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2	The diversity and distribution of entomopathogenic nematodes in
3	the United Kingdom and the first confirmed UK record of
4	Steinernema carpocapsae
5	
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11	
12	Running head: EPNs found in the U.K.

13 Abstract

Entomopathogenic nematodes (EPNs) of the families Steinernematidae and 14 Heterorhabditidae are lethal parasites of insects that have been commericalised as biological 15 control agents to provide protection against several pestiferous species in agriculture and 16 forestry. EPNs have been isolated from across the world but the current distribution and 17 diversity of EPNs found in the U.K. is poorly understood. To remedy this we collected 518 18 soil samples from a diverse range of habitats across the U.K. and baited them with Galleria 19 mellonella to isolate EPNs. Dead G. mellonella were placed in White traps and emergent 20 21 EPNs underwent DNA barcoding analyses. From the 518 collected soil samples, 3.5% were positive for EPNs. No species of Heterorhabditis were found, but we found seven isolates of 22 Steinernema glaseri, one isolate of S. feltiae, eight isolates of S. affine and two isolates of S. 23 24 carpocapsae. This was the first confirmed record of S. carpocapsae in the U.K.

25

26 Keywords

27 Steinernema carpocapsae, S. glaseri, S. feltiae, S. affine, Heterorhabditis, Lundy Island,
28 entomopathogenic nematodes

30 Entomopathogenic nematodes (EPNs) of the genera Steinernema and Heterorhabditis are lethal pathogens of hundreds of insect species (Laumond, 1979; Georgis et al., 2006; 31 Grewal et al., 1994). They have been formulated into biological control agents for use against 32 33 insect pests in agriculture and forestry (Campos-Herrera, 2015) including Diaprepes abbreviates, Otiorhynchus sulcatus, Thrips spp., Delia radicum, Phyllopertha horticola, 34 Cydia pomonella and several other Dipteran and Lepidopteran larvae (Georgis et al., 2006). 35 36 Nematodes are applied to soil where they are attracted to cues exuded from insects including host derived odorants, carbon dioxide and faeces (Dillman et al., 2012; Hallem et al., 2011, 37 38 Grewal et al., 1993). They then penetrate through the mouth, spiracles and anus (Dowds & Peters, 2002) where they then release their symbiotic bacteria (Xenorhabdus for Steinernema 39 and Photorhabdus for Heterorhabditis), which kills insects in 24-48 hours (Forst et al., 1997). 40 41 The bacteria produce a selection of toxins, haemolysins and lipopolysaccharides (LPS) that 42 are responsible for killing the insect host (Chaston et al., 2011), and the nematodes feed on the proliferating bacteria. When the food source is depleted they arrest development at dauer 43 stage and go in search of more potential insect hosts in the soil. Their lethality, effectiveness 44 in the field and the mass production technology (Shapiro-Ilan & Gaugler, 2002) make them 45 excellent alternatives to chemical control (Campos-Herrera, 2015). 46

47 EPNs have been isolated worldwide with more than 95 species of Steinernema and 16 48 species of *Heterorhabditis* described so far (Hunt & Nguyen, 2016). There have been many 49 surveys over the past few decades looking at EPN diversity and distribution including recent surveys of Thailand (Thanwisai et al., 2012) and New Zealand (Ali & Wharton 2017). Over 50 the last 30 years there have been several surveys of EPNs in Scotland, England, Wales and 51 52 Northern Ireland (Boag et al., 1992; Blackshaw, 1988; Homininck & Briscoe, 1990a,b; Gwynn & Richardson, 1996), though no recent surveys have been conducted. These surveys 53 have produced mixed results in terms of success of isolating EPNs. For example, Boag et al. 54

(1992) sampled Scotland in 40 x 40 km grids and achieved a return rate of approximately 55 2.2% from their sampling regime finding only Steinernema feltiae and a nematode they 56 suspected was S. carpocapsae. However, Homininck & Briscoe (1990a,b) had a higher 57 58 success rate with 48% of samples being positive for finding EPNs such as S. bibionis, an unidentified Steinernema sp. and an unidentified Heterorhabditis sp. There were several 59 factors that may contribute to this difference in success rate, one of which may be the 60 modifications to the standard method of isolating EPNs, the Galleria mellonella trap method 61 (Glazer & Lewis 2000). For example, some studies baited soil samples with G. mellonella 62 63 only once (Griffin et al., 1991) but others tried two times (consecutively) and at two different temperatures (Homininck & Briscoe, 1990a,b). Also some studies used Tenebrio molitor 64 instead of G. mellonella (Boag et al., 1992), which may affect the numbers and species of 65 66 EPNs isolated. As there have been mixed results discovering what EPN species are present in the U.K., and the last survey was over 20 years ago (Gwynn & Richardson, 1996), we 67 decided to carry out a survey of the biodiversity and distribution of the U.K. EPN fauna by 68 69 collecting soil samples and baiting them with G. mellonella, followed by using White traps to grow any potential EPNs. Identification of species used standard genotyping procedures. 70

