

Biocontrol of the Pine processionary moth, *Thaumetopoea wilkinsoni* (Tams.) (Lepidoptera: Notodontidae) by forest-derived entomopathogenic fungi

Journal:	<i>Canadian Journal of Forest Research</i>
Manuscript ID	cjfr-2025-0008
Manuscript Type:	Research Article
Date Submitted by the Author:	09-Jan-2025
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Is the manuscript for consideration in a Special Issue or Collection?:	Not applicable (regular submission)
Keyword:	Pine processionary moth, Tenebrio-bait method, Beauveria, Fusarium, Biocontrol

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1 **Biocontrol of the Pine processionary moth, *Thaumetopoea wilkinsoni* (Tams.)**
2 **(Lepidoptera: Notodontidae) by forest-derived entomopathogenic fungi**

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30 **Abstract**

31 The pine processionary moth (PPM), *Thaumetopoea wilkinsoni* Tams. (Lepidoptera:
32 Notodontidae), is an important forest pest in the Mediterranean region. This study demonstrated
33 for the first time the biocontrol potential of entomopathogenic fungi (EPF) isolated from pine
34 forest soils on *T. wilkinsoni*. The identity of five isolates obtained by the *Tenebrio*-bait method
35 was established by macroscopic and microscopic features and ITS-rDNA sequencing.
36 Pathogenicity and virulence of novel indigenous isolates on fourth stage larvae of *T. wilkinsoni*
37 were then determined. PPM1, PPM3 and PPM5 were identified as *Beauveria bassiana* Vuill.
38 (Hypocreales: Cordycipitaceae), PPM2 and PPM4 were identified as *Fusarium oxysporum*
39 Schlecht. (Hypocreales: Nectriaceae). All isolates were found to be pathogenic at a
40 concentration of 10^7 conidia/ml, with virulence varying between 15 and 100%. The
41 pathogenicity of *F. oxysporum* on *T. wilkinsoni* was demonstrated for the first time in this study
42 and its virulence was determined to be 76%. In addition, the virulence of *B. bassiana* PPM1
43 isolate reached 100% at a concentration of 10^7 conidia/ml 14 days after treatment. Moreover,
44 the median lethal concentration (LC_{50}) required to kill 50% of the larval population was
45 estimated to be 5.7×10^3 conidia/ml. Our results are important to improve the application of new
46 EPF species as biological control agents in pest management.

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48 **Keywords:** Pine processionary moth, *Tenebrio*-bait method, *Beauveria*, *Fusarium*, Biocontrol,

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55 **Introduction**

56 The pine processionary moths include at least two major phytophagous insect species that
57 defoliate *Pinus* and *Cedrus* forests in southern Europe and the Mediterranean region (Basso et
58 al., 2017). *Thaumetopoea pityocampa* Denis & Schiffermüller, 1775 occurs from North Africa
59 to southern Europe, while *Thaumetopoea wilkinsoni* Tams, 1925 occurs from western Turkey
60 to southern parts of Israel (Petrucco-Toffolo et al., 2018). In many earlier studies on
61 *Thaumetopoea* sp. in Turkey, the population was referred as *T. pityocampa* (Avcı, 2000; Kanat
62 & Alma, 2004; Ince et al., 2008; Sevim et al., 2010; Sönmez et al., 2017). However, recent
63 research utilizing molecular techniques has revealed that the species distributed in western
64 Turkey is actually *T. wilkinsoni* (İpekdal et al., 2015; İpekdal et al., 2020; Basso et al., 2023).
65 In addition, the pest is currently extending its geographical distribution in response to climate
66 warming (İpekdal et al. 2015). *T. wilkinsoni* cause in the yield of trees by eating the needles in
67 various pine species (*Pinus brutia* Ten., *P. nigra* Arnold., *P. sylvestris* L., *P. pinea* L., *P.*
68 *halepensis* Mill.) during the larval phase in fall and winter. The pest causes deformities in
69 seedlings and stunting and even tree mortality in young stands. The larval stages cause pines to
70 shed their leaves and allow the invasion of other opportunistic pine pests, resulting in reduced
71 viability of pines and lower yield of edible pine nuts (İpekdal and Çağlar 2014). In addition to
72 its severe impact on biodiversity and the environment, the pest also has a dangerous effect due
73 to its urticating hairs produced from the third instar onwards, which cause strong allergic
74 reactions on contact with humans and animals. The urticating hairs are produced in large
75 quantities in special abdominal pockets of the larvae and contain a proteinaceous toxin,
76 thaumetopoein, which causes allergic reactions to the skin, respiratory tract, mouth and eyes
77 (Lamy et al. 1986).

78 Chemical insecticides, especially insect growth inhibitors such as diflubenzuron,
79 dimilin, decis and deltamethrin, have been used mainly to control *T. wilkinsoni* (Semiz et al.

