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2	Pathogenicity of wild and commercial Phasmarhabditis hermaphrodita
3	exposed to the pestiferous slug Deroceras invadens
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1 Abstract

2 Many terrestrial gastropods are pestiferous and pose a significant threat to agriculture, horticulture and floriculture. They are usually controlled by metaldehyde based pellets but an 3 alternative control method is the slug parasitic nematode *Phasmarhabditis hermaphrodita* 4 5 which has been formulated into a biological control agent (Nemaslug®) for use by farmers 6 and gardeners to kill certain pestiferous slug species in 4-21 days. The current strain of P. 7 hermaphrodita (called DMG0001) has been used in commercial production since 1994, but there is little information about the pathogenicity of wild strains of *P. hermaphrodita* towards 8 9 slugs. Here, we exposed the pestiferous slug *Deroceras invadens* to nine wild isolated strains of P. hermaphrodita (DMG0002, DMG0003, DMG0005, DMG0006, DMG0007, DMG0008, 10 DMG0009, DMG0010 and DMG0011) and the commercial strain (DMG0001) to three doses 11 12 (0, 500 and 1000 nematodes per ml). Survival and feeding were recorded over 14 days. All wild P. hermaphrodita strains (other than DMG0010) and P. hermaphrodita (DMG0001), 13 applied at 500 nematodes per ml caused significantly mortality to D. invadens compared to 14 an uninfected control. Similarly, all P. hermaphrodita strains (apart from DMG0003) caused 15 significant mortality to D. invadens when compared to an uninfected control at 1000 16 17 nematodes per ml. Overall, all wild P. hermaphrodita strains (other than DMG0011) caused significantly more mortality than P. hermaphrodita DMG0001 at one or both dose rates. In 18 19 summary, we have found some wild P. hermaphrodita strains were more virulent than P. 20 hermaphrodita (DMG0001). Ultimately, these strains could potentially be developed as alternative, efficient biological control agents for use against slugs. 21

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23 Keywords: Biological control; Molluscicide; Pests; Slugs

1 **1. Introduction**

2 On average, 32% of crop production is lost on a global scale due to pests (Dhawan et al., 2010). Terrestrial gastropods (slugs and snails) inhabit all continents and are important 3 agricultural pests in Europe, America and Australia (South, 1992; Barker, 2002). 4 Uncontrolled slug damage could result in £43 million loss of oilseed rape and winter wheat 5 6 product in the UK (Nicholls, 2014). In some cases, whole fields have to be re-sown with 7 economic repercussions (Willis et al., 2006). Slugs can also act as vectors for pathogens and parasites such as Metastrongyloidae nematodes (Grewal et al., 2003). The main method to 8 9 control slugs is by using metaldehyde based slug pellets (Castle et al., 2017). In the UK, it 10 was estimated that 1640t of metaldehyde was used between 2008 and 2014 (Fera, 2016). Metaldehyde pellets can harm non-target organisms including canines and other vertebrates 11 12 (Cope, 2006), and due to leaching into watercourses it is now considered an emerging pollutant of concern (Stuart et al., 2012). There are other chemical slug control options 13 14 available to growers and farmers, including iron phosphate based products (Koch *et al.*, 2000; Iglesias et al., 2001; Kozlowiski et al., 2014) Iron phosphate based products containing 15 chelating agents however, affect earthworm activity, growth and may be toxic (Langan and 16 17 Shaw, 2006; Edwards et al., 2009).

An alternative to chemical control is the slug parasitic nematode *Phasmarhabditis* 18 hermaphrodita, which is capable of killing several pestiferous slug species (Wilson et al., 19 1993). In 1994, this nematode was developed into a biological control agent and is sold by 20 BASF Agricultural Specialities under the product name 'Nemaslug®'. Nemaslug® is now 21 sold to gardeners and farmers across Northern Europe and has a market value of £1 million 22 per annum (Pieterse et al., 2017). Nematodes are formulated into a water dispersible 23 formulation and upon soil application dauer larvae (the infective stage of the lifecycle) locate 24 slugs via faecal and mucus cues (Rae et al., 2006), enter host slugs via the dorsal 25

