ORIGINAL ARTICLE



Soil isolation, identification, and virulence testing of Turkish entomopathogenic fungal strains: a potential native isolate of *Beauveria bassiana* for the control of *Leptinotarsa* decemlineata

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Received: 15 February 2022 / Accepted: 21 July 2022 / Published online: 30 July 2022 © The Author(s), under exclusive licence to International Organization for Biological Control (IOBC) 2022

Abstract The Colorado potato beetle (CPB), Leptinotarsa decemlineata (Say) (Coleoptera: Chrysomelidae) is one of the most important pests of potatoes and causes great losses in potato production worldwide. Chemical insecticides are primarily used to control this pest, but this has rapidly caused insecticide resistance. In this study, 24 entomopathogenic fungi were obtained from 43 soil samples in potato fields and identified by ITS gene sequencing. Nine of the isolates were identified as Beauveria bassiana (Bals.) Vuill and 15 as Metarhizium sp. All fungal isolates were first tested against the adults and larvae of CPB under laboratory conditions. The most effective isolate was determined as B. bassiana SK-8 with 86% mortality and mycosis against adults, and 100% mortality and 80% mycosis against larvae. Therefore, isolate SK-8 was further characterized by phylogenetic analysis using bloc, rpb1 and tef gene sequences and this also confirmed that the isolate SK-8 was B.

Handling Editor: Éverton Kort Kamp Fernandes

Supplementary Information The online version contains supplementary material available at https://doi.org/10.1007/s10526-022-10156-4.

Handling Editor: Éverton Kort Kamp Fernandes

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Department of Plant Protection, Faculty of Agriculture, Kırşehir Ahi Evran University, 40100 Kırşehir, Turkey e-mail: ali.sevim@ahievran.edu.tr values were estimated as 1.12×10^9 and 4.08×10^{10} conidia ml⁻¹ for adults and larvae, respectively. Consequently, *B. bassiana* SK-8 seems to be a promising biocontrol control agent against CPB.

bassiana. B. bassiana SK-8 was finally tested against adults and larvae of CPB under field conditions. LC₅₀

values were estimated as 3.42×10^6 and 1.15×10^7

conidia ml⁻¹ for adults and larvae, respectively. LC₀₀

Keywords Colorado potato beetle · *Beauveria* bassiana · Phylogeny · Biological control

Introduction

The Colorado potato beetle (CPB), Leptinotarsa decemlineata (Say) (Coleoptera: Chrysomelidae), causes significant economic damage to many agriculturally important plants such as potato, eggplant, and tomato. This insect has attracted a great attention in the scientific community, as it appeared as a major problem in the mid-nineteenth century. While CPB is already a great danger in potato-producing areas, it is increasingly expanding its geographical spread to other new regions of the world (Alyokhin et al. 2013). This insect pest is now present in many parts of the world including Canada, Europe, Central Asia, Russia, Kazakhstan, and China (Jacques 1988; Wilde and Hsiao 1981; Wang et al. 2017). Both larvae and adults cause damage to the potato plant and can cause complete defoliation (Balasko et al. 2020).

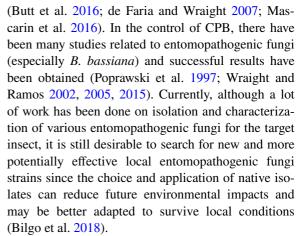


It has also been reported to be effective in spreading several viruses that cause disease in potato (Sorokan et al. 2020). A diverse and flexible life cycle, ecological mobility, symbiotic relationship with various types of bacteria and its extraordinary adaptability to various stressors increase the spread of this pest and make it a very difficult pest to control (Alyokhin et al. 2013; Sorokan et al. 2019, 2020).

