



RESEARCH PAPER

OPEN ACCESS

Insecticidal activities of *Cymbopogon nordus* (Linn.) wholeplant ethyl acetate extract against lymphatic filariasis vector with study on non-target organisms

Ikram Ilahi^{*1}, Muhammad Attaullah¹, Abdur Rahim¹, Muhammad Anwar Sajad², Shariat Ullah³, Shah Zaman³, Gul Rahim³, Hazrat Ali¹

¹Department of Zoology, University of Malakand, Chakdara, Dir Lower, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan

²Department of Botany, Islamia College Peshawar, Peshawar, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan

³Department of Botany, University of Malakand, Chakdara, Dir Lower, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan

Key words: Larvicidal, Pupicidal, Adulticidal, Biochemical parameters, Haematological parameters

<http://dx.doi.org/10.12692/ijb/14.6.311-322>

Article published on June 30, 2019

Abstract

This study aimed to evaluate the insecticidal activities of *Cymbopogon nardus*-whole plant ethyl acetate extract (CNEAE) against the lymphatic filariasis vector, *Culex quinquefasciatus*. The extract caused insignificantly higher ($P > 0.05$) mortality of early instar larvae as compared to late instar larvae. The 24-hour LC_{50} values of CNEAE against *Cx. quinquefasciatus* 2nd, 3rd and 4th instar larvae were 439.1ppm, 451.8ppm and 665.4ppm, respectively. The 24-hour LC_{50} value of CNEAE against pupae ($LC_{50} = 2740.4ppm$) was several times higher than the LC_{50} values of this extract against larvae. During adulticidal activity, the KDT_{50} value at the highest concentration (1.25%) of CNEAE during CDC bottle bioassay was 286.4 minutes. The KDT_{50} value at the highest concentration (0.138mg/cm²) of CNEAE during filter paper impregnation bioassay was 218.2 minutes. During the study on non-target insect, *Libellula fulva*, CNEAE caused no mortality up to concentration of 500ppm, however at highest concentration (1000ppm), CNEAE caused 4.6±1.6 mortality in *L. fulva* nymphs. During this study, grass carp fish, *Ctenopharingodon idella* was exposed to the LC_{50} of CNEAE, estimated against *Cx. quinquefasciatus* 4th instar larvae. The CNEAE caused no behavioral changes or mortality in *C. idella*. During this study, high dose (2000mg/kg, b.w/oral) of CNEAE was orally administered to male rabbits. The CNEAE caused no increase in the serum levels of ALT, AS, ALP and creatinine. Similarly, the CNEAE caused no abnormal change in the blood cells counts and haemoglobin concentration.

*Corresponding Author: Ikram Ilahi ✉ ikramilahi@uom.edu.pk

Introduction

Human lymphatic filariasis is a mosquito-borne disabling and disfiguring disease characterized by impaired lymphatic system, swelling and pain in the groin area and legs. This disease is caused by infection of human with filarial nematode worm. This disease create social stigma in the patients which is associated with mental health loss, employment loss and ultimately poverty (Simonsen, 2009). Worldwide, lymphatic filariasis affects about 70 million people (WHO, 2017). Lymphoedema induced by filarial worm is the main cause of disability across the world and according to a report two million people across the globe have become disabled in lymphatic filariasis (Simonsen, 2009). Cases of tropical pulmonary eosinophilia have been reported in in Pakistan (Beg *et al.*, 2001). Three species of filarial nematode viz; *Brugia malayi*, *Brugia timori* and *Wuchereria bancrofti* are responsible for this dreadful infection (Simonsen 2009). Most of the human lymphatic filariasis is due to infection with *W. bancrofti* (Simonsen and Mwakitalu, 2013). The wide spread vector of lymphatic filariasis is *Cx. quinquefasciatus* (Ramaiah *et al.*, 2003), which is a culicine mosquito and abundant mosquito species in tropical and subtropical regions and breeds in wide range of stagnant water bodies such as cemented drains, ditches, pools, rice fields, river margins, marshes, wells and ponds (Kramer *et al.*, 2008; Andreadis, 2012). *Cx. quinquefasciatus* is also a serious cause of nuisance due to its irritating biting. *Cx. quinquefasciatus* is also known for transmitting malaria in birds (Glad and Crampton, 2015).

The most important strategy for the control of mosquito-borne diseases is to control mosquitoes. Generally, disease transmitting mosquitoes are controlled by the application of chemical insecticides in addition to habitat reduction. Usually, the chemical insecticides belong to four classes of pesticides i.e., carbamate (e.g. carbofuran, methomyl etc.), organochlorine (e.g. dieldrin, DDT etc.), organophosphates (e.g. dichlorvos, chlorpyrifos etc.), pyrethroids (lambda cyhalothrin, deltamethrin etc.) and neonicotinoids (acetamiprid, imidacloprid etc.) (Gullan and Cranston, 2005). Constant application of these synthetic insecticides has

contaminated the environment, destroyed the non-target organisms, harmed human health, and resulted in insecticide resistance development in insect pests (Lee *et al.*, 2001; Antwi *et al.*, 2015). Application of alternative approaches for the mosquito-borne diseases control is gaining attention because such approaches are environment friendly (Ghosh *et al.*, 2012; Benelli *et al.*, 2016).

