Biological Control of Root-Knot Nematodes (Meloidogyne spp.) on Peach

G. R. Stirling, M. V. McKenry, and R. Mankau

Department of Nematology, University of California, Riverside 9252l (first and third authors), and San Joaquin Valley Agricultural Research and Extension Center, Parlier, CA 93648 (second author). Senior author's present address is Department of Agriculture and Fisheries, Research Centre, Loxton, S.A. 5333, Australia.

Portion of a thesis submitted by the senior author in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Ph.D. degree.

Supported in part by a grant from the California Fresh Peach Advisory Board.

The senior author acknowledges the financial support of a CSIRO postgraduate studentship.

Accepted for publication 9 February 1979.

ABSTRACT

STIRLING, G. R., M. V. McKENRY, and R. MANKAU. 1979. Biological control of root-knot nematodes (*Meloidogyne* spp.) on peach. Phytopathology 69: 806-809.

Meloidogyne spp. appeared to be under natural biological control in some peach orchards on Lovell rootstock in the San Joaquin Valley, CA. The many species of nematode-trapping fungi occurring in these orchards played only a minor role in regulating Meloidogyne populations. Distribution of nematode-trapping fungi was related to factors other than root-knot nematodes. Trapped Meloidogyne larvae were not extracted from soil around Lovell peach, and predation was not stimulated by adding larvae to soil. The fungus Dactylella oviparasitica was a more successful

biological control agent against *Meloidogyne* spp. and occurred in close association with the nematode. Although *Meloidogyne* eggs were an important food source, the fungus was able to survive without the nematode. *D. oviparasitica* parasitized most of the eggs in the relatively small egg masses (300–400 eggs) produced by *Meloidogyne* spp. females on Lovell peach. The fungus was less effective on tomato and grape, rarely parasitizing more than half the eggs in the larger egg masses (1,000–1,500 eggs) produced by the nematode on these crops.

Additional key words: Acremonium, Arthrobotrys, Monacrosporium, Prunus persica.

Root-knot nematodes (Meloidogyne spp.) reduce the longevity and productivity of peach (Prunus persica (L.) Batsch) trees on Lovell and other rootstocks (11,16,19). Most peach growers in the San Joaquin Valley, CA, use the Meloidogyne-resistant Nemaguard rootstock. A recent survey of orchards on Lovell rootstock showed that Meloidogyne populations were unexpectedly low (10). Physical factors and climatic conditions were suitable for the nematode because populations were high in adjacent grape (Vitis vinifera 'Thompson seedless') vineyards, and it was suggested that areas where Lovell rootstock remained were biologically unsuited to Meloidogyne spp. (10).

The possibility that root-knot nematodes were under natural biological control prompted a search for likely antagonists. Low numbers of predacious mites and predacious nematodes were found in most orchards, but they did not appear to significantly reduce *Meloidogyne* spp. populations (20). *Dactylella oviparasitica* Stirling and Mankau, a parasite of *Meloidogyne* eggs, and several species of nematode-trapping fungi also occurred (18,23), and the objective of this research was to determine their role in the natural biological control of *Meloidogyne* spp. on Lovell peach.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The occurrence of root-knot nematodes, nematode-trapping fungi, and *D. oviparasitica* was studied in 14 peach orchards (seven on Lovell and seven on Nemaguard rootstock) and in seven grape (*Vitis vinifera* 'Thompson seedless') vineyards. The soils in the fields were of similar texture (sandy loam), and adjacent orchards and vineyards were chosen when possible. Soil samples were collected in September when population densities of *Meloidogyne* were at a maximum (9,10). Cores were taken 1–3 m from the trunk of at least 40 peach trees and from the berm area of at least 40 grapevines. The samples were collected with a 2-cm diameter Oakfield tube at depths of 10–45 cm. Roots were collected from six trees or vines at each site.

Occurrence of root-knot nematodes. Two 500-g subsamples of soil were processed using a Fenwick can (8). The overflow was

collected on a 38- μ m screen and placed on a Baermann funnel to extract the nematodes.