Biological, biotechnological, cultural, and chemical control methods are used in the current CPB management. Among these methods, the chemical control is historically the most used and preferred method (Alyokhin et al. 2008; Grafius and Douches 2008; Balasko et al. 2020). However, although the use of various chemical products suppressed and significantly reduced the pest population, CPB has developed resistance against the active substances over time. This pest has been developed resistance to 56 compounds from different insecticide classes which is available on the market (Scott et al. 2015; Grafius 1997; Balasko et al. 2020). Due to this pesticide resistance problem and the effects of chemicals on human and environmental health, different control methods are needed to be developed.

Although many natural enemies of CPB are identified, these are often inadequate in reducing the pest population to the required level (Capinera 2001). Besides these natural enemies, bacteria, viruses, fungi, nematodes, and protozoa cause disease in CPB and have the potential to be used in microbial control (Lacey 2008). Among these entomopathogenic microorganisms, Beauveria bassiana (Bals.) Vull. is the first used entomopathogenic fungus against CPB and successful results against both adults and larvae were obtained in the trials (Lacey et al. 2009).

Mycoinsecticides based on entomopathogenic fungi are environmentally friendly and have many advantages in biocontrol such as not having toxic effects on mammals, not developing resistance in insects, being suitable for development with biotechnological and genetic engineering, being able to infect all developmental stages of their hosts and staying in the environment for a long time after application (Rajula et al. 2021; Wan 2003). Today, there are an increasing number of bioinsecticides mostly containing anamorphic genera such as *Beauveria*, *Metarhizium* and *Isaria*. Approximately 80% of the commercial products based on entomopathogenic fungi consist of *Metarhizium* and *Beauveria* species



In this study, various entomopathogenic fungi were isolated from soil samples in potato fields. Gene sequencing (ITS, bloc, rpb1 and tef) and phylogenetic analysis were mainly used for species identification. The identified species were tested against adults and larvae of CPB under laboratory conditions to find out the most virulent isolate. Finally, spray application of several concentrations onto infested plants in the field were performed, LC_{50} and LC_{90} values were calculated.

Materials and methods

Collection of soil samples

43 soil samples were collected from potato fields in the vicinities of Konya, Muğla and Denizli in Turkey, 2020. Soil samples were collected as described in the study of Sevim et al. (2010a). Soil samples were used for fungal isolation within a week.

Insect bait method

Entomopathogenic fungi were isolated from soil samples according to the *Galleria* bait method with minor modifications (Zimmermann 1986). The fourth-fifth instar yellow mealworm larvae [(*Tenebrio molitor* L.) (Coleoptera: Tenebrionidae)] were used as bait insect. Infected larvae obtained from each soil sample were considered as one isolate (Sevim et al. 2010a). All fungal isolates were propagated from single conidium. To do this, $100~\mu$ l conidial suspensions of 1×10^6 conidia ml⁻¹ were spread on PDAY (Potato dextrose agar + 1% yeast extract) and incubated at



25 °C for 2–3 days in the dark. After that, a single colony for each isolate was transferred onto another PDAY and incubated at 25 °C for two weeks. Finally, they were cryopreserved at -20 °C with 15% (v/v) glycerol for further studies in the Microbiology Laboratory, Department of Plant Protection, Kırşehir Ahi Evran University.

Fungal identification

Morphological identification of the isolated fungi was performed according to the identification key of Humber (1997). Morphological identification of the isolated fungi was also confirmed by gene sequencing and phylogenic analysis. Genomic DNAs were extracted from fungi using Powersoil DNA isolation kit (MO BIO Laboratories, Carlsbad, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer's recommendations.

