

UNIVERSITI PUTRA MALAYSIA

IN VITRO STUDIES ON THE VIRULENCE OF SPODOPTERA LITURA BACULOVIRUS

SYAKIRA MOHAMMED HUSSEIN

FSAS 2003 58



IN VITRO STUDIES ON THE VIRULENCE OF *SPODOPTERA LITURA* BACULOVIRUS

By

SYAKIRA MOHAMMED HUSSEIN

Thesis Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies, Universiti Putra Malaysia, in Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Science

December 2003



Abstract of thesis presented to the Senate of Universiti Putra Malaysia in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science

IN VITRO STUDIES ON THE VIRULENCE OF *SPODOPTERA LITURA* BACULOVIRUS

By

SYAKIRA MOHAMMED HUSSEIN

December 2003

Chairman : Professor Norani Abdul Samad, Ph.D.

Faculty : Science and Environmental Studies

Baculoviruses have been used as biopesticides against economic pests in agriculture, forestry and landscapes. In vitro production of baculoviruses has often been considered especially because of the ease of large-scale propagation. In this study, in vitro production was investigated by the infectivity of two genera of baculoviruses, Nucleopolyhedrosis virus (NPV) and Granulovirus (GV) to cultured lepidopteran cells. Production of baculoviruses depends on the ability of these cells to replicate in an optimal condition. Spodoptera litura baculovirus isolated locally was investigated for its virulence to two cell lines by inoculating with both forms of the virus, occlusion-body derived virions (PDV) and budded virus (BV), from SpltNPV and SpltGV. Efforts to develop cell cultures from the local Spodoptera litura for use in replicating these local baculoviruses was, however, unsuccessful due to cell deterioration or microbial contamination. A cell line from *Spodoptera frugiperda* (Sf9) was susceptible to budded virus obtained directly from the insect, but not to viral progeny. While these results suggest Sf9 cells have potential for replicating these baculoviruses, the Spodoptera litura cell line, TUAT-Spli-221 appeared not to be susceptible.



Abstrak tesis yang dikemukakan kepada Senat Universiti Putra Malaysia sebagai memenuhi keperluan untuk ijazah Master Sains

VIRULASI VIRUS BACULO SPODOPTERA LITURA DIDALAM KULTUR TISU SERANGGA

Oleh

SYAKIRA MOHAMMED HUSSEIN

Disember 2003

Pengerusi: Profesor Norani Abdul Samad, Ph.D.

Fakulti:Sains and Pengajian Alam Sekitar

Virus baculo telah digunakan sebagai racun terhadap serangga perosak utama di dalam sektor pertanian, perhutanan dan lanskap. Pembuatan virus baculo secara kultur semakin diberi perhatian terutamanya kemudahan di dalam pembuatan secara pukal. Di dalam kajian, pembuatan secara kultur telah dilakukan kepada dua jenis virus baculo, iaitu virus Nucleopolihedrosis (NPV) dan virus Granulosis (GV), untuk melihat kemampuan virus-virus tersebut menjangkiti sel kultur lepidoptera. Pembuatan virus baculo ini bergantung kepada kemampuan sel untuk mereplikasi virus pada kadar yang optimum. Virus baculo Spodoptera litura tempatan telah dikaji tahap jangkitannya terhadap dua jenis sel kultur dengan menginokulasikan terhadap dua jenis virus, iaitu virus virion and virus budded dari SpltNPV dan SpltGV. Kemampuan untuk menghasilkan sel kultur daripada Spodoptera litura bagi mereplikasikan virus baculo di atas tidak berhasil kerana deteriorasi sel atau pencemaran mikrob. Sel Sf9 dapat dijangkiti virus budded yang didapati daripada larva, tetapi sel tersebut tidak dapat dijangkiti virus progeni. Ujikaji ini menunjukkan sel Sf9 mempunyai potensi untuk mereplikasi virus baculo di atas, tetapi sebaliknya bagi sel Spodoptera litura, TUAT-Spli-221.



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I thanked God for the completion of this, Masters of Science.

I also would like to thank my main supervisor; Prof Dr Norani Abdul Samad, and also my co-supervisors; Prof Dr Abdul Manaf Ali, Prof Dr Ahmad Said Sajap and Prof Datin Dr Khatijah Yusoff.

Secondly, I would like to thank En. Ariffin from Biochemistry and Microbiology Department, members in Virology, Animal Tissue Culture Laboratory, Electron Microscope Unit members and Insectary Laboratory in Mardi, Serdang.