Occurrence of nematode-trapping fungi. Nematode-trapping fungi were isolated by incubating two 1-g root samples on one-quarter-strength corn meal agar (CMA/4) or by processing five 10-g subsamples of soil using the method of Mankau (17). A quantitative estimate of their abundance was obtained using a most probable number technique modified from that of Eren and Pramer (7). Soil (50 g) was shaken vigorously in 50 ml of water, a 10-ml subsample was removed, and a twofold dilution series was prepared with water blanks. Five replicate 0.1-ml portions of each of eight dilutions were added to CMA/4. After the suspension was absorbed into the agar, a drop of a suspension of Caenorhabditis elegans, a bacterial feeding nematode cultured with mixed bacteria on peanut butter agar (15 g peanut butter, 16 g agar, 1 L water) was added to each plate.

Occurrence of *D. oviparasitica*. *D. oviparasitica* either was isolated directly from *Meloidogyne* egg masses collected in the field or from egg masses on tomato seedlings grown in field soil in the greenhouse or was observed on roots incubated on agar (22).

Predation of Meloidogyne larvae in field soil. Two experiments were designed to quantify the amount of parasitism and predation of second-stage Meloidog vne larvae in soil from peach orchards. In the first experiment, soil was collected in September from two peach orchards on Lovell rootstock near Parlier, CA. Cores were removed from the root zone of 30 trees in each orchard with a 2-cm diameter Oakfield tube at depths of 10-40 cm. Each sample was mixed thoroughly, and a portion of the soil was sterilized by autoclaving for 1 hr. Sixteen 30-ml vials were partially filled with 30 g of autoclaved soil, and field soil was added to another 32 vials. Samples of a suspension containing a known number of recently hatched M. incognita second-stage larvae were pipetted into all the vials containing autoclaved soil and into half the vials containing field soil. Thus, 16 replicate vials contained either field soil, field soil plus larvae, or autoclaved soil plus larvae. The soil moisture content was adjusted to 7.5%, and vials were lightly capped to prevent desiccation but allow gaseous exchange and kept in the laboratory at about 24 C. Nematodes were extracted from eight vials in each treatment 4 and 8 days later. The soil was added to about 500 ml of water in a flask; the mixture was shaken vigorously, allowed to

settle for 15 sec, and then decanted through two 38- μ m sieves. The material retained on the sieves was centrifuged in a sugar solution (484 g sucrose/L water) at 1,200 rpm (about 250 g) for 20 sec, and the nematodes were collected from the supernatant on a 25- μ m sieve. The number of *Meloidogyne* larvae was counted, and larvae were observed for parasitism.

The experiment was repeated using soil collected in December from one additional orchard, except that only 15 g of soil was used and it was adjusted to a moisture content of 9% and placed in 5-cm diameter petri dishes instead of vials. In both experiments, parasites and predators in the soil were identified by processing five 10-g samples by the method of Mankau (17). Antagonists associated with the *Meloidogyne* larval inoculum were identified by adding nematode suspensions to CMA/4 plates.

Parasitism of *Meloidogyne* eggs by *D. oviparasitica*. Estimates of the number of *Meloidogyne* eggs parasitized by *D. oviparasitica* were obtained from three peach orchards on Lovell rootstock. In each orchard, roots were collected at approximately monthly intervals for 12 mo from five trees known to be moderately or heavily infested with root-knot nematodes. Eggs were liberated from about 30 egg masses, and parasitized and unparasitized eggs were counted.

A greenhouse test (22) was used to determine whether D. oviparasitica was sufficiently active in the rhizosphere of peach to parasitize Meloidogyne eggs. Roots and adherent soil were collected from 20 trees in three peach orchards. The roots were cut into small pieces and combined with the soil; the resulting mixture was termed rhizosphere soil. Soil without roots also was collected. Rhizosphere or nonrhizosphere soil was mixed with autoclaved soil to produce a dilution series containing field soil and autoclaved soil in ratios of 1:0, 1:1, 1:3, 1:7, and 0:1. Four replicate samples of each dilution of each soil were added to 350-ml pots. Tomato seedlings were planted in the pots and inoculated 4 days later with 100 M. incognita larvae. After 44 days in a plant growth chamber at 26 C, 20 egg masses from each plant were examined for parasitized eggs.