integumental pouch and migrate to the shell cavity (Wilson et al., 1993). They then develop 1 2 into self-fertilising hermaphrodites and proliferate, killing the host in 4-21 days (Wilson et al., 1993; Tan and Grewal, 2001a). Nematodes proliferate on the cadaver until the food 3 4 source is depleted, then new dauers enter the soil to locate a new host. Commercial P. hermaphrodita is produced in monoxenic conditions with the bacterium Moraxella osloensis. 5 6 It is thought that *P. hermaphrodita* vectors *M. osloensis* into a slug host, causing death via 7 septicaemia (Tan and Grewal, 2001b; 2002). One common symptom of P. hermaphrodita infection is host-feeding inhibition, which may be a reason why fast efficient control against 8 9 slug damage is seen (Glen et al., 2000). P. hermaphrodita has been used to control slug damage to many crops including winter wheat (Wilson et al., 1994), cabbage (Grubišič et al., 10 2003, 2018; Kozolowski et al., 2012) and sugar beet (Ester & Wilson, 2005). 11

12 The current strain of P. hermaphrodita (called DMG0001) has been used in the production of Nemaslug[®] for 25 years and there is little information on the pathogenicity of 13 wild strains of *P. hermaphrodita*. Therefore, we investigated the pathogenicity and host 14 feeding inhibition caused by nine recently isolated *P. hermaphrodita* strains (Supplementary 15 Table 1) towards the common pest slug Deroceras invadens and compared them to P. 16 17 hermaphrodita (DMG0001) to help understand if there is natural variation in the 18 pathogenicity of these nematodes. We chose D. invadens as the host in our studies as it has 19 been reported invading new areas over the last century and matures faster than other common 20 pest slugs, such as D. reticulatum (Hutchinson et al., 2014). It is now an important 21 pestiferous slug of UK agricultural crops (Williams et al., 2010). Ultimately, by identifying 22 more pathogenic strains of *P. hermaphrodita* further studies could investigate how these 23 nematodes kill slugs by first focussing on potential bacterial symbionts.

1 2. Materials and methods

2 2.1 Source and maintenance of invertebrates

3 P. hermaphrodita commercial strain DMG0001 (Nemaslug®) was supplied by BASF Agricultural Specialities and stored at 10°C before use. Wild P. hermaphrodita strains 4 5 (DMG0002, DMG0003, DMG0005, DMG0006, DMG0007, DMG0008, DMG0009, DMG0010 and DMG0011) were isolated from slugs collected from locations around 6 7 Liverpool, UK (Supplementary Table 1). They have been in culture at Liverpool John 8 Moores University (LJMU) since 2014 on modified White traps (White, 1927). Each strain 9 began as an isogenic line from a single hermaphrodite mother and was identified to species via amplification and sequencing of the ITS1, 18SrRNA and the D2-D3 domain of large 10 11 subunit (LSU) rDNA genes (Andrus and Rae, 2018). For experimentation the nematodes 12 were grown up on decaying slug (Limax flavus) on modified White traps until they had 13 reached the dauer stage and were then stored in cell culture flasks at 10°C (see Andrus and 14 Rae, 2018 for more details). L. flavus were frozen at -80°C before use to kill any existing nematodes. For each experiment, fresh dauers were grown. 15

16 *D. invadens* (mean weight 0.70 g \pm 0.55, n = 900) were collected from parks around 17 Liverpool and stored at 10°C in the dark. Slugs were fed lettuce *ad libitum* and kept for 1 18 week before use to screen for any previous nematode infection.