71

72 Materials and Methods

73 Collection of soil samples from across the U.K.

In total 518 soil samples were collected across the U.K. (Fig 1A; Supplementary Fig
The collection sites were chosen to get a broad distribution across the U.K. including a
wide range of habitats, land use and soil types (e.g. deciduous forest, coastal, salt marsh,
urban environments, improved grassland and livestock farmland) as described by Joint
Nature Conservation Committee (JNCC) Handbook for Phase 1 habitat survey (JNCC, 2010)

and using the UKSO Soils map viewer (NERC, 2017). Between target land uses and habitats,
a random drive method was employed, as described by Homininck & Briscoe (1990a,b), to
cover as much area as possible. Each soil sample (300-500 g) was removed using a handtrowel to a depth of 10-15 cm. At the time of each collection, GPS coordinates and a
photograph were taken, and land use, soil type and any other distinguishing habitat
information were recorded.

In addition to mainland U.K. fine scale sampling of the island of Lundy was 85 conducted (n = 46 soil samples), which had never been previously sampled for EPNs. Lundy 86 Island is a small, flat topped, granite island situated 18 km from the coast of North Devon 87 with the Atlantic Ocean on its west side and the Bristol Channel on its east. It is a small 88 island extending to 5 km long and 1 km wide with an area of 345 ha (JNCC 2017). A 89 90 patchwork of different habitats covers the top of the island including open heathland, rough and improved grassland, patches of moorland with acidic bogs and pools and rare waved 91 heathland to the north of the island (JNCC, 2017). Samples were taken based on a grid 92 system covering the whole of the island and were collected between September 2014 and July 93 2015. 94

95

96 Isolation of EPNs using baiting with *G. mellonella* as bait

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98 Once soil samples were transported back to the laboratory they were placed into non-99 airtight plastic boxes (10 x 8 x 5 cm) and each box was baited with six late instar *G*. 100 *mellonella* and maintained at room temperature (15-20°C) (Glazer & Lewis, 2000). Every 48 101 hours any dead or moribund *G. mellonella* were removed, rinsed with distilled water and 102 placed into individual White traps (White, 1927). This process was repeated every 2-3 days

- for 22 days until all *G. mellonella* were removed from the box. A second bait was performed
 using the same temperature regime with the same soil samples after 22 days.
- 105

106 Molecular identification of EPN species

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Any nematodes that were found en-masse in the surrounding water of the White trap 108 after 28 days were identified using molecular analysis. Between 30-50 dauer juveniles were 109 110 placed in a 1.5 ml Eppendorf tube and their DNA extracted using a Qiagen DNeasy Blood and Tissue DNA extraction kit following the manufacturer's recommended protocol. Nematode 111 DNA was then used for PCR amplification of the 18S rRNA gene for species identification 112 (Blaxter et al., 1998) using the primers SS18U (5'-AAAGATTAAGCCATGCATG-3') and 113 SS26R (5'-CATTCTTGGCAAATGCTTTCG-3'). The PCR cycling conditions were as 114 follows: 94 °C for 5 mins, 30 cycles of 94 °C for 1 min, 50 °C for 1 min and 72 °C for 2 min 115 and then 72 °C for 7 mins. To aid differentiation between Steinernema species, PCR of the 116 internal transcribed spacer regions ITS-1, 5.8 and ITS-2 using primers TW81 (5'-117 GTTTCCGTAGGTGAACCTGC-3') and AB28 (5'-ATATGCTTAAGTTCAGCGGGT-3') 118 was performed (Spiridonov et al., 2004). Successful amplification of both genes was then 119 checked using gel electrophoresis and PCR products purified using a Thermo Scientific 120 121 GeneJET PCR Purification Kit. Amplicons were sequenced in both directions by GATC (Constance, Germany). Sequences were manually checked and edited and used to identify to 122 species level using a BLASTN search in NCBI database (Altschul 1990). 123

124

125 **Results**

Identification of EPNs from soil samples from around the U.K.

