

UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DO PARANÁ

GREISSI TENTE GIRALDI

BIOATIVIDADE DE ÓLEOS ESSENCIAIS COMO ESTRATÉGIA NO CONTROLE
PARA *Spodoptera frugiperda* (LEPIDOPTERA: NOCTUIDAE)

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Tese apresentada ao Programa de Pós-Graduação em Agronomia, Área de Concentração em Produção Vegetal, Departamento de Fitotecnia e Fitossanitarismo, Setor de Ciências Agrárias, Universidade Federal do Paraná, como parte das exigências para obtenção do título de Doutora em Agronomia.

ORIENTADOR: Prof. Dr. Luís Amilton Foerster

CO-ORIENTADOR: Dr. Wanderlei do Amaral

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Dedicatória

À Deus, por que até aqui
o Senhor tem me sustentado.

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“Pouco conhecimento torna as pessoas orgulhosas. Muito conhecimento faz com que se sintam humildes.

Assim, como as espigas de trigo sem grãos erguem a cabeça soberba para o céu, as cheias, inclinam suas cabeças para a terra, sua mãe”

(Leonardo da Vinci)

RESUMO

Várias famílias botânicas produzem óleos essenciais (OEs) com atividades biológicas para fins agrícolas. *Spodoptera frugiperda* J.E. Smith, 1797 (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) é uma praga importante em culturas de milho, por causar perdas significativas de produtividade quando manejada de forma inadequada, por algumas populações do inseto apresentarem alta resistência a inseticidas sintéticos. Os OEs são substâncias naturais conhecidas por sua atividade inseticida contra várias pragas agrícolas. Diante do exposto, o objetivo da pesquisa foi analisar e avaliar a eficiência dos OEs de *Drimys brasiliensis* (Canellales: Winteraceae), *Elionurus muticus* (Poales: Poaceae), *Baccharis articulata*, *Baccharis calvescens*, *Baccharis dracunculifolia*, *Baccharis milleflora* e *Baccharis uncinella* (Asterales: Asteraceae) no manejo de *S. frugiperda*. Os OEs foram extraídos pelo método de arraste a vapor em dorna, e analisados por cromatografia gasosa acoplado a espectrometria de massas. No Capítulo 01, foi avaliada a composição química do OE de *D. brasiliensis*, a atividade inseticida do OE pelo método de contato, para determinar a concentração letal (CL₅₀ e CL₉₀) e o efeito em marcadores bioquímicos de lagartas de terceiro instar de *S. frugiperda*. Foram identificados 29 compostos por CG-MS. O OE de *D. brasiliensis* resultou em 100% de mortalidade na concentração de 2.5%, com valores de CL₅₀ e CL₉₀ de 0.90% e 1.40%, respectivamente. Ambas as CLs aumentaram a atividade enzimática de AChE e LPO, enquanto apenas a CL₉₀ afetou as enzimas de EST- α e EST- β . No Capítulo 02, foi avaliada a composição química do OE de *E. muticus*, a atividade inseticida do OE pelo método de contato, para determinar a concentração letal (CL₅₀ e CL₉₀) e o efeito em marcadores bioquímicos de lagartas de terceiro instar de *S. frugiperda*. Foram identificados 14 compostos por CG-MS. O OE de *E. muticus* resultou em 99.3% de mortalidade na concentração de 2.5%, com valores de CL₅₀ e CL₉₀ de 1.26% e 2.25%, respectivamente. Ambas as CLs causaram um aumento na LPO, diferindo do controle e a CL₉₀ provocou a redução de importantes enzimas de desintoxicação. O Capítulo 03 objetivou avaliar a composição química do OE de 5 espécies de plantas do gênero *Baccharis*, a atividade inseticida desses óleos sobre lagartas de terceiro instar de *S. frugiperda* pelos métodos de contato e ingestão, a toxicidade dos OEs sobre os marcadores bioquímicos e o efeito dos OEs em diferentes fases de desenvolvimento do parasitoide de ovos *Telenomus remus* (Hymenoptera: Scelionidae). O número de compostos identificados nos OEs avaliados variou entre 7 para *B. articulata* e 27 para *B. milleflora*. Houve variação na toxicidade dos OEs de *Baccharis* em *S. frugiperda*, com efeito neurotóxico e danos por peroxidação lipídica. As espécies *B. calvescens* e *B. milleflora* não causaram mortalidade em ovos e pupas de *T.*