Special thanks also go to my husband, parents, relatives, siblings and friends that have supported me over these challenging years.



TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	ii
ABSTRAK	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
APPROVALS	v
DECLARATION	vii
LIST OF TABLES	х
LIST OF FIGURES	xi
LIST OF ABRREVATIONS	xii

CHAPTER

I INTRODUCTION

1.1	General Introduction	1
1.2	Objective	4

2 **LITERATURE REVIEW**

2.1	The Baculoviridae	5
2.2	Virion Structure	8
	2.2.1 Genera of Baculoviridae	9
	2.2.2 Virion phenotypes	11
2.3	Infection Cycle	12
	2.3.1 Replication of Baculovirus in vivo/	
	Organismal Level	15
	2.3.2 Replication of Baculovirus in Insect	
	Cell Cultures	18
	2.3.3 Viral Genes involved in Replication	22
2.4	Host Characteristics	24
	2.4.1 Spodoptera litura and	
	Spodoptera frugiperda	24
2.5	Insect Tissue Culture	24
	2.5.1 Medium Requirement	25
	2.5.2 Characteristic of Insect Cells	27
2.6	Advantage of Baculovirus Propagation in Cell	
	Lines compared to in Larvae	
2.7	Virus–Host Interactions	30
	2.7.1 Interaction with Larvae	30
	2.7.1 Interaction with Insect Cells	31
	2.7.3 Host Specificity and Host Ranges	32
	2.7.4 Factors affecting Virus Replication in Ins	sect
	Tissue Culture	34
	2.7.5 Characteristic of Cell after Infection	37
2.8	Passage Effect	38





3 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

4

	3.1	Source of Viral Isolate	42
	3.2	Source of Cells	42
	3.3	Source of Larvae	42
	3.4	Source of Chemicals and Media	43
	3.5	Cell Handling Techniques	44
		3.5.1 Insect Cell Culture Medium Preparation	44
		3.5.2 Thawing Frozen cells	45
		3.5.3 Maintenance of Cells	45
		3.5.4 Cell Count and Viability	45
		3.5.5 Cell Stock Preparation	46
	3.6	Viral Propagation in Larvae	46
		3.6.1 Viral (OBs) Purification	47
		3.6.2 Collection of Hemolymph (BV)	47
		3.6.3 Viral Storage	48
		3.6.4 Solubilisation and Infection of Cultured	
		Cells with ODVs	49
		3.6.5 Infection of Cultured Cells with Infectious	
		Hemolymph (BV)	49
		3.6.6 Cell Size Measurement	50
		3.6.7 Viral (OBs and BV) Harvest	50
	3.7	Viral Titration	50
		3.7.1 End Point Dilution	51
		3.7.2 Plaque assay	51
	3.8	Transmission Electron Microscope Process	52
		3.8.1 Cell Fixing and Sectioning	52
		3.8.2 Negative Staining	53
	3.9	Preparation of Primary Cell Cultures	53
		3.9.1 Embryos	53
		3.9.2 Whole Eggs	54
4	RESU	ILTS AND DISCUSSION	
	4.1		56
	4.2	Susceptibility of Sf9 to SpltGV	58
	4.3	Susceptibility of TUAT-Spli-221 Cell Line to	
	4.4	SpltNPV and SpltGV	60
	4.4	Viral Titer of SpltGV BV	70
	4.5	Electron Microscope Study	71
5	GENH	ERAL DISCUSSION	75
6	CONO	CLUSIONS	77
REFE	RENC	ES	79
APPENDICES 94			94
			100



LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
3.1	List of chemicals and media	43



LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
2.3	A schematic diagram showing biphasic replication cycle of a baculovirus in an insect cell.	14
4.1	TUAT-Spli cells inoculated with SpltNPV virions after 8 days post-inoculation.	57
4.1	Normal cells of Sf9at 400x objective.	57
4.1	Infected Sf9 cells with polyhedra within the nucleus at 400x objective.	57
4.1	Infected cells with SpltGV at 72h post infection with an average of 20 OBs/cell at 200x objective. of the cells are naturally lysed.	57
4.2(a)	SpltGV-infected cells able to undergo cell division and so viability percentage is insignificant to show infectivity.	59
4.2(b)	Electron micrograph of a typical extracellular virion with its envelope being discarded as solubilised in 1.0	59
4.2(c)	Difference in OBs sizes; polyhedra (left) and granules could be detected in SpltNPV infected cells.	59
4.2(d)	Difference in OBs sizes; polyhedra (left) and granules could be detected in SpltGV infected cells.	59
4.3(a)	Early signs on infection with fragmented nucleolus.	72
4.3	Vesicles start to build up in cells	72
4.3(c)	Uninfected cell with a healthy nucleus.	72
4.4(a)	Electron micrograph of a capsule being released from the cell.	73
4.4(b)	Electron micrograph of a cells with capsules.	73
4.4(c)	Electron micrograph of a cells with capsules.	73
4.4(d)	Electron micrograph of a cell with numerous ribonucleoproteins.	73



LIST OF ABBREVATIONS

Ac BDSA Bm BV Cp DDSA DIPs DMSO ECV EF
EGT FBS
FP GV Hz
IPM Ld
M&M MNA
MNPVs MOI
NOV NPV
OBs ODV OV
p.i. PDV
PIBs PTM
REN RIKEN
SDS Se
SNPVs Spli
Splt SyF

-	Autographa calıfornıca
-	N-Benzyldimethylamine
-	Bombyx mori
-	budded virus
-	Cydıa pomonella
-	Dodecenyl Succinic Anhydride
-	defective interfering particles
-	Dimethylsulfide
-	extracellular virus
-	enhancing factor
-	ecdysteroid glucosyltransferase
-	Fetal bovine serum
-	few polyhedra
-	Granulovirus
-	Helicoverpa zea
-	Integrated pest management
-	Lymantarıa dıspar
-	Mitsuhashi and Maramorosch
-	Methyl Nadic Anhydride
-	multiple nuleopolyhedroviruses
-	multiplicity of infection
-	nonoccluded virus
-	Nucleopolyhedrosis virus
-	occlusion bodies
-	occlusion-body derived virus
-	occluded virus
-	post infection
-	polyhedral-derived virions
	polyhedra inclusion bodies
-	Potato tuber moth
-	restriction endonuclease
-	Physical and chemical research
-	sodium dodecyl sulphate
-	Spodoptera exigua
-	singly nucleopolyhedrosis virus
-	Spodoptera littoralis
-	Spodoptera litura
-	synergistic factor





CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Introduction

Lepidopteran larvae of the common cutworm, *Spodoptera litura* are a major pest of vegetable crops and young forest trees in Malaysia (Sajap, 1995a). Most notably, this insect is a serious pest of tobacco plants (*Nicotiana tabacum*) as well as maize, tomato, groundnuts, legumes and many other economically important crops. Tobacco cultivation in this country is a profitable enterprise since the crop has an excellent domestic and export market potential (Yunus, 1975). Since the caterpillars cause leaf damage, they lessen leaf collecting and cause spoilage that affects the quality of tobacco leaves, thereby causing high revenue loss. All stages of larvae devour these leaves and a larva usually needs two tobacco leaves to complete development (Yahya, 1985).

Because of the economic losses caused by this pest, insecticides are commonly used in controlling the pest in Malaysia, especially methamidophos, acephate and permethrin (Yahya and Abdul Karim, 1989). However, these insects gradually develop resistance to most of the common commercial pesticides. To reduce excessive use of chemical insecticides, as well as herbicide and fertilisers, integrated pest management (IPM) programmes have been introduced. IPM



approaches ensure greater profit for farmers, less pollution to the environment and reduced health hazards to farmers.

Baculoviruses infect many economically important insect pests (Yunus and Ho, 1980) and so are potential candidates for biological control (Muhammer, 1996). Because of the devastating effects that they can have on natural populations of insects, they are an obvious choice for agricultural insect pest control. Hence, baculoviruses formulations can be used to control insect pest in vegetables, fruits, forests and crop plantations.

Baculoviruses have only been isolated from invertebrates and are the causative agent of fatal diseases in insects (Van Oers and Vlak, 1997). They are highly virulent to specific insect species, and are not pathogenic to vertebrates or plants. These features make them useful in biological control of insect pests for reducing pest populations. Most baculoviruses are host specific that is; each is capable of infecting only the species from which it was isolated although some have been shown capable of infecting several host species.

