies are effective in reducing pest populations without posing a risk to human  
30 and environmental health. This method of biological control has been adopted globally  
31 for controlling both field and forest insect pests due to its persistence, mode of action,  
32 cost-effectiveness, non-polluting characteristics and compatibility with chemical  
33 pesticides (Ramanujam *et al.*, 2014). Fungi, viruses, and bacteria are the most  
34 commonly used microbial agents in field trials, while Rickettsia, protozoa, and  
35 nematodes have seen limited use due to their dependence on environmental conditions  
36 or difficulty in application (Shahid *et al.*, 2012).

37 Entomopathogenic fungi are potentially the most diverse and versatile biological control  
38 agents due to their wide host range that often results in natural epizootics. An attractive  
39 feature of these fungi is that they infect by contact and act through penetration (Nadeau  
40 and Boisvert, 1996). They have certain advantages in pest control programs over other  
41 insect pathogens as they infect all stages of insects and directly infect through the  
42 cuticle, while other agents need to be ingested. Mass production techniques of these  
43 fungi are simpler, easier and cheaper, and they have a persistent nature, making them a  
44 potential candidate in pest control programs over other insect pathogens. The mode of  
45 entry and action of these fungi make them a promising option for combating sucking and  
46 piercing insects (Ramanujam *et al.*, 2014). Among the numerous types of fungi, the fungi  
47 that can invade dead insects are called saprophagous and fungi that infect living insects  
48 are called entomophagous (Butt *et al.*, 2006). Of the estimated 1.5 to 5.1 million species  
49 of fungi in the world, approximately 750 to 1,000 are considered entomopathogens  
50 placed in over 100 genera many of these have great significance in insect pest  
51 management (Charnley and Leger, 2010). The most common and extensively studied  
52 entomopathogens are *Metarhizium* spp. *Beauveria* spp. *Nomuraea rileyi*, *Lecanicillium*  
53 spp. *Paecilomyces* and *Hirsutella* spp. (Kachhawa, 2017, Wraight *et al.*, 2007 and Lacey  
54 *et al.*, 2008). The *Metarhizium* spp. and *Beauveria* spp. have been extensively used to  
55 combat different sucking pests under both greenhouse and field conditions. However,  
56 the success of biological control depends on the environmental conditions, such as high

57 relative humidity, moderate temperatures and soil organic matter (Fargues *et al.*, 1997;  
58 Vu *et al.*, 2008; Sabbahi *et al.*, 2008).

59 Several researchers studied and evaluated the different entomopathogenic fungi for the  
60 control of different sap sucking insect pests of agriculture (Lacey *et al.*, 2008) provided  
61 most satisfying results and evidences in many crops. The present study aimed to isolate  
62 and identify the virulent native entomopathogenic fungal strains from soil and insect  
63 cadaver samples collected from various regions of South Karnataka, India. This was  
64 done to assess their potential for biocontrol against the sap sucking insects like mites in  
65 flower crops. Despite extensive research on the topic in India, limited information exists  
66 on the biocontrol of these pests. Screening of local fungal isolates for their virulence  
67 characteristics is crucial for the success of biocontrol strategies. Conservation and  
68 periodic improvement of the efficacy of these biological control agents will significantly  
69 aid in crop protection and help produce pesticide residue-free agricultural commodities,  
70 reducing the usage of pesticides in agriculture.

## 71 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

72

### 73 **2.1 Entomopathogenic fungal isolates**

74 The fungal isolates were isolated from two agro-climatic zones (eastern dry zoon and  
75 southern dry zone) of Karnataka, India. The spore suspension of isolates was prepared  
76 by adding 10ml 0.5 % sterile tween 80 to 10 days old cultures and various  
77 concentrations of conidial suspension was prepared by serial dilution. The conidial count  
78 was determined using an improved Neubauer Hemocytometer.