A popular ecofriendly approach for the control of insect pest is the biological control. Several living organisms such microbes (Rozendaal, 1997; Phillips, 2001; Das *et al.*, 2016), naturally occurring predators (Chatterjee *et al.*, 2007; Walton, 2007) and plants (Tonk *et al.*, 2006; Ajaegbu *et al.*, 2016) have been described for their mosquitocidal potential. Plant based insecticides are also called botanical insecticides. Different solvent extracts of medicinal plants have been screened for mosquitocidal activities (Elango *et al.*, 2012; Prathibha *et al.*, 2014; Reegan *et al.*, 2015; Bekele and Petros, 2017). *Cymbopogon nardus* (Linn.) is a medicinal plant of the family *Poaceae* and is known as Sargarai in Malakand division, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan. This plant is known for repelling insects (Silva *et al.*, 2011). Recently, Ilahi and Yousafzai (2017) reported the insecticidal activities of its n-hexane extract against *Cx. quinquefasciatus* mosquito immature stages and adult stage. The present study aimed to investigate the insecticidal potential of ethyl acetate extract of *C. nardus* whole-plant against *Cx. quinquefasciatus* mosquito in order to explore an alternative botanical product, which can be effectively applied for the control *Cx. quinquefasciatus* position.

Synthetic insecticides not only eradicate insect pests but also kill non-pest organisms (Morrissey *et al.*, 2015). On the contrary, it is claimed that plant based insecticides are safe non-pest organisms including insects (Carvalho *et al.*, 2003; Chowdhury *et al.*, 2009; Adhikari *et al.*, 2012; Rawani *et al.*, 2014). It is commonly known that ingestion of synthetic chemical insecticides even in small amount causes the damage of organs in the body in mammals (Soni *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, this study also aimed to study the effect of *C. nardus* whole-plant ethyl acetate extract

on non-target insect i.e., dragonfly nymph (*Libellula fulva*), grass carp fish (*Ctenopharingodon idella*) and rabbit (*Oryctolagus cuniculus*).

Materials and methods

Collection of plant

The plant *C. nordus* was collected during September 2016 in the foothills of Chakdara, Dir lower, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan. The plant was identified by expert in taxonomy of plants.

Preparation of extract

Cymbopogon nordus whole-plants were rinsed in tap water (non-chlorinated) and then placed in shade for seven days in well ventilated room. The dried plant materials were crushed into powder form by using electric chopper and then its 200 gram powder was soaked in 1000ml ethyl acetate (EA) in a 3 liter plastic jar for four days. The soaked material was filtered by using Whatman filter paper no.42. Vacuum rotary evaporator was used for evaporating the solvent and thick extract solution was then poured from rotary evaporator bulb into 250ml glass beaker which was kept open in the laboratory for 24 hours for evaporating the remaining solvent. Brownish extract in paste form was obtained. About 15 gram (7.5% yield) of *C. nordus* whole-plants EA extract was obtained. The yield of extract was calculated by applying the following equation of Anokwuru *et al.* (2011):

$$\% \text{ Yield} = \frac{W_2 - W_1}{W_0} \times 100$$

Where W_2 is the weight of the extract and the container, W_1 represents the weight of the container only and W_0 stands for the weight of the dried plant powder.

Establishment mosquito colony

Culex quinquefasciatus immature stages were collected from the stagnant water bodies near University of Malakand campus during May 2016. Larvae were reared in the laboratory in 500ml plastic containers inside mosquito cages in the laboratory for establishing mosquito colony. Day time temperature inside the laboratory was 27°C to 31°C. Dry yeast powder and Dog biscuit in 2:3 was supplied as larval food. Pupae and then adults emerged from the larvae. Adults initially received 10% sucrose solution in

cotton pad. After 3 days of emergence, the mosquito adults were blood fed for eggs development during evening time by restraining mice inside mosquito cage. The gravid female mosquito adults laid eggs in plastic jars containing inside the mosquito cages. First instar larvae hatched out from the eggs which after few days developed into pupae and adults. Adults and immature stages of *Cx. quinquefasciatus* were available for different mosquitocidal experiments. The species of mosquito adults and larvae was confirmed by using literature (Harbach, 1988).

Larvicidal and pupicidal activities

For conduction of larvicidal bioassay, guidance was taken from WHO (2005) standard procedures. During this bioassay, 4000mg of *C. nordus* whole-plant EA extract (CNEAE) was emulsified in 32ml acetone, 1ml tween 80 and some non-chlorinated tap water in 250ml flask of glass. This emulsified solution was then poured into 2500ml plastic bottles to which further water was added till the volume reached to 2000ml. Thus 2000ml CNEAE solution of 2000ppm extract solution with acetone (1.6%) and tween 80 (0.05%) was prepared. Then, 100ml solutions of 1000, 500, 250, 125, 62 and 30ppm concentrations were prepared in 200ml plastic containers for assessing the larvicidal activity against 2nd and 4th instar larvae of *Cx. quinquefasciatus*. Extract solutions of the same concentrations were prepared for assessing the pupicidal activity against *Cx. quinquefasciatus*. Control containing only non-chlorinated tap water with acetone (1.6%) and tween 80 (0.05%) was also prepared. Twenty 2nd instar larvae of *Cx. quinquefasciatus* from mosquito colony were transferred to each concentration of extract solutions arranged for larvicidal activity against 2nd instar larvae. Twenty 2nd instar larvae were transferred to the control solution container. Similarly, 20 *Cx. quinquefasciatus* larvae each of 3rd and 4th instar were transferred to each concentration of extract solution arranged for larvicidal activity against 3rd and 4th instar larvae, respectively. Twenty 3rd and 4th instar larvae were transferred to control containers. Twenty pupae of *Cx. quinquefasciatus* were transferred to each concentration of extract solutions arranged for pupicidal activity.

Twenty pupae were transferred to control solution container. The experiment was conducted in four replicates. The percentage mortalities of larvae and pupae were calculated after exposure period of 24 hours. Lack of response to prodding was the criteria for considering a larva or pupa dead.

