

**ESTABLISHMENT OF AN EXOTIC PARASITOID *COTESIA*  
*VESTALIS*, (HYMENOPTERA: BRACONIDAE) IN  
SELECTED STUDY SITES AS A BIOLOGICAL CONTROL  
AGENT OF DIAMONDBACK MOTH, *PLUTELLA*  
*XYLOSTELLA L.* (LEPIDOPTERA: PLUTELLIDAE) IN  
KENYA**

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**Establishment of an exotic parasitoid *Cotesia vestalis*, (Hymenoptera:  
Braconidae) in selected study sites as a biological control agent of  
Diamondback Moth, *Plutella xylostella* L. (Lepidoptera: Plutellidae) in  
Kenya**

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Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology**

**2022**

**DECLARATION**

.....This is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university

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## **DEDICATION**

This work is dedicated to my dear son, Abel and my loving family for their encouragement,  
and for supporting me tirelessly during the entire MSc journey.

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## ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

<b>DBM</b>	Diamondback moth
<b>GPS</b>	Geographic Positioning System
<b>ICIPE</b>	International Centre for Insect Physiology and Ecology
<b>PCR</b>	Polymerase Chain Reaction
<b>DNA</b>	Deoxyribonucleic acid
<b>COI</b>	Cytochrome oxidase I
<b>ITS</b>	Internal Transcribed Spacer regions
<b><i>Bt</i></b>	<i>Bacillus thuringiensis</i>

## ABSTRACT

The diamondback moth *Plutella xylostella* (L) is a serious pest of cruciferous crops in most parts of the world. Use of chemical pesticides has been the main method adopted by farmers in a bid to control this pest. However, with the indiscriminate pesticide use, this pest has developed resistance to several insecticides. Moreover, insecticides are hazardous to the environment, consumers, sprayers as well as beneficial insects. Biological control using natural enemies has been suggested as an important component in the integrated management of the *P. xylostella*. In an effort to control the pest and minimize insecticide misuse, ICIPE was involved in a classical biological control project that involved importation and release of *Cotesia vestalis* from South Africa into the lowlands of Kenya in 2004. However, a survey carried out two years later indicated that the parasitoid had not established since only few parasitoids were recovered from the sites of release. Additional releases were done in Kwale, Kajiado, Kitui, Machakos and Makueni counties. The objectives of this study were to follow-up on the establishment and parasitism rates of the released *C. vestalis*, to characterize the samples through molecular techniques and identify factors affecting its establishment. Surveys were carried out in five Counties of Kenya: Kajiado, Kitui, Makueni, Machakos and Kwale County where sampling of ten randomly selected cabbages or kales per farm and collection of parasitoid pupa and the *P. xylostella* larvae and pupa. The numbers of *P. xylostella* and the parasitoids that emerged from the collected samples were recorded and the data was used to calculate the parasitism rate by *C. vestalis*. A well-structured questionnaire was used to collect information on cultural practices and farmers knowledge on use of natural enemies in pest management. The study showed that *C. vestalis* had established in its release sites but its parasitism rates remain very low, molecular techniques confirmed that the samples were *Cotesia vestalis* and cultural practices affecting establishment were irrigation, intercropping and use of pesticides. Therefore, farmers need to reduce the use of chemical insecticides and adopt more use of *Bt* products, increase farmers knowledge on biological control and adopt use of trap crops.

# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Background to the study

Cabbages are very important in the Kenyan diet and also important for the local economy. Cabbages (*Brassica oleraceae* var *capitata*) belong to the cruciferae family which also include other economically important crops such as kales, broccoli and cauliflower (Varela *et al.*, 2003; Macharia, Löhr & De Groote, 2005). Cabbage is rich in carbohydrates, proteins, vitamin A and C, iron, riboflavin, calcium and phosphorous (Raemaekers *et al.*, 2001).

Production of cabbage is done for both subsistence use and income generation (Macharia *et al.*, 2005; Wambani *et al.*, 2007). Globally, cabbage is produced on approximately 2.5 million ha of land with China ranked as the largest grower on 980,914 ha while India was the second on 400,140 ha of land (FAOSTAT, 2014). Cabbages are also widely grown in North Korea (Grossrieder *et al.*, 2005), Thailand (Rowell *et al.*, 2005), Nigeria (Elizabeth & Zira, 2009), Ghana (Ezena, 2015) and Benin (Cherry, 2004). Additionally, the crops are very important smallholder subsistence crops in Ethiopia, Zimbabwe, Mozambique, Tanzania, Uganda, Malawi, and Kenya having 90% of their production on 0.1–0.5 ha plots (Ayalew *et al.*, 2002; Macharia *et al.*, 2005; Löhr *et al.*, 2007). Cabbage production is done during both the rainy and dry seasons (Badenes-Perez & Shelton, 2006; Cobblah *et al.*, 2012).

However, successful production of crucifers is constrained by high cost of inputs such as pesticides, insect pests, diseases and shortage of good quality irrigation water (Hines & Hutchison, 2001; Löhr *et al.*, 2007). The common diseases affecting cabbage production include; *Alternaria* leaf spot (*Alternaria ssp*), black rot (*Xanthomonas campestris* pv. *Campestris*), blackleg (*Leptosphaeria maculans*), fusarium yellows (*Fusarium oxysporum* f. *conglutinens*) and downy mildew (*Peronospora parasitica*) (Massomo *et al.*, 2005; Wakeham & Kennedy, 2010). On the other hand, the economic pests of cabbages include; cabbage aphids (*Brevicoryne brassicae* Linnaeus), Diamondback Moth (*Plutella xylostella* Linnaeus), cabbage whitefly (*Pieris brassicae* Linnaeus) and the cutworms (*Agrotis ipsilon* Hufnagel) (Badenes-Perez & Shelton, 2006; Munthali, 2009). The Diamondback Moth larvae are considered the most important pest in cabbage production worldwide (Sarfraz & Keddie, 2005; Badenes-Perez & Shelton, 2006). Infestations by this pest result in huge crop losses of up to 80% and 98% in China and Kenya respectively (Shelton *et al.*, 2000; Macharia *et al.*, 2005).

In an effort to control *P. xylostella*, farmers rely heavily on insecticides and application frequencies keep rising every year (Macharia *et al.*, 2005). This pesticide usage has various shortcomings; they are expensive (Zalucki *et al.*, 2012), develop resistance (Luogen *et al.*, 2005; Sarfraz *et al.*, 2005) and contribute in elimination of natural enemies (Kfir & Thomas, 2001a; Dobson *et al.*, 2002). Exposure of *Diadegma insulare* to permethrin caused high mortality while exposure to spinosad resulted in 100% mortality (Hill & Foster, 2000).

Considering these negative impacts and reduced control efficacy of insecticides, it is evident that it is not a sustainable option for farmers. Therefore, farmers ought to adopt cheaper, more effective and environmentally friendly options by using Integrated Pest Management (IPM) with strong focus in incorporation of biological control measures (Sarfraz *et al.*, 2005).

## 1.2 Statement of the Problem

The major constrain in crucifer production in East Africa has been *P. xylostella*, with the pest threat in Kenya rating at 75% and 69% on kale and cabbages respectively resulting in 25% -65 % of the production cost going into pest control (Oruku & Ndung'u, 2001). Use of pesticides in their management has not been effective and the parasitism rates by indigenous parasitoids have been below 15% in East Africa; evidence that the local parasitoids have been ineffective , necessitating introduction of more effective exotic parasitoids (Nyambo & Pekke, 1995; Lohr & Gathu, 2002; Lohr & Kfir, 2004).

This prompted a classical biological control effected by ICIPE through introduction of *Diadegma semiclausum* from Taiwan in 2001 to Kenya and Uganda leading to establishment and effective management of *P. xylostella* in the highlands and parasitism rates of 60% in Kenya (Löhr *et al.*, 2007; Gichini *et al.*, 2008). Another parasitoid; *C. vestalis* from South Africa was introduced into the East African mid-altitude and they established in Uganda but despite repeated releases in Kenya, very low parasitism rates (0.5-26.9%) were recorded (Nyambo *et al.*, 2008; Kahuthia-Gathu, 2012). Although studies confirm establishment of *C. vestalis* at the release sites, most of them relied on morphological identification.

Accurate identification of natural enemies is key to the success of biological control programs and past failures in pest control have often been attributed to the introduction or release of an incorrectly identified wasp species (Huber *et al.*, 2001). The genus *Diadegma* had some taxonomic dilemma (Fitton & Walker, 1992) such as when *Diadegma insulare* from Kenya was imported and released in Hawaii, but failed to establish and it was later identified as *D. semiclausum* (Wagener *et al.*, 2004) . Moreover, in 2000, all African *Diadegma* species were classified as *Diadegma mollipla* based on common morphological characters (Azidah, Fitton & Quicke, 2000) but Wagener *et al.* (2004) separated them into seven different *Diadegma* species using PCR- RFLP. There is also evidence of distinct biological differences between some populations of *C. vestalis*, (Rincon *et al.*, 2004) . Therefore, with the existing misidentification and the pre-1950 data being considered unreliable (Furlong, Wright & Dodsall, 2013) molecular techniques can reliably identify and separate biologically distinct but morphologically identical populations (Traugott *et al.*, 2006). An additional release of *C. vestalis* in Kwale County in 2013 (Unpublished data) resulted in very low parasitism rates.



This prompted the need to: follow-up on establishment of the South African strain of *C. vestalis* in Kenya, understand the genetic identity of *C. vestalis* found in the region since integrative taxonomy of the parasitoids had not been carried out in Kenya, evaluate its parasitism rates and establish factors that could affect its establishment.

### **1.3 Justification of the study**

The current limitations of pesticide use has led to development and implementation of biological control which has been successful such as the classical biological control in St. Helena (a small British island in the South Atlantic Ocean), which eliminated the need for pesticides in management of *P. xylostella* (Kfir & Thomas, 2001). Therefore, *C. vestalis* has been ranked as the most abundant and the only effective parasitoid in the lowlands of the tropics (Talekar & Shelton, 1993) with wide use in biological control programs worldwide (Delvare, Kirk & Bordet, 2004; Talekar, 2004). Moreover, the South African biotype of *C. vestalis* appears to be the most effective because of its abundance in both low and high altitude, its dominance despite hyperparasitism, its high parasitism rates exceeding 90% in South Africa and adaptability to a wide range of temperatures (8.14-33°C) (Liu *et al.*, 2000; Lohr & Kfir, 2004; Nofemela, 2004).

A solution to shortcomings of morphological identification is the use of molecular methods that reliably identify different species (Wagener *et al.*, 2004; Traugott *et al.*, 2006). Molecular identification can improve the success of future biological control programs due to correct identification of species (Whitfield *et al.*, 2002).

Therefore, from the above stated evidence, the study will help to understand the genetic identity of *C. vestalis* found in Kenya, its contribution in suppressing *P. xylostella* densities and factors affecting its' establishment and consequently be helpful in improving biological control for effective management of *P. xylostella*.

#### **1.4 Hypothesis**

- i. The exotic parasitoid of *P. xylostella*, namely *C. vestalis* released in Kwale, Kajiado, Kitui, Machakos and Makueni County has not established in the release sites.
- ii. The parasitism of *P. xylostella* by *C. vestalis* in Kwale, Kajiado, Kitui, Machakos and Makueni counties of Kenya is not high.
- iii. Cultural practices limits establishment of *C. vestalis* in Kwale, Kajiado, Kitui, Machakos and Makueni County.

#### **1.5 General Objective**

To determine the establishment of the exotic parasitoid; *C. vestalis* in and around their release sites in five counties in Kenya; Kwale, Kajiado, Kitui, Machakos and Makueni Counties for biological control of *P. xylostella*.

#### **1.6 Specific Objectives**

- i. To determine the establishment and parasitism rates of *C. vestalis* on *P. xylostella* in Kwale, Kajiado, Kitui, Machakos and Makueni County.
- ii. To characterize the *C. vestalis* found in Kwale, Kajiado, Kitui, Machakos and Makueni County using molecular tools.
- iii. To determine cultural factors affecting the establishment of *C. vestalis* in Kwale, Kajiado, Kitui, Machakos and Makueni County.

#### **1.7 Scope of the Study**

The study was carried out to determine the establishment and parasitism rates of *P. xylostella* by *C. vestalis* in the various release sites in Kenya namely; Kwale, Kajiado, Kitui, Machakos and Makueni County, species identification of *C. vestalis* using molecular tools and cultural factors affecting its establishment. The study involved a survey in Kwale, Kitui, Makueni, Machakos and Kajiado Counties in 2015 and 2016. Questionnaires were used to collect information on cultural practices in crucifer farms that were visited. Additionally, Molecular work using PCR was done on *C. vestalis* samples collected to confirm its establishment after its release.

## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.1 Overview of *Plutella xylostella*

The Diamondback Moth is a slender, grayish-brown moth with a light-brown colored band that form three-diamond shaped markings along the back when it fold its wings (Figure 2.1), hence its name (Capinera, 2001). Shaw, (2003) scientifically classified Diamondback Moth in the Plutellidae family, *Plutella* genus and *xylostella* (L.) species.



**Figure 2.1:** Image of *P. xylostella* adult (Greenlife, 2022)

##### 2.1.1 Origin and distribution of *Plutella xylostella*

The origin of *P. xylostella* is believed to be the Mediterranean region (Talekar & Shelton, 1993). However, some believe that its origin could be in southern Africa based on presence of the highest parasitoid diversity (Kfir, 1998, 1997), long history of crucifer vegetable production (Schippers *et al.*, 2000) and presence of wide range of indigenous cruciferous species in the region (Lohr and Kfir, 2004). The distribution of *P. xylostella* is cosmopolitan (Obeng -Ofori *et al.*, 2007 ; Pratisoli *et al.*, 2008). The *P. xylostella* is the most abundant pest in Florida (Webb, 2004) and gained economic importance over time in Kenya and Ethiopia (Kibata, 1997; Ayalew *et al.*, 2002; Löhr *et al.*, 2007).