### 79 **2.2 Virulence of entomopathogenic fungal isolates**

80 The leaf disc bioassay method was performed following the protocol by Nazir *et al.*  
81 (2018). Healthy gerbera leaves were used to obtain 8 cm diameter leaf discs, which were  
82 later surface sterilized with 70 percent alcohol. The leaf discs were separately immersed  
83 in fungal spore suspension of concentrations  $1 \times 10^8$  conidia per mL for 10 seconds, and  
84 a control was maintained by dipping the leaf discs in sterile distilled water. All the leaf  
85 discs were air dried to remove excess moisture and transferred onto sterile Petri plates  
86 containing filter paper to maintain humidity during incubation. Three replications for each  
87 treatment were maintained throughout the experiment. Twenty laboratory-reared red  
88 spider mites were placed onto the treated and control leaf discs using a sterile camel  
89 brush. The complete setup was then incubated at  $25 \pm 1$  °C. The plates were observed at  
90 two-day intervals from 3 days after treatment (DAT) up to 9 DAT for mortality of test  
91 insect pests. Dead insects were collected from leaf discs and transferred onto PDA  
92 plates, which were then incubated at  $25 \pm 1$  °C with 90 percent relative humidity to  
93 promote fungal development and sporulation to confirm that the death of test insects was  
94 caused by infection from individual fungal isolates.

### 95 **2.3 Determination of lethal concentration (LC<sub>50</sub>) and Lethal time (LT<sub>50</sub>)**

96 The screened fungal isolates which were showed high virulence against the mites were  
97 subjected to further testing to determine their lethal concentration and lethal time. This  
98 was done at six different conidia concentrations ( $1 \times 10^4$ ,  $1 \times 10^5$ ,  $1 \times 10^6$ ,  $1 \times 10^7$ ,  $1 \times 10^8$  and  
99  $1 \times 10^9$  conidia per mL) using the leaf disc bioassay method (Trinh *et al.*, 2020).

## 100 **2.4 Molecular identification of virulent entomopathogenic fungal isolates.**

101 The molecular identification of the virulent entomopathogenic fungal isolates was an  
102 important step in the study, as it allowed to accurately identify the fungal species and  
103 determine their relationships with other known fungal species. To identify the efficient  
104 entomopathogenic fungal isolates at the species and strain level, the 18S rRNA gene  
105 was isolated, amplified and sequenced from all six isolates that exhibited higher mortality  
106 of test insects under *in-vitro* studies.

### 107 **2.4.1 DNA extraction**

108 The mycelia of entomopathogenic fungal cultures were inoculated onto potato dextrose  
109 agar and incubated for 10-15 days, depending on the growth of the organisms. After  
110 incubation, the mycelia were collected by scraping the fungal mat using a sterile glass  
111 slide. The DNA extraction method was standardized and certain steps were optimized to  
112 obtain a good concentration of DNA using the cetyl trimethyl ammonium bromide (CTAB)  
113 extraction buffer (Doyle & Doyle, 1987), followed by purification through  
114 phenol/chloroform extraction and precipitation with isopropanol or ethanol (Ashktorab  
115 and Cohen, 1992).

116 The ITS1 and ITS2 rDNA regions were amplified using universal primers, ITS1 (5'-  
117 TCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGG-3') and ITS4 (5'- TCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC-3'), each  
118 at a concentration of 0.5 µl. The amplification reaction included 5 µl of sample DNA as  
119 template, 1 µl of 1X Buffer, 1 µl of dNTP mix, 0.25 µl of DNA polymerase, and 13.25 µl of  
120 ultrapure water (Saito *et al.*, 2012). The thermocycler was used to perform the reaction.  
121 The PCR conditions were: initial denaturation for 5 minutes at 94°C, followed by 35  
122 cycles of denaturation (30 seconds at 94°C), annealing (30 seconds at 58°C), and  
123 extension (1 minute at 72°C). The final extension step was 7 minutes at 72°C. The  
124 amplified DNA products were sequenced through outsourcing. The initial identification of  
125 the strain was performed using BLASTN against the EzTaxon-e database, which  
126 contains all 18s rRNA gene sequences of type strains with validly published eukaryotic  
127 names. Further, detailed phylogenetic analyses were conducted in MEGA 6.06 based on  
128 partial 18S rRNA gene sequences. The partial 18S rRNA gene sequence of ENPF  
129 isolates was aligned with the type strain sequences of the respective genera. Sequence  
130 similarities were calculated using the neighbour-joining tool without applying an  
131 evolutionary model. Phylogenetic trees were reconstructed using the maximum-  
132 parsimony method, the neighbour-joining method, and the Jukes-Cantor correction. All  
133 trees were based on partial 18S rRNA gene sequences and were resampled 100 times  
134 using bootstrap analysis.