Adulticidal activity

CDC (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention) bottle and filter paper impregnation bioassays were conducted for adulticidal activity. The detail of each bioassay is as under:

CDC bottle bioassay

During this bioassay, CDC (2010) protocol was followed. Ten milliliter *C. nardus* whole-plant EA extract solution of 1.25% (12.5mg/ml) was prepared in 25ml glass flask. This solution was then sequentially diluted by factor of two into dilutions of 0.625% (6.25mg/ml) and 0.31% (3.1mg/ml) concentrations. Three 250ml transparent CDC glass bottles were labelled for three concentrations of extract solution (1.25%, 0.625% and 0.31%). One milliliter solution of each concentration was poured into the bottle for respective concentration. The bottles were placed side by side. A control bottle was also placed into which one milliliter of acetone was poured. All the bottles were rotated gently for swirling the solutions and thus the inside of each bottle became coated with the solution. The bottles were rolled continuously after removing their lids for making the inside of bottles dry. Aluminum foil was rapped around the bottles to protect them from the effect of light and then placed in horizontal position for 24 hours. After 24 hours, the solvent evaporated completely. Then, 20 glucose-fed and blood-starved fem mosquito adults were introduced into each CDC bottle, including the control bottle with the help of mouth aspirator. The opening of all bottles were closed with their lids after introduction mosquito adults. The percentage of knock-down of mosquito adults was noted after every 15 minutes for 90 minutes. A mosquito was considered as dead or knocked down if it was unable to move or stand within 60 minutes of exposure (WHO, 2016).

Paper impregnation bioassay

During this bioassay, WHO protocol (WHO, 1981b) was followed. Ten milliliter *C. nardus* whole-plant EA extract solution of 1.25% (12.5mg/ml) was prepared in 25ml glass flask. This solution was then sequentially diluted by factor of two into dilutions of 0.625% (6.25mg/ml) and 0.31% (3.1mg/ml) concentrations. For the three different concentration solutions, papers of 12 x15cm size (area=180cm²) were cut from the sheet of Whatman no.1 filter paper. A control paper of the same size was also cut. From each concentration solution, 2ml was applied on the respective Whatman no.1 filter papers of 12 x15cm. Thus three impregnated filter papers with 0.138, 0.069 and 0.034mg extract/cm², respectively, were prepared. A control 12x15cm filter was also arranged onto which only 2ml of acetone was applied. The extract treated, and control papers were placed in exposure tubes in WHO kits for adulticidal activity. Twenty glucose-fed and blood starved female mosquito adults were introduced into each holding tube. The mosquito adults were then exposed to test papers in exposure tubes for 90 minutes. Percentage of knock-down of mosquito adults was noted after every 15 minutes for 90 minutes.

Effect of CNEAE on non-target organisms

The effect of CNEAE on non-target insect, fish and mammal was also studied during this study.

Effect on non-target insect

During this research, the effect of CNEAE on survival of non-target insect i.e., dragonfly nymph (*Libellula fulva*) which is the predator of mosquito immature stages was studied. Dragonfly nymphs (7th instar) were collected from stagnant water near River Swat close to the University of Malakand campus during August 2016. Maximum temperature was 31-34°C. Most of the nymphs were belonging to *Libellula fulva* species. Therefore experiment was conducted on this insect.

Libellula fulva nymphs were exposed to different concentrations of CNEAE in 500ml plastic containers. The concentrations were those to which mosquito larvae and pupae were exposed i.e., 31.25,

62.5, 125, 250, 500 and 1000ppm. The volume of each concentration of testing solution was 250ml. Control container containing 250ml non-chlorinated tap water was also arranged. To avoid cannibalism, seven nymphs were exposed for 24 hours individually in 7 containers (6 CNEAE concentrations and 1 control) (Hardersen and Wratten, 1996). During the 24 hours exposure period, the nymphs were not fed (ASTM standard E47, 2008). At the end of exposure period, nymphs were checked for observing mortality. Lack of response to prodding was the criterion for death.

Effect on fish

Same size (6.2 ± 1.3 cm) healthy grass carp fish, of *Ctenopharingodon idella* species were brought to the laboratory from local fish hatchery in 5L water cooler with water of collection pond. No fish was sluggish or died when brought to the laboratory. Small fish aquaria, each of $45 \times 40 \times 40$ cm volume were used for maintaining the fish in laboratory. Air pumps were provided to the aquaria for aeration. The laboratory was well ventilated and receiving solar illumination through windows. They were exposed to the LC_{50} of CNEAE estimated against *Cx. quinquefasciatus* 4th instar larvae that was 665.4ppm. Twenty liters solution of 665.4ppm CNEAE in aquarium with acetone (1.5%) and tween 80 (0.05%) was prepared. Control aquarium containing 20 L non-chlorinated tap water with acetone (1.5%) and tween 80 (0.05%) was also arranged. Ten *C. idella* fish were introduced to the aquarium. The experiment was run in triplicate. The fish were regularly checked for 24 hours to observe mortality or abnormality in behavior. After 24 hours, the fish were transferred from CNEAE solutions to aquaria containing tap water and mortality was checked after another 24 hours. During Experiment, maximum temperature was 34°C).

Effect on rabbit

Eight male domestic rabbits of *Oryctolagus cuniculus* of 600-700 grams weight and 6 months age were divided into group A and group B, four in each. Group A rabbits orally received CNEAE at a dose of 2000mg per kg body weight per oral, dissolved in 3ml vegetable oil. Group B rabbits represented control group and received only 3ml vegetable oil per kg body

weight per oral. Rabbits were regularly observed for 72 hours for behavioural changes and mortality. The study on animals was approved by University of Malakand Animal Ethics Committee. After 72 hours, the rabbits were anesthetized through diethyl ether inhalation. The rabbits were dissected and blood collected from the heart ventricle through 21 gauge needle syringes put into EDTA coated tubes for the study of blood cells count and hemoglobin level. Some blood from each rabbit was also put into sterile tubes with coagulant for the study of liver function markers i.e., alanine transaminase (ALT), aspartate transaminase (AST) and alkaline phosphatase (ALP) and kidney function marker i.e., creatinine. These biochemical parameters were assayed using commercially available kits.