2006). However, these agents have potentially undesirable side effects, particularly on predators and parasites of the pest, humans, plants and other non-target animals. Microbial control with entomopathogenic fungi (EPF) is an excellent alternative as they are not harmful to the environment and, unlike chemical pesticides, leave no significant residues on plants. In addition, EPFs have considerable host specificity with mild effects on non-target organisms (Vestergaard et al. 2003; Islam et al. 2021; Vivekanandhan et al. 2023).

Entomopathogenic fungi such as *Beauveria* spp., *Lecanicillium* spp., *Metarhizium* spp., and *Isaria* spp. are used worldwide to control numerous agricultural and forestry insect pests (Biryol et al. 2020; Eski et al. 2022; Swathy et al. 2024). Many of these fungi have been tested against *T. wilkinsoni* and have been shown to be useful for biocontrol. EPFs to be used to control an insect can be isolated using insect bait method as well as from insects showing disease symptoms. Abou-Jawdah et al. (2008) isolated *B. bassiana* from a dead larva of the cedar web-spinning sawfly, *Cephalcia tannourinensis* Chevin, collected from a cedar forest, and it was very effective against the early larval stage of *T. wilkinsoni*. Similarly, Topkara et al. (2022) tested the efficacy of five different *B. bassiana* isolated from infected *Palomena prasina* in hazelnut orchards in the Turkish Black Sea region against the fourth instar larvae of *T. wilkinsoni*, and *B. bassiana* TR-SM-1 killed faster than others. In addition, Yanar et al. (2023) tested isolates of *B. bassiana* and *M. brunneum* isolated from soil samples using the *Galleria*-bait method and showed that *M. brunneum* is more effective than *B. bassiana* on fourth larval stage. Despite all these studies, there is no study on the isolation of entomopathogenic fungi from pine forests and their virulence on the pine forest pest *T. wilkinsoni*.

The habitat and geographical origin of a fungus are important factors for its environmental competence. Many studies have shown that local entomopathogenic fungi isolated from the pest or its habitat are more effective against the pest than exotic strains. The selection of environmentally competent EPF strains is therefore the best option to ensure the

105 desired level of control and thus promote user acceptance and willingness to gradually replace
106 chemical insecticides with EPF as microbial control agents (Quesada-Moraga et al. 2024).

107 Therefore, the aim of the study was to (1) isolate the local entomopathogenic fungi from
108 pine forests using the insect bait method, (2) characterize them on the basis of their
109 morphological and molecular properties, and (3) determine their insecticidal potential against
110 the larvae of *T. wilkinsoni*.

111 **Materials and Methods**

112 **Soil sampling**

113 The soil samples were taken in November 2022 in the province of Bilecik in Turkey
114 (40.1587°N, 29.9758°E and 850 m above sea level). The surface of the soil was scraped and
115 approximately 500 g of soil was collected from a depth of 25 cm. To prevent possible
116 contamination between successive samples, the soil sampler was washed with 5% sodium
117 hypochlorite. The samples were placed in sterile glass jars (500 ml) and stored at 20°C for
118 subsequent isolation of entomopathogenic fungi (Mantzoukas et al. 2020).

119 **Isolation of entomopathogenic fungi**

120 Entomopathogenic fungi were isolated from soil samples using the insect bait method described
121 by Zimmermann (1986) with minor modifications (Wu et al. 2022). Ten larvae of *Tenebrio*
122 *molitor* (4th instar, \approx 5–7 mm body length) were placed in the jars containing the 250 g soil
123 samples and incubated at 25 ± 2 °C. Mortality was monitored daily and the dead larvae were
124 transferred to the humidity chamber at 25 ± 2 °C and 70% relative humidity after surface
125 sterilization with 1% sodium hypochlorite solution. Conidia from cadavers showing external
126 mycelial growth were transferred to Sabouraud dextrose agar (SDA) plates and incubated at 25
127 ± 2 °C until fungal growth was observed. The isolates were then subcultured several times on
128 SDA plates to ensure their purity (Noman et al. 2020), and the pure fungal spores were stored
129 in a 50% glycerol solution at -80 °C.

130 **Morphological characterization**

131 For the morphological identification of the fungal strains, the macroscopic characteristics of the
132 colonies were first observed. For each colony, characteristics such as the color on the upper and
133 lower surface of the plates, shape, texture and growth pattern on SDA were observed. The
134 microscopic features of the fungal isolates were characterized using slide culture techniques
135 (Bello et al. 2021). A block of 1 cm² SDA was placed in a sterile Petri dish with a glass slide.
136 A two-week-old fungal culture was inoculated onto the four sides of the agar block and placed
137 on a cover slide. The culture was incubated at 28 °C. When the fungal structure was visible, the
138 slide was removed with tweezers and placed on a drop of lactophenol cotton blue on another
139 slide. The size and arrangement of hyphae, conidiophores and conidia were then observed under
140 a light microscope (Gebremariam et al. 2021).

