APPROACHES TO THE CONTROL OF <u>DITYLENCHUS</u>

<u>DIPSACI</u> (KHUN) FILIPJEV ON ALFALFA

(<u>MEDICAGO</u> <u>SATIVA</u> L.)

By

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Graham et al. (26) described the stem nematode.
Ditylenchus dipsaci (Kuhn) Filipjev, as the most
economically important nematode pest of alfalfa. Each year,
important losses are registered due to direct or indirect
killing of alfalfa plants by this nematode (7,28).
Ditylenchus dipsaci is also an important pest on many other
crops and ornamentals. A wide spectrum of geographical
adaptations of the alfalfa stem nematode races combined with
differences in environment makes it difficult to devise
universally transposable control measures.

Various control measures have been used alone or in
combination against _D_. _dipsaci_. Some examples are crop
rotation to non-host crops like corn or sorghum for 2 to 3
years, sanitary procedures such as cleaning farm equipment
to avoid the spread of nematodes from infested areas, and
chemical control, with the use of systemic nematicides
applied as a foliar spray, non-incorporated surface granules
or liquid injection. Chemical control has reduced _D_.
dipsaci populations under field conditions with a resultant
increase in yield at rates generally much higher than
labeled rates (28,30,47,53). Some workers suggest that the

primary effect carbofuran has on alfalfa yield is due to a positive physiological effect on the plant component of the alfalfa-rhizobium system rather than direct nematicidal efficacy (5). Use of resistant varieties is generally considered the most efficient method of controlling the stem nematode on alfalfa. Widespread use of existent resistant varieties is severely limited by restricted geographical adaptation of the varieties and unfavorable differential responses of stem nematode geographical races to the resistant germplasm (2,6). Field screening of alfalfa germplasm under local environmental conditions and against local stem nematode races appears to be a solution. Present technology also makes field screening difficult, primarily because of erratic inoculum distribution . Few studies have been devoted to the evaluation of some natural enemies of D. dipsaci as biological control agents. One of those potential biocontrol agents is a Chytridiomycetous fungus, Catenaria anguillulae Sorokin 1876 (54). Attacks of C. anguillulae, a zoosporic endoparasite, are frequently observed on D. dipsaci and other groups of nematodes extracted from soils or plant materials (3,6,8,20,50). Many authors consider that C. anguillulae has little potential as a biological control agent, probably due to its soil antagonists (8,20,35,50). Its biocontrol potential in a less competitive foliar environment has not been investigated.

The objectives of this study were, (1) to evaluate the efficacy of at plant application of carbofuran at labeled insecticidal rates for control of D. dipsaci; (2) to develop techniques which would facilitate local field evaluation of resistant alfalfa germplasm, and (3) to study the efficacy of C. anguillulae as a biological control agent in soil and foliar environments.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Historical

Ditylencus dipsaci (Kuhn 1857) Filipjev 1936, the stem
nematode, was first described as Anguillulae dipsaci by Kuhn
(40). Although the stem nematode was first reported in the
United States in 1908 (44), its first attack on alfalfa
Medicago sativa L. was not recorded before 1936 (22).
Ditylenchus dipsaci is now widespread on alfalfa throughout
the United States where it causes three to five percent loss
of the alfalfa yearly crop (25). In Oklahoma, alfalfa is
produced on approximately 202,347 hectares (2); nematicide
trials have shown that in a given year, D. dipsaci can
reduce alfalfa yield by more than 50%, that is by at least
3.7 metric tons/ha (47).

Symptoms

The first most common symptom observed on infected
seedlings is the swelling of the cotyledonary node and a
shortened appearance, especially under humid conditions
(46). Under field conditions, symptoms of stem nematodes on
alfalfa are patches of stunted plants with distorted leaves,
swollen and discolored crown buds. These symptoms are most

obvious during regrowth in early spring on heavily infested alfalfa plants (46).

Life Cycle of the Nematode

Plant parasitic species of Ditylenchus are generally obligate parasites of higher plants which attack both roots and above ground plant parts of numerous plant species. They are of moderate length (.8-1.4 mm) and males and females are morphologically very similar (36). The first molt occurs within the egg (36). Two postovic molts give rise to J-4 or preadult. The preadult is the primary persistent infective stage. In foliar infection the preadult enters above ground plant parts via stomata or penetrates directly into the base of stems and leaf axil. They then molt and mate (36,48,57). Under experimental conditions, the life cycle varies from 9 days (59) to 73 days (35). Under field conditions, however, the development time may vary considerably due to the influence of race-host interactions and environmental conditions (46). Thus, when we take into account the ability of the nematode to undergo anabiosis, we might say that the life cycle of D. dipsaci may range from 9 days (59) to more than 23 years (21).

Control Measures

Various control measures are used alone or in combination against D. dipsaci (2, 5, 19, 25, 47, 48, 53).

- Crop rotation to non-host crops like sorghum or corn for
2 to 3 years can reduce the nematode populations to a point
where alfalfa can be economically grown.

- Sanitary procedures such as cleaning farm equipment will
prevent or decrease the spread of nematodes from infested
areas; the ability of the nematodes to undergo anabiosis
allows them to dry out in plant tissue on equipment. In
this dormant state, they can survive until favorable
moisture permits their return to activity.

- Chemical control. Soil fumigation started in the mid
1800's for the control of insects. It was soon discovered
that the same chemicals used as insecticides, also had
nematicidal effects. The first obstacle against the
widespread application of nematicides was their high cost,
even on high-priced crops (51,57). Cheaper nematicides of
the carbamate and phosphoric groups proved not to be the
solution because of their high mammalian toxicity. High
toxicity of contact nematicides, poor circulation of
fumigant nematicides in heavy soils together with the low
value of alfalfa forage have severely limited the clearance
of many nematicides for use on that crop (57). Only 2
nematicides, carbofuran (2,3-dihydro-2, 2-dimethyl-7-
benzofuranyl methylcarbamate) and telone C-17 (74% 1,3-
dichloropropane, 16.5% chloropicrin) are labeled for use on
alfalfa. Carbofuran, however, is labeled at rates below
those that have been effective for nematode control

(7,8,47). The efficacy of the labeled insecticidal rates against D. dipsaci needs to be determined.

- Resistant Varieties. The use of resistant varieties is generally considered the most efficient method of controlling D. dipsaci. Large numbers of resistant cultivars have been developed (46), but the cultivars are not useful across all alfalfa growing areas. Great variations have been encountered in D. dipsaci races from one region to another. Geographical populations often respond differently to a given resistant variety; the variety in turn has its own cultural requirements, especially dormancy, which will make it poorly adapted to some areas (9,48). With adaptation so important, it becomes easy to understand why many cultivars selected for resistance under growth chamber and greenhouse testing, perform poorly under more arduous field conditions. Another obstacle encountered by plant breeders and nematologists is the difficulty of obtaining qualitative determination of resistance through symptomatology exhibited by alfalfa plants in their early stages of development (13). McBurney (42) found a total of 20% of the alfalfa plants sampled either showed symptoms but no nematodes in their tissue, or had nematodes without symptoms. Histochemical differences in cell walls of nematode-infected and noninfected alfalfa plants could not be observed by Krusberg (38,39). Many studies indicated that the same types of tissue damages were observed on both resistant and susceptible alfalfa. It was

noted however, that the rate and degree of damage were lower with the resistant plants. Reed found that resistant cultivar infested with <u>Ditylenchus</u> formed smaller cavities, fewer cells with dense cytoplasm and very heavy lignification surrounded the cavities (46).

Reproducible field screening techniques would partially solve some of these problems. Not only is seedling symptomatology difficult to interpret, but field evaluation on the basis of nematode population (or number of nematodes per unit of plant tissue) is difficult to reproduce due to the great variation in field soil populations (variable initial inoculum). It seems likely that development of artificial inoculation techniques for field conditions would permit observations of cultural adaptation of candidate cultivars while producing duplicatable nematode population data. This would be achieved by superimposing greater inoculum uniformity which will in turn reduce the number of plants escaping infection and confusing the results of screening trials. The development of technology for field germplasm evaluation includes a set of procedures, the first of which is the extraction of the inoculum.

Inoculum Extraction

Various extraction procedures are used to recover nematodes from soil or plant materials, but they can be all compared on the basis of nematode emergence from the substrate and quantitative extraction of inoculum. The rate

of nematodes extraction is important when a high inoculum
level is needed in a short period of time for field
inoculation. Faster emergence of nematodes from forage
produces more vigorous, infective inoculum and more plant
material can be processed to still yield more inoculum per
unit time for use on the field. The quantitative extraction
helps to determine as accurately as possible the nematode
population within the substrate. The determination of such
population is useful for evaluating resistance of germplasm
based on nematodes per gram of plant tissue. This is an
indication of the inoculum reproductive potential in the
germplasm.

The efficacy of nematode extraction from plant material
is influenced by the nematode and the nature of the plant
tissue. Most of the methods used today to extract nematodes
from plant tissue are based essentially on the principles of
wetting, aeration, sieving and flotation (4,15,51,52,56).
Those methods have been improved by many authors by one or
more of the following elements: aeration, temperature,
maceration, sugar-flotation and centrifugation
(12,14,18,23,32).

Inoculum Storage and Viability

Wide scale field inoculations attempted at Oklahoma
State University have not been successful due to significant
and rapid infection of the inoculum by parasitic fungi
following extraction and prior to their application as field

inoculum.   Platzer and Brown were unsuccessful in their
attempt to protect suspension of Romanomermis against C.
anguillulae infection by using relatively high
concentrations of fungicides (45).   The efficacy of some
other fungicides to protect stored D. dipsaci against this
fungus requires further investigation.   The condition of any
inoculum that would be protected by the fungicide suspension
needs to be studied.   The infectivity of the nematodes
toward alfalfa plants must not be altered or impaired by
eventual detrimental effects of the fungicides on the
inoculum.   Infectivity tests of the inoculum surviving in
different fungicide concentrations and time periods could be
compared to determine if the nematodes can be stored in
fungicide suspensions for any period of time and still be
used as inoculum.

Biological control

Although some natural agents have the potential of
being good biocontrol agents, few studies have been
conducted to assess or evaluate the efficacy of those
natural agents in controlling D. dipsaci.   Our routine
observations of D. dipsaci and other genera of nematodes
extracted from soil, roots, or aerial plant parts, have
shown that significant number of nematodes were infected by
various types of nematode destroying fungi, a few days after
storage on the laboratory bench.   Zoosporic fungi were the

most commonly observed, but fungi with trapping or
constricting rings were also present.

Russell (48) reported D. dipsaci being destroyed by
Arthrobotrys anconia Drech., a constricting ring nematode-
trapping fungus, and an apparently undescribed Dactyella sp.
that produces adhesive knobs and stalked non-constricting
rings. The same author (48), along with other workers
(3,8,16,20,24,50) reported C. anguillulae, a zoosporic
fungus, attacking D. dipsaci and/or many other plant
parasitic nematodes. Catenaria anguillulae which belongs to
the Chytridiomycetes, is the most commonly reported
endoparasitic fungus attacking nematodes. Infection is most
often observed, when nematodes are kept for a time in water
in the laboratory (3,8). Sorokine (54) is credited with the
name C. anguillulae, but the fungus is probably the one
described in 1874 by Villot as a fresh water alga (58).
Many authors (6,16,37) now believe that the name C.
anguillulae encompasses 3 or 4 species due to the great
variation in size, shape, and structure of the zoospores and
sporangia that are reported. Catenaria anguillulae has
limited hyphal growth; Couch (16) and Butler et al. (10)
described the thallus as branched or unbranched nonseptate
or sparingly septate hypha with rhizoids. Both zoospores
and zoosporangia vary greatly in size according to the
medium from 3.8 - 5.4 um and 3 - 36 x 12 - 71 um (16).
Zoospores exhibit chemotaxic ability; they are preferen-
tially attracted to nematode body orifices where there is

the greatest concentration of exudates (8,20). When the
uniflagellate zoospore reaches the nematode it usually
encysts near natural openings (anus, vulva, buccal cavity)
(3,8,20,50). A germ tube forms from the encysted spore and
penetrates through the orifices or directly through the
cuticle. An infection thallus develops lengthwise inside
the nematode and produces septa-divided swellings that
become sporangia at maturity (3). Life cycle duration has
been found to be between 25 and 58 hours on nematodes (20)
and 48 hours on agar medium (50). Catenaria is omnivorous
in habit; it has been found to parasitize rotifers,
tardigrades many free living and plant parasitic nematodes
in addition to a wide variety of dead organic matter
(8,16,20,50). Catenaria anguillulae would probably be
considered a facultative parasite. Esser et. al. (20) have
found that differences in infectivity exist between isolates
of presumably the same fungus. Sayre and Keely (50)
attempted to use soil application of a single isolate of C.
anguillulae as biological control agent of D. dipsaci on
onion. They did obtain a reduction in the incidence of
onion bloat with the application of massive numbers of
zoospores to the soil. They concluded, however, that their
isolate of the fungus "was not a very good biological
control agent."

There are many factors that may have contributed to
their dissatisfaction with the efficacy of the fungus as a
biological control agent. Several authors (6,20,37,50) have

found that C. anguillulae is favored by high pH (6.7-9.0) and low salt concentrations. Ho and Hickman (29) found that the infective zoospores of a related fungus were reduced in number due to their physical contact with glass beads. Presumably sand grains would have a comparative effect. Further, in a soil environment, the zoospores are exposed to fungistatic, antibiotic and fungilytic processes as noted by Sayre and Keely (50). The possibility that they may have been working with weakly infective isolate in a soil environment may also have adversely affected their findings. Finally they, like other workers (6,8,16,20,50) used zoospores which are apparently not polyplanetic and therefore are not persistent (50). Because of this, Sayre and Keely (50) suggested that knowledge of the factors governing the release of zoospores and efficacy of resting sporangia as inoculum were requisite for use of the organism as a biological control agent.

Many of the above conditions which mitigate against the use of C. anguillulae as a biological control agent in the soil are more favorable in a foliar environment. It would appear that application of the life cycle stage that survives desiccation to the foliage of a plant might result in the release of zoospores upon the availability of free moisture. This would coincide with the activity of D. dipsaci on alfalfa shoots. Thus the nematodes and chemotactic zoospores would be confined in an essentially two dimensional environment on the plant surface.

