# Effect of Entomopathogenic Nematode and Fungi on Mortality and Development of *Spodoptera frugiperda* (J. E. Smith) Larvae

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#### **ABSTRACT**

The present study was conducted to evaluate the efficacy of entomopathogenic nematode, Steinernema carpocapsae Weiser and three entomopathogenic fungi (Metarhizium anisopliae (Metschn.) Sorokin, Trichoderma harzianum Rifai, and T. viride Pers.) against the second and fourth larval instars of Spodoptera frugiperda (J. E. Smith). The results showed that S. carpocapsae caused a pronounced mortality to second and fourth larval instars of S. frugiperda using a leaf dipping method at 4 days post inoculation (dpi) with LC<sub>50</sub> values of 52.03 and 4.11 Infective Juveniles (IJs) mL<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. On the other hand, the three tested entomopathogenic fungi caused a strong toxicity on larval instars of S. frugiperda. The fungus, T. harzianum, displayed the highest insecticidal activity on the second larval instar (LC<sub>50</sub>=  $1.1 \times 10^7$  spores mL<sup>-1</sup>) and M. anisopliae on the fourth larval instar (LC<sub>50</sub>=  $1.5 \times 10^7$  spores mL<sup>-1</sup>) after 10 dpi. Our results showed that S. carpocapsae completely inhibited pupation and adult emergence from treated larvae at 250 IJs mL<sup>-1</sup>. The lethal effect of entomopathogenic nematode and fungi against S. frugiperda larval instars indicates that these biological control agents could be useful candidates in integrated pest management programs for this invasive insect.

**Keywords**: Fall armyworm; Metarhizium anisopliae, Steinernema carpocapsae, Trichoderma harzianum.

#### INTRODUCTION

The fall Spodoptera armyworm, frugiperda (J.E. Smith) (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae), is the main insect pest of many field crops (80 host plants) such as maize, sugarcane, rice, cotton, and other crops (Murúa et al., 2006; FAO, 2019). The larvae induce huge damages on epidermal leaf tissue and cause holes in plant leaves, which is the typical damage of this insect pest. However, large larvae of S. frugiperda consume foliage. Larvae may cause death to young plants after feeding on maize crops (Prasanna et al., 2018; CABI, 2020). This insect pest is classified as an invasive pest on maize fields in several regions of the world, particularly the tropical subtropical regions of the Americas and most African countries (Rwomushana et al., 2018). In Egypt, S. frugiperda was recorded infesting maize crop in 2019 and 2020 in several governorates (Dahi et al., 2020; Gamil, 2020; Mohamed et al., 2022). This invasive pest has a high dispersal ability, and higher fecundity and fertility (Abrahams et al., 2017; Capinera, 2017; Mohamed, 2022; Al-Ayat et al., 2022). Due to the wide distribution of S. frugiperda in Africa, chemical insecticides have been commonly applied for the control of this insect pest on infested crops, particularly maize (Tepa-

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Yotto et al., 2022). However, the frequent use of high application rates of these substances is associated with serious problems, such as increased resistance of and detrimental effects insects environments, animals, and humans (Yu, 1991; Prasanna et al., 2018). Thus, alternative strategies have been examined and used for management of S. frugiperda, such as entomopathogenic nematodes and fungi, pheromone traps, and parasitoids (Mendez et al., 2002; Gutierrez-Martinez et al., 2012; Varshney et al., 2021; Mohamed and Shairra, 2023). Many studies reported the efficacy of biological control agents such entomopathogenic bacteria, viruses, and microbial-derived insecticides on larvae of S. frugiperda (Polanczyk et al., 2000; Molina-Ochoa et al., 2003; Ríos-Velasco et al., 2010; Deshmukh et al., 2020; Kulye et al., 2021).

Entomopathogenic nematodes and fungi are important tools in the integrated pest management (IPM) systems of many insect pests (Brower et al., 1996; Ramanujam et al., 2020). These methods could be favorable alternatives to synthetic insecticides for the control of this insect pest owing to their several advantages, such as less risk to the environment and relative safety for humans as well as an absence of toxic residues in the field crops (Uma Devi et al., 2008). Recently, there has been a growing interest in the application of biological control agents in the management strategies of S. frugiperda (Herlinda et al., 2021; Chen et al., 2022; Idrees et al., 2023; Mohamed and Shairra, 2023). However, little information is available on the effectiveness of entomopathogenic nematode and fungi against S. frugiperda in Egypt, and no reports on efficacy of *Trichoderma* spp. on this insect pest.