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128 From 518 soil samples collected across the length and breadth of the U.K. (Fig 1A; Supplementary Fig 1), 18 (3.5%) were positive for EPNs (Fig 1B; Supplementary Fig 1). The 129 130 18 individual sites had four different species of EPN from the genus Steinernema including eight isolates of S. affine, seven isolates of S. glaseri, one of S. feltiae and two of S. 131 carpocapsae (Fig 1B; Table 1). The sampling sites that contained EPNs were predominantly 132 from rural, sparsely populated settings, the only exception was one isolate of S. feltiae, which 133 was found in an urban car park. No Heterorhabditis spp. were isolated from the soil samples 134 despite numerous samples being taken from habitats where Heterorhabditis spp. had 135 previously been detected in the UK such as sandy coastal areas (Homininck et al., 1995). 136

The majority of the EPNs were found in the south west of England in the counties of 137 Devon and Cornwall (Fig 1B; Table 1). In total ten out of the 18 samples were found there 138 with representatives of three Steinernema species (S. glaseri, S. carpocapsae and S. affine). 139 However, no S. feltiae were found. The habitat types where EPNs were found in this area 140 141 were diverse including moorland, grassland and farmland, variously consisting of loam and peat soils. The other eight EPN isolates were sporadically found across the U.K., but with a 142 tendency for positive samples to be more common in the northern parts of the U.K. 143 144 Steinernema affine was found in Northern Ireland, Scotland and northern England. Steinernema glaseri was isolated near Whitby and Scarborough as well as near Oxford. The 145 only isolate of S. feltiae was found in northern England near Alnmouth from loam soil 146 147 collected near a car park. Interestingly, there have been no confirmed records of S. carpocapsae from the U.K. before, but we isolated two samples, both from the south west of 148 England. The island of Lundy also harboured EPNs as we found one rich loam sample from 149

150 farmland had a single isolate of *S. glaseri*.

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152 Identification of other nematode species

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Only 18 (3.5%) of the soil samples had EPNs present, however another 155 (29.9%) 154 of all the soil samples had other nematode species from a variety of trophic groups present. 155 The genera identified were: Acrobeloides (104 isolates), Aphelenchoides (3), Aphelenchus (8), 156 157 Cervidellus (1), Choriorhabditis (2), Chiloplacus (6), Mesorhabditis (1), Oscheius (2), Panagrolaimus (2), Pelodera (2), Phasmarhabditis (1), Pristionchus (15) and Rhabditis (8). 158 In some cases two nematode species were found in one sample, including a soil sample that 159 160 contained S. feltiae and Oscheius sp. but they were separated based on general morphology before molecular identification. As these other nematode genera were not being surveyed and 161 162 are often found on dead G. mellonella from such surveys (Mráček, 1980) they were not studied further. 163

164

165 Discussion

166

The purpose of this survey was to understand the diversity and distribution of EPNs in
the U.K. and to investigate whether the EPN landscape had changed since the last survey 21
years ago (Gwynne & Richardson, 1996). Previous surveys of the U.K. isolated *S. bibionis, S. affine, S. feltiae* and *S. kraussei* and a *Heterorhabditis* spp. (Homininck & Briscoe, 1990a,b;
Griffin et al., 1991; Blackshaw, 1988; Homininck et al., 1995; Chandler et al., 1997; Gwynne

172 & Richardson 1996). We found *S. affine*, *S. feltiae*, *S. glaseri* and *S. carpocapsae*, with the
173 latter species having no previous confirmed records in the U.K.