141 **Molecular characterization and phylogenetic analysis**

142 Genomic DNA (gDNA) was isolated from fresh mycelium of each fungus using the Quick-
143 DNA Fungal/Bacterial MiniPrep Kit (Zymo Research, Irvine, CA, USA) according to the
144 manufacturer's instructions. The internal transcribed spacer (ITS) regions of the DNA of the
145 fungal isolates were amplified with ITS5 (5'- GGAAGTAAAAAGTCGTAACAAGG-3') and
146 ITS4 (5'-TCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC-3') primers (Alfiky et al. 2022). The PCR mixture
147 contained 200 µM of each dNTP, 50 pmol of each primer, 2.5 units of *Taq* DNA polymerase,
148 10× reaction buffer, 50 ng of genomic DNA and the final volume of sterile distilled water to 50
149 µl. The amplification protocol consisted of an initial denaturation step of 5 min at 96°C, 35
150 cycles of denaturation (96°C for 30 s), annealing (56°C for 30 s) and extension (68°C for 30 s)
151 and a final extension step at 68°C for 5 min. PCR products were electrophoresed on a 1%
152 agarose gel and stained with ethidium bromide. Approximately 500 bp products were purified
153 using a Zymoclean Gel DNA Recovery Kit (Zymo Research, Irvine, CA, USA).

154 The purified PCR products were sent to Ficus Biotechnology (Ankara, Turkey) for
155 Sanger sequencing and the sequences obtained were analyzed using the NCBI Basic Local
156 Alignment Search Tool. The sequence data were also deposited in the NCBI database.
157 Phylogenetic and molecular evolutionary analyzes were performed using MEGA X software
158 (Kumar et al. 2018). The phylogenetic tree was constructed using the neighbor-joining
159 clustering method (Saitou and Nei 1987) and the maximum composite likelihood distance
160 model (Kimura 1980). The reliability of the dendrogram was tested by a bootstrap analysis with
161 1000 replicates.

162 **Preparation of spore suspension**

163 The spore suspensions used for the bioassay were prepared from 2-week-old cultures. Fungal
164 spores were harvested from the agar surface with sterile 0.1% Tween 80 and the spore
165 suspension was then filtered through four layers of sterile muslin into a 50 ml sterile Falcon
166 tube to remove mycelium and agar pieces. The concentration of the suspensions was determined
167 using a Neubauer hemocytometer and adjusted to 1×10^7 conidia/ml. Before the bioassay
168 experiment, conidial germination was tested on SDA agar medium (Camara et al. 2022).

169 **Screening experiment**

170 The nests of *T. wilkinsoni* were collected in the pine forests of the province of Bilecik. In
171 addition, the pest was verified as *T. wilkinsoni* by Prof. İpekdağ. The silk nest was carefully
172 opened with scissors and 30 larvae (4th instar) were transferred to a disinfected box with pine
173 needles. The fungal suspensions (10^7 conidia/ml) were then applied with a mini hand sprayer
174 and the boxes were incubated at $25 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$, $70 \pm 5\%$ relative humidity and a 16:8 h light:dark
175 photoperiod. The control group was sprayed with a 0.1% Tween80 solution. Each treatment
176 was replicated four times with 30 individuals per treatment, and the experiments were
177 conducted twice. Mortality was recorded 14 days after the applications. The dead larvae were
178 placed in a Petri dish with moist filter paper to stimulate fungal sporulation after surface

179 sterilization with 1% sodium hypochlorite solution, and the mycosis rate was determined
180 (Biryol et al. 2021).

181 **Concentration response experiment**

182 PPM1 isolate, which showed the highest insecticidal activity in the screening experiments, was
183 used in the concentration response experiments. Spore suspensions of the isolate were prepared
184 at concentrations of 10^7 , 10^6 , 10^5 , 10^4 and 10^3 conidia/ml and bioassays were performed as
185 indicated in the screening experiment.

186 **Horizontal transmission experiment**

187 The horizontal transmission ability of the PPM1 isolate was evaluated using larvae treated with
188 the fungus and control larvae (untreated) at four vector ratios of 0, 25, 50, 75 and 100%. Each
189 treatment was replicated three times. Fungus-treated larvae were air-dried at room temperature
190 after being immersed for 10 seconds in the conidial suspension prepared at a concentration of
191 10^7 conidia/ml (Balachander et al. 2013). Both treated and untreated larvae were placed in the
192 rearing cage with pine needles. After 14 days, mortality and mycosis were assessed as described
193 in the screening experiments.