Therefore, we focus our present study on examining the susceptibility of the second and fourth larval instars of *S. frugiperda* to entomopathogenic nematode, *Steinernema carpocapsae* Weiser, and three entomopathogenic fungi (*Metarhizium anisopliae* (Metschn.) Sorokin, *Trichoderma* 

harzianum Rifai, and *T. viride* Pers. Also, the latent effects of entomopathogenic nematode and fungi on pupation, adult emergence and survival were assessed.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### **Insect Rearing**

S. frugiperda larvae collected from infested plants of maize fields in Ash Sharqia Governorate, Egypt. The insect samples were transferred to Plant Protection Research Institute, Agricultural Research Center (ARC), Giza, Egypt for confirming the pest identification based on the distinctive S. frugiperda morphological characteristics such as the inverted "Y" shape in the head capsule of larvae, a-four black spot forming a square in the 8<sup>th</sup> abdominal segment, and a trapezoidal pattern of four spots in the 1-7<sup>th</sup> and the 9<sup>th</sup> abdominal segments of S. frugiperda larvae (Passoa, 1991; CABI, 2019; Mohamed et al., 2022). Healthy male and female adults were selected and allowed to mate and lay eggs in plastic containers. The neonate larvae were fed on fresh castor bean leaves, Ricinus communis L., at insect rearing laboratory, plant protection Department, Faculty of Agriculture, Al-Azhar University, Cairo, Egypt, under conditions of 28±1°C, 65±5% Relative Humidity (RH), and 12:12 hours of light and dark). The use of plant materials in the current study complies with international, national and/or institutional guidelines (FAO, 2018; Al-Ayat et al., 2022).

#### **Entomopathogenic Nematode**

The entomopathogenic nematode, *Steinernema carpocapsae* (All) (Rhabditida: Steinernematidae) obtained from Biosys Palo Alto, CA (USA) by Dr. Ahmed Azazy, who maintained and reared this strain for several years in Plant Protection Research Institute, Agricultural Research Center

(ARC), Giza, Egypt (Azazy et al., 2018). We obtained this strain from him and reared S. carpocapsae through larvae of Galleria mellonella under conditions, according to Hussein and El-Mahdi (2020). The infective juveniles were transferred into Erlenmeyer flasks (500 mL) with 150 mL distilled water and stored at 14°C till needed. Flasks were shaken weekly to improve aeration and survival of Infective Juveniles (IJs). These IJs were used within the first three weeks after emerging, and harvested from White's traps (Kaya and Stock, 1997). Freshly emerged IJs were kept at least 5 hours at room temperature before usage in the experiments (Mohamed and Shairra, 2023). Water suspensions of S. carpocapsae were prepared at four concentrations (25, 125, 250, and 500 IJs /mL).

#### **Cultures of Fungal Strains**

#### Isolation of Trichoderma spp.

Isolation of two strains of Trichoderma spp. (T. harzianum and T. viride) from Egyptian soil was done by serial dilution technique (Naher et al., 2019). Ten grams of soil samples were mixed with 100 mL of sterile distilled water and then mixture was shaken at 100 rpm for 10 min. using a rotary shaker. Consequently, soil suspension was subjected to serial dilution to isolate the colonies of *Trichoderma* spp. From each of dilution, 1 mL of the suspension was taken using a micropipette and transferred into sterilized Petri plates containing Rose Bengal Agar (RBA) medium (Khang et al., 2013) and incubated at 25±2°C for 5-7 days. The incubated plates were checked daily, and the fungal colonies were marked and purified on Potato Dextrose Agar (PDA) medium. Pure cultures were stored on PDA slants at 4°C in a refrigerator for further use. The two strains of Trichoderma spp. were identified based on their morphological properties (conidiophore branching patterns, phialide arrangement, and conidia shape and size) (Gams and Bissett, 1998; Kumar and

Sharma, 2011) and molecularly by using ITS-PCR amplification of the DNA extracted from fungal isolates. The PCR amplification was performed in a total volume of 50 μL, containing 25 μL Master Mix (sigma), 3 µL of each primer (10 pcmol  $\mu L^{-1}$ ), (5'-ITS-1 TCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGG-3') and ITS-4 (5'-TCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC-3'), and 3  $\mu$ L template DNA (10 ng  $\mu$ L<sup>-1</sup>) and 16 μL dH2O. PCR amplification was performed in a Perkin-Elmer/ GeneAmp® PCR System 9700 (PE Applied Biosystems) programmed to fulfill 40 cycles after an initial denaturation cycle for 5 min at 94°C. Each cycle consisted of a denaturation step at 94°C for 30 seconds, an annealing step at 45°C for 30 seconds, and an elongation step at 72°C for 1 minute. The primer extension segment was extended to 7 minutes at 72°C in the final cycle (Abdelgaleil et al., 2023). of DNA sequences Т. harzianum (OR366537.1) and *T. viride* (OR366542.1) were submitted in the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI).