remus, mas demonstraram repelência variando entre 40 a 55%. Nossos resultados demonstram que os OEs estudados nessa pesquisa apresentam potencial inseticida, demonstrando ser um possível método de controle no manejo de *S. frugiperda*, visando modelos de produção agrícola sustentáveis.

Palavras-chave: Produtos Naturais. Biopesticidas. *Spodoptera*. Parasitoides.

ABSTRACT

Several botanical families produce essential oils (EOs) with biological activities for agricultural purposes. *Spodoptera frugiperda* J.E. Smith, 1797 (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) is a major pest in corn crops, causing significant yield losses and exhibiting high resistance to synthetic insecticides. EOs are natural substances known for their insecticidal activity against several agricultural pests. Thus, the objective of this research was to analyze and evaluate the efficiency of EOs from *Drimys brasiliensis* (Canellales: Winteraceae), *Elionurus muticus* (Poales: Poaceae), *Baccharis articulata*, *Baccharis calvenscens*, *Baccharis dracunculifolia*, *Baccharis milleflora* and *Baccharis uncinella* (Asterales: Asteraceae) in the management of *S. frugiperda*. The EOs were extracted by the steam distillation method in a vat, and analyzed by gas chromatography coupled with mass spectrometry. In Chapter 01, the chemical composition of *D. brasiliensis* EO and its insecticidal activity by the contact method were evaluated to determine the lethal concentration (LC₅₀ and LC₉₀) and the effect on biochemical markers of third-instar caterpillars of *S. frugiperda*. Twenty-nine compounds were identified by GC-MS. The EO of *D. brasiliensis* resulted in 100% mortality at a concentration of 2.5%, with LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ values of 0.90% and 1.40%, respectively. Both LCs increased the enzymatic activity of AChE and LPO, while only LC₉₀ affected the EST- α and EST- β enzymes. In Chapter 02, the chemical composition of *E. muticus* EO and its insecticidal activity by the contact method were evaluated to determine the lethal concentration (LC₅₀ and LC₉₀) and the effect on biochemical markers of third-instar caterpillars of *S. frugiperda*. Fourteen compounds were identified by GC-MS. *E. muticus* EO resulted in 99.3% mortality at a concentration of 2.5%, with LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ values of 1.26% and 2.25%, respectively. Both LCs caused an increase in LPO, differing from the control, and LC₉₀ caused a reduction in important detoxification enzymes. Chapter 03 aimed to evaluate the chemical composition of EOs from 5 species of plants of the genus *Baccharis*, the insecticidal activity of these oils on third-instar caterpillars of *S. frugiperda* by contact and ingestion, the toxicity of EOs on biochemical markers and the effect of EOs on different stages of development of the egg parasitoid *Telenomus remus*. The number of compounds identified in the evaluated EOs ranged from 7 for *B. articulata* to 27 for *B. milleflora*. There was variation in the toxicity of *Baccharis* oils on *S. frugiperda*, with neurotoxic effect and damage by lipid peroxidation. The species *B. calvenscens* and *B. milleflora* did not cause mortality in eggs and pupae of *T. remus*, but had a repelente effect ranging from 40 to 55%. Our results demonstrate that the EOs

studied in this research have insecticidal potential, proving to be a possible control method in the management of *S. frugiperda*, aiming at sustainable agricultural production models.

Keywords: Natural Products. Biopesticides. *Spodoptera*. Parasitoids.