CHAPTER III

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Chemical Control

A chemical control trial was installed April 23, 1986
on the Plant Pathology farm, Stillwater, Oklahoma, to
determine the efficacy of carbofuran (Furadan 4F, 2-3-
dihydro-2,2 dimethyl-7-benzofuranyul methylcarbamate Lot No.
m100077) using ultra low volume (ULV) in furrow, at plant
application methods for controlling D. dipsaci on alfalfa.
The field has a history of D. dipsaci infestation since its
artificial inoculation in 1980. The previous seedling
alfalfa stand had been decimated the spring of 1985 by the
combined effect of D. dipsaci infestation and herbicide
phytotoxicity. The field had been summer and winter
fallowed prior to planting.

A Ford 1600 tractor equipped with a toolbar mounted
Planet Jr. planters set at 30 cm centers was used for
planting. Six rows of "Buffalo" alfalfa seeds were planted
per plot at a rate of 14.5 Kg/ha. Carbofuran was applied in
a continuous stream in the furrow behind the seed drop using
an ULV microtubule applicator developed at OSU (49).
Treatments consisted of applications of carbofuran at: 0.28,
0.56, 0.86, and 1.12 Kg a.i./ha applied in 46 l/ha of water;

water alone was used as the control. Treatments were used as the main plot in a randomized complete block design with 6 replications. Plot size was 9.1 x 2.4 m.

Stand count was assessed on 2 randomly predetermined 30 cm sections of both rows 2 and 5 of each plot for a total length of 60 cm for each row. Survival counts of alfalfa seedlings was also studied. Fifty plants 2.4 cm apart or more were selected on row 3 to monitor long term stand survival. Intervening plants were removed and processed to determine nematode population levels 3 weeks after planting.

Data for stand persistance was taken twice, 22 and 43 days after planting from rows 2 and 5. Counts for determination of survival were started 28 days after planting; they were conducted weekly for a total of 6 weeks from row 3. Forage yield for treatments was determined by harvesting with a sickle bar mower and weighing the total forage for each 21.84 m^2 plot. Forage was farvested on July 10, August 4,1986, and May 5, 1987. One forage aliquant sample was taken and 50 g were soaked in aerated water for 24 hours. Emerged nematodes were collected on a 400 mesh soil screen and their populations determined.

Automated Experimental Extraction Procedures

for Ditylenchus dipsaci

The apparatuses for the first three extraction systems have a majority of components in common. Described in the direction of water flow (from top to bottom) each apparatus

has three parts: a) the extraction funnel, b) the trap, and c) the reservoir (FIGURE 1). The extraction funnels, 8 liter conical galvanized fuel funnels (FIGURE 1a), differed between systems only in their water intake and discharge. The funnels were suspended 10cm above the trap.

All three traps consisted of a 20cm diameter brass soil screen rim without a screen, nested in an intact 325 mesh (.043 mm opening) soil screen (FIGURE 2). This 325 mesh trap screen was modified by gluing a 5 cm diameter plastic disk (FIGURE 2a) to the screen below the funnel discharge and installing a 11 cm long, 0.5 cm OD vinyl tube air vent (FIGURE 2c) through the screen mesh (FIGURE 2b). The plastic disk was to disperse the funnel discharge flow preventing the nematodes from being forced through the screen. The vent tube prevented air from being trapped under the wet screen during operation. The trap screen was seated in a 5 liter plastic bucket (FIGURE 1b). The seams between each component were sealed with a 5 cm wide rubber band cut from an automobile inner tube. A plastic basket (FIGURE 3a) was fabricated of polypropylene mesh (0.5 cm openings) and a saran (chic lumite Corp) mesh disk (0.7 cm openings, 20 cm dia.) was glued to its bottom (FIGURE 3b). Holes were cut into the side and bottom of the basket to allow insertion of the trap bucket overflow tube (FIGURE 3c). The basket was then inverted in the trap bucket so that the saran mesh was parallel with and 1 cm below the bottom of the soil screen and the mouth of the overflow tube

Figure 1.   Components of three automated bulk nematode
            extraction systems.

    A.   Galvanized fuel funnel
    B.   Trap bucket (TB)
    C.   Reservior bucket
    D.   Submersible centrifugal pump
    E.   Kitchen strainer
    F.   Top mist system (TMS)
    G.   Vinyl tube for gravity flow
    H.   Top Flooding System (Water intake)
    I.   PVC pipe syphon
    J.   Bottom flooding system
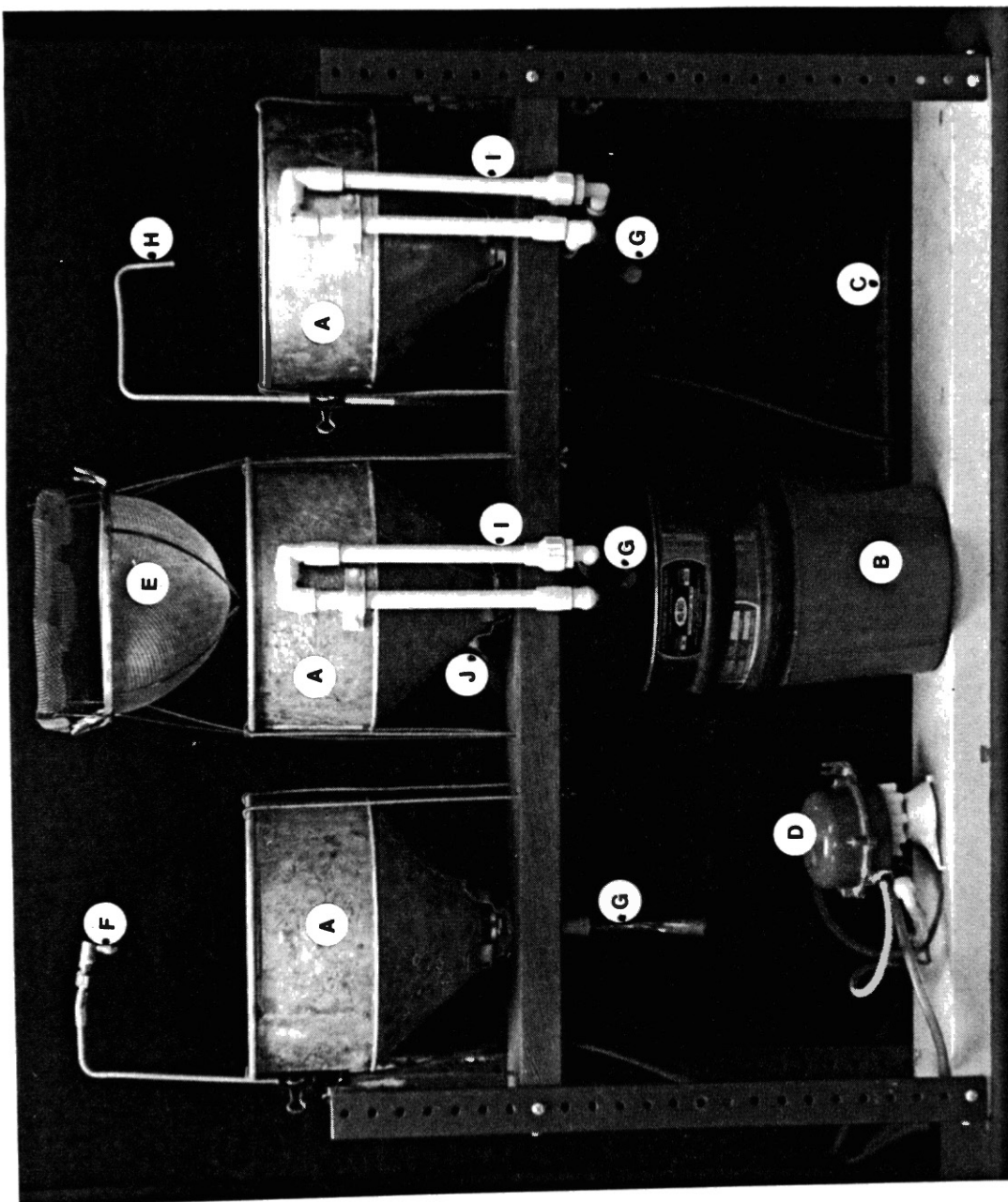
Figure 2. Modified trap screen

    A. Plastic disk for dispersing discharge flow
    B. Air vent tube
    C. 325 mesh (.043 mm opening) soil screen
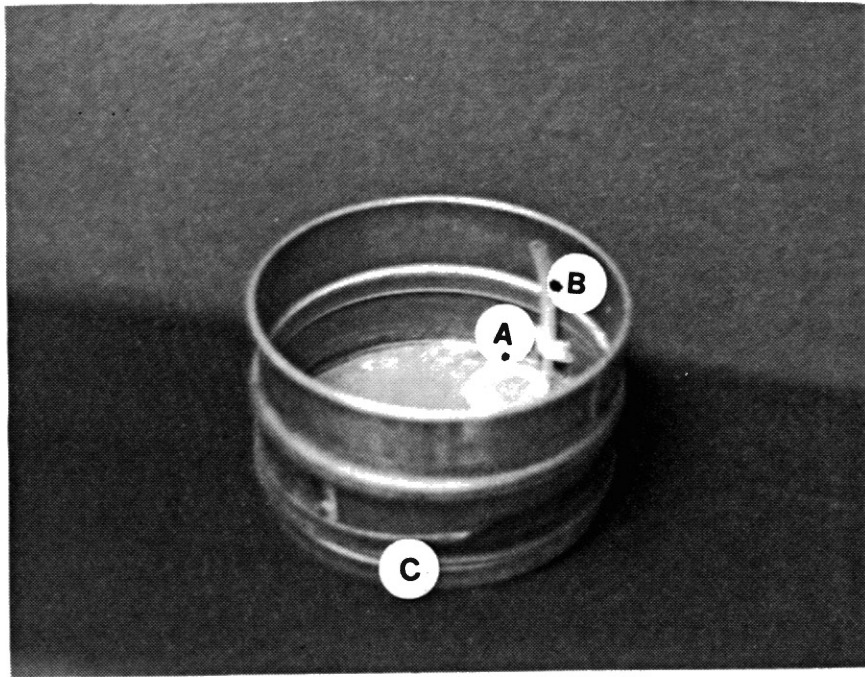
Figure 3. Cutaway view of the trap bucket (TB)

    A. Polypropylene support basket
    B. Turbulence deflector saran disk
    C. "Gooseneck" overflow and water level control
    D. Plastic bucket
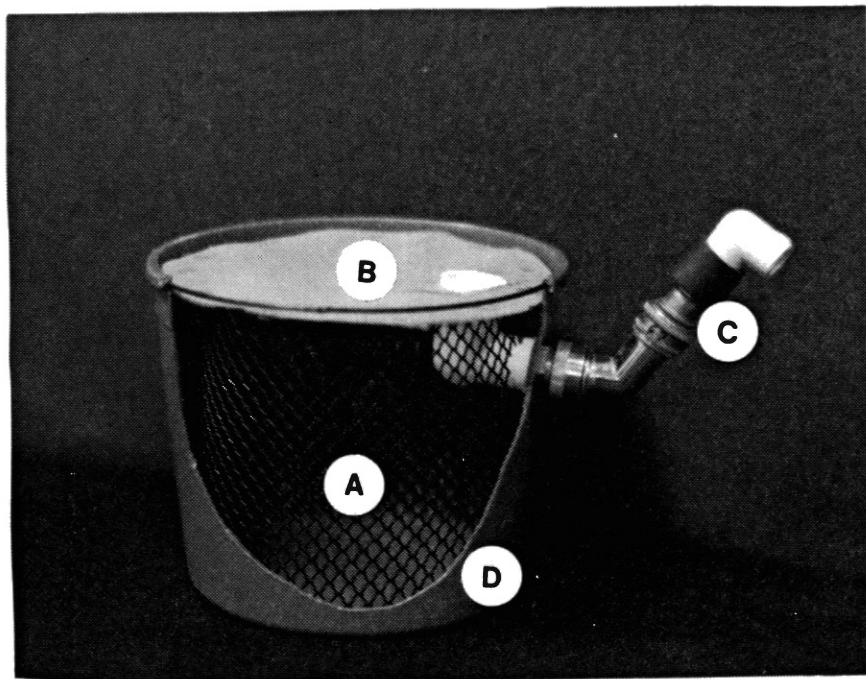
was even with the saran mesh surface. This configuration allowed water discharged from the funnel to pass rapidly through the 325 mesh screen, trapping the nematodes on the screen. The saran disk functioned as a barrier reducing turbulence in the bottom of the trap bucket which would resuspend previously collected nematodes and causing them to be lost through the overflow. Therefore the water passed through the 325 mesh screen, flowed rapidly between it and the saran mesh and out the overflow tube during funnel discharge cycles. Nematodes on the 325 mesh screen crawled through the screen and settled into the trap bucket during the interval between discharge cycles.

The roughly U-shaped overflow tube was constructed of PVC (polyvinyl chloride) pipe fittings and metal garden hose connections. Rotation of a "gooseneck" (FIGURE 3c) on the discharge end of the overflow tube allowed the water level in the trap to be maintained approximately 1 mm above the soil screen surface.

The overflow tube emptied into a 15 liter reservoir bucket (FIGURE 1c). A 110V submersible centrifugal pump (Teel 1P808A) (FIGURE 1d) in each reservoir bucket was used to recycle the water through the system at desired time intervals. Pump cycles were controlled with electric timers.

One hundred twenty-five grams of the alfalfa forage to be extracted was contained in a 1 mm mesh 21 cm diameter kitchen strainer from which the handle had been removed

(FIGURE 1e). The strainer containing the forage was suspended in the funnels during extraction. One hundred twenty-five grams of forage was processed under all the extraction procedures.

Top Mist System (TMS)

Water was pumped from the reservoir, through a 6 mm ID vinyl tube, to a 0.3 mm ID aluminum pipe with a mist nozzle attached (FIGURE 1f). The mist nozzle was suspended 16 cm above the forage strainer basket and the spray was directed to wet the total surface of the forage. Nozzle delivery was 450 ml/min and the spray cycle was controlled at 2 min/15 min. Thus 900 ml of water was cycled through the forage every 15 minutes. Funnel drainage was by direct gravity flow through a 1.25 cm vinyl tube which directed the flow onto the plastic flow dispersion disk on the trap screen (FIGURE 1g).

Top Flooding System (TFS)

Water delivery was essentially identical to TMS except that the water was pumped onto the forage directly from the aluminum tube with no mist nozzle attached (FIGURE 1h). The water was purged from the funnel by a PVC pipe siphon which was activated immediately upon total submersion of the forage (FIGURE 1i). The funnel fill and purge cycle was timed to occur once per hour and last 4.5 minutes. Water delivery rate was controlled with an inline ball cock valve

at the minimum flow required to prime the purge siphon upon filling of the funnel. Discharge water was directed from the siphon onto the plastic flow dispersion disk through a 1.25 cm vinyl tube (FIGURE 1g).