From 518 soil samples 3.5% had nematodes present - similar to the survey results of 174 Boag et al. (1992) who found 2.2% of soil samples were positive for EPNs, but is lower than 175 Gwynne & Richardson (1996) who found 11% of samples had EPNs present. Other surveys 176 177 have recorded much higher success at finding EPNs in the U.K. Homininck & Briscoe (1990a) recovered EPNs from 48.6% of soil samples and Homininck et al. (1995) found 38.2% of soil 178 samples with EPNs. Boag et al. (1992) suggested the high return rate might be due to second 179 baiting of soil samples with G. mellonella. We also performed a second G. mellonella bait on 180 all 518 soil samples, however the recovery rate did not increase. Other studies suggest that 181 baiting soil samples at different temperatures is an important consideration as some species 182 183 are more active at different temperatures e.g. S. kraussei is able to tolerate colder temperatures (Mráček et al., 2005). Two of the previous U.K. based surveys baited at 184 different temperatures, which increased EPN isolation (Homininck & Briscoe 1990a,b; 185 Gwynne & Richardson, 1996). However, in this study we carried out baiting at room 186 temperature which fluctuated from 15 to 20°C. Boag et al. (1992) baited their soil samples 187 with T. molitor as well as G. mellonella as the latter may not be the most suitable host for all 188 EPN species (Spiridonov & Moens, 1999). However, they did not isolate more species or 189 190 achieve a higher recovery rate.

EPN identification has previously been based solely on morphology and crossbreeding of isolates with known EPNs strains (Poinar 1979; Stock, 2002). However, the validity of crossbreeding as a means of species identification was called into question following the discovery of hermaphroditic Steinernematids by Griffin et al. (2001). Genetic identification methods have become more common over time and this study is the first to employ direct sequencing of the 18SrRNA and ITS1 genes with samples from a U.K. wide

197 survey. Homininck et al. (1990a), Chandler et al., (1997) and Gywnne & Richardson (1996) all used Restriction Fragment Length Polymorphism (RFLP) to identify EPN species. 198 However, there are problems with this technique (Linacre & Tobe, 2009) and it does not 199 200 provide sufficient resolution to understand variation within species (Powers et al., 1997; Szalanski et al., 2000). Similarly, there are also issues with morphological identification of 201 nematodes too as there is a lack of diagnostic traits in members of Steinernema and 202 203 Heterorhabditis which can be problematic even for trained experts (Stock, 2002) therefore we believe we have used a potentially more accurate method to determine what species were 204 205 present.

206 One of the most interesting species isolated was S. carpocapsae as it has not previously been recorded in the U.K. In the U.K. the use of EPNs as biocontrol agents centres 207 on four nematode species: S. feltiae, S. kraussei, H. bacteriophora and S. carpocapsae. 208 However, S. carpocapsae is considered a non-native EPN species in the U.K. and its use is 209 strictly controlled by the Wildlife and Countryside Act (1981). It is still possible to use S. 210 carpocapsae to control pests such as Sciaridae, or Otiorhynchus spp. (Kim et al., 2003) 211 however, its release is only allowed by holders of a government-issued licence (FERA-212 213 DEFRA, 2017). As well as our study there have been some previous references to possible 214 findings of S. carpocapsae in the U.K. (Georgis & Hague, 1981; Boag et al., 1992) but none 215 of these have been confirmed by molecular methods (Torr et al., 2007b). S. carpocapsae is described as having a cosmopolitan distribution (Poinar, 1979; Homininck et al., 1996; 216 Gaugler, 2002) and has been recorded in a wide range of geographic locations including the 217 USA, Argentina, Australia and Mexico (Peters, 1996). These geographic regions comprise a 218 219 vast range of ambient temperatures and habitats. However, it has not frequently been found in 220 the temperate areas of Europe (Kary et al., 2009; Mráček et al 2005, Sturhan, 1999). Both isolates of S. carpocapsae were found in rural locations (wooded layby and rural farm) and 221

therefore it is unlikely that they originated from EPNs released from control usages. This confirmed presence of *S. carpocapsae* on mainland UK has ramifications for the controlled use of this EPN.

EPNs exhibit habitat preferences, for example S. kraussei is found more frequently in 225 woodlands (Mráček et al., 2005; Ali & Wharton 2017), and S. glaseri is associated with 226 looser soil textures (Koppenhofer & Fuzy, 2006). It has previously been considered a 227 nematode of temperate climates (Gaugler, 2002) although Al-Own (2013), using the same 228 molecular methods as this survey, identified 16 isolates in the South West of the U.K. 229 mainland. Steinernema affine is associated with grassland habitats (Torr et al., 2007a) and is 230 often found with S. feltiae (Sturhan, 1999). Steinernema feltiae is found globally and in a 231 wide range of habitats such as pastures, roadsides and any areas where human disturbance is 232 233 minimal (Homininck et al., 1996). Our strains of S. affine were found in soil from a selection of habitats including moorland, a hedgerow and grassland and our single isolate of S. feltiae 234 235 was found in an urban car park.