LISTA DE FIGURAS

Figura 1: Ciclo biossintético de metabólitos secundários.....	20
Figura 2: Estruturas de armazenamento de óleo essencial de <i>Drimys brasiliensis</i>	21
Figura 3: Exemplares de plantas do gênero <i>Baccharis</i>	23
Figura 4: Exemplar de <i>Drimys brasiliensis</i>	24
Figura 5: Exemplares de <i>Elionurus muticus</i>	26
Figura 6: Ilustração do ataque de <i>S. frugiperda</i> na fase reprodutiva do milho.....	28
Figura 7: Metamorfose e estimativa do período de desenvolvimento de <i>Spodoptera frugiperda</i>	29
Fig. 1 Effect of control, acetone (negative control), and <i>Drimys brasiliensis</i> essential oil on EST- α , EST- β , GST, SOD, LPO, and AChE activities against <i>Spodoptera frugiperda</i>	67
Figure 1: Effect of control (acetone as negative control) and <i>Elionurus muticus</i> essential oil on EST- α , EST- β , GST, SOD, LPO, and AChE against <i>Spodoptera frugiperda</i>	95
Figure 1: Effect of control, acetone (negative control) and <i>Baccharis articulata</i> essential oil on EST- α , EST- β , GST, SOD, LPO, and AChE against <i>Spodoptera frugiperda</i>	124
Figure 2: Effect of control, acetone (negative control) and <i>Baccharis calvenscens</i> essential oil on EST- α , EST- β , GST, SOD, LPO, and AChE against <i>Spodoptera frugiperda</i>	125
Figure 3: Effect of control, acetone (negative control) and <i>Baccharis dracunculifolia</i> essential oil on EST- α , EST- β , GST, SOD, LPO, and AChE against <i>Spodoptera frugiperda</i>	126
Figure 4: Effect of control, acetone (negative control) and <i>Baccharis milleflora</i> essential oil on EST- α , EST- β , GST, SOD, LPO, and AChE against <i>Spodoptera frugiperda</i>	127

Figure 5: Effect of control, acetone (negative control) and <i>Baccharis uncinella</i> essential oil on EST- α , EST- β , GST, SOD, LPO, and AChE against <i>Spodoptera frugiperda</i>	128
Figure 6: Integrated Biomarker Index (IBR) for each LC ₅₀ of essential oil from the <i>Baccharis</i> genus tested.....	130
Figure 7: Integrated Biomarker Index (IBR) for each LC ₉₀ of essential oil from the genus <i>Baccharis</i> tested.....	131
Figure 8: Repellent effect of <i>Baccharis calvenscens</i> and <i>Baccharis milleflora</i> EOs on LC ₉₀ concentration (2.05% e 2.20%) on adults of <i>Telenomus remus</i>	132
Figure 9: Ovicidal activity of <i>Baccharis calvenscens</i> and <i>Baccharis milleflora</i> at LC ₉₀ (2.05% e 2.20%) concentration on <i>Telenomus remus</i>	133
Figure 10: Insecticidal activity of <i>Baccharis calvenscens</i> and <i>Baccharis milleflora</i> at LC ₉₀ concentration (2.05% e 2.20%) on <i>Telenomus remus</i> pupae.....	135

LISTA DE TABELAS

Table 1: Chemical composition of essential oil from leaves and terminal branches of *Drimys brasiliensis* collected in Piraquara (Paraná, Brazil), analyzed using gas chromatography and mass spectrometry.....64

Table 2: Toxicity of *Drimys brasiliensis* EO essential oil to *Spodoptera frugiperda* by contact after 48 h of exposure.....66

Table 1. Chemical composition of the essential oil from *Elionurus muticus* leaves collected in Piraquara (Paraná, Brazil) using gas chromatography coupled with mass spectrometry.....93

Table 1. Chemical composition of essential oils from species of the genus *Baccharis* collected in Piraquara (Paraná, Brazil), by gas chromatography and mass spectrometry method.....120

Table 2. Toxicity of EOs from *Baccharis* species against 3rd instar caterpillars of *S. frugiperda*, after 48 h of exposure.....122

