

# Geographic origin may not influence vine weevil *Otiorhynchus sulcatus* (Fabricius) susceptibility to the entomopathogenic fungus *Metarhizium brunneum* (Petch)

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1 **Geographic origin may not influence vine weevil *Otiorhynchus sulcatus***  
2 **(Fabricius) susceptibility to the entomopathogenic fungus *Metarhizium***  
3 ***brunneum* (Petch)**

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19 regression.

20

## 21 **Abstract**

22 *Otiorhynchus sulcatus*, known as the vine weevil, is a polyphagous pest that causes  
23 economically important damage to horticultural crops worldwide. The entomopathogenic  
24 fungus *Metarhizium brunneum* is widely used to control this pest. Little research has  
25 investigated variation in susceptibility to this pathogen between vine weevil populations at  
26 different locations. This study addresses this knowledge gap by comparing survival rates of  
27 larvae from adults collected in two UK areas when treated with *M. brunneum*. Larvae from  
28 these locations did not differ in their susceptibility, suggesting that location *per se* may not  
29 affect the efficacy of *M. brunneum* against vine weevil larvae.

## 30 **Introduction**

31 The vine weevil, *Otiorhynchus sulcatus* (Fabricius) (Coleoptera: Curculionidae), is a curculionid  
32 endemic to central Europe, yet its distribution has expanded to most parts of Europe, parts of  
33 North America, South America, New Zealand and Japan. The vine weevil is highly polyphagous  
34 and so threatens a wide range of horticultural crops around the world, among them economically  
35 important soft-fruit crops such as strawberry. In the UK alone, more than 2,000 ha of strawberry  
36 crops were affected in 2016 and losses were worth an estimated £14M (Wynn, 2010). In  
37 addition, ornamental crops, such as plants within the genera *Rhododendron*, *Photinia*, *Euonymus*  
38 and *Cyclamen* are also subject to damage by this pest.

39 Adult weevils live above-ground and feed on leaves and flowers causing mainly cosmetic  
40 damage, whereas larvae live below-ground and feed on plant roots, stems and bulbs, which  
41 reduces plant vigour and may cause plant death. Larvae are usually the greatest concern for  
42 growers because of the damage they cause affects plant health, but also because as the larvae  
43 feed below-ground infestations are sometimes only noticeable when severe damage to the plant  
44 has been caused. Hence, control strategies targeting the vine weevil often primarily focus on this

45 life stage.

46 All vine weevils analysed so far are triploid females which reproduce by thelytokous  
47 parthenogenesis. This reproductive strategy is expected to be detrimental for adaptation to new  
48 habitats, yet it has not hampered vine weevil range expansion. Little research has focused on the  
49 biological distinctiveness of populations of this species, which could be the key to understanding  
50 vine weevil adaptation ability. Lundmark (2010) compared genetic sequences of weevils  
51 collected from Germany, The Netherlands, the UK and the USA. The study inspected a partial  
52 sequence of the cytochrome oxidase III, the elongation factor-1 $\alpha$  gene and a fragment of a non-  
53 coding nuclear sequence and reported few nucleotide substitutions within these genetic markers.  
54 These results were then extrapolated to the whole genome and it was assumed that, genetically,  
55 vine weevil populations are not significantly different. This conclusion, however, was limited by  
56 the paucity of genetic information on this insect species. This limitation remains today as there  
57 has not been any further attempt to investigate the vine weevil genetic diversity.

58 To identify population diversity at a microbial level, Morera-Margarit *et al.* (2019)  
59 characterised the bacterial community of vine weevils from various locations. The populations  
60 tested harboured very similar bacterial community compositions. However, the application of the  
61 newly developed bioinformatic pipeline QIIME2 could reveal greater between population  
62 variation in future investigations. Morera-Margarit *et al.* (2019) used QIIME for the analysis of  
63 the vine weevil microbiota. This is an open-source bioinformatics pipeline for performing  
64 microbiome analysis from raw DNA sequencing. QIIME uses the Operational Taxonomic Unit  
65 or OTU approach. In this method, nucleotide sequences of a given percentage similarity, 97% in  
66 most cases, are clustered together generating what is referred to as an OTU. From the clustered  
67 sequences in an OTU, the most abundant is chosen as the representative sequence to identify the

68 taxonomy of the OTU. QIIME2, the newest version of the pipeline, includes statistical tools to  
69 correct for nucleotide sequencing errors. In this manner, QIIME2 generates unique sequences  
70 that are used to taxonomically identify bacteria. QIIME2 allows for a more comprehensive  
71 understanding of bacterial communities as it takes into account the biological diversity dismissed  
72 in the OTU approach (reviewed by Fricker et al., 2019).