194 **Statistical analysis**

195 Mortality and mycosis rates were adjusted using Abbott's formula (Abbott 1925) and data were
196 analyzed using one way ANOVA, after being subjected to studentized residual analysis to
197 confirm the assumption of normality with a Shapiro–Wilk test and for homogeneity of variances
198 with a Bartlett test. Means were separated using Tukey's HSD (honestly significant difference)
199 test at 0.05 probability. The mortality data from the concentration–response experiment was
200 subjected to probit regression analysis to estimate the median lethal concentration (LC_{50}) of the
201 PPM1 isolate. Analyses were conducted using the statistical package SPSS 25.0 (IBM,
202 Armonk, New York, USA).

203 **Results**

204 **Morphological characterization of entomopathogenic fungi**

205 Five fungal isolates (PPM1-PPM5) were obtained from forty soil samples using the *T. molitor*
206 bait method. PPM1, PPM 3, PPM 4 showed white to yellowish-white colonies with irregular
207 margins and powdery appearance, typical macroscopic features of the genus *Beauveria*.
208 Microscopic observation revealed that all three isolates had similar conidial morphology
209 producing hyaline, smooth and spherical to broadly ellipsoidal conidia. The other isolates
210 (PPM2 and PPM5) showed a white, cotton-wool surface and dark purple underside, typical
211 macroscopic features of the genus *Fusarium*. In microscopic observations of the isolates, the
212 spores were oval to ellipsoid/kidney-shaped, tapering oval and segmented into three cells, while
213 the chlamydospores were formed in chains.

214 **Molecular characterization of isolates**

215 For further characterization of the isolates, ITS1-5.8S-ITS2 region was amplified and
216 sequenced. The sequence data were deposited at the GenBank with accession numbers
217 OR150442-OR150446. Comparison of NCBI database revealed that PPM1, PPM3 and PPM4
218 showed high sequence similarity with *B. bassiana* isolates. *Fusarium* isolates PPM2 and PPM5
219 showed high sequence similarity with *F. oxysporum* isolates. Phylogenetic analysis also
220 revealed that PPM1, PPM3 and PPM4 clustered with *B. bassiana*, PPM2 and PPM5 clustered
221 with *F. oxysporum* isolates. (Fig. 1).

222 **Screening experiment**

223 Pathogenicity and virulence of the fungal isolates were tested on *T. wilkinsoni* larvae under
224 laboratory conditions and significantly higher larval mortality was observed compared to the
225 control (F=193.7; df=4; P<0.05) (Fig. 2). Although *B. bassiana* (PPM1 and PPM 3) isolates
226 achieved 100% mortality at a concentration of 10^7 conidia/ml 14 days after treatment, the other
227 *B. bassiana* isolate PPM2 caused 76% mortality, as did the *F. oxysporum* PPM4 isolate. The
228 lowest mortality (15%) was obtained with *F. oxysporum* PPM5 isolate. No mortality was

229 observed in control groups. Mycosis development on cadaver surface was over 95% for all
230 treatments.

231 **Concentration response experiment**

232 The experiment was carried out with different concentrations of *B. bassiana* (PPM1) that
233 showed the highest virulence in the screening experiment. The mortality rate increased in a
234 concentration dependent manner (Fig. 3). PPM1 caused 40% mortality at the lowest
235 concentration (10^3 conidia/ml) and 97% mortality at the highest concentration (10^7 conidia/ml).
236 Furthermore, median lethal concentration of the PPM1 isolate was estimated to be 5.7×10^3
237 conidia/ml (Table 1).

238 **Horizontal transmission experiment**

239 Horizontal transmission of conidia from treated to untreated larvae was evaluated for 14 days
240 and it was found that there was no conidial transmission between larvae. It was found that there
241 was no significant difference between larvae in terms of horizontal transmission ($P > 0.05$)
242 (Table 2). The mortality values of larvae contaminated at 0% (control), 25%, 50%, 75% and
243 100% with 10^7 conidia/ml suspension of *B. bassiana* (PPM1) were determined to be 0.6, 21.6,
244 49, 73.3, 97.6% after 14 days under laboratory conditions.

245 **Discussion**

246 This is the first study to demonstrate the virulence of entomopathogenic fungi isolated from
247 pine forest soils against *T. wilkinsoni*, an important defoliating pest of pine forests. The fungi
248 used in this study were recovered from forest soil samples using the insect-bait method. This
249 method, which recommends the use of *G. mellonella* larvae or other insects such as *T. molitor*
250 for the isolation of entomopathogenic fungi, is more common and a more sensitive method than
251 the traditional approach of using selective medium (Sharma et al. 2018). Therefore, the method
252 has been widely used to isolate indigenous species from soil samples around the world. Perumal
253 et al. (2023) isolated entomopathogenic fungus *M. majus* from forest sample soil using

254 *Galleria*-bait method in India. They also isolated *B. bassiana* from soil samples using *Tenebrio*-
255 bait method (Vivekanandhan et al. 2024). In this study, we isolated five indigenous fungal
256 strains using *Tenebrio*-bait method.