Bottom Flooding System (BFS)

This system is identical to TFS except that the water intake is located at the bottom of the conical portion of the funnel (FIGURE 1j). The anti-backflow valve was a flap of rubber sheet glued above the orifice and extended to cover it.

Manual Extraction Methods

Intermittent Soaking System (ISS)

A 15 liter plastic bucket (FIGURE 4a) was filled with 10 liters of water. The alfalfa forage to be extracted was contained in a kitchen strainer as described above, with the difference that this strainer had its handle (FIGURE 4b). The forage was soaked for 30 minutes once every 4 hour period and the strainer pulled out of the water, suspended on the rim of the basket for the forage to drain and aerate for 3 1/2 hours. The forage was maintained in the strainer by a 5 mm mesh screen wrapped over the rim of the strainer (FIGURE 4c).

Figure 4. Extraction apparatus used for the manual
           extraction systems.

    A. Plastic bucket
    B. Kitchen strainer
    C. Mesh screen
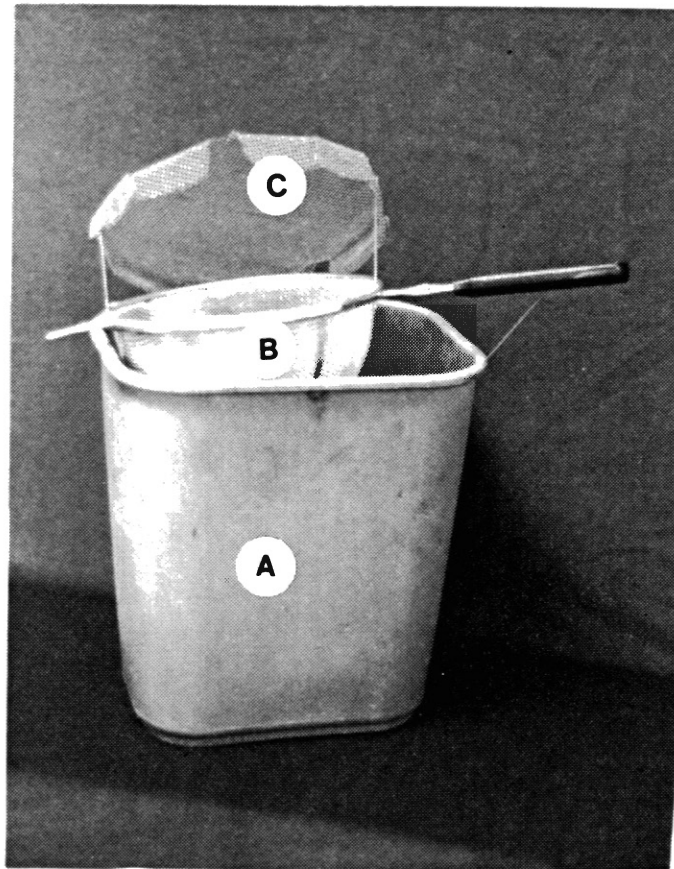
Continuously Aerated Soaking
System 1 (CASS-1)

A plastic bucket identical to the one described under ISS was used. The alfalfa forage was loosely placed inside the bucket and covered with 10 liters of water. The system was aerated for 24 hours through 2 mm glass tube inserted into 4 mm ID plastic tube tapped into a manifold (1.25 cm OD PVC pipe). Air flow was regulated by a single aquarium air control valve on the manifold intake. Nematodes were recovered every 4 hours.

Continuously Aerated Soaking
System 2 (CASS-2)

This extraction procedure is similar to CASS-1; they differ only in the way nematode data was collected; nematodes under this system were collected at the end of the 24 hour period.

The six extraction procedures constituted the treatments. Forage samples were extracted for 24 hours to constitute one replication. The design was a randomized complete block and the experiment was replicated 5 times.

The nematodes extracted were recovered every 4 hours from the trap of TFS, TMS, BFS, and from CASS-1. Nematodes were also recovered at the end of the 24 hour extraction period from ISS and CASS-2 and also from the screen and the reservoir of TFS, TMS, and BFS. One 500 mesh screen was used to recover nematodes from each and their number

estimated immediately by the following method. Nematodes
were poured into a 150ml beaker and the volume of water
brought to 100ml. Two 2ml samples were separately taken and
nematodes counted under a stereoscopic microscope. The
average number of nematodes per ml was calculated and used
to estimate the suspension of each collection.

Fungicidal Control of <u>Catenaria</u> Infection
of <u>Ditylenchus</u> Inoculum During Storage

Inoculum Collection and Quantification

Nematodes were extracted from alfalfa forage collected
from Chickasha, Oklahoma. The thick alfalfa crowns were
split and the other plant parts cut into sections about 15cm
long. The excess soil was washed off with tap water and
undetermined quantities of forage were soaked in about 10
liters of water in a 15 1 capacity bucket. The water was
aerated as described under CASS-1. Nematodes were collected
every 24 hours for at least 3 days by pouring the water
bucket through a 400 mesh screen. Recovered nematodes were
separated from soil and plant debris by the OSU tub
technique (1). Clean nematodes were stored in the
refrigerator (4°C) during the extraction process to slow
infection by zoosporic fungi. The initial inoculum level
was determined by first concentrating the nematodes in 200
ml water by settling and decanting. The flask containing
the nematodes was gently shaken to thoroughly mix the
inoculum and 3 - 3 ml samples were withdrawn. Each sample

was collected into a counting dish and the entire population
of each subsample was counted with the aid of a stereoscopic
microscope. The average number of nematodes/ml was then
calculated and used to estimate the inoculum density in the
200 ml suspension. The final volume of the suspension was
brought to 500 ml in a 1000 ml graduated cylinder and set
aside.

Fungicide Efficacy

Metalaxyl [N-(2,6-Dimythelphenyl)-N-(methoxy-acetyl)-4
cyclohexene-1,2-dicarboximide)] and captan (Cis-N-
(Trichloromethyl)-4 cyclohexene-1,2-dicarboximide), were
evaluated for their efficacy in protecting nematode inoculum
against C. anguillulae infection during storage. The study
was set up on the laboratory bench at room temperature. A
set of 500 ml flasks were used as containers for the
nematodes and fungicide mixtures.

Four concentrations of 10, 200, 500, and 1000 ppm
active ingredient (a.i.) were used for each fungicide and
water alone as a control. The desired fungicide stock
concentration constituting one treatment was prepared by
adding the necessary amount of chemical to 800 ml of water.
Two hundred ml of the above described suspension were then
placed in a flask and 50 ml of nematode suspension added to
constitute a final volume of 250 ml per flask and the
desired concentration. The granules from the metalaxyl
stock solution were settled at the bottom of the flask; the

supernatant liquid was then poured slowly into another container and the granules discarded to clear the solution. The nine flasks from each replicate were randomly aligned on the bench (FIGURE 5) and aerated by a 1.2 mm ID PVC tube (FIGURE 5a) taped into a manifold (1.25 cm OD PVC pipe) suspended above the flasks. Air flow was regulated by a single aquarium air control valve (FIGURE 5b). Each replicate was set up on a different day to give time for data gathering. The study design was a randomized complete block with 5 replications.

The original nematode suspension from each treatment was determined at the beginning of each test.

One 10 ml sample was withdrawn from each flask and the number of visibly healthy and infected nematodes counted with the aid of a stereoscopic microscope. Data on healthy and infected nematodes was collected each week for a total of 42 days. The nematode suspension in each flask was gently shaken to achieve uniform nematode distribution and one 10 ml sample was withdrawn from each flask; counts were then made and the data recorded. After the withdrawal of each weekly 10 ml sample, the level of water in the flasks was marked so that daily addition of water would compensate for the evaporation and maintain the original concentration.

Figure 5. Experimental apparatus used for <u>Ditylenchus</u>
           inoculum storage in fungicide <u>suspensions</u>.

     A. PVC manifold
     B. Air control valve
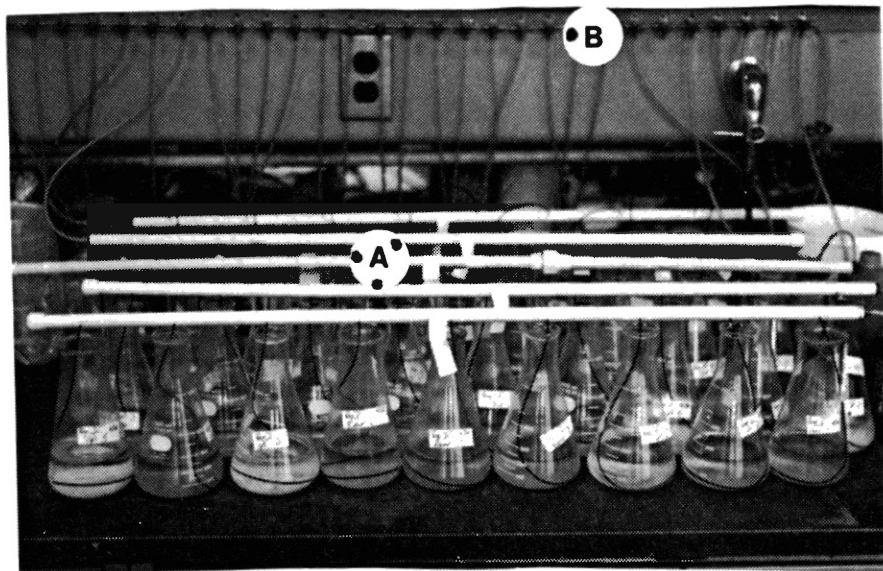
Effects of Fungicide Exposure

on D. dipsaci

An experiment was conducted in an attempt to determine
the effect of fungicide exposure on D. dipsaci infectivity.
Two testing procedures were used; one method for the first
two replicates and a second method for the last three
replicates of the fungicide protection study.

Method 1: 'Buffalo' alfalfa seeds were germinated in
aerated water for 24 hours prior to planting. Thirty-five
ml condiment cups with a 4 mm hole at the bottom were filled
with about 3 g jiffy mix which was then covered with 9 g of
fine sand. The cups were then bottom watered to saturation,
one germinated seed planted in the middle of each cup and
slightly covered with the same sand. Ten cups were used for
each treatment. Ten active females and/or larvae from each
weekly sample, or the total number of live nematodes when
there was less than 10 nematodes in the sample, were used as
inoculum. Each nematode was picked and washed off onto the
planted seed with a few droplets of water. Cups were then
placed in individual holes in a plexiglass receptacle
(FIGURE 6a) fitted to a clear vinyl tray (FIGURE 6b) (A. H.
Hummert Seed Co., PT-100C) which was then covered with a
second tray (FIGURE 6c) to prevent evaporation. The entire
unit was then maintained under a light bank. Individual
plants were harvested and stained after a 7 day incubation
to determine the number of nematodes inside the seedlings.

Figure 6. Moist chamber used for incubation of inoculated
alfalfa seedlings.

    A.   Cups in plexiglass receptacle
    B.   Bottom vinyl tray
    C.   Top vinyl tray to reduce evaporation
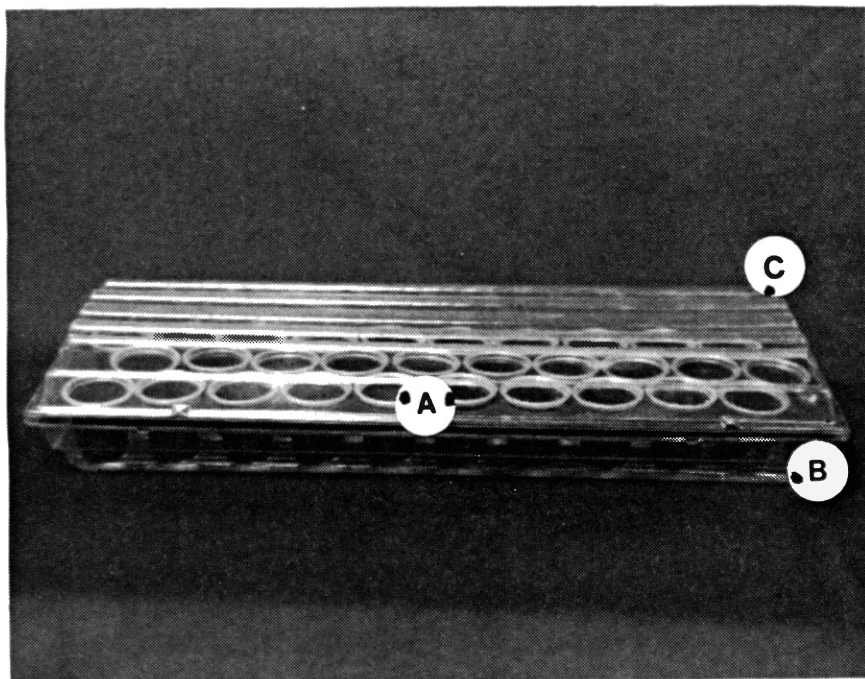
Method 2:   This method differs from the first one only in that 3 cups were used and 6 germinated seeds were planted per cup.   Nematodes from each sample were rinsed on a 500 mesh screen to wash off the fungicide and then collected in condiment cups.   The nematodes were concentrated and transferred onto the seeds with a dropper.   When the numbers of recovered nematodes was too low, the total count was used to inoculate only one cup with 6 seeds.   Cups were then placed in the container described above (FIGURE 6) and incubated for 7 days before the seedlings were harvested and stained.

The staining procedure was the same for both methods. Glass tubes, 25 mm ID and 21 mm long were glued to the inside of a 137 mm wide 21 mm deep glass petri dish bottom. This produced a container with 14 small discrete cylindrical chambers (FIGURE 7a).   About 6 ml of lactophenol cotton blue (31) was pipetted into each compartment and the space in between the compartments filled with water up to half the chamber's height (FIGURE 7b).   The petri dish was then covered and heated on a hot plate until the water reached a rapid boil.   Seedlings were transferred to the hot lactophenol cotton blue and stained for 3 to 5 minutes.   At the end of the staining period, the plants were transferred to small vials with forceps and covered with phenol for overnight clearing of the plant tissue.   Each vial was then shaken and the contents poured into a 86 mm glass petri dish and the nematodes in the plant tissue were counted with the

Figure 7. Petridish staining apperatus.

