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Non-chemical methods for the management of pulse beetles: A review

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Abstract

In tropics, pulse beetles, pose a major threat to stored legumes. Usage of chemical insecticides under storage is not safe for consumption and insects may develop resistance towards those insecticides. So there is an increased need to explore alternative and eco-friendly methods for the management of this pest. The use of plant extracts/oils is gaining importance in the present scenario as they are affordable, safer, and bio-degradable. A little research is done in the area of insect growth regulators against pulse beetles. Though many natural enemies against these bruchids have been reported, their effectiveness under storage conditions is yet to be exploited. Use of host plant resistance is economically sound technique and much lime light could be spread on developing resistant cultivars against major pests under both field and storage conditions. Solar drying/heating, usage of dehumidifiers, bio-thermal seed treatment devices, and hygienic storage structures could largely limit the infestation by pulse beetles. Much research could be done on the application of sterile insect techniques against these pests. In this review, different control measures as mentioned above are discussed in brief with an objective to focus on non-chemical control measures of this pest.

Keywords: Pulse beetles, botanical insecticides, Insect growth regulators, host plant resistance

1. Introduction

Pulse beetles, *Callosobruchus* sp. (Coleoptera: Bruchidae) are cosmopolitan pests and widely distributed throughout the tropical and sub-tropical areas (Giga and Smith, 1983) [35]. Pruthi and Singh (1950) [66] described eight species of *Callosobruchus* L whereas Raina (1970) [68] reduced the possibility of availability of Bruchid to five known species of *Callosobruchus* from India; three are commonly met in stored pulses being i.e. *C. chinensis* L., *C. maculatus* F. and *C. analis* F.

Amongst the stored grain pests of pulses, the pulse beetle, *C. chinensis* L., is considered to be the most important and economic pest (Ahmed *et al.*, 2003) [1]. They are found in almost all the pulses in India. In developing, pulse production systems face about 20–25% post-harvest losses as they employ traditional techniques (Maneepun, 2003) [51]. Caswellet (1973) [18] recorded 50 to 60 per cent of insect damage on pulse grains after six months of traditional storage. Sharma (1984) [86] reported that the differential rate of damage infested by *C. chinensis* in different pulses were reported to be 68, 56, 49 and 52 per cent in cowpea, Bengal gram, red gram and green gram, respectively, over a storage period of six months.

Most of the pulse beetles infest the grains from the field and hidden infestation is not detected before storage. Usage of fumigants and dusts are effective for the control of bruchids, but impractical at farm level because the rural storage structures are generally not air tight. If the food grains are stored for consumption, pesticide application may be harmful to vertebrates (Bekele *et al.*, 1995) [11]. Injudicious use of pesticides not only affect the environment but also disturb the food chain (Rajendran, 2003) [70] leading to biomagnifications. Development of resistance by stored grain pests against certain insecticides is another limiting factor under consideration. A few strains of *Tribolium castaneum* (Sinha and Watters, 1985) [93] and pulse beetle (Singh and Srivastava, 1983) [92] had already developed resistance against malathion. Under such circumstances, non-chemical methods, botanical insecticides, insect growth regulators, host plant resistance, atmospheric regulation, and irradiation technique, can be employed to manage the pest while retaining the grain quality. These include seed coating by plant extracts/oils (Schoonhoven, 1978) [78], seed drying by bio-electrical thermal device (Monica and Natarajan, 2016) [55], integrating host plant resistance (Pedigo, 1996) [64], controlled atmosphere, release of natural enemies (Doumma *et al.*, 2010) [27], dielectric heating

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(radio frequency (RF) and microwave (MW) (Fu, 2004) [33], irradiation techniques leading to male sterility (Faruki *et al.*, 2007) [32], usage of pheromone traps and insect growth regulators (IGR) (Ukeh *et al.*, 2013) [103] etc. The use of plant oils as grain protectants is affordable as the farmers can make use of locally available raw materials. The present paper reviews the various non-chemical methods for the management of pulse beetles.