Analysis of data

Abbott's formula (Abbott, 1925) was applied for correcting mortality percentages in extract solutions if 5–20% mortality was observed in control solution (WHO, 2005). If there occurred more than 20% mortality in control then the experiment was discarded and repeated again. Linear regression test was applied for determining correlation between increase in extract concentration and mortality. LC_{50} (Lethal concentration that cause 50% mortality in a given period of exposure) values were estimated by applying log probit test of Finney (1971). The LC_{50} values of extract against 2nd, 3rd and 4th instar larvae were compared by 95% confidence limits overlap method of Wheeler *et al.* (2006). The liver and kidney related biochemical parameters were analyzed by independent sample-T test for comparison between the CNEAE treated and control group of rabbits. SPSS 16 software was used for statistical analysis.

Results

Larvicidal activity

The 24-hour larvicidal activity of different concentrations (1000 to 31.2ppm) of CNEAE against 2nd, 3rd and 4th instar larvae of *Cx. quinquefasciatus* is shown in table 1. The highest concentration (1000ppm) of CNEAE caused $76.25 \pm 7.5\%$, $77.5 \pm 11.9\%$ and $65.0 \pm 2.04\%$ mortality of *Cx. quinquefasciatus* 2nd, 3rd and 4th instar larvae,

respectively. The lowest concentration (31.2ppm) of CNEAE caused $2.5 \pm 2.9\%$ and $3.8 \pm 4.8\%$ mortality of *Cx. quinquefasciatus* 2nd and 3rd instar larvae, respectively. This concentration of CNEAE caused no mortality of 4th instar larvae. There was a highly positive correlation between CNEAE concentration and larval mortality (R square value

> 90). The 24-hour LC₅₀ values of CNEAE against *Cx. quinquefasciatus* 2nd, 3rd and 4th instar larvae were 439.1ppm, 451.8ppm and 665.4ppm, respectively. The LC₅₀ value of CNEAE against 4th instar larvae was insignificantly higher than the LC₅₀ values of extract against lower instar larvae (i.e., 2nd and 3rd instars).

Table 1. The 24-hour larvicidal activity of CNEAE against *Cx. quinquefasciatus*.

Instar	Conc	% Mortality	R ² and Y Equation	LC ₅₀ with 95% CL (ppm)
2nd	1000	76.25 ± 7.5	R ² = 0.95	439.1 (371.7-531.8) ^a
	500	52.5 ± 5		
	250	28.8 ± 11.1		
	125	18.8 ± 4.8		
	62.5	7.5 ± 5		
	31.2	2.5 ± 2.9		
3rd	1000	77.5 ± 11.9	R ² = 0.96	451.8 (380.3-598.6) ^a
	500	46.3 ± 6.3		
	250	33.8 ± 6.3		
	125	16.3 ± 2.5		
	62.5	6.3 ± 2.5		
	31.2	3.8 ± 4.8		
4th	1000	65.0 ± 2.04	R ² = 0.95	665.4 (574.8-772.8) ^a
	500	36.3 ± 3.8		
	250	22.5 ± 2.5		
	125	8.8 ± 2.4		
	62.5	2.5 ± 1.4		
	31.2	0		

a.- represents that LC₅₀ values of extract against different instar larvae are not different significantly (at P<0.05 significance level) on the basis of 95% confidence limit overlap.

Pupicidal activity

The 24-hour pupicidal activity of different concentrations (1000 to 31.2ppm) of CNEAE against *Cx. quinquefasciatus* pupae is shown in table 2. The highest concentration of CNEAE caused $30 \pm 8.2\%$ mortality of *Cx. quinquefasciatus* pupae. The lowest

concentration of CNEAE caused no mortality of *Cx. quinquefasciatus* pupae. The 24-hour LC₅₀ value of CNEAE against *Cx. quinquefasciatus* pupae was 2740.4ppm which was several times higher than the LC₅₀ values of this extract against *Cx. quinquefasciatus* larvae.

Table 2. The 24-hour pupicidal activity of CNEAE against *Cx. quinquefasciatus*.

Concentration	% Mortality	R ² and Y Equation	LC ₅₀ with 95% CL (ppm)
1000	30 ± 8.2	R ² = 0.96	2740.4 (1631.4-6565.2)
500	20 ± 8.2		
250	8.8 ± 2.5		
125	7.5 ± 5		
62.5	3.8 ± 4.7		
31.2	0		

CL.- 95% confidence limits

Adulticidal activity

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) bottle bioassay and filter paper impregnation bioassay were used for assessing the adulticidal activity of CNEAE against *Cx. quinquefasciatus* female adults.

The results of CDC bottle bioassay and filter paper impregnation bioassay are shown in table 3. In case of CDC bottle bioassay, the KDT₅₀ values of 1.25%, 0.625% and 0.31% solutions of CNEAE were 286.4, 480.8 and 510.3 minutes, respectively.

During paper impregnation bioassay, the KDT₅₀ values of 0.138mg/cm², 0.069mg/cm² and 0.034mg /cm² of CNEAE were 218.2, 347.3 and 461.6 minutes, respectively.

Table 3. Adulticidal activity of CNEAE against *Cx. quinquefasciatus*.