The effects of incorporating mycelium of D. oviparasitica into soil on populations of *M. incognita* on peach were also studied. Mycelium of D. oviparasitica (isolates C, K, and S) was grown in YPSS shake culture (23). Each isolate was incorporated into autoclaved soil from the peach orchard from which it had been originally isolated (23) at rates equivalent to 0.28, 0.23, and 0.21 mg of dry mycelium per gram of dry soil, respectively. Pots (6 L) were filled either with autoclaved soil from each orchard or with soil containing D. oviparasitica; 10 g of sand containing hyphae, vesicles, arbuscles, and chlamydospores of the mycorrhizal fungus Glomus fasiculatus was then incorporated into the soil. A Lovell peach seedling was planted in each pot, and the pots were transferred to a lathhouse and embedded in wood shavings to reduce soil temperature fluctuations, as described by Lownsbery et al (15). Soil moisture conditions in peach orchards were simulated by watering plants when the soil moisture potential approached -500 millibars, as measured by tensiometers. One month after being transerred to pots, seedlings were inoculated with 2,000 M. incognita larvae.

After growing for 5 mo during summer and autumn, the plants were harvested and fresh weights of tops and roots were recorded. The number of galls on each root system was counted, and some egg masses were checked for parasitized eggs. Nematodes were extracted from a 500-g soil sample from each pot using a Fenwick can (8), and the overflow was collected on a 38-\mu m sieve and placed on a Baermann funnel. Soil from each pot was also assayed for D. oviparasitica by means of a greenhouse test (22).

Host effect. Since *Meloidogyne* egg masses from Lovell peach consistently contained fewer eggs than those from Thompson seedless grape, the ability of the nematode to reproduce on these hosts was tested. Tomato was included for comparison because it is a standard host of *Meloidogyne*. Lovell peach, Thompson seedless grape, and Pearson tomato seedlings were grown in sterilized sand and inoculated with 100 *M. incognita* larvae. Two days after inoculation, the roots were washed and the plants were transplanted to new sand and incubated in a plant growth chamber at 27 C. Three plants of each species were removed 25, 30, 35, 40,

and 45 days after inoculation. Eggs were liberated from at least 10 egg masses by treatment with 1% NaOCl and counted.

Parasitism of *M. incognita* eggs by *D. oviparasitica* was also compared on different hosts. Six Lovell peach and Pearson tomato seedlings inoculated 2 days previously with 100 *M. incognita* larvae were planted in autoclaved Hanford sandy loam soil containing the equivalent of 1.34 mg of dry mycelium of *D. oviparasitica* (isolate S) per gram of dry soil. Plants were grown for 38 days in a plant growth chamber at 27 C, and then egg masses containing *D. oviparasitica* were selected as previously described (21) and parasitized and unparasitized eggs were counted.

RESULTS

Occurrence of root-knot nematodes. The average Meloidogyne population on Lovell peach was smaller than that on Thompson seedless grape (Table 1). The average for Lovell peach, however, was increased by a high count in one orchard, whereas in the other Lovell orchards the average was 13 times lower than that in vineyards. Root-knot nematodes did not occur on Nemaguard rootstock.

Occurrence of nematode-trapping fungi. Similar species of nematode-trapping fungi occurred on Lovell peach, Nemaguard peach, and Thompson seedless grape (Table 1). Arthrobotrys dactyloides and Monacrosporium ellipsosporum, two of the most common species in all three situations, usually occurred at levels of 5–50 propagules per gram, but other species usually were present at levels of less than 5 propagules per gram.

Occurrence of D. oviparasitica. Meloidogyne egg masses from Lovell peach orchards contained an average of 154 eggs, and in all orchards some of the eggs contained D. oviparasitica. Egg masses from vineyards contained an average of 1,126 eggs, and D. oviparasitica parasitized eggs in three of the seven vineyards sampled. An unidentified fungus was parasitic or saprobic in a few eggs in two vineyards. Results of greenhouse tests confirmed that D. oviparasitica was active in fields where it had been observed in egg masses. When roots were incubated on agar, conidia of D. oviparasitica were observed on roots from all vineyards and from some of the Lovell peach orchards. The presence of conidia, however, did not always correlate with the presence of parasitized eggs in the field or in the greenhouse test. Similarly, conidia of D. oviparasitica occurred on roots from two Nemaguard peach orchards, although root-knot nematodes were absent and parasitized eggs were not observed in greenhouse tests.