2. Grain protection with botanicals

Recent researchers have revealed how bioactive compounds of indigenous plant extracts have various effects on insects i.e., anti-feedant action, insect growth regulatory activity inhibits juvenile hormone synthesis, oviposition deterrent, repellent action, reduction of life span of adults and intermediates are formed giving rise to larval-pupal, nymphal-adults, and pupal-adult intermediates and the mode of action

of oils is partially attributed to interference in normal respiration, resulting in suffocation (Schoonhoven, 1978) [78]. However, factors other than oxygen starvation probably also play a role in their mode of action (Shaaya & Ikan, 1978) [79]. Egg mortality has been attributed to toxic components and also to physical properties, which cause changes in surface tension and oxygen tension within the egg. It is also thought that oils exert some lethal action on developing embryos or first-instar larvae, for example, by the reduction in rate of gaseous exchange due to a barrier effect and/or direct toxicity by penetrated oil fractions (Don Pedro, 1989) [26]. According to Lale (1991) [47], the insecticidal activity of the essential oils is by acquiring lethal amounts of essential oil by contact or by topical application. But according to Rani and Osmani (1984) [73], essential oil could not serve as contact poison due to their poor ability to penetrate into insect integument. Active ingredients of various plants are mentioned in the table 1.

Table 1: Active ingredients of plant extracts

Name of the plant	Potential active ingredients	reference
Neem (<i>Azadirachta indica</i>)	tetranortriterpenoids (Azadirachtin, melantriol, salannin, nimbin, nimbodin, etc	Reddy, 2010. [74]
Karanj (<i>Pongamia pinnata</i>)	Furanoflavonoid (karanjin, pongamol, pongapin, glabrin, karanja chromene, karanjone and pongaglabrone	Bringi, 1987. [16]
Castor (<i>Ricinus communis</i>)	ricin and ricinine	Ramos-López, 2010. [72]
Sesame (<i>Sesamum indicum</i>)	Sesamin and sesamol	Beroza, 1954. [12]
Clove (<i>Syzygium aromaticum</i>)	Eugenol (4 allyl-2-methoxy phenol; C ₁₀ H ₁₂ O ₂), a organic phenol compound	Shapiro, 2012. [85]
Soybean (<i>Glycine max</i>)	Emulsifiable concentrate formulations of soybean oil	EPA, 1993. [30]
Mahua (<i>Madhuca latifolia</i>)	saponin, an alkaloid glucoside (leaves), <i>Sapogenin</i> and other basic acid (seeds)	Sunitha and Sarojini, 2013. [99]
Mustard (<i>Brassica sp</i>) Horseradish (<i>Armoracia rusticana</i>) Wasabi (<i>Eutrema japonicum</i>)	Allyl isothiocyanate (AITC)	Olivier <i>et al.</i> , 1999 [63]; Yu <i>et al.</i> , 2003 [107].

2.2 Effect of plant extracts on various growth parameters of pulse beetles

Singh (2003) [91] found that edible and non-edible oils used as surface protectants for pigeon pea against *Callosobruchus chinensis* @ 8 ml/kg seeds proved highly effective in protecting the seeds up to 9 months of storage. Maximum reduction in fecundity (89.1%), and emergence of F1 adult (97.9%), increased developmental period (14.4%) (Namdev *et al.* 2014) [58] and parental mortality (91.70 %) (Meghwal *et al.* 2007) [53] was found when neem oil had been used as grain protectant. Hossain *et al.* (2014) [37] recorded that the oils of neem, castor, karanj, and sesame at 4.0 to 8.0 ml/kg seed showed significant reduction in seed infestation and weight loss of chickpea seeds. It was observed that neem extract treated pulse seeds were germinated into highest number of normal seedlings in comparison with garlic extract and sevin 85 SP treated seeds (Rahman *et al.* 2013) [67]. Oils of mustard (Singh *et al.* 2006) [90], clove (Okunola and Ofuya, 2007) [62], coconut (Swella & Mushobozy 2007) [100], sesame (1), groundnut (Khalequazzaman *et al.* 2007) [43], mahua (Kumari *et al.* 1999) [45], soybean and corn (Cruz & Cardona, 1981) [23] were also proved to reduce the infestation by pulse beetles significantly. When oils of mustard, cedar, olive, neem, karanj, apricot were used as grain protectants, none of the treatments apparently reduced the seed germination indicating that these vegetable oils can be used safely for the control of *C. chinensis* (Bhardwaj and Verma, 2013) [14].