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0 2.2 Survival and feeding inhibition of D. invadens exposed to P. hermaphrodita

An adapted method by Wilson *et al.* (1993) was used to test the pathogenicity and feeding inhibition of *D. invadens* exposed to *P. hermaphrodita*. Two *D. invadens* were placed in a 20 ml plastic tube with a cotton wool bung pushed to the bottom and 2 ml of water was added to the tube. Slugs were exposed to 2 ml of 500 or 1000 nematodes per ml (or 2 ml of

1 water as a control). A cotton wool bung was used to stop the slugs escaping and the lid was loosely screwed on to allow airflow. Slugs were then incubated at 10°C in the dark for 5 2 days. After 5 days of infection, each slug was placed on a 5 cm Petri dish containing a 3 cm 3 diameter disk of lettuce (area 700mm²). Petri dishes were then incubated at 10°C for 9 days. 4 Mortality was recorded every 2-3 days and the volume of lettuce disk eaten was recorded 8 5 and 14 days after initial infection by tracing the remaining lettuce disk on 1 mm² graph paper 6 (Rae et al., 2009). Ten D. invadens were used per experiment and it was repeated three times 7 for each P. hermaphrodita strain (DMG0001, DMG0002, DMG0003, DMG0005, DMG0006, 8 9 DMG0007, DMG0008, DMG0009, DMG0010 and DMG0011). A no nematode control (dose rate 0) and *P. hermaphrodita* (DMG0001) (dose rates 500, 1000) were run with each group of 10 wild *P. hermaphrodita* tested. 11

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13 2.3 Statistical analysis

Survival of *D. invadens* exposed to *P. hermaphrodita* (DMG0001, DMG0002,
DMG0003, DMG0005, DMG0006, DMG0007, DMG0008, DMG0009, DMG0010 and
DMG0011) at 0, 500 and 1000 nematodes per ml was analysed using a Log Rank test in
OASIS (Yang *et al.*, 2011). A One-Way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test was used to
compare the amount of lettuce eaten by *D. invadens*.

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21 **3. Results**

3.1 Survival of D. invadens exposed to wild P. hermaphrodita strains and commercial P.
hermaphrodita strain.

1 At a dose rate of 500 nematodes per ml the commercial strain of P. hermaphrodita 2 (DMG0001) and all wild strains (DMG0002, DMG0003, DMG0005, DMG0006, DMG0007, DMG0008, DMG0009, and DMG0011), other than P. hermaphrodita DMG0010, caused 3 4 significant mortality to D. invadens when compared to an uninfected control after 14 days (p < 0.05) (Fig. 2A) (Supplementary Table 2A). When compared to the commercial P. 5 6 hermaphrodita strain (DMG0001) the wild P. hermaphrodita strains DMG0002, DMG0005, 7 DMG0007, and DMG0008 were significantly more pathogenic. DMG0002 and DMG0008 caused rapid and consistent mortality, killing 12.2% and 10.6% of slugs per day respectively. 8 9 (p < 0.05) (Fig. 2A) (Supplementary Table 2A).

10 At the higher dose rate of 1000 nematodes per ml P. hermaphrodita commercial strain (DMG0001) and all wild strains (DMG0002, DMG0005, DMG0006, DMG0007, DMG0008, 11 12 DMG0009, DMG0010 and DMG0011), other than P. hermaphrodita DMG0003, caused significant mortality to D. invadens when compared to an uninfected control after 14 days (p 13 < 0.05) (Fig. 2B) (Supplementary Table 2B). Wild P. hermaphrodita strains DMG0002, 14 DMG0003, DMG0006, DMG0009 and DMG0010 caused significantly more D. invadens 15 mortality than the commercial P. hermaphrodita strain (DMG0001) at 1000 nematodes per 16 17 ml after 14 days. The fastest mortality rate was seen in P. hermaphrodita strains DMG0009 (15% per day) and DMG0010 (13.9% per day) at 1000 nematodes per ml (p < 0.05) (Fig. 2B) 18 19 (Supplementary Table 2B).