Predation of *Meloidogyne* larvae in field soil. Soil from Lovell peach orchards to which *M. incognita* larvae were added contained between 0 and 1.3 root-knot nematodes per gram. Numbers of *Meloidogyne* larvae extracted from field soil to which nematodes had been added were corrected by subtracting these "background" counts. There were no significant differences between these

TABLE 1. Meloidogyne populations and occurrence of nematode-trapping fungi in seven fields each of Lovell peach, Nemaguard peach, and Thompson seedless grape

	Lovell peach	Nemaguard peach	Thompson seedless grape
Nematodes ^a	141		
Meloidogyne spp.	187	0	970
Nematode-trapping fungi ^b			
Arthrobotrys arthrobotryoides	3	0	1
A. conoides	6	6	0
A. dactyloides	6	4	3
Dactylaria sp.	1	1	2
Monacrosporium ellipsosporum	5	5	6
M. gephyrophagum	0	1	0
Monacrosporium (undescribed species)	6	5	7
Nematoctonus sp.	1	2	2
Stylopage hadra	3	0	2

^aLarval numbers per 500 g of soil. Means of two samples from each of seven sites.

^bNumber of occurrences in seven fields.

corrected larval counts and the number of larvae recovered from autoclaved soil after 4 or 8 days (Table 2), despite the range of nematode-trapping fungi and other antagonists of nematodes in field soil from peach orchards. Larvae were not trapped in soil from any of the fields. In one field, ring traps of A. dactyloides sometimes occurred in suspensions of nematodes extracted from the soil, but trapped nematodes were not observed. Acremonium sp., which produces infective spores that adhere to nematodes, consistently parasitized Meloidogyne larvae in one field, but no more than 0.5% was ever infected. An unidentified fungus with a thallus that filled the carcass of the larva in a manner similar to Haptoglossa sp. was also observed occasionally. Although the nematode-trapping fungi A. dactyloides, M. ellipsosporum, and M. gephyrophagum were sometimes associated with the Meloidogyne larvae used as inoculum, they were not observed trapping nematodes in autoclaved or field soil.

Parasitism of *Meloidogyne* eggs by *D. oviparasitica*. Parasitized eggs were found throughout the year in orchards on Lovell peach. Although between 20 and 60% of the eggs always were parasitized, the total level of parasitism was probably much higher. *D. oviparasitica* destroyed eggs in less than 9 days at 27 C (21), and some parasitized eggs probably disappeared before being counted.

D. oviparasitica was closely associated with peach roots; the number of egg masses containing parasitized eggs was considerably higher in rhizosphere than in nonrhizosphere soil. In rhizosphere soil from three orchards, 85, 70, and 30% of egg masses contained parasitized eggs, and although parasitism decreased as the soil was diluted with autoclaved soil, parasitized eggs were still observed at the highest dilution of field soil (Table 3).

Peach seedlings grown in the presence of *D. oviparasitica* were about the same size as those grown in autoclaved soil but had fewer galls on their roots and fewer *Meloidogyne* larvae in the surrounding soil (Table 4). Larval numbers were not reduced significantly in soil containing *D. oviparasitica* isolate S, suggesting that this isolate was a slightly less virulent parasite of *M. incognita* eggs than isolates C and K. All isolates of the fungus were active 5 mo after being added to soil, since 60–70% of the eggs in the egg

TABLE 2. Corrected numbers of *Meloidogyne incognita* larvae extracted from field or autoclaved soil after being added 4 and 8 days previously^a

some of the Lovell peach orchards. The presence of conidia.