Other than oils, dried powders of clove, red pepper, black pepper (Aslam *et al.* 2002) [82], turmeric powder (Salam *et al.* 2005) [76], leaves of *Piper nigrum* (Rajpakse, 1989) [71], etc have also been reported to prevent the infestation of *C.*

chinensis L. in stored pulses. Ethanolic extracts of leaves of worm's wood (*Artemisia roxburghii* L. and *A. annua* L.), mint (*Mentha longifolia* L. and *M. spicata* L.) and marigold (*Tagetes erecta* L.), and seed kernels of dharek (*Melia azedarach* L.) showed increased seed germination even after six months of treatment (Kiran *et al.* 2015) [44].

3. Host plant resistance

One of the most promising ways to reduce dependence on pesticides in agriculture is to plant insect resistant cultivars, which is one of the most effective, feasible, economical and environmentally safe pest management tactics (Pedigo, 1996) [64]. Resistant varieties have been developed in various legumes crops (Table 2.) and the resistant source can be utilized in breeding programmes. Borthakur (1992) [15] reported that foods on which the pulse beetle was bred influence the number of eggs laid, presumably better foods enabled the larvae to yield adults with a greater potential for egg production. The growth was very fast in cowpea and chickpea but slow in garden pea (Srivastava and Bhatia, 1958) [95]. Chavan *et al.* (1997) [21] reported that brown black grey and red colored seeds of cowpea were preferred by *C. chinensis* L than white colored seeds. But according to Shaheen *et al.* (2006) [83] the chickpea cultivars with rough, wrinkled, hard and thick seed coat were more resistant compared to those having smooth, soft and thin seed coat. According to Neog and Singh (2011) [59], seed characters such as size, volume, color, shape and texture of seed coat were not related with the ovipositional preference of bruchids on different host seeds.

Table 2: Resistant cultivar/variety/accession/wild plants against pulse beetles

Crop	Resistant cultivar/variety/accession/wild plant	Reference
Chickpea	Punjab-91 ICC 4969 CM 3142-2/92, CM 88, CM 3142-3/92, CM72, Pb91 Digvijay and Vijay Lawaghar	Shaheen <i>et al.</i> (2006) ^[83] Erle <i>et al.</i> (2009) ^[31] Shafique & Ahmed 2005 ^[81] . Kamble <i>et al.</i> (2016) ^[42] . Siddiqua <i>et al.</i> , (2013) ^[89]
Pigeonpea	ICPW 130 and ICPW 66 Type-7 and IPCL-151 MANAK, BAHAR and ICPL-151	Jadhav <i>et al.</i> (2012) ^[40] Chandel & Bhadauria, 2015 ^[19] Chandel & Bhadauria, 2014 ^[20]
Cowpea	Pusa Komal, IC328859, IC107466, IC106815 Brazilian cowpea cultivars IT 85F-2687, MN 05-841, B-49, MNC 99-508-1, MNC 99-510-8, TVu 1593, Canapuzinho-1-2 and Sanzi Sambili Brazilian cultivars BR 17, Gurgueia & BRS caume CP-17, IT-38956 ACM 0502, PGCP 3, NBC 13, CP 235 and PGCP 5 189KD-288, IT 89KD-391, IT 90K-82-2 and IT 97K-499-35 TVU 2027 Botswanan cowpea land races landraces (B339, B383, B013-F and B261-B)	Tripathi, 2012 ^[101] . Castro <i>et al.</i> , 2013 ^[17] Marsaro & Vilarinho, 2011 ^[52] Shivanna <i>et al.</i> (2011) ^[87] Nalini <i>et al.</i> (2012) ^[57] Maina <i>et al.</i> , (2012) ^[49] Uddin and Adesiyun (2012) ^[102] Obopile <i>et al.</i> , (2011) ^[61]
Mung bean	Pusa 105 and Pusa Bold COGG 912	Bajiya <i>et al.</i> , (2011) ^[9] Lazar and Panickar (2013) ^[48]
Black gram	UH 82-5, IC 8219 and SPS 143 <i>Vigna mungo</i> var. <i>silvestris</i> VBN3 and VBN4	Duraimurugan <i>et al.</i> (2014) ^[28] Soundararajan <i>et al.</i> (2013) ^[94] Malaikozhundan and Thiravia, (2012) ^[50]
Greengram	Km-2 and VBN2	Malaikozhundan and Thiravia, (2012) ^[50]
Hyacinth bean	GI 77	Prasad <i>et al.</i> (2013) ^[65] .
Lentil	AEL-49/20 AEL-49/20	Sarwar, 2013 ^[77] .