    A. Empty apparatus showing small discrete chambers
    B. Apparatus with lactophenol cotton blue and alfalfa
       seedlings
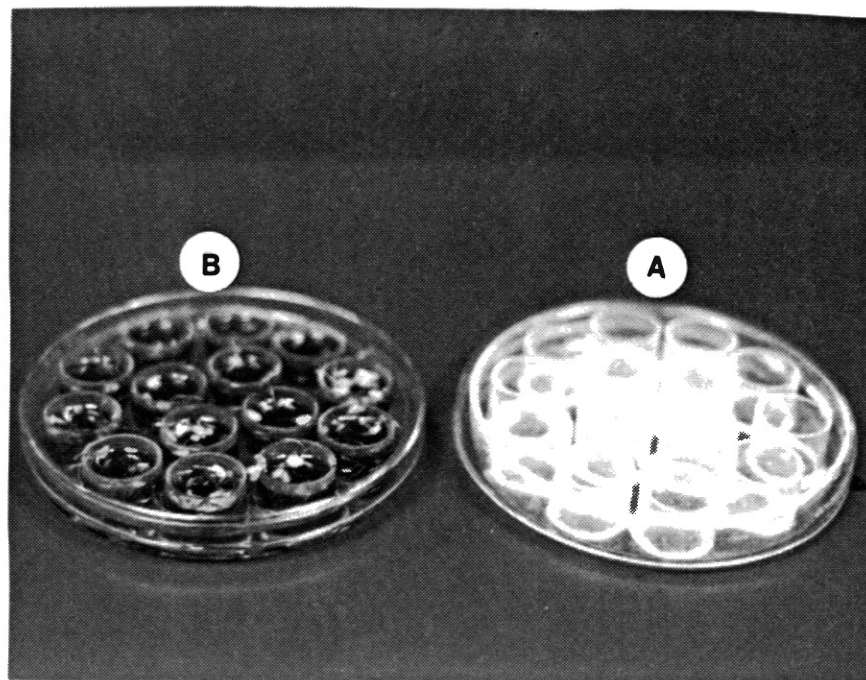
aid of a stereoscopic microscope. Dissection of some seedlings was sometimes necessary to separate the entangled nematodes inside the tissue. A few nematodes were observed outside plant tissue at the time of counting but were included in the counts.

Purification and Identification
of Isolate "C"

Seven Oklahoma isolates of a zoosporic fungus, presumably _Catenaria anguillulae_, were collected from _D._ _dipsaci_ and an unidentified dorylaim. Two of the isolates survived to pure culture: one isolate, termed isolate "C", was purified from infected _D. dipsaci_ collected from Harrisson alfalfa field at Yale, Oklahoma; the second isolate, termed isolate "A" was purified from an unidentified Dorylaimoid nematode collected at K. B. Cornell wheat field, Custer, Oklahoma. Isolate A, however, was contaminated and subsequently lost. This study was therefore conducted only with the geographic isolate "C".

The fungus was isolated in the following manner. Twenty to thirty infected and non infected nematodes were washed for 3 minutes on a 500 mesh screen with 10% chlorox in a wash bottle. The nematodes were then rinsed with abundant sterilized tap water and transferred onto 3% agar, in a thin film of water. After 3 to 5 days, fungal structures could be observed developing from inside many of the nematodes. Infected nematodes were aseptically

transferred under the hood to PDA plates to promote faster growth of the fungus. A second transfer was made from the edge of the growing fungus on the original PDA plates, to a set of new ones. The fungus was maintained by monthly transfer to new medium. Positive identification of C. anguillulae was made after purification by comparison with the descriptions in the literature (16). During this study, Catenaria cultures on PDA were blended, dried for 24 hours in an isolation chamber, and kept in petri dishes at room temperature. Ninety days after desiccation, the fungus could still grow on PDA plates and infect Ditylenchus and Panagrellus redivivus. The dried fungus could still infect Ditylenchus and Panagrellus 8 months after desiccation, but did not grow on PDA.

<div align="center">

Effect of Naturally Occurring Soil

Antagonists on the Control of D.

dipsaci by C. anguillulae

</div>

A comparison of the effect of C. anguillulae on D. dipsaci infection of alfalfa seedlings was made using one lot of field soil with its natural biota intact and one disinfected by soil fumigation.

Field soil was collected from an adjacent area of the field in which the chemical control study was conducted. One lot of 114 liters was collected in plastic pails, mixed, and divided into two 57 liter lots. One lot was stored under shelter while the other was spread evenly on a

polyethylene tarp. A 0.68 kg can of methyl bromide (MC_2, Dow Chemical Co.) was installed in a simplex applicator (Soil Fumigants Co.). The applicator was placed on the soil surface and the tarp was folded into an envelope and sealed prior to release of the chemical. The envelope was opened after 3 days and the soil was allowed to air dry for 1 day. Both soil lots were passed through a soil grinder, screened through a 30 mesh screen and removed to the laboratory in separate covered containers. The experimental units consisted of small pots fashioned by melting a single drainage hole in the bottom of 35 ml condiment cups (Fill-Rite Inc). Six grams of Jiffy Mix potting mixture (A. H. Hummert Seed Co.) was placed in the bottom of each cup to prevent soil loss and 25 g of natural or fumigated field soil was added. All cups were bottom watered to field capacity.

The study consisted of 5 replications of 6 treatments arranged in a randomized complete block design. The treatments compared were:

1. Fumigated field soil without nematodes and fungus (FS/0).

2. Fumigated field soil to which only Ditylenchus was added (FS/D).

3. Fumigated field soil to which both Ditylenchus and Catenaria were added (FS/D+C).

4. Non-fumigated field soil without nematodes and fungus (nFS/0).

5.   Non-fumigated field soil to which <u>Ditylenchus</u> alone was added (nFS/D).

6.   Non-fumigated field soil to which both <u>Ditylenchus</u> and <u>Catenaria</u> were added (nFS/D+C).

The fungus isolate described as isolate "C" in the previous section was used in this study. Two plates of 4 month old cultures were blended at low speed for 25 seconds in a Waring blender. The mixture was suspended in 50 ml of sterile water and poured into a clean beaker. To assess the density of zoosporangia, 1 ml was drawn from the suspension described above and added to 49 ml of water. Three samples, 3 ml each, were taken and separate counts were made with the aid of a stereoscopic microscope. Two to 3 drops of lactofuschin red were added to stain the fungal material. The 3 numbers obtained from counting all the sporangia in each dish were averaged for determination of the spore density in the suspension. One ml of fungal suspension was added to the desired cups.

Nematodes were extracted from alfalfa forage as previously described under the fungicide experiment section.

Twenty-five (25) females and/or juveniles were picked into 1 ml of water before being deposited on top of the fungus. PDA plates with no fungus but kept in the same environment as the fungus cultures, were processed under the same conditions and used as a control in all the cups where no fungus was added. The cups were placed in a moist chamber (FIGURE 4) and incubated for 24 hours at room

temperature. Three 'Buffalo' alfalfa seeds, germinated for 24 hours in aerated water, were planted at 15 mm centers 10 mm from the edge of the cup. The seeds were covered with 1 mm of the appropriate soil and 1 ml of sterile water was added to all cups. The cups were placed in the vinyl tray moist chamber previously described and incubated for 7 days before the seedlings were harvested and stained. The study was repeated twice, and the design was a randomized block with 5 replications.

Catenaria anguillulae as a Biological
Control of D. dipsaci in a Foliar
Environment

The efficacy of using C. anguillulae as a biological control of D. dipsaci in a foliar environment was investigated in separate studies using zoosporangium and zoospore inoculum in protectant applications prior to nematode inoculation.

Zoosporangial Testing

Single germinated alfalfa seeds were planted in condiment pots as described in the section on fungicide exposure. An excess of plants were produced so that sufficient 4 to 7 day old seedlings could be selected for uniformity at the initiation of each replicate of each study. All studies were of a randomized complete block design with 7 replications in time. The zoosporangial

suspensions were prepared from 3 month old fungus culture on nutrient broth. The culture was first washed with tap water on a 500 mesh screen and the fungal mat collected in 100 ml of water. The fungus was commutated at low speed for 25 seconds in a Waring blender. Two serial dilutions were prepared from the first concentration of sporangia. The 3 rates subsequently obtained and water as a control were used to constitute 4 treatments:

Rate 0 (Rt0) = water as a control

Rate 1 (Rt1) = 27 sporangia/droplets of H_2O

Rate 2 (Rt2) = 83 sporangia/droplets of H_2O

Rate 3 (Rt3) = 565 sporangia/droplets of H_2O

An excess of condiment cups were prepared and planted. After 4 to 7 days seedlings were selected for height uniformity.

Freshly extracted nematodes from dry alfalfa forage were concentrated in a counting dish and used for inoculum.

One droplet of the desired concentration of sporangia was placed between the cotyledons of an alfalfa seedling with a dropper. Five J-4 nematodes were individually picked into the droplet. The seedling was immediately covered with a non-vented condiment cup to retard the evaporation of the droplet. Inoculated seedlings were left in place until evaporation of all droplets. The cups were then removed and replaced by a clear vinyl tray. The unit was incubated for 4 days at 25C and 12/12 hours dark/light, the seedlings harvested, stained and nematodes counted.

. Zoospore concentration was determined with the aid of a compound microscope at 200 x magnification. First the surface area of the microscope field was calculated by measuring its diameter with a micrometer. The surface area of the cover slip to be used was also calculated. Two drops from the rate to be determined or 0.1 ml, was deposited in the middle of a clean micro slide and carefully spread with the cover slip. The slide was put under the microscope and the number of zoospores counted within ten random microscopic fields. The number of zoospores were then averaged and used to estimate the inoculum level both under the cover slip (0.1 ml of suspension) and in the 5 ml suspension.

Zoospores as Inoculum

Zoospores were produced in the following way. One plate of 3 month old culture was blended at low speed for 25 seconds in a Waring blender. Fifty ml of a 1:1 ratio of sterilized water and sterilized pond water were added twice to the blender and poured into an autoclaved 500 ml flask. The flask was then sealed with a piece of aluminum foil and set on the laboratory bench. Millions of zoospores were produced after three days of incubation in the flask.

Three rates of zoospore concentrations were prepared in the following way: one ml from the original zoospore concentration was added to 4 ml of water and another 1 ml

transferred from the first dilution to 4 ml of water. The

three rates and water as a control were used as treatments.

1.   Water as control or rate 0 (Rt0)

2.   2076 spores/droplet for rate 1 (Rt1)

3.   10380 spores/droplet for rate 2 (Rt2)

4.   51907 spores/droplet for rate 3 (Rt3)

The rest of the experiment was conducted as described under

zoosporangial study.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Carbofuran Effects on Stand Establishment

The results of the stand counts 22 and 43 days after planting are summarized in TABLE I. All the carbofuran treatments significantly (P=.05) reduced alfalfa stand. This reduction in stand counts was likely a phytotoxic effect which resulted in 31 and 40 percent (TABLE I) seed-ling loss (P=0.01) under the highest carbofuran rate (1.12 Kg a.i./ha) at the time both counts were taken. This negative effect on stand was not observed by Sheaffer et al. (53) and Greenwood et al. (28), who applied respectively, 2.2 Kg a.i./ha "Furadan" 10G prior to planting and broadcast of 13 Kg a.i./ha "Furadan" 10G. Although regression analysis was not done, the data tends to suggest that as carbofuran rates increase, the stands at 22 and 43 days decrease (TABLE I).

Carbofuran Effects on Seedling Survival

Although initial stands were reduced by carbofuran, statistical analysis of the data on the seedling survival indicates that all carbofuran treatments significantly (P=0.01) improved alfalfa survival over a period of 6 weeks

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TABLE I

EFFECT OF CARBOFURAN APPLICATION ON ALFALFA
SEEDLING STAND COUNT [1]

Treatment	Observation Period			
	22 Days		43 Days	
	No. Plants[2]	C-T	No. Plants[2]	C-T
Control	29.8	-	23.4	-
0.28 Kg/ha	24.8	5.0	18.8	4.6
0.56 Kg/ha	22.1	7.7	16.2	7.2
0.84 Kg.ha	19.5	10.3	14.2	9.2
1.12 Kg/ha	20.5	9.3	14.0	9.4
LSD = 0.10		4.1		3.5
0.05		4.9		4.2
0.01		6.7		5.8
CV =		17.4		20.3

[1] - Counts recorded from 2 randomly predetermined 30cm
sections of rows 2 and 5.

[2] - Numbers are averages of the 4 counts made (2 each) on
rows 2 and 5 at each time period.

as compared to the untreated control (FIGURE 8). From an
initial 50 plants per row on all treatments, the control
declined to an average of 36 plants by the end of 6 week
monitoring period. All carbofuran treatments resulted in
significantly less decline in stand by the end of this
period as shown in FIGURE 8. All carbofuran treatments
through the monitoring period produced a slower rate of
plant mortality than the control. The check lost
significantly (P=0.01) higher numbers of seedlings the 2
weeks following the selection of the 50 seedlings. It is
also notable that the differences between treatments became
greater as the normal seasonal increase in abiotic stress
occurred. Greenwood et al. (28), Belanger et al. (5),
working with stem and soil nematodes respectively reported
beneficial effects of post plant field application of
carbofuran on alfalfa.

Nematicidal Efficacy of Carbofuran

Although very low numbers of stem nematodes were
detected from harvested alfalfa seedlings at the beginning
of the study, the data indicate that nematodes could not be
recovered from forage at the time of the 2nd harvest, that
is 15 weeks after the application of carbofuran.
Nematicidal effect and subsequent increase in forage of
alfalfa fields infected with Ditylenchus, have been
attributed to carbofuran, although at relatively high rates
(5,28). Because initial levels of soil stem nematodes were

Figure 8.   Effect of carbofuran application on seedling
            survival.

        1.   Control
        2.   0.28 Kg a.i./ha
        3.   0.56 Kg a.i./ha
        4.   0.84 Kg a.i./ha
        5.   1.12 Kg a.i./ha

        a.i. = active ingredient

        Survival counts were made on a single row in each plot
        in which the seedlings had been thinned to 50 plants a
        minimum of 2.5 cm apart 3 weeks after planting. The
        number of plants presented are means of 6 replications.

