

## Pathogenic Response of Entomopathogenic Fungal Strains on Larvae of Fall Armyworm (*Spodoptera frugiperda*)

Ghulam Ali Bugti<sup>1,2</sup>, Haoliang Chen<sup>2\*</sup>, Wang Bin<sup>3</sup>, Abdul Rehman<sup>4</sup>, Farman Ali<sup>5</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Entomology, Lasbela University of Agriculture, Water and Marine Sciences, Uthal, Balochistan, Pakistan.

<sup>2</sup>Anhui-CABI Joint laboratory for Agricultural Pest Control, Institute of Plant Protection and Agro-Products Safety, Anhui Academy of Agricultural Sciences, Hefei 230031, China.

<sup>3</sup>Department of Forestry and Landscape Architecture, School of Forestry and Landscape Architecture, Anhui Agricultural University, Hefei, Anhui 230036, P. R. China.

<sup>4</sup>CABI-Regional Bioscience Centre, Islamabad, Pakistan.

<sup>5</sup>Department of Agriculture, Abdul Wali Khan University Mardan, Mardan, Pakistan.

### ABSTRACT

The overuse and unjustified use of chemical pesticides pose a great threat not only to the environment and natural enemies in the agro-ecosystem but also to human health, such as cancer, skin, and respiratory disease. To avoid such an incidence, the use of alternative chemical pesticides is dire. In this situation, using the green control method by using biopesticides is a safe and climate-smart method for insect control. In the current experiment, we observed the pathogenicity of different entomopathogenic fungal strains. We found that fungal strains have potential and could be used against the tested insect "fall armyworm (FAW) *Spodoptera frugiperda*" early larval instar to manage pest populations below the economic injury level. For this *Beauveria bassiana* strain (Bb885 & 86), *Cordyceps cicadae*, *Metarhizium anisopliae* strain (73&42) and *Paecilomyces fumosoroseus* were observed. We found that the *B. bassiana* strain (Bb885), *C. cicadae*, and *M. anisopliae* 73 were more lethal to larvae of FAW, with maximum spore concentration against early second instar larvae. However, further experiments are required to observe the fungal pathogenicity potential on different life parameters that would be more helpful in the management of FAW control in agro-forestry ecosystems.

**Keywords:** Entomopathogenic fungi, Microbial control, Pathogenicity, *Spodoptera frugiperda*.

**HOW TO CITE THIS ARTICLE:** Bugti GA, Chen H, Bin W, Rehman A, Ali F. Pathogenic Response of Entomopathogenic Fungal Strains on Larvae of Fall Armyworm (*Spodoptera frugiperda*). Entomol Appl Sci Lett. 2024;11(1):48-55. <https://doi.org/10.51847/5hfCqbNbSd>

**Corresponding author:** Haoliang Chen

**E-mail** ✉ [chenhaoliang@aaas.org.cn](mailto:chenhaoliang@aaas.org.cn)

**Received:** 29/10/2023

**Accepted:** 14/01/2024

### INTRODUCTION

Fall armyworm, technically known as *Spodoptera frugiperda* (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) a serious migratory lepidopteron insect pest [1]. It is polyphagous in nature and feeds on about 80 recorded plant species in 26 plant families, including the most economically important crops sorghum, maize, rice, millet, sugarcane, and sugarcane [2-4]. Previous studies indicate that in 2018, the first fall armyworm was reported in China in Yunnan province [5]. Because of the wide range of host plants and high reproduction

rate, the pest spread out within a few years and became a serious pest of the maize crop in the northeast and northwest of China [6]. This region is famous for corn production, with an area of 13 million hectares. It is considered that the FAW is more serious than *Helicoverpa armigera* (Hübner) [7] and causes more losses to the maize crop. It was observed that, due to rapid control, most of the farmer community depends on chemical pesticides to control FAW [8]. It has been observed that the time of the chemical application greatly affects its efficiency, and FAW caterpillars are typically located in corn whorls

