Toxic effect of neem, *Azadirachta indica* (A. Juss) foliage extracts against diamondback moth (DBM), *Plutella xylostella* (L.) (Lepidoptera, Plutellidae)

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ABSTRACT

Present study was taken up to evaluate the toxic effect of methanol and hexane extracts of neem leaf against diamondback moth (DBM), Plutella xylostella. The toxic effect of the two extracts was evaluated at six different concentrations, viz. 0.5%, 1%, 1.5%, 2%, 2.5% and 3%. Mortality of larvae was significantly higher at even the lowest concentration of 0.5% (61.67%) as compared to control (13.33%). Complete larval mortality with neem methanol extract (NME) was recorded at 3% concentration. Mortality during early larval stages was significantly higher as compared to control at all the NME concentrations, and more than 50% larvae died during first two larval stages at 3%, 2.5% and 2% NME concentrations. The mortality was mainly due to the failure to moult successfully into next stage. 52.8% mortality was observed during intermoult. At 0.5% NME, 63.64% mortality was recorded during pupal-adult moult. Hexane extract from neem leaves (NHE) had a significant lethal effect at 1.5% concentration and above as compared to control. Maximum mortality recorded with this extract was 51.67% at 3% concentration. At 2.5% and 3% NHE concentrations significant mortality was recorded during early larval stages. The estimated LC₅₀ calculated for total mortality for NME and NHE extracts were 0.61% and 3.95% respectively. The results suggest that extract from neem leaves may potentially be used for the management of *P. xylostella*.

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Key words: Diamondback moth, Plutella xylostella, neem leaf extract, survival, toxicity.

INTRODUCTION

The diamondback moth (DBM), Plutella xylostella (L.) (Lepidopetra: Plutellidae) is a serious pest and a major constraint in the production of cruciferous crops throughout the world. This pest has been reported to cause more than 90% crop loss in the area of their outbreaks (Verkerk and Wright, 1996). The economic loss due to this pest has been estimated worldwide to be US\$4-US\$5 billion (Zalucki et al., 2012) and \$16 million annually in India (Mohan and Gujar, 2003). In addition, US \$1.0 billion is spent annually for the management of this pest globally (Talekar and Shelton, 1993). DBM is the first insect to develop resistance against DDT (Johnson, 1953). The genetic elasticity of DBM has enabled this pest to develop resistance against almost all insecticide (Mota-Sanchez et al., 2002), and consequently its management with insecticide is gradually becoming difficult (Shelton et al., 1993). The potential alternative for the sustainable management of this insect may be natural plant products, which have been successfully used for centuries (Crosby, 1971). The crude plant extract consists of complex mixtures of active compounds. synergistically The complex mixtures act (Berenbaum, 1985), and show greater overall bioactivity compared to the individual components (Berenbaum et al., 1991; Chen et al., 1995). Also, there is less likelihood for insect to develop resistance against such mixtures (Feng and Isman, 1995; Shukla and Toke, 2013). Product of neem tree, Azadirachta indica (A. Juss) (Meliaceae), has been reported to contain a plethora of chemical compounds. Extracts from the seeds and kernels have been reported to adversely affect biology of many pests (Verkerk and Wright, 1993; Schmutterer, 1997; Das et al., 2010; Naveena et al., 2010; Wondafrash et al., 2012). The most active compound in neem is 'azadirachtin (AZA)' which has been reported to produce varied effects, including insecticidal activity, oviposition deterrent, antifeedant, growth retardant, moulting inhibitor,