### 2.1.2 Biology of *Plutella xylostella*

According to Alizadeh *et al.* (2011), *P. xylostella* has four life stages: egg, larva (four instars), pupa and adult (Figure 2.2). The moth lays oval, flattened, yellowish eggs mostly on the underside of the leaves. After eggs hatch, the pale yellow first instars feed on the leaves' spongy mesophyll tissues, the pale green older ones feed and cause windowing of leaves by chewing on the lower leaf surfaces while the dark green late instars feed on all leaf tissues skeletonizing the plant. It's larvae have a characteristic violent wriggling when disturbed and typically drops from the plant while suspended on a silken thread (Sarfraz *et al.*, 2005). The last larval instar pupates on the lower or outer leaves. The pre-pupa and the pupa stages do not feed. Females lay an average of 323 eggs during their 10-day oviposition period (Webb, 2004; Alizadeh *et al.*, 2011). Development time is dependent on temperature and decrease linearly at temperatures between 10°C and 30°C (Marchioro & Foerster, 2011).



**Figure 2.2: Life cycle of *P. xylostella*** (Hermansson, 2016)

### 2.1.3 Economic Importance of *Plutella xylostella*

The economic importance of *P. xylostella* is based on its pest status on cruciferous crops (Capinera, 2001). Its host range include crucifer vegetable such as Cabbages (*Brassica oleraceae* var *capitata*) and kales (*Brassica oleraceae* var *acephala*) as well as wild species such as *Raphanus raphanistrum*, *Rorippa micrantha*, *Brassica juncea*, *Erucastrum arabicum* and *Rorippa nudiuscula* which act as refugia in absence of the crucifer vegetable crops (Reddy *et al.*, 2004; Kahuthia-Gathu, 2007; Löhr *et al.*, 2007).

The *P. xylostella* larvae is the damaging stage which chew cabbage leaves and cabbage heads causing deformation (Figure 2.3) and forming entry points for decay pathogens (Webb,

2004). Infestations by this pest result in huge crop losses worldwide with direct losses and control costs being approximated at US\$1 billion (Grzywacz *et al.*, 2010) and US\$1.4 billion annual losses for cruciferous vegetables only (Zalucki *et al.*, 2012).



**Figure 2.3: Image of *P. xylostella* damages on cabbage** (A. M. Varela, icipe )  
(Infonetbiovision, n.d)

In India 70%-90% crop losses were experienced (Sandur, 2004; Webb, 2004) while 80% - 100% losses were incurred in China and Australia in absence of control measures (Shelton *et al.*, 2000). Huge annual crop losses amounting to \$6 million and \$8 million were incurred in California and Australia respectively (Shelton *et al.*, 2000). In India, 50% losses were incurred, management using insecticides costs up to \$US34 million and a further \$US20 million was used annually on spray labour (Sandur, 2004; Badenes-Perez & Shelton, 2006). Yield losses in Kenya amounted to approximately 6.8 tons/ha which added up to US\$ 7.9 million annual losses and a further US\$1 billion/annum in management costs (Macharia *et al.*, 2005; Zalucki *et al.*, 2012).

## **2.2 Management of *Plutella xylostella***

There are many ways of controlling DBM and these can be categorized into chemical, physical and bio-control.

### **2.2.1 Chemical management of *Plutella xylostella***

Use of conventional insecticides has been the most commonly used strategy in the management of *P. xylostella* worldwide (Kwon *et al.*, 2006; Miranda, 2011). However, this has resulted in widespread development of resistance to virtually all classes of insecticides including carbamates, abamectins, organophosphates, and pyrethroids (Khaliq *et al.*, 2007; Oliveira *et al.*, 2011; Pu *et al.*, 2010; Talekar & Shelton, 1993). Additionally, *P. xylostella*

was the first species reported to have developed field resistance to *Bacillus thuringiensis* (Bt) Cry toxins (Talekar & Shelton, 1993) and progressive increase in development of resistance was reported in Hubei, Hunan, and Guangdong provinces of china (Jiang *et al.*, 2015; Xia *et al.*, 2014).

### **2.2.2 Cultural management of *Plutella xylostella***

Intercropping of cabbages with other crops restricts the pest insects' ability to locate and colonize the main crop by interfering with the identification of the right host plants (Talekar & Shelton, 1993). Generally, *P. xylostella* population was lower in cabbages intercropped with onions, tomatoes and pepper compared to pure cabbage stands (Luchen, 2012; Warwick, *et al.*, 2010). Tomato plants have a repelling odour which distrupts oviposition, resulting in a reduction in pest infestation (Silva-Aguayo, 2007).

Trap crops have also been used in management of *P. xylostella*. In general, the attractiveness of the trap crop as well as the proportion of trap crops the field are important factors in the success of a trap cropping system and low proportions of trap crops in a field may not be sufficient to reduce insect pest populations significantly (Badenes-Perez, Nault & Shelton, 2005; Shelton & Badenes-Perez, 2006). In situations in which trap cropping was successfully implemented, it provided sustainable and long-term management solutions to control difficult pests (Asman, 2002; Charleston & Kfir, 2000).

The use of overhead irrigation also lowers *P. xylostella* infestation. Overhead irrigation in required amounts on head cabbage was reported to have lower DBM infestation than drip or furrow-irrigated crops (Capinera, 2002; Christopher, 2020).

### **2.2.3 Biological Control of *Plutella xylostella***

Biological control is the use of natural enemies such as predators, entomopathogens and parasitoids in management of a pest. Biological control such as the use of parasitoids has several advantages as opposed to use of insecticide which include; no development of resistance, being environmentally friendly, self-perpetuating, self-dispersing and have a long-term effect (Van Lenteren *et al.*, 2003; Bale *et al.*, 2008). On the other hand, they have their limitations; they take time to establish, are slower in killing their host and high initial costs are involved in the process of their introduction (Bale *et al.*, 2008).

Integrated pest management of *P. xylostella* with strong biological control focus is currently suggested as the best option to overcome pesticide overuse by farmers (Hill & Foster, 2000). Integrated Pest Management (IPM) is a strategy of pest management that involves the



combination of biological, cultural and chemical control measures in an ecologically sound way to attain sustainable crop production. IPM focuses on long-term prevention or suppression of pest problems and it may include chemical control, but it seeks to minimize pesticide use so as to minimize their associated negative effects.

#### **2.2.3.1 DBM natural enemies: Entomopathogens**

DBM is attacked by a range of entomopathogens. Due to their specificity against target pests and minimal environmental impacts, microbial pest control agents (MPCAs) are welcome additions to IPM programs. The potential of various entomopathogens including bacteria, fungi, viruses, protozoa, and nematodes as biocontrol agents has been tested for DBM management.

Bacteria: Over 100 *Bt*-based pesticides have been introduced across the world (Glare, 2000). Although *P. xylostella* has shown some considerable resistance to Bt-based products (Sarfraz, 2004), *Bt* products are still effective in many crucifer producing regions and need to be used judiciously to conserve their efficacy (Braun *et al.*, 2004).

Use of fungal pathogens result in death of insects in a matter of days (Glare, 2000; Inglis *et al.*, 2001). Several species of fungal pathogens, including *Zoophthora radicans* (Brefeld) Batko, *Beauveria bassiana* (Balsamo) Vuillemin, and *Metarhizium anisopliae* (Metsch.) have been isolated from DBM and caused 100% DBM mortality after 3 - 7 days, (Cherry, 2004; Furlong *et al.*, 2004; Kirk *et al.*, 2004) and contaminated moths effectively transmit this fungus to healthy moths and larvae foraging on plants and are highly infective (Kirk *et al.*, 2004).

A number of baculoviruses have showed promising levels of pathogenicity to *P. xylostella* including a Kenyan isolate of PxGV (Nya-01) with 82 and 90% infection rates for second and first instars, respectively (Grzywacz *et al.*, 2001). Nematodes and microsporidia have also been reported to cause infection to DBM (Idris *et al.*, 2002; Idris & Grafius, 2001) such as the *Steinernema carpocapsae* (Weiser) which gave 41% control of *P. xylostella* in Hawaii while a microsporidian, *Vairimorpha sp.*, caused 100% mortality even at a dosage of  $1.5 \times 10^3$  spores per larva (Haque, Canning & Wright, 1999; Mason, Matthews & Wright, 1999).

#### **2.2.3.2 DBM natural enemies: Predators and parasitoids**

The *P. xylostella* has a wide range of parasitoids, with records of over 27 species among them being the pre-pupal, pupal and larval parasitoids in the *Cotesia*, *Diadegma*, *Diadromus*,

*Oomyzus* and the *Pteromalus* genus (Liu *et al.*, 2000; Kirk *et al.*, 2004). The, rates of parasitism of larvae and pupae were substantial and showed peaks of 60% and reached over 80% on a few occasions. Generally, the larval and pupal parasitoids such as *Cotesia vestalis*, *Diadegma insulare*, *Diadegma semiclausum*, *Diadromus collaris*, and *Oomyzus sokolowskii* showed the greatest control potential in control of DBM while the egg parasitoids had very little control (Talekar & Shelton, 1993).

There are four species of parasitoids are dominant in the Eastern Cape (South Africa) namely; *Diadegma mollipla* (Holmgren), *C. vestalis*, *D. collaris* and *O. sokolowskii* with parasitism rates that varied throughout the year ranging from 10 to 80% and even 100% when the DBM moths numbers were low ((Smith & Villet, 2001; Smith & Villet 2004). In China, *C. vestalis* and *O. sokolowskii* (Kurdj.) were considered the most predominant parasitoids (Liu *et al.* 2000).

In Ethiopia, *Diadegma spp.* and *Cotesia vestalis* were responsible for over 90% of observed parasitism (Ayalew *et al.* 2004). *Diadromus* species are primary prepupal and pupal parasitoids of DBM in various regions of the world including Canada (Braun *et.al* 2004), South Africa (Kfir, 1997; Kfir, 1998; Kirk *et al.*, 2004), China (Liu *et al.* 2000), India (Chauhan & Sharma, 2004), France, Turkey, Bulgaria, Georgia and Greece (Kirk *et al.*, 2004). Biological control has been carried out with different success rates. The use of *D. collaris* resulted in parasitism rates as high as 80% and 98% in North America and South Texas respectively (Hutchison *et al.*, 2001; Smith & Villet, 2003).

The solitary endoparasitoid, *Diadegma insulare* accounted for 70-90% parasitism under laboratory conditions (Monnerat *et al.*, 2002) and over 90% field parasitism rate in Texas (Legaspi *et al.*, 2000). On the other hand, the parasitoid species *C. vestalis*, *D. collaris* and *O. sokolowskii* had parasitism rates ranging from 10 to 60% in China (Liu *et al.*, 2000). In South Africa, *D. mollipla*, *C. vestalis*, *D. collaris* and *O. sokolowskii* recorded parasitism rates of 10-80% depending on the period of the year (Kfir & Thomas, 2001; Smith & Villet, 2003). The dominant parasitoid species in Ethiopia were *Diadegma sp* and *C. vestalis* which accounted for over 90% parasitism while *O. sokolowskii* accounted for only 1% parasitism rate (Ayalew *et al.*, 2006).

In East Africa, control of *P. xylostella* has concentrated on classical biological control using new parasitoid species and strains and conservation of natural enemies. Major initiatives by ICIPE involved introduction of *Diadegma semiclausum* from AVRDC in 2001 for highland



production and *Cotesia vestalis* from South Africa for the lowlands. Effective control was achieved by *D. semiclausum* since there was an increase in parasitism rates from 4.2% to 40.6% and a great decrease in pest density from 5.9 to 2.4 *P. xylostella* per plant three years after its release (Löhr *et al.*, 2007).

### **2.3 Overview of *Cotesia vestalis***

The parasitoid, *Cotesia vestalis* was initially named *Apanteles Foerster* by Cameron, reclassified into the *Cotesia* genus by Mason (Mason, 1981) and later renamed to *C. plutellae* by Fitton and Walker (1992). It belongs to the braconid family and the Microgastrinae subfamily (Fitton & Walker, 1992). Currently, it is known as *Cotesia vestalis* (Shaw, 2003).

The solitary parasitoid, *Cotesia vestalis* (Haliday) is the most common larval endoparasitoid of *P. xylostella* in several parts of the world including South Africa (Kawaguchi & Tanaka, 1999). Although *C. vestalis* has been reported to have a relatively wide host range, it is pre-dominantly viewed as a parasitoid of the *p. xylostella* (Shi, Liu & Li, 2002b). Cocoons production in the laboratory by *C vestalis* larvae was low (<than 10% successful parasitism) in nine host species (*Herpetogramma luctuosali*, *Hellula undalis*, *Ephestia kuehniella*, *Pyrausta panopealis*, *Helicoverpa armigera*, *Macdunnoughia confusa*, *Trichoplusia ni*, *Trichoplusia intermixta*, and *Zizeeria maha*) but no *C. vestalis* emerged from the larvae of those host species when collected in the field, revealing that they are rarely hosts of *C. vestalis* (Hiroyoshi *et al.*, 2017).