#### Isolation of M. anisopliae

A strain of the M. anisopliae fungus was originally isolated from a naturally infected white grubs, Pentodon bispinosus Kuster, larvae collected from golf playground, Katameya, Cairo, Egypt. The dead larva was surface-sterilized using hypochlorite (2% v/v). Then, the larvae were rinsed twice with sterile distilled water and dried between folds of sterilized filter paper. Surface sterilized larvae were placed on Petri plates of PDA supplemented with streptomycin sulfate at 100 µg mL<sup>-1</sup> and incubated at 25±2°C (Ayala-Zermeño et al., 2015). After emergence of fungal hyphae and sporulation, they were sub-cultured by transferring onto a new PDA plate and incubated at 25±2°C for 15 days. Pure cultures were stored on PDA slants at 4 °C in a refrigerator for further use. This fungus was identified using molecular techniques



(Abdelgaleil *et al.*, 2023) with accession number OR366543.1 submitted in NCBI.

#### **Preparation of Spore Suspension**

The fungal spores were collected from the surface of the growing cultures on PDA medium after 7 and 15 days for Trichoderma spp. and M. anisopliae, respectively. Ten mL of 0.01% (v/v) Tween-80 solution in sterile distilled water was added to the surface of a Petri plate. The surface of the medium was then rubbed with a glass rod and the spore suspension was transferred to a sterile glass vial (50 mL). The spore suspension was vortexed for 5 min and passed through a layer of sterilized cheese-The concentrations spore suspension were calculated using a haemocytometer and adjusted to  $1.0\times10^{5}$ ,  $1.0 \times 10^6$ ,  $1.0 \times 10^7$ , and  $1.0 \times 10^8$  spores mL<sup>-1</sup> for bioassay experiments.

#### **Bioassays**

The leaf dipping method was conducted according to IRAC method (IRAC, 2018). The stocks of IJs of S. carpocapsae and three strains of fungi were prepared in distilled water. Toxicity of S. carpocapsae was assessed at 25, 125, 250, and 500 IJs mL<sup>-1</sup>. The concentrations of three fungi were tested at  $1.0 \times 10^5$ ,  $1.0 \times 10^6$ ,  $1.0 \times 10^7$ , and 1.0×10<sup>8</sup> spores mL<sup>-1</sup>. The castor bean leaves were cut into small pieces (4×4 cm). The leaf sections were dipped for five seconds in each concentration and then left to complete water evaporation. Three treated pieces were transferred to each plastic cup (8 cm diameter×5 cm high). Five newly molted second or fourth instar larvae were introduced to each cup. The cups were covered with cheese cloth and kept under the same insect rearing conditions. replicates were used in each tested concentration. An additional series of castor bean leaves were treated with distilled water alone served as the control. Mortality

percentages were recorded after 2, 3, and 4 days of treatment with *S. carpocapsae* and 5, 7 and 10 days for three fungal strains because no mortality was recorded in the first four days after treatment. On the other hand, the treated larvae with the entomopathogenic nematode and fungi were examined daily until complete pupation and adult emergence. Percent pupation and adult emergence were calculated as following formula (Korrat *et al.*, 2019):

Pupation (%)= (Number of pupae/Total number of larvae)×100

Adult emergence (%)= (Number of moths/Total number of pupae)×100

Survival (%)= (Number of moths/Total number of larvae)×100

#### **Statistical Analysis**

Mortality percentages were corrected using Abbott's formula (1925). To estimate the LC<sub>50</sub> value, the corrected mortality percentages were subjected to probit analysis using LdP-Line® software according to Finney (1971). Pupation and adult emergence were analyzed using oneway Analysis Of Variance (ANOVA). Mean separations were performed by Tukey's HSD test at a significance level < 0.05. Statistical analysis was conducted using the software SPSS 21.0 (SPSS, Chicago, IL, USA).

#### RESULTS

Toxicity of Entomopathogenic Nematode, *S. carpocapsae* against *S. frugiperda* 

The LC<sub>50</sub> values of *S. carpocapsae* against *S. frugiperda* second and fourth instars larvae after 2, 3, and 4 days post-inoculation (dpi) are presented in Table 1. The entomopathogenic nematode, *S. carpocapsae* showed variable insecticidal activity with higher toxicity at increasing concentration and exposure time. *S. carpocapsae* revealed obvious toxicity after 2 dpi as their LC<sub>50</sub> values were 175.26 and 24.60 IJs mL<sup>-1</sup>, for second and fourth instars

**Table 1.** Toxicity of entomopathogenic nematode, *Steinernema carpocapsae* against the second and fourth larval instars of *Spodoptera frugiperda* at different concentrations (infective juveniles, IJs mL<sup>-1</sup>) after 2, 3, and 4 days post inoculation.

Larval instars	Exposure time (Days)	LC <sub>50</sub> <sup>a</sup> (IJs mL	50		Slope <sup>b</sup> ±SE	$(\chi 2)^c$	$P^d$
	time (Days)	1)	Lower	Upper	_		
Second instar	2	175.26	103.52	429.94	$1.58\pm0.12$	24.29	0.000
Second instar	3	84.54	46.68	197.88	$1.94\pm0.12$	56.27	0.000
	4	52.03	27.97	120.71	$2.25\pm0.13$	46.49	0.000
Fourth instar	2	24.60	13.53	36.49	1.15± 0.15	2.57	0.277
	3	19.47	7.88	46.72	$1.67 \pm 0.11$	16.39	0.000
	4	4.11	0.21	11.37	$0.89 \pm 0.23$	1.26	0.261

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> The concentration causing 50% mortality, <sup>b</sup> Slope of the concentration-mortality regression line± standard error, <sup>c</sup> Chi square value, <sup>d</sup> Probability value.

larvae, respectively. The toxicity of *S. carpocapsae* increased significantly after 3 and 4 days of exposure. The LC<sub>50</sub> values were (84.54 and 19.47 IJs mL<sup>-1</sup>) for the second and fourth instars larvae, respectively, after 3 days, while after 4 days, the LC<sub>50</sub> values decreased 52.03 and 4.11 IJs/mL for the second and fourth instars larvae, respectively.

### Toxicity of the Three Fungal Strains against S. frugiperda

Toxicity of the three fungal strains against the second and fourth larval instars of S. frugiperda after 5, 7, and 10 days of exposure expressed as LC50 values are summarized in Tables 2 and 3. It was clear that the three fungal strains possessed strong toxicity against S. frugiperda larvae. The fungus, T. harzianum, displayed the highest insecticidal activity on the second larval instar with LC<sub>50</sub> values of  $5.1 \times 10^7$  and 1.1×10<sup>7</sup> spores mL<sup>-1</sup> after 7 and 10 dpi, respectively. On the other hand, M. anisopliae had LC<sub>50</sub> values of 4.6×10<sup>8</sup> and  $6.1 \times 10^7$  spores mL<sup>-1</sup> after 7 and 10 dpi, respectively. While the fungus. anisopliae was highly effective on the fourth larval instar after 7 and 10 dpi as their LC<sub>50</sub> values  $2.5 \times 10^7$  and  $1.5 \times 10^7$  spores mL<sup>-1</sup>, followed by *T. viride* with LC<sub>50</sub> values of  $3.3\times10^8$  and  $1.8\times10^8$  spores mL<sup>-1</sup> after 7 and 10 dpi, respectively (Table 3). The highest

mortality was achieved by the highest concentration  $(1.0 \times 10^8 \text{ spores mL}^{-1})$  of *T. harzianum*, *T. viride* and *M. anisopliae* was 81.25, 62.50, and 43.75% for second instar larvae, respectively. The mortality decreased in the fourth instar larvae (50.0, 37.50, and 31.25%) with the same concentration  $(1.0 \times 10^8 \text{ spores mL}^{-1})$  of *M. anisopliae*, *T. viride*, and *T. harzianum*, respectively.

Latent Effects of Biological Control Agents on S. frugiperda

The entomopathogenic nematode and fungi influenced the pupation, adult emergence, and survival of S. frugiperda (Tables 4 to 6). The growth and development of the treated larvae decreased significantly with increasing concentrations of tested biological control agents compared to the untreated second instar larvae (91.3, 93.2, and 85.0%) and the fourth instar larvae (88.7, 94.9, and 84.1%), respectively. All the second and fourth instars larvae treated with S. carpocapsae succumbed to nematode infection, particularly at high concentrations, and the full mortality (100%) was achieved at 250 and 500 IJs mL<sup>-1</sup> for the two tested larval instars. These concentrations were enough to induce complete suppression of pupation, adult emergence, and survival. Also, the three tested fungi significantly decreased the pupation, adult emergence, and survival percentages with increasing fungal concentrations. The highest suppression of pupation of S. frugiperda was achieved by the highest concentration of



**Table 2.** Comparative toxicity of three entomopathogenic fungi against the second instar larvae of *Spodoptera frugiperda* after 5, 7, and 10 days post inoculation.

Fungal strains	Exposure $LC_{50}^{a}$		95% confidence limits (spores mL <sup>-1</sup> )		Slope <sup>b</sup> ± SE	$(\chi 2)^c$	$P^d$
_	time (Days)	(spores mL <sup>-1</sup> )	Lower	Upper		,	
16 . 1	5	$2.0x10^9$	$2.4 \times 10^8$	$1.1x10^{11}$	0.23±0.04	2.63	0.452
Metarhizium	7	$4.6 \times 10^8$	$6.4x10^7$	$1.2x10^{11}$	$0.22\pm0.06$	0.47	0.789
anisopliae	10	$6.1 \text{x} 10^7$	$1.2x10^{7}$	$8.6 \times 10^9$	$0.26 \pm 0.03$	9.97	0.041
Tui ala danna	5	$6.0x10^9$	$5.2 \times 10^8$	$1.1 \text{x} 10^{12}$	0.24±0.05	2.12	0.547
Trichoderma harzianum	7	$5.1x10^{7}$	$1.1 \text{x} 10^7$	$1.7x10^9$	$0.22\pm0.06$	0.48	0.785
	10	$1.1x10^{7}$	$3.0x10^6$	$1.1 \times 10^{8}$	$0.22 \pm 0.06$	1.04	0.593
Trichoderma viride	5	$3.8 \times 10^{10}$	$2.6 \times 10^8$	$4.9 \times 10^{12}$	$0.05 \pm 0.02$	0.18	0.996
	7	$4.6 \times 10^9$	$2.3 \times 10^{8}$	$8.3x10^{11}$	$0.13\pm0.02$	0.62	0.891
	10	$5.3x10^8$	$1.5 \times 10^{8}$	$5.7x10^9$	$0.42\pm0.07$	3.47	0.177

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> The concentration causing 50% mortality, <sup>b</sup> Slope of the concentration-mortality regression line±standard error, <sup>c</sup> Chi square value, <sup>d</sup> Probability value.

**Table 3.** Comparative toxicity of three entomopathogenic fungi against the fourth instar larvae of *Spodoptera frugiperda* after 5, 7, and 10 days post inoculation.

Fungal strains	Exposure LC <sub>50</sub> <sup>a</sup>		95% confidence limits (spores mL <sup>-1</sup> )		Slope <sup>b</sup> ±SE	$(\chi 2)^c$	$P^d$
	time (Days) (s	(spores mL <sup>-1</sup> )	Lower	Upper		/	
Mataulii-ium	5	$3.6 \text{x} 10^7$	$1.6 \text{x} 10^7$	$1.1x10^8$	0.43±0.06	3.81	0.149
Metarhizium	7	$2.5 \times 10^7$	$1.1 \text{x} 10^7$	$7.5 \text{x} 10^7$	$0.42\pm0.06$	0.95	0.622
anisopliae	10	$1.5 \times 10^7$	$8.4 \times 10^6$	$4.3x10^7$	$0.80\pm0.12$	0.89	0.344
Tui ala danna	5	$2.2x10^{13}$	$2.6 \times 10^{12}$	$4.1x10^{14}$	0.19±0.19	2.84	0.584
Trichoderma harzianum	7	$1.0 \times 10^9$	$1.5 \times 10^{8}$	$1.1 \mathrm{x} 10^{11}$	$0.27 \pm 0.06$	1.39	0.497
	10	$3.4x10^8$	$1.2x10^{8}$	$2.1x10^9$	$0.50\pm0.09$	0.84	0.358
Trichoderma	5	$1.3x10^{10}$	1.2x10 <sup>9</sup>	$4.8x10^{12}$	0.39±0.09	0.33	0.847
viride	7	$3.3x10^8$	$8.2 \times 10^7$	$4.9x10^9$	$0.34 \pm 0.06$	3.13	0.209
	10	$1.8 \times 10^{8}$	$5.5 \times 10^7$	$1.4x10^9$	$0.37 \pm 0.06$	2.92	0.232

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> The concentration causing 50% mortality, <sup>b</sup> Slope of the concentration-mortality regression line±standard error, <sup>c</sup> Chi square value, <sup>d</sup> Probability value.