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sterilant etc. (Prakash and Rao, 1997). Several studies have demonstrated the efficacy of neem seed and kernel extracts against DBM (Dreyer, 1987; Schmutterer, 1992; Shin-Foon and Yu-Tong, 1993; Verkerk and Wright, 1993; Javaid *et al.*, 2000; Liang *et al.*, 2003). However, there are only a few reports about the effect of neem leaf extracts on DBM. Keeping these points in mind the present work was initiated to evaluate the effect of polar and non-polar extracts of neem leaves on development and survival of *P. xylostella*.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plant extracts preparation: Freshly excised young neem leaves were collected from the Delhi University campus. The leaves were washed thoroughly and spread on a blotting paper to drain out excess water. Two different types of extracts were prepared from neem leaves, viz., neem methanol extract (NME) and neem hexane extract (NHE). Leaves were weighed and transferred in large glass jar and filled with methanol/hexane. Solvents were decanted after 24 h and the leaves were rinsed three times with solvent, and decanted in the jar so as to extract maximum of compounds from the leaves. The pooled extract was then filtered using a Watmann filter paper No.1. The extracts were then concentrated in rotary evaporator at 40 C under reduced pressure to near dryness. The extracts were refrigerated until use. A 5% stock solution was prepared by dissolving 0.5 g of extract in 10 ml of control solution (methanol control: prepared by mixing 94.5% water, 5% methanol and 0.5% Triton X, as emulsifier and hexane control: prepared by mixing 97.5% water, 2% hexane and 0.5% Triton X, as emulsifier). Lower extract concentrations, 3%, 2.5%, 2%, 1.5%, 1%, and 0.5% were prepared by serial dilution using control solution.

Insects rearing: *Plutella xylostella* larvae were reared on freshly excised cauliflower leaves which has been reported most suitable for its growth and development (Charleston and Kfir, 2000; Golizadeh *et al.*, 2007). Seeds of the host plant, i.e. cauliflower (var. Poosi spl.) were obtained from National Seed Bank, IARI, New Delhi. Cauliflower plants were grown in the field plots of Zoology Department, Delhi University, under pesticide free conditions, following standard farm practices. Newly emerged adults were provided with a mixture of 10% sucrose solution and vitamins and kept in a plexiglass cage for the purpose of mating and oviposition. Insect rearing as well as all experimental bioassays were maintained under controlled laboratory conditions (Temp. 26 ± 2 ⁰C; $65\pm5\%$ Relative Humidity and photoperiod regime of 14D:10L)

Toxicity bioassay: Freshly excised cauliflower (Brassica oleraceae var. botrytis) leaves of approximately same age were taken to study the toxic effect of extracts. Leaf surfaces were applied with a particular concentration of extract on both sides using Hamilton syringe at the rate $2\mu l/cm^2$, and air dried. Control leaves were similarly applied with same quantity of control solution. 10 neonate larvae were released on the treated and control leaf surface that were subsequently placed in individual plastic boxes (10 cm dia x 3 cm height), having bottom lined with moist filter paper. Larvae were transferred every alternate day on freshly excised cauliflower leaf, applied with extract, which in turn was placed in clean box. This was done for 6 days, and thereafter, larvae were reared on non treated leaf till pupation. Since first instar larvae are leaf and remain inside miners the leaves for approximately two days, the first observation was recorded on completion of the second day. Thereafter, observations for their mortality, moulting, pupation, and adult emergence were recorded daily at a fixed time of day. The experiment was replicated six times, each replicate consisting of response of 10 larvae.

Statistical analysis: Significant differences between the mean percentage mortalities at different extract concentrations and between different extracts were analyzed by one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and means were separated using Tukey's test (Sigma Stat). Dose response mortality data were analyzed using linear regression analysis to calculate LC₅₀ values (Zar, 1999). Expected probits were obtained from the best fit in the regression analysis and chi-squared values for both the applications calculated thereafter. Abbott's (1925) formula was used to correct for control mortality.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The larvae fed on cauliflower leaf, smeared with 3% Neem Methanol Extract (NME), caused mortality (86.67%) in the early larval stages (ELM-