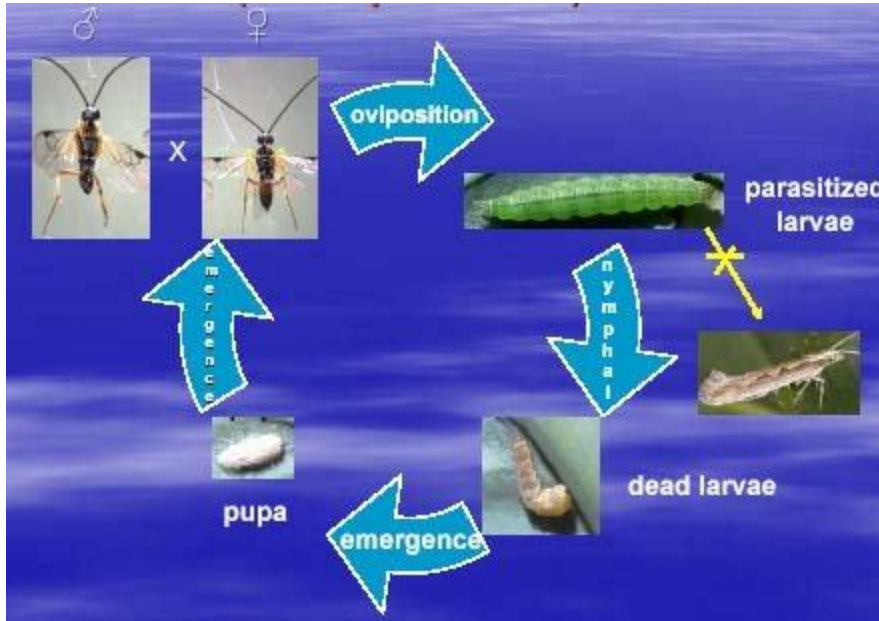
#### **2.3.1 Origin and Distribution of *Cotesia vestalis***

The solitary parasitoid, *Cotesia vestalis* is believed to have originated from Europe and later spread throughout the world (Talekar & Shelton, 1993). It is common in western and southern Africa and the most abundant parasitoid of *P. xylostella* in South Africa (Nofemela & Kfir, 2008). It is distributed throughout China, Pakistan, Thailand, India, Indonesia (Kfir, 1997; Liu *et al.*, 2000; Rowell *et al.*, 2005) and Taiwan (Talekar, 2004).

Furthermore, *C. vestalis* was introduced into Australia, Dominica, Fiji, Thailand and United States (DeAngelis & Waterhouse, 1987; Rowell *et al.*, 2005).It's also widely distributed in Africa including South Africa, St. Helena, Ghana, Ethiopia and Kenya (Kfir & Thomas, 2001; Ayalew *et al.*, 2002; Cobblah *et al.*, 2012; Kahuthia-Gathu, 2012).

### 2.3.2 Biology of *Cotesia vestalis*

Life stages of the *C. vestalis* include egg, larvae, pupa and the adult stage (Figure 2.4). Molting of the first two larval instars occurs inside the host whereas the third instar molts outside the host to pupate (Yu *et al.*, 2008).



**Figure 2.4: Life cycle of *Cotesia vestalis*** (Soyelu, 2010)

The life cycle of *C. vestalis* is as follows; females lay spindle-shaped eggs in *P. xylostella* larvae for up to 10 days and the eggs hatch into small larvae which undergo three larval instars. The first instar stage is caudate-mandibulate, pale with a large head and no defined segmentation. The second instar is vesiculate, greenish, have anal vesicle and form an exit hole on the host before entering the third instar stage. The third instar is hymeniptoriform, yellowish-green, lack the anal vesicle and form a cocoon immediately on exiting its host. The pre-pupa is bright yellow and has 13 segments and pupate in about a day. Its pupa is oval and white, emerging in an average of 5 days. The adult is black with transparent yellow legs, a wingspan about 6mm wide. Its average lifespan is 16days (Yu *et al.*, 2008; Alizadeh *et al.*, 2011). The *C. vestalis* preferably parasitizes the second and the third instars of *P.xylostella* and its development rate increases considerably with an increase in temperature (Nofemela, 2004).

### 2.3.3 Establishment and parasitism rates of *Cotesia vestalis*

The larval parasitoid, *Cotesia vestalis* Haliday (Hymenoptera: Braconidae), has been the

subject of many classical biological control introductions, and many of them have been successful (Talekar, 2004) including South Africa where it achieved a parasitism rate of 80% (Kfir & Thomas, 2001). Moreover, introduction of *C. vestalis* in St. Helena (a small British island the South Atlantic Ocean) from South Africa whereby farmers were advised to replace chemical insecticides with *B. thuringiensis* to maximize opportunities for parasitoid establishment resulted in establishment of *C. vestalis* with high parasitism rates (27.7-80%) (Kfir & Thomas, 2001; Rami, 2005). On the other hand, an initial introduction of *C. vestalis* into some countries of the Caribbean including Dominica, St. Lucia and Jamaica did not result in effective suppression of DBM but its reintroduction in Jamaica in 1989 was successful resulting in an increase in parasitism rates from 5.4% to 88.9% (Alam, 1992; Talekar & Shelton, 1993).

The *C. vestalis* is an indigenous parasitoid in Thailand and a parasitism rates of 54% was recorded (Rowell *et al.*, 2005). In Ghana, *C. vestalis*, constituted 92% of the parasitoid species (Cobblah *et al.*, 2012) and its parasitism rates in Ethiopia ranged from 3.6% to 58.2% (Ayalew *et al.*, 2002). In Kenya, introduction of *C. vestalis* in semi-arid midlands from South Africa, resulted in low parasitism rates (Löhr *et al.*, 2007; Kahuthia-Gathu, 2012)

### **2.3.3 *Cotesia vestalis* identification**

Traditionally, insect identification was based on external morphological features, by making use of the Linnaean taxonomy which classified living things into a hierarchy, originally starting with Kingdoms.

Over time, more user-friendly and versatile matrix based keys have been developed. For instance, the INTKEY for identification of economically important species of the *Cotesia* genus is very useful in identification of many species of *Cotesia* even for non-*Cotesia* taxonomists (Dallwitz, Paine & Zurcher, 1999). The key uses insect features such as the cocoon colour, the body length, antennae length, hind coxa colour, forewing colour and mesosoma shape to distinguish the various *Cotesia* species (Figure 2.5).

The features that distinguish *C. vestalis* from other *Cotesia* species include; solitary cocoons which are white or yellowish-white, the body being less than 3mm long, mesoscutum being rugose posteriorly, black hind coxa, long female antennae that are almost equal to the body length and pale translucent tegula that sharply contrast its darker mesoscutum among other distinguishing features (Dallwitz *et al.*, 1999; Long & Dzung, 2014).



**Figure 2.5: Pictorial identification of *Cotesia vestalis* including its forewing colour in the INT Key (Dallwitz *et al.*, 1999)**

Regardless of the usefulness of morphological identification, it has its limitations such as shortage of trained taxonomist, high costs of identification and poor taxonomic keys (Stein *et al.*, 2013). Following shortcomings of morphological identification, molecular techniques have been more reliable in identification of species and studies of hymenopteran species (Behura, 2006; Greenstone, 2006).

#### **2.4 Species identity of *Cotesia vestalis* using molecular tools**

Molecular techniques have been successfully used in facilitation of ecological as well as population genetics studies among hymenoptera (Caterino *et al.*, 2000; Behura, 2006; Greenstone, 2006). Molecular markers have been used in the study of braconid parasitoids (Hufbauer *et al.*, 2004) and are useful in discrimination of cryptic species (Hoy *et al.*, 2000; MacDonald & Loxdale, 2004). The molecular diagnostic approaches used include: specific PCR, DNA barcoding and microsatellite analysis which rely on PCR-based techniques that result in amplification of the specific DNA region targeted using molecular markers, to facilitate visualization of the product by gel electrophoresis (Garipey *et al.*, 2007).

DNA (Deoxyribonucleic acid) barcoding is the amplification and sequencing of a particular DNA fragment mainly the mitochondrial cytochrome oxidase I (COI) gene (Greenstone, 2006) to identify an organism by comparing the COI sequence of an unidentified specimen to DNA sequence databases of identified and characterized species. Therefore, DNA barcoding is useful in identification and classification of specimen (Greenstone, 2006) and is widely

used due to its ability to rapidly identify both unknown and cryptic species (Hebert *et al.*, 2003).

Different gene regions are targeted for molecular studies (Greenstone, 2006; Stouthamer, 2006) but the mitochondrial DNA(mtDNA) and the nuclear ribosomal DNA (rDNA) are the most popular (Garipey *et al.*, 2007). For the mtDNA, the most common genes used are the Cytochrome oxidase I and II, whereas for the rDNA the most common are the first and second internal transcribed spacer regions (ITS 1 and ITS 2) (Greenstone, 2006). The mtDNA is widely used in taxonomy, evolutionary and population genetic studies of hymenoptera parasitoids (Gasparich *et al.*, 1997).

The cytochrome c oxidase is a protein of electron transport chain in the mitochondria. The COI gene codes for two of seven polypeptide subunits in the cytochrome c oxidase complex and is composed of about 894 bp (Russo, Takezaki & Nei, 1996). The 5' partition of COI is used for the 'Barcoding of Life' initiative (Hebert *et al.*, 2003) and its 640 nucleotide region (Vrijenhoek, 1994) is used for accurate identification of specimens (Moritz & Cicero, 2004). COI is used as the universal barcode for animals (Garipey *et al.*, 2007). The mitochondrial COI is among the most commonly used markers since its transmission is strictly maternal with high mutation rate, slow changes in its amino-acid sequence (Russo *et al.*, 1996) and very robust universal primers allowing its use for most animal phyla (Vrijenhoek, 1994). Use of the COI region can provide a rapid and relatively inexpensive, deeper phylogenetic insights of a diverse biota since its evolution is rapid enough for discrimination of closely allied species (Cox & Hebert, 2001).

The most commonly used primers for braconids are the COI primers; 16SWb (5'-CACCTGTTTATCAAAAACAT-3') and 16S outer (5'-CTTATTCAACATCGAGGTC-3') (Dowton & Austin, 1994). An additional primer; CotF1 (5'-GGAACAGGTTGAACAGTTTATCCTC-3') has also been designed and combined with LepR1, targeting for *Cotesia* COI gene region (Malysh *et al.*, 2015). Moreover, the primer pairs, LepF 5'-ATTCAACCAATCATAAAGATATTGG-3' and LepR 5' -TAAACTTCTGGATGTCCAAAAAATCA-3' have been also used for detection of *C. vestalis*. (Hajibabaei *et al.*, 2006).



## 2.4 Cultural factors affecting the establishment of *C. vestalis* in Kenya

### 2.4.1 Use of pesticides

The indiscriminate use of pesticide common among the farmers is one of the factors that obscure establishment and conservation of parasitoid diversity, affecting contribution of natural enemies in management of pests (Devine & Furlong, 2007; Bopape *et al.*, 2014). Reports of reduced parasitism rates by *C. vestalis* and lower natural enemy densities have been recorded as a result of broad spectrum insecticides indicating their vulnerability to insecticides (Furlong *et al.*, 2008; Bommarco *et al.*, 2011). High parasitism rates by *C. vestalis* of 90% have been observed in farms untreated with pesticides as opposed to low parasitism rates of 5-10% in sprayed plots (Rami, 2005). Insecticides effect on parasitoid diversity is vivid in studies whereby treatment with dichlorvos resulted in a record of two parasitoid species, only one parasitoid species with Dipel® treatment compared to a higher species richness of four in the control treatment without pesticides (Bopape *et al.*, 2014).

The effect of different pesticides on parasitoids varies from moderate to extremely toxic. Pesticides caused high mortality in only 24hours : fenvalerate 50% mortality, avermectin caused 100% mortality of *O. sokolowskii* and 3.3% mortality in *C. vestalis* while Chlorfluazuron caused 16.7% mortality of *C. vestalis* (Shi *et al.*, 2004). Additionally, fipronil significantly reduced the survival of *C. vestalis* adults emerging from fipronil-treated cocoons (Shi *et al.*, 2004).

Adult mortality of *C. vestalis* from pupa treated with indoxacarb and  $\lambda$ -cyhalothrin was as high as 100% and 88.9% respectively, 100% mortality on ingestion of spinosad and  $\lambda$ -cyhalothrin while lower mortality was recorded on Neemix, Ecozin, Agroneem, Xentari, Match, Crymax and Dipel (Haseeb, Liu & Jones, 2004a).

The parasitoids; *C. vestalis* are more susceptible to methamidophos, avermectin and dichlorvos than their host, *P. xylostella*, showing that the recommended dosages for management of some pests can be very toxic to parasitoids (Lin *et al.*, 2007). Treatment of leaves with spinosad, carbaryl, imidacloprid caused mortality of *D. insulare* but *B. thuringiensis* and tebufenozide caused no mortality (Hill & Foster, 2000).

#### 2.4.2 Competition by other parasitoids

There exist competition among primary parasitoid for their host. For instance, *Hyposter horticola* outcompetes *C. melitaerum* in multiparasitized host (Tian *et al.*, 2008; Van Nouhuys & Punju, 2010). However, multiparasitism often result in high mortality rates as the parasitoids inflict physical injuries to the host as well as injection of secretions which interfere with the host's physiology (Tian *et al.*, 2008). Death of *C. melitaearum* larvae in multiparasitized host can be due to physiological mechanisms since it has suctorial mouthparts while *H. horticola* has sickle-shaped mandibles which can be utilized to harm their competitor (Tian *et al.*, 2008).

Competition in multiparasitism cases differ with order of oviposition and the parasitoid species involved. Simultaneous parasitism of *Pseudoplusia includens* by *Campoletis sonorensis* and *Microplitis demolitor* does not show any difference in survival of both parasitoids while parasitism by one parasitoid followed by parasitism by a second one 6 hours later result in higher survival rates in *C. sonorensis* (Harvey *et al.*, 2009). Multiparasitism can occur involving *Campoletis chlorideae* and *Microplitis mediator* regardless of which parasitizes its host first but *M. mediator* has higher parasitism rates in both simultaneous parasitization or where it parasitizes the host first (Tian *et al.*, 2008). On the other hand , some parasitoids such as *M. demolitor* was the least competitive even in cases where it parasitized its host first (Harvey *et al.*, 2009).

Interspecific competition between *O. sokolowskii* and *D. collaris* where the host is parasitized by *O. sokolowskii* six days prior to parasitization by *D. collaris*, emergence of the latter is greatly reduced (Liu *et al.*, 2001). There exists competition between *C. vestalis* and *O. sokolowskii* as well (Bai *et al.*, 2011). In instances where *D. semiclausum* parasitized its host two days prior to parasitism by *C. vestalis*, there was high mortality rates and as a result few parasitoids; few *D. semiclausum* emerge reducing the resultant efficiency of the next generation (Shi *et al.*, 2004a).