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3.2 Feeding inhibition of D. invadens caused by P. hermaphrodita infection

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There was a significant difference between the amount of lettuce consumed by *D*. *invadens* exposed to all treatments after 8 days (F(10, 272) = 3.716, p < 0.0001, and after 14 days (F(10, 227) = 5.922, p < 0.0001 at a dose rate of 500 nematodes per ml. After 8 days

1 only *P. hermaphrodita* DMG0008 (43.3 \pm 18.3mm², *p* = 0.007) and DMG0009 (114.9 \pm 2 32.4mm², p = 0.044) caused significant feeding inhibition to D. invadens compared to the uninfected control $(317.6 \pm 38.6 \text{mm}^2)$ at a dose rate of 500 nematodes per ml (Fig. 3A). After 3 4 14 days P. hermaphrodita DMG0003 (297.4 \pm 58.5mm², p = 0.007), DMG0005 (215.4 \pm 47.5mm², p = 0.001), DMG0006 (296.8 ± 60.9mm², p = 0.014), DMG0007 (255.4 ± 5 6 64.8mm², p = 0.009), DMG0008 (81.6 ± 25.1mm², p < 0.001), DMG0009 (208.9 ± 60.2mm², 7 p < 0.001), DMG0010 (244.8 ± 49.6mm², p < 0.001) and DMG0011 (301.7 ± 42.4mm², p =0.031) caused significant feeding inhibition to D. invadens when compared with the 8 9 uninfected control $(534.5 \pm 33.6 \text{mm}^2)$ at a dose rate of 500 nematodes per ml (Fig. 3B). Only *P. hermaphrodita* DMG0008 (81.6 \pm 25.1mm², p = 0.040) significantly inhibited *D. invadens* 10 feeding more than commercial strain DMG0001 (354.9 ± 45.9 mm²) after 14 days at 500 11 12 nematodes per ml (Fig. 3B).

After a dose rate of 1000 nematodes per ml there was a significant difference between 13 14 the amount of lettuce consumed by D. invadens exposed to all treatments after 8 days (F(10, 1)) 246) =11.890, $p = \langle 0.0001 \rangle$ and after 14 days (F(10, 169) = 9.156, p < 0.0001. Feeding was 15 inhibited significantly more than the uninfected control $(348.9 \pm 36.4 \text{mm}^2)$ after 8 days by P. 16 17 hermaphrodita DMG0001 (180.4 \pm 30.5mm², p = 0.008) and the wild strains DMG0002 $(76.8 \pm 22.6 \text{mm}^2, p = 0.001)$, DMG0003 $(57.0 \pm 22.3 \text{mm}^2, p = 0.007)$, DMG0005 $(28.6 \pm 22.6 \text{mm}^2)$ 18 19 9.6mm², p = 0.032), DMG0006 (139.8 ± 34.2mm², p < 0.001), DMG0007 (111.5 ± 25.5mm², 20 p < 0.001) and DMG0009 (30.3 ± 14.5mm², p < 0.001) (Fig. 3C). After 14 days P. hermaphrodita DMG0001 (214.5 \pm 38.7mm², p < 0.001) and the wild strains DMG0002 21 $(164.1 \pm 46 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0003 $(148.1 \pm 41.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2, p < 0.001)$, DMG0005 $(138.4 \pm 1.3 \text{mm}^2$ 22 23 52.8mm², p < 0.001), DMG0006 (283.4 ± 68.5mm², p < 0.001), DMG0007 (185.4 ± 43.8mm², p < 0.001), DMG0009 (85.0 ± 59.7mm², p = 0.005) and DMG0011 (285.7 ± 24 48.2mm², p = 0.002) caused more feeding inhibition compared to the uninfected control 25

(534.6 ± 33.5mm²) at 1000 nematodes per ml (*p* < 0.05) (Fig. 3D). None of the wild strains
inhibited feeding significantly more than *P. hermaphrodita* DMG0001 after 8 or 14 days at a
dose rate of 1000 nematodes per ml.

