

Management of Dipteran pests through Entomopathogenic Nematodes

Abstract:

Dipteran insects are most destructive agricultural pests. They are also vectors of many diseases of human and animal. Much effort has been made to control this pest through chemical treatment. The application of biological control agents has been advocated as an ecofriendly control method for insect pests. Entomopathogenic nematodes (EPNs) are obligate insect parasites that can be effective biocontrol agents for many agricultural pests including many Dipteran insect pests. EPNs pose much less threat to the environment than chemical pesticides. However, several biotic and abiotic factors along with method of application influence the bioefficacy of this organism against Dipteran insects. This review paper provides an overview of developments in entomopathogenic nematode research and evaluation of their potential for use against Dipteran insect pests.

Key words: Entomopathogenic nematodes (EPNs), Dipteran insect, biocontrol agent, Application method

INTRODUCTION

The order Diptera (True flies) is a successful group of insects with greatly diversified number of insects with more than 153,000 species [1]. They are small to medium sized insects with soft bodies with a single pair of wing, commonly known as flies. They are coevolved in association with plants and animals. The order includes many familiar fly species of highly economic importance as pests of plants. Besides being agricultural pests, they are vectors of many diseases of man and animal; some of the Dipteran insects are pollinators of flowers. At least 71 of 150 Dipteran families include flies that feed on flowers as adults [2]. Some of them are fruit flies (Tephritidae and Drosophilidae), leaf miners (Agromyzidae) or gall former (Cecidomyiidae). Larvae of some Dipteran pests are predatory in nature. Some are obligate parasites of mammals and livestock. Maggots or grubs are the larval stage of the order Diptera are the most important agriculturally ; they are found in many habitats viz., in any kind of water,soil, in plant tissue or beneath bark or stones, in organic matter. Adults also feed on plant or animal juices or other insects. Dipteran pest control has traditionally relied upon chemical pesticides; however concerns

about public safety, soil and water pollution, insecticide resistance, effects on non-target organisms, and enhanced biodegradation of pesticides, have increased the pressure to shift from chemical management to alternative control strategies like using of novel insecticides, repellants, sterile insect technology, and biological control agents. Among the biological control agents, Entomopathogenic nematodes (EPNs) offer an ecofriendly and IPM compatible alternative to chemical insecticides [3]. Several laboratory and field experiments documented the suitability of EPNs for the management of Dipteran insects.

ENTOMOPATHOGENIC NEMATODES (EPNs)

EPNs of the families Heterorhabditidae and Steinernematidae have only one free living stage, the infective juvenile stage (IJ) [4]. Members of both families are associated with mutualistic bacteria of the genera *Xenorhabdus* (for *Steinernema* : Steinernematidae) and *Photorhabdus* (for *Heterorhabditis* : Heterorhabditidae) [5,6]. IJs locate the host by detecting the insect excretory products, carbon dioxide levels, temperature gradients and movement of the host. The IJs seek out and enter insect hosts via the spiracles, mouth, anus, or intersegmental membranes. Once they enter the hemocoel, they release the bacteria which multiply and kill the host within 24-48 hrs. They have a broad host range and are safe to the environment. Entomopathogenic nematodes can be easily mass-produced and applied using conventional spray equipment. In field application, a concentration of $2.5-5 \times 10^9$ IJs/ha are recommended to give effective control. ENPs have a great potential to be used in integrated pest management (IPM) programs. However, efficacy varies depending on the species of EPN, concentrations of nematodes, target pest species, development stage of the pest, and environmental conditions like temperature, moisture, aeration, soil type, and soil fauna [7,8].

EFFICACY OF EPNS AGAINST DIPTERAN PESTS (Table.1)

Various laboratory and field experiments documented different degrees of susceptibility of Dipteran pest species to EPNs. The application of EPNs in the soil beneath the tree canopy can kill a significant number of the soil dwelling stages of Dipteran insects. It has been observed that most of the studies involved simple laboratory bioassays with native strains of EPNs. Commercial formulation of the native strains and their availability to farmers are the sustainable solution for the biocontrol of Dipteran pests. The feasibility of this approach can be further improved if adjuvants, such as wetting agents that enhance nematode efficacy. By trapping their application targets (hot spots) within the orchard is a cost effective approach. Determining an

appropriate concentration of IJs of EPN, application timing (off-season or early season), single application or multiple application, and temperature is crucial in the cost effective control of Dipteran pests. In greenhouse production, a single application of *S. feltiae* (2.5×10^6 IJs/m²) at temperatures below 25°C against the second, third, and fourth instar larvae of fungus gnats consistently showed high level of control[9]. The use of various species and strains of EPNs against soil-inhabiting prepupae and pupae stages of leafminers produced variable results. Maintaining high relative humidity (above 90%) with optimum spray volume in the greenhouse or on the plants for at least 6–8 h after nematode applications is essential for successful control. The best control of *Liriomyza trifolii* was achieved with 2-4 weekly applications of *S. carpocapsae* or *S. feltiae* at 1×10^6 IJs/m² against the second and the third instars larvae. The IJs enter the leafmine via the punctures created by female flies during egg laying or host feeding. Upon contact with the host larva, nematodes are likely to infect the insect via the anus rather than the mouth, but not through spiracles [10]. *S. feltiae* can infect *Lycoriella auripila*, *Lycoriella mali* and *Lycoriella solani* larvae in mushroom production houses. Several concentrations ranging from 1.5- 3.0×10^6 / m² IJs of *S. feltiae* have been tested to achieve satisfactory control of sciarid infestations [11]. *S. carpocapsae* and *S. feltiae* have been the most commonly used species in field evaluations of cabbage maggot, *Delia radicum*. Timing and conditions for nematode applications have to optimal because *D. radicum* larvae are only in the soil for a brief period [12]. In laboratory assays, *S. feltiae* or *H. megidis* were applied to moist filter paper or animal manure against house fly, *Musca domestica*. It was observed that second and third instars and adults were most susceptible stages [13]. Both third instar larvae and pupae are biological stages of the oriental fruit fly, *Bactrocera dorsalis* that persist in the soil until adult emergence. Several studies have been carried out under laboratory and field conditions showing how EPNs can be applied within an area-wide integrated pest management approach to control fruit fly species in orchards and backyard fruit trees[14,15].

Environmental conditions are critical to the survival and virulence of nematodes. The choice of application method may influence how nematodes should be formulated for best results [7]. Infective stage juveniles (IJ) may be applied to foliage using common agrochemical equipment, including hand-held pressurized sprayers, mist blowers, electrostatic or spinning disc systems and aircraft mounted atomizer sprayers.

Table.1. Parasitism of entomopathogenic nematodes against dipteran insects.

Entomopathogenic nematodes	Insects	Infectivity(%)	references
<i>Heterorhabditis bacteriophora</i> , <i>H. indica</i> , <i>Steinernema asiticum</i> , <i>S. carpocapsae</i> , <i>S. glaseri</i>	Oriental fruit fly larvae (<i>Bactrocera dorsalis</i>)	94.97 %	[14,15]
<i>S. feltiae</i> <i>S. carpocapsae</i> <i>H.bacteriophora</i>	Olive fruitfly pupae (<i>Bactrocera oleae</i>)	80%	[16]
<i>S. feltiae</i> (SN), <i>S. carpocapsae</i> (All), <i>S. riobrave</i> , <i>S. glaseri</i> (NC), <i>H.bacteriophora</i> <i>H. marelatus</i>	The olive fruit fly, third-instar larvae (<i>Bactrocera oleae</i>)	19.1-67.9%	[17,77]
<i>H.bacteriophora</i> , <i>H. indica</i> , <i>H.marelatus</i> , <i>H.zealandica</i> , <i>S. feltiae</i>	late third larval instar and pupal stages of <i>Queensland fruit fly</i> (<i>Bactrocera tryoni</i>)	caused significant larval mortality	[18]
<i>S. feltiae</i> , <i>S.carpocapsae</i> <i>H.bacteriophora</i>	Third larval instar of <i>Queensland fruit fly</i> (<i>Bactrocera tryoni</i>)	caused significant larval mortality	[19]
<i>S. feltiae</i>	peach fruit fly, (<i>Bactrocera zonata</i>)	100%	[20]
<i>H.bacteriophora</i> , <i>H. megidis</i> , <i>H. georgiana</i> , <i>H. floridensis</i> ,	larvae, pupae and adults of <i>Bactrocera zonata</i> <i>B.dorsalis</i>	58.50-93.06%	[21] [22,76]

<i>H.indica</i> ,			
<i>S.carpocapsae</i> ,			
<i>S. riobrave</i> ,			
<i>S. feltiae</i> ,			
<i>S. rarum</i> ,			
<i>S. glaseri</i>			
<i>H.bacteriophora</i> ,	3rd larval instar of house	43.3-10%	[13]
<i>H.indica</i> ,	fly		
<i>S.carpocapsae</i> ,	(<i>Musca domestica</i>)		
<i>S.glaseri</i> .			
<i>S.feltiae</i> SN,	<i>Lycoriella auripila</i> ,		[11]
<i>S. feltiae</i> UK	<i>L. mali</i> ,		[23]
<i>S. carpocapsae</i> (All)	<i>L. solani</i>		[24]
<i>H.bacteriophora</i> (NC)	<i>Megaselia halterata</i>		[25,26]
<i>H.megidis</i>	Fungus gnats		[27]
	(<i>Bradysia coprophila</i> ,		
	<i>B. difformis</i>)		
<i>Steinernema</i> sp.	<i>Megaselia sandhui</i>	13–33%	[28]
<i>S. abbasi</i>			
<i>S. pakistanense</i>			
<i>H. indica</i>			
<i>H. bacteriophora</i> ,	chive maggot		[29]
<i>S. carpocapsae</i> ,	(<i>Bradysia odoriphaga</i>)		[30]
<i>S. feltiae</i> ,			
<i>H. indica</i> ,			
<i>S.longicaudum</i>			
<i>S. yitgalemense</i>	<i>Bradysia impatiens</i>	52-87%	[9]
<i>S. feltiae</i>			
<i>S. jeffreyense</i>			
<i>S. khoisanae</i>			
<i>Steinernema</i> sp.			

<i>H. indica</i>			
<i>H. zealandica</i>			
<i>H. bacteriophora</i>			
<i>H. noenieputensis</i>			
<i>S. carpocapsae</i> All,	<i>Liriomyza trifolii</i>	24-69%	[31]
<i>S. feltiae</i> MG-14	<i>L. huidobrensis</i>	82%	[32,73]
<i>Heterorhabditis</i> sp.UK 211	<i>L. bryoniue</i>		[33]
			[10]
			[34]
			[35]
<i>S. riobrave</i> ,	fruit flies		[36]
<i>S. carpocapsae</i> ,	(<i>Rhagoletis indifferens</i> ,		[37]
<i>S. feltiae</i>	<i>Anastrepha ludens</i>)		
<i>S.carpocapsae</i> ALL	Pupal stage of the apple	42.9-73.8%	[38]
<i>S. feltiae</i> SN ,	maggot		
<i>S. riobrave</i> 355 ,	(<i>Rhagoletis pomonella</i>)		
<i>S. glaseri</i> VS ,			
<i>H.bacteriophora</i> VS			
<i>H.indica</i> HOM1			
<i>H.megidis</i> UK211			
<i>H. bacteriophora</i> ,	European cherry fruit	40-95%	[39]
<i>H. marelatus</i> ,	fly		
<i>S.carpocapsae</i> ,	(<i>Rhagoletis cerasi</i>)		
<i>S. feltiae</i>			
<i>S.bicornutum</i> ,	European cherry fruit	54%	[40]
<i>S. carpocapsae</i> ,	Fly (<i>Rhagoletis cerasi</i>)		
<i>S. carpocapsae</i> China,			
<i>S. feltiae</i>			
<i>H.bacteriophora</i>			
<i>H. bacteriophora</i> UWS1	Crane fly	28-65%	[41]
<i>H.bacteriophora</i> ,	(<i>Tipula paludosa</i>)		[42]

<i>S. carpocapsae</i> , <i>S.feltiae</i>			[43]
<i>S.feltiae</i> <i>S.anomali</i> <i>S.affinis</i>	Cranefly larvae (<i>Tipula paludosa</i>)	13-90%	[44]
<i>S.feltiae</i>	Cranefly larvae (<i>Tipula paludosa</i> , <i>Tipula oleracea</i>)	L1 susceptible stage	[45]
<i>S. riobrave</i> <i>S. carpocapsae</i> <i>S. feltiae</i>	Mediterranean fruit fly or medfly (<i>Ceratitis capitata</i>)	50-100%	[46] [47] [48]
<i>S.feltiae</i> -SF-MOR9, <i>S. feltiae</i> -SF-MOR10 <i>H.bacteriophora</i> -HB- MOR7	Medfly (<i>Ceratitis capitata</i>)	80%	[49]
<i>Heterorhabditis</i> sp. RSC01 , <i>S.carpocapsae</i> ALL	Third-instars of Mediterranean fruit fly, (<i>Ceratitis capitata</i>)	26.7- 96.7%	[50,74,75]
<i>S.carpocapsae</i> ALL <i>H.amazonensis</i> JPM4	larvae and pupae of Mediterranean fruit fly (<i>Ceratitis capitata</i>)	50-80%	[51]
<i>H.bacteriophora</i> HB, <i>H.</i> <i>amazonensis</i> IBCB-n24, <i>S.carpocapsae</i> IBCB-n02, <i>S. rarum</i> PAM-25, <i>S. glaseri</i> IBCB-n47, <i>S.</i> <i>brazilense</i> IBCB-n06	pupae of Mediterranean fruit fly (<i>Ceratitis</i> <i>capitata</i>)	60-80%	[52]
<i>H. noenieputensis</i> , <i>H. indica</i> <i>H. bacteriophora</i> <i>S.yirgalemense</i>	Mediterranean fruit fly or Medfly, (<i>Ceratitis capitata</i> , <i>Ceratitis rosa</i>)		[53]