ITS1-5.8S-ITS2 gene region between the 18S and 23S rRNA sub-units were first amplified for all fungal isolates. The primer pairs of ITS5: 5'-GGAAGT AAAAGTCGTAACAAGG- 3' as forward and ITS4: 5'TCCTCCGCTTATTGATATCG- 3' as reverse were used for PCR amplification (White et al. 1990). The reaction and cycling conditions were adapted and performed according to the study of Sevim et al. (2010a). In addition, the nuclear intergenic region (bloc), translation elongation factor-1 alpha (tef) and RNA polymerase II largest subunit (rbp1) gene sequences were carried out for further characterization of the most effective isolate (SK-8) used in field trial. The primer pairs of B5.1F (5'-CGACCCGGCCAACTA CTTTGA-3') as forward and B3.1R (5'-GTCTTC CAGTACCACTACGCC-3') as reverse primers were used to amplify bloc gene region and PCR conditions were adapted as described in the study of Rehner et al. (2006). The partial sequence of tef gene region was amplified with primer pairs of EF1T (5'-ATGGGT AAGGARGACAAGAC-3') and 1567R (5'-ACHGTR CCRATACCACCSATCTT-3') and PCR, cycling conditions were adapted according to the study of Rehner and Buckley (2005). Finally, rpb1 gene region were amplified with the degenerate primers of RPB1Af (5'-GARTGYCCDGGDCAYTTYGG-3') and RPB1C (5'- CCNGCDATNTCRTTRTCCATRTA-3') and PCR conditions were described in the study of Stiller and Hall (1997). After performing PCRs, all products were sent to Macrogen for sequencing. The resulting DNA sequences were compared with DNA sequences at NCBI GenBank by Blast search to confirm species identification, and then phylogenetic analysis was performed. Also, the sequences were used to compare the isolate SK-8 with reference strains in the study of Rehner et al. (2011). All sequences were deposited in GenBank under the accession numbers given in Supplementary Table S1.

Laboratory screening tests

Fifty ml of stock solutions of fungal isolates (1×10^6) conidia ml⁻¹) were separately spread on PDAY and incubated at 25 °C for 2-3 days. At the end of the incubation period, single colonies were selected and transferred to another PDAY and incubated at 25 °C for four weeks. After that, 10 ml of sterile 0.01% Tween 80 were added to each Petri dish and spores were obtained by scraping them with glass rod. Spore suspensions were filtered into 50 ml sterile conical centrifuge tubes through two-layers of sterile cheese cloth to remove mycelium and agar pieces. The resulting suspensions were vortexed for 5 min for homogenization. Spore suspensions were adjusted to the desired concentrations based on Neubauer hemocytometer derived counts. The viability of spores was tested by spreading 100 µl spore suspension on the PDAY agar and determining the germination rate after a 24 h incubation. Spores which produced germ tubes longer than their diameter were considered to have germinated. Isolates with 95% germination rate or over were used in virulence tests (Sevim et al. 2010b).

A total of 24 fungal isolates were tested against both larvae and adults of CPB. Adults and larvae were collected from potato fields in Konya, Turkey. They were fed in the laboratory for three days to eliminate the injured and diseased individuals and the selected healthy insects were used in bioassays. Ten larvae (3rd and 4th instars) and adults were separately used for each repetition and all bioassays were repeated three times. Ten healthy larvae and adults were separately placed in plastic boxes (20×20×20 cm) and a conidial concentration of 1×10^7 conidia ml⁻¹ of each isolate were sprayed on insects using an aerosol type sprayer (airbrush). Freshly collected potato leaves were used as food and were changed daily. The control group was inoculated with only sterile 0.01% Tween 80. After inoculation, all boxes were left to incubate at 28 °C for 15 days under a L:D 12:12



photoperiod. All boxes were examined for 15 days, dead larvae were counted, and percentage mortality values were calculated. The percent mycosis values were also calculated. For this, dead larvae and adults were washed with 1% sodium hypochlorite solution for 3 min for surface sterilization. Afterwards, they were washed with sterile distilled water three times and taken into sterile Petri dishes including moist filter paper and left to incubate at 28 °C and in the dark (Sevim et al. 2010c).