257 Of these fungi, three isolates belonged to *Beauveria* (PPM1, PPM3 and PPM4) and
258 other isolates belonged to *Fusarium* (PPM2 and PPM5), based on macroscopic and microscopic
259 features described by Humber et al. (2012). However, identification of entomopathogenic fungi
260 at the species level based on morphological properties alone is very difficult, which can lead to
261 misidentification. Therefore, sequencing of ITS regions of rDNA, about 600 bp, allowed
262 identification of fungal isolates at species level. The ITS region is often used for molecular
263 identification because it has hypervariable sequences that allow recognition at both the species
264 level and lower levels (Schoch et al. 2012). Comparison of the ITS sequence of *Beauveria* and
265 *Fusarium* isolates deposited in the NCBI database showed high sequence similarity with *B.*
266 *bassiana* and *F. oxysporum*, respectively. Phylogenetic analysis also confirmed the taxonomic
267 identification.

268 Some researchers have studied the pathogenicity of *M. brunneum*, *B. bassiana* and *B.*
269 *pseudobassiana* against *T. wilkinsoni*. However, there is no study on the pathogenicity of *F.*
270 *oxysporum*, a known plant pathogen, on *T. wilkinsoni*. Therefore, this is the first study on the
271 pathogenicity of *F. oxysporum* on *T. wilkinsoni*. Of the isolates identified as *F. oxysporum*,
272 PPM2 caused 76% mortality, while PPM5 caused only 15% mortality on fourth stage larvae of
273 *T. wilkinsoni*. Although *F. oxysporum* is widely known as a plant pathogen, it is often associated
274 with insects from the orders Coleoptera (Caesar et al. 2002) and Hemiptera (Anwar et al. 2017)
275 and Lepidoptera (Mantzoukas et al. 2022). *F. oxysporum* was previously isolated from irrigated
276 fields in Palestine by Ali-Shtayeh et al. (2003) using the insect bait method and was shown to
277 cause 30% mortality on *G. mellonella* larvae six days after application. In agreement with our

278 results, Ameen et al. (2012) isolated *F. oxysporum* strain from cultivated soil in Iraq and
279 observed a mortality of 76% on *G. mellonella*.

280 Several studies reported that entomopathogenic fungi provided optimistic results in the
281 biocontrol of *T. wilkinsoni*. Topkara et al. (2022) tested five *B. bassiana* strains isolated from
282 infected *Palomena prasina* in Samsun, Turkey, on *T. wilkinsoni* larvae distributed in the same
283 region and reported that the isolates caused a mortality of more than 90% at a concentration of
284 10^7 conidia/ml. On the other hand, Yanar et al. (2023) reported that the isolate of *B. bassiana*
285 GOPT-331 at a concentration of 10^7 conidia/ml caused a mortality of 57.7% against the 4th
286 larval stage of the pest. In our study, isolates of *B. bassiana* PPM1 and PPM3 caused complete
287 mortality at a concentration of 10^7 conidia/ml. Studies have shown that the differences in fungal
288 virulence depend on the speed of germination and hyphal growth (Talaie-Hassanloui et al.
289 2007). In addition, it is known that the secondary metabolites of *B. bassiana* play an important
290 role in infection. Perumal et al. (2024) showed that 9,10-octadecadienoic acid produced by *B.*
291 *bassiana* facilitated infection by significantly decreasing the levels of the enzymes
292 acetylcholinesterase, α -carboxylesterase and β -carboxylesterase, which play an important role
293 in combating oxidative stress in *T. absoluta* larvae.

294 Studies on the concentration-response relationship of entomopathogenic fungi on *T.*
295 *wilkinsoni* are limited. Yanar et al. (2023) applied an indigenous isolate of *B. bassiana* GOPT-
296 331 (isolated from agricultural soils) at six different conidial concentrations to fourth stage
297 larvae of *T. wilkinsoni* and observed remarkable insecticidal activity that increased with
298 application concentration. The highest mortality (93%) was observed at a concentration of 10^8
299 conidia/ml. They also determined the LC_{50} value of *B. bassiana* GOPT-331 to be 3.1×10^6
300 conidia/ml. In our study, *B. bassiana* PPM1 isolated from pine forest soils, which are the habitat
301 of the pest, caused 40% mortality at a concentration of 10^3 conidia/ml and 97% mortality at the
302 highest concentration, and the LC_{50} value was estimated to be 5.4×10^3 conidia/ml for the fourth

303 larval stage. The difference in LC_{50} value could be due to the isolation habitat of the fungus.
304 Quesada Moraga et al. (2024) pointed out that fungi adapt to their natural habitat through
305 physiological and ecological evolution, so their use in climatic and environmental conditions
306 to which they are not adapted may affect their environmental competence. Therefore,
307 geographical origin and isolation habitat are key factors for the development of an effective
308 environmentally competent EPF.