Bioassay	Concentration	KDT ₅₀ (L-U) (Minutes)
CDC bottle	1.25%	286.4 (162.1–1707.2)
	0.625%	480.8 (247.8- 2971.7)
	0.31%	510.3 (377.2–3306.3)
Filter paper	0.138mg/cm ²	218.2 (175.4 – 300.3)
	0.069mg/cm ²	347.3 (215.4–908.03)
	0.034mg/cm ²	461.6 (266.9–1482.5)

L-U.- lower and upper limits of 95% confidence

Effect on non-target insect

The *C. nardus* whole- plant EA extract appeared safe for dragonfly (*L. fulva*) nymphs. During exposure up to the concentration of 500ppm, no *L. fulva* nymph died. However the highest concentration (1000ppm) of CNEAE caused mortality of small percentage of nymphs (4.6±1.6%) (Table 4).

Table 4. Effect of CNEAE on non-target insect, dragonfly nymph of *L. fulva* species.

Concentration (ppm)	Mortality (Mean ± SE)
1000	4.6±1.6
500	0
250	0
125	0
62.5	0
31.25	0
Control	0

Effect on fish

Fish of *C. idella* species were exposed to 665.4ppm concentration of extract. Fish exposed to extract in aquarium were regularly checked for mortality or behavioral changes during 24 hours. No fish died and no change in behavior of fish was observed.

Effect on rabbit

The effect of oral administration of CNEAE high dose on the serum levels of liver and kidney related biochemical parameters and haematological parameters of male rabbits was studied. The serum levels of liver parameters i.e., ALT, AST, ALP and kidney related parameter i.e., creatinine of extract treated group of rabbits were statistically

homogeneous ($P > 0.05$) to those of control group of rabbits (Table 5). Similarly, the RBCs count, WBCs count and platelets count of extract treated group of rabbits were statistically homogeneous ($P > 0.05$) to those of control group of rabbits (Table 6).

Table 5. Effect CNEAE on some biochemical parameters of normal rabbits. N=4 Values are mean and standard error of mean.

Plants	ALT (U/L)	AST (U/L)	ALP (U/L)	Creatinine mg/dl
<i>C. nardus</i>	36.0±4.5	34.6±4.3	103.7±11.7	0.4±0.13
Control	40.0±2.2	41.3±6.2	98.0±17.4	0.5± 0.07
T value	0.18	0.2	0.01	0.05
DF	8	8	8	8
Significance	$P > 0.05$	$P > 0.05$	$P > 0.05$	$P > 0.05$

Table 6. Effect of CNEAE on some haematological parameters of normal rabbits. N=4 Values are mean and standard error of mean.

Plants	RBCs (X 10 ⁶ /μl)	WBCs (X 10 ³ /μl)	Platelets (X 10 ³ /μl)	Hb (g/dl)
<i>C. nardus</i>	6.6±0.2	10.3±0.8	269.3±4.1	12.7±0.9
Control	5.9±0.3	11.5±0.4	265.4±12.3	13.1±0.5
T value	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.8
DF within groups	8	8	8	8
Significance	$P > 0.05$	$P > 0.05$	$P > 0.05$	$P > 0.05$

Discussion

Control of mosquitoes is very essential for the control of mosquito borne diseases. Synthetic pyrethroids are expensive while organochlorine and organophosphate are not safe for the environment, therefore researchers are now looking for plant based insecticides to control mosquitoes (Shalan *et al.*, 2005). The insecticidal potential of CNEAE was investigated against *Cx. quinquefasciatus* during the present study. The CNEAE showed efficient larvicidal and pupicidal activity against *Cx. quinquefasciatus* (Table 1 to 2). The percentage of mosquito larval and pupal mortality was strongly correlated with increase in extract concentration as reflected by high R square value ($P > 0.90$). Such correlations have been observed in the studies of Adhikari *et al.* (2012) and Rawani *et al.* (2013). The plant *C. nardus* is known for its insect repellent or insecticidal property. For example, Doumbia *et al.* (2014) and Nyamador *et al.* (2017) reported the insecticidal role of *C. nardus* essential oils against insect pests of stored food products. Silva *et al.* (2011) reported the insect repellent activity of *C. nardus* essential oil against mosquito.

Ríos *et al.* (2017) reported the larvicidal action of essential oils of *C. nardus* against *Ae. Aegypti*. The results of the present research show that CNEAE also possesses larvicidal and insecticidal ability against *Cx. quinquefasciatus*.

During the present research, the extract caused insignificantly higher mortality of early instar larvae as compared to the mortality of late instar larvae (4th instar). The LC₅₀ value of extract for 2nd instar larvae was insignificantly lower ($P < 0.05$) when compared to its LC₅₀ value for 4th instar larvae. The higher sensitivity of early instar larvae to larvicidal extracts during the present study may be due to higher filtration rate in early instars than in late instar larvae (de Andrade and Modolo, 1991). Chowdhury *et al.* (2009) and Kovendan *et al.* (2012) also reported higher susceptibility of early instars larvae to insecticides. During the present research, it was also observed that pupae are not as susceptible to extract solution as the larvae. The possible reason is the presence of much heavier cuticle in pupae than larvae (Christophers, 1960; Beloti). Such trend can be seen in the results of research work of other researchers (Jayanthi *et al.*, 2012; Kovendan *et al.*, 2012).

During the study of adulticidal activity, the knockdown of *Cx. quinquefasciatus* adults exposed to various concentration of CNEAE was studied by CDC bottle and filter paper impregnation bioassays. The CNEAE caused knock down of female mosquito adults during both, CDC bottle and filter paper impregnation bioassays. In each of these bioassays, low KDT₅₀ value was observed for high CNEAE concentration, while for low extract concentration, high KDT₅₀ value was observed (Table 3). The essential oil of this plant has insect repellent property (Silva *et al.*, 2011). The adulticidal activity of n-hexane extract of this plant against mosquito has been reported (Ilahi and Yousafzai, 2017). The present study showed that CNEAE also possesses adulticidal property against mosquitoes. The adulticidal activity of essential oils or extracts of other medicinal plants against mosquitoes have also been reported (Dua *et al.*, 2010; Karaborklu *et al.*, 2011; Ajaegbu *et al.*, 2016).