To date, baculoviruses-based biopesticides have only been produced in larvae, which is tedious and time consuming. Insect tissue and cell culture has a great potential for studying many aspects of virus-host relationships. In addition to their use for studying baculoviruses, tissue and cell cultures are promising for viral



production as biopesticides. To accomplish this, *in vitro* host ranges of the viruses need to be established as well as the productivity of various cell lines.

Cell lines of *S.luura* have been established in several Asian countries, including China (Shih *et al.*, 1997), Japan (Mitsuhashi, 1995), and India (Pant *et al.*, 1998). Although, several cell lines have been established, very few have been shown to replicate virus. Not all baculoviruses isolated from infected larvae can be replicated in established cell lines and it is very rare for replication of granulosis virus (GV) *in vitro* (Winstanley and Crook, 1993). *S. lutura* baculoviruses have been isolated in China, Japan, and India (Mitsuhashi, 1995). *S. lutura* nuclear polyhedrosis virus (SpltNPV) replication has been reported in cell lines, but there is no published report of successful cultivation of SpltGVs replication. Both NPVs and GVs from *S. lutura* have been isolated in Malaysia and may have potential as a biopesticide (Sajap *et al.*, 2000).

Baculoviruses of the same species isolated from different geographical isolates may have different virulence to particular cell lines. Kislev (1986) showed that NPVs isolated in different areas give different levels of infection, ranging from 90% of cells infected to less than 3%. Cells from the same species were usually susceptible to infection and possibly even within the same genus.

Findings suggest that baculoviruses in nature are heterogeneous populations of variant genomes (Brown *et al.*, 1985). In this regard, many variants of



baculoviruses have been isolated, e.g. Spodoptera frugiperda MNPV (Maruniak et al., 1984), Autographa californica MNPV (Smith and Summers, 1979) and Pieris rapae GV (Crook, 1981). Variation in resistance to infection of Spodoptera littoralis larvae to Spodoptera littoralis NPV has also been documented.

Genetic variant of the same species or genus may result in variation of virulence. One variant may be more pathogenic for a particular pest insect species than others. Cloning strains with best pesticide ability for safety reason are greatly encouraged to avoid any problems encountered for long-term usage.

1.2 Objective

As an approach to these studies, baculoviruses isolated locally GVs and NPVs; were evaluated for their virulence to tissue culture. The objective of this research is to observe whether GVs and NPVs are able to replicate *in vitro*, to obtain permissive cells to these viruses and to evaluate the potential of S. *litura* cell line. To test the susceptibility of insect cells to these baculoviruses, two cell lines were used; one of which was derived from the same species and the other, the same genus, respectively, TUAT-SpLi-221 (*S. litura*) and Sf9 (*S. frugiperda*).



CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 The Baculoviridae

Baculoviruses are a family of large, enveloped viruses that are pathogenic to arthropods. While found predominantly infecting the order Lepidoptera, i.e. moths and butterflies, they have also been isolated from Hymenoptera, Diptera, Coleoptera, Neuroptera, Trichoptera, and Thysanura as well as the crustacean order Decapoda (shrimp) (Murphy *et al.*, 1995). These viruses have been reported from over 600 species (Blissard and Rohrmann, 1990), and although found in many different species, individual isolates usually have a restricted host range.

Specific baculoviruses are named based on their larval host origin (Murphy *et al.*, 1995). They infect and cause fatal disease in insects, including many pests of crops and forests. Baculoviruses are usually species specific (Sajap *et al.*, 2000). Their specificity and low environmental toxicity make them excellent candidates as biological pesticides in both forest and agricultural applications (Muhammer, 1996). In Brazil, baculoviruses are annually applied to over 1,000,000 ha of soybeans for the control of the velvetbean caterpillar, *Anticarsia gemmatalis* and are also applied to about 100,000 ha of cotton annually in China (Moscardi, 1999).



Several baculovirus pesticides have been registered in North America, Europe and Australia. For example, Gypchek and Spod-X, viral formulations of multiple nucleopolyhedroviruses from the gypsy moth, *Lymantaria dispar* (LdMNPV) and *Spodoptera exigua* (SeMNPV), respectively; GemStar LC, singly-embedded NPV from *Helicoverpa zea* (HzSNPV); and Cyd-X, a granulosis from the codling moth, *Cydia pomonella* (CpGV) have been used to control forest, vegetable, foliage or fruit pests (Possee *et al.*, 1997; Muhammer, 1996).