## 135 **2.5 Statistical analysis:**

136 The data obtained from the results was analysed using ANOVA (Analysis of Variance)  
137 with the help of the software Web Agri Stat Package 2.0  
138 (<https://ccari.icar.gov.in/wasp2.0/index.php>, accessed on October 22, 2022), and the  
139 means were compared using post-hoc test (Duncan's multiple range test) at a 5 percent  
140 level. The lethal concentration (LC<sub>50/90</sub>) and median lethal time (LT<sub>50</sub>) were used as  
141 relative measures of the susceptibility of the host population and are convenient and  
142 commonly used indices for evaluating the efficacy of biological control agents. The LC<sub>50</sub>  
143 values were calculated using the Probit analysis (Finney, 1971) function in the IBM  
144 SPSS Statistics v 20 software (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY, USA). The LC<sub>50</sub> values for

145 entomopathogenic fungal isolates were considered significantly different if the 95 percent  
146 confidence intervals (CIs) did not overlap with the CIs of other isolates. LT<sub>50</sub> values for  
147 mortality were estimated by survivorship analysis (Kaplan-Meier survival curves) using  
148 IBM SPSS v 20.0 with censored data for insects surviving more than 8 days of  
149 incubation period in bioassay studies and survival curves were compared using the log-  
150 rank test  $\chi^2$  (chi-square) value at P $\leq$ 0.05.

### 151 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### 152 3.1 Virulence of entomopathogenic fungal isolates

154 The results of the virulence assay on mites exhibited diverse outcomes in terms of the  
155 mortality caused by different isolates over time. All the entomopathogenic isolates  
156 successfully caused mycosis, starting from the third day after treatment (3 DAT) to the  
157 ninth days after treatment (9 DAT). The results of virulence studies on mites revealed  
158 that only *Hirsutella* and *Isaria* fungal isolates showed significantly higher mortality,  
159 starting from 3 DAT to 9 DAT. *Hirsutella* isolate (ENPF-58) caused significantly higher  
160 percent mortality of mites, 17.78, 46.67, 73.33 and 95.53 percent at 3, 5, 7 and 9 days  
161 after treatment, followed by *Isaria* (ENPF-8) isolate, which caused 15.56, 40, 68.89 and  
162 93.33 percent mortality at 3, 5, 7 and 9 DAT respectively (Table 1).

163 On the third day after treatment, many of the fungal isolates were failed to cause  
164 mortality in mites, among sixteen isolates the significantly the highest mortality of mites is  
165 caused by *Hirsutella* sp. (17.78 %) followed by *Isaria* sp. (15.56 %). On the fifth and  
166 seventh day after treatment, the mortality rate of mites was significantly increased in all  
167 isolates. *Hirsutella* sp. and *Isaria* sp. caused pronounced mortality ranging from 65-85  
168 percent on the fifth to seventh days after treatment. Among the *Beauveria* isolates,  
169 ENPF-16 caused the highest percent mortality (10 and 33.33 percent) on 5<sup>th</sup> and 7<sup>th</sup> days  
170 after treatment respectively. Whereas, among 4 *Metarhizium* isolates, 13.33 and 31.11  
171 percent mortality was caused by ENPF-68. Out of 4 *Aspergillus* isolates, ENPF-26  
172 caused 3.33 and 17.78 percent mortality of mites on 5<sup>th</sup> and 7<sup>th</sup> day after treatment  
173 respectively. The statistically highest (95.33 and 93.33 %) mortality was observed in the  
174 leaf discs dipped in the spore suspension of *Hirsutella* isolate ENPF-58 and *Isaria* isolate  
175 ENPF-8 on the ninth day after treatment respectively (Table 1). All *Metarhizium* and  
176 *Aspergillus* isolates were not effective in causing mortality (30-60 % on ninth day after  
177 treatment).

178 Although all the fungal isolates were able to cause mortality of mites under *in vitro* the  
179 percent mortality varied significantly among the isolates. This might be due to various  
180 factors such as the higher efficiency or virulence of strains isolated from closely related  
181 hosts against the same insects (Vu *et al.*, 2008), variations in the production of  
182 extracellular enzymes such as protease, chitinase, lipase, endoprotease, esterase, and  
183 carboxypeptidase, and the role of mycotoxins like beauvericin, bassianolide, aphidiocolin  
184 (specific to aphids), and beauverolide (anti-immune activity) in causing mycosis (Kim *et al.*  
185 in 2013; Sayed *et al.* in 2019). Other factors may include genetic virulence, conidia  
186 production and germination (Sani *et al.*, 2020). The only two isolates caused significantly  
187 high mortality, which may be because mites, although arthropods, do not belong to the  
188 insect class and specific secondary metabolites such as Hirsutellin-A produced by  
189 *Hirsutella* spp. inhibit ribosomal activity and fumosorinone produced by *I. fumosorosea*  
190 inhibits calmodulins activity.

191 The varying mortality rate among the fungal isolates belonging to the same genera is  
192 intriguing. This variation could be due to the host specificity of the species, even though  
193 all four *Beauveria* isolates belong to the same genus. The host preference of the isolates  
194 might vary based on the species, or it could be attributed to differences in the production  
195 of extracellular enzymes (Sayed *et al.* in 2019; Márquez-Gutiérrez *et al.*, 2022). Rachana  
196 *et al.* (2009) reported that the treatment with *H. thompsonii* at  $4.6 \times 10^8$  spores /mL  
197 resulted in the highest recorded mortality of 78.20 percent, followed by treatment with *H.*  
198 *thompsonii* at  $4.6 \times 10^8$  spores /mL + dicofol at 0.025 %. This treatment caused 81.21  
199 percent mortality. *F. semitectum* at  $2.1 \times 10^9$  spores /mL + *H. thompsonii* at  $4.6 \times 10^8$   
200 spores /mL also resulted in high mortality, with a recorded rate of 81.48 percent at 15  
201 days after spray in greenhouse conditions against the red spider mite *T. neocaledonicus*  
202 on okra in Shimoga. Tamai *et al.* (2002), also confirmed similar results.

### 203 **3.2 Mortality responses of sucking pests to lethal concentration (LC<sub>50</sub>) and** 204 **lethal time (LT<sub>50</sub>)**

205 The results of the virulence studies under *in vitro* conditions showed that *Isaria* sp.  
206 (ENPF-8) and *Hirsutella* sp. (ENPF-58) showed significant mortality of mites in virulence  
207 studies under *in vitro* conditions. The LC<sub>50</sub> and LC<sub>90</sub> values for *Isaria* sp. were  $3.5 \times 10^6$   
208 and  $8.3 \times 10^9$ , and for *Hirsutella* sp. were  $7.6 \times 10^5$  and  $1.3 \times 10^9$ , respectively, on the 7th  
209 day after treatment. The LC<sub>50</sub> and LC<sub>90</sub> values were lower on the 9<sup>th</sup> day after treatment.  
210 The LC<sub>50</sub> and LC<sub>90</sub> for *Isaria* and *Hirsutella* isolates were  $2.4 \times 10^5$ ,  $8.5 \times 10^4$  and  $3.6 \times 10^8$ ,  
211  $9.1 \times 10^7$  respectively (Table 2). The results of lethal time (50 and 90 percent mortality)  
212 showed that the LT<sub>50</sub> and LT<sub>90</sub> values for *Isaria* isolate were higher (6.19 days and 11.03  
213 days, respectively) compared with *Hirsutella* isolate (5.99 days and 11.12 days,  
214 respectively) (Table 3).

215 Overall, the *Hirsutella* isolate was found to be more effective than the *Isaria* isolate in  
216 causing mite mortality. A higher concentration of conidial spores ( $10^{10}$  spores/mL) was  
217 required to cause mortality of mites at early stages compared to later stages (more than  
218 9 days). This is because as the spore concentration increases, the number of conidia per  
219 square area also increases, increasing the likelihood of causing mycosis in the insect  
220 pest. The table 2 and 3 present the results of lethal concentration and lethal time (LC  
221 and LT). Variation in lethal concentration and time by isolates may be because of  
222 specificity, growth rate, enzyme production rate and even conidial germination. Similar  
223 results were obtained by Vu *et al.*, 2008, Nazir *et al.*, 2018 and Trinh *et al.*, 2020. In  
224 2015, El-Sharabasy conducted a laboratory study to assess the effectiveness of  
225 entomopathogenic fungi *Hirsutella thompsonii* (Fisher) and *Paecilomyces fumosoroseus*  
226 against all stages of citrus mites. Leaf discs containing larvae, nymphs, adults and eggs  
227 were sprayed with different concentrations of conidia. The results showed that all stages  
228 were susceptible to both fungal pathogens, but *H. thompsonii* exhibited greater virulence,  
229 with LC<sub>50</sub> values of  $3.5 \times 10^8$ ,  $2.9 \times 10^7$ , and  $1.4 \times 10^6$  conidia/mL and LT<sub>50</sub> values of 7.78,  
230 7.11, and 6.92 days for larvae, nymphs, and adults, respectively. *P. fumosoroseus* had  
231 LC<sub>50</sub> values of  $5.9 \times 10^7$ ,  $5.8 \times 10^9$ , and  $3.3 \times 10^9$  conidia/mL and LT<sub>50</sub> values of 7.49, 7.14  
232 and 4.31 days for the same stages. *H. thompsonii* was more effective against eggs at its  
233 LC<sub>50</sub> value. Similar results were obtained by Fiedler *et al.* (2002), Tamai *et al.* (2002) and  
234 Rachana *et al.* (2009) during their studies on mites.