4. Biological control

Biological control has not been widely used against *Callosobruchus* species, although several species of parasitoid (Table 3.) are recorded. The potential of combining

parasitoids with resistant cowpea cultivar IT 81D-994 significantly reduced emergence of *C. maculatus* at storage (Doumma *et al.*, 2010) ^[27].

Table 3: List of natural enemies against pulse beetles

Natural enemy	Description	Remarks/Reference
<i>Dinarmus acutus</i> , <i>D. basalis</i> , <i>D. vagabundus</i> . (Pteromalidae: Hymenoptera)	1. It is a solitary parasitoid that attacks larval, pre-pupal and pupal stages of <i>Callosobruchus</i> sp. (Islam and Kabir, 1995) ^[39] .	Artificial rearing is a challenge. The type of bag or cover used for the rearing of the parasitoid is also important (Islam and Kabir, 1995) ^[39] .
<i>Pteromalus cerealella</i> , <i>P. tritici</i>	1. It was thought to be a monophagous parasitoid of Angoumois moth (Fulton, 1933) ^[34] . Later it was highly successful in killing <i>Callosobruchus maculatus</i> (F.) as to other storage insects.	
<i>Anisopteromalus calandrae</i> .	2. It is an ecto-parasitoid on the larvae and pupae of pulse beetles <i>C. maculatus</i> (F.) and this parasitoid preferred younger larvae of the pest.	Laboratory assays made an evidence of the preference of <i>A. calandrae</i> to parasitise 4th instar larvae of <i>C. maculatus</i> (Ngamo <i>et al.</i> , 2007) ^[60]
<i>Uscana lariophaga</i> , <i>U. mukherjii</i> (Hymenoptera: Trichogrammatidae)	3. egg parasitoids 4. <i>U. lariophaga</i> females were able to find hosts up to 75 cm horizontal distance from the host patch, which was the largest distance tested (Stolk <i>et al.</i> , 2005) ^[96] .	Co-existence of <i>U. lariophaga</i> did not change the ability of <i>D. basalis</i> to suppress <i>C. maculatus</i> (van Huis <i>et al.</i> 2002) ^[104] .
<i>Eupelmus orientalis</i> , <i>E. vuilleti</i>	Parasite larvae/pupae (Anonymous, 2014) ^[5]	
<i>Lariophagus distinguendus</i>	Parasite larva (Anonymous, 2014) ^[5]	
<i>Heterospilus prospidis</i>	Parasite larva (Anonymous, 2014) ^[5]	
<i>Cheyletus eruditus</i>	Predator (Anonymous, 2014) ^[5]	
Entomopathogenic fungus	1. <i>Beauveria bassiana</i> Vanmathi <i>et al.</i> , 2011 ^[105] ; Shaheen <i>et al.</i> , 2016 ^[62] 2. An isolate (CA-2) of <i>B. brongniartii</i> (E-9) of <i>Metarhizium anisopliae</i> (Rodrigues and Pratisoli, 1999) ^[75]	3. Fossil shield and Silico-Sec showed synergistic interaction with <i>B. bassiana</i> and <i>M. anisopliae</i> (Batta, 2008) ^[10]
Entomopathogenic nematodes	1. <i>Heterorhabditis bacteriophora</i> , <i>Steinernema siamkayai</i> , and <i>S. pakistanense</i> were among those nematodes that showed the highest virulence 2. The last larval stage of the pulse beetle seems to be more susceptible than the adult (Shahina and Salma, 2009) ^[84] .	

5. IGR and pheromones

Overlap of insect growth regulator (cyromazine) concentration, treatment method and rearing temperature was studied on the southern cowpea weevil, *Callosobruchus maculatus* F. (Bruchidae: Coleoptera), under laboratory conditions. A concentration of 5% cyromazine and dipping treatment at 30 °C showed a significant reduction in the reproductive rate. Moreover, increasing the cyromazine concentration led to a decrease in food consumption and an increase of generation's lifespan (Al-Mekhlafi *et al.* 2011) [12]. A multi attractant lure BFL 225 was used to capture stored insects pests. The predominant insects captured include *Sitophilus* spp., *Plodia interpunctella*, *Tribolium castaneum*, *Callosobruchus maculatus*, *Alphitobius laevigatus*, and *Rhyzopertha dominica*. This implied that BFL 225 could be utilized as a part of integrated pest management strategies for early detection of potential insect pests migrating into stored grain warehouses in tropical Africa (Ukeh *et al.*, 2013) [103].

6. Hermetic storage control

In controlled Atmosphere Packing (CAP), grain is stored in a modified atmosphere, low in oxygen and with a high concentration of carbon dioxide (CO₂) and then the bag is sealed. The conditions within the bag thereafter control breeding insects and fungi, hence no need of any fumigation (Sujeetha *et al.*, 2014) [98]. Modified atmosphere (MA)

provides other alternative where additional desired gases (N₂ or CO₂) are generated by pressurized cylinders (Sujeetha *et al.*, 2014) [98]. Triple-layer hermetic bag, made of two plastic bags (made of polyethylene) put inside a third bag made of woven polypropylene is used to protect maize against *Prostephanus truncatus* and *Sitophilus zeamais* and is more cost-effective than the jute and polypropylene bags Anankware *et al.* (2013) [4]. No harmful residues remain after the treatment of the commodity with N₂ or CO₂. When different pulses were exposed to various concentrations of CO₂ i.e. 15 and 20 % (Shivaraja *et al.*, 2012) [88], 18% (Cheng *et al.*, 2013) [22], 40 and 50% (Divya *et al.* 2015) [25] in air tight containers against pulse beetles, it not only checked seed infestation, progeny production, weight loss of seed compared to normal atmosphere but also maintained seed quality without any detrimental effect on germination and seedling vigor up to six months of storage. Hermetic storage technology products are now available from small capacity bags to bigger size "Cocoons" or "Bunkers" and thus makes possible for us to use at household as well as at commercial premises for large storage. Hermetic storage "Cocoons" can also be used for CO₂ treatments of organically produced food grains (Anonymous, 2009) [6].