Outdoor tests

Based on the initial screening tests, the isolate SK-8 was selected and used in small scale field trials. The conidial suspensions of the isolate SK-8 were prepared as described in the screening tests. In the field trials, a total of thirty larvae (3rd and 4th instars) and adults were separately used for each conidial concentration and repetition. All experiments were repeated three times. Cultural conditions were uniform for all plants of the trial and conformed to local agricultural practice. 25 m² field was used as the trial area. Two adjacent potato plants in the area were separately selected for both larvae and adults and used separately for each conidial concentration. Before applying conidial suspensions, 30 larvae and adults were released into each of the two potato plants for each concentration. Therefore, different experiment groups for each concentration were set. Before insects were placed on plants, weeds surrounding potato plants was removed to restrict larval movement between plants (Petek et al. 2020). After that, 200 ml of each concentration $(1 \times 10^4, 1 \times 10^5, 1 \times 10^6, 1 \times 10^7)$ and 1×10^8 conidia ml⁻¹) belonging to B. bassiana SK-8 were applied to the larvae and adults for 10–15 s using the aerosol type sprayer. The control group was inoculated with only sterile 0.01% Tween 80 for both larvae and adults. After inoculation, the upper part of each plant to ground were covered with a wooden cage with plastic holes which are too small for larvae and adults to escape. Then all plants were left to incubate for 15 days under field conditions. All plants were examined during 15 days of incubation, the dead larvae and adults were counted, and the percentage mortality were calculated for each concentration. The average temperature and RH values for the date range in which field trials were performed were obtained from https://tr.freem eteo.com/. The average temperature and RH values were 27.19 ± 0.4 °C (24–31 °C) and $66.81 \pm 1.64\%$ (58–79%), respectively.

Data analysis

All DNA sequences were edited with the BioEdit 7.09 (Hall 1999) and their percentage similarities with other known DNA sequences in GenBank were determined by Blast search (Benson et al. 2012; Altschul et al. 1990). Cluster analysis of DNA sequences were done with the ClustalW packed in the BioEdit and the obtained data were used in neighbor-joining (NJ) analysis in MEGA 11.0.10 (Tamura et al. 2021). The phylogenetic tree was constructed using the concatenated sequences of *bloc*, *rpb1* and *tef* gene regions. Alignment gaps were considered as missing data. The reliability of the generated phylogram was tested with 1.000 replicates by bootstrap analysis using the MEGA 11.0.10.

The data from the virulence tests were corrected using the Abbott formula and percent mortalities were calculated (Abbott 1925). In addition, the percent mycosis values were calculated as described above. One-way ANOVA followed by LSD post-hoc test was used to compare fungal isolates with each other in terms of mortality and mycoses. Before performing ANOVA, all data were evaluated in terms of variance homogeneity using Levene statistics, and all percentage data were subjected to arcsin transformation. Calculation of LC50 and LC90 values were performed by probit analysis. Pearson's χ^2 statistic for goodness-of-fit test was then calculated to evaluate a significant fit between the observed and expected regression models. All data obtained were analyzed using SPSS 16.0 statistical software.

Results

Twenty-four fungal isolates were obtained from 43 soil samples and 55.8% of soil samples were positive with respect to the presence of entomopathogenic fungi. Localities, geographic coordinates and Gen-Bank accession numbers for all isolates are given in Supplementary Table S1. Based on their colony morphologies and macroscopic characters, all isolates were placed in two genera as *Beauveria* and *Metarhizium*. ITS gene sequence analysis also confirmed the