**Table 4.** Latent effects of entomopathogenic nematode, *Steinernema carpocapsae* on pupation, adult emergence and survival of *Spodoptera frugiperda*.

Larval instar	Concentration (infective juveniles, IJs mL <sup>-1</sup> )	Pupation (%)	Adult emergence (%)	Survival (%)
Second instar larvae	0.0	91.3±2.1a	93.2±2.0a	85.0±1.0a
	25	42.5±6.3b	22.9±7.8b	10.0±4.6b
	125	$30.0\pm 5.7b$	12.5±7.2b	$2.5\pm1.4b$
	250	$0.0\pm0.0c$	$0.0\pm0.0b$	$0.0\pm0.0$ b
	500	$0.0\pm0.0c$	$0.0\pm0.0$ b	$0.0\pm0.0$ b
	F	163.7	16.1	60.4
	P	< 0.01	< 0.01	< 0.01
Fourth instar larvae	0.0	88.7±9.0a	94.9±4.8a	84.1±8.5a
	25	$35.0\pm2.9b$	37.5±6.0ab	10.0±4.5b
	125	$20.0\pm 2.0c$	25.0±6.1ab	5.0±2.5b
	250	$0.0\pm0.0d$	$0.0\pm0.0$ b	$0.0\pm0.0$ b
	500	$0.0\pm0.0d$	$0.0\pm0.0$ b	$0.0\pm0.0$ b
	F	540.5	5.2	211.1
	P	< 0.01	< 0.01	< 0.01

Values in columns within each compound followed by the different letters are significantly different at Tukey's HSD (P < 0.05, df = 4, 15).



**Table 5.** Latent effects of three entomopathogenic fungi on pupation and adult emergence of the second instar larvae of *Spodoptera frugiperda*.<sup>a</sup>

Fungal strains	Concentration	Pupation	Adult emergence	Survival
	(spores mL <sup>-1</sup> )	(%)	(%)	(%)
Metarhizium anisopliae	0.0	91.3±2.1a	93.2±2.0a	85.0±1.0a
	$1.0 \times 10^{5}$	$70.0\pm4.0b$	81.8±7.2a	57.5±6.3b
	$1.0 \times 10^{6}$	67.5±4.8bc	74.1±3.5a	50.0±4.0b
	$1.0 \times 10^{7}$	50.0±4.1cd	81.7±6.8a	40.0±4.3c
	$1.0 \times 10^{8}$	$45.0\pm 5.0 d$	79.2±7.2a	35.0±2.9c
	F	18.5	1.1	28.5
	P	< 0.01	0.432	< 0.01
Trichoderma harzianum	0.0	91.3±2.1a	93.2±2.0a	85.0±1.0a
	$1.0 \times 10^{5}$	57.5±8.5b	93.8±6.2a	52.5±4.8t
	$1.0 \times 10^{6}$	52.5±7.5b	91.7±8.3a	47.5±7.5t
	$1.0 \times 10^{7}$	45.0±3.2b	55.0±2.8a	25.0±2.9t
	$1.0 \times 10^{8}$	$20.0\pm 2.0c$	50.0±6.1a	10.0±4.1t
	F	23.5	2.2	21.4
	P	< 0.01	0.126	< 0.01
Trichoderma viride	0.0	91.3±2.1a	93.2±2.0a	85.0±1.0a
	$1.0 \times 10^{5}$	58.0±8.3b	95.8±4.2a	55.0±5.0a
	$1.0 \times 10^{6}$	$60.0\pm4.7b$	66.7±4.1ab	40.0±2.0b
	$1.0 \times 10^{7}$	53.0±2.5b	37. 5±6.2b	17.5±1.4c
	$1.0 \times 10^{8}$	$37.5 \pm 3.0b$	$34.2 \pm 8.2b$	12.5±4.3c
	F	13.8	7.1	16.6
	P	< 0.01	< 0.01	< 0.01

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Values in columns within each compound followed by the different letters are significantly different at Tukey's HSD (P < 0.05, df= 4, 15).

**Table 6.** Latent effects of three entomopathogenic fungi on pupation and adult emergence of the fourth instar larvae of *Spodoptera frugiperda*.