SUMÁRIO

INTRODUÇÃO GERAL	14
REVISÃO BIBLIOGRÁFICA	18
BIOMA MATA ATLÂNTICA	18
METABÓLITOS SECUNDÁRIOS	19
FAMÍLIAS BOTÂNICAS E OS GÊNEROS QUE PRODUZEM ÓLEOS ESSENCIAIS.....	22
IMPORTÂNCIA ECONÔMICA DO MILHO (<i>Zea mays</i>)	26
IMPORTÂNCIA AGRONÔMICA DA LAGARTA DO CARTUCHO – <i>Spodoptera</i> <i>frugiperda</i>	28
ÓLEOS ESSENCIAS E SUA UTILIZAÇÃO NO MANEJO INTEGRADO DE PRAGAS..	30
MARCADORES ENZIMÁTICOS PARA ENTENDIMENTO DO MECANISMO DE AÇÃO DOS ÓLEOS ESSENCIAIS SOBRE <i>Spodoptera frugiperda</i>	31
REFERÊNCIAS	35
CHAPTER 1: INSECTICIDAL ACTIVITY, TOXICITY AND BIOCHEMICAL ALTERATIONS OF <i>Drimys brasiliensis</i> ESSENTIAL OIL AGAINST <i>Spodoptera</i> <i>frugiperda</i>.....	56
CHAPTER 2: INSECTICIDAL AND TOXICITY ACTIVITIES OF <i>Elionurus muticus</i> ESSENTIAL OIL AGAINST <i>Spodoptera frugiperda</i>	85
CHAPTER 3: ESSENTIAL OIL OF THE GENUS <i>Baccharis</i> AND ITS TOXICITY ON <i>Spodoptera frugiperda</i> (LEPIDOPTERA: NOCTUIDAE) AND ITS EFFECT ON <i>Telenomus remus</i> (HYMENOPTERA: SCELIONIDAE).....	111
CONCLUSÃO GERAL	151
CONSIDERAÇÕES FINAIS.....	152
REFERÊNCIAS BIBLIOGRÁFICAS	154
ANEXOS	193

INTRODUÇÃO GERAL

A Mata Atlântica é um dos seis biomas brasileiros (GUERRA et al., 2020; MAKSIĆ et al., 2022), localizado na costa leste do Brasil, abrangendo também parte dos territórios do Paraguai e da Argentina (SANCHA; BOYLE; MCLNTYRE, 2021). Esse bioma é conhecido mundialmente por sua abundante diversidade biológica, sendo uma das regiões mais ricas em biodiversidade do mundo (RIBEIRO et al., 2009; LIMA et al., 2020).

No período histórico pré-colonial, a Mata Atlântica ocupava um vasto espaço em território nacional, no entanto, após a colonização iniciaram-se no Brasil vários ciclos econômicos, os quais impactaram de forma direta na preservação da floresta, além dos ciclos extrativistas de madeira e de minérios, e da expansão das fronteiras agrícolas (TABARELLI et al., 2010; BARLOW et al., 2016; ERB et al., 2018). A urbanização foi outro aspecto que contribuiu significativamente para a redução do bioma Mata Atlântica (Ferreira et al., 2019; CASTELO BRANCO et al., 2021). No entanto, apesar da redução florestal e da biodiversidade, consequência da extinção de diversas espécies vegetais e animais que viviam no bioma, as áreas remanescentes tornaram-se foco de preservação (REZENDE et al., 2018), uma vez que, observou-se a importância desse bioma para a preservação de diversas espécies endêmicas, a regulação do fluxo dos mananciais hídricos e diversos outros aspectos, como a preservação de espécies nativas do bioma (FERREIRA et al., 2023).