where they are mainly shielded from pesticide treatments [9]. Due to the extensive application of chemical pesticides, FAW has developed resistance to commonly used chemical pesticides [10, 11]. It is estimated that FAW has developed resistance to more than 30 active ingredients of chemical pesticides from well-known classes. (<https://www.pesticideresistance.org/>). So new green control approaches are needed to minimize pest infestation and the adverse effects of pesticides on the environment [12]. Among chemical and biocontrol agents for pest control, entomopathogenic fungi are the most efficient and easy to use; about 1000 insect-pathogenic fungal strains are known globally [13]. Whereas, over 100 microbial insecticides are available on the market to control insect pests [14, 15]. The entomopathogenic fungus *Isaria fumosorosea*, *Metarhizium anisopliae*, and *Beauveria bassiana* are widely used against different insects [16]. Previous literature also confirmed the potential of entomopathogenic fungi against such insect pests [17, 18]. These fungi have special characteristics to infect their host insect through their cuticle [19]. After penetration into the cuticle, the host dies within 3-6 days. In most cases, the fungal efficiency depends on environmental factors; among other environmental factors, humidity is known as a key factor for successful infection [20]. The host insect and its life stages are also important for successful infection [16, 20]. Therefore, in this study, we investigated different entomopathogenic fungi to evaluate the potential entomopathogenic fungal strains against (FAW) under laboratory conditions. We hope the results will be helpful for researchers who are working on microbial control of insect pests in their IPM program.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### *Entomopathogenic fungal strain selection*

The multiple strains of entomopathogenic fungi, e.g., *Beauveria bassiana* strain (Bb885 & 86), *Cordyceps cicadae*, *Metarhizium anisopliae* strain (73&42) and *Paecilomyces fumosoroseus*, were obtained from the fungal bank of the Research Center on Entomogenous Fungi (RCEF) at Anhui Agricultural University, Hefei, China (Latitude 31°N and Longitude 117°E) for the bioassay test. These strains were preserved at -70°C prior to use.

### *Preparation of fungal spore suspension*

Two hundred microliters of conidial suspension tube were obtained from the fungal bank and inoculated with sabouraud dextrose agar in 9 cm-diameter Petri dishes, containing 20 g of agar, 10 g of peptone, and 40 g of dextrose. The mixture was then maintained at  $24 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$  in an incubation chamber for 12 days. Penicillin/streptomycin (2.5 ml/l), potassium (0.5 mg), and cycloheximide (40 g) were added to the medium to support bacterial growth before plating. Completely developed conidia were obtained by scraping the upper layer of the culture and then diluted using 100 milliliters of 0.05% Tween®80 in a 200-milliliter conical flask. For five minutes, the flask containing the conidia was homogenized in a vortex. The diluted conidia were transferred into a sterile beaker using cotton and a sterile 30 ml syringe. Using a hemocytometer and a microscope, suspensions were brought to predetermined concentrations. The standardization of conidia suspensions was done at  $1 \times 10^5$ ,  $1 \times 10^6$ ,  $1 \times 10^7$ , and  $1 \times 10^8$  conidia/ml [21].

### *Insect collection and bioassay procedures*

Newly hatched larvae of the fall armyworm (early 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> instar) were collected from an already established insect culture in the laboratory of the Institute of Plant Protection, Agro-Products Safety, Anhui Academy of Agricultural Sciences, and Hefei China. The collected FAW larvae were brought to the Anhui Provincial Key Laboratory of Microbial Control, Anhui Agricultural University, Hefei, China, for the fungal bioassay test. Two different bioassay methods, i.e., direct larvae dipping and the plant leaf inoculation method, were used for the bioassay test. Each treatment was repeated four times, along with the control treatment. We used four different concentrations with four replications, with 6 larvae/replicate; a total of 24 larvae for each concentration and 120 for each treatment, along with a control treatment. We haven't found significant results against the 3<sup>rd</sup> instar at the initial test, so data is not mentioned in this manuscript.