Hyperparasitoids also have a negative impact on *C. vestalis* populations. In South Africa, *C. vestalis* parasitize young host larvae limiting the availability of host for other parasitoid species which parasitize older stages of the host (Nofemela, 2004). Hyperparasitism of *C.*



*vestalis* by *O. sokolowskii* and *D. collaris*, leads to a decline in *C. vestalis* population and subsequently a negative impact on *P. xylostella* parasitism (Nofemela, 2013).

## CHAPTER THREE

### MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### 3.1 Introduction

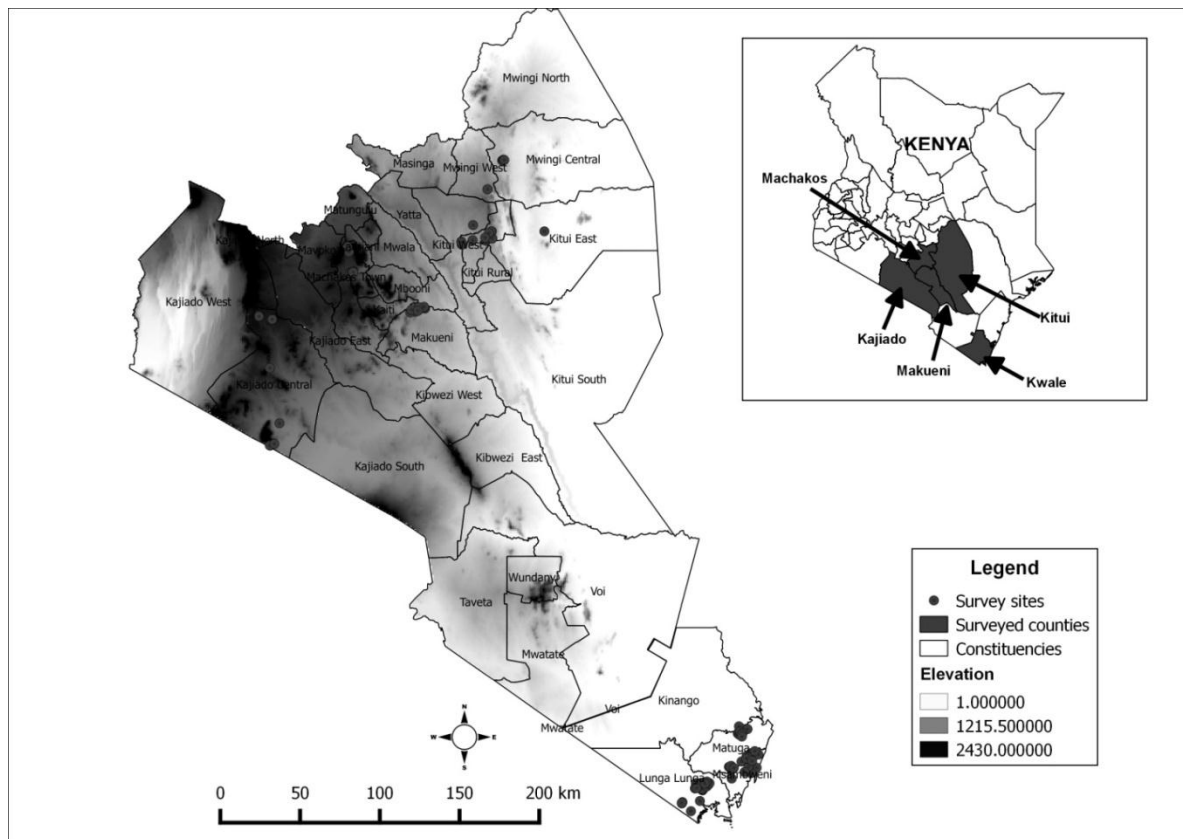
The study composed of a survey, data collection using a questionnaire and a molecular component. The field survey focused on five counties in Kenya; Kwale, Kajiado, Kitui, Machakos and Makueni. The selected cabbage farms were visited and ten cabbages were randomly selected, thoroughly checked for *P. xylostella* larvae and pupa as well as parasitoid cocoons on the leaves. The samples were collected, recorded and taken to the laboratory. In the laboratory, all emerging *P. xylostella* and parasitoids were recorded and the parasitism rates calculated. A questionnaire was used during the same survey to capture information on cultural practices in cruciferous vegetable production and farmer's knowledge on use of parasitoids as a biological control method in management of *P. xylostella*. The samples of *Cotesia vestalis* were used in molecular work which involved DNA extraction, Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR), gel electrophoresis, purification, sequencing and sequence analysis.

#### 3.2 Study site and study population

Surveys were carried out in 2015 (Jun, Aug and Nov) and 2016 (Jan and Mar) in five counties of Kenya namely: Kajiado, Kitui, Machakos, Makueni and Kwale and the specific farms are indicated in the map which was constructed in QGIS version 6.2 (Figure 3.1). Kwale county regions were further divided into Diani, Kinondo, Lungalunga, Matuga, and Msambweni. The Kajiado, Makueni, Kitui and Machakos counties represented *C. vestalis* post-release sites for management of *P. xylostella* in the arid regions, mid-altitude (882-1918 m asl) while Kwale County represented the humid lowlands (3-416 m asl). The survey periods were further categorized as rainy (Jun 2015 and Nov 2015) and dry seasons (Aug 2015, Jan 2016 and Mar 2016). The GPS coordinates were as follows: Kajiado county (-2.5425833 to -1.8082778; 36.731 to 36.848), Kitui county (-1.374 to -3.382; 37.876 to 38.334), Kwale county (-4.129 to -4.450; 39.128 to 39.6130), Machakos county (-1.563 to -1.453; 37.230 to 37.265), Makueni (-1.761 to -1.789; 37.587 to 37.670).

Kwale County has bi-modal rainfall distribution with the long rains being experienced in March to June and the short rains from October to December. The soils are fertile and mostly sandy loam while some parts are clayey. Kitui, Kajiado, Makueni and Machakos counties are hot and dry regions. The rainfall distribution in these regions is bimodal; long rains are experienced from March to May while the short rains are experienced from October to December. The soils are mainly sandy and the annual rainfall ranges between 500 mm and 1300 mm.

Most vegetable production in the survey regions is rain-fed. Cabbage and kales are the main cruciferous vegetables produced for subsistence use and commercial production to a small extent. The sample processing, rearing and molecular work was conducted at the International Centre of Insect Physiology and Ecology (*ICIPE*) campus at Kasarani, Nairobi.



**Figure 3.1: Locations of the survey sites in Kajiado, Makueni, Kitui and Machakos counties of Kenya for recovery of *Cotesia vestalis*.**

### **3.3 Research Design**

This study was descriptive in nature. Surveys were carried out in Kajiado, Makueni, Kitui and Machakos counties. During the surveys, a questionnaire was used to collect information on cultural practices used by crucifer farmers and their knowledge on the use of natural enemies in management of *P. xylostella*. The sampling of ten cabbages for each farm selected was done randomly.

The molecular work involved random selection of ten females and ten males of *C. vestalis* from each region namely: Kajiado, Makueni, Kitui and Machakos. This was followed by their DNA extraction, amplification and gel electrophoresis. Only ten samples from each group were purified, sequenced and their sequences analyzed.

### **3.4 Sampling Design and Sample Size**

#### **3.4.1 Sampling design**

Farms on cabbage production were selected from Kitui, Kajiado, Kwale, Makueni and Machakos counties where the *C. vestalis* had been released. The farms selected were less than 0.5 ha in size and at least 1km apart.

Probability sampling was used in this study whereby every unit in the population had a chance of selection. The farms to be surveyed in Kitui, Kajiado, Kwale, Makueni and Machakos counties were selected randomly using the simple random sampling method.

Selection of ten males and ten females of *C. vestalis* from each region was done randomly. The ten samples selected for sequencing from each region was also randomly selected from the samples that had successfully amplified PCR products using the table of random numbers (Table 3.1).

## Table of Random Numbers

36518	36777	89116	05542	29705	83775	21564	81639	27973	62413	85652	62817	57881
46132	81380	75635	19428	88048	08747	20092	12615	35046	67753	69630	10883	13683
31841	77367	40791	97402	27569	90184	02338	39318	54936	34641	95525	86316	87384
84180	93793	64953	51472	65358	23701	75230	47200	78176	85248	90589	74567	22633
78435	37586	07015	98729	76703	16224	97661	79907	06611	26501	93389	92725	68158
41859	94198	37182	61345	88857	53204	86721	59613	67494	17292	94457	89520	77771
13019	07274	51068	93129	40386	51731	44254	66685	72835	01270	42523	45323	63481
82448	72430	29041	59208	95266	33978	70958	60017	39723	00606	17956	19024	15819
25432	96593	83112	96997	55340	80312	78839	09815	16887	22228	06206	54272	83516
69226	38655	03811	08342	47863	02743	11547	38250	58140	98470	24364	99797	73498
25837	68821	66426	20496	84843	18360	91252	99134	48931	99538	21160	09411	44659
38914	82707	24769	72026	56813	49336	71767	04474	32909	74162	50404	68562	14088
04070	60681	64290	26905	65617	76039	91657	71362	32246	49595	50663	47459	57072
01674	14751	28637	86980	11951	10479	41454	48527	53868	37846	85912	15156	00865
70294	35450	39982	79503	34382	43186	69890	63222	30110	56004	04879	05138	57476
73903	98066	52136	89925	50000	96334	30773	80571	31178	52799	41050	76298	43995
87789	56408	77107	88452	80975	03406	36114	64549	79244	82044	00202	45727	35709
92320	95929	58545	70699	07679	23296	03002	63885	54677	55745	52540	62154	33314
46391	60276	92061	43591	42118	73094	53608	58949	42927	90993	46795	05947	01934
67090	45063	84584	66022	48268	74971	94861	61749	61085	81758	89640	39437	90044
11666	99916	35165	29420	73213	15275	62532	47319	39842	62273	94980	23415	64668
40910	59068	04594	94576	51187	54796	17411	56123	66545	82163	61868	22752	40101
41169	37965	47578	92180	05257	19143	77486	02457	00985	31960	39033	44374	28352
76418												

**Table 3.1:**Table of random numbers (Mathbitsnotebook, n.d.)

### 3.4.2 Sampling size determination

Samples of *P. xylostella* and parasitoids were collected from cabbages and kales in and around the original release sites of the parasitoids in the named counties with a view to recover parasitoids that were released in the different regions. Ten cabbages from each selected farm were randomly selected in each plot as previously done by Gichini *et al.* (2008).

## 3.5 Data Collection Methods

### 3.5.1 Sampling for *Plutella xylostella* and parasitoids on cultivated crucifers

The surveys were done in Kwale County: rainy season (June 2015, August 2015) and dry season (January 2016) and in Kitui, Kajiado, Kwale, Makueni and Machakos counties: rainy season (November 2015) and dry season (March 2016).

The farms sampled were those on cabbage production. Ten farms per region (Kitui, Kajiado, Kwale, Makueni and Machakos counties ) were surveyed and the same farms were surveyed during each visit. However, less than ten farms were surveyed in Kwale county as a result of a massive decline in the number of crucifer farms available for sampling due to lack of irrigation water during the dry weather season in Jan 2016.

Ten randomly selected cabbages or kales per farm were sampled and their leaves checked for presence of *P. xylostella* larvae, pupa and parasitoid cocoons. The samples collected were counted, recorded and put in plastic containers having a cloth mesh at the top and lined with paper towel at the bottom to allow for ventilation and prevent condensation, respectively. Field numbers were assigned to each container. The number of samples collected, type/species collected, field number, host plant and collection date were recorded and the samples taken to the laboratory at *ICIPE*. Additionally, information on soil type and other pests found on the crop were recorded. The farms that were sampled were geo-referenced using the Global Positioning System (GPS, model Magellan® Triton™ 400).

The samples collected were taken to the laboratory and kept at room temperature ( $23 \pm 2$  °C), 50-70 % relative humidity and a 12:12 hours (Light: Darkness) photoperiod. The *P. xylostella* larvae were fed on fresh cabbage leaves on daily basis. Emergence of either *P. xylostella* or parasitoid was monitored daily until no more emergence was observed. All the samples that emerged were identified, sexed and recorded. Identification and sexing of the braconid wasps collected was carried out using a Leica EZ4D microscope fitted with the Leica Application (LAS EZ 3.0.0) so as to facilitate viewing of their small ovipositor. Moreover, detailed features that identify *C. vestalis* were identified using the INT Key (Dallwitz et al., 1999). The adults that emerged from the field-collected samples were reared in Perspex cages (20 × 20 × 20 cm external dimensions) to establish colonies for both the host and parasitoids while all the dead parasitoids were stored in 95 % ethanol.

During the surveys on each sampled farm, questionnaires were used to collect information on type of cruciferous crop cultivated and variety, planting time, harvesting intervals, intercrops, type of manure and fertilizer applied and their last application dates, irrigation type, the pest management strategies applied by farmers, reason for pesticide application, frequency of their application, last application dates, change in the frequency of use of the management strategies and the farmers knowledge on use of natural enemies in controlling *P. xylostella*.

The South African strain of *C. vestalis* samples similar to which had been released in East Africa was provided by the Department of Agricultural Research Services (DARS) in Malawi. Twenty samples from each site were used for molecular work.

### **3.5.2 Rearing of *Plutella xylostella* and *Cotesia vestalis***

The emerging insects were reared to establish colonies for both the host and parasitoids. Parasitoids from each county were reared separately in Perspex cages to obtain a larger number for molecular work.

To establish a colony of *P. xylostella*, small aluminium foil strips were cut and some grooves made on them. This was followed by smearing of crashed cabbage on the foil. These foils were then placed inside the oviposition cages of 20 x 20 x 20 cm and the emerging *P. xylostella* were introduced into the cages to oviposit on the aluminium foil for 24 hours. The *P. xylostella* were provided with 10% sugar solution on a ball of cotton wool that was placed on a Petri dish as their food. Thereafter, the aluminium foil containing the eggs were removed, cut into smaller pieces and placed on 8-week old cabbages for them to hatch and to ensure that the first instar larvae had access to food the moment they hatched.