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 1^{st} & 2^{nd}), which was significantly higher as compared to control, and all lower extract conc., except 2.5% (df = 6, 41; F= 16.19; P< 0.05). Significant difference in ELM was also recorded between all tested conc. of NME and control (df =6, 41; F= 16.19; P< 0.05). Moreover, 1^{st} instar larvae did not show their normal mining behaviour, but exhibited wandering activity at the periphery of the rearing boxes. The mortality of DBM larvae was also significantly higher as compared to control in late larval (LLM- 3rd & 4th) and pupal stages that were fed on untreated leaves after initially feeding on treated leaves during 1st and 2nd larval stages. This clearly indicates carry over of NME toxicity beyond feeding period. Such toxic effect beyond feeding period has also been observed for hexane and ethanolic extracts of Muntingia calabura fruit against DBM larvae (Bandeira et al., 2013).

Total mortalities of DBM larvae fed on leaves, smeared with 2.5%, 2% and 1.5% NME were significantly higher as compared to control (Fig. 1) (df = 6, 41; F= 49.11; P < 0.05).

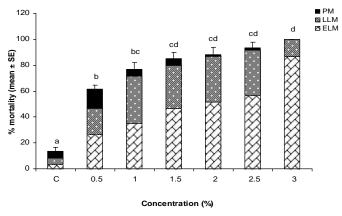


Fig. 1. Percentage mortality (mean \pm SE) of *P. xylostella* fed on cauliflower leaves treated with NME extract. Bars capped by different letters are statistically significant (P<0.05). ELM, early larval mortality; LLM, late larval mortality; PM, pupal mortality.

The larvae that were fed on leaf treated with 3% NME failed to reach pupal stage, and died before pupation. Such mortality has also been observed when DBM larvae were fed leaves treated with methanolic extract of *Melia azedarach* (Chen *et al.*, 1996), ethanolic extract from the twigs of *M. azedarach* (Rani *et al.*, 1999) or crude ethanolic leaf

extract from Annona muricata (Trindade et al., 2011). Toxicity of polar neem foliage extract has also been observed against Spodoptera frugiperda (Viana and Prates, 2003), Spodoptera exigua (Hubner) (Greenberg et al., 2005), Rastrococcus invadens (Ande and Olowojolu, 1999) and Dysdercus cingulatus (Sharma et al., 2010). Martinez and van Emden (2001) recorded mortality in Spodoptera littoralis larvae that were fed diet, mixed with azadirachtin.

The toxicity of methanol extract of neem leaves against DBM in the present study is comparable to the toxicity observed for neem seed extract and neem oil (Ahmad, 1999, Parera *et al.*, 2000, Sow and Diarra, 2013). Three neem based formulations, i.e. AgroneemTM, EcozinTM and NeemixTM have been reported to cause mortality of DBM larvae (Liang *et al.*, 2003). Verkerk and Wright (1993) observed complete mortality of DBM larvae, fed on Chinese cabbage leaf disc treated with azdirachtin (AZ) and formulated neem product (NEEM-AZAL).

The anterior portion of larvae that died due to consumption of extract mixed diet was stretched as compared to control food (Plate 1).

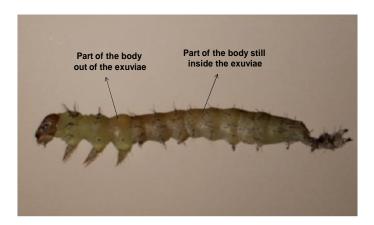


Plate 1. *P. xylostella* larvae dead during L3-L4 moult.

It appears that larvae failed to come out of the old exuviae, and died after remaining in this condition for several days. Moult related deformities due to application of neem seed extract has also been reported in *Trichoplusia ni* and *Spodoptera exigua* (Prabhakar *et al.*, 1986) and *Oncopeltus fasciatus* (Aerts and Mordue (Luntz), 1997). The mortality of

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larvae due to feeding on NME smeared leaf surface was significantly higher during moulting into next stage. It appears that NME disturbs neuroendocrine system of larvae that is responsible for moulting and metamorphosis. Mortality of DBM larvae during moulting due neem formulations has been observed (Schmutterer, 1990; Isman, earlier 1995). Azadirachtin, active neem constituent, has been reported to interfere with ecdysis of insects (Sieber and Rembold 1983; Singh and Bhathal, 1994). Such moulting disruption due to neem constituents has been observed in *Spodoptera* frugiperda, Pectinophora gossypiella, Heliothis virescens and H. zea (Kubo and Klocke, 1982), Spodoptera (Tanzubil and McCaffery, exempta 1990). Spodoptera littoralis (Martinez and van Emden, 2001).