DAR TURSAR 212M S200	Experi	ment 1	Experiment 2	
cendrówse fests. eta est sent festa t	Soil 1	Soil 2	Soil 1 Soil	2 Soil 3
4 days	on his om vina Tale theory	eris da els	atorare no area.	ann decese Ann decese
Field soil	833	908	951 1,09	1 929
4 days Field soil Autoclaved soil 8 days	627	920	702 1,12	9 1,103
8 days	med atom	DOIDETE	CO DEVIET PERT	Retained
Field soil	636	669	1,135 1,27	4 1,407
Autoclaved soil	574	885	1,324 1,21	5 1,348
Overall means				
(all soils \times all times)				
Field soil		61.	1,13	1:3 MA
Autoclaved soil	toner Har 7	52	1,13	7 111 1970

^{*}Numbers are the means of eight replicates, except that overall means are from 32 replicates (Experiment 1) or 48 replicates (Experiment 2). Analysis of variance showed no significant differences (P = 0.05) in any paired comparison between autoclaved and field soil.

masses examined were parasitized at the end of the experiment. Parasitized eggs were found in 76 and 9% of the egg masses from tomato plants grown in soil originally infested with D. oviparasitica isolates S and K but not in soil infested with isolate C.

Host effect. The number of eggs in egg masses of *M. incognita* from grape and tomato increased to about 1,000 30 days after inoculation and remained at that level or increased over the next 15 days (Table 5). Females were still producing eggs 45 days after inoculation. On Lovell peach, egg production began at about the same time as on grape and tomato but ceased earlier, and egg masses generally contained a maximum of 300-400 eggs (Table 5). Nematodes that entered grape or tomato roots almost always matured, but nematode development was more variable on peach. Nematodes entered the roots and initiated galls, but different numbers reached maturity on different plants, possibly because Lovell peach seedlings were genetically variable.

D. oviparasitica parasitized eggs of M. incognita on both peach and tomato, but differences in egg production on the hosts led to differences in the proportion of eggs parasitized. Forty days after inoculation of the nematode, D. oviparasitica had parasitized about 96% of the 121 eggs in egg masses on peach but only 57% of the 937 eggs in egg masses on tomato. At this stage, egg production by the nematode was almost complete on peach but was continuing on tomato. Few female nematodes were parasitized by D. oviparasitica, but more were parasitized on peach than on tomato.

collected from 20 trees in their nearly corbards. The roots were cut into small pieces and combined with the soil; the resulting mixture

Our results confirm those of Ferris et al (10), that many orchards on Lovell rootstock in the San Joaquin Valley support relatively low root-knot nematode populations. Only a small proportion of the trees had high Meloidogyne populations and heavily galled roots, the reaction normally expected of Lovell peach in sandy loam soils. Eleven times fewer Meloidogyne eggs and larvae were observed in a Lovell peach orchard than in a nearby vineyard (10), and we found similar differences when comparing larval counts at seven other sites (Table 1). Differences in such factors as root distribution and in the ability of the two hosts to support reproduction of the nematode may have accounted for some of the variations. Natural biological control, however, may also have been occurring on Lovell peach, since individual Lovell peach trees could support Meloidogyne populations as high as or higher than those on grape.

There was no evidence that nematode-trapping fungi played more than a minor role in regulating Meloidogyne populations in peach orchards. Similar species and numbers of nematode-trapping fungi occurred in Lovell and Nemaguard peach orchards and in vineyards, despite large differences in the Meloidogyne populations (Table 1). Apparently, population levels of nematode-trapping fungi were related to factors other than the presence of root-knot nematodes. Nematodes trapped or parasitized by nematode-trapping fungi were not observed in soil from Lovell peach orchards, even when nematodes were extracted by methods designed to obtain inactive nematodes. The addition of relatively high numbers of Meloidogyne larvae to soil did not stimulate trapping, although the occurrence of open A. dactyloides traps showed that the predacious phase of this species occurred in soil. Failure to observe predation by nematode-trapping fungi in soil

egg masses were checked for parasitived eggs. Nematodus were extracted from a 560-y soil sample from each por using a Ferwick

at 27°C. Three plants of each species were removed 25, 30, 35, 40,

TABLE 3. Meloidogyne incognita egg masses containing eggs parasitized by Dactylella oviparasitica on tomato plants growing in rhizosphere or nonrhizosphere soil diluted with sterile soil