309 Horizontal transmission by direct contact between fungus infected and uninfected
310 insects is a mechanism of natural spread of conidia that controls insect populations (Hajek et
311 al. 2018). Fungal transmission can occur through mating or physical contact. This has already
312 been demonstrated in insect species such as the German cockroach, *Blatella germanica*
313 (Quesada-Moraga et al. 2004), the European spruce bark beetle, *Ips typographus* (Kreutz et al.
314 2004), the beet webworm, *Spoladea recurvalis* (Opisa et al. 2019), the emerald ash borer,
315 *Agilus planipennis* (Srei et al. 2020), the lesser spruce sawfly, *Pristiphora abietina* (Biryol et
316 al. 2021). In the study by Sönmez et al. (2017), it was shown that *M. brunneum* V275 and *B.*
317 *bassiana* KTU-24 were successfully transmitted horizontally between the larvae of another pine
318 processionary moth, *T. pityocampa*. Unfortunately, our isolate *B. bassiana* PPM1 could not be
319 transmitted horizontally to the population of *T. wilkinsoni* within a certain time. This is thought
320 to be due to insufficient physical contact between the larvae. As some studies have indicated
321 the importance of mating for horizontal transmission (Toledo et al. 2007, Janmaat et al. 2022).

322 **Conclusions**

323 In conclusion, the isolation and characterization of entomopathogenic fungi from pine forest
324 soils was carried out using *Tenebrio*-bait method. Among the isolates, *B. bassiana* PPM1 was
325 found to have high virulence on *T. wilkinsoni* and could be used for its biological control. Since
326 abiotic factors such as temperature, UV radiation and humidity influence the fungal infection

327 process under field conditions, further studies under field conditions should be carried out to
328 verify our results.

329 **Acknowledgment**

330 We would like to thank Prof. Kahraman İpekdağ for verifying the insect species

331 **Competing interests**

332 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

333 **Data availability**

334 All relevant data is contained within the article.

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547 **Table 1.** Lethal concentrations (LC₅₀ and LC₉₅) of *Beauveria bassiana* PPM1 isolate against
 548 fourth stage larvae of *T. wilkinsoni*.

Isolate	LC ₅₀ (conidia/ml) (CL, %95)	Slope ± SE	LC ₉₅ (conidia/ml) (CL, %95)	df	X ²
PPM1	5.7×10 ³ (2.4 ×10 ³ – 1.1×10 ⁴)	0.625± 0.049	2×10 ⁷ (6.1×10 ⁶ – 1.1×10 ⁸)	3	4.7

549 *CL*: confidence limit, *SE*: standard error, *df*: degree of freedom, *X*²: chi-square

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568 **Table 2.** Horizontal transmission of fungal conidia of *B. bassiana* PPM1 from treated fourth-
 569 stage larvae of *T. wilkinsoni* to untreated larvae at five infection rates 4 days after treatment.

Vector ratio (%)	Mortality (%) \pm SD
0	0.66 \pm 0.57
25	21.6 \pm 3.05
50	49.0 \pm 2.64
75	73.3 \pm 4.93
100	97.6 \pm 2.51

570 The total number of larvae was 60; 0% vector ratio comprised untreated control insects, 25%
 571 vector ratio comprised 20 fungus-treated and 40 untreated larvae, 50% vector ratio comprised
 572 30 fungus-treated and 30 untreated larvae, 75% vector ratio comprised 40 fungus-treated and
 573 20 untreated larvae, and 100% vector ratio comprised 60 fungus-treated larvae. Mortality
 574 indicates the mean of four replicates, SD indicates the standard deviation.