        LSD   (Week 9)   (0.10) = 0.9
                         (0.05) = 1.1
                         (0.01) = 1.6
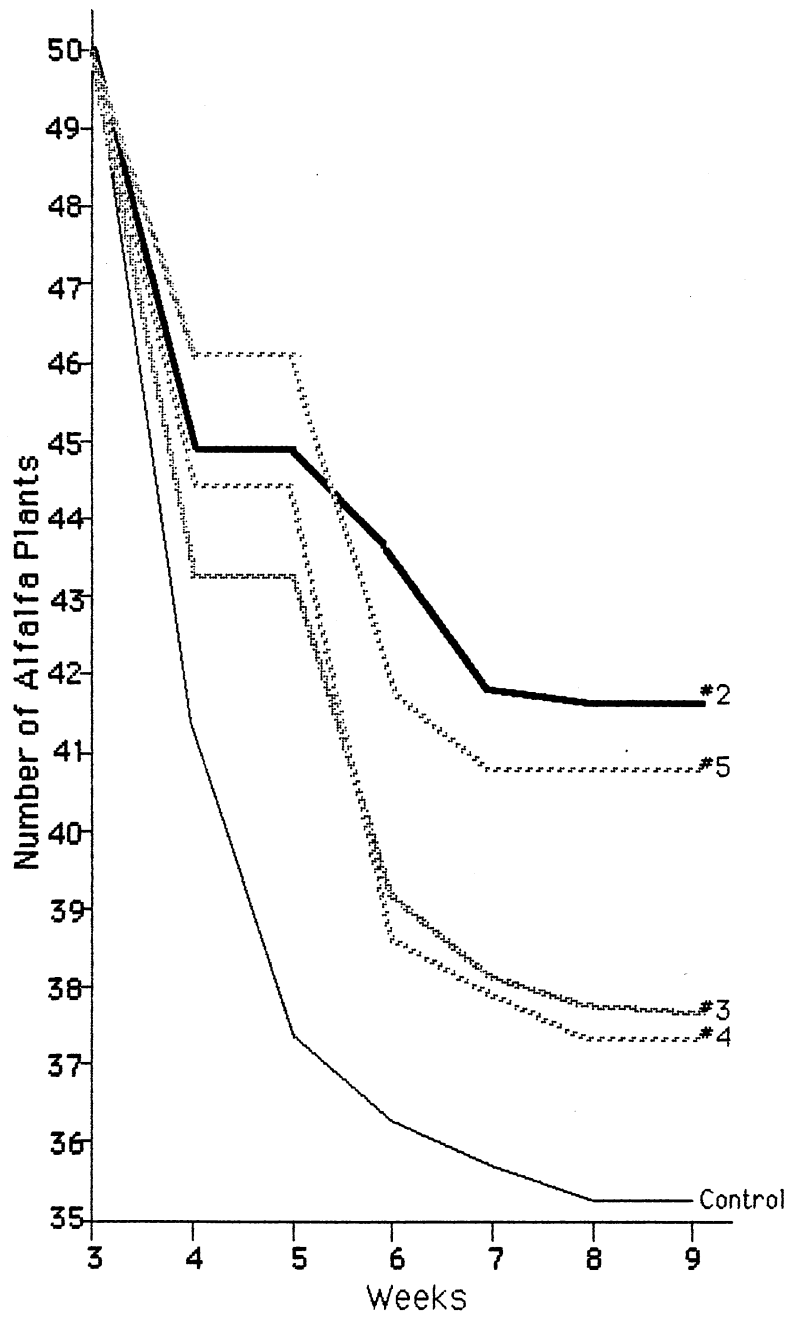
not evaluated, the absence of nematodes from forage in the early part of the study cannot be attributed solely to nematicidal activity of carbofuran against $\underline{D}$. $\underline{dipsaci}$. However, the data on recovered nematodes 365 and 430 days after planting (TABLE II) points toward an initial nematicidal effect of the chemical. An analysis of variance of the data at harvest 1, indicated that $\underline{Ditylenchus}$ numbers were significantly lower (P=0.05) under treatment 5 (TABLE II). This relationship is not uniform throughout the treatments nor is it confirmed by the nematode populations recovered after 430 days (TABLE II). Very low numbers of nematodes were recovered under all treatments and no significant differences were found between any two treatments.

Forage Yield Data

Analysis of the total yields taken at three harvest dates revealed the lowest rate of carbofuran, produced a significantly higher yield (P=0.10) than the control (FIGURE 9). The better results of survival counts are only slightly reflected on the forage yield since only one significantly higher yield was observed. The apparent initial phytotoxicity is compensated by the late beneficial effects of carbofuran, but in general, slight forage yield increases resulted. Lin et al. (41) reported that application of carbofuran at 500 ppm resulted in weights of alfalfa seedlings well below that of the non-inoculated controls. A

TABLE II

INFLUENCE OF CARBOFURAN APPLICATION ON
FOLIAR POPULATION LEVELS OF
DITYLENCHUS DIPSACI

| Treatments | Time of Harvest - Days After Planting[1] | |
	365 Days	430 Days
1. Control	1171.0	2.20
2. 0.28 Kg/ha	351.7	0.33
3. 0.56 Kg/ha	211.5	17.33
4. 0.84 Kg/ha	511.5	10.83
5. 1.12 Kg/ha	104.2	0.00
LSD = 0.10	887.4	19.60
0.05	1073.1	23.70
0.01	1463.5	32.30
CV =	198.6	320.50

1) - Data are means of D. dipsaci recovered from 50g
     subsamples collected at harvest.
2) - Forage was harvested 4 times but no nematodes were
     recovered at harvest 1 and 2, 110 and 135 days
     respectively, after planting.

Figure 9. Effect of carbofuran on total alfalfa forage
           yield.

    1) Field was planted april 23, 1986 and forage was
    harvested July 10, August 4, 1986 and May 15, 1987.

    LSD (0.10) = 4.2
         (0.05) = 5.0
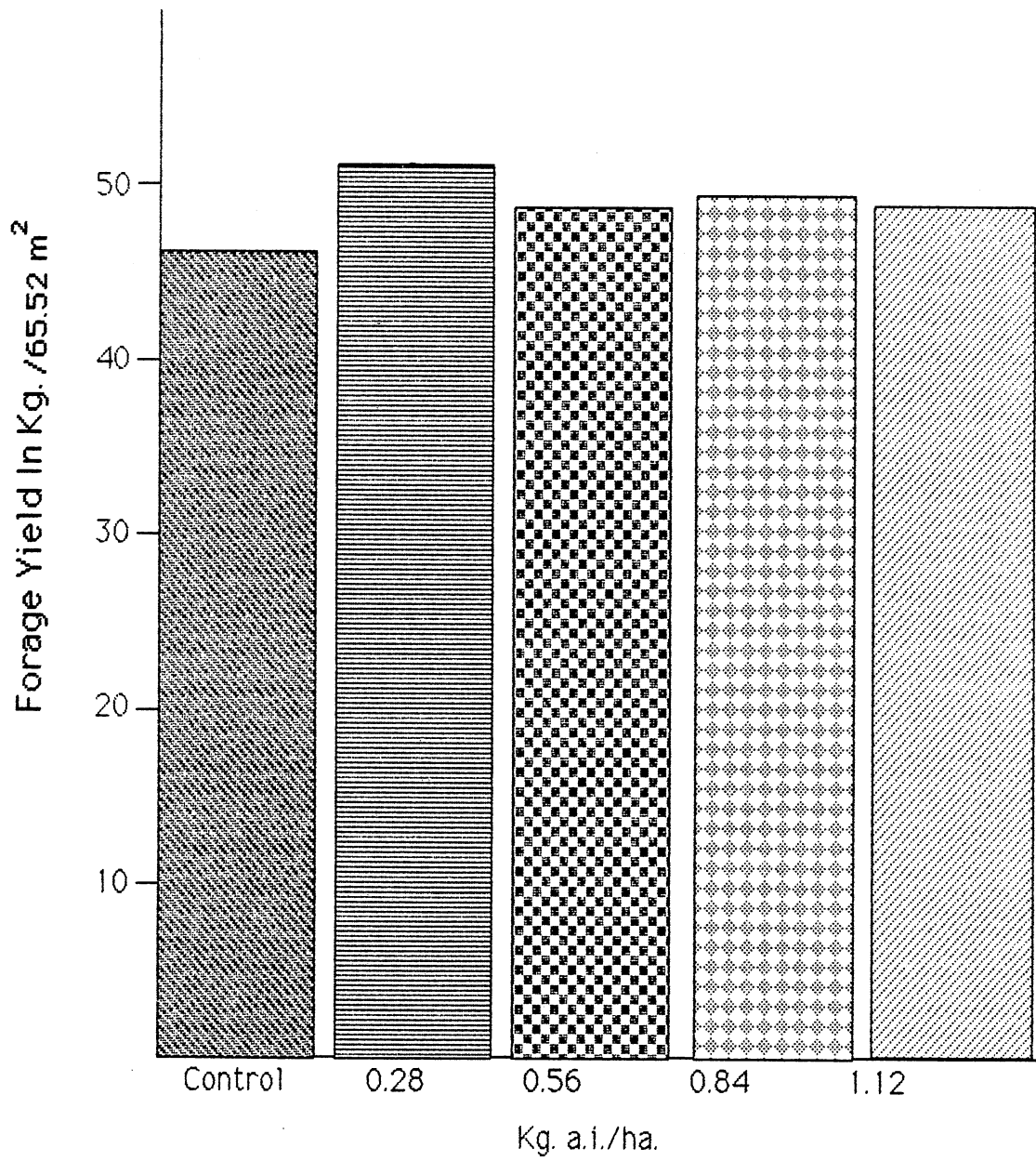
consistent inverse relationship is not observed either between nematode populations and forage yield except for the control which has the lowest forage yield and the highest Ditylenchus populations. Treatment 5 with the lowest nematode populations had the second lowest forage yield behind the control.

A normal continuous decline in forage production was also observed probably due to hotter and dryer environmental conditions (FIGURE 10). The less severe decline in forage yield observed under treatment 2 might be the result of relatively low number of nematodes and moderate phytotoxicity at the onset of the study. The more severe decline in forage production observed under the control, explained its overall lowest yield.

The overall results of this study indicated an initial phytotoxicity of carbofuran which was followed by a beneficial effect on surviving plants. Nematicidal activity, in combination with other factors is suggested by the nematode and forage data. The insecticidal rates of carbofuran, especially the 1.12 Kg a. i. /ha, may be an economical control measure against D. dipsaci on alfalfa. More studies are needed to clearly assess if its phytotoxic effect is outweighed by nematicidal and positive physiological activities.

Figure 10. Comparison of the effect of carbofuran
            application in forage yields at three harvest
            dates.

     1. Control
     2. 0.28 Kg a.i./ha
     3. 0.56 Kg a.i./ha
     4. 0.84 Kg a.i./ha
     5. 1.12 Kg a.i./ha

     a.i. = active ingredient

     1) Forage for each treatment was harvested over
     65.52 m^2.

     LSD (1st Harvest)   (0.10) = 1.8
                          (0.05) = 2.1

     LSD (3rd Harvest)   (0.10) = 1.8
                          (0.05) = 2.5
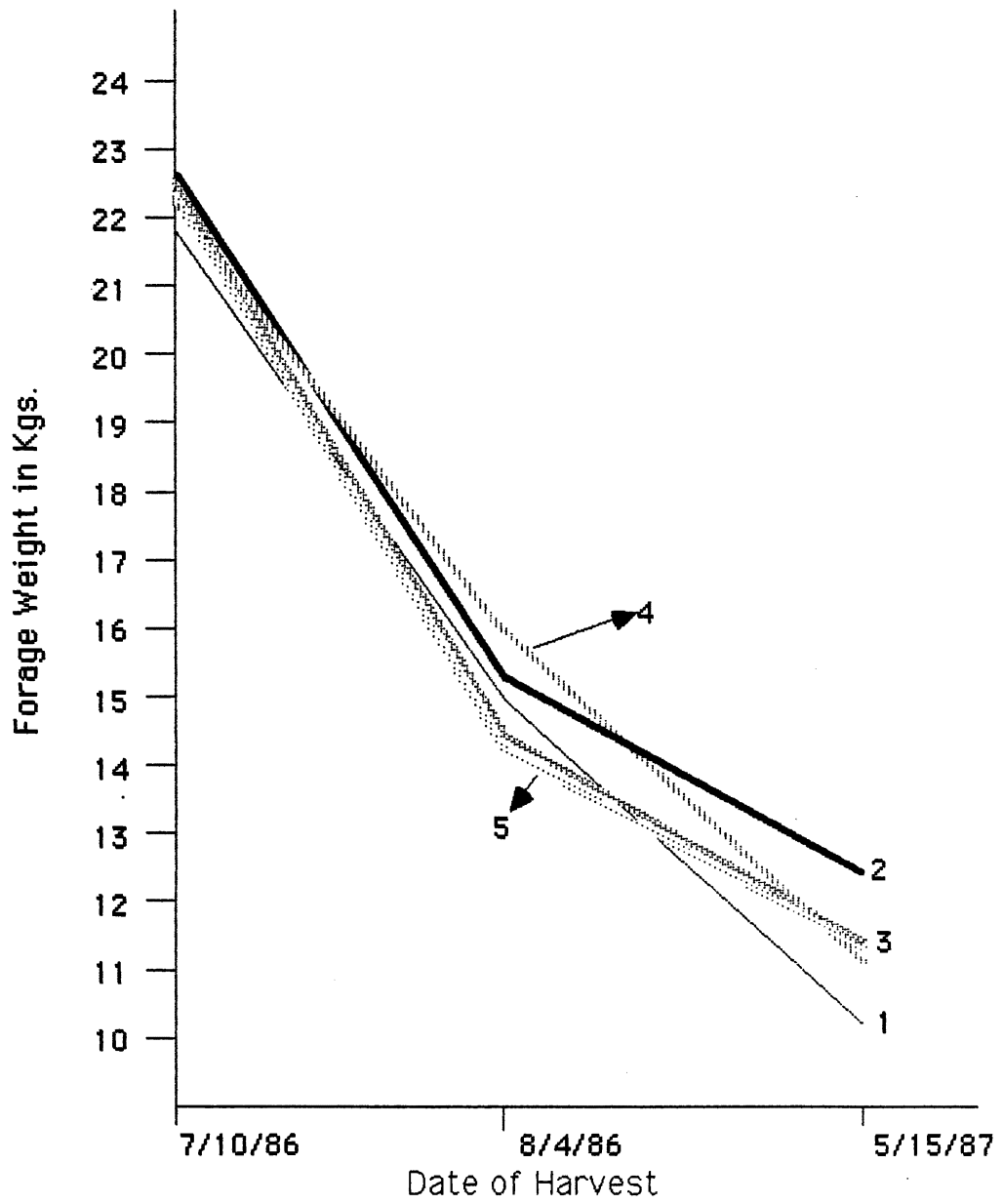
Efficacy of the Extraction Procedures

Top Mist System (TMS)

Significantly (P=0.01) lower nematode populations were
obtained under TMS in comparison to TFS, BFS and ISS (FIGURE
11). The rate of nematode emergence was also lower, since
80% recovery was achieved after 16 hours while the same rate
was achieved after 12 hours for TFS, BFS, and CASS-1 (FIGURE
12). The very low efficacy of TMS is a result of an
inadequate wetting process. The mist of water created
uneven flow of water through the forage, leaving pockets of
plant material from which emerged nematodes were not washed
down adequately. This was confirmed by the higher numbers
of nematodes recovered by soaking the forage for about 10
minutes after the test was terminated. The mist might also
be too weak to provide any efficient downward washing effect
of extracted Ditylenchus. Two (2) percent of the nematodes
were collected from the screen and 21% were passed over into
the RB.