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4. Discussion

Here we show wild isolated P. hermaphrodita from the UK are highly pathogenic 6 7 towards D. invadens. Little research has investigated the pathogenic potential of wild P. 8 hermaphrodita strains, even though P. hermaphrodita has been isolated globally (Pieterse et al., 2017). Our findings corroborate those of Wilson et al. (2012), Tandingan De Ley et al. 9 10 (2020) and McDonnell et al. (2018), who found wild P. hermaphrodita strains that were 11 pathogenic to the slug D. reticulatum, the snail Theba pisana and neonate life stages of the snail Lissachatina fulica respectively. Interestingly, commercial P. hermaphrodita DMG0001 12 did not kill 12 week old L. fulica (Williams and Rae, 2015), but a wild P. hermaphrodita 13 strain (called ITD290) was highly virulent (McDonnell et al., 2018). The reasons for this 14 difference could be due to the larger snails used by Williams and Rae (2015) as bigger snails 15 16 and slugs tend to be more resistant to nematode infection, which has been observed in infection studies using P. hermaphrodita exposed to Cornu aspersum, Arion lusitanicus and 17 Arion ater (Glen et al., 1996; Speiser et al., 2001; Grimm, 2002). Only P. hermaphrodita 18 19 DMG0002 caused significantly more mortality than P. hermaphrodita DMG0001 at both dose rates. P. hermaphrodita DMG0005, DMG0007 and DMG0008 only caused significantly 20 21 more pathogenicity at the lower dose rate of 500 nematodes per ml. Higher pathogenicity at a 22 lower dose rate indicates that these wild isolates are highly virulent, and a lower worm 23 burden is required for infection, inducing mortality and proliferation. Other factors may be influencing this result as well, such as the ability of each strain to locate a host. For example, 24

1 wild strains may display better chemoattraction, a trait that has diminished in the commercial 2 strain (Andrus et al., 2018; Andrus and Rae, 2019). In a study by Andrus and Rae (2019), 3 using the same wild strains as above, it was found that when exposed to multiple slug mucus 4 samples the commercial strain responded poorly to all mucus, with the majority of the nematodes remaining at the application point. Differences in chemoattraction between the 5 wild isolated P. hermaphrodita strains were also seen. Interestingly, DMG0010 caused no 6 7 mortality at 500 nematodes per ml, yet was highly virulent at 1000 nematodes per ml. Presumably a higher worm burden is required for DMG0010 to establish a lethal infection 8 9 and when such infection is established this strain kills more rapidly than others. Natural variation in pathogenicity between nematode strains is well documented in entomopathogenic 10 nematodes, such as wild isolated strains of Heterorhabditis bacteriophora and Steinernema 11 12 carpocapsae, that were found to be more virulent to their targeted hosts (Cephalcia tannourinensis and Agrotis ipsilon, respectively) than the commercial formulations (Noujeim 13 et al., 2015; Bélair et al., 2013). Further host range testing of the more virulent wild isolated 14 *P. hermaphrodita* strains is needed. 15

We found wild P. hermaphrodita strains (DMG0002 DMG0005, DMG0007 and 16 DMG0008) were more pathogenic than the commercial strain (DMG0001) (depending on 17 18 dose). The reasons for this pathogenic difference could be due to their associated bacteria. 19 Infectivity and pathogenicity of *P. hermaphrodita* are strongly influenced by bacterial diet 20 (Wilson et al, 1995a,b). One bacterium, Moraxella osloensis, was chosen for commercial production from a selection of 16 isolates as it constantly produced high yields of pathogenic 21 22 nematodes (Wilson et al., 1995 a,b). P. hermaphrodita is still grown on this bacterium. It is 23 thought that *M. osloensis* is introduced and released into the slug's haemocoel by dauer stage nematodes and causes septicemia by production of an endotoxin (Tan and Grewal, 2001a, b; 24 25 2002). However, there is evidence to show that *M. osloensis* is not vertically transmitted to

the next generation of pathogenic nematodes (Rae *et al.*, 2010; Nermut' *et al.*, 2014).
Therefore, the current relationship *P. hermaphrodita*, and especially these wild strains, have
with bacteria warrants further investigation. One such approach could be to use 16S
metagenomics of bacteria present in the nematode gut, which has worked well in profiling the
associated microflora in other nematodes like *Caenorhabditis elegans* (Dirksen *et al.*, 2016).