### *Direct dipping method*

The newly hatched 2<sup>nd</sup> instar larvae of FAW were dipped for 3 seconds into different fungal spore suspensions, such as  $1 \times 10^5$ ,  $1 \times 10^6$ ,  $1 \times 10^7$ , and  $1 \times 10^8$ . After inoculation, the larvae were placed

on tissue paper to remove excessive liquid spores and placed into plastic boxes (with six holes to avoid the action of cannibalism). A small piece of green Chinese cabbage leaf was cut about 1 square inch and placed in each whole as food with a controlled relative humidity of  $70 \pm 5\%$  in a rearing chamber at  $24 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ . Old leaves were replaced after 24 hours with fresh leaves. Boxes were covered with lids to avoid the larvae escaping. Two cotton swabs were placed in each box to maintain humidity and promote fungal infection. For 10 days, daily observations were noted. The dead insects were taken out of the boxes and put onto Petri dishes with moist filter paper so that the fungal infection could be confirmed by mycelial growth.

#### Plant leaf inoculation method

In the plant leaf inoculation method, the Chinese cabbage leaves were cut into small pieces of about 1 inch and dipped into different fungal spore suspensions, such as  $1 \times 10^5$ ,  $1 \times 10^6$ ,  $1 \times 10^7$ , and  $1 \times 10^8$ . After dipping leaves, pieces were placed on tissue paper to remove excessive water and offered to newly hatched 2<sup>nd</sup> instar larvae of FAW. The larvae were placed into plastic boxes with six holes to avoid cannibalism. The inoculated small piece of Chinese cabbage leaves (1 inch) was offered to the larvae as food, and the larvae were kept at a relative humidity of  $70 \pm 5\%$  in a rearing chamber at  $24 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ . Boxes were covered with lids to avoid the larvae escaping. Two cotton swabs were placed in each box to maintain humidity and promote fungal infection. Old leaves inoculated with fungal spores were replaced after 24 hours with fresh leaves. For 10 days, daily observations were noted. The dead insects were taken out of the

boxes and put onto Petri dishes with moist filter paper so that the fungal infection could be confirmed by mycelial growth.

#### Data analysis

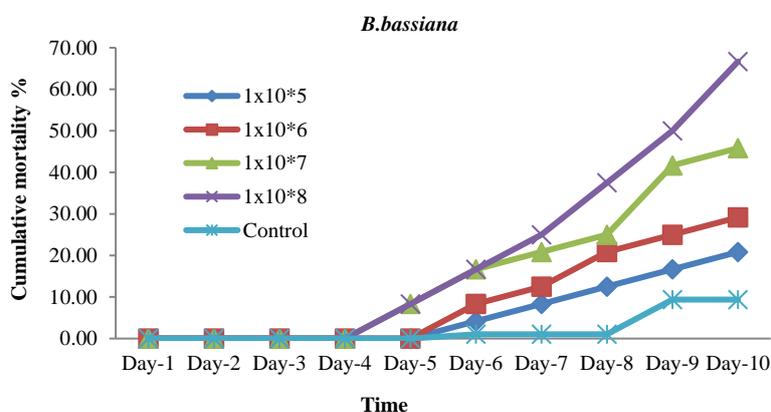
The data was statistically analyzed using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) using Minitab statistical software, while the effectiveness of the fungi was compared by Fisher's least significant difference (LSD) test to determine differences among fungal concentrations at a significance level of  $P \leq 0.05$ .