73 Fitness variation between vine weevil populations inhabiting separate locations has to  
74 date been unexplored. The aim of the present study was to address this knowledge gap by  
75 investigating if vine weevils from geographically separate locations differ in their susceptibility  
76 to the fungal pathogen *Metarhizium brunneum* (Petch) (Hypocreales: Clavicipitaceae). *M.*  
77 *brunneum* is an entomopathogen widely used as part of integrated pest management strategies  
78 targeting the vine weevil, especially the larvae of this insect. Thus, in addition to examining vine  
79 weevil between population variation, the aim of this research was to contribute to improved  
80 control strategies targeting vine weevil larvae. To conduct our experiments, vine weevil adults  
81 were collected from two distant locations within the UK. Population variation in susceptibility to  
82 *M. brunneum* was examined in the offspring larvae of these insects. Mortality was statistically  
83 analysed using a mixed effects Cox regression model.

#### 84 **Materials and methods**

85 Vine weevil adults were collected from strawberry crops at two UK sites separated by  
86 524 km: Stafford, Staffordshire, and Invergowrie, Perth and Kinross (collection site =  
87 population). These vine weevils were kept in Petri dishes lined with moist paper (Kleenex,  
88 Kimberly-Clark professional, Kent, UK) and provided with strawberry leaves (*Fragaria x*  
89 *ananasa* Duchesne, mixed varieties) in controlled conditions (18°C, 16:8 h L:D).

90 Strawberry (*Fragaria x ananasa*, var. Elsanta) plants used for the experiment were grown  
91 in 1 L pots with a 3:1 mixture of compost (peat-sand-perlite 6N: 3P: 1K; Everris Ltd, Ipswich,  
92 UK): grit sand (Arthur Bower's Ltd, Lincoln, UK). Vine weevil eggs were collected from Petri  
93 dishes in which the collected adults had fed on strawberry leaves for a week. To infest the plants,  
94 20 eggs were gently washed into a small indentation in the surface of the compost 2 cm deep and  
95 1 cm wide at 2 cm from the main plant stem. Compost temperature was measured with  
96 thermocrons (DS1921G-F5 thermocrons, Homechip Ltd, Milton Keynes, UK), placed 5 cm deep  
97 in the compost, and the software OneWireViewer.exe v. 0.3.19.47. Average substrate  
98 temperature was  $15^{\circ}\text{C} \pm 6^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Plants were arranged in a randomised block design, each block  
99 comprising two strawberry plants representing a replicate of each population. Three blocks were  
100 infested each week for 14 weeks. Experiments were completed in a glasshouse ( $14\text{-}20^{\circ}\text{C}$ , 16:8 h  
101 L:D).

102 Larvae were collected four to six months after the plants had been infested with eggs by  
103 removing the plants from the pots and hand searching the compost and roots for larvae. Only  
104 larvae that were between 0.045 g and 0.09 g in weight were used in this experiment. Plants from  
105 blocks infested during three consecutive weeks were grouped to ensure enough larvae were  
106 collected for a single experiment.

107 *Metarhizium brunneum* isolate 275.86, strain commercialised as Met52® (Novozymes,  
108 Denmark), was provided by Warwick Crop Centre at Warwick University, UK. Cultures of this  
109 isolate were grown for 14 days in Sabouraud dextrose agar media (20 g glucose, BDH,  
110 Lutterworth, UK; 5 g mycological peptone, Oxoid, Basingstoke, UK; 10 g technical agar no.3,  
111 Oxoid, Basingstoke, UK; 500 ml deionised water) in the dark at  $23^{\circ}\text{C} \pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Conidia were  
112 harvested by gentle agitation in sterile 0.01% Triton X-100 solution (BDH, Lutterworth, UK).