A abrangência da diversidade botânica que está presente na Mata Atlântica conta com uma multiplicidade de famílias e gêneros, que contribuem na estruturação do bioma e do ecossistema como um todo (OLIVEIRA; GASPER; VIBRANS, 2021), fornecendo abrigo e alimento para várias espécies animais que habitam o local (VALE et al., 2018, BATISTA et al., 2021, DINIZ et al., 2023). Entre as famílias botânicas que tem significativa ocorrência no bioma estão a Asteraceae, Myrtaceae, Lauraceae, Canellaceae, Winteraceae, Poaceae, entre muitas outras que possuem importância econômica e medicinal (REGNAULT-ROGER et al., 2012, OLIVEIRA; GASPER; VIBRANS, 2021).

Muitos gêneros que pertencem à essas famílias botânicas produzem metabólitos secundários (BHATTACHARYA, 2016), que estão relacionados com funções ecológicas de defesa e atração de polinizadores, proteção contra radiação e temperatura (TAIZ; ZEIGER, 2013, BHATTACHARYA, 2016), e sofrem variação quantitativa e qualitativa em resposta ao ambiente (TAIZ; ZEIGER, 2013). Diferentemente dos produtos do metabolismo primário, que são responsáveis por diversas funções vitais das plantas como fotossíntese, respiração,

síntese de proteínas, assimilação de nutrientes, entre outras funções básicas para o crescimento e desenvolvimento das plantas (CROTEAU et al., 2000, TAIZ; ZEIGER, 2013).

Os metabólitos secundários também diferem dos metabólitos primários por apresentarem distribuição restrita no reino vegetal (TAIZ; ZEIGER, 2013), isto significa que certos metabólitos secundários específicos são restritos a uma espécie vegetal, ou a um grupo de espécies relacionadas, enquanto os metabólitos primários são encontrados em todo o reino vegetal (TAIZ; ZEIGER, 2013, KREIS, MUNKERT, PÁDUA, 2017).

Os metabólitos secundários são divididos em três grupos distintos, devido a sua constituição química: terpenos, substâncias fenólicas e compostos nitrogenados (TAIZ; ZEIGER, 2013, BORGES; AMORIM, 2020), no entanto, a origem de todos os metabólitos secundários parte do metabolismo da glicose, através de dois intermediários principais, o ácido chiquímico e o acetato (KREIS, MUNKERT, PÁDUA, 2017, BORGES; AMORIM, 2020).

No grupo dos terpenos, encontram-se produtos do metabolismo secundário, conhecidos como óleos essenciais (HEINZMANN; SPITZER; SIMÕES, 2017), que podem ser definidos como misturas complexas de compostos voláteis, lipofílicas, geralmente odoríferas e líquidas (TAIZ; ZEIGER, 2013, RÍOS, 2016, BORGES; AMORIM, 2020). Os óleos essenciais estão presentes em diversos órgãos dos vegetais, como nas flores, folhas, cascas, raízes e frutos, sendo armazenados em estruturas secretoras internas, como as células parenquemáticas, idioblastos, bolsas esquizógenas ou lisígenas e canais oleíferos (TAIZ; ZEIGER, 2013, FRANCO; ALBIERO, 2018), ou ainda em estruturas externas, como os tricomas glandulares (TAIZ; ZEIGER, 2013). Estes últimos se projetam da epiderme e atuam como sinal de advertência sobre a toxicidade do vegetal, repelindo potenciais herbívoros, mesmo antes que ataquem as plantas (PARK; TAK, 2016).

A extração dos óleos essenciais das estruturas de armazenamento pode ser feita por meio de diversos métodos (FLAMINI et al., 2007; STRATAKOS; KOIDIS, 2016), como pela prensagem do material vegetal, maceração, extração por solvente, hidrodestilação (CASSEL et al., 2009), entre outras. Dentre esses, o método de maior aplicação é o de hidrodestilação, utilizando a técnica de arraste a vapor, que consiste em um método de separação de misturas que utiliza o vapor de água para volatilizar as substâncias presentes nas plantas (SANTOS et al., 2004).