However, the use of these biological insecticides has only been partially successful because of their limited effectiveness. For example, baculoviruses have a slow rate of killing compared with chemicals, and thus allow the insect pests to continue feeding for many days after treatment. It takes typically from 4 days to 2 weeks for most baculovirus to kill their insect hosts. During the infection period, significant crop damage occurs. In fact, more food is consumed during this time interval by an infected insect than by an uninfected insect (O'Reilly *et al.*, 1991).

Increased feeding of the insect host is a strategy of the virus to maximise its growth and survival rather than evolving to have ideal properties as a pesticide (Miller, 1995). The viral strategy to maximise its progeny production by allowing an infected host to continue feeding is against the purpose of an effective bioinsecticides which is to kill pests as fast as possible. Furthermore, a particular baculovirus has a restricted host range, and so, unlike conventional chemical pesticides, a formulation containing just one virus may not be sufficient when



treating a crop with a complex of pest species. Also, baculovirus pesticides are significantly more expensive than chemical insecticides. Current efforts to genetically engineer baculoviruses may help overcome these deficiencies (Possee *et al.*, 1997).

In spite of these shortcomings, baculoviruses do have certain advantages over chemical pesticides. For example, chemical pesticides pose a potential health and environmental hazard and can also lead to increased insect resistance, thereby limiting their future use. Integrated pest management (IPM) is becoming a major interest since it involves minimising the use of chemical insecticide and using biological control agents as pest controls in both agricultural and forestry sectors (Sajap, 1995b). Insect viruses such as baculoviruses are suitable for IPM as they have minimum effect on nontarget insects; such as parasitic wasps and honey bees (Muhammer, 1996). Since baculoviruses are species specific, they do not cause lethal effects towards beneficial insects and this characteristic increases its potential as a biological control agent. When applied to crop plantations, baculovirus formulations will not exploit the natural ecology and ecosystem.

Moreover, baculovirus pesticides are of natural base and therefore do not cause health problems in humans or other animals. Most crucially, they sustain continuous effectiveness because susceptible insects do not develop resistance to them as compared to chemical pesticides. Chemical pesticides gradually select resistant insect pests and eliminate susceptible ones. This phenomenon will



progressively increases resistant insect pest populations in the environment and eventually chemical pesticides might become ineffective.

Besides their potential as biopesticides, baculoviruses possess large genomes which make them easy to be manipulated as protein expression system. This is done by inserting foreign or heterologous gene into baculovirus genomes (Pennock, *et al.*, 1984). Baculovirus expression vector systems (BEVS) are preferred for recombinant protein production over both bacterial and mammalian system since insect cells grow at room temperature and do not require carbon dioxide, which simplify the growing and maintenance of cells.

Thus, baculoviruses are being extensively used in research and for medical, pharmaceuticals and veterinary practices (Van Oers and Vlak, 1997). Additionally, baculoviruses are capable of infecting, but not replicating in, a wide range of human and other cell types. This has led to an investigation on baculoviruses as possible gene therapy vectors or as a means of transducing different cell types (Yamao *et al.*, 1999).

2.2 Virion Structure

Baculoviruses contain a double stranded DNA with circular, supercoiled and covalently closed genome varying in size between 100-180 kilobases (Volkman *et al.*, 1995). The genomes are encapsulated in a rod-shaped protein shell or capsid



(Summers and Anderson, 1972). The capsid is 200-400 nm in length and 40-50 nm in width (Harrap, 1972). The DNA is condensed in the capsid with a protein, known as p6.9 protein forming a nucleoprotein structure (Wilson *et al.*, 1987). The combination of the nucleic acid and protein capsid is a nucleocapsid, which is encased in a lipoprotein membrane (envelope) to form virions or virus particles. Baculovirus virions exist in two types, as a single nucleocapsid in an envelope (such as GVs or SNPVs) or many nucleocapsids (multiple) in an envelope (MNPVs).

2.2.1 Genera of Baculoviridae

There are two genera of baculoviruses; the Nucleopolyhedrovirus (NPV) (Rohrmann, 1999) and Granulovirus (GV) (Winstanley and O'Reilly, 1999), both of which have a size of between 1 to 5µm. Nucleopolyhedroviruses have large polyhedral occlusion bodies (OBs) formed by a crystalline matrix composed of polyhedrin protein. This protein primarily functions to protect the virions and viral DNA from environmental decomposition and inactivation by UV light (Blissard and Rohrmann, 1990).