6 As well as killing slugs, the wild strains of P. hermaphrodita were able to inhibit 7 feeding of D. invadens. This is a common symptom of P. hermaphrodita infection and 8 enhances the use of these nematodes as a biological control agent. Host feeding inhibition is 9 also caused in resistant species (Glen et al., 2000), such as juvenile A. lusitanicus (Grimm, 10 2002). Variation across dose rate, day and strain was also observed. Wild P. hermaphrodita strain DMG0009 had the largest effect, inhibiting slug feeding more than the control at both 11 12 doses and inhibiting a greater level of feeding than the commercial strain at 1000 nematodes per ml. 13

In conclusion, wild isolated strains of P. hermaphrodita are capable of killing and 14 inducing feeding inhibition in the slug *D. invadens*, some more than the commercial strain 15 (DMG0001). Additional research on the better performing strains will be needed, including 16 17 understanding the effects associated bacteria have on yield and virulence, and optimising in *vitro* culturing techniques. This research shows that understanding natural variation between 18 19 strains used for biological control purposes could result in a more effective product. Having multiple wild strains displaying genetic variation in virulence could also help with 20 understanding which genes are associated with pathogenicity, aid in understanding the 21 evolution of parasitism and even enhance P. hermaphrodita as a biological control agent 22 (Rae, 2017). 23

24 Acknowledgments

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 Shepherd, Craig Wilding and Will Swaney for discussions.

3

4 Figure legends

Fig. 1. *P. hermaphrodita* dauer juveniles (A) are the infective stage and develop into adult
self-fertilising hermaphrodites (B). Infection in *D. invadens* (C) can cause a swollen mantle
and shell ejection in *D. invadens* (D). Scale bar in A represents 100 µm, in B represents
250µm and in C represents 0.5 cm.

9 Fig. 2. (A) Percentage survival of *D. invadens* exposed to 0 (Black) and 500 nematodes per
10 ml of *P. hermaphrodita* (DMG0001) (Grey), *P. hermaphrodita* (DMG0002) (Red), *P.*11 *hermaphrodita* (DMG0003) (Orange), *P. hermaphrodita* (DMG0005) (Light Green), *P.*12 *hermaphrodita* (DMG0006) (Dark Green), *P. hermaphrodita* (DMG0007) (Light Blue), *P.*13 *hermaphrodita* (DMG0008) (Dark Blue), *P. hermaphrodita* (DMG0009) (Purple), *P.*14 *hermaphrodita* (DMG0010) (Brown) and *P. hermaphrodita* (DMG0011) (Dark Grey).

Fig. 2. (B) Percentage survival of *D. invadens* exposed to 0 (Black) and 1000 nematodes per
ml of *P. hermaphrodita* (DMG0001) (Grey), *P. hermaphrodita* (DMG0002) (Red), *P. hermaphrodita* (DMG0003) (Orange), *P. hermaphrodita* (DMG0005) (Light Green), *P. hermaphrodita* (DMG0006) (Dark Green), *P. hermaphrodita* (DMG0007) (Light Blue), *P. hermaphrodita* (DMG0009) (Purple), *P. hermaphrodita* (DMG0009) (Purple), *P. hermaphrodita* (DMG0009) (Purple), *P. hermaphrodita* (DMG00010) (Brown), *P. hermaphrodita* (DMG0011) (Dark Grey).

Fig. 3. Feeding inhibition of *D. invadens* exposed to 0 and 500 nematodes per ml of *P. hermaphrodita* (DMG0001, DMG0002, DMG0003, DMG0005, DMG0006, DMG0007,
DMG0008, DMG0009, DMG0010 and DMG0011) after 8 days (A) and 14 days (B) and 0

1	and 1000 nematodes per ml after 8 days (C) and 14 days (D). Significant differences between
2	the amount consumed by the control and treatments at $p < 0.05$ are denoted by * and at $p <$
3	0.001 denoted by **. Bars represent ± 1 standard error.
4	Supplementary Table 1. Phasmarhabditis hermaphrodita strains isolated from slugs around
5	Liverpool.
6	Supplementary Table 2. Mean (\pm s.e.) number of slugs alive 0,2,5,7,9,12 and 14 days after
7	exposure to P. hermaphrodita (DMG0001, DMG0002, DMG0003, DMG0005, DMG0006,
8	DMG0007, DMG0008, DMG0009, DMG0010, DMG0011) at 0, 500 (A) or 1000 (B)
9	nematodes per ml.
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