Top Flooding System (TFS)

The most efficient method of nematode extraction in
terms of total numbers extracted was TFS (FIGURE 11). Over
80 percent of the nematodes recovered emerged after 12 hours
of extraction which indicates a high rate of emergence
(FIGURE 12).

Figure 11. Means of Total <u>Ditylenchus</u> extracted from dry
            alfalfa forage by six extraction techniques.

        TFS: Top Flooding System
        TMS: Top Mist System
        BFS: Bottom Flooding System
        CASS-1: Continously Aerated Soaking System 1
        CASS-2: Continously Aerated Soaking System 2
        ISS: Intermittent Soaking System

    1) Data are the means of the total number of <u>D</u>.
        <u>dipsaci</u> recovered from 5 replications.
    2) 125 g of forage were processed for 24 hours and the
        experiment was replicated 5 times

    LSD (0.10) = 3378.7
         (0.05) = 4085.8
         (0.01) = 5572.4
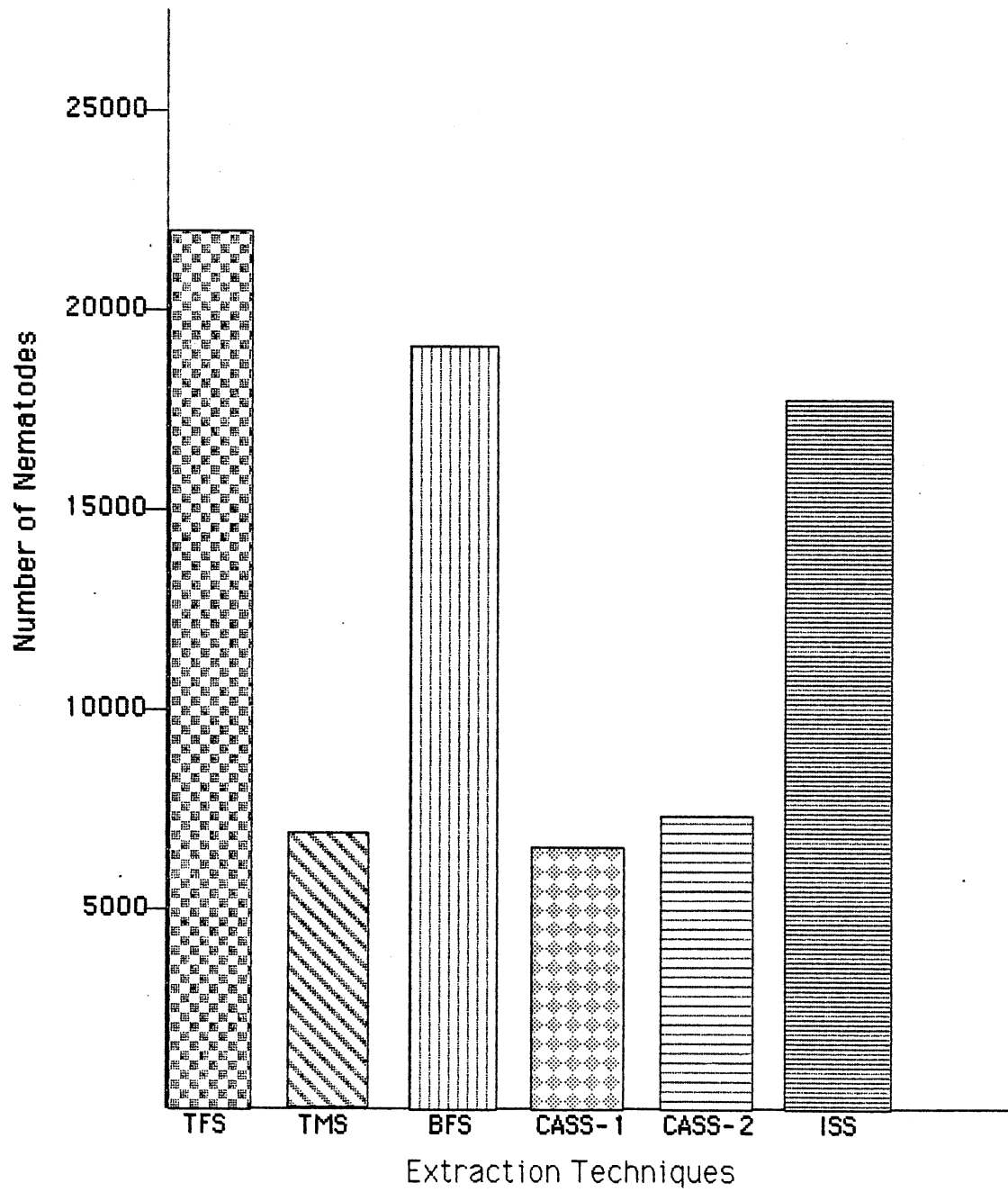
Figure 12. Rate of nematode recovery per 4 hour period from
            Ditylenchus infected alfalfa forage.

         TFS: Top Flooding System
         TMS: Top Mist System
         BFS: Bottom Flooding System
         CASS-1: Continously Aerated Soaking System 1

     1) Emerged nematodes were recovered every 4 hours over
         a 24 hour period
     2) Each sample represented 125 g dry alfalfa forage
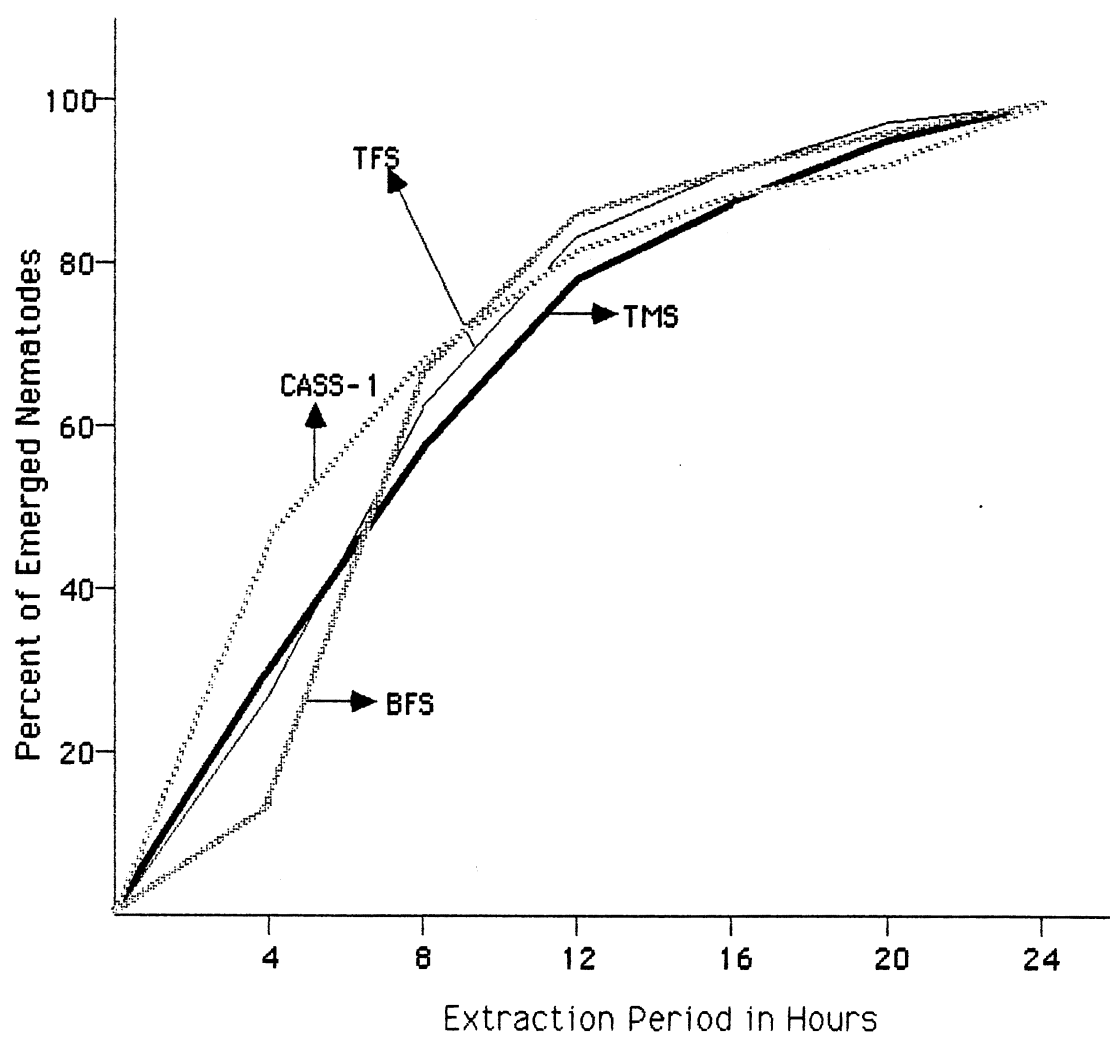
Oostenbrink reported extracting over 80% of D. dipsaci after 21 hours from plant material using a funnel spray method (43). The better efficiency of TFS procedures is essentially due to the additional oxygenation of the water stream pouring onto the forage and its washing effect on emerged nematodes.

Only 1.4% of the total nematodes extracted was retained on the screen of the trap bucket. No significant differences were observed between screens of the different systems.

The trap bucket (TB) collected 87% of the nematodes recovered while 11% of the nematodes were retained in the reservoir of the recycling water.

Bottom Flooding System (BFS)

The bottom flooding system (BFS) was the second most efficient extraction technique on the basis of quantitative extraction and the most efficient in terms of nematode emergence from the forage (FIGURE 11, 12). Eighty-five percent nematode recovery was observed after 12 hours. The lower total of nematodes recovered compared to TFS is probably due to the additional aeration of the latter system during the wetting process of the forage. A very low percentage (1.6) of extracted nematodes were retained on the screen. In contrast to TFS, 33.2% of the Ditylenchus were in the water of the reservoir bucket (RB).

Intermittent Soaking System (ISS)

The important role played by aeration and a complete uniform soaking and drainage is better illustrated by ISS which produced significantly (P=0.01) higher nematodes than the other manual techniques (FIGURE 13). The only difference between the 3 manual extraction methods is the aeration period the forage is subjected to. In the ISS the substrata was aerated for 3 and 1/2 hours between soakings and the result is clearly indicated by the much higher nematode populations collected. Although lower numbers of Ditylenchus are obtained in ISS than the most efficient TFS procedure, no significant difference was observed (FIGURE 11).

Continuously Aerated Soaking
System 1 (CASS-1)

The least efficient extraction procedure was CASS-1 with significantly (P=0.01) lower number of nematodes recovered compared to TFS, BFS, and ISS (FIGURE 11). A comparison between CASS-1 and the 2 other manual extraction indicates a significant (P=0.01) reduction in nematodes extracted between CASS-1 and ISS (FIGURE 13). This is another demonstration of the important role of aeration in nematode extraction. Chapman (14) reported that his aeration techniques increased the total number of nematodes extracted, but not the pattern of emergence. The aeration provided to CASS-1 was apparently not enough to prevent the

Figure 13. Total numbers of recovered nematodes from
alfalfa forage by use of 3 manual extraction
methods.

    CASS-1: Continously Aerated Soaking System 1
    CASS-2: Continously Aerated Soaking System 2
    ISS: Intermittent Soaking System

LSD (0.01) = 7416.1
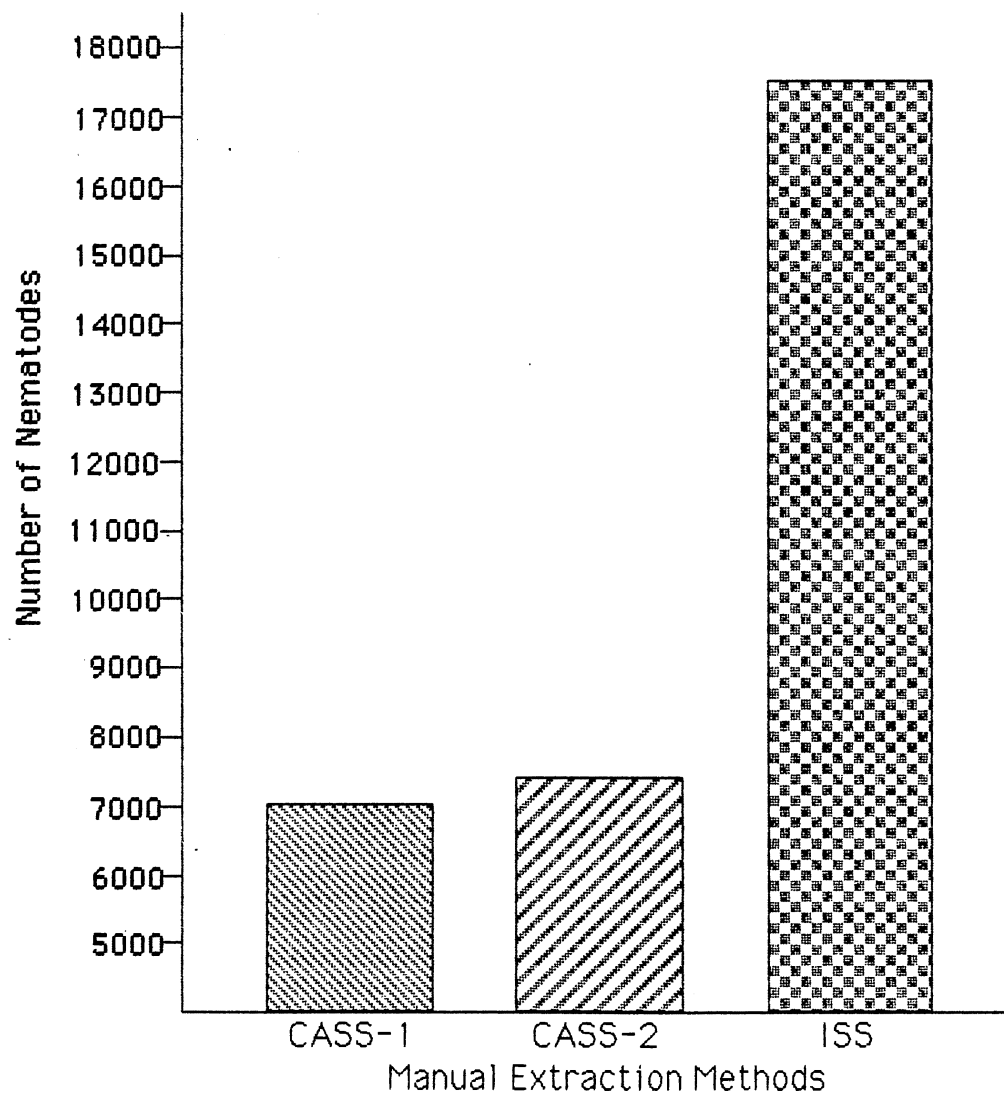
development of anaerobic conditions. Those anaerobic
conditions could have been compounded by a buildup of
leachates from the plant tissue. The leachates may have
become toxic to the stem nematodes, worsening the anaerobic
conditions. Water in that system was changed every 4 hours,
but this did not improve the recovery of nematodes. Despite
the low number of quantitative nematode recovery, a high
rate of emergence was observed under CASS-1. Over 40
percent of the nematodes emerged 4 hours after the beginning
of the extraction process (FIGURE 12). The first samples
were very dirty, but samples became cleaner in time as the
amount of leachates decreased. This decrease in leachates
might explain the slight increase in nematodes recovered
under CASS-1 at the end of the 24 hour extraction period
(FIGURE 12).