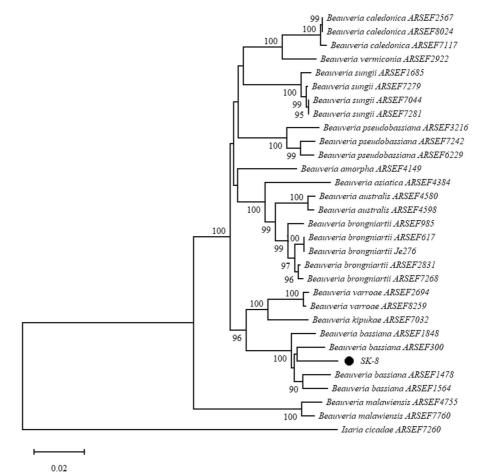


morphological characterization and the isolates were identified as Beauveria bassiana (SK-1, SK-5, SK-8, SK-14, SK-16, SK-17, SK-28, SK-40, and SK-45) and Metarhizium sp. (SK-3, SK-9, SK-10, SK-12, SK-15, SK-21, SK-22, SK-24, SK-27, SK-29, SK-37, SK-42, SK-47, SK-49, and SK-50) (Supplementary Table S2). Recent phylogenetic studies on Beauveria and Metarhizium genera showed that some species in these genera are morphologically similar but phylogenetically distinct (Rehner et al. 2011; Bischoff et al. 2009). To differentiate these similar species, different gene regions other than ITS should be used in phylogenetic analysis. Therefore, bloc, rpb1 and tef gene sequences were used for further characterization of the isolate SK-8 which was the most effective isolate in the screening tests and used in the field trial. Isolate SK-8 was compared with the reference strains in the study of Rehner et al. (2011) and the concatenated tree generated using bloc, rpb1 and tef gene

sequences showed that the isolate SK-8 was identical to *B. bassiana* (Fig. 1).

In the screening test against adults, significant differences were found amongst isolates and the highest mortalities were obtained from B. bassiana SK-1, SK-5, SK-8, SK-14, SK-16, SK-17, SK-28, SK-45 and Metarhizium sp. SK-9, SK-10, SK-15, SK-21, SK-22, SK-24, SK-27, SK-29, SK-47, SK-49 (F24,50 = 6.85, p < 0.001). Among these, nine isolates (B. bassiana SK-1, SK-8, SK-16, SK-17, SK-28 and Metarhizium sp. SK-10, SK-22, SK-24, and SK-49) caused mortalities ranging from 96 to 83% and they were significantly different from the control (F24,50=6.85, p < 0.001). The other isolates caused different mortalities (F24,50 = 6.85, p < 0.001) and they were not different from the control. In terms of mycosis, significant differences were found amongst isolates (F24,50 = 11.11, p < 0.001). The highest mycosis values were

Fig. 1 The concatenated tree showing the phylogenetic position of the isolate SK-8 and the reference strains in the study of Rehner et al. (2011) based on the concatenated sequences of bloc, rpb1 and tef gene regions. The tree was constructed using neighborjoining (N-J) analysis with p-distance correction. The bootstrap analysis was based on 1.000 pseudoreplicates and bootstrap values with > 70% are indicated. The solid black circle indicates isolate SK-8. The scale at the bottom represents genetic distances in nucleotide substitutions per site





obtained from *B. bassiana* SK-5, SK-8, SK-16, SK-17, and SK-28 (F24,50=11.11, p < 0.001) and they were significantly different from the control. The other isolates caused different mycosis values (F24,50=11.11, p < 0.001) and they were not different from the control (Fig. 2).

In the screening test against 3rd and 4th instar larvae, significant differences were found amongst isolates. The highest mortalities were obtained from B. bassiana SK-1, SK-5, SK-8, SK-14, SK-16, SK-17, SK-28, SK-40, SK-45 and Metarhizium sp. SK-3, SK-10, SK-12, SK-15, SK-24, SK-27, SK-29, SK-37, SK-42, SK-47, SK-49, SK-50 (F24,50=5.82, p<0.001), ranging from 100 to 63% and all of them were different from the control, except for SK-5, SK-9, SK-21 and SK-22. The other isolates caused different mycosis values (F24,50=5.82, p<0.001) and they were not different from the control. In terms of mycosis, significant differences were found amongst isolates (F24,50=7.11, p<0.001). Nine isolates (B. bassiana SK-1, SK-8, SK-16, SK-17, SK-28, SK-40, SK-45 and *Metarhizium* sp. SK-3, SK-27) caused the highest mycosis values and four of them (SK-8, SK-17, SK-28, and SK-45) were significantly different from the control (F24,50=7.11, p<0.001). The other isolates caused different mycosis values (F24,507.11, p < 0.001) and they were not different from the control (Fig. 3).