Os óleos essenciais são amplamente utilizados para conferir aroma e sabores especiais a produtos alimentícios, perfumaria, produtos de limpeza (ISMAN, 2020), além de serem fontes de princípios ativos para a indústria farmacêutica (SOARES; FARIAS, 2017) e, são

crescentes as pesquisas e o uso de óleos essenciais na agricultura (BENELLI et al., 2018, KUMAR et al., 2022), por apresentarem reconhecidas propriedades como repelentes de insetos e propriedades inseticidas, uma vez que as substâncias naturais são utilizadas para controle de insetos desde a Antiguidade (THEIS; LERDAU, 2015, GIUNTI et al., 2023).

O modelo de agricultura moderna busca, cada vez mais produzir alimentos utilizando produtos que sejam menos tóxicos ao meio ambiente, ao operador e aos inimigos naturais que ocorrem no sistema agrícola (ISMAN, 2006, HIKAL et al., 2017, HANS; SAXENA, 2021), o que leva a pesquisa a buscar respostas na natureza para encontrar o equilíbrio entre manter a produtividade das culturas, utilizando recursos para o controle de insetos que sejam eficientes e que atendam os requisitos de baixa toxicidade e baixa persistência no ambiente (JAHANIAN et al., 2022).

Nesse sentido, uma das possibilidades que está figurando no cenário das pesquisas agrícolas é o uso de óleos essenciais com propriedades inseticidas (MARANGONI et al., 2012, ISMAN, 2020, KUMAR et al., 2022), com a finalidade de integrá-la como estratégia usual em programas de manejo integrado de pragas.

Diversas culturas agrícolas têm programas de manejo integrado de pragas consolidados e funcionais, como é o caso dos cereais (HURLEY; SUN, 2019, HURLEY; MITCHELL, 2020). O milho, por exemplo, é uma cultura que movimenta a economia mundial e brasileira, figurando entre as principais culturas agrícolas nacionais produzidas para exportação (SANCHES; SALES, 2022), uma vez que o Brasil é o primeiro exportador de milho no ranking, seguido dos Estados Unidos e da Argentina (USDA, 2023).

Dada a relevância da cultura e a extensão de área ocupada para produzi-la, é natural que na dinâmica populacional de insetos que ocorre, vez ou outra ocorra insetos que adquirem o *status* de praga, como é o caso de *Spodoptera frugiperda* (J. E. Smith) (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) (GARCIA et al., 2018, WARBURTON et al., 2023).

A lagarta do cartucho do milho, como é popularmente conhecida a fase imatura de *S. frugiperda* é um dos principais insetos-praga que ocorrem na cultura do milho no Brasil (BARROS et al., 2010, PORTO et al., 2023), causando sérios prejuízos à produtividade da cultura quando não manejada adequadamente. Uma das principais formas de controlar a população dessa lagarta é por meio de inseticidas sintéticos (BURTET et al., 2017, LIRA et al., 2020, VAN den BERG; PLESSIS, 2022), no entanto, devido ao uso frequente e muitas vezes inadequado dos produtos, a espécie adquiriu resistência a diversos ingredientes ativos (BOLZAN et al., 2019, CHEN et al., 2023, OMUUT et al., 2023).

Diante desse cenário de resistência da lagarta do cartucho aos inseticidas sintéticos, os programas de manejo buscaram se alicerçar em outras estratégias de controle, como o uso de plantas geneticamente modificadas (expressando proteínas Bt) (SILVA et al., 2019, MOSCARDINI et al., 2020), uso de inimigos naturais, via controle biológico, como parasitoides (QUEIROZ et al., 2019), fungos (RUSSO et al., 2021) e vírus entomopatogênicos (SILVA et al., 2018, MACIEL et al., 2024).

Embora sejam diversos os casos de sucesso no controle da lagarta do cartucho utilizando as estratégias citadas, ainda há lacunas a serem preenchidas para melhorar a eficiência na redução das populações quando estas ultrapassam o nível de dano. Nesse sentido, buscando outras estratégias de controlar a lagarta de *S. frugiperda*, essa pesquisa se propôs a estudar o efeito inseticida de óleos essenciais provenientes de três famílias botânicas nativas da Mata Atlântica, dos gêneros *Baccharis* (Asteraceae), *Drimys* (Winteraceae) e *Elionurus* (Poaceae).