<i>H.bacteriophora</i> HP88 <i>S.carpocapsae</i> All	Full-grown larvae and pupae of Mediterranean fruit fly (<i>Ceratitis capitata</i>) Peach fruit fly, (<i>Bactrocera zonata</i>)	44.8-76.8%	[54]
<i>H.bacteriophora</i> AS1, <i>H. bacteriophora</i> HP88, <i>S.carpocapsae</i> ALL, <i>S. riobrave</i> ML29	Late third instars of the medfly, (<i>Ceratitis capitata</i>)	caused significant mortality	[55]
<i>H.bacteriophora</i> , <i>H.zealandica</i> <i>S.khoisanae</i>	Larvae, pupae and adults of (<i>Ceratitis capitata</i> , <i>Ceratitis rosa</i>)	caused significant mortality	[56]
<i>S.weiseri</i> , <i>S. feltiae</i> 09-31 <i>S. carpocapsae</i> <i>H. bacteriophora</i>	Last instar larvae of Mediterranean fruit fly or Medfly, (<i>Ceratitis capitata</i>)	50-97%	[57]
<i>S. feltiae</i> <i>S. carpocapsae</i> <i>S. riobravivis</i> <i>H. bacteriophora</i> <i>H. marelatus</i>	Third instars of Western cherry fruit fly (<i>Rhagoletis indifferens</i>)	caused significant mortality	[58]
<i>Heterorhabditis</i> sp. LPP17, <i>Heterorhabditis</i> sp. LPP14 <i>H. baujardi</i> LPP7	Third instar larvae of (<i>Ceratitis capitata</i>)	90- 98.5%	[59]
<i>S. feltiae</i>	<i>Anastrepha fraterculus</i>	75%	[60]
<i>H. bacteriophora</i> RS88 <i>S. riobravae</i> RS59	South American fruit fly, (<i>Anastrepha fraterculus</i>)	20-51.3%	[61]
<i>H.bacteriophora</i> <i>H.indica</i>	Caribfly (<i>Anastrepha suspense</i>)		[62]

<i>S.feltiae</i>			
<i>H. taysarae</i> Azohoue2 (= <i>H. sonorensis</i>)	Larvae and pupae of mango fruit fly (<i>Bactrocera dorsalis</i>)		[63].
<i>S. kandii</i>			
<i>H.bacteriophora</i>	The cabbage maggot (<i>Delia radicum</i>)	Caused higher levels of infection	[12] [64]
<i>S. carpocapsae</i>	<i>Drosophila melanogaster</i> larvae	Capable of infecting and killing	[65]
<i>H. bacteriophora,</i> <i>S. carpocapsae,</i> <i>S. feltiae,</i> <i>S. kraussei</i>	spotted wing drosophila (<i>Drosophila suzukii</i>)	emergence of flies was significantly reduced.	[66] [67]
<i>H. bacteriophora</i> <i>S.carpocapsae</i>	cucurbit fly (<i>Dacus ciliates</i>)	12-28%	[68]Kamali et al.,2013

CONCLUSION

Increased understanding of nematode biology, host range and simultaneous advances in commercial production, storage and formulation, have led to nematode-based biopesticides safe alternatives to chemical insecticides[69,70]. Different species of EPNs have distinct temperature niches for activity and may also respond differently to moisture or relative humidity availability. Therefore, isolation of local species and strains for use in specific environments are important prerequisite as biopesticides. Successful use requires that the ecology of the target is matched to the activity of infective juveniles; as the target pests are protected from environmental extremes, applications are timed to coincide with susceptible host stages and favourable weather conditions and nematodes are able to rapidly locate and infect hosts [71]. In addition to performance, factors including cost, availability, compatibility within integrated strategies and alternative options for organic growers will ultimately determine the extent to which nematodes are used against Dipteran insect pests [72,78-80]. To make entomopathogenic nematodes more successful, realistic strategies through genetic engineering [81], IPM programs, and new delivery systems

and/or training programs to overcome their inherent cost, formulation instability, and limited field efficacy toward the Dipteran pests are needed[82,83].

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COMPETING INTERESTS

Author has declared that no competing interests exist.

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