The culture of *C. vestalis* was established from *C. vestalis* that merged from *P. xylostella* larvae and parasitoid cocoons collected from the field. The parasitoid culture were maintained on second and third instar DBM larvae on cabbages for 24hrs in laboratory rearing cages measuring 20 × 20 × 20 cm at 25±1°C, 65±5% RH and L12:D12 photoperiod. After the establishment of second to third instars larvae of *P. xylostella*, *C. vestalis* were put into the mating cage for 24 hours and honey streaked thinly on a paper sheet which was stuck on the sides of the cage using masking tape as a source of food and water was provided in glass vials with a cotton wick at the mouth. Second or third instars *P. xylostella* larvae were introduced into the *C. vestalis* cage and removed after 24 hrs. After removal of the plants, the larvae were put in lunch boxes (11.5cm diameter, 6cm high). The larvae in the lunch boxes were fed on cabbage leaves on daily basis until pupation.

The parasitoid cocoons were collected and placed in petri-dishes to await emergence. The environmental conditions in the laboratory were maintained at 25±1°C with relative humidity of 65 ± 5%. The photo to dark period was kept at 12: 12hours.

The emerging *C. vestalis* from each site were identified using insect identification keys(INT

key) and compared with the South African strain of *C. vestalis* samples.

Adults were stored in 100% ethanol for molecular study.

### **3.5.2 DNA Extraction, Amplification and Sequencing**

#### **3.5.2.1 DNA Extraction**

The *C. vestalis* samples from Kitui, Kwale, Kajiado, Makueni were preserved in 95% ethanol. More samples of *Cotesia spp* similar to those that had been released in East Africa were sought from the Department of Agricultural Research Services (DARS) in Malawi. All the samples were stored at -20°C. The samples had their lateral, ventral and dorsal images taken using a microscope (Leica Application Suite).

Surface sterilization of the samples was done in 3% sodium hypochlorite and rinsed thrice in distilled water. After sterilization, the samples were put in labeled eppendorf tubes and stored at -20 °C awaiting DNA extraction.

DNA extraction was carried out using the ISOLATE II Genomic DNA Kit (Bioline, UK). Samples were homogenized in 1.5ml eppendorf tubes using a pestle in a 180 µl GL lysis buffer and 25µl proteinase K solution and vortexed. The homogenate was then incubated at 56°C for 3 hours. The samples were vortexed and 200µl of lysis buffer G3 added followed by vigorous vortexing and incubation at 70°C for 10 mins. DNA was extracted using 210µl of absolute ethanol. Binding of DNA was done in a spin column which was attached to a 2ml collection tube. After loading the sample into the spin column, it was centrifuged for 1 min at 11,000 x g and the flow-through was discarded. This was followed by washing with a wash buffer twice to remove residual ethanol. The first wash was done by adding 500µl of wash buffer GW1 and the second one by adding 600 µl of wash buffer GW2 and centrifuging for 1 min at 11,000 x g after each wash. The sample was then resuspended in 100µl elution buffer G that had been pre-heated (70°C), incubated for 1 min at room temperature and centrifuged again at 11,000 x g for 1 min. The DNA was then quantified using a nanodrop (Thermo Scientific© Nanodrop 2000™).

#### **3.5.2.2 PCR amplification and Gel Electrophoresis**

The 700bp fragment of the COI gene was amplified using universal primers; Forward primer-LCO\_1490 (5'-GGTCAACAAATCATAAAGATATTG-3') and Reverse primer-HCO\_2198 (5'-TAAACTTCAGGGTGACCAAAAAATCA-3') (Folmer et al. 1994) . The PCR was



done in a 20 µL reaction volume containing 5× My *Taq* Reaction Buffer (5 mM dNTPs, 15 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, enhancers and stabilizers), 10 µ mole of each primer, 0.25 µL My *Taq* DNA polymerase (Bioline, UK), 0.5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub> and 15 ng/µL DNA template. The reaction took place in the Nexus Mastercycler gradient (Eppendorf). The PCR cycling conditions were as follows: initial denaturation of 2 min at 95 °C, then 40 cycles of 30 sec at 95 °C, 40 sec annealing at 50.6 °C and 1 min at 72 °C, and a final elongation done at 72 °C for 10mins.

The PCR products were separated on a 1.2 % agarose gel stained with 10mg/mL of ethidium bromide. The gel electrophoresis was done at 80V for 40 mins. The DNA bands on the gel were analyzed and documented under ultraviolet illumination using the KETA GL imaging system trans-illuminator (Wealtec Corp). The PCR products with successfully amplified DNA were excised and purified using the Isolate II PCR and Gel Kit (Bioline, UK) as instructed by the manufacturer. The purified products were then sent to Macrogen Inc Europe Laboratory, in Netherlands for sequencing.

### 3.4 Data Analysis

The parasitism rates of *P. xylostella* by the solitary parasitoid, *C. vestalis* were calculated using the formula (Nofemela & Ktir, 2005) :

$$\% \text{ parasitism} = \frac{\text{Sum of } Cotesia \text{ vestalis}}{\text{Total adults } (C. \text{ vestalis} + P. \text{ xylostella})} \times 100$$

All the samples that died before emergence were excluded from calculations of parasitism rates (Löhr *et al.*, 2007c). The datasets were checked for normality using the Shapiro-Wilk test in R studio. The data on *P. xylostella* and *C. vestalis* densities were normalized by log-transformation prior to analysis of variance. The data for every survey period was subjected to Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). The means having significant differences were separated using Tukey's Honest Significant Difference (HSD) test at 5% level of significance. All the analyses were done using the R Studio software version 2.15.1 (Studio, 2012). The data was then presented in form of graphs.

### 3.5 Sequence Analysis

Analysis of sequences was done by first examining the chromatograms in Chromas v 2.5.1 (Hall 1999), and ambiguous sites were corrected to produce a consensus sequence. The consensus sequences were compared to those available at GenBank using BLAST (<http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi>) for species identification. Multiple alignment for the samples was done using Clustaw X version 2.1 (Thompson *et al.*, 1997). The general time reversible (GTR +G) model of nucleotide substitution was the best fit model according to the JModeltest 2.1.7 program (Darriba *et al.*, 2012). The consensus sequences were run in RAXml v8.2.0 (Stamatakis, 2014) to generate the best-scoring Maximum likelihood tree using the previously selected GTR+G model with a bootstrap test of 1000 replications (Saitou & Nei, 1987) and the phylogenetic tree construction was done and viewed using FigTree v1.4 (Rambaut, 2012).

The sequences were submitted to the Barcode of Life database (BOLD) and deposited in GenBank (Accession numbers: ABZ6416 and ADL5635). Storage of the DNA voucher specimens was done in the Arthropod Pathology Unit (APU) at *ICIPE*.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### RESULTS

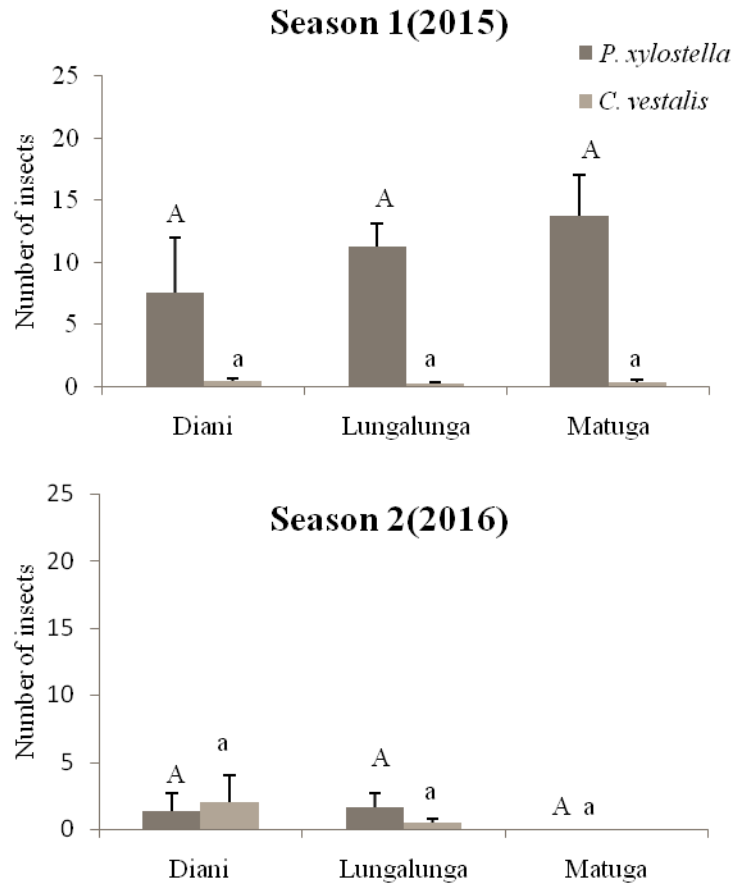
#### 4.1 Establishment and parasitism rates of *C. vestalis* on *P. xylostella*

During the June 2015 survey (cool and wet), the mean of *P. xylostella* densities in Lungalunga (12.67/farm) were twice the densities recorded in Matuga (6.55/farm). The *P. xylostella* ( $F=2.081$ ;  $df=2, 21$ ;  $p= 0.15$ ) and *C. vestalis* ( $F=0.403$ ;  $df=2, 21$ ;  $p= 0.673$ ) densities were not significantly different. On the other hand, the highest parasitism rates by *C. vestalis* were recorded in Lungalunga (5%) which was almost twice the parasitism rates in Matuga (2.78%) whereas the parasitism rates in Diani was at zero (Figure 4.1).

The August 2015 survey (hot and dry), had, *P. xylostella* densities in Matuga (17.95/farm) 2-fold higher than in Diani (9.5/farm) and Lungalunga (9.83/farm). Similarly, both the *P. xylostella* ( $F=1.006$ ;  $df=2,32$ ;  $p=0.377$ ) and *C. vestalis* ( $F=1.042$ ;  $df=2,32$ ;  $p= 0.364$ ) densities were not significantly different. The parasitism rates were 3.51% and 3.27% in Diani and Matuga respectively.

In January 2016 (hot and dry), the highest *P. xylostella* density of 1.6/farm was recorded in Lungalunga while the lowest was in Matuga which had no record of *P. xylostella*. Comparison of the *P. xylostella* ( $F=0.914$ ;  $df=2,14$ ;  $p=0.423$ ) and *C. vestalis* ( $F= 1.102$  ;  $df=2,14$ ;  $p=0.359$ ) densities showed no significant difference. The parasitism rates by *C. vestalis* in Lungalunga was 18.20% while it was 14.29% in Diani (Table 4.1).

Generally, the highest *P. xylostella* densities (9.5-17.95/farm) were recorded in August (Figure 4.2). Additionally, the comparison of the *P. xylostella* densities between the different survey periods differed significantly ( $F=18.86$ ;  $df=2, 90$ ;  $p<0.05$ ).



**Figure 4.1:** The number of *P. xylostella* per farm and its parasitoid *Cotesia vestalis* recorded in Kwale County in 2015 and 2016.

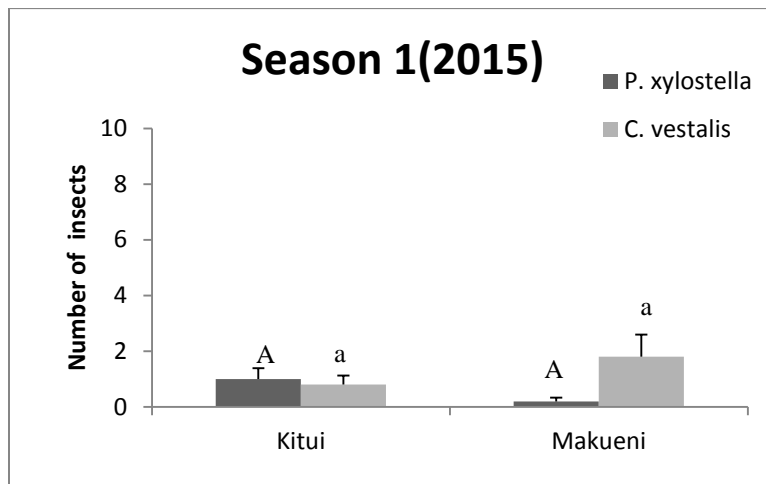
**Table 4.1.** The means of DBM+SE collected in Kwale county and parasitism rates+SE by *Cotesia vestalis*. Means+SE followed by same letters within a column are not significantly different at  $P < 0.05$

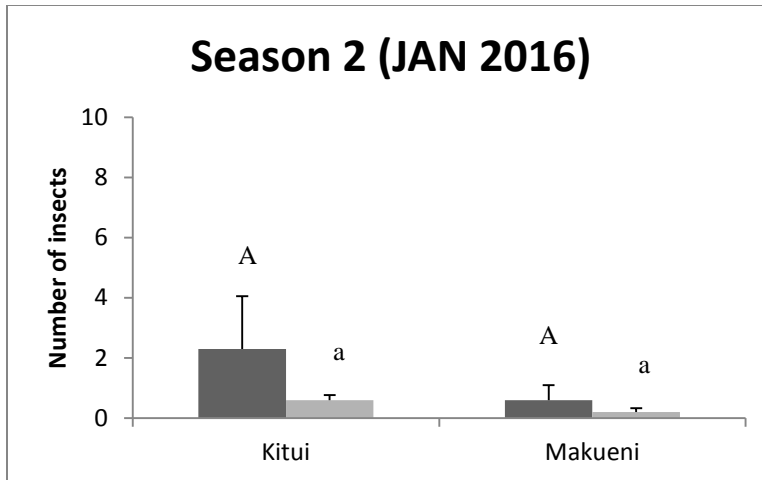
Location	<i>Cotesia</i>	DBM/plant	DBM/plant	<i>Cotesia</i>	DBM/plant	<i>Cotesia</i>
	Parasitism Means $\pm$ SE	Means $\pm$ SE	Means $\pm$ SE	Parasitism Means $\pm$ SE	Means $\pm$ SE	Parasitism Means $\pm$ SE
		June 2015		Aug 2015		Jan 2016
<b>Diani</b>	0	0	9.5 $\pm$ 5.04a	3.41 $\pm$ 2.63a	1.33 $\pm$ 1.33a	14.29 $\pm$ 14.29a
<b>Lungalunga</b>	12.67 $\pm$ 3.27a	5.004 $\pm$ 2.84a	9.83 $\pm$ 2.54a	0	1.60 $\pm$ 1.07a	18.20 $\pm$ 10.08a
<b>matuga</b>	2.78 $\pm$ 2.78a	6.55 $\pm$ 2.09a	8.38 $\pm$ 3.60a	0.41 $\pm$ 0.41a	0	0

In November 2015 (cool and wet season) survey, the *P. xylostella* density in Kitui (1/farm) was 5-fold compared with that in Makueni (0.2/farm) whereas the *C. vestalis* densities in Makueni (1.8/farm) was more than 2-fold higher than in Kitui (0.8/farm) as shown in Figure 4.2. There were no significant differences found between *P. xylostella* ( $F= 0.92$ ;  $df=2,32$ ;  $p=0.409$ ) and *C. vestalis* ( $F=1.722$ ;  $df=2,32$ ;  $p=0.195$ ) densities between the two regions . The parasitism rates in Kitui and Makueni were 20.92% and 37.86% respectively.