7. Mechanical control and Physical control

Table 4: Various mechanical and physical control measures against stored grain pests

Particular	Description
Barriers	Movement of adult pulse beetles can be prevented by placing a 7-10cm layer of dry sand/ dry activated clay at the top of grain mass (Lal and Verma, 2007) [46].
storage structures	Pusa bin, Pusa kothar, Pusa cubicle, and improved bamboo basket were found effective as the insect damage was less 1% (Lal and Verma, 2007) [46].
Drying of seeds	1. Seeds can be kept under small transparent polyethylene bags. Solar heating can reduce <i>Callosobruchus</i> damage in cowpea (Murdock and Shade, 1991) [56]. 2. If grain temperature is increased up to 60°C and maintained for 10-15 minutes, all live stages of pulse beetles present in pulses are killed (Lal and Verma, 2007) [46]. 3. A novel bio-thermal seed treatment device was developed by Department of Entomology and Department of Bio-energy, TNAU, Coimbatore (Monica and Natarajan, 2016) [55].
Inner dusts	4. Inert diatomaceous earth, activated clay (3), Fly ash (Mendki <i>et al.</i> , 2001) [54] when mixed with pulse grains lead to the reduction in the infestation by pulse beetles.

Dielectric heating is a recent technology which covers both radio frequency (RF) and microwave (MW) has been investigated for insect control in foods (Fu, 2004) [33]. Radio frequency (RF) treatments are considered to be a potential postharvest technology for disinfecting legumes of internal seed pests such as the cowpea weevil. The frequency used for MW is 2450 MHz or 915 MHz while for RF the frequency is of 13, 27, or 40 MHz (Wang *et al.*, 2001) [106]. A 27.12MHz, 6kW RF unit with a built-in forced hot air system was used to conduct industrial scale-up studies. A treatment protocol was designed to provide 100% cowpea weevil mortality combined RF with forced hot air to heat product to 60°C for 10min, followed by forced ambient air cooling for 20min (Jiao *et al.*, 2012) [41].

8. Irradiation

Exposure of stored grain pests to ionizing ultraviolet light (wavelengths of 10e 400 nm, photon energies of 3e124 eV) would sterilize, prevent emergence, or have detrimental effect (Faruki *et al.*, 2007) [32] by damaging their DNA. Three types of ionizing radiation used on foods are gamma rays from radioactive cobalt-60 and cesium-137, high energy electrons, and X-rays (Shadia and Abd El-Aziz, 2011) [80]. These radiations could sterilize the insects even at lower doses.

Seeds of green gram infested with pulse beetles when exposed to electron beam doses viz., 170, 340, 510, 680, 850, 1020, 1190 and 1360 Gy at 500 keV and 700 keV., mortality, longevity and development of the F1 progeny of the surviving adult were found adversely affected. Both the sexes were equally vulnerable (Subadas *et al.* 2011) [97]. *C. maculatus* in cowpea seeds were killed within 8 days of irradiated with 0.25 KGy gamma rays (Darfour *et al.*, 2012) [24]. Cent per cent mortality of pulse beetles was observed when the cowpea seeds had been irradiated in a co-60 gamma cell with doses 200Gy, 300Gy and 500Gy. Germination tests subsequently carried out showed that gamma irradiation had no effect on seed viability Enu and Enu, 2014 [29]; Bhalla *et al.* 2008 [13].

9. Conclusion

The grubs of pulse beetles feed on the legume reducing the weight and nutritional quality of the grains. Post-harvest losses could be reduced by detecting the hidden infestation. Several non-chemical methods have been recommended to manage the pulse beetles. Although fumigation with insecticides is widely practiced to check the infestation but their application has many negative effects both on environment and consumer disturbing the ecosystem. Irradiation technique is not accepted by the organic farming

due to the concerns of customers over the disposal of radioactive wastes. Plant oils could be a better way to overcome pulse beetle and their usage at larger scale could be made possible with seed mixing drums. The potential of combining parasitoids with host plant resistance would reduce the infestation with zero residues of chemicals. The previous research on dielectric heating states that complete mortality of stored grain pests can be achieved by dielectric heating and considered as an eco-friendly alternative to chemical control. Much research is required for the application of controlled atmosphere and dielectric heating for making it available at large scale. Further investigations are required to confirm the results of above research and to attain complete eradication of the insects without deteriorating the product quality.

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