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

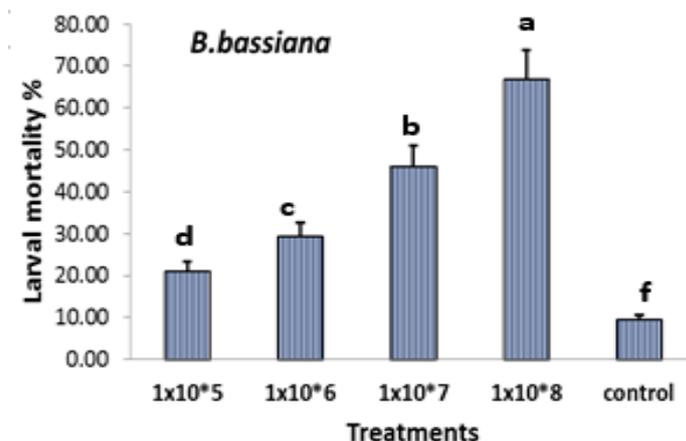
We noticed that the leaf dipping method was more effective than the larval dipping method after conducting an initial bioassay screening of fungal strains and testing on FAW larvae. Therefore, we carried out additional experiments using the leaf dipping method with three virulent strains, namely *B. bassiana* (Bb885), *C. cicadae*, and *M. anisopliae* strains (73), which were found to be more lethal to FAW larvae (**Figure 7**).

According to our findings, the larval population was significantly infected when Chinese cabbage leaves were dipped in *B. bassiana* (Bb885) fungal spores.

Our results showed that the highest mortality rate, 66.67%, was observed in the conidial rate of  $1 \times 10^8$  spores/ml. Subsequently, mortality rates of 20.83%, 29.17%, and 45.83% were noticed at conidial concentrations of  $1 \times 10^5$ ,  $1 \times 10^6$ , and  $1 \times 10^7$  spores/ml, respectively (**Figure 1**). Whereas, 9.38 % was observed in the control treatment which was significantly less than other treatments observed by the LSD test (Df=4, F=3.45, P=0.009) **Figure 2**.



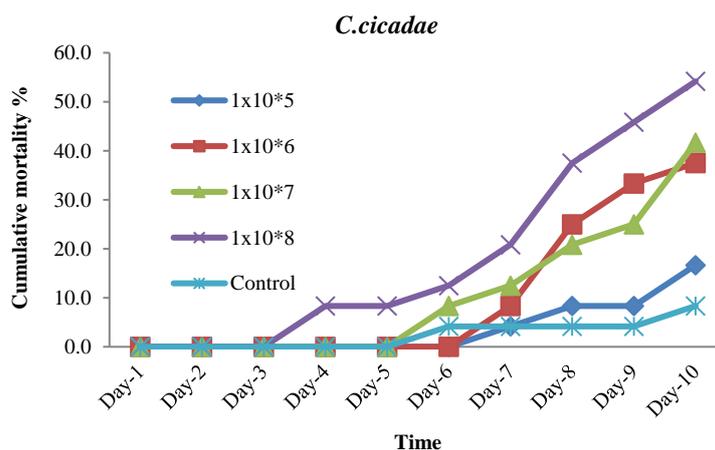
**Figure 1.** Showing cumulative larval mortality of FAW treated with different spore concentrations of *B. bassiana* strain-885.



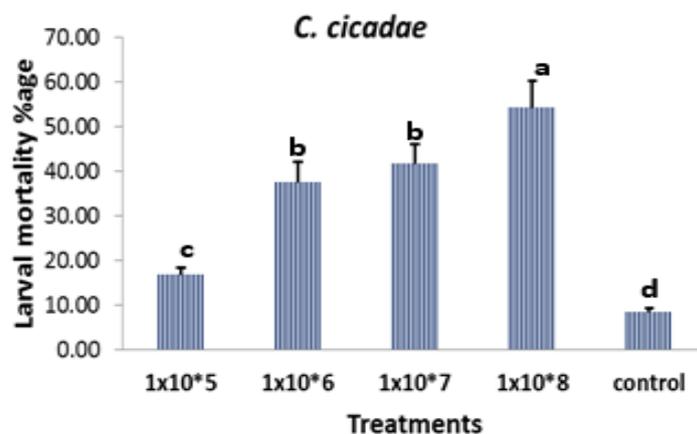
**Figure 2.** Showing overall larval mortality of FAW treated with different spore concentrations of *B. bassiana* strain-885. Note: In the Figure means values that do not share a letter are significantly different at  $P < 0.05$  level by using the Fisher LSD method.