The mortality of larvae fed on leaf, smeared with 3% neem hexane extract (NHE) was significantly higher as compared to mortality recorded at all the other tested concentrations of extract and control (Fig. 2) (df = 6, 41; F=23.06; P < 0.05).

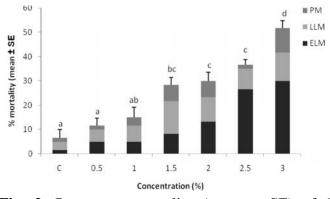


Fig. 2. Percentage mortality (mean \pm SE) of *P. xylostella* fed on cauliflower leaves treated with NHE extract. Bars represented by different letters are significantly (P<0.05) different. ELM, early larval mortality; LLM, late larval mortality; PM, pupal mortality.

However, difference in mortality between 1.5%, 2% and 2.5% conc. of NHE was not significant, but statistically higher as compared to control (df = 6, 41; F=23.06; P < 0.05). Mortality of larvae at 3% and 2.5% during early stages were 30% and 26.67% respectively, which were statistically similar, but significantly higher than other lower tested conc. of extract and control (df= 6, 41; F= 19.79, P < 0.05).

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Also, mortality between different tested conc. of NHE and control were significantly not different during late larval stages (df= 6, 41; F= 1.58; P>0.05) and pupal period (df = 6, 41; F= 1.82, P>0.05). Neem hexane extract appears to have lower toxicity as compared to methanol extract, as mortality recorded at the highest concentration of hexane extract (3%) is lower than mortality at lowest concentration of methanolic extract (0.5%) (Fig.3). This is further evident by the observation that the mortality of larvae at each individual conc. of extract, is higher in polar than in non-polar extract (Fig. 3).

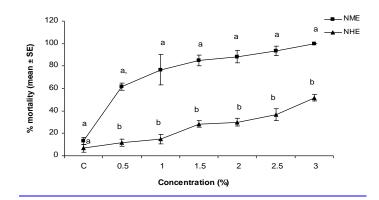


Fig. 3. Mortality of DBM larvae with methanol and hexane extracts of neem foliage. Values denoted with different letters at same conc. are significantly different.

This contention is further supported by the estimated LC_{50} value for total mortality of larvae, which is 0.61% for NME and 3.95% for NHE (Table 1). The 95% Confidence Interval (CI) for LC_{50} values of both the extracts do not overlap

Table 1. Lethal concentration (LC₅₀) of methanol and hexane extracts of neem leaves on *P. xylostella* following feeding on treated cauliflower leaves for 6 days.

Extract	Slope \pm S.E.	LC ₅₀ (%; 95% CI)	X ² -value	P-value
NME	3.382 ±1.359	0.61 (0.43-0.86)	0.405	0.982
NHE	1.932 ± 0.253	3.95 (2.15-7.27)	0.02	1.000

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which further indicated that NME was more toxic than NHE. The results of the present study clearly indicate the toxicity of neem leaf extract against DBM larvae, the polar being more effective than non-polar. There are reports about toxic effect of different components of neem against DBM larvae, but no such report is available for neem foliage extract. The present study indicates the potentialities of neem leaves for the management of *P. xylostella*. The neem plants are locally available in India, having plenty of leaves and as such preparing polar extract of leaves will be economical and sustainable. However, further research is required to isolate the active components of foliage extract for their effective use in the IPM of this insect pest.

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