Continuously Aerated Soaking
System 2 (CASS-2)

The adverse conditions detrimental to nematode
extraction described under CASS-1 also occurred in CASS-2 as
indicated by the low total recovery (FIGURE 11). As shown
on that figure, there were significantly (P=0.01) lower
numbers of nematodes between CASS-2 and TFS, BFS and ISS.
The single sample recovered at the end of the 24 hour period
was very dirty, probably due to leachate accumulation.

In general, TFS and BFS were the two most efficient
procedures in terms of quantitative extraction. The rate of

nematode emergence was comparable after 12 hours.
Relatively clean samples were recovered from the trap and
reservoir buckets. The screens of the TB's can be
backwashed between sample to reduce the dirt and plant
material retained during syphoning process. The forage
could also be quickly washed before the extraction process
in order to reduce trashy materials.

The automated intermittent systems, especially TFS and
BFS can be efficiently used for field extraction and
inoculation. Constant attendance during extraction is not
required and the recycling process allows the use of very
little water. Bulk samples of plant materials can be
efficiently processed for a long period of time, and an
addition of antibiotics in the trap buckets could prevent or
slow down the development of contaminating organisms. Like
the other two automated intermittent systems, TFS could be
improved by combining the trap bucket and the reservoir
bucket into one unit.

The 3 manual extraction methods can be used to process
bulk samples, but unattended and/or field extraction would
be more difficult.

<center>Results of Nematode Exposure

To Fungicide</center>

Live Nematode Data

Weekly averages of live nematodes recovered over a 6
week period is presented in FIGURE 14. An analysis of the

Figure 14.   Influence of fungicide concentrations on
             Catenaria infection of _Ditylenchus_ dipsaci.

      Control 1
      Cpt 2 =   10 ppm
      Cpt 3 =   200 ppm
      Cpt 4 =   500 ppm
      Cpt 5 = 1000 ppm
      Mtl 6 =   10 ppm
      Mtl 7 =   200 ppm
      Mtl 8 =   500 ppm
      Mtl 9 = 1000 ppm

      1) 10 ml samples were collected each week and the
          number of live nematodes counted
      2) Numbers represent averages of 5 replicates

      LSD (Week 6) (0.10) = 71.1
                     (0.05) = 85.5
                     (0.01) = 115.0
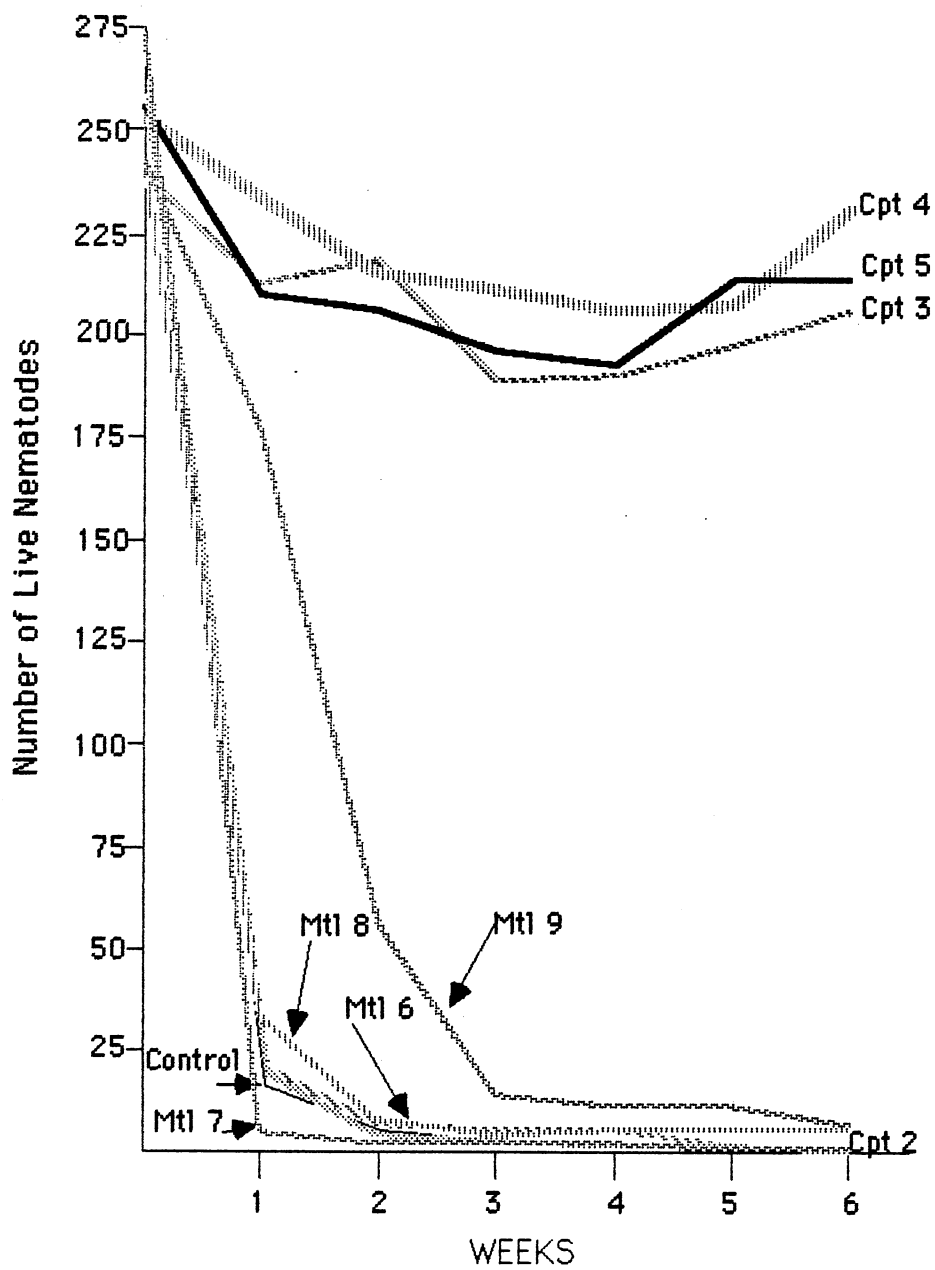
initial numbers of live nematodes for all the treatments, showed that no significant difference was found (P=0.01). This indicates that uniformity was achieved in the preparation and repartition of the inoculum. Significantly greater numbers of live D. dipsaci (P=0.01) were recovered after 3 weeks in the 3 higher rates of captan compared to all other treatments.

The very big difference between the initial populations and the numbers of nematodes at the end of the first 7 days, indicates that water alone, as well as the fungicide concentrations in Cpt 2, Mtl 7, Mtl 8 are totally ineffi- cient in protecting D. dipsaci from Catenaria infection in liquid medium. The three higher concentrations of Captan and to a lesser extent the highest concentration of metalaxyl appeared to have sustained greater nematode survival at week 1. By week 2, the treatments were clearly segregated into two groups; the Cpt 3, 4 and 5 group, and a second group constituted by the control, Cpt 2, Mtl 6, 7, 8 and 9. The nematode populations in the 2nd set of treatments continued to drastically decline and less than 10 live nematodes per weekly sample were recovered from week 2 to the end of the study (FIGURE 14).

The three highest rates of captan provided a high level of protection of the nematodes against C. anguillulae. Although no significant differences were detected between the 3 higher captan rates, a noticeable decrease in live nematodes was observed under Cpt 3, indicating that the 200

ppm concentration was not high enough to prevent noticable infection of the nematodes (FIGURE 14).

Metalaxyl 9 was intermediate in efficiency, for the first 2 weeks of the experiment, but very little protection was observed after 14 days.

Infected Nematode Data

Data on numbers of nematodes infected could not be accurately collected because of their decomposition and or clumping. This phenomenon was also observed by Sayre and Keely (50). The severity of _Catenaria_ infection contradicts the findings of Boosalis and Mankau (8) who observed that a very small percentage of live and active nematodes were attacked by the fungus; the results are similar however, to those obtained by Esser and Ridings (20), Stirling and Platzer (55), and Gray (27). The apparent contradictions may be explained by differences in virulence of _Catenaria_ isolates as suggested by Sayre and Keeley (50).

One storage procedure of _Ditylenchus_ inoculum that needs to be investigated is to clean freshly extracted nematodes in captan concentrations from a few hours to one or two days, and wash off the fungicide before storing the nematodes in sterilized water.

In summary, metalaxyl, like benomyl, PCNB, captan, amphotericin B, cycloheximide, and griseofulvin used in previous studies (17,45), is not efficient in protecting _D. dipsaci_ against _C. anguillulae_ infection under the storage

conditions studied here. Higher concentrations of Mtl might prove to be effective as suggested by Mtl 9 treatment, but such high concentrations might be detrimental to the inoculum; this needs to be investigated. High rates of captan (300 ppm or more) can significantly reduce nematode infection by C. anguillulae up to 6 weeks as measured in this study.

The rate of nematode infection suggests that the Catenaria isolate used in this study is virulent.

Testing for Infectivity of Inoculum
Stored in Fungicide Suspension

Method 1

The results of the infectivity tests obtained under method 1 were unsatisfactory because of the very low numbers of nematodes stained in the seedlings.

Placing the inoculum on top of germinating seeds was found to be the best method of inoculation by Elgin et al. (19). The same study indicated however that 25 nematodes per seedling were necessary to recover 10 nematodes or more in about half of the plants. The one nematode per seedling was designed in our study in order to determine a precise percentage of infective nematodes. The negative results obtained after two replicates can be attributed to lack of nematode infectivity but also primarily to the very low inoculum level and perhaps to other undetermined factors. Beginning with the third replicate a second method for

testing the infectivity was used. The second testing method was devised after nematodes failed to infect the alfalfa seedlings; this lack of infectivity was thought to result from the very low level of inoculum used under method 1.

Method 2

The results obtained under that second testing procedure are summarized in FIGURE 15. An examination of the number of nematodes stained in time indicated a drastic reduction in infectivity only 7 days after storage began in the different milieu. The decrease in nematodes recovered from inside seedlings might be explained by an identical decrease in the number of live nematodes sampled and inoculated for most treatments except for Cpt 3, 4, and 5 which maintain a high number of live nematodes, or at least not visibly infected by Catenaria. The low recovery of nematodes from seedling tissue for those 3 treatments beginning with week 1, cannot be entirely attributed to low inoculum level, inadequate moisture, nature of the soil or some other physical factors. This is clearly illustrated by the results of week 0, when the nematodes used for inoculum were added and immediately withdrawn from the different concentrations. What the data suggest is that most of the nematodes being recovered very quickly lose their ability to infect alfalfa, possibly due to some physiological changes caused by the fungicides.

Two hypotheses are likely:

Figure 15.   Percent infectivity of <u>Ditylenchus dipsaci</u>
             exposed to fungicide suspensions.

     1.   Control
     2.   10 ppm a.i. captan (Cpt)
     3.   200 ppm a.i. Cpt
     4.   500 ppm a.i. Cpt
     5.   1000 ppm a.i. Cpt
     6.   10 ppm a.i. metalaxyl (Mtl)
     7.   200 ppm a.i. Mtl
     8.   500 ppm a.i. Mtl
     9.   1000 ppm a.i. Mtl

     1)   Curves represent percentages of nematodes recovered
          from inoculated seedlings

- The alfalfa seedlings escaped infection because the nematodes have lost their sense of orientation and therefore cannot find them;

- Or the nematodes can still find the seedlings, but have lost their infectivity.

A third possibility, alone or in combination with the two mentioned above, could be aging, although residual nematodes from the suspensions distributed to the treatments were capable of infecting alfalfa seedlings after a storage peroid of more than 4 weeks in the refrigerator (temperature about 4°C).

Catenaria anguillulae as a Biological
Control Agent

In Two Soil Environments

Significantly (P=0.05) higher numbers of Ditylenchus were recovered from seedlings grown on non-fumigated field soil with Ditylenchus (nFS/D) and non-fumigated filed soil with Catenaria and Ditylenchus (nFS/D+C) than on seedlings harvested from fumigated soil without fungus and nematodes (FS/O) and fumigated soil with both organisms added (FS/D+C). This is an indication of the adverse effect natural competitors are exerting on Catenaria in the non-fumigated soil (FIGURE 16). The data indicates that significant difference (P=0.10) existed between nFS/D, nFS/D+C and nFS/O. The nematodes recovered under nFS/O was the result of natural soil background infestation by

Figure 16.   Effects of naturally occuring soil antagonists
            on the control of <u>Ditylenchus</u> <u>dipsaci</u> by
            <u>Catenaria</u> <u>anguillulae</u>.