In March 2016 (hot and dry season), Kitui had the highest *P. xylostella* density (2.30/farm) which was over three times higher than in Makueni (0.6/farm). The densities of *P. xylostella* ( $F=1.119$ ;  $df=1,18$ ;  $p=0.304$ ) and *C. vestalis* ( $F=3.6$ ;  $df=1,18$ ;  $p=0.074$ ) were not significantly different during the survey (Figure 4.2). The parasitism rate in Kitui was 32.19% compared to the 15% parasitism rate recorded in Kitui.

There was no difference between the *P. xylostella* ( $F=1.873$ ;  $df=1,78$ ;  $p=0.175$ ) and *C. vestalis* ( $F=3.029$ ;  $df=1,78$ ;  $p=0.0739$ ) densities during the 2015 and 2016 survey in Kitui and Makueni counties. Overall, the highest parasitism rate was recorded in Kitui during the November 2015 survey (Table 4.2.)





**Figure 4.2:** *P. xylostella* and *C. vestalis* densities for the different survey periods in Kitui and Makueni counties

**Table 4.2:** The means of DBM+SE collected in Kitui and Makueni county and parasitism rates+SE by *Cotesia vestalis*. Means+SE followed by same letters within a column are not significantly different at  $P < 0.05$ .

Location	DBM/plant Means ±SE	Cotesia Parasitism Means ±SE	DBM/plant t Means ±SE	Cotesia Parasitism Means ±SE
	November 2015		March 2016	
<b>Kitui</b>	1.0±0.4a	13.83±6.84a	2.3±1.76a	25.77±10.48a
<b>Makueni</b>	0.2±0.13a	34.53±12.57a	0.6±0.50a	15.0±10.67a

A baseline survey on pest management practices indicated that 89.25% of the farm households interviewed in Kwale county were using pesticides. The farmers used a total of 18 different active ingredients of synthetic pesticides under different application regimes. Majority of the pesticides in Kwale county were pyrethroids, which constituted 75.47% of the total pesticides followed by neonicotinoids (8.49%) and carbamates (5.66%) (Table 4.3).

Based on the household data collected in Kitui, Makueni and Machakos, 78.57% of the farmers were spraying their vegetables. The most commonly used insecticides were pyrethroids (46.16%) whose usage was 3-fold higher than that of organophosphates (15.55%). Additionally, only 5.5% of the products used were micro-organism derived and 1.1% were plant derived products (Table 4.4).

According to the data on pesticide use and frequency of use collected from the questionnaires, only 10.75% of the farms in Kwale County were not using pesticides. The remaining majority of farms used a total of 18 different active ingredients of synthetic pesticides under different trade names. Majority of these were pyrethroids which constituted 75.47% of the total pesticides followed by neonicotinoids and carbamates which accounted for 8.49% and 5.66% respectively (Table 4.3).

**Table 4.3: The various types of insecticide active ingredients used in Cruciferae farms and their frequency of usage in Kwale County.**

KWALE COUNTY		
Active Ingredient	Substance group	Usage Frequency (%)
<b>Lambda-Cyhalothrin</b>	Pyrethroid	41.51
<b>Alphacypermethrin</b>	Pyrethroid	24.53
<b>Deltamethrin</b>	Pyrethroid	3.77
<b>Beta-Cyfluthrin</b>	Pyrethroid	3.77
<b>Cypermethrin</b>	Pyrethroid	1.89
<b>Mancozeb</b>	Carbamate	2.83
<b>Carbosulfan</b>	Carbamate	0.94
<b>Methomyl</b>	Carbamate	0.94
<b>Propamocarbhydrochloride</b>	Carbamate	0.94
<b>Chlorpyrifos</b>	Organophosphate	0
<b>Dimethoate</b>	Organophosphate	0
<b>Diazinon</b>	Organophosphate	0
<b>Thiamethoxam</b>	Neonicotinoid	3.77
<b>Imidacloprid</b>	Neonicotinoid	2.83
<b>Acetamiprid</b>	Neonicotinoid	1.89
<b>Hydrochloride</b>	Neonicotinoid	0
<b>Lufenuron</b>	Benzoylurea	3.77
<b>Metalaxyl</b>	Phenylamide	2.83

<b>Fluopicolide</b>	Benzamide	0.94
<b>Carbendazim</b>	Benzimidazole	0.94
<b>Pyridaben</b>	Pyridazinone	0.94
<b>Sulphur</b>	Fluoride	0.94
<b>Hexaconazole</b>	Triazole	0
<b>Flubendiamide</b>	Benzenedicarboxamide	0
<b>Azoxystrobin</b>	Strobilurin	0
<b>Diafenthiuron</b>	Thiourea	0
<b>Emamectin benzoate</b>	Micro-organism derived	0
<b>Abamectin</b>	Micro-organism derived	0
<b>Azadirachtin</b>	Plant derived	0
<b><i>Bt</i></b>	Microbial pesticide	0

Based on the data collected in Kajiado, Kitui, Makueni and Machakos, only 22% of the farms were not spraying their vegetables. Pyrethroids were the most used product which made up 46.39% of the total pesticides while organophosphates were second at 14.43% and neonicotinoids came in third at 12.37%. Additionally, only 4.44% of the products were micro-organism derived, 1.11% were plant derived products and 1.11% *Bt* (Table 4.4).



**Table 4.4: The different pesticide active ingredients used in Cruciferae farms and their frequency of usage in eastern region (Kajiado, Kitui, Makueni and Machakos counties).**

Active Ingredient	Insecticide class	Usage Frequency (%)
<b>Lambda-cyhalothrin</b>	Pyrethroid	16.67
<b>Alpha-cypermethrin</b>	Pyrethroid	13.33
<b>Cypermethrin</b>	Pyrethroid	12.22
<b>Beta-cyfluthrin</b>	Pyrethroid	3.33
<b>Deltamethrin</b>	Pyrethroid	1.11
<b>Methomyl</b>	Carbamate	5.56
<b>Propamocarb</b>	Carbamate	2.22
<b>Mancozeb</b>	Carbamate	1.11
<b>Chlorpyrifos</b>	Organophosphate	12.22
<b>Dimethoate</b>	Organophosphate	1.11
<b>Diazinon</b>	Organophosphate	2.22
<b>Thiamethoxam</b>	Neonicotinoids	4.44
<b>Hydrochloride</b>	Neonicotinoids	2.22
<b>Imidacloprid</b>	Neonicotinoids	3.33
<b>Acetamiprid</b>	Neonicotinoids	2.22
<b>Emamectin benzoate</b>	Micro-organism derived	1.11
<b>Abamectin</b>	Micro-organism derived	3.33
<b>Hexaconazole</b>	Triazole	2.22
<b>Lufenuron</b>	Benzoylurea	3.33
<b>Flubendiamide</b>	Benzenedicarboxamide	2.22
<b>Azoxystrobin</b>	Strobilurin	1.11
<b>Diafenthiuron</b>	Thiourea	1.11
<b>Azadirachtin</b>	Plant derived	1.11
<b><i>Bt</i></b>	Microbial pesticide	1.11

The change in frequency of pesticide application indicated that farmers were spraying more

frequently than the previous years as they complained of reduced efficacy of the pesticides which can be attributed to development of resistance over time. Pesticide application was weekly or fortnightly on routine basis while some only applied in presence of pests. The farmers also used two or more products either to manage *P. xylostella* or other pests and against diseases such as the leafspots and downy mildew.

The other common pests found were the cabbage aphids, bollworms, whiteflies ,thrips, cabbage loopers, cutworms and leafminers. Bollworms were ranked as the most abundant followed by whiteflies whereas aphids were the most abundant in Kajiado, Makueni, Kitui and Machakos counties followed by the whiteflies (Table 4.5).

**Table 4.5: Ranking of other pests attacking crucifers in Kwale, Kajiado, Kitui, Machakos and Makueni counties)**

<b>Kwale County</b>			
Pests	Survey period		
	June 2015	August 2015	Jan 2016
Bollworms	39.39	90.70	41.18
Whiteflies	-	2.33	23.53
Aphids	18.18	6.98	-
Cabbage loopers	3.03	-	11.76
Other caterpillars	-	-	5.88
Kajiado, Kitui, Machakos and Makueni counties			
	Nov 2015	Mar 2016	
Aphids	42.5	67.5	
Whiteflies	32.5	75	
Thrips	15	35	
Bollworms	5	15	
Cabbage loopers	5	5	
Leafminers	5	5	

Cutworms	2.5	-
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Only 40% of the farmers were well informed about use of parasitoids in management of *P. xylostella* while the rest had little knowledge or no knowledge of parasitoids in management of *P. xylostella* in cabbage production.

Farmers were practicing intercropping whereby they intercropped crucifer crops with tomatoes, sweet pepper, black nightshade, amaranth, spinach, chillies or pumpkin. In Kwale county, 32.26% of the farms surveyed practiced intercropping as opposed to Kajiado, Kitui, Makueni and Machakos county where only 1.25% of the total farms surveyed intercropped their cruciferous vegetables with other crops (Table 4.6).

Production of vegetables relied on rainfall but some used irrigation especially in Kwale County whereby more than 90% of the farms surveyed in January 2016 were the ones under irrigation. Hand watering was the most used followed by drip irrigation as a way of conserving water in the semi-arid regions of Kajiado, Makueni, Kitui and Machakos counties . In Kajiado, Kitui, Makueni and Machakos counties, 78.75% of the farms surveyed were under irrigation during both survey periods (Table 4.6).

**Table 4.6: Proportion of farm surveyed that practiced intercropping and used irrigation**

Farming practices							
Survey period	Kwale county				Kajiado, Kitui, Machakos and Makueni		
	June 2015	Aug 2015	Jan 2016	Total	Nov 2015	Mar 2016	Total
<b>Intercropping (%)</b>	9.09	51.16	29.41	32.26	2.5	0	1.25
<b>Irrigation (%)</b>	36.36	95.35	88.24	73.12	60	97.5	78.75

## 4.2 Molecular Identification

### 4.2.1 Quantification of DNA

The purity of the DNA based on the ratio of absorbance at 260 and 280nm was greater than 1.8 which is the ideal ratio for DNA that is quite pure. It ranged from 1.92 to 2.72. The nucleic acid concentration of the samples ranged between 30.8 to 146.3 ng/ $\mu$ l (Table 4.7).

**Table 4.7: DNA concentration and quality for all the *Cotesia vestalis* samples.**

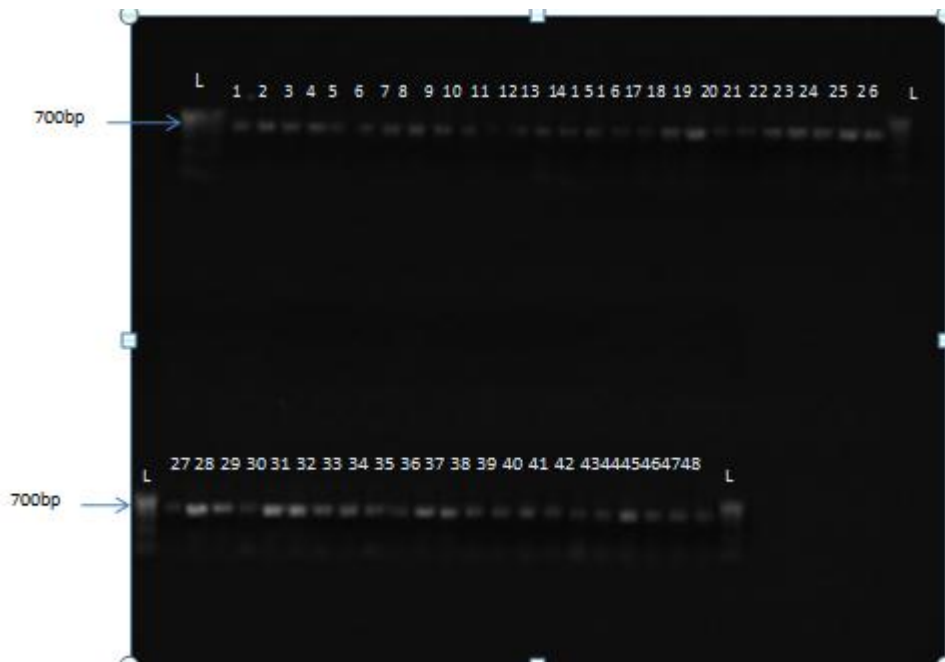
Sample ID	Nucleic Acid Conc.	Unit	A260	A280	260/280
<b>Kj6</b>	138.1	ng/ $\mu$ l	2.763	1.38	2
<b>Kj7</b>	83.3	ng/ $\mu$ l	1.665	0.805	2.07
<b>Kj8</b>	116.4	ng/ $\mu$ l	2.329	1.178	1.98
<b>Kj9</b>	110.7	ng/ $\mu$ l	2.213	1.064	2.08
<b>Kj10</b>	107.6	ng/ $\mu$ l	2.152	1.123	1.92
<b>Kj21</b>	102.7	ng/ $\mu$ l	2.054	1.069	1.92
<b>Kj22</b>	145.9	ng/ $\mu$ l	2.918	1.476	1.98
<b>Kj24</b>	120.1	ng/ $\mu$ l	1.951	1.01	1.93
<b>Kj25</b>	66.8	ng/ $\mu$ l	1.336	0.668	2
<b>Kt6</b>	62.4	ng/ $\mu$ l	1.248	0.615	2.03
<b>Kt7</b>	41.9	ng/ $\mu$ l	0.838	0.369	2.27
<b>Kt8</b>	48.5	ng/ $\mu$ l	0.97	0.477	2.03
<b>Kt9</b>	48.2	ng/ $\mu$ l	0.965	0.454	2.13
<b>Kt10</b>	46.2	ng/ $\mu$ l	0.924	0.446	2.07
<b>Kt26</b>	45.9	ng/ $\mu$ l	0.917	0.432	2.12
<b>Kt27</b>	41.8	ng/ $\mu$ l	0.836	0.369	2.26
<b>Kt28</b>	39.3	ng/ $\mu$ l	0.785	0.286	2.74
<b>Kt29</b>	48.8	ng/ $\mu$ l	0.976	0.465	2.1
<b>Kt30</b>	31.8	ng/ $\mu$ l	0.637	0.25	2.55
<b>Kw7</b>	49.7	ng/ $\mu$ l	0.993	0.47	2.11
<b>Kw8</b>	69.5	ng/ $\mu$ l	1.391	0.687	2.02
<b>Kw9</b>	45.9	ng/ $\mu$ l	0.917	0.428	2.14