The insecticidal properties of plant extracts are due to the presence of secondary metabolites. For example, Harraz *et al.* (2015) identified twelve metabolites in *Chenopodium ambrosioides* essential oil in which α -terpinene and *o*-cymene were the major metabolites. In the essential oil of *Chenopodium botrys*, several secondary metabolites have been identified in which Veridiflorol, Juniper camphor, Elemol, Caryophyllene oxide, 2-(4a,8-Dimethyl-1, 2, 3, 4, 4a, 5, 6, 7-octahydro-naphthalen-2-yl)-prop-2-en-1-ol and β -Eudesmol were the major metabolites (Monzote *et al.* (2014). In the essential oil of *C. nardus*, the plant studied for mosquitocidal activities during the present research, contain limonene, elemol, geraniol, citronellol and Citronellal (Karaborklu *et al.*, 2011).

The effect of CNEAE on non-target insect i.e., dragonfly nymph of *L. fulva* species, fresh water grass carp fish i.e., *C. idella* species and domestic male rabbits of *O. cuniculus* was also studied during the present research. During the study on *L. fulva* species, the *C. nardus* whole- plant EA extract appeared safe. No mortality of *L. fulva* nymphs was observed when exposed to extract solution of 500ppm concentration. However, its highest concentration (1000ppm) caused mortality of $4.6 \pm 1.6\%$ nymphs (Table 4). During the study on *C. idella* fish, the CNEAE caused no mortality or behavioural changes during 24-hour exposure. The effect of larvicidal plant extract on non-target organisms have been reported. For example, during a study the larvicidal effect of extract from the leaves of *Solanum villosum* was studied against *Anopheles* with study on *Chironomus circumdatus* larval stage (Chowdhury *et al.*, 2009). During their study, the extract was not toxic against *Chironomus circumdatus*. In another study, *Swietenia mahagoni* extract repelled mosquito adults and killed the larvae *Cx. quinquefasciatus* but caused no mortality of *Gambusia affinis* fish, *Bufo* tadpoles and larvae of *Chironomus* (Adhikari *et al.*, 2012). During their study, the extract was not harmful against non-pest organisms.

During this study, the effect of oral ingestion (2000mg/kg. b.w/oral) of CNEAE in male rabbits on the serum levels of some liver and kidney related

biomolecules i.e., AST, ALT, ALP and creatinine was studied (Table 5). There occurred no significant alteration ($P>0.05$) in the serum levels of these parameters from control rabbit group. The effect of oral ingestion of CNEAE on blood cells counts and haemoglobin concentration of male rabbit was also studied. There occurred no significant alteration in these haematological parameters of extract treated rabbits group from the control rabbits group (Table 6). Similar studies have been reported for other plants in other mammal models. For example, during a study, the insecticidal activity of *Lippia sidoides* essential oils against *Aedes aegypti* with effect on mice (Carvalho *et al.*, 2003). They injected pure and diluted hydrolate (30ml/ kg. b. w. into the mice intraperitoneum. During their study, the essential oil showed no toxicity in mice.

Conclusion and recommendation

The CNEAE is larvicidal, pupicidal and adulticidal against the lymphatic filariasis vector, *Cx. quinquefasciatus*. The CNEAE is not toxic for non-target insects, fresh water fish and mammals. There is a need for screening of native medicinal plants to find more effective herbal pesticides against mosquitoes and other insect pests.

References

Abbott WS. 1925. A method of computing the effectiveness of an insecticide. Journal of the American Mosquito Control Association **3**, 302-303.

Adhikari U, Singha S, Chandra G. 2012. In vitro repellent and larvicidal efficacy of *Swietenia mahagoni* against the larval forms of *Culex quinquefasciatus* Say. Asian Pacific Journal of Tropical Biomedicine **2(1)**, 260-264.

Ajaegbu EA, Danga SPY, Chijoke IK, Okoye FBC. 2016. Mosquito adulticidal activity of the leaf extracts of *Spondias mombin* L. against *Aedes aegypti* L. and isolation of active principles. Journal of Vector Borne Diseases **53**, 17-22.

Andreadis TG. 2012. The contribution of *Culex pipiens* complex mosquitoes to transmission and persistence of West Nile virus in North America. Journal of the American Mosquito Control Association **28 (4 Suppl)**, 137-151.

Anokwuru CP, Anyasor GN, Ajibaye O, Fakoya O, Okebugwu P. 2011. Effect of Extraction Solvents on Phenolic, Flavonoid and Antioxidant activities of Three Nigerian Medicinal Plants. Nature and Science **9(7)**, 53-61.

ASTM- American Society for Testing and Materials. 2008. Guide for Conducting Acute Toxicity Tests on Aqueous Ambient Samples and Effluents with Fishes, Macroinvertebrates, and Amphibians. ASTM International.

Beg MA, Naqvi A, Zamanand V and Hussain R. 2001. Tropical Pulmonary Eosinophilia and Filariasis in Pakistan. Southeast Asian Journal of Tropical Medicine and Public Health **32(1)**, 73-75.

Bekele D, Petros B. 2017. Repellent Effects of Aloe pirottae (Aloaceae) Gel Extract and Brassica nigra (Brassicaceae) Essential Oil against the Malaria Vector, *Anopheles arabiensis* Patton (Diptera: Culicidae). Biochemistry and Analytical Biochemistry **6**, 336.