Whereas, maximum cumulative mortality of larvae 54.17 %, 41.67%, 37.50%, and 16.67 was observed on  $1 \times 10^5$  / ml,  $1 \times 10^6$  / ml,  $1 \times 10^7$  / ml, and  $1 \times 10^8$  spores/ml respectively on *cordyceps cicadae* treatment (**Figure 3**). We found a

significant difference among all concentrations. However, all concentrations were also significantly different from the control treatment when compared with LSD test (Df=4, F=2.85,  $P = 0.009$ ) **Figure 4**.



**Figure 3.** Showing cumulative larval mortality of FAW treated with different spore concentrations of *C. cicadae*.



**Figure 4.** Showing overall larval mortality of FAW treated with different spore concentrations of *C. cicadae*. Note: In the Figure means values that do not share a letter are significantly different at  $P < 0.05$  level by using the Fisher LSD method.

The *M. anisopliae* strains also performed a good pathogenicity and observed maximum mortality rates of 45.83%, 37.50%, 20.83%, and 12.50% was observed on conidial concentrations of  $1 \times 10^5$ ,  $1 \times 10^6$ ,  $1 \times 10^7$  and  $1 \times 10^8$ / ml respectively (Figure 5). We observed a great difference in

pathogenicity between the lowest and highest concentrations. However all the concentrations were statistically different from the control treatment LSD showed values of (Df=4, F=2.23, P=0.067) Figure 6.

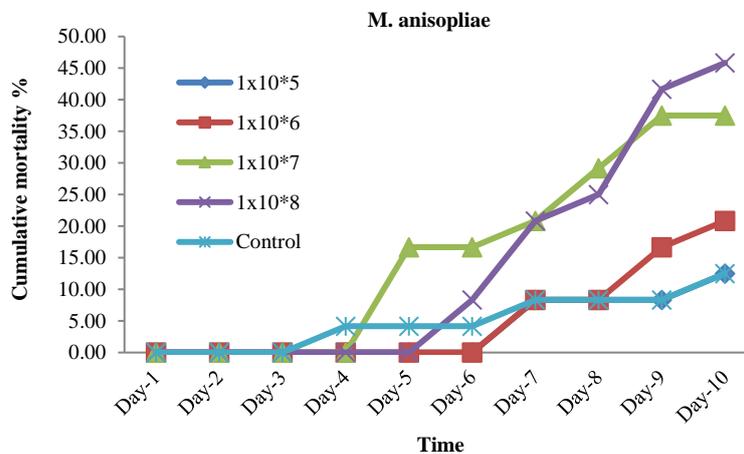


Figure 5. Showing cumulative larval mortality FAW treated with different spore concentrations *M. anisopliae* 73 strain.

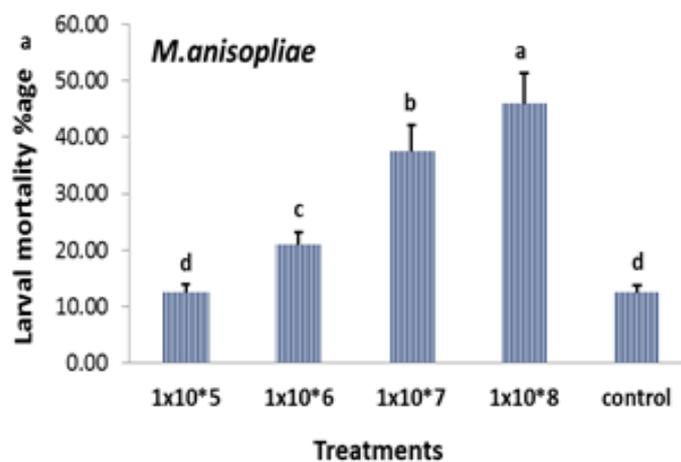
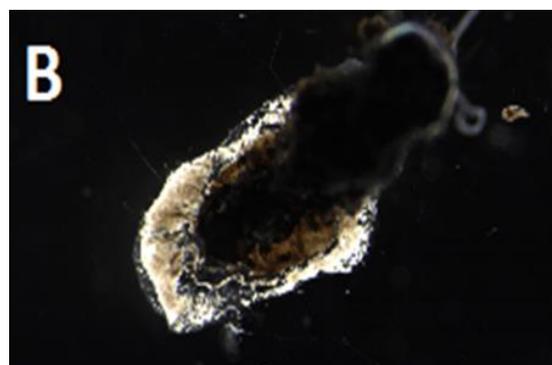