Fungal strain	Concentration	Pupation	Adult emergence	Survival
	(spores mL <sup>-1</sup> )	(%)	(%)	(%)
Metarhizium anisopliae	0.0	88.7±9.0a	94.9±4.8a	84.1±8.5a
	$1.0 \times 10^{5}$	80.0±4.6ab	93.8±6.3a	$75.0\pm 5.0$ ab
	$1.0 \times 10^{6}$	$75.0\pm2.8b$	83.9±5.9a	$62.5\pm2.5b$
	$1.0 \times 10^{7}$	50.0±4.0c	91.6±8.3a	$45.0 \pm 3.0c$
	$1.0 \times 10^{8}$	$40.0\pm 2.0c$	$93.8 \pm 6.0a$	$37.5\pm2.5c$
	F	60.8	0.54	35.8
	P	< 0.01	0.709	< 0.01
Trichoderma harzianum	0.0	88.7±9.0a	94.9±4.8a	84.1±8.5a
	$1.0 \times 10^{5}$	80.0±8.2a	95.0±5.0a	$75.0 \pm 5.0 ab$
	$1.0 \times 10^{6}$	75.0±9.5a	91.7±8.3a	$70.0 \pm 8.1ab$
	$1.0 \times 10^{7}$	75.0±3.0a	71.7±5.0a	$50.0\pm5.7b$
	$1.0 \times 10^{8}$	60.0±6.1a	83.3±9.6a	50.0±5.8b
	F	0.9	1.20	4.46
	P	0.486	0.358	0.014
Trichoderma viride	0.0	88.7±9.0a	94.9±4.8a	84.1±8.5a
	$1.0 \times 10^{5}$	$80.0\pm7.1ab$	$87.5\pm7.2a$	$70.0\pm6.7a$
	$1.0 \times 10^{6}$	$75.0 \pm 5.0 ab$		
		c	$62.5\pm6.3ab$	$35.0\pm5.0$ b
	$1.0 \times 10^{7}$	55.0±5.0bc	58.3±4.2b	$35.0\pm2.9b$
	$1.0 \times 10^{8}$	50.0±4.c	50.8±4.8b	30.0±4.0b
	F	6.2	6.9	8.2
	P	< 0.01	< 0.01	< 0.01

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Values in columns within each compound followed by the different letters are significantly different at Tukey's HSD (P < 0.05, df= 4, 15).

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1.0×10<sup>8</sup> spores mL<sup>-1</sup> of *T. harzianum* (20.0% and 60.0%), T. viride (37.5 and 50.0%) and *M. anisopliae* (45.0% and 40.0%) from the treated second and fourth instars larvae, respectively. Adult emergence was not affected by M. anisopliae and T. harzianum. The highest inhibition of adult emergence was obtained by  $1.0 \times 10^8$  spores  $\mathrm{mL}^{-1}$  of T. viride (34.2 and 50.8%) from the treated second and fourth instars larvae, respectively. Also, the highest suppression larval survival percentage achieved by the highest concentration of 1.0×10<sup>8</sup> spores mL<sup>-1</sup> of T. harzianum (10.0 and 50.0%), T. viride (12.5 and 30.0%), and M. anisopliae (35.0 and 37.5%) from the treated second and fourth instars larvae, respectively.

#### **DISCUSSION**

The insecticidal effects of entomopathogenic nematodes and fungi have been reported against S. frugiperda strains present in some countries around the world (Idrees et al., 2023; Mohamed and Shairra, 2023). Our results showed that nematode, entomopathogenic S. carpocapsae, caused remarkable mortality on the second and fourth larval instars of S. frugiperda at 4 dpi. The higher toxicity of S. carpocapsae observed in this study is matched with previous reports indicated that S. carpocapsae was very toxic against larval instars of S. frugiperda (Acharya et al., 2020; Fallet et al., 2022; Sayed et al., 2022). Guo et al. (2023) reported that S. carpocapsae at concentrations ranging between 31.67±1.97 and 59.25±6.06 IJs mg caused complete mortality (100%) of S. frugiperda larvae. Mohamed and Shairra (2023) showed that S. carpocapsae was more virulent than the other nematode, Heterorhabditis indica (EGAZ2) and effective against all larval instars and complete mortality was obtained after 48-72 hours of exposure at concentrations of 150-2400 IJs/larva. Generally, S. carpocapsae infection was faster and had higher efficacy on larval instars of S. frugiperda than the

tested fungi. The enhanced effectiveness of the nematode could be attributed to its mutualistic relationship with Xenorhabdus nematophila, a species of enteric bacteria (Stilwell et al., 2018). The bacterial symbiont is carried in a bacterial pouch by the non-feeding resistant stage known as IJs. When the IJs locate a host that is susceptible to them, they enter the insect through one of its natural openings (the mouth, spiracles, or anus) and hemocoel, and, subsequently, release the symbiotic bacteria. Septicemia is caused by the bacterial cells growing in the hemocoel and killing the host in less than 48 hours. The nematodes consume the host tissues that the symbiotic bacteria had broken down (Hazir et al., 2003; Hussein, 2022).