Beloti VH, Alves GR, Araújo DFD, Picoli MM, Moral RdA, Demétrio CGB, Yamamoto PT. 2015. Lethal and Sublethal Effects of Insecticides Used on Citrus, on the Ectoparasitoid *Tamarixia radiata*. PLoS ONE **10(7)**, e0132128.

Benelli G. 2015. Plant-borne ovicides in the fight against mosquito vectors of medical and veterinary importance: A systematic review. Parasitology Research **114**, 3201-3212.

Carvalho AFU, Melo YMM, Craveiro AA, Machado MIL, Bantim MB, Rabelo EF. 2003. Larvicidal Activity of the Essential Oil from *Lippia sidoides* Cham. against *Aedes aegypti* Linn. Memórias do Instituto Oswaldo Cruz **98(4)**, 569-571.

CDC- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. 2010. Guideline for evaluating insecticide resistance in vectors using the CDC bottle bioassay. In: Brogdon G, Chan BH, editors. Centers for disease control and prevention. 1st ed. 2010 Available from: <http://www.cdc.gov/malaria>.

- Chatterjee SN, Ghosh A, Chandra G.** 2007. Eco-friendly control of mosquito larvae by *Brachytron pratense* nymph. *Journal of Environmental Health* **69(8)**, 44-49.
- Chowdhury N, Chatterjee SK, Laskar S, Chandra G.** 2009. Larvicidal activity of *Solanum villosum* Mill (Solanaceae: Solanales) leaves to *Anopheles subpictus* Grassi (Diptera: Culicidae) with effect on non-target *Chironomus circumdatus* KieVer (Diptera: Chironomidae). *Journal of Pest Science* **82**, 13-18.
- Christophers SR.** 1960. *Aedes aegypti* (L.), the yellow fever mosquito. Its life history, bionomics and structure. Cambridge, at the University Press pp. 384.
- Das BP, Deobhankar K, Pohekar KN, Marathe R, Husain SA, Jambulingam P.** 2016. Laboratory bioassay of *Chilodonella uncinata*, an entomopathogenic protozoan, against mosquito larvae. *Journal of Mosquito Research* **6(10)**, 1-10.
- de Andrade CFS, Modolo M.** 1991. Susceptibility of *Aedes aegypti* larvae to temephos and *Bacillus thuringiensis* var *israelensis* in integrated control. *Revista de saúde pública São Paulo* **25(3)**, 184-187.
- Doumbia M, Yoboue K, Kouamé LK, Coffi K, Kra DK, Kwadjo KE, Douan BG, Dagnogo M.** 2014. Toxicity of *Cymbopogon nardus* (Glumales: Poaceae) against four stored food products insect pests. *International Journal of Farming and Allied Sciences* **3(8)**, 903-909.
- Dua VK, Pandey AC, Dash AP.** 2010. Adulticidal activity of essential oil of *Lantana camara* leaves against mosquitoes *Indian Journal of Medical Research* **131**, 434-439.
- Elango G, Rahuman AA, Kamaraj C, Bagavan A, Zahir A.** 2012. Adult emergence inhibition and adulticidal activity of leaf crude extracts against Japanese encephalitis vector, *Culex tritaeniorhynchus*. *Journal of King Saud University Science* **24**, 73-80.
- Farajollahi A, Fonseca DM, Kramer LD, Kilpatrick AM.** 2011. Bird biting” mosquitoes and human diseases: A review of the role of *Culex pipiens* complex mosquitoes in epidemiology. *Infection, Genetics and Evolution* **11(7)**, 1577-1585.
- Finney DJ.** 1971. Probit analysis. Cambridge University Press, London pp. 68-78.
- Ghosh A, Chowdhury N, Chandra G.** 2012. Plant extracts as potential mosquito larvicides. *Indian Journal of Medical Research* **135(5)**, 581-598.
- Glad A, Crampton LH.** 2015. Local prevalence and transmission of avian malaria in the Alakai Plateau of Kauai, Hawaii, U.S.A. *Journal of Vector Ecology* **40(2)**, 221-229.
- Gullan PJ, Cranston PS.** 2005. *The Insects: An Outline of Entomology*, 3rd Edition, Blackwell Publishing Ltd.
- Harbach RE.** 1988. The mosquitoes of the Subgenus *Culex* in South West Asia and Egypt (Diptera: Culicidae). *Contribution of American Entomological Institute*, 24(1).
- Hardersen S, Wratten SD.** 1996. The sensitivity of the nymphs of two New Zealand Damselfly Species (Odonata: Zygoptera) to Azinphos-Methyl and Carbaryl. *Australian Journal of Ecotoxicology* **2**, 55-60.
- Harras FM, Hammada HM, El-Ghazoulymg, Farag MA, El-Aswad AF, Bassam SM.** 2015. Chemical composition, antimicrobial and insecticidal activities of the essential oils of *Conyza linifolia* and *Chenopodium ambrosioides*. *Natural Product Research* **29(9)**, 879-882.
- Ilahi I, Yousafzai AM.** 2017. Larvicidal, pupicidal and adulticidal activities of non-polar solvent extract of *Cymbopogon nardus* (Linn.) whole plant against a mosquito, *Culex quinquefasciatus* (Say.). – *Pakistan Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences* **30 (6)(Suppl)**, 2337-2340.