 LC_{50} values for isolate SK-8 in the outdoor tests were estimated as 3.42×10^6 and 1.15×10^7 conidia ml⁻¹ for adults and larvae, respectively. LC_{90} values were estimated as 1.12×10^9 and 4.08×10^{10} conidia ml⁻¹ for adults and larvae, respectively (Table 1).

Discussion

All fungal isolates examined had some degree of pathogenicity for both larvae and adult CPB, with considerable variability in response to the one dose used (1×10^7) conidia ml⁻¹. Several isolates caused 80% or greater mortality under the conditions of the assays. Fungal outgrowth and sporulation were also variable among the isolates. The isolate selected for outdoor evaluation on sprayed, insect infested plants, demonstrated good efficacy. Storch and Dill (1987) tested *B. bassiana* (5×10^{12} and 5×10^{13} CFU ha⁻¹) against CPB in the field and concluded that adequate control of *L. decemlineata* in Maine using *B. bassiana* may be possible considering defoliation rate, average yield of tubers and the number of Colorado

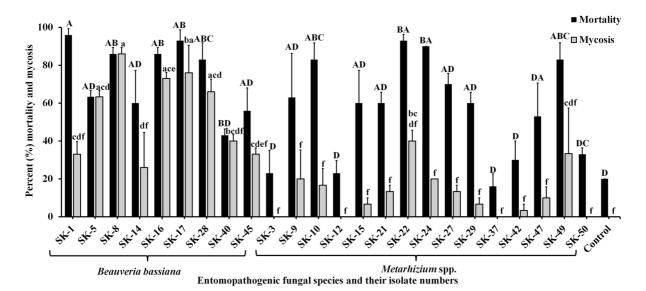
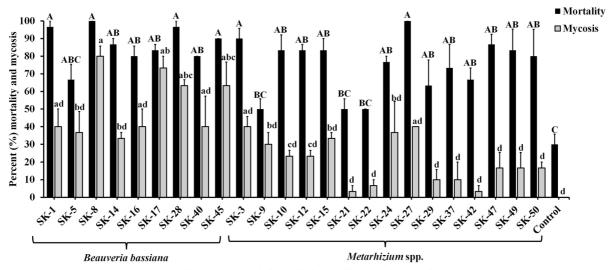


Fig. 2 Percent mortality (+ SE) and mycosis of CPB adults after exposure of different fungal isolates obtained from soil samples in potato fields within 15 days. 1×10^7 conidia ml⁻¹ spore suspensions were applied to adults. Mortality values was calculated using the Abbott's formula (Abbott 1925). The dif-

ferent uppercase and lowercase letters represent the statistical difference among isolates with respect to mortality and mycosis, respectively, according to LSD multiple comparison test (p < 0.001). 0.01% Tween 80 was used as the control group





Entomopathogenic fungal isolates and their isolate numbers

Fig. 3 Percent mortality (+ SE) and mycosis of CPB larvae after exposure of different fungal isolates obtained from soil samples in potato fields within 15 days. 1×10^7 conidia ml⁻¹ spore suspensions were applied to larvae. Mortality values was calculated using the Abbott's formula (Abbott 1925). The dif-

ferent uppercase and lowercase letters represent the statistical difference among isolates with respect to mortality and mycosis, respectively, according to LSD multiple comparison test (p < 0.001). 0.01% Tween 80 was used as the control group

Table 1 Summary of probit analysis parameters from the virulence bioassays performed with different doses of *Beauveria bassiana* isolate SK-8 against adult and larvae of CPB under field conditions

Development stage	Intercept ± SE	Slope \pm SE ^a	LC ₅₀ (95% fiducial limits)	LC ₉₀ (95% fiducial limits)	Pearson goodness of fit test ^b		
					${\chi^2}$	df	p
Adult	-3.326 ± 0.541	0.509 ± 0.086	3.42×10^{6} $(1.25 \times 10^{6} - 1.15 \times 10^{7})$	1.12×10^9 $(1.73 \times 10^8 - 3.74 \times 10^{10})$	1.045	3	> 0.05
Larvae	-2.550 ± 0.509	0.361 ± 0.080	$1.15 \times 10^7 $ $(2.8 \times 10^6 - 1.21 \times 10^8)$	$4.08 \times 10^{10} $ $(1.49 \times 10^9 - 1.36 \times 10^{14})$	0.665	3	> 0.05