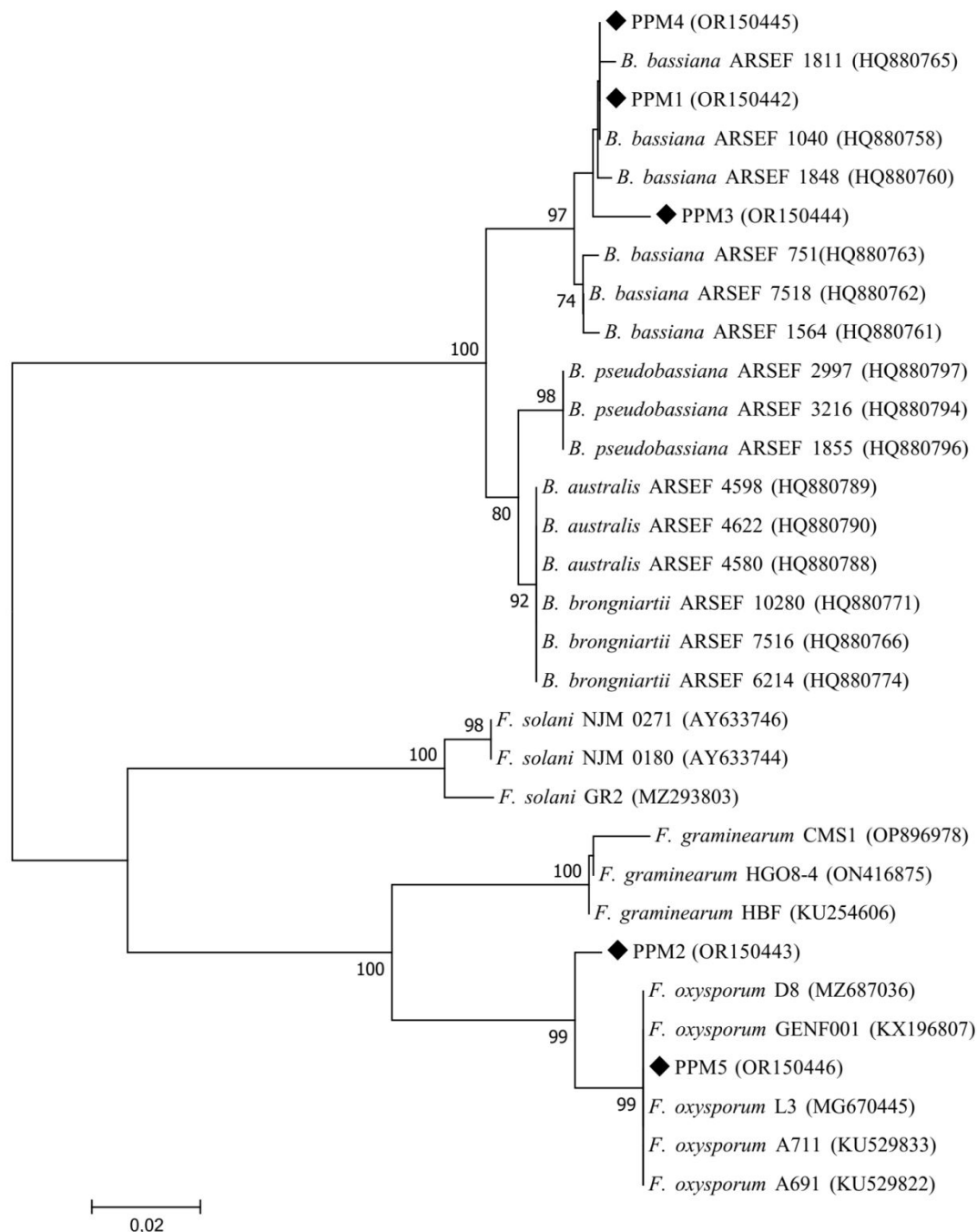
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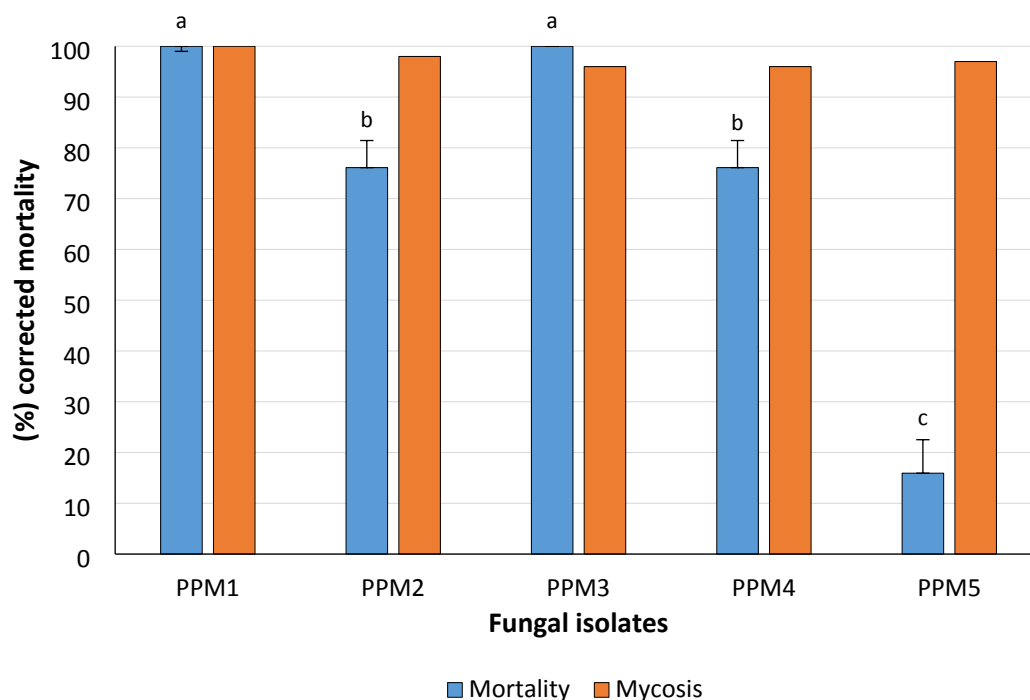
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581 **Fig. 1.** Phylogenetic tree based on the sequence of the ITS1-5.8 S-ITS2 rDNA gene region of
 582 *Beauveria* and *Fusarium* isolates. The tree was constructed using the neighbour-joining method
 583 based on genetic distances calculated using the maximum composite likelihood method. The
 584 reliability of the tree was assessed by bootstrap analysis with 1000 replicates. Only bootstrap
 585 values above 70% are shown.