	Egg masses with parasitized eggs (%)4 sem was emporiously some trails small				
	Orchard 1		WEST - 1 383-3	Orchard 2	consistently coff branchest eggs than those thorr
Field soil: Sterile soil	Rhizosphere soil	Nonrhizosphere soil	Rhizospher soil		rhizosphere: shotsiRhizosphere whilds Nonrhizosphere soil soil required for the soil sear analysis Therefore the soil sear analysis of the soil search and the soil se
1:0 1:1 4 1:3 4	85 74 35	3 qe san	(2010:19 × 30 100:10:19 × 4 10:00:19 × 221	bune besilir	a standard host of Meloidogym 07 Lovell peach, Thor s ps grape, and Peurson tomato sec e llogs were grown in o rce and inoculated with 100 M. <i>Emergenia</i> larvae, 10 o
1:7 ₀₁₀₁ 1. kelkgr 0:1	21 ann 17 .	and the state of t	26 332 107 34 10		inoculation, the roots was washed and the Epi

^aBased on 80 egg masses (20 from each of four plants).

has been noted previously (3,4).

In contrast to the nematode-trapping fungi, D. oviparasitica had many of the attributes of a successful biological control agent against Meloidogyne. The fungus (i) actively parasitized Meloidogyne eggs, which are more vulnerable to attack than are the larvae (24), (ii) occasionally parasitized Meloidogyne females, particularly on hosts where the nematode produced eggs relatively slowly, (iii) occurred in the rhizosphere close to its nematode host, and (iv) was able to survive periods when the nematode was absent by growing saprophytically on dead roots (22) or by parasitizing eggs of other nematodes (25).

We suggest that the capacity of *Meloidogyne* females to produce eggs on Lovell peach is limited and that parasitism by *D. oviparasitica* is often high enough to significantly reduce nematode populations. On plants such as grape and tomato, where *Meloidogyne* females produce eggs over a longer period and egg masses contain large numbers of eggs, some parasitism occurs but is not always sufficient to decrease nematode populations unless a particularly virulent isolate of the fungus is present or unless environmental conditions favor the parasite or are unsuitable for the nematode.

The discovery of an active parasite of *Meloidogyne* eggs associated with relatively low numbers of *Meloidogyne* in fields that had been planted to hosts of the nematode for at least 45 yr resembled a situation recently recorded in England. An *Entomophthora*-like fungus was found actively parasitizing *Heterodera avenae* in areas where the nematode population had decreased after years of cereal monoculture (6,13,14). Both situations confirm that areas in which a pathogen does not occur, has declined, or cannot develop despite a susceptible host are likely

TABLE 4. Influence of three isolates of Dactylella oviparasitica on Lovell peach-Meloidogyne incognita host-parasite relationship

D.	oyiparasitica isolate	Root galls (no.)	Larvae per 500 g of soil (no.)
C	present, an angroup to the in	47,c ²	127,b
5001	absent year tast thinkbe no o	1991 375 b	431 a
K	present	68 c	40 b
	absent	700 a	410 a
S	present	178 bc	274 ab
18	absent sistiana sussu 101 ba	630 a 87111	1.76HI11390 a 0 807691

Means followed by the same letter are not significantly different (P=0.05) by Duncan's multiple range test.

Time study. Trials I, II, and III were completed in January,

TABLE 5. Meloidogyne incognita eggs per egg mass on Pearson tomato, Lovell peach, and Thompson seedless grape at intervals after inoculation

Days after inoculation	ediately, and 24	M. incognita eggsa	verg maintaine
	Pearson tomato	Thompson grape	Lovell peach
25	100 200 322 Herry	275	223
30	936	1,065	347
35	985	1,103	270
40	1,004	1,530	120
45	1,120	1,664	95 01057

^aMeans of 30-50 egg masses.

areas in which to search for potentially useful antagonists (1). A search of similar areas might yield other potentially useful biological control agents of plant-parasitic nematodes.