113 Conidia concentration was enumerated using a Neubauer improved haemocytometer. Conidia  
114 were then spun down and re-diluted with sterile water to a final concentration of  $10^7$  conidia/mL.  
115 This conidia suspension was diluted with a Triton X-100 solution to achieve a working  
116 concentration of  $10^6$  conidia/mL in 0.05% Triton.

117 Vine weevil larvae treatment consisted of pipetting 25  $\mu$ L of conidia suspension onto the  
118 thoracic segments close to the head of the larva (Klingen et al., 2015). Negative controls were  
119 treated with the same volume of 0.05% Triton X-100 solution. *Galleria mellonella* (Linnaeus)  
120 (Lepidoptera: Pyralidae) larvae (Big larvae, UK Waxworms Ltd) were used as positive controls  
121 and were treated with 25  $\mu$ L of conidia suspension in a similar way. Larvae were placed in Petri  
122 dishes (92 mm diameter) with a 1 cm deep layer of moist compost (insecticide-free peat-sand-  
123 perlite 6N: 3P: 1K; Everris Ltd, Ipswich, UK) and thin carrot slices as a food source at 18°C, in  
124 the dark (Klingen et al., 2015).

125 Each experimental replicate (4 experimental replicates in total) was arranged as a  
126 randomised block design comprising four blocks. Each block contained at least one *M.*  
127 *brunneum* treatment dish per vine weevil population, two negative control dishes for each vine  
128 weevil population and one positive control dish consisting of *Galleria mellonella* treated with *M.*  
129 *brunneum*. Given that natural mortality of vine weevil larvae can be variable, for example as a  
130 result of a natural infections or disturbance occasionally killing all weevils within a Petri dish,  
131 two negative control dishes were used per population replicate in order to accurately record  
132 control mortality in this experiment. The position of the dishes within the block was randomised.

133 Petri dishes with the same treatment, i.e. conidia-treatment or control, within the same  
134 experiment replicate always contained the same number of larvae. Petri dishes were assessed  
135 once each week in a four-week period by removing and counting dead larvae, and replacing the

136 carrot slices. Mortality caused by the fungal pathogen was manually assessed by applying a  
137 slight pressure to identify mummified larvae, as well as visually by observing white mycelia  
138 and/or green conidia on the larval surface. Initial numbers of larvae per population and treatment  
139 were: Stafford-control = 28, Stafford-conidia treatment = 61, Invergowrie-control = 43 and  
140 Invergowrie-conidia treatment = 154.

141 Statistical analysis and graphical representation were performed using R software v. 3.3.3  
142 and the packages ggplot2 survival (T. M. Therneau & Grambsch, 2000), coxme (T. C. Therneau,  
143 2018), survminer (Kassambara & Kosinski, 2018), car and plyr. To test for significant  
144 differences a survival object was created and was tested using a mixed effect Cox model for  
145 interactions. The model included the interactions between the fixed factors vine weevil  
146 population-conidia treatment and the random factors block and experiment replicate. A post-hoc  
147 log-rank test for multiple comparisons with Benjamini-Hochberg p-value adjustment method was  
148 performed.

## 149 **Results**

150 The Mixed effects Cox regression to test for the effect of *M. brunneum* on larval survival  
151 revealed a significant effect of the treatment although not for the population of origin ( $\chi^2 = 10.15$ ,  
152 d.f. = 1, p-value for treatment = 0.001). The Cox proportional hazard, or hazard ratio (HR),  
153 calculated for treatment indicated that treating larvae with conidia increased the mortality rate by  
154 a factor of 2.2 (HR=2.2). The hazard ratio for population also indicated that the origin of the vine  
155 weevil population did not affect larvae survival (HR=1). The post-hoc analysis revealed a  
156 significant decrease in survival of conidia-treated larvae over the experimental period within  
157 population but no differences were found between the two populations (Stafford control-conidia  
158 treatment p-value = 0.003, Invergowrie control-conidia treatment p-value = 0.003; Figure 1).