The three tested entomopathogenic fungi caused strong toxicity on larval instars of S. frugiperda. The fungus, T. harzianum displayed the highest insecticidal activity on the second larval instar and M. anisopliae on the fourth larval instar after 10 dpi. However, this is the first study on the toxicity of entomopathogenic fungi, T. harzianum and T. viride against S. frugiperda in Egypt. Similar results were obtained by Ramanujam et al. (2020) on the toxicity of fungi, M. anisopliae and Beauveria bassiana (Balsamo) Vuillemin against the second instar larvae of S. frugiperda (LC<sub>50</sub>=1.1  $\times$  10<sup>7</sup> and 1.9  $\times$  10<sup>7</sup> spores mL<sup>-1</sup>), respectively. Also, our results are supported by Garcia et al. (2011) who found that the concentration  $(1\times10^9)$  conidia mL<sup>-1</sup>) of B. bassiana induced 96.6% mortality of the second instar larvae of S. frugiperda. Morales-Reves et al. (2013) showed that M. anisopliae and B. bassiana caused mortality ranging between 10% to 65% in the second instar larvae of S. frugiperda at two concentrations  $(1\times10^6)$  and 1×10<sup>7</sup> conidia mL<sup>-1</sup>) (Ramanujam et al., 2020). Our results showed a potential toxicity of S. frugiperda by T. harzianum and T. virens and no previous reports described efficacy of these fungi on larval instars of S. frugiperda. Our findings showed that the tested fungi may be beneficial in the biological control of S. frugiperda due to their capacity to infiltrate insect tissues by penetrating the cuticle directly, parasitize the insect bodies, and use the host insects as a source of nourishment for the development of new conidia (Skinner 2014). et al., Insecticidal secondary metabolites produced by fungi, such as in T. harzianum, which may produce peptaibols and induce significant insect mortality rates, are another possible product of fungal strains (Charnley and Collins, 2007; Rahim and Iqbal, 2019). Furthermore, T. viride has a potential for producing compounds that may have antifeeding qualities against several kinds of insect pests (Vijayakumar and Alagar, 2017).

Also, the second instar larvae were more susceptible to biological control agents than the fourth instar larvae. The tested findings conform with Fallet et al. (2022) who observed that S. carpocapsae caused rapid and complete mortality in the second and third larval instars of S. frugiperda, but the rate decreased in six instar larvae to 75% (Sayed et al., 2022; Acharya et al., 2020). According to Elbrense et al. (2021), the differences in the vulnerability and death rates among larvae in developmental instars may ultimately be connected to their morphological features, sizes, behaviors, and immunological defense systems. Besides, the reproduction rate of S. carpocapsae has been influenced directly by different developmental stages of the host insects (Park et al., 2001). Besides their effects on larval mortality, the tested biological control agents induced significant reduction in pupae and adults as well as reduced adult emergence, particularly S. carpocapsae, which caused complete inhibition of pupation and adult formation emergence of S. frugiperda. These findings conform with the results of previous studies on the activity of biological agents against S. frugiperda (Park et al., 2001; Acharya et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2022). The inhibition on the growth and development of S. frugiperda by biological control agents observed is due to their inhibitory effects insect

development (Korrat et al., 2019; Idrees et al., 2023).

#### **CONCLUSIONS**

The biological control agents including entomopathogenic nematode, carpocapsae, and fungi (Trichoderma spp. and M. anisopliae) could be potentially applied for the control of S. frugiperda larval instars. Therefore, these biological control agents may be useful for the management of this invasive insect and should be implemented in IPM programs. The use of biological control agents with different modes of action is highly important delay the development of insect resistance. Also, the uses of ecofriendly products have less impact on non-target organisms, mammals, and the environment. The efficacy of these biological control agent and their effects on non-target organisms should be evaluated under field conditions.

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#### اثر نماتد حشره پاتوژن (Entomopathogenic) و قارچ بر مرگ و میر و رشد لارو Spodoptera frugiperda (J. E. Smith)

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