### 235 **3.3 Molecular identification of selected entomopathogenic fungal isolates**

236 The molecular identification of the virulent entomopathogenic fungal isolates was an  
237 important step in the study, as it allowed to accurately identify the fungal species and  
238 determine their relationships with other known fungal species. The results of partially  
239 sequencing the 18S rRNA gene of fungal isolates contained more than 530 nucleotide  
240 bases, which is sufficient to identify the organisms by blasting the sequence in the NCBI  
241 database. The results of the phylogenetic analysis indicate the presence of two major  
242 distinct clusters of isolates. The relationships obtained through pairwise sequence  
243 similarities were confirmed by the phylogenetic trees generated using different treeing  
244 methods.

245 The results of the phylogenetic tree analysis showed two broad distinct clusters for  
246 *Beauveria bassiana* isolates. The relationships obtained through pairwise sequence  
247 similarities were confirmed by the phylogenetic trees generated using different treeing  
248 methods. The partial 18S rRNA gene sequences of entomopathogenic fungal isolates  
249 ENPF- 8 was identical to those of the species *Isaria fumosorosea* with accession  
250 numbers MT997932. On the other hand, ENPF-58 was identified as *Hirsutella*  
251 *thompsonii* with accession numbers MT997936. The ENPF-8 and ENPF-58 isolates  
252 showed a similarity of nearly 93% and 97% to the *I. fumosorosea* strain\_AMEP094 and  
253 *H. thompsonii* strain MTCC\_6686 respectively (Figure 1).

#### 254 **4 CONCLUSION**

255 It can be inferred from the results that the different entomopathogenic fungal isolates  
256 caused varied levels of mortality red spider mites (*Tetranychus urticae*). *Hirsutella*  
257 *thompsonii* and *Isaria fumosorosea* were found to be the most virulent and were  
258 successful in causing the significant mortality in insect pests. *Beauveria* and  
259 *Lecanicillium* isolates showed moderate mortality, while *Aspergillus* and *Metarhizium*  
260 isolates were not as effective in causing mortality. The concentration of conidial spores  
261 per millilitre has a significant impact on the lethal concentration and time of the fungi,  
262 with higher concentrations resulting in higher mortality rates in a shorter time frame. The  
263 results of these studies are consistent with previous research and highlight the potential  
264 of *Hirsutella* and *Isaria* as biological control agents for mites. However, more research is  
265 needed to fully understand the factors that contribute to the variation in lethal  
266 concentration and time among different fungal isolates.

#### 267 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

268 This work was carried out in collaboration among all authors. Authors RP designed the  
269 study, performed the statistical analysis, wrote the protocol and first draft of the  
270 manuscript. Authors KN, MR and VKR edited the whole draft. All authors read and  
271 approved the final manuscript.

#### 272 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

273 Authors have declared that no competing Interests exist.

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**Table 1: Virulence of entomopathogenic fungal isolates on percent cumulative mortality of red spider mites (*Tetranychus urticae*) under *in vitro* conditions.**