159 Closer inspection at the descriptive statistics revealed that there was background  
160 mortality in the negative control larvae. Mortality was higher for the Invergowrie population,  
161 although it showed greater variation for the Stafford population (median values for survival:  
162 Stafford-control = 2 weeks 95% CI [2, 4], Stafford-conidia treatment = 2 weeks 95% CI [2,2],  
163 Invergowrie-control = 2 weeks 95% CI [2, 3], Invergowrie-conidia treatment = 2 weeks 95% CI  
164 [2, 2]). We attribute this mortality to stress induced during collection and handling of the larvae  
165 when setting-up the experiment, as well as due to the artificial experimental conditions.

166 Background mortality did not affect the efficacy of the entomopathogenic fungus under  
167 the conditions used for our experiments. In the 1<sup>st</sup> treatment week, probability of survival was  
168 similar between control and conidia-treated larvae (Table 1). After the 1<sup>st</sup> week, however, the  
169 probability of survival in conidia-treated larvae decreased to a much higher level than the  
170 probability of survival in the control larvae (Table 1). Additionally, both conidia treatments had  
171 100% mortality at the end of the experiment (Table 1). Hence, despite having background  
172 mortality in control larvae throughout the experimental period, a mortality rise in conidia-treated  
173 larvae was attributed to the fungal pathogen.

174 The difference in number of larvae from each weevil population used reflects differences  
175 in larval mortality during the rearing of these insects on pot grown plants. High mortality when  
176 rearing vine weevil larvae on potted plants has been previously reported, with levels of mortality  
177 ranging from 80 to 99%. The reason(s) for this high mortality is as yet unknown, although it has  
178 been suggested that cannibalism or lack of nutrients could be the underlying cause (LaLone &  
179 Clarke, 1981).

## 180 **Discussion & Conclusion**

181           This study is the first to investigate differences in susceptibility of vine weevil larvae  
182 collected at different geographic locations to the entomopathogenic fungus *M. brunneum*. It adds  
183 to the limited literature employing survival analysis to examine vine weevil susceptibility to *M.*  
184 *brunneum* (there is only one other study: Klingen et al., (2015)). Our experiments confirm that  
185 *M. brunneum* can infect vine weevil larvae despite using a temperature close to the lower fungal  
186 growth threshold following the experiments carried out by Klingen et al. (2015). However, we  
187 did not detect differences in susceptibility to *M. brunneum* associated with vine weevil  
188 population.

189           Mortality values on larvae treated with conidia obtained in our experiments were similar  
190 to values reported by Klingen et al., (2015), despite the fact that Klingen et al., (2015) applied a  
191 10-fold higher conidia concentration. This may suggest that the conidia concentration used for  
192 our experiments saturated the immune response capacity of the insect, which could have masked  
193 location-associated variation in susceptibility to this natural enemy. It would therefore be useful  
194 to test lower conidia concentrations in future research to reveal the existence of geographic  
195 differences in resistance to this entomopathogenic fungus.

196           Vine weevil larvae are known to be subject to high levels of mortality when reared under  
197 artificial conditions. Rearing vine weevil larvae on pot grown plants presents a more natural  
198 environment but despite this, larval mortality remains high and has previously been reported to  
199 be above 80% under such conditions (LaLone & Clarke, 1981). Klingen et al., (2015) tested  
200 survival of vine weevil larvae following exposure to different entomopathogenic fungi. These  
201 experiments were carried out in controlled environment rooms with set temperature, humidity  
202 and light regime. However, mortality was still high reaching approximately 50% for control

203 larvae after four weeks in these experiments. In our experiments, mortality of larvae not exposed  
204 to *M. brunneum* conidia was similarly high at the end of the experimental period.

205         The application of a Cox regression model to analyse our data allows a more robust  
206 analysis of the entomopathogen action irrespective of larval mortality in the control group. This  
207 survival analysis determines the probability of survival at each time point and the hazard ratios  
208 for each of the variables. Statistical methods for survival analysis are superior to linear  
209 regressions to test pesticide susceptibility. This is because survival regressions take into account  
210 the time passed until an *event* occurs (i.e. the speed of entomopathogen action), while linear  
211 regressions only take into account the number of individuals that experienced the *event* by the  
212 end of the experimental period (George et al., 2014).