**Table 4.7:** (Continued)

<b>Sample ID</b>	<b>Nucleic Acid Conc.</b>	<b>Unit</b>	<b>A260</b>	<b>A280</b>	<b>260/280</b>
<b>Kw10</b>	51.9	ng/μl	1.037	0.501	2.07
<b>Kw22</b>	30.8	ng/μl	0.616	0.263	2.34
<b>Kw23</b>	34.7	ng/μl	0.695	0.308	2.26
<b>Kw24</b>	60	ng/μl	1.199	0.572	2.1
<b>Kw25</b>	72.5	ng/μl	1.451	0.496	2.93
<b>Kw26</b>	48.8	ng/μl	0.977	0.448	2.18
<b>Mk1</b>	118	ng/μl	2.36	1.053	2.24
<b>Mk2</b>	111.4	ng/μl	2.227	1.165	1.91
<b>Mk3</b>	98.9	ng/μl	1.977	0.98	2.02
<b>Mk4</b>	121	ng/μl	2.421	1.203	2.01
<b>Mk5</b>	146.3	ng/μl	2.926	1.499	1.95
<b>Mk6</b>	133.8	ng/μl	2.677	1.374	1.95
<b>Mk7</b>	127.4	ng/μl	2.548	1.325	1.92
<b>Mk8</b>	115.5	ng/μl	2.309	1.19	1.94
<b>Mk9</b>	86.8	ng/μl	1.737	0.898	1.94
<b>Mk10</b>	109.6	ng/μl	2.191	1.124	1.95
<b>mw11</b>	32.7	ng/μl	0.654	0.286	2.28
<b>mw12</b>	36.7	ng/μl	0.733	0.329	2.23
<b>mw13</b>	33.2	ng/μl	0.664	0.3	2.21
<b>mw14</b>	36.4	ng/μl	0.728	0.297	2.45
<b>mw15</b>	39.5	ng/μl	0.789	0.36	2.19
<b>mw21</b>	39.6	ng/μl	0.792	0.368	2.15
<b>mw22</b>	29.8	ng/μl	0.595	0.219	2.72
<b>mw23</b>	41.7	ng/μl	0.833	0.378	2.21
<b>mw24</b>	46.3	ng/μl	0.926	0.387	2.39
<b>mw25</b>	38.2	ng/μl	0.763	0.332	2.3

#### 4.2.2 PCR Amplification

DNA from all the samples were successfully amplified with the Forward primer-LCO\_1490 and Reverse primer-HCO\_2198 resulting in PCR products of the same size indicating that the samples contained a single DNA molecule. Each band represents DNA of a specific molecular weight. The amplified products produced bands which were approximately 700bp (Figure 4.3).



**Figure 4.3: Fragment patterns of the COI region (MtDNA) of *Cotesia vestalis* from Kajiado, Kitui, Kwale, Makueni and Machakos County separated on a 1% agarose gel** Lane 1-10 (Kajiado samples), Lane 10-19 (Kitui samples), Lane 20-28 (Kwale samples), Lane 29-38 (Makueni samples), Lane 39-48 (Malawi samples), L- 100 bp DNA ladder (Bioline).

#### 4.2.3 Bioinformatics Analysis

BLAST results for the forty eight (48) samples had mitochondrion, complete genome as the best hit (E-Value 0.0) and had a 97-100% similarity to *Cotesia vestalis* samples of accession numbers FJ154897.1 (Wei *et al.*, 2010). However, Kw7 from Kwale was the only sample that had cytochrome oxidase subunit 1 (COI) gene as the best hit (E-value 0.0) with 98% identity to *Cotesia sp.* (Genbank accession: HM430398.1) (Alex Smith *et al.*, 2013) as shown in Table 4.8. This confirmed the identity of the parasitoid as *Cotesia vestalis*.

**Table 4.8: NCBI BLAST Results of PCR Purified samples producing best hits to Nucleotide collection (nr/nt) database of Genbank**

<b>Sample ID</b>	<b>Location</b>	<b>Match to NCBI NR Database</b>	<b>Accession no</b>	<b>Similarity (%)</b>	<b>Species match</b>
<b>KJ6</b>	Kajiado	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	99%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>KJ7</b>	Kajiado	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	99%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>KJ8</b>	Kajiado	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	100%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>KJ9</b>	Kajiado	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	100%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>KJ10</b>	Kajiado	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	99%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>KJ21</b>	Kajiado	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	99%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>KJ22</b>	Kajiado	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	100%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>KJ24</b>	Kajiado	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	98%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>KJ25</b>	Kajiado	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	99%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>Kt6</b>	Kitui	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	100%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>Kt7</b>	Kitui	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	99%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>Kt7</b>	Kitui	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	99%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>Kt8</b>	Kitui	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	99%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>



**Table 4.8:** (Continued)

<b>Kt9</b>	<b>Kitui</b>	<b>mitochondrion, complete genome</b>	<b>FJ154897</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b><i>Cotesia vestalis</i></b>
<b>Kt10</b>	Kitui	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	100%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>Kt26</b>	Kitui	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	99%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>Kt27</b>	Kitui	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	100%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>Kt28</b>	Kitui	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	99%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>Kt29</b>	Kitui	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	99%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>Kt30</b>	Kitui	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	99%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>Kw7</b>	Kwale	CNCH1553 cytochrome oxidase subunit 1 (COI) gene, partial cds; mitochondrial.	HM430398	98%	<i>Cotesia sp.</i>
<b>Kw8</b>	Kwale	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	100%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>Kw9</b>	Kwale	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	100%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>Kw10</b>	Kwale	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	99%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>Kw22</b>	Kwale	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	100%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>Kw23</b>	Kwale	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	100%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>

**Table 4.8:** (Continued)

<b>Sample ID</b>	<b>Location</b>	<b>Match to NCBI NR Database</b>	<b>Accession no</b>	<b>Similarity (%)</b>	<b>Species match</b>
<b>Kw24</b>	Kwale	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	100%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>Kw25</b>	Kwale	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	100%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>Mk1</b>	Makueni	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	100%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>Mk2</b>	Makueni	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	97%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>Mk3</b>	Makueni	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	98%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>Mk4</b>	Makueni	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	99%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>Mk5</b>	Makueni	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	100%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>Mk6</b>	Makueni	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	100%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>Mk7</b>	Makueni	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	99%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>Mk8</b>	Makueni	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	100%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>Mk9</b>	Makueni	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	100%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>Mk10</b>	Makueni	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	99%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>Mw11</b>	Malawi	mitochondrion, complete genome	FJ154897	99%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>

**Table 4.8:** (Continued)

<b>Sample ID</b>	<b>Location</b>	<b>Match to Database</b>	<b>NCBI NR</b>	<b>Accession no</b>	<b>Similarity (%)</b>	<b>Species match</b>
<b>Mw12</b>	Malawi	mitochondrion, genome	complete	FJ154897	99%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>Mw13</b>	Malawi	mitochondrion, genome	complete	FJ154897	99%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>Mw14</b>	Malawi	mitochondrion, genome	complete	FJ154897	99%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>Mw15</b>	Malawi	mitochondrion, genome	complete	FJ154897	99%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>Mw21</b>	Malawi	mitochondrion, genome	complete	FJ154897	99%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>Mw22</b>	Malawi	mitochondrion, genome	complete	FJ154897	99%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>Mw23</b>	Malawi	mitochondrion, genome	complete	FJ154897	99%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>Mw24</b>	Malawi	mitochondrion, genome	complete	FJ154897	99%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>
<b>Mw25</b>	Malawi	mitochondrion, genome	complete	FJ154897	99%	<i>Cotesia vestalis</i>

Key: Kj-Kajiado, Kt-Kitui, Kw-Kwale, Mk-Makueni, Mw-Malawi

#### 4.2.4 Multiple Sequence Alignment

All the aligned sequences showed a high degree of conserved residues among the forty eight samples (Figure 4.4).

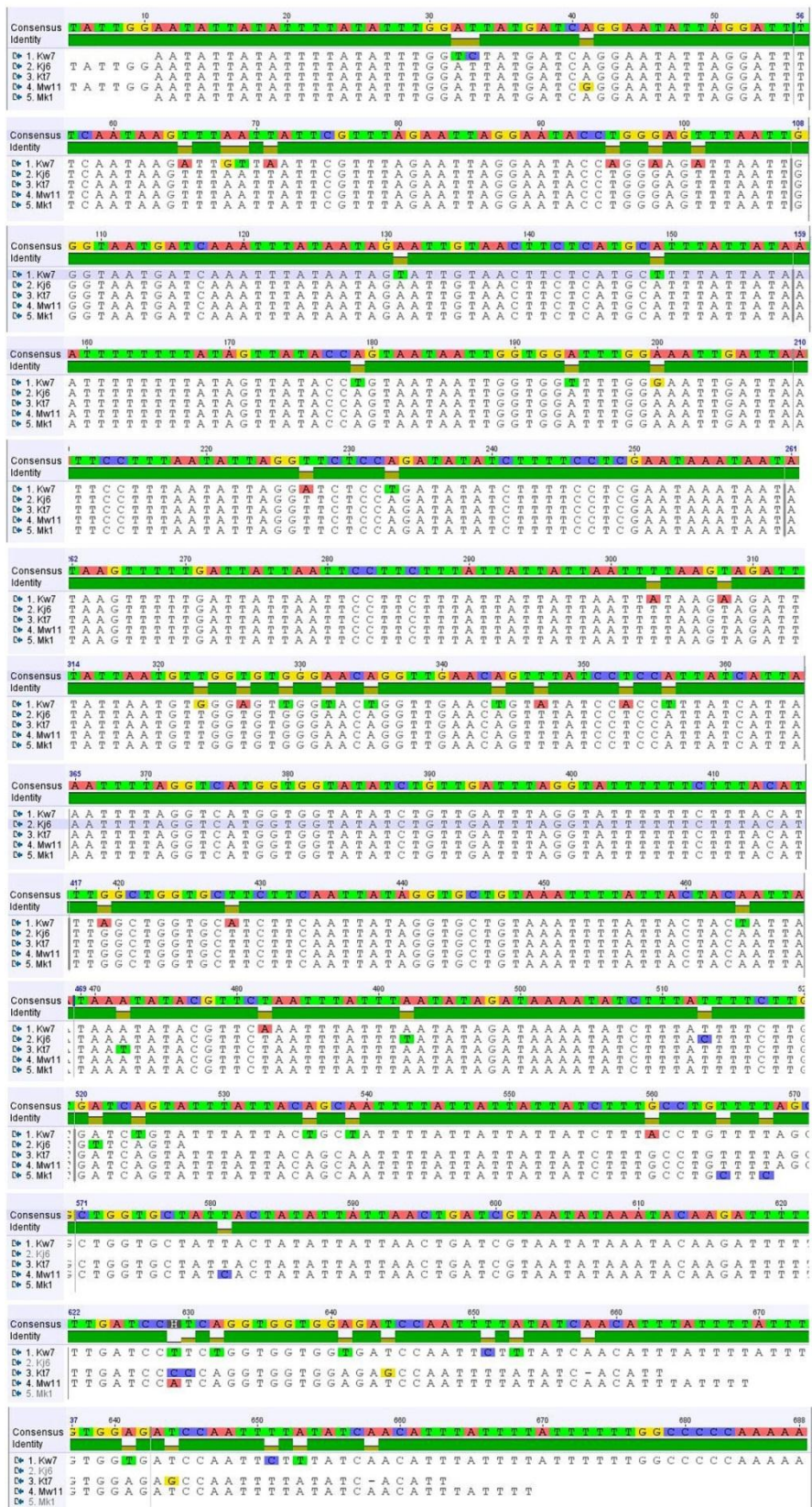
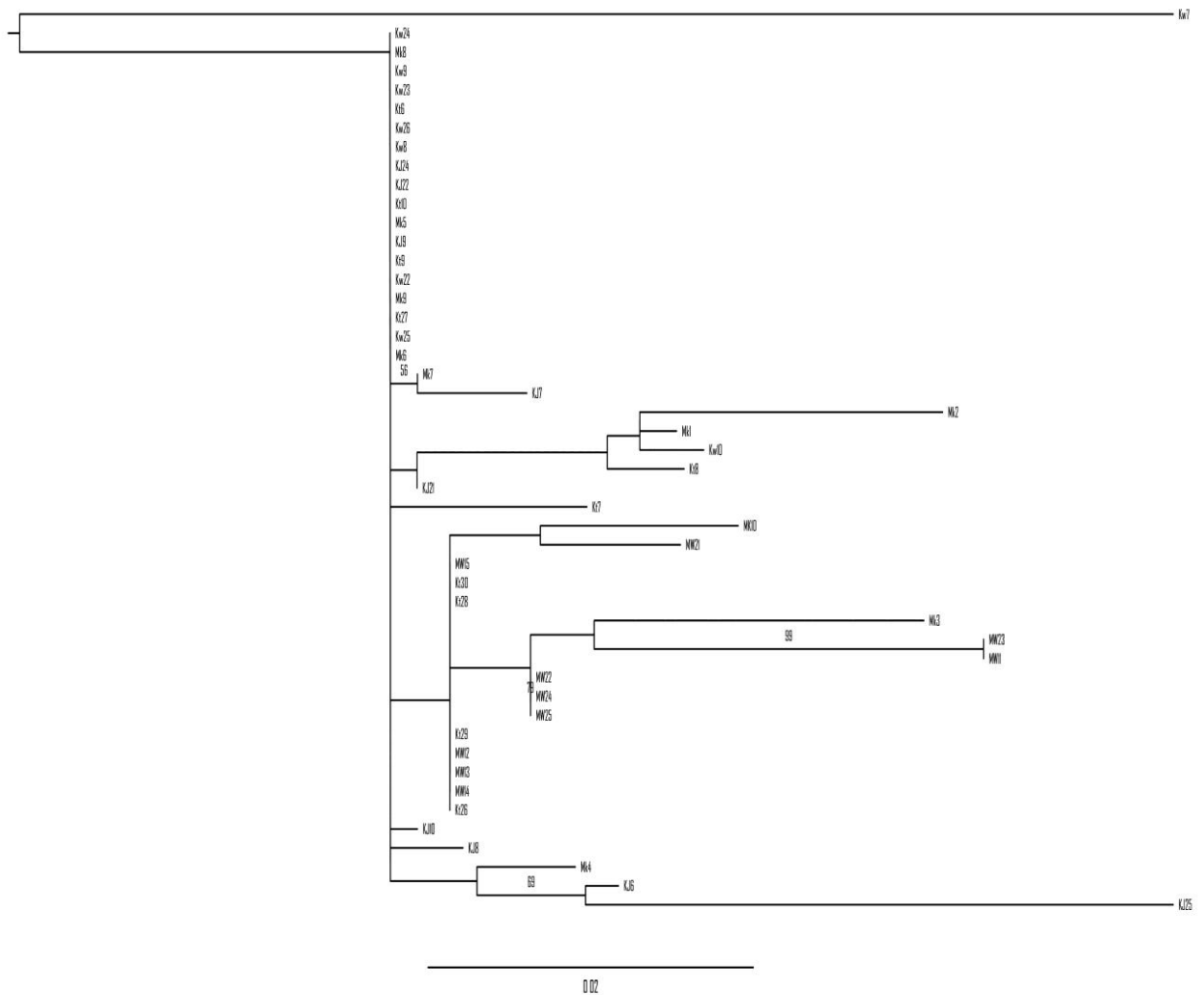