   FS/0:   Fumigated field soil without nematodes or fungus
   FS/D: Fumigated field soil to which <u>Ditylenchus</u> was
           added
   FS/D&C: Fumigated field soil with <u>Catenaria</u> and
           <u>Ditylenchus</u> was added
   nFS/D: Non-fumigated field soil with <u>Ditylenchus</u>
   nFS/D&C: Non-fumigated field soil with both organisms
           added

   1)   Nematodes recovered under NFS/0 represent
        background infestation by <u>Ditylenchus</u>
   2)   Numbers are means of recovered nematodes per 3
        seedlings

   LSD   (0.10) = 4.3
         (0.05) = 5.2
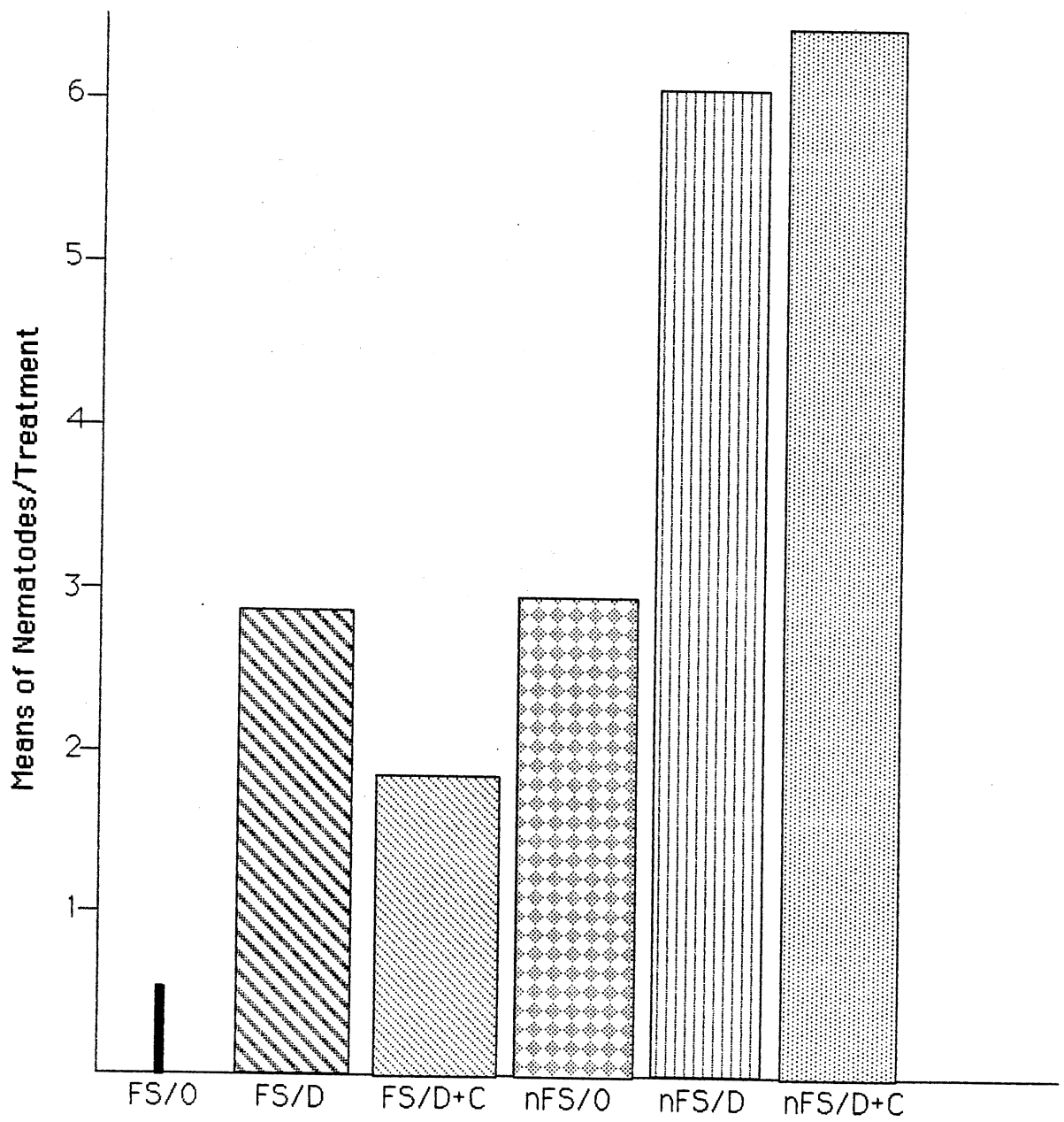
Ditylenchus. The biological control effect obtained under non-fumigated field soil is illustrated by removing the background infestation from nFS/D and nFS/D+C. Significant differences would no longer exist between any of the treatments, including FS/D from which background infestation has been removed by fumigation. The very low number of nematodes stained in alfalfa seedlings under FS/D+C conditions [0.6 nematodes per plant, i.e. total number of nematodes (9) divided by the number of seedlings (15)] surely demonstrated an effective biological control. The low number of nematodes recovered under FS/D was not the result of any biological control effect since the soil was fumigated and no fungus was added with the nematodes. One explantion might be the low inoculum effect described by Elgin et al. (19). They reported that a minimum of 25 Ditylenchus was required per seedlings for half of the inoculated plants to be infected by 10 nematodes.

Boosalis and Mankau (8) could not detect any effect on soil nematode populations by the addition of Catenaria. The use of sporangia in this study might be in part responsible for the weak biological control effect observed. Sayre and Keely (50) discovered that apparently not enough spores were released from sporangia to reach the level capable of significantly protecting onion seedlings against Ditylenchus attack.

The reduction in onion bloat observed over the control (17% under high zoospore concentrations) was unsatisfactory

for onion crop, but such an improvement in alfalfa crop forage might be economical.

Some other adverse effects encountered by zoospores in soil environment are encystment, competition and antibiotic processes, mechanical obstruction to their movement presented by soil particles, nematode movements away from them, sand particles brushing them off the nematode cuticle, and dilution of the chemical gradient needed by the zoospores to locate their hosts (50).

The overall results of this study strongly suggest that C. anguillulae under certain field conditions does exert a significant natural control pressure on soil nematodes.

The biological potential of Catenaria could be greatly enhanced by selecting already virulent isolates for resistance to soil antagonists. This is demonstrated by the isolate used in this study; non uniform virulence was observed under liquid and soil media.

In Foliar Environment

Zoosporangial suspension was first used as inoculum in the evaluation of C. anguillulae as a biological control agent of D. dipsaci in foliar environment. The results of the experiment were not significant enough to allow valid interpretation. The data indicated that more nematodes were recovered under the highest concentration of zoosporangia than under the control.

A second study was conducted using zoospores as inoculum to see whether the inefficiency of the fungus was due to non zoospore release or to some other factors. The results from that study on the use of Catenaria as a biocontrol agent to prevent the infection of alfalfa seedling stage by the stem nematode, D. dipsaci are illustrated in FIGURE 17. Statistical analysis of the data indicates a significant difference at the 10% level between the control and the Rt-3 treatment. This agrees with previous studies relating Catenaria infection of nematode to its zoospores concentration (33,34,50). A good illustration of the high zoospores concentration required for biological control effect is shown by Rt-2. The 10,000 spores/droplet used under that treatment did not result in any significant control of nematodes.

The better result of Rt-3 over Rt-2 agian indicated that high inoculum can produce an efficient biological control measure. Self-inhibitory process was not observed under Rt-3. This phenomenon, which is observed in many closely related species, occurs when high concentrations of zoospores induce the production of inhibitory substances such as lactic acid (11). Based on the result of this experiment it would be premature to draw conclusions regarding the future of foliar applications of Catenaria to control Ditylenchus on alfalfa. It is reasonable however, to assume that under the less hostile foliar environment, Catenaria could be more efficient as a biocontrol agent of

Figure 17. Catenaria anguillulae as a biological control
           agent of Ditylecnchus dipsaci in alfalfa
           seedling foliar environment.

     RT-0 Control (tap water)
     RT-1 2076 spores/droplet of water
     RT-2 10380 spores/droplet of water
     RT-3 51907 spores/droplet of water

     1) Five J-4 were picked into one droplet of spore
         suspension between cotyledon

     LSD (0.10) = 1.0
          (0.05) = 1.3
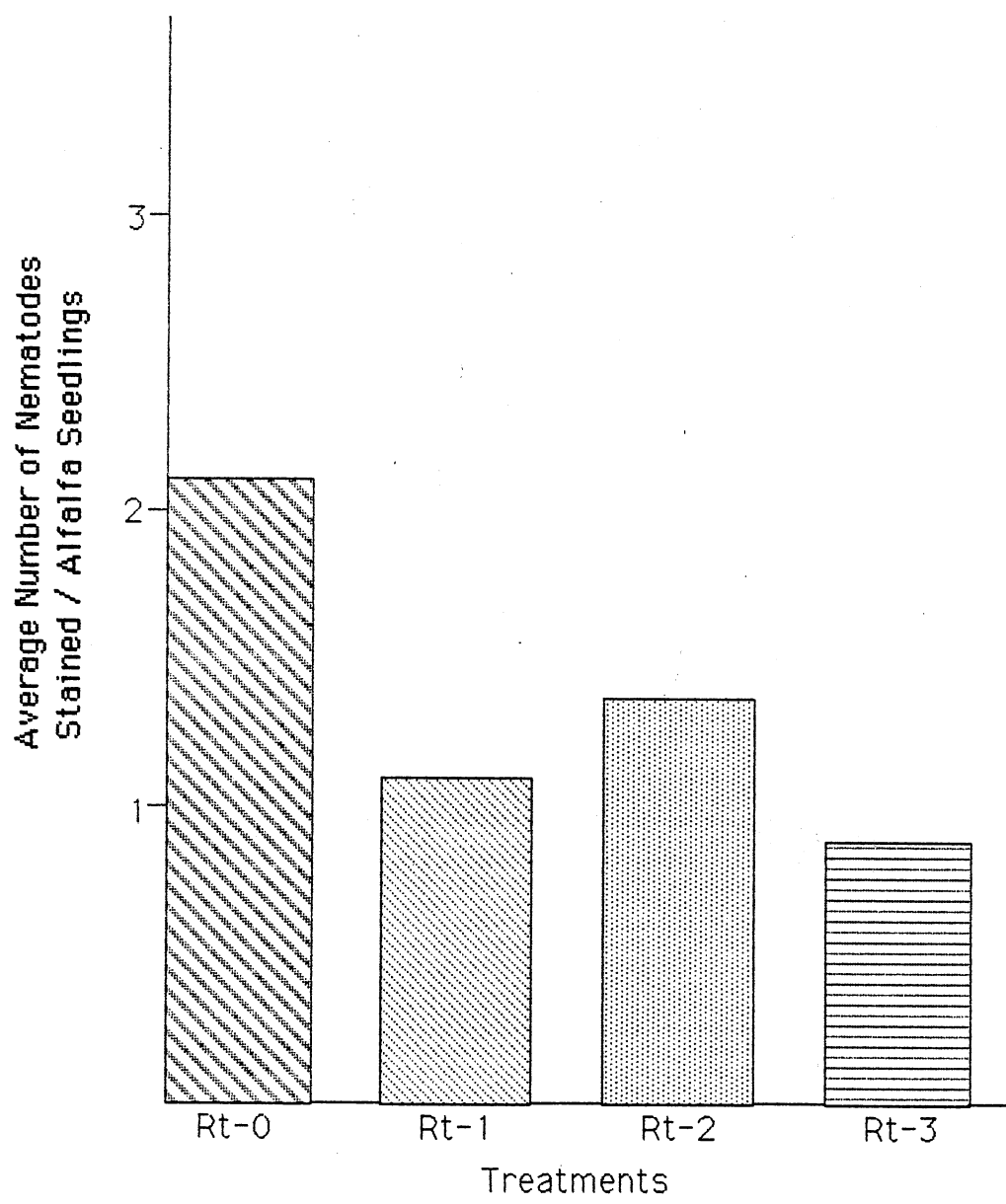
nematodes. Conditions for zoospore encystment are likely to be different from the ones encountered in soil environments. A moist foliar environment would keep the zoospores in a film of water that could delay their encystment, increasing their chance of infecting outside nematodes.

If the mechanism of spore release from zoosporangia were better understood and could be controlled, the fungus could be applied in its sporangial form which is known to survive desiccation (10,16). The gradual release of spores under moist conditions is requisite to cause enough infection of nematodes coming out of plant tissue to prevent a population explosion. Another problem encountered in biological control research is mass production of inoculum. In the case of Catenaria, enough inoculum can easily be produced for laboratory and greenhouse studies. If the results obtained in future studies are satisfactory, efforts will probably be made to produce enough inoculum for field studies. The fact that infected nematodes were recovered on the first day relatively clean alfalfa forage was processed, suggests that Catenaria may be surviving in some form in the foliar environment. It is possible, however, that early nematode infection may be the result of apparatus contamination.

Although the zoosporangial suspension as inoculum did not provide satisfactory data, any future application of C. anguillulae as a biological control agent in foliar environment will probably be achieved through the

application of the zoosporangia which are the surviving
structures of the fungus. Higher numbers of <u>Ditylenchus</u> may
have allowed for a greater percent of nematode infection,
allowing the difference between treatments to be
ellucidated.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

1. The results of the stand counts suggested a positive correlation between phytotoxicity and carbofuran rates.

2. A positive physiological effect of carbofuran seemed to develop, following the initial phytotoxic effect on alfalfa seedlings.

3. Twelve months after planting, a significantly higher number of nematodes were recovered from the control forage indicating the consequences of early nematicidal activity of carbofuran.

4. Six extraction procedures of _Ditylenchus_ _dipsaci_ from alfalfa forage were evaluated on the basis of rate of nematode emergence and quantitative extraction efficiency.

5. The top flooding system, the technique which was most aerated, was most efficient on both parameters under consideration.

6. Despite aeration, anaerobic conditions appeared to quickly develop when the forage was continuously immersed.

7. The evaluation of 2 fungicide concentrations revealed that high rates of captan suppressed nematode infection by _Catenaria_ _anguillulae_, while metalaxyl

concentrations were ineffectual in preventing
infection of <u>Ditylenchus</u> by the fungus.

    8.   The alfalfa seedlings infectivity test data
suggested that the nematodes lost their infectivity after 2
weeks in the fungicide suspensions.

    9.   <u>Catenaria</u> <u>anguillulae</u> was found to be a weak
biological control agent of <u>D</u>. <u>dipsaci</u> in soil environment.

    10.   High zoospore concentrations significantly reduced
seedling infection by the stem nematode in foliar
environment.

    11.   As a general conclusion, it can be said that the
suggestion of a positive biological control effect makes it
worthwhile to investigate the use of <u>Catenaria</u> in foliar
environments to control <u>D</u>. <u>dipsaci</u> on alfalfa.

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Agricole, Koungheul, Senegal, 1970-1973; Deputy to
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