^aSlope of the concentration response of adult and larvae of CPB to *B. bassiana* isolate SK-8

potato beetle egg masses and adults. Poprawski et al. (1997) applied the unformulated conidia of *B. bassi-* ana (5×10^{13}) viable conidia (5×10^{13}) viable conidia (5×10^{13}) as four rapid (at three -to four day intervals) and early season (at the green row and touch in row growth stages of potato) foliar applications. They determined the rate of mycosis in larval populations at >90% two days after the last *B. bassiana* application. Öztürk et al. (2015) tested four different entomopathogenic fungi, three of which were *B. bassiana*, on 2nd and 3rd instar larvae, 4th instar larvae and adults of CPB by spray and leaf

dipping methods using the conidial concentration of 1×10^8 conidia ml⁻¹. In both application methods, all three isolates reached 100% mortality against 2nd, 3rd and 4th larval instars within seven days while the highest mortalities were 86.2% for spray method and 69% for leaf dipping method against adults within the same time. Puza et al. (2021) applied *B. bassiana* (1.72×10¹¹ spores per plot (25.2 m²)) against CPB in the field and they determined that the fungus reduced the number of emerging adults by 30% compared to the control sites within 14 days. Baki et al. (2021)



^bPearson $\chi 2$ goodness-of-fit test on the probit model. There is no significant difference between the observed and expected regression models (p>0.05)

tested 14 different indigenous isolates of B. bassiana $(1 \times 10^7 \text{ conidia ml}^{-1})$ against different developmental stages of CPB under laboratory conditions and stated that four isolates were highly virulent causing mortalities between 91.7 and 100% in larvae and between 93.3 and 96.7% in adults within nine days. In addition, these four isolates had the most egg hatching inhibitory effects. To improve the efficacy of B. bassiana, Anderson et al. (1989) tested B. bassiana on CPB with five insecticide formulations and found that the fungus and insecticides (abamectin, triflumuron, thuringiensin, carbaryl and fenvalerate) were more effective than their use alone when used together. Similarly, Furlong and Groden (2001) determined a synergy between B. bassiana and imidacloprid. Also, Wraight and Ramos (2005) combined B. bassiana with Btt (Bacillus thuringiensis subsp. tenebrionis) and showed that the combination of the fungus and bacterium provided a significant reduction in larval populations of CPB. All these studies show that B. bassiana can have good potential in the control of CPB. B. bassiana SK-8, which was evaluated in this study, and was shown to be effective on larvae and adults of CPB under both laboratory and field conditions. The choice and application of native isolates may reduce future environmental impacts formed by selection pressure when new species of an organism are introduced into an environment. Moreover, native isolates might be adapted to local climatic conditions and can survive local conditions (Bilgo et al. 2018). For this reason, Turkish isolate B. bassiana SK-8 seems to be a good candidate for further studies in the control of CPB.

It is interesting to mention that the isolate SK-8 scored promising LC_{50} (1.15×10⁷ and 3.42×10⁶ conidia ml⁻¹) and LC_{90} (4.08×10¹⁰ and 1.12×10⁹ conidia ml⁻¹) values against both larvae and adults of CPB compared to commercially formulated *B. bassiana* [Botanigard® 22WP (Lam International Co., Butte, MT, USA)] which is registered for use in the USA and other regions on potatoes production. Botanigard® 22WP contains 4.4×10^{13} conidia kg⁻¹. The label of this product states maximum concentration of the *Beauveria* formulation 62.5 g per 100 l, which equals 2.75×10^7 conidia ml⁻¹, with a maximum application rate of 1.500 l spray ha⁻¹.