LITERATURE CITED

- 1. BAKER, K. F., and R. C. COOK. 1974. Biological Control of Plant Pathogens, W. H. Freeman Co., San Francisco. 433 pp.
- BLACKBURN, F., and W. A. HAYES. 1966. Studies on the nutrition of Arthrobotrys oligospora Fres. and A. robusta Dudd. I. Saprophytic phase. Ann. Appl. Biol. 58:43-50.
- COOKE, R. C. 1962. Behaviour of nematode-trapping fungi during decomposition of organic matter in soil. Trans. Br. Mycol. Soc. 45:314-320.
- 4. COOKE, R. C. 1962. The ecology of nematode-trapping fungi in soil.
- 5. COOKE, R. C. 1968. Relationships between nematode-destroying fungi and soil-borne phytonematodes. Phytopathology 58:909-913.
- CRUMP, D. H., and B. Ř. KERRY. 1977. Maturation of females of the cereal cyst-nematode on oat roots and infection by an *Entomophthora*like fungus in observation chambers. Nematologica 23:398-402.
- EREN, J., and D. PRAMER. 1965. The most probable number of nematode-trapping fungi in soil. Soil Sci. 99:285.
- 8. FENWICK, D. W. 1940. Methods for the recovery and counting of cysts of *Heterodera schachtii* from soil. J. Helminthol. 18:155-172.
- 9. FERRIS, H., and M. V. McKENRY. 1974. Seasonal fluctuations in the spatial distribution of nematode populations in a California vineyard.

 J. Nematol. 6:203-210.
- 10. FERRIS, H., M. V. McKENRY, and H. E. McKINNEY, 1976. Spatial distribution of nematodes in peach orchards, Plant Dis. Rep. 60: 18-22.
- 11. HANSEN, C. J., B. F. LOWNSBERY, and C. O. HESSE. 1956. Nematode resistance in peaches. Calif. Agric. 10:5, 11.
- HAYES, W. A., and F. BLACKBURN. 1966. Studies on the nutrition of Arthrobotrys oligospora Fres. and A. robusta Dudd. II. Predacious phase. Ann. Appl. Biol. 58:51-60.
- KERRY, B. R. 1974. A fungus associated with young females of the cereal cyst-nematode, *Heterodera avenae*. Nematologica 20:259-260.
- 14. KERRY, B. R., and D. H. CRUMP, 1977. Observations on fungal parasites of females and eggs of the cereal cyst-nematode, *Heterodera avenae*, and other cyst nematodes. Nematologica 23:193-201.
- 15. LOWNSBERY, B. F., H. ENGLISH, E. H. MOODY, and F. J. SCHICK. 1973. *Criconemoides xenoplax* experimentally associated with a disease of peach. Phytopathology 63:994-997.
- MALO, S. E. 1967. Nature of resistance of 'Okinawa' and 'Nemaguard' peach to the root-knot nematode, *Meloidogyne javanica*. Proc. Am. Soc. Hortic. Sci. 90:39-46.
- 17. MANKAU, R. 1975. A semiquantitative method for enumerating and observing parasites and predators of soil nematodes. J. Nematol. 7:119-122.
- 18. MANKAU, R., and M. V. McKENRY. 1976. Spatial distribution of nematophagous fungiassociated with *Meloidogyne incognita* on peach. (Abstr.) J. Nematol. 8:294-295.
- 19. McELROY, F. D. 1972. Nematodes of tree fruits and small fruits.

 Pages 335-376 in: J. M. Webster, ed. Economic Nematology. Academic Press, New York. 563 pp.
- 20. STIRLING, G. R. 1978. The role of *Dactylella oviparasitica* and other antagonists in the biological control of root-knot nematodes (*Meloidogyne* spp.) on peach (*Prunus persica*). Ph. D. thesis, University of California, Riverside. 148 pp.
- 21. STIRLING, G. R. 1979. Effect of temperature on parasitism of *Meloidogyne incognita* eggs by *Dactylella oviparasitica*. Nematologica 25:104-110.
- 22. STIRLING, G. R. 1979. Techniques for detecting *Dactylella* oviparasitica and evaluating its significance in field soils. J. Nematol. 11:99-100.
- 23. STIRLING, G. R., and R. MANKAU. 1978. Dactylella oviparasitica, a new fungal parasite of Meloidogyne eggs. Mycologia 70:774-783.
- 24. STIRLING, G. R., and R. MANKAU. 1978. Parasitism of Meloidogyne eggs by a new fungal parasite. J. Nematol. 10:236-240.
- STIRLING, G. R., and R. MANKAU. 1979. Mode of parasitism of Meloidogyne and other nematode eggs by Dactylella oviparasitica. J. Nematol. In press.