Treat-ments	Isolates	Percent cumulative Mortality (DAT*)			
		3 DAT	5 DAT	7 DAT	9 DAT
T <sub>1</sub>	<i>Beauveria</i> sp. (ENPF-3)	0.00 (0.74) <sup>c</sup>	6.67 (14.66) <sup>e</sup>	15.56 (22.67) <sup>ef</sup>	33.33 (35.21) <sup>e</sup>
T <sub>2</sub>	<i>Metarhizium</i> sp. (ENPF-6)	0.00 (0.74) <sup>c</sup>	10.00 (18.00) <sup>d</sup>	24.44 (29.33) <sup>cd</sup>	43.33 (41.23) <sup>d</sup>
T <sub>3</sub>	<i>Isaria</i> sp. (ENPF-8)	15.56 (22.94) <sup>a</sup>	40.00 (38.33) <sup>b</sup>	68.89 (55.21) <sup>ab</sup>	93.33 (75.23) <sup>a</sup>
T <sub>4</sub>	<i>Metarhizium</i> sp. (ENPF-9)	2.22 (5.60) <sup>bc</sup>	13.33 (20.67) <sup>c</sup>	26.67 (30.67) <sup>cd</sup>	40.00 (39.54) <sup>d</sup>
T <sub>5</sub>	<i>Beauveria</i> sp. (ENPF-16)	0.00 (0.74) <sup>c</sup>	10.00 (18.00) <sup>d</sup>	33.33 (33.67) <sup>c</sup>	63.67 (49.23) <sup>d</sup>
T <sub>6</sub>	<i>Lecanicillium</i> sp. (ENPF-24)	4.44 (10.47) <sup>b</sup>	13.33 (20.67) <sup>c</sup>	26.67 (30.67) <sup>cd</sup>	43.33 (41.23) <sup>d</sup>
T <sub>7</sub>	<i>Aspergillus</i> sp. (ENPF-26)	0.00 (0.74) <sup>c</sup>	3.33 (10.33) <sup>f</sup>	17.78 (24.33) <sup>ef</sup>	40.00 (39.54) <sup>d</sup>
T <sub>8</sub>	<i>Aspergillus</i> sp. (ENPF-33)	0.00 (0.74) <sup>c</sup>	3.33 (10.33) <sup>f</sup>	15.56 (22.67) <sup>ef</sup>	33.33 (35.21) <sup>e</sup>
T <sub>9</sub>	<i>Lecanicillium</i> sp. (ENPF-41)	6.67 (12.40) <sup>b</sup>	10.00 (18.00) <sup>d</sup>	46.67 (42.33) <sup>b</sup>	68.33 (54.54) <sup>b</sup>
T <sub>10</sub>	<i>Beauveria</i> sp. (ENPF-48)	2.22 (5.60) <sup>bc</sup>	6.67 (14.66) <sup>e</sup>	15.56 (22.67) <sup>ef</sup>	43.33 (41.23) <sup>b</sup>
T <sub>11</sub>	<i>Aspergillus</i> sp. (ENPF-53)	0.00 (0.74) <sup>c</sup>	0.00 (0.74) <sup>g</sup>	13.33 (20.67) <sup>f</sup>	26.67 (31.27) <sup>f</sup>
T <sub>12</sub>	<i>Hirsutella</i> sp. (ENPF-58)	17.78 (24.75) <sup>a</sup>	46.67 (42.33) <sup>a</sup>	73.33 (58.00) <sup>a</sup>	95.53 (78.00) <sup>a</sup>
T <sub>13</sub>	<i>Beauveria</i> sp. (ENPF-60)	2.22 (0.74) <sup>d</sup>	6.67 (14.66) <sup>e</sup>	15.56 (22.67) <sup>ef</sup>	43.33 (41.23) <sup>d</sup>
T <sub>14</sub>	<i>Metarhizium</i> sp. (ENPF-67)	0.00 (0.74) <sup>c</sup>	11.11 (19.32) <sup>cd</sup>	28.89 (32.45) <sup>cd</sup>	40.00 (39.54) <sup>d</sup>
T <sub>15</sub>	<i>Metarhizium</i> sp. (ENPF-68)	2.22 (5.60) <sup>bc</sup>	13.33 (20.67) <sup>c</sup>	31.11 (33.67) <sup>c</sup>	43.33 (41.23) <sup>d</sup>
T <sub>16</sub>	<i>Aspergillus</i> sp. (ENPF-79)	0.00 (0.74) <sup>c</sup>	4.44 (12.23) <sup>f</sup>	13.33 (20.67) <sup>f</sup>	33.33 (35.21) <sup>e</sup>

**Note:**

\*DAT: Days After Treatment

Values in the parentheses are ARCSINE transferred values.

The values represented by same letters in each column are statistically on par with each other by DMRT mean of three replications at 95 % confidence interval (CI).

1 **Table 2: Dose mortality responses of mites (*Tetranychus urticae*) to entomopathogenic**  
 2 **fungal isolates under *in vitro* conditions.**

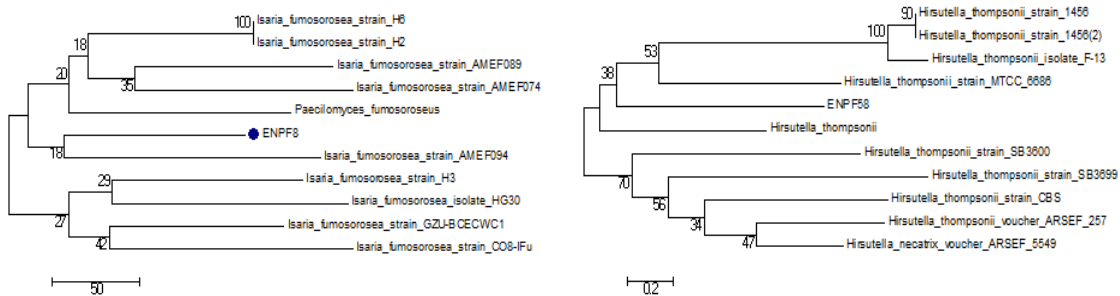
DAT	Isolates	$\chi^2$	LC <sub>50</sub> <sup>1</sup> (Conidia/mL)	95% CI <sup>2</sup>		LC <sub>90</sub> (Conidia/mL)	95% CI	
				Lower	Upper		Lower	Upper
7	<i>Isaria</i> sp. (ENPF-8)	1.20	3.5×10 <sup>6</sup>	2.9×10 <sup>5</sup>	6.7×10 <sup>7</sup>	8.3×10 <sup>8</sup>	1.6×10 <sup>7</sup>	2.6×10 <sup>9</sup>
	<i>Hirsutella</i> sp. (ENPF-58)	1.54	7.6×10 <sup>5</sup>	6.3×10 <sup>4</sup>	1.4×10 <sup>7</sup>	1.3×10 <sup>8</sup>	9.6×10 <sup>6</sup>	9.6×10 <sup>8</sup>
9	<i>Isaria</i> sp. (ENPF-8)	0.68	2.4×10 <sup>5</sup>	1.3×10 <sup>4</sup>	3.6×10 <sup>6</sup>	3.6×10 <sup>7</sup>	5.4×10 <sup>6</sup>	6.7×10 <sup>8</sup>
	<i>Hirsutella</i> sp. (ENPF-58)	1.24	8.5×10 <sup>4</sup>	8.3×10 <sup>3</sup>	1.1×10 <sup>6</sup>	9.1×10 <sup>6</sup>	1.1×10 <sup>6</sup>	1.1×10 <sup>8</sup>

3 **Note:** <sup>1</sup>The LC<sub>50</sub> values were calculated by Probit analysis using IBM SPSS v 20.0 from the  
 4 mortality data collected from 7 various conidia concentration at 7 days after treatment. <sup>2</sup>95%  
 5 Confidence intervals that did not overlap indicate differences between LC50 and LT50  
 6 values.

7 **Table 3: Estimation of lethal time mortality responses of entomopathogenic fungal**  
 8 **isolates against mites (*Tetranychus urticae*) under *in vitro* conditions.**

Isolates	$\chi^2$	LT <sub>50</sub> <sup>1</sup> (±SE) (Days)	95% CI <sup>2</sup>		LT <sub>90</sub> (±SE) (Days)	95% CI	
			Lower	Upper		Lower	Upper
<i>Isaria</i> sp. (ENPF-8)	1.10	6.19±0.2	5.06	7.21	11.83±0.4	10.65	12.93
<i>Hirsutella</i> sp. (ENPF-58)	1.47	5.99±0.1	5.01	7.16	11.12±0.6	10.48	12.72

9 **Note:** <sup>1</sup>LT50 values for mortality were estimated by survivorship analysis (Kaplan-Meier  
 10 survival curves) using IBM SPSS v 20.0 with censored data for insects surviving >8d  
 11 incubation period in bioassay studies and survival curves were compared using the log-rank  
 12 test  $\chi^2$  (chi-square) value at P=0.05. <sup>2</sup>95% Confidence intervals that did not overlap indicate  
 13 differences between LC50 and LT50 values.



14 **Figure 1:** Phylogenetic placement of *Isaria* and *Hirsutella* isolate based on nearly full-length  
 15 18S rRNA gene sequences. The tree was calculated with the Neighbour-joining method.  
 16 Bootstrap values are based on 1,000 replicates. Numbers shown above branches are  
 17 bootstrap percentages for clades supported above the 70% level. The bar indicates 5%  
 18 sequence divergence.