Figure 4.4: Alignment of *Cotesia vestalis* sequences. using clustalX. Conserved regions are marked with asterisks below the sequences and the numbers on the right indicate the position of the last nucleotide in the alignment. The sequences were sampled from five regions denoted as follows: Kj-Kajiado, Kt-Kitui, Kw-Kwale, Mw-Malawi and Mk-Makueni.

#### **4.2.5 Phylogenetic analysis**

This phylogram (Figure 4.5) showed samples of *C. vestalis* that separated into two major clusters. The first cluster consisted of only one sample (Kw7) collected from Kwale County while all the other samples fell under the second cluster. The second cluster had further sub-clustering which comprised of samples from Kitui, Kajiado, Makeni, Malawi and Kwale. The sub-cluster containing two samples (Mw11 and Mw23 from Malawi) had the highest bootstrap value of 99%.



**Figure 4.5: Phylogenetic tree of *Cotesia vestalis* inferred from COI sequences of 48 samples collected from Kitui, Kajiado, Makeni, Malawi and Kwale using GTR + G model. The bootstrap support values (100 replicates) are represented by values designated at the tree nodes and are only shown for branches with support of above 50% bootstrap values.**

#### 4.2.6 Genetic distances and Distance Summary

The pairwise genetic distances based on a kimura-two-parameter algorithm (Tamura *et al.*, 2011) was used to estimate the divergent distances between the different sequences. The highest nucleotide distance was between kw and Mk with a value of 0.018 while the distance between Mw and Kt was the least at 0.008 (Table 4.8). This indicated that Mw and Kt samples had a closer relationship than that between samples Kw and Mk.

**Table 4.8: Estimates of Evolutionary Divergence between samples from Kitui, Kajiado. Makueni, Malawi and Kwale generated by Mega 6 Program.**

Sample	Kt	Mw	Kj	Mk	Kw
<b>Kt</b>	-				
<b>Mw</b>	0.008	-			
<b>Kj</b>	0.010	0.010	-		
<b>Mk</b>	0.011	0.012	0.014	-	
<b>Kw</b>	0.014	0.012	0.014	0.018	-

The distance summary done in bold showed a within- species mean distance of 23.51%, a 75% maximum distance and 0% min distance (Table 4.9). The alignment option used was kimura-2-parameter (Tamura 2011).

**Table 4.9: The distribution of sequence divergence of *C. vestalis* samples**

	N	Taxa	Comparisons	Min Dist (%)	Species Details Mean Dist(%)	Genus Details Max Dist(%)	Family details SE Dist (%)
<b>Within Species</b>	48	1	1128	0	23.51	75	0.03
<b>Within Genus</b>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
<b>Within Family</b>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

## CHAPTER FIVE

### DISCUSSION

Low parasitism rates were recorded during the survey with even records of as low as 0% parasitism by *C. vestalis*. Generally, the relationship between the *P. xylostella* densities and the parasitism was inversely proportional. In contrast, in Eastern cape (South Africa), *C. vestalis* showed its potential as a biological control agent with parasitism rates ranging from 10 to 80% and even 100% when the *P. xylostella* moth numbers were low (Smith & Villet, 2001) and they were effective in management of *P. xylostella* in Ethiopia (Ayalew *et al.*, 2002) and China (Liu *et al.*, 2000).

The low parasitism rates may be as a result of extensive use of pesticides as farmers continued spraying on calendar basis using synthetic insecticides either weekly or fortnightly. The success of classical biological control programs is often reduced by widespread use of broad-spectrum insecticides (Bordat, 2004). Fields with minimum pesticide usage or organically managed ones were reported to have higher densities of parasitoids as compared to fields that were sprayed (Ayalew *et al.*, 2002; Kfir, 2004; Rowell *et al.*, 2005). On the other hand, only 16.18% of the total farms surveyed were not using insecticides.

Only 0.53% of the farmers used plant based insecticides (Azadirachtin) and 1.05% *Bacillus thuringiensis* which are compatible with the use of natural enemies. When *C. vestalis* was introduced in St. Helena (South Africa) and farmers advised to replace chemical insecticides with *B. thuringiensis* to maximize opportunities for parasitoid establishment, the result was high parasitism levels (27.7-80%) and effective suppression of DBM by both the native and introduced biocontrol agents (Kfir & Thomas, 2001). The IPM technology which involved augmentative parasitoid releases, judicious spraying using selective insecticides with strong support from extension efforts resulted in successful establishment of *C. vestalis*, reduced *P. xylostella* densities, increased yields and reduced production costs in the Philippines lowlands (Rowell *et al.*, 2005; Jankowski *et al.*, 2007). Generally, as long as broad-spectrum insecticide use is curtailed, *D. semiclausum* and *D. collaris* establish in cooler, temperate climates and *C. vestalis* and *O. sokolowskii* perform better in warmer climates (Endersby & Ridland, 2004; Shelton, 2001; Srinivasan *et al.*, 2011). Successful establishment of parasitoids requires use of insecticides that are compatible with these natural enemies (Grzywacz *et al.*, 2010; Srinivasan *et al.*, 2011).



There were records of other pests in crucifer farms recorded during the survey. Therefore farmers widely used broad-spectrum insecticides not only to manage *P. xylostella* but also other pests including the aphids, whiteflies and the bollworms which were common in the crucifer fields. Some programs used in management of pests are skewed towards the specific management of the *P. xylostella* and lack the necessary control technological inputs to manage the other pests. Similar observations of other cabbage pests such as aphids during dry seasons which necessitated use of pesticides were reported (Oruko & Ndun'gu, 2001) including presence of cabbage webworm, *Hellula undalis*, and *Spodoptera exigua* in cabbage production in Malaysia (Sivapragasam, 2004). Therefore, a holistic approach to tackle the other occasional and recurrent pests will be crucial in order to maximize yields.

Farmers used various classes of insecticides and in Kwale county, pyrethroids constituted 75.47% of the total pesticides followed by neonicotinoids and carbamates which accounted for 8.49% and 5.66% respectively. DBM has been reported to show significant resistance to almost every insecticide applied in the field including spinosyns (J. Z. Zhao *et al.*, 2002; Sparks *et al.*, 2012), indoxacarb (Sayyed and Wright 2006), abamectin, carbamates organophosphates, pyrethroids (Girling *et al.*, 2011; Li *et al.*, 2012; Pu *et al.*, 2010) and the diamides (Trocza *et al.*, 2017).

Overreliance of rainfall for production which necessitate breaks and discontinuous vegetable production could also be a factor behind the poor establishment of *C. vestalis* in the Kajiado, Kitui, Kwale, Machakos and Makueni counties. A similar observation was reported on establishment of *Diadegma semimiclausum* in Kenya (Löhr *et al.*, 2007). Farmers who practiced irrigation mainly focused on hand watering and drip irrigation which was the most effective considering the inavailability of water especially during the dry seasons.

Lack of knowledge by farmers on the use of biological control in management of *P. xylostella* is also a challenge. This shows that there exists a wide gap in relation to farmers knowledge on pest management which can be narrowed through training to create awareness of natural enemies and use of environmentally friendly selective insecticides that do not harm natural enemies (Badenes-Perez & Shelton, 2006).

The parasitoid samples collected had over 98% identity to *Cotesia vestalis*. The COI gene is highly conserved as revealed by multiple sequence alignment and can be used as a viable marker in confirming *Cotesia* establishment upon release in study sites. Similar studies

reported comparison of partial COI gene sequences of *C. flavipes* collected from sugarcane in Ethiopia and specimens from other African countries to determine the origin of the Ethiopian population (Assefa *et al.*, 2008) and primers amplified 500 bp long sequences that showed a high degree of homology within species (> 98%) and the samples could be confidently assigned to a species, regardless of their origin.

## CHAPTER SIX

### CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 6.1 Conclusions

1. In conclusion, this study shows that *Cotesia vestalis* has established in Kajiado, Kitui, Kwale, Machakos and Makueni counties of Kenya. However, its contribution in management of *Cotesia vestalis* is low.
2. The molecular identification of the samples collected confirmed that they were *Cotesia vestalis*. Therefore, the COI gene is a reliable marker for identifying *Cotesia spp.*
3. There are cultural practices that affect the establishment of *Cotesia vestalis* such as irrigation, intercropping, and use of pesticides on regular basis.

#### 6.2 Recommendations

1. Farmers should adopt judicious spraying using selective insecticides and increase usage of *Bt*-based and plant-based products so as to conserve the natural enemies and enhance establishment of introduced parasitoids.
2. Cultural practices such as intercropping and use of trap crops such as mustard will be very helpful in management of *P. xylostella* and conservation of natural enemies.
3. Stronger links between research and extension would be very helpful in informing the farmers on use of safe insect management measures against pests and would go a long way in farmer awareness on parasitoids.
4. Carry out a follow-up study on the impact of *Cotesia vestalis* after implementation of IPM with strong focus on reduction of chemical pesticides

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**APPENDICES**

Appendix 1: Farm Survey Questionnaire

**Field Data sheet for *Cotesia vestalis* pilot site (Kenya, Kajiado, Kitui, Machakos, Makueni)**

County \_\_\_\_\_ Sub-County \_\_\_\_\_ Division \_\_\_\_\_  
Location \_\_\_\_\_ Village \_\_\_\_\_

Farmer's name \_\_\_\_\_ Farmer's no \_\_\_\_\_

Collection no \_\_\_\_\_ Field no \_\_\_\_\_

Date \_\_\_\_\_

Latitude \_\_\_\_\_ Longitude \_\_\_\_\_

Altitude \_\_\_\_\_

Crop \_\_\_\_\_ Variety \_\_\_\_\_ Planting date \_\_\_\_\_

Crop stage \_\_\_\_\_ Harvesting interval \_\_\_\_\_

Pesticides used to control DBM \_\_\_\_\_

Last application \_\_\_\_\_ Application frequency \_\_\_\_\_

Pesticide application frequency in 2014/season \_\_\_\_\_

Current pesticide application frequency/season \_\_\_\_\_

Pesticides used to control aphids \_\_\_\_\_

Last application \_\_\_\_\_ Application frequency \_\_\_\_\_

Management \_\_\_\_\_ Approximate farm acreage on kale/cabbage \_\_\_\_\_

Irrigation type used \_\_\_\_\_ Soil type \_\_\_\_\_

Manure used \_\_\_\_\_ Last application \_\_\_\_\_

Fertilizer used \_\_\_\_\_ Last application \_\_\_\_\_

Fertilizer application interval \_\_\_\_\_

Other related crucifers \_\_\_\_\_

Farmer's knowledge on natural enemies \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

## Appendix 2

>Kj6

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