Figure 6. Showing over all larval mortality FAW treated with different spore concentrations *M. anisopliae* 73 strain. Note: In the Figure means values that do not share a letter are significantly different at P<0.05 level by using the Fisher LSD method



a)



b)



c)

**Figure 7.** Showing infection caused by different entomopathogenic fungi.

Note: The alphabetic letter shown on the figures may read as: a) *B.bassiana*-885 strain, b) *C.cicadae*, c) *M. anisopliae* -73 strain.

Alternative approaches to insect management might be beneficial to prevent an over-reliance on pesticides. Previous research confirmed the control potential of insect pests using entomopathogenic fungi. In the present study, we observed that the application of the fungal spore suspension has a great influence on causing infection to targeted insect larvae. While applying *B. bassiana* strains (Bb885), *Cordyceps cicadae*, and *Metarhizium anisopliae* strains (73) have different levels of control potential to early-stage larvae of FAW. We found that fungal strain *B. bassiana* (Bb885) post-good infection caused maximum mortality after 10 days of incubation period and observed 66.67% mortality. While 54.17% mortality was observed in *Cordyceps cicadae*. Whereas, *M. anisopliae* showed 45.83% mortality.

In our results, we observed some degree of host-specificity of entomopathogenic fungi in the targeted larvae. Similar results were observed by [22] reported that a different insect pathogenic fungi *Isaria sp.* showed 98.6% control of the immature population of *B. tabaci* while *B. bassiana* showed 84.1% response and *M. anisopliae* caused 23.2% mortality. Kavallieratos, Athanassiou [23] noticed the pathogenic response of various fungal strains against *Sitophilus myzae* and found great variation in the pathogenicity of *B. bassiana*, *M. anisopliae*, and *I. fumosorosea*. Similarly, [24] compared the pathogenicity of commercially available fungal strains likewise *B. bassiana* GHA, *M. brunneum* F52, and *I. fumosorosea* Apopka 97 on chili *Scirtothrips dorsalis* and observed 84–93%, 81–94%, and 62–66%, control respectively.

We observed dosage-dependency response among fungal species, both on causing infection and on mortality percentage. The lower spore

concentration showed the lowest infection on tested larvae while the higher spore concentration showed the highest infection on tested larvae. As it is recorded *B.bassiana* lower concentration  $1 \times 10^5$  posts about 20%.83 corrected mortality while  $1 \times 10^8$  post 66.67% corrected mortality. Similar results were also found in *C. cicada* and *M. Anisopliae* (Figure 1) [25] observed killing time, infection process, and mortality of *Locustana pardalina* by applying different conidial concentrations of *M.anisopliae* and noticed a maximum mortality rate of 100 in 3–4 days in  $1 \times 10^8$  conidia/ml, while  $1 \times 10^7$ ,  $1 \times 10^6$  and  $1 \times 10^5$  conidia/ml showed killing time 5–6, 6–10 and 12–14 days respectively. This showed the highest number of conidia causes fast and rapid infection to the targeted insect pest.