- Jayanthi P, Lalitha P, Aarthi N.** 2012. Larvicidal and pupicidal activity of extracts and fractionates of *Eichhornia crassipes* (Mart.) Solms against the filarial vector *Culex quinquefasciatus* Say. *Parasitology Research* **111**, 2129-2135.
- Karaborklu S, Ayvaz A, Yilmaz S, Akbulut M.** 2011. Chemical Composition and Fumigant Toxicity of Some Essential Oils against *Ephestia kuehniella*. *Journal of Economic Entomology* **104**, 1212-1219.
- Kovendan K, Murugan K, Vincent S, Barnard DR.** 2012. Studies on larvicidal and pupicidal activity of *Leucas aspera* Willd. (Lamiaceae) and bacterial insecticide, *Bacillus sphaericus*, against malarial vector, *Anopheles stephensi* Liston. (Diptera: Culicidae). *Parasitology Research* **110**, 195-203.
- Kramer LD, Styer LM, Ebel GD.** 2008. A global perspective on the epidemiology of West Nile virus. *Annual Review of Entomology* **53**, 61-81.
- Lee SE, Kim JE, Lee HS.** 2001. Insecticide resistance in increasing interest. *Agricultural chemistry & biotechnology* **44**, 105-112.
- Monzote L, Pastor J, Scull R, Gille L.** 2014. Antileishmanial activity of essential oil from *Chenopodium ambrosioides* and its main components against experimental cutaneous leishmaniasis in BALB/c mice. *Phytomedicine* **21**, 1048-1052.
- Morrissey CA, Mineau P, Devries J H, Sanchez-Bayo F, Liess M, Cavallaro MC, Liber K.** 2015. Neonicotinoid contamination of global surface waters and associated risk to aquatic invertebrates: a review. *Environment International* **74**, 291-303.
- Nyamador SW, Mondédji AD, Kassaney BD, Ketoh GK, Koumaglo HK and Glitho IA.** 2017. Insecticidal activity of four essential oils on the survival and oviposition of two sympatric bruchid species: *Callosobruchus maculatus* F. and *Callosobruchus subinnotatus* PIC. *Coleoptera: Chrysomelidea: Bruchinae. Journal of Stored Products and Postharvest Research* **8(10)**, 103-112.
- Phillips RS.** 2001. Current status of malaria and potential for control. *Clinical Microbiology Reviews* **14(1)**, 208-226.
- Prathibha KP, Raghavendra BS, Vijayan VA.** 2014. Larvicidal, ovicidal, and oviposition-deterrent activities of four plant extracts against three mosquito species. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research* **21**, 6736-6743.
- Ramaiah KD, Das PK, Pani SP, Vanamail P, Pani KD.** 2003. The impact of six rounds of single-dose mass administration of diethylcarbamazine or ivermectin on the transmission of *Wuchereria bancrofti* by *Culex quinquefasciatus* and its implications for lymphatic filariasis elimination programs. *Tropical Medicine & International Health* **8(12)**, 1082-1092.
- Rawani A, Chowdhury N, Ghosh A, Laskar S, Chandra G.** 2013. Mosquito larvicidal activity of *Solanum nigrum* berry extracts. *Indian Journal of Medical Research* **137**, 972-976.
- Reegan AD, Gandhi MR, Paulrajmg, Ignacimuthu S.** 2015. Ovicidal and Oviposition Deterrent Activities of Medicinal Plant Extracts against *Aedes aegypti* L. and *Culex quinquefasciatus* Say Mosquitoes (Diptera: Culicidae). *Osong Public Health and Research Perspectives* **6(1)**, 64-69.
- Ríos N, Stashenko EE, Duque JE.** 2017. Evaluation of the insecticidal activity of essential oils and their mixtures against *Aedes aegypti* (Diptera: Culicidae). *Revista Brasileira de Entomologia* **61(4)**, 307-3011.
- Rozendaal JA.** 1997. *Vector Control: Methods for use by individuals and communities.* World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland.
- Shaalán EA, Canyon D, Younes MWF, Abdel-Wahab H, Mansour A.** 2005. A review of botanical phytochemicals with mosquitocidal potential. *Environment International* **31**, 1149-1166.
- Silva CF, Moura FC, Mendes MF, Pessoa FLP.** 2011. Extraction of Citronella (*Cymbopogon nardus*) essential oil using Supercritical CO₂: Experimental data and mathematical modeling. *Brazilian Journal of Chemical Engineering* **28 (2)**, 343 - 350.

Simonsen PE. 2009. Filariases. In: Cook GC, Zumla AI, editors. Manson's tropical diseases. 22. London: Saunders Elsevier pp. 1477-1513.

Soni I, Syed F, Bhatnagar P, Mathur R. 2011. Perinatal toxicity of cyfluthrin in mice: Developmental and behavioral effects. – Hum Exp Toxicol **30(8)**, 1096-1105.

Tonk SR, Bartarya R, Maharaj KK, Bhatnagar VP, Srivastava SS. 2006. Effective method for extraction of larvicidal component from leaves of *Azadirachta indica* and *Artemisia annua* Linn. Journal of Environmental Biology **27**, 103-105.

Walton WE. 2007. Larvivorous fish including *gambusia*. Journal of the American Mosquito Control Association **23(sp2)**, 184-220.

Wheeler MW, Park RM, Bailer AJ. 2006. Comparing median lethal concentration values using confidence interval overlap or ratio tests. Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry **25**, 1441-1444.

WHO. 1981b. Instructions for determining the susceptibility or resistance of adult mosquitoes to organochlorine, organophosphate and carbamate insecticides: Diagnostic test. Geneva: WHO/VBC/81.80.

WHO. 2005. Guidelines for laboratory and field testing of mosquito larvicides. World Health Organization Communicable Disease Control, Prevention and Eradication WHO Pesticide Evaluation Scheme.

WHO. 2016. Monitoring and managing insecticide Resistance in *Aedes* Mosquito Populations: Interim Guidance for Entomologist. WHO/ZIKV/VC/16.1.