213         This study is limited by the small number of populations tested, yet, it establishes the  
214 foundations for future research focusing on testing the existence of niche-associated changes in  
215 vine weevil resistance to *M. brunneum*. Results presented here suggest that location-specific  
216 strategies for vine weevil control using *M. brunneum* may not be necessary. Nonetheless,  
217 additional vine weevil populations collected from a wider range of locations but also from a  
218 greater diversity of cropped and uncropped habitats should still be studied in this way. These  
219 experiments will contribute to confirming whether susceptibility to *M. brunneum* remains  
220 consistent regardless of the geographic origin or crop environment.

221         *Metarhizium brunneum* is commercialised as a product for which application is currently  
222 standardised, hence the same procedure is applied irrespective of the geographic area or the crop  
223 affected. This initial study indicates that *M. brunneum* is equally effective regardless of the  
224 geographic origin of the vine weevil population, however, additional work is still required to  
225 confirm these initial findings.

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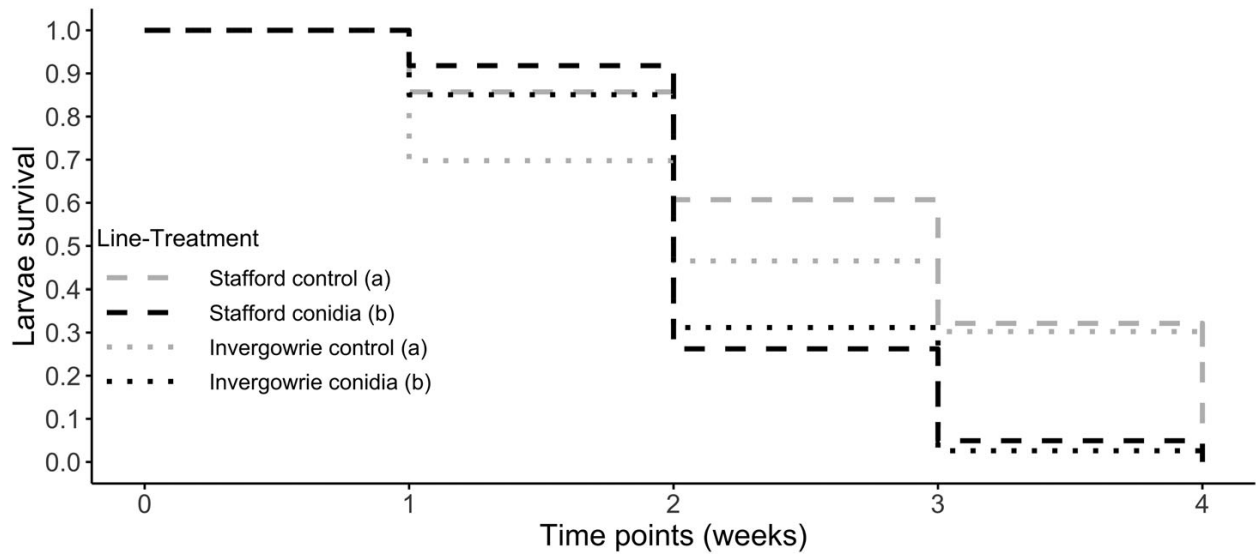
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277 Figure 1. Cox regression for survival of vine weevil larvae from two different populations treated  
278 with *Metarhizium brunneum*. Y-axis represents larvae survival while x-axis represents the time  
279 points considered for the study (weeks). Line-treatment combinations sharing the same letters  
280 were not significantly different (log-rank test: p-value < 0.05).

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289 Table 1. Probability of survival for larvae from both populations, Stafford and Invergowrie. The  
290 table shows the probability of survival as a percentage of the total number of larvae throughout the  
291 experimental period given by the Cox regression model. The time points at which mortality was  
292 recorded are represented as 1<sup>st</sup> to 4<sup>th</sup> week.  
293

Probability of survival	Stafford control	Stafford conidia	Invergowrie control	Invergowrie conidia
1 <sup>st</sup> week	86%	92%	70%	85%
2 <sup>nd</sup> week	61%	26%	47%	31%
3 <sup>rd</sup> week	32%	5%	30%	3%
4 <sup>th</sup> week	6%	0%	24%	0%

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