Usually, a higher density of conidia resulted in faster insect control. So, for the control of higher pest populations, the higher concentration dosage would be more effective than the lower conidial dosage to limit the pest population below the economic threshold level.

## CONCLUSION

It was concluded from the current experiment that all pathogenic fungal strains have the ability to cause infection in fall armyworms in early larval instars. For older instars, we need higher conidial concentration to obtain a better control.

**ACKNOWLEDGMENTS:** I would like to express my special thanks of gratitude to Dr. Haoliang Chen, Director Department of Agricultural Entomology, Institute of Plant Protection at Anhui Academy of Agricultural Sciences, as well as head of the Ahui Academy of Agricultural Sciences, Hefei, China for invitation to avail this

opportunity and conduct research studies on the fall armyworm at Hefei China.

I would also like to extend my thanks to Professor Dr. Wang Bin who allowed his laboratory to conduct a partial experimental trial at Anhui Agricultural University, Hefei China. I also appreciate my project colleagues, and lab mates who helped me from time to time to finalize this project within the limited time.

**CONFLICT OF INTEREST:** None

**FINANCIAL SUPPORT:** This research project was financially supported by the Anhui Provincial Key Research and Development Project (2022h11020001) and "The Belt and Road" Innovative Talents Exchange Project (DL2021019001L)

**ETHICS STATEMENT:** None

#### REFERENCES

- Suby SB, Soujanya PL, Yadava P, Patil J, Subaharan K, Prasad GS, et al. Invasion of fall armyworm (*Spodoptera frugiperda*) in India. *Curr Sci.* 2020;119(1):44-51.
- Wang J, Huang Y, Huang L, Dong Y, Huang W, Ma H, et al. Migration risk of fall armyworm (*Spodoptera frugiperda*) from North Africa to Southern Europe. *Front Plant Sci.* 2023;14:1141470.
- Chen WH, Itza B, Kafle L, Chang TY. Life table study of fall armyworm (*Spodoptera frugiperda*) (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) on three host plants under laboratory conditions. *Insects.* 2023;14(4):329.
- Montezano DG, Sosa-Gómez DR, Specht A, Roque-Specht VF, Sousa-Silva JC, Paula-Moraes SD, et al. Host plants of *Spodoptera frugiperda* (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) in the Americas. *Afr Entomol.* 2018;26(2):286-300.
- SUN XX, HU CX, JIA HR, WU QL, SHEN XJ, ZHAO SY, et al. Case study on the first immigration of fall armyworm, *Spodoptera frugiperda* invading into China. *J Integr Agric.* 2021;20(3):664-72.
- Wu QL, He LM, Shen XJ, Jiang YY, Liu J, Hu G, et al. Estimation of the potential infestation area of newly-invaded fall armyworm *Spodoptera Frugiperda* in the yangtze river valley of China. *Insects.* 2019;10(9):298.
- Wang R, Jiang C, Guo X, Chen D, You C, Zhang Y, et al. Potential distribution of *Spodoptera frugiperda* (JE Smith) in China and the major factors influencing distribution. *Glob Ecol Conserv.* 2020;21(1):e00865.
- Kumar S, Suby SB, Kumar N, Sekhar JC, Nebapure S, Mahapatro GK. Insecticide susceptibility vis-à-vis molecular variations in geographical populations of fall armyworm, *Spodoptera frugiperda* (J.E. smith) in India. *3 Biotech.* 2022;12(9):241.
- Yang X, Wyckhuys KAG, Jia X, Nie F, Wu K. Fall armyworm invasion heightens pesticide expenditure among Chinese smallholder farmers. *J Environ Manage.* 2021;282:111949.
- Zhang DD, Xiao YT, Xu PJ, Yang XM, Wu QL, Wu KM. Insecticide resistance monitoring for the invasive populations of fall armyworm, *Spodoptera frugiperda* in China. *J Integr Agric.* 2021;20(3):783-91.
- Zhang L, Liu B, Zheng W, Liu C, Zhang D, Zhao S, et al. High-depth resequencing reveals hybrid population and insecticide resistance characteristics of fall armyworm (*Spodoptera frugiperda*) invading China. *BioRxiv.* 2019:813154.
- Faria M, Martins I, Souza DA, Mascarin GM, Lopes RB. Susceptibility of the biocontrol fungi *Metarhizium anisopliae* and *Trichoderma asperellum* (Ascomycota: Hypocreales) to imbibitional damage is driven by conidial vigor. *Biocontrol.* 2017;107:87-94.
- Shang Y, Feng P, Wang C. Fungi that infect insects: Altering host behavior and beyond. *PLoS Pathog.* 2015;11(8):e1005037.
- Muñiz-Paredes F, Miranda-Hernández F, Loera O. Production of conidia by entomopathogenic fungi: From inoculants to final quality tests. *World J Microbiol Biotechnol.* 2017;33(3):57.
- Jaronski ST. Ecological factors in the inundative use of fungal entomopathogens. *BioControl.* 2010;55(1):159-85.
- Bugti GA, Bin W, Memon SA, Khaliq G, Jaffar MA. Entomopathogenic fungi: Factors involved in successful microbial control of insect pests. *J Entomol.* 2020;17(2):74-83.
- Boopathi T, Karuppuchamy P, Singh SB, Kalyanasundaram M, Mohankumar S, Ravi M. Microbial control of the invasive spiraling