NPVs are divided into two subgenera, single (SNPVs) and multiple (MNPVs) nucleopolyhedroviruses (Murphy *et al.*, 1995). For SNPV, each envelope contains only one virion in the OBs whereas for MNPV, there are multiple nucleocapsids per envelope embedded in the crystalline matrix. The OBs of both subgenera of



NPVs contain multiple virions. The NPV from *Autographa californica* (AcMNPV) is the type species and the most extensively studied. NPVs are able to infect a variety of cells including the midgut, fat body, tracheal, blood cells, hypodermis, Malphigian tubules, muscle sarcolemma, nerve fibre sheaths and pericardial cells (Harrap, 1970).

GVs typically have a single nucleocapsid per envelope and a single virion embedded in an oval occlusion body. However, two or more virions in occlusion bodies have also been reported (Crook and Brown, 1982). OBs of GV are referred as a capsule, which is composed of a protein named granulin. In contrast to NPV, GVs have only been recorded from Lepidoptera. There are three major genetic types of GV. Type 1 GVs, such as that isolated from the cabbage looper, *Trichoplusia ni*, infects the midgut and fat body cells. Since it does not infect many tissues (such as the tracheal matrix or epidermis), the infected larvae typically live longer than NPV-infected larvae. Type 2 GVs are similar to NPV infections while Type 3 GVs, only known from the codling moth *Cydia pomonella*; infects the midgut tissue.

During GV infection, nuclear membrane ruptures and causes merging of the nuclear and cytoplasmic regions of the infected cell. OBs of GV, termed capsules will be formed throughout the cells, in contrast to NPV infection, where OBs formation only occurs in the nucleus of the infected cell.



2.2.2 Virion Phenotypes

Baculoviruses exist in two forms, budded virus (BV), (also called extracellular virus, ECV, or nonoccluded virus, NOV) and occluded virus (OV) which is also called polyhedral-derived (PDV) or occlusion-body derived virus (ODV) after it is released from the OBs. The budded form of the virus contains a single rod-shaped nucleocapsid surrounded by a loosely fitted lipid bilayer membrane envelope, which has a surface projection or peplomer structure at one end. This type of virus possesses only one nucleocapsid per virion, irrespective of whether it is an SNPV, MNPV or GV. BV is highly infectious to tissues within the hemocoel and in cell culture (Volkman *et al.*, 1976), and is responsible for the systemic spread within an individual insect, and apparently for lateral or cell-cell transmissions.

Although both BV and OV consist of enveloped nucleocapsids, their envelopes differ in source and composition (Braunagel and Summers, 1994). They serve different roles in the life cycle of the virus and are assembled by different mechanisms and at different sites in the infected cell. By definition, OV are occluded within a crystalline matrix, largely comprising a single 28 kDa protein to form OBs (formerly called polyhedra inclusion bodies, PIBs). OBs from NPV are also called polyhedra because most reveal a polyhedral shape when viewed by microscopy. They range in size from 0.5 to 15 μ m in diameter. However, in the case of GV, the OBs are known as capsules or granules and are cylindrical bodies, 0.05 x 0.25 to 0.08x 0.4 μ m).



Polyhedra have an outer layer known as calyx, which is rich in carbohydrates and are believed to increase the stability of the inclusion bodies. The carbohydrates are linked to the polyhedral matrix by proteins (Zuidema *et al.*, 1989). OBs give a refractile and shiny appearance under the light, phase contrast, dark or bright-field microscope. This form of virus is stable in the environment and is protected to some degree from light, ultraviolet rays, desiccation and other hazardous environmental conditions and physical abuse. This explains its ability to act as biological control agent especially in integrated pest management fields programmes. Hence, OBs play a role in the horizontal transmission between insects.

2.3 Infection Cycle

An early description of baculovirus infection was in the silkworm, Bombyx mori and cause major losses in silk production (Bilimoria, 1991; Van Oers and Vlak, 1997). Baculoviruses have an interesting biphasic life cycle and produce two functionally different forms of virus throughout their replication mechanism (Kawarabata and Aratake, 1978). Since viral genes are expressed sequentially, infections occur in three stages; early, late and very late stages (Friesen and Miller, 1986), which correspond to the initiation of viral replication, BV and OB production, respectively (Tanada and Maeda, 1983). During early stages, the nucleocapsid migrates through the cytoplasm to the nucleus of the host cell and through the nuclear pore where it uncoats (Granados and Williams, 1986). The