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587 **Fig. 2.** Screening experiment of local entomopathogenic isolates obtained from pine forest soils
588 at a concentration of 10^7 conidia/ml. Mortality represents the mean of mortality (%) obtained
589 from four dependent and two independent bioassays. The mortality data were corrected
590 according to the Abbott formula. Mean values labelled with different letters are significantly
591 different (Tukey's HSD, $p < 0.05$). The error bars show the standard deviation. Mycosis
592 indicates the percentage of mycosis in dead larvae.

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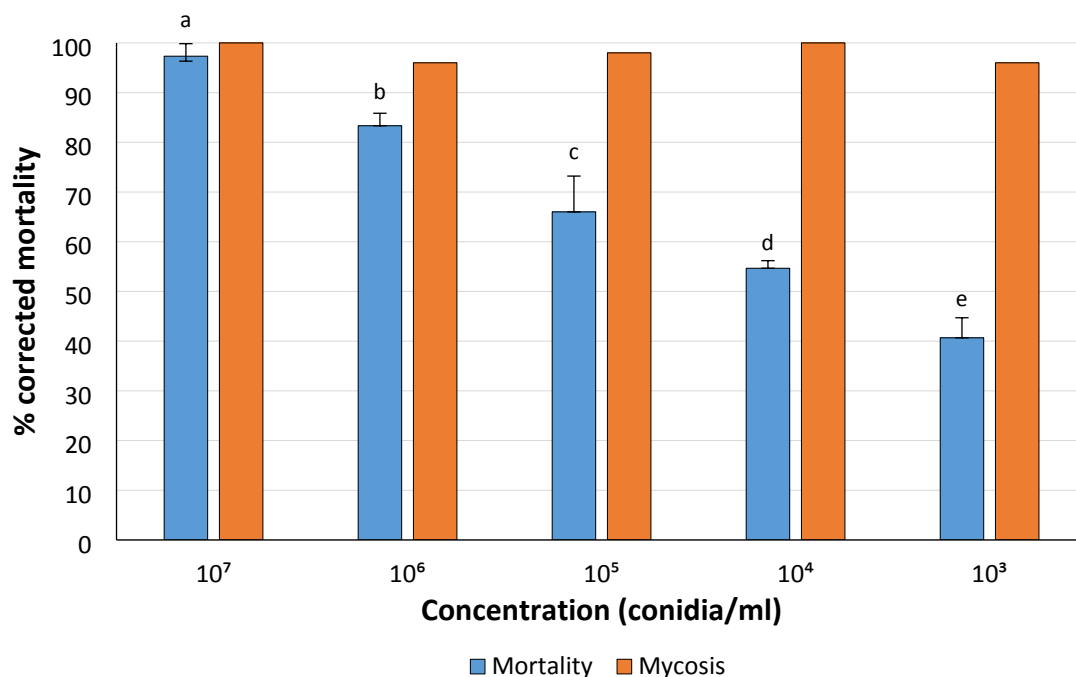
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601 **Fig. 3.** Concentration-response experiment of *B. bassiana* PPM1 isolate obtained from pine
 602 forest soils. Mortality represents the mean of mortality (%) obtained from four dependent and
 603 two independent bioassays. The mortality data were corrected according to the Abbott formula.
 604 Mean values labelled with different letters are significantly different (Tukey's HSD, $p < 0.05$).
 605 The error bars show the standard deviation. Mycosis indicates the percentage of mycosis in
 606 dead larvae.

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