2 REVISÃO BIBLIOGRÁFICA

2.1 BIOMA MATA ATLÂNTICA

O domínio da Floresta Atlântica é um complexo ecossistema de grande importância, nacional e mundial, pois abriga uma parcela significativa da diversidade biológica do Brasil e do mundo, sendo considerada uma das grandes prioridades para a conservação da biodiversidade (BATISTA et al., 2021).

Aproximadamente 95% da Floresta Atlântica encontra-se em território brasileiro e o restante na Argentina e no Paraguai (STEHMANN et al. 2009). A região nuclear do Domínio corresponde a uma série de ecossistemas quase contínuos ao longo da costa brasileira, ocorrendo desde o Rio Grande do Norte ao Rio Grande do Sul, contemplando áreas florestais mais continentais e outras disjuntas inseridas como encaves no Cerrado, Pantanal, Caatinga e Pampa também são consideradas como pertencentes à Floresta Atlântica. Como exemplos podemos citar os brejos de altitude localizados na região da Caatinga, as florestas decíduas ao longo do médio rio São Francisco e ao sul do Piauí, e as florestas decíduas e semidecíduas isoladas ao longo da Serra da Bodoquena no Mato Grosso do Sul (IBGE, 2008).

Diferentemente da maioria das florestas tropicais, a Floresta Atlântica possui um conjunto de variáveis geográficas e climáticas que a tornam singular (CÂMARA 2005; SIQUEIRA-FILHO e LEME, 2006), promovendo elevados níveis de riqueza e endemismo.

A riqueza da Floresta Atlântica se traduz de diversas formas, cores e tamanhos, mas é notório destacar a interdependência entre as espécies da flora e da fauna, Myers et al. (2000) estimaram a flora da Floresta Atlântica em 20 mil espécies de plantas vasculares, sendo oito mil (40%) endêmicas. Essas estimativas, juntamente com a da vegetação remanescente, foram utilizadas para nortear estratégias de conservação em nível global, como a delimitação de *hotspots* (MYERS et al. 2000; MITTERMEYER et al. 2004). Como as angiospermas representam 95% das plantas vasculares, a riqueza e a endemidade para a Floresta Atlântica pode ser projetada para 19.000 e 7.600 espécies, respectivamente.

Esses números constituíram o marco referencial da diversidade vegetal encontrada nessa floresta, pois permitiram a comparação da riqueza e endemismo em uma escala planetária (STEHMANN et al. 2009). A abrangência da diversidade botânica que está presente na Floresta Atlântica conta com uma multiplicidade de famílias e gêneros, que contribuem na estruturação do bioma e do ecossistema como um todo (OLIVEIRA; GASPER; VIBRANS, 2021), fornecendo abrigo e alimento para várias espécies animais que habitam o local (VALE et al., 2018, BATISTA et al., 2021, DINIZ et al., 2023). Entre as

famílias botânicas que tem significativa ocorrência no bioma estão a Asteraceae, Myrtaceae, Lauraceae, Canellaceae, Winteraceae, Poaceae, entre muitas outras que possuem importância econômica e medicinal (REGNAULT-ROGER et al., 2012, OLIVEIRA; GASPER; VIBRANS, 2021).

Algumas dessas espécies ocorrentes no bioma Floresta Atlântica vêm sendo estudadas devido à produção de metabólitos secundários bioativos, que exercem diferentes funções nos organismos (ADORJAN e BUCHBAUER, 2010). Pagare et al. (2015) demonstraram em um estudo que 28% das plantas superiores são usadas medicinalmente e que 74% dos componentes farmacologicamente ativos derivados de plantas foram descobertos após o acompanhamento etnomedicinal das plantas. O uso de produtos oriundos do metