

Standardization of Formulation and Application Approaches for Field Implementation of EPNs

Abstract

Entomopathogenic nematodes (EPNs) live parasitically inside the infected insect host, and so they are termed as endoparasitic. They infect different types of insect living in the soil like the larval forms of moths, butterflies and beetles as well as adult forms of beetles, grasshoppers and crickets. The present experiment was conducted under both laboratory and field conditions at CCS Haryana Agriculture University, Hisar. Two most virulent strains of EPNs, *Metarhabditis amsactae* strain HAR-St-II and HAR-Ht-III were taken and their formulations were standardized using six different media *i.e.* cadaver based formulation, water, alginate gel, foam chips, clay chips and water dispersible granules. Among these formulations, cadaver based formulation was found to be best. Maximum numbers of active IJs after 90 days were obtained from this formulation were 3370 and 2728 /Petri plate in strain HAR-St-II and HAR- Ht-III of *M. amsactae*, respectively. Further this, experiment was conducted at field level for EPNs suspension was standardized using different size of nozzle opening *i.e.* 25 μm , 50 μm , 75 μm and 100 μm on knapsack sprayer. *Spodopteralitura* was selected as a test insect in okra crop for foliar application of EPNs and results revealed that 100 μm nozzle opening size gave maximum larval mortality of *S. litura*. Per cent mortality of *S. litura* was increased with increase in size of nozzle and period of observation.

Keywords: Entomopathogenic nematodes, *Spodoptera litura*, Formulation, Nozzle size, Mortality.

Introduction

Entomopathogenic nematodes (EPNs) belonging to the families Steinernematidae and Heterorhabditidae have been applied with great success as a biocide against a wide range of insect pests (Campos-Herrera, 2015). Both families have similar traits and life cycles, despite not being closely related with the bacterial symbiont of *Steinernema* species belonging to the genus *Xenorhabdus*, whereas *Heterorhabditis* is associated with *Photorhabdus* (Griffin *et al.*, 2005). Steinernematids and heterorhabditids have a free-living stage, called the infective juveniles (IJs). This stage occurs freely in the soil, where the IJs can actively seek out and find a suitable host insect. The success of EPNs formulated products for soil application, as well as their foliar application in the greenhouse production of crops (Shapiro-Ilan *et al.*, 2006; Lacey and Georgis, 2012; Kutamanyane *et al.*, 2018), has rekindled an interest in their commercial field application against above-ground insect pests (Platt *et al.*, 2020). However, as soil-adapted organisms, EPNs are poorly suited to above-ground environments, which often feature low

relative humidity, extremes of temperature, and exposure to ultraviolet radiation. The above-mentioned factors result in rapid desiccation and death, negatively impacting on EPNs efficacy as biocontrol agents. The main factor appears to be humidity, with nematode survival being prolonged in humid environments. Various formulations have been developed in order to preserve the integrity of stored EPNs, to facilitate their storage and application. These formulations include activated charcoal, alginate and polyacrylamide gels, baits, clay, paste, peat, polyurethane sponge, vermiculite and water-dispersible granules. Successful storage under refrigeration conditions ranges from one to seven months depending on the EPN species (Aliyu *et al.*, 2015). EPNs formulated and applied as insect cadavers showed higher efficacy for the pest control than the EPNs applied in an aqueous solution. Additives used in the formulation have been found to increase the survival and maintain the virulence of the EPNs. Aqueous suspension is commonly used formulation that is mainly used for storage, transportation and applications (Chen and Glazer 2005). Live insects pre-infected with EPNs (living insect bombs) are the latest formulation and application approach to improve the efficacy of EPNs (Gumus *et al.*, 2015). Tobacco caterpillar, *Spodoptera litura* (F.) (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae), is a polyphagous, notorious leaf feeding insect globally important serious crop pest distributed widely from tropical to temperate regions, throughout the Middle East, East Asia, Pacific Islands and Oceania (Bhati, 2020; Chandi *et al.*, 2022). Variations in the plant host species have been recorded by various authors and this insect attacking more than 120 different host plants including cotton, okra, tobacco, maize, cabbage, cauliflower, tomato, greengram, groundnut, tea etc., causing significant economic loss in vegetable and field crop production around the Asia-Pacific region (Ahmad and Mehmood, 2015; Sang *et al.*, 2016). Larvae of *S. litura* feed on various parts of a plant comprising leaves, flowers and fruits, causing leaf skeletalization in the early growth stage of the crop and severe defoliation in later stages overall leading to a reduction in the photosynthetic capacity of plants (Bhati, 2020).

Material and methodology

Standardization of formulation of native strain of EPNs

The experiment was conducted under laboratory conditions in the Department of Nematology. Two most virulent strains of EPNs, *Metarhabditis samsactae* strain HAR-St-II and HAR-Ht-III were taken and their formulations were standardized using six different media. These media used as treatments were water, alginate gel, dead host cadaver/ cadaver based formulations, water dispersible granules, clay chips and foam chips with inoculum level of 100 IJs/ treatment. The experiment was laid out with completely randomized design with four replications. The number of active IJs per formulation was counted thrice under a stereoscopic microscope and mean value was worked out at 15 days intervals up to 3 months.

Efficacy of IJs survival after 90 days in different formulations

Three formulation viz., water, dead cadavers and alginate gel consisting EPNs were inoculated on *Galleria mellonella* at inoculum level of 10 IJs/larva with five replications under laboratory conditions. Observation on mortality of *G. mellonella* larvae was recorded on 1, 2, 3 and 4 days after inoculation.

Standardization of application technology of EPNs

Two most virulent strains HAR-St-II and HAR-Ht-III of *M. amsactae* were selected for their application against test insect, *S. litura* in okra field. The experiment was done in research area of Department of Nematology. Suspension of EPNs was standardized using different size of nozzle opening i.e. 25 µm, 50 µm, 75 µm and 100 µm on knapsack sprayer. Okra crop was grown in plots of 2x2 m with spacing of 60 x 45 cm. Five plants per plot were selected and each treatment was replicated five times. Observations on the number of dead insect per plant were recorded 1, 2, 3 and 4 days after spray. Number of dead insects on aerial parts of the plants was counted on 1, 2, 3 and 4 days after spray.

Statistical Analysis

The statistical analysis of data obtained in experiments was done based on CRD/ RBD as per experiment requirement using OPSTAT software available online at CCS HAU website (www.hau.ernet.in). Comparison of treatments was made at 5 % level of significance. Necessary transformation of data was done as per requirement.

Results

Standardization of formulation of native strains of EPNs

Survival of strains HAR-St-II and HAR-Ht-III was evaluated in five formulations to standardize the formulations.

Table 1. Survival of IJs of *Metarhabditis amsactae*, strain HAR-St-II in different formulations

Formulations	Number of active IJs at different time periods						Mean
	15 th day	30 th day	45 th day	60 th day	75 th day	90 th day	
Water	100.0 (10.1)	100.0 (10.1)	97.3 (9.9)	92.8 (9.7)	87.8 (9.5)	81.0 (9.1)	93.0 (9.7)
Alginate gel	91.5 (9.7)	80.0 (9.1)	70.0 (8.5)	59.3 (7.8)	31.5 (5.8)	18.8 (4.6)	58.5 (7.6)
Cadaver based Formulation	4153.8 (64.5)	4039.0 (63.6)	3919.8 (62.6)	3776.5 (61.5)	3550.3 (59.6)	3369.3 (58.0)	3801.4 (61.6)
Water dispersible Granules	51.0 (7.3)	23.8 (5.1)	13.0 (3.9)	6.5 (2.9)	0.0 (1.4)	0.0 (1.4)	15.7 (3.7)
Clay chips	6.3 (2.9)	1.0 (1.4)	0.0 (1.4)	0.0 (1.4)	0.0 (1.4)	0.0 (1.4)	1.2 (1.7)
Foam chips	93.0 (9.7)	80.3 (9.1)	31.3 (5.8)	11.5 (3.6)	0.0 (1.4)	0.0 (1.4)	36.0 (5.2)
Mean	749.3 (17.4)	720.5 (16.4)	688.5 (15.4)	657.8 (14.5)	611.6 (13.2)	578.2 (12.7)	
CD at 5 %	formulation: (0.26), time: (0.26), time x formulation: (0.65)						

Values in parentheses are n+ 1 square root transformations, initial inoculum- 100 IJs/ Petri plate

Data presented in Tables 1 revealed that cadaver based formulation was found best among all the formulations tested and it had significantly highest number of active IJs (3801.4/ Petri plate). In rest of the formulations, alginate gel showed maximum survival (58.5/ Petri plate) though it was significantly less than survival in water. As the observation time increased, there was decrease in number of active IJs irrespective of formulations. Maximum mean survival of IJs was 749.3 IJs/Petri plate after 15 days which declined to 578.2 IJs/ Petri plate after 90 days. In clay chips, there was no survival after first observation. In water dispersible granules and foam chips, survival declined rapidly upto 60 days and there was no survival after this period. After one month, in alginate gel and foam chips, survival was 80 per cent which was less than survival in water (100 %). Recovery of active IJs in cadaver based formulation was maximum (nearly 4154/ Petri plate) on 15th day which slowly declined upto 90 days.

Table 2. Survival of IJs of *Metarhabditisamsactae* strain HAR-Ht-III in different formulations

Formulations	Number of active IJs at different time periods						
	15 th day	30 th day	45 th day	60 th day	75 th day	90 th day	Mean
Water	98.5 (10.0)	95.0 (9.8)	92.5 (9.7)	89.3 (9.6)	86.0 (9.4)	82.3 (9.2)	90.6 (9.6)
Alginate gel	89.5 (9.6)	78.0 (8.9)	67.3 (8.3)	49.8 (7.2)	24.0 (5.1)	12.5 (3.8)	53.5 (7.2)
Cadaver based formulation	3176.0 (56.4)	3094.3 (55.6)	2989.8 (54.7)	2897.8 (53.8)	2800.0 (52.9)	2728.0 (52.2)	2947.6 (54.3)
Water dispersible granules	57.5 (7.7)	29.5 (5.6)	18.5 (4.5)	9.3 (3.3)	0.8 (1.6)	0.0 (1.4)	19.3 (4.0)
Clay chips	9.3 (3.3)	1.8 (1.9)	0.0 (1.4)	0.0 (1.4)	0.0 (1.4)	0.0 (1.4)	1.8 (1.8)
Foam chips	94.5 (9.8)	85.5 (9.4)	49.5 (7.2)	24.3 (5.1)	5.8 (2.8)	0.8 (1.6)	43.4 (6.0)
Mean	587.5 (16.1)	564.0 (15.2)	536.3 (14.3)	511.7 (13.4)	486.1 (12.2)	470.6 (11.6)	
CD at 5 %	formulation: (0.29) time (0.29), time x formulation: (0.71)						

Values in parentheses are n+ 1 square root transformations, initial inoculum- 100 IJs/ Petri plate

The results obtained on formulations for *M. amsactae* strain HAR-Ht-III were also similar to strain HAR-St-II. Data in Table 2 show that maximum mean survival of IJs was recorded in cadaver based formulation followed by water as control. In all other formulations, except cadaver based formulation, survival of IJs was less than water. Considering mean survival, irrespective of formulation, the number of active IJs significantly declined at each observation time. The number of active IJs recovered in cadaver based formulation was maximum (3176 IJs/ Petri plate) on 15th day which showed significant decline at each observation finally reaching to (2728 IJs/ Petri plate) after 90 days. In clay chips survival was less than 10 per cent and it was negligible after 30 days onwards. In water dispersible granules, after 30 days survival was less than 30 per cent which was declined to less than 10 per cent after 60 days. In foam chips and alginate gel about 50 per cent survival was recorded on 45th and 60th day, respectively but the survival in these formulations was also less than water.

Efficacy of IJs survived after 90 days in different formulations on *G. mellonella*

The IJs surviving in water, cadaver based formulation and alginate gel after 90 days were tested for their efficacy on *G. mellonella*. Results of both the strains of HAR-St-II and HAR-Ht-III were presented in Table 3. Since, there was no survival in clay chips, water dispersible granules and foam chips after 90 days, these formulations were not included in this efficacy test.

Table 3. Efficacy of IJs of HAR-St-II and HAR-Ht-III recovered from different formulations on *G. mellonella*

Treatments	Per cent mortality of <i>G. mellonella</i> larvae using strain HAR-St-II					Per cent mortality of <i>G. mellonella</i> larvae using strain HAR-Ht-III				
	24 h	48 h	72 h	96 h	Mean	24 h	48 h	72 h	96 h	Mean
Water	10.1 (16.4)	28.0 (31.7)	62.0 (52.2)	89.9 (76.3)	47.5 (44.1)	8.1 (13.8)	22.0 (27.6)	56.0 (48.5)	81.9 (66.8)	42.1 (39.2)
Cadaver based Formulations	28.0 (31.7)	74.0 (59.8)	91.9 (76.1)	99.8 (87.1)	73.4 (63.7)	14.0 (21.7)	42.0 (40.3)	76.0 (60.8)	93.8 (79.2)	56.4 (50.5)
Alginate gel	4.2 (9.1)	22.0 (27.2)	54.0 (47.3)	80.0 (65.5)	40.0 (37.3)	0 (2.9)	14.1 (19.9)	36.0 (36.6)	71.9 (61.0)	30.5 (30.1)
Untreated check	0 (2.9)	0 (2.9)	0 (2.9)	0 (2.9)	0 (2.9)	0 (2.9)	0 (2.9)	0 (2.9)	0 (2.9)	0 (2.9)
Mean	10.6 (15.0)	31.1 (30.4)	52.0 (44.6)	67.5 (57.9)	-	5.6 (10.3)	19.5 (22.7)	42.1 (37.2)	62.0 (52.5)	-
CD at 5 %	formulation: (4.8), time: (4.8), formulation x time: (9.8)					formulations: (4.9), time: (4.9), formulations x time: (9.9)				

Values in parentheses are angular transformations, inoculum level: 10 IJs/ larva

Data showed in Table 3, revealed that mean per cent mortality using strain HAR-St-II, was highest in cadaver based formulation *i.e.* 73.4 per cent followed by IJs survived in water (47.5 %). In alginate gel, mortality of *G. mellonella* larvae was significantly less (40.0 %) than IJs survived in water. Mean mortality of *Galleria* larvae increased with period of observations. It was maximum (67.5 %) after 96 h of inoculation and minimum (10.6 %) after 24 h. After 24 h, 10.1 per cent mortality was recorded in water which was statistically at par in alginate gel but lower than cadaver based formulation. Similarly, 28.0 per cent mortality was observed in water after 48 h which was statistically at par in alginate gel but significantly less than cadaver based formulation. After 72 h, 62.0 per cent mortality was statistically different in water and alginate gel. After 96 h, 90.0 per cent mortality was observed in water which significantly higher than alginate gel but lower than cadaver based formulation. In strain HAR-Ht-III, data showed in Table 3 that mean mortality in all the treatments was significantly different maximum being in cadaver based formulation and minimum in alginate gel. Irrespective of formulations, mean mortality of *Galleria* larvae at period of observation differed significantly. It was highest after 96 h followed by 72, 48 and 24 h. After 24 h, mortality of *Galleria* larvae was statistically similar in water and cadaver based formulation whereas no mortality was observed in alginate gel and control. After 72 h, maximum mortality (76 %) of *G. mellonella* larvae was achieved in cadaver based formulation followed by water (56.0 %) and alginate gel (36.0 %) and all these differed significantly.

Standardization of application technology of EPNs

The application of *M. amsactae* strains HAR-St-II and HAR-Ht-III was standardized using four size of nozzles i.e. 25 µm, 50 µm, 75 µm and 100 µm on knapsack sprayer. Eighty ml nematode suspension containing 10,000 IJs/ml was used in each treatment. Observations were recorded daily on dead larvae of *S. litura*, upto four days. Data in Table 4 indicate that maximum mean mortality (61.7 %) was observed at 100 µm nozzle which differed significantly from all other treatments. Mortality of *S. litura* increased with increase in period of observations.

Table 4. Effect of spray of *Metarhabditisamsactae* strain HAR-St-II by different size of nozzles on mortality of *Spodoptera litura*

Treatments (size of nozzle)	Per cent moratlity of <i>Spodoptera litura</i> at different time intervals				
	1 st day	2 nd day	3 rd day	4 th day	Mean
25 µm	0.3(3.1)	7.8(16.1)	16.7(24.0)	26.7(31.1)	12.8(18.6)
50 µm	15.6(23.1)	34.4(35.9)	45.0(42.1)	57.2(49.1)	38.1(37.6)
75 µm	25.6(30.3)	44.4(41.8)	58.3(49.8)	77.2(61.5)	51.4(45.8)
100 µm	31.1(33.9)	56.1(48.5)	70.0(56.8)	89.4(71.1)	61.7(50.2)
Mean	18.1(22.6)	35.7(35.6)	47.5(43.2)	62.2(53.2)	-
C.D. at 5 %	treatment: (1.1), time: (1.1), time x treatment: (2.3)				

Values in parentheses show angular transformations

Irrespective of nozzle size, mean mortality on 1st day was minimum (18.1 %), which increased to 62.2 per cent on 4th day. On 1st day, there was no mortality in spray with 25 µm nozzle but 15.6, 25.6 and 31.1 per cent mortality was observed in 50, 75 and 100 µm nozzle, respectively. On 2nd day, significantly higher (56.1 %) mortality was observed in 100 µm nozzle than all other nozzle sizes. On 3rd day, mortality of *S. litura* increased to 70.0 per cent which was significantly higher than the mortality in other treatments. On 4th day of spray highest per cent mortality (89.4 %) was observed in 100 µm nozzle followed by 77.2 per cent in 75 µm nozzle. Data in Table 5 show that as the mean per cent mortality of *S. litura* caused by *M. amsactae* strain HAR-Ht-III significantly increased with increase in size of nozzle and it was maximum (62.6 %) in 100 µm nozzle and minimum (11.2 %) in 25 µm nozzle.

Table 5. Effect of spray of *Metarhabditisamsactae* strain HAR-Ht-III by different size of nozzles on mortality of *Spodoptera litura*

Treatments (size of nozzle)	Per cent moratlity of <i>Spodoptera litura</i> at different time intervals				
	1 st day	2 nd day	3 rd day	4 th day	Mean
25 µm	0.3(3.1)	6.7(16.5)	15.0(32.1)	22.8(36.2)	11.2(22.0)
50 µm	8.3(14.9)	37.2(37.6)	51.1(40.2)	65.0(53.3)	40.4(34.7)
75 µm	28.3(22.7)	41.7(45.6)	65.6(54.1)	75.6(60.0)	52.8(45.6)
100 µm	35.0(28.5)	52.2(53.7)	75.0(60.4)	88.3(70.2)	62.6(53.2)
Mean	18.0(17.3)	34.4(38.4)	51.7(46.7)	62.2(53.2)	-
C.D. at 5 %	treatment: (1.3), time: (1.3), treatment x time: (2.6)				

Values in parentheses show angular transformations

As the period of observations increased, there was significantly increase in mean per cent mortality of *S. litura* which was maximum (62.2 %) on 4th day and minimum (18.0 %) on 1st day. Mortality of *S. litura* was similar in 100 μm nozzle on 3rd day (75.0 %) to mortality in 75 μm nozzle on 4th day (75.6 %). Similarly, mortality on 3rd day in 75 μm nozzle and on 4th day in 50 μm nozzle were statically different. More than 50.0 per cent mortality was observed on 3rd day in 50 μm nozzle whereas it was observed on 2nd day in 100 μm nozzle.

Table 6. Number of dead insects on aerial parts of plant

Treatments (size of nozzle)	Per cent mortality of <i>Spodoptera litura</i> on aerial parts	
	Strain HAR-St-II	Strain HAR-Ht-III
25 μm	15.6(23.1)	20.6(26.8)
50 μm	41.7(40.1)	47.2(43.3)
75 μm	49.4(44.6)	52.2(46.2)
100 μm	57.8(49.5)	61.7(51.8)
C.D. at 5 %	(2.9)	(2.2)

Values in parentheses show angular transformations

Data on the mortality of *S. litura* caused by strains HAR-St-II and HAR-Ht-III and its presence on aerial part are presented in Table 6. In strain HAR-St-II, dead larvae of *S. litura* available on plant significantly increased with increase in size of nozzle. Maximum (57.8 %) insects available on aerial parts were recorded in 100 μm size of nozzle and minimum (15.6 %) in 25 μm nozzle. Similarly, in strain HAR-Ht-III, dead larvae of *S. litura* available on plant significantly increased with increase in size of nozzle. Maximum (61.7 %) insects available on aerial parts were recorded in 100 μm size of nozzle followed by 75 μm nozzle (52.2 %) and minimum (20.6 %) in 25 μm nozzle.

Isolation of EPNs from dead insects

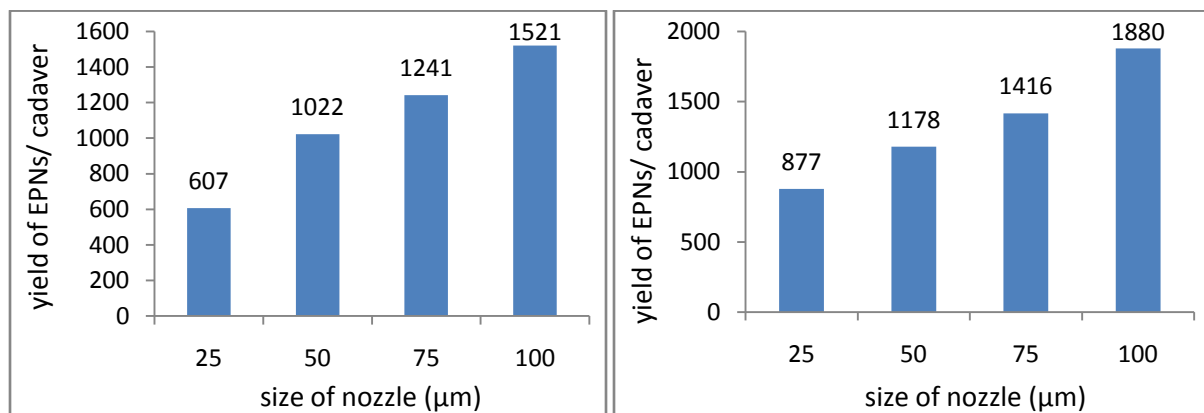


Figure 1. Isolation of *Metarhabditisamsactae*, strain HAR-St-II (left) and HAR-Ht-III (right) from dead larvae of *Spodoptera litura*

Isolation of IJs of *M. amsactae* strain HAR-St-II and strain HAR-Ht-III from cadaver of *S. litura* by spray of EPNs using four size of nozzles, results in Figure 1 (left) clearly indicated that highest recovery (1521

IJs/cadaver) was obtained in 100 µm nozzle size followed by 75, 50 and 25 µm nozzle size, with yield of IJs 1241, 1022 and 607 IJs/cadaver of *S. litura* at inoculum level of 80 ml suspension per plot containing 10,000 IJs/ ml suspension. Maximum recovery (1880 IJs/cadaver) of *M. amsactae* strain HAR-Ht-III (Figure 1, right) was obtained in 100 µm nozzle size. Least multiplication (877 IJs/cadaver) was recorded in 25 µm nozzle size, emerged from the cadavers of the *S. litura* with spray of 10,000 IJs/ml suspension.

Discussion

In present study, six formulations i.e. cadaver based formulation, water, alginate gel, foam chips, clay chips and water dispersible granules were used to see which cadaver based formulation was found best. In cadaver based formulation, maximum recovery of active IJs was found on 15th day i.e. 3170 IJs in HAR-Ht-III and 4150 in HAR-St-II strains. This number declined gradually upto 90th day. On 90th day, number of active IJs recovered in this formulation was 27 times more in HAR-Ht-III and 33 times more in HAR-St-II of initial number of IJs. This highest number of IJs recovered from cadaver based formulation was due to multiplication of IJs in insect larvae. Cadaver based formulation can be used for the management of insect-pests on small-scale as suggested by Del Valle *et al.* (2008) and Monteiro *et al.* (2014). Use of this formulation may not be cost effective due to high cost of diet for culturing of *G. mellonella* larvae and is also labour-intensive. If some cheap and easy technique for culturing of *G. mellonella* or some other suitable insects that can be used as host of EPNs for their large scale multiplication is developed then it can be possible to use this formulation for pest management. Advantage of this type of mass multiplication of EPNs is that no specialized equipment or application skill is required. Monteiro *et al.* (2014) suggested that for the control of soil dwelling insect-pests, cadavers containing EPNs can be applied in field or glasshouse simply by broadcast. In present studies, survival of IJs in alginate gel and foam chips, was 80 per cent, upto one month, which was less than survival in water (100 %). After 90 days, survival in water was more than 80.0 per cent and no survival was found in foam chips. So, alginate gel and foam chips formulation did not prove better than water. Less survival of IJs in alginate gel and foam chips as compared to water may be due to desiccation. Studies of Jangid *et al.* (2017) suggested that maximum (84 %) recovery of IJs of *S. masoodi* was from calcium gel alginate capsules followed by water dispersible granules (80 %) and vermiculate formulations (76 %), respectively at 25 °C after one month and after second and third month, survival of IJs in all the three formulations declined. Grewal *et al.* (1996) reported that in calcium gel alginate capsule formulation, energy burn rate of EPNs is reduced, which extends the shelf life of *S. carpocapsae* upto 5 to 6th month at room temp. According to Georgis *et al.*, 1991, in sponge formulations, EPNs are simply squeezed from the sponge while alginate gel does not directly dissolve in water and sodium citrate can be added for dissolving it. Early morning application of EPNs is recommended as it prevents the desiccation and that can negatively affect their efficacy (Shapiro-Ilan *et al.*, 2001). In present study, survival declined rapidly upto 60 days in water dispersible granules and foam

chips and there was no survival after this period. In clay chips, there was no survival after first observation (15 days). Same results were obtained by Maru *et al.* (2016) who found that no survival of *S. carpocapsae* was reported in talc powder formulation after one month. In water dispersible granules and sponge bits, they found 7.73 and 18.81 per cent survival, respectively, after two months, at room temperature. Grewal (2002) found that the shelf life and infectivity of *S. carpocapsae* was more in wettable granule formulation than liquid storage at 25°C. The survival in wettable granule formulation lasted up to seven months, as compared to four months in EPNs stored in liquid and the infectivity on *G. mellonella* did not differ significantly in both formulations, after storing IJs upto three months. An effective formulation should be able to withstand adverse conditions like extreme temperature and dessication, and easy in transportation and handling. Therefore, further attempts are required to develop such formulations of EPNs for field applications.

When both the strains of *M. amsactae* were sprayed using 25, 50, 75 and 100 µm size of nozzles, larval mortality of *S. litura* increased with increase in size of nozzle and observation period. Mean mortality of *S. litura* was 62.2 per cent on 4th day in both strains. Maximum mortality of *S. litura* larvae was observed 89.4 per cent in strain HAR-St-II and 88.3 per cent in strain HAR- Ht-III. Among all nozzles, 100 µm nozzle was found the best. This may be due to the reason that delivery of viable EPNs was more in 100 µm nozzle size than other nozzles. Laczynski *et al.* (2006) found that there was no difference in the effect of viability of EPNs using four size i.e. 11008 VK, 11006 VK, 11004 VK and 11002 VK of TeeJet fan nozzles. Brusselman *et al.* (2012) while evaluating the spray of EPNs by flat fan, air induction flat fan, TwinJet spray nozzle, air support system and row application system, found that nozzle type has a minor effect on number of EPNs delivered. Use of air support system and row application system improved nematode delivery on cabbage plant.

Conclusions

The cadaver-based formulation outperformed other formulations tested, yielding the highest number of active IJs after 90 days, with 3370 and 2728 per Petri plate in strains HAR-St-II and HAR-Ht-III, respectively. These IJs, surviving in water, cadaver-based formulation, and alginate gel, displayed efficacy in killing *G. mellonella* larvae after the 90-day period. Additionally, when both strains of *M. amsactae* were sprayed using nozzles of varying sizes (25, 50, 75, and 100 µm), larval mortality of *S. litura* increased proportionally, with the 100 µm nozzle proving most effective. Strain HAR-Ht-III exhibited higher IJ recovery from *S. litura* cadavers compared to strain HAR-St-II across all nozzles.

References

- Ahmad, M. and Mehmood, R. (2015). Monitoring of resistance to new chemistry insecticides in *Spodoptera litura* (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) in Pakistan. *Journal of Economic Entomology*, **108**: 1279 – 88.

- Aliyu, H. U., Dahiru, M. and Owuama, C. I. (2015). Isolation of Entomopathogenic Nematode bacteria Complex with a Potential for Use as a Biological Insecticide in Nigeria. *Journal of Environmental Issues and Agriculture in Developing Countries*, **7**: 37-47.
- Brusselman, E., Beck, B., Pollet, S., Temmerman, F., Spanoghe, P., Moens, M. and Nuyttens, D. (2012). Effect of the spray application technique on the deposition of entomopathogenic nematodes in vegetables. *Pest Management Science*, **68**: 444-453.
- Campos-Herrera, R. (2015). Nematode pathogenesis of insects and other pests. Ecology and applied technologies for sustainable plant and crop protection. *Switzerland: Springer International Publishing*, 10-1007.
- Chen, S. and Glazer, I. (2005). A novel method for longterm storage of the entomopathogenic nematode *Steinernema feltiae* at room temperature. *Biological Control*, **32**: 104-110.
- Del Valle, E. E., Dolinski, C., and Souza, R. M. (2008). Dispersal of *Heterorhabditis baujardi* LPP7 (Nematoda: Rhabditida) applied to the soil as infected host cadavers. *International Journal of Pest Management*, **54**: 115-122.
- Georgis, R., Kaya, H. and Gaugler, R. (1991). Effect of steinernematid and heterorhabditid nematodes on nontarget arthropods. *Environmental Entomology*, **20**: 815-822.
- Grewal, P. S. (2002). Formulation and application technology. In: *Entomopathogenic Nematology* (Gaugler, R. ed.). Wallingford: CABI Publishing, pp.265–287.
- Grewal, P.S., Miller, R.W., Martin, W. R. and Georgis, R. (1996). Development of the first biological product for the suppression of plant-parasitic nematode populations. *Nematropica*, **26**: 269.
- Griffin, C., Boemare, N. E., and Lewis, E. E. (2005). Biology and Behaviour. *Nematodes as Biocontrol Agents*, 47-64.
- Gumus, A., Karagoz, M., Shapiro-Ilan, D., and Hazir, S. (2015). A novel approach to biocontrol: Release of live insect hosts pre-infected with entomopathogenic nematodes. *Journal of Invertebrate Pathology*, **130**: 56-60.
- Jangid, K. C., Siddiqui, A. U. and Bhati, S. S. (2017). Shelf-life of different formulations of *Steinernema masoodi* under laboratory condition. *Journal of Entomology and Zoology Studies*, **5**: 466-468.
- Katumannyan, A., Ferreira, T., and Malan, A. P. (2018). A review of *Bradysia* spp. (Diptera: Sciaridae) as pests in nursery and glasshouse crops, with special reference to biological control using entomopathogenic nematodes. *African Entomology*, **26**: 1-13.
- Lacey, L. A., and Georgis, R. (2012). Entomopathogenic nematodes for control of insect pests above and below ground with comments on commercial production. *Journal of Nematology*, **44**: 218.
- Łączynski, A., De Moor, A., Dierickx, W., Moens, M., Darius, P., Sonck, B. and Ramon, H. (2006). The effect of hydraulic agitation on the viability of the nematode *Heterorhabditisbacteriophora*. *Crop Protection*, **25**:1135-1141.
- Maru, A. K., Siddiqui, A. U., Parihar, A., and Sharma, S. K. (2016). Shelf life of different formulations of entomopathogenic nematode, *Steinernema carpocapsae* STSLU. *Current Nematology*, **27**: 43-146.
- Monteiro, O. C. M., Matos, R., Araujo, L. X., Campos, R., Bittencourt, V. R. E. P., Dolinski, C. and de Azevedo Prata, M. C. (2014). Entomopathogenic nematodes in insect cadaver formulations for the control of *Rhipicephalus microplus* (Acari: Ixodidae). *Veterinary Parasitology*, **20**: 310-317.
- Platt, T., Stokwe, N. F., and Malan, A. P. (2020). A review of the potential use of entomopathogenic nematodes to control above-ground insect pests in South Africa. *South African Journal of Enology and Viticulture*, **41**: 1-16.
- Sang, S., Shu, B. S., Yi, X., Liu, J., Hu, M. Y. and Zhong, G. H. (2016). Cross-resistance and baseline susceptibility of *Spodoptera litura* (Fabricius) (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) to cyantraniliprole in the south of China. *Pest Management Science*, **72**: 922–930.
- Shapiro-Ilan, D. I., Gouge, G. H., Piggott, S. J., and Patterson Fife, J. (2006). Application technology and environmental considerations for use of entomopathogenic nematodes in biological control. *Biological Control*, **38**:124–133.

Shapiro-Ilan, D. I., Lewis, E. E. Behle, R. W. and McGuire, M. R. (2001). Formulation of nematode entomopathogenic nematode-infected-cadavers. *Journal of Invertebrate Pathology*, **78**: 17-23.