- whitefly on cassava with entomopathogenic fungi. *Braz J Microbiol.* 2015;46(4):1077-85.
18. Gao T, Wang Z, Huang Y, Keyhani NO, Huang Z. Lack of resistance development in *Bemisia tabaci* to *Isaria fumosorosea* after multiple generations of selection. *Sci Rep.* 2017;7(1):42727.
  19. Ali S, Huang Z, Zou S, Bashir MH, Wang Z, Ren S. The effect of insecticides on growth, germination and cuticle-degrading enzyme production by *Isaria fumosorosea*. *Biocontrol Sci Technol.* 2012;22(9):1047-58.
  20. Bai Y, Cui Y, Cao N, Liu Y, Ghulam AB, Wang B. Effects of humidity and temperature on the pathogenicity of *beauveria bassiana* against *stephanitis nashi* and *locusta migratoria manilensis*. *Chin J Biol Control.* 2016;32(6):735.
  21. Bugti GA, Wang B, Lin HF, Na C, Feng LH. Pathogenicity of *beauveria bassiana* strain 202 against sap-sucking insect pests. *Plant Prot Res.* 2018;54(2):111.
  22. Potrich M, Neves PM, Alves LF, Pizzatto M, Silva ER, Luckmann D, et al. Virulence of entomopathogenic fungi against nymphs of *Bemisia tabaci* (Genn.)(Hemiptera: Aleyrodidae) Virulência de fungos entomopatogênicos a ninfas de *Bemisia tabaci* (Genn.)(Hemiptera: Aleyrodidae). *Semina: Ciências Agrárias.* 2011;32(Suplp):1783-91.
  23. Kavallieratos NG, Athanassiou CG, Aountala MM, Kontodimas DC. Evaluation of the entomopathogenic fungi *Beauveria bassiana*, *Metarhizium anisopliae*, and *Isaria fumosorosea* for control of *Sitophilus oryzae*. *J Food Prot.* 2014;77(1):87-93.
  24. Aristizábal LF. *Integrated Management of Chilli Thrips, Scirtothrips Dorsalis Hood (Thysanoptera: Thripidae), on Ornamental Roses* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Florida).
  25. Muller EJ. Control of the brown locust, *Locuslana pardalina* (Walker)(Orthoptera: Acrididae), using a mycoinsecticide: Addressing the issues of speed-of-kill, dose rate, mortality and reduction in feeding. *Afr Entomol.* 2000;8(2):217-21.