Entomopathogenic fungal isolates represent different genotypes under the different field conditions, and these genotypes can interact with each other, host populations, and their environment (Meyling and Eilenberg 2007). In this sense, it is possible to say that the populations of B. bassiana and Metarhizium spp. are affected by both abiotic and biotic factors in the habitat, separated into different genetic groups according to these factors and adapted to the particular environmental conditions. For instance, Bidochka et al. (2002) showed that a genetic group of B. bassiana was associated with agricultural areas, two groups were associated with forest habitats, and the last group was associated with Canadian Arctic. In the same study, certain relationships such as growth at different temperatures and UV resistance were found between different groups of B. bassiana. In addition, Bidochka et al. (2001) showed that the same relationship among B. bassiana populations was also found in M. anisopliae populations in Canada. A similar study was conducted between different species of Metarhizium spp. and a high genetic variability between Metarhizium spp. isolates was detected in terms of conidial thermotolerance. M. anisopliae var. anisopliae and M. flavoviridae isolates were shown to be more sensitive to heat than M. anisopliae var. acridum isolates. Conversely, in the same study, many Metarhizium spp. isolates were inactive at low temperatures (Fernandes et al. 2010). Maurer et al. (1997) studied the genetic diversity of 38 B. bassiana isolates obtained from different geographical regions and insect orders. They determined that B. bassiana isolates was divided into different groups according to their host range. Wang et al. (2005) showed a certain relationship among B. bassiana, obtained from different geographical regions with respect to their geographical origin. Fernandes et al. (2009) also showed a clear genomic difference between Brazilian and USA B. bassiana isolates and larger geographical distances were associated with higher genetic distances. More importantly, even local populations of entomopathogenic fungi can be separated into different genetic groups according to their local habitats. For example, Meyling et al. (2006) determined that only a certain group of B. bassiana was found in organic farming areas in Denmark, while the other five groups existed in hedgerows adjacent to these farmlands and were genetically separated. Considering all these studies, it might be important to obtain indigenous biological control agents adapted to a specific or local environment, and the use of indigenous isolates may be more effective than non-local isolates,



cost considerations aside (Alfiky 2022; Klingen et al. 2015; Sevim et al. 2010a). In this study, entomopathogenic fungi (especially B. bassiana and Metarhizium spp.) were widely found in soils of potato fields (55.8%). Considering that the isolates obtained from this study could be adapted to both biotic and abiotic factors in the environment in which they survive, it should be advantageous to use them against potato pests, especially CPB, in the study region under both inoculative and conservation biological control strategies. Moreover, after application of the fungus on a large scale, the fungus may survive in the soil environment for a long time, and this should be advantageous against soil-dwelling larvae and overwintering adults. But it should be noted that fungal persistence in the soil is very variable and can be affected by many factors (Jaronski 2010).

Consequently, various entomopathogenic fungi were isolated from soil samples in potato fields and they were tested against adults and larvae of CPB under laboratory conditions. The most effective isolate was determined to be *B. bassiana* SK-8 and it was further characterized by multilocus phylogeny using *bloc*, *rpb1* and *tef* gene sequences and its efficacy was evaluated in field trials. As a result, the indigenous isolate *B. bassiana* SK-8 appears to be a promising agent in the control of CPB. However, further studies such as horizontal transmission, the susceptibility to certain environmental factors and predisposition to mass production should be performed.

Acknowledgements Not applicable

Author contributions AS conceived and supervised the study, designed experiments, and edited the manuscript; SK performed fungal isolation and preparation of stock cultures; SK and AB performed fungal identification and initial screening tests; SK, AB, AK, and TÇ performed the outdoor tests; SK collected the data; AS performed all analyses of the related data, wrote the manuscript, and revised it. All authors read and approved the final version of the manuscript.

Funding This study was supported by The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey (TUBITAK) under the project application number of 1919B012001809.

Data availability Data and materials are available upon request.

Declarations

Conflict interest The authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

Ethical approval There are no ethical concerns about this publication.

Research involving human and animal rights This article does not contain any studies with human participants or animals (vertebrate) performed by any of the authors.

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