We also focused on the island of Lundy, which has never been previously sampled for 236 EPNs. Lundy Island is a biologically and geologically diverse habitat and has been the 237 238 subject of much scientific interest. This small island displays three unique endemic species including the Lundy cabbage (Coincya wrightii), the bronze Lundy cabbage flea beetle 239 (Psylliodes luridipennis) and the Lundy cabbage weevil (Ceutorhynchus contracus spp. 240 pallipes). From 46 soil samples we found S. glaseri is present on Lundy. How or when this 241 species was introduced to the island is unknown but further work is needed to investigate the 242 interactions of this species with the unique and diverse flora and fauna that have evolved on 243 Lundy, particularly the indigenous insect species. 244

As well as EPNs there were numerous other nematodes that were also isolated using 245 the G. mellonella bait technique. These included members of the Oscheius genus, which are 246 commonly found in soil and live on decaying matter and some are thought to be 247 entomopathogenic (Ye et al., 2010). Pristionchus nematodes were also found which are 248 bacterivorous and transported by beetles (Herrmann et al., 2006). However, the most 249 abundant nematodes found were those of the genus Acrobeloides. These nematodes are 250 251 bacterial-feeding nematodes found in agricultural soil (Bird & Ryder, 1993) and are routinely found in soil surveys (Campos-Herrera et al., 2016). There are no reports of these nematodes 252 253 killing insects so they must have been isolated because they reproduced on dead G. mellonella. It should be noted that we had difficulties positively identifying these nematodes 254 using just analysis of the 18SrRNA gene (Blaxter et al., 1998) and when first examined the 255 256 majority of isolates were identified as Cervidellus vexilliger. This is due to the complex 257 evolutionary relationships of members of the Cephalobidae that are difficult to identify at the morphological and molecular level (Smythe & Nadler, 2006) and several genes should be 258 used to separate these genera. Other nematodes isolated included a member of the gastropod 259 parasitic genus Phasmarhabditis (designated species VP2016a); whilst not a parasite of 260 insects (Wilson et al., 1994) these nematodes readily eat bacteria and hence would be found 261 on rotting G. mellonella. We failed to isolate any Heterorhabditis sp. even though we 262 sampled from sand dunes, beach hinterlands and sandy soils where they can be found 263 264 (Rolston et al., 2005). However, this is not unusual as it seems that Heterorhabditis spp. are infrequently recovered from these types of surveys (Sturhan & Liskova, 1999) with only two 265 out of six U.K. based sampling surveys finding Heterorhabditis (Homininck & Briscoe 1990a; 266 267 Homininck et al., 1995).

In conclusion, we have carried out a U.K. based soil survey looking for indigenous EPNs. From 518 soil samples we managed to find four species of *Steinernema*, which is a

270	similar number of species present in all six surveys conducted over 29 years in the U.K.
271	(Homininck & Briscoe, 1990a,b; Griffin et al., 1991, Blackshaw, 1988; Homininck et al.,
272	1995; Chandler et al., 1997; Gwynne & Richardson, 1996) but we have found, for the first
273	time, S. carpocapsae in U.K. soils.
274	
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276	
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281	
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517	Figure legends
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519	Fig 1: Location of soil samp	oles collected throughout t	he U.K (A) and those that were po	ositive			
520	for EPNs including S. affine (white circle), S. feltiae (grey circle), S. carpocapsae (black						
521	circle) and S. glaseri (black star) (B). Each dot represents a location where at least one soil						
522	sample was taken. Scale bar	represents 100 miles.					
523							
524	Supplementary Figure legends						
525							
526	Suppl. Fig 1: Interactive ma	ap of exact location of soil	l samples collected throughout the	e U.K.			
527	which can	be	found	at:			
528	https://www.google.com/maps/d/viewer?mid=1P70uNnG_HR5nAj_H_0J1pCTx_sk≪=54.34787995						
529	568756%2C-5.6515892031250)13&z=7					
530	Each yellow dot represents location where at least one soil sample was taken and the exact						
531	location of soil samples where EPNs were recorded included: S. affine (red star), S. feltiae						
532	(purple cross), S. carpocapsae (green square) and S. glaseri (blue diamond).						
533							
534	Table legends						
535							
536	Table 1: Date of collection	, collection location, land	use and soil type of samples col	llected			
537	throughout the U.K which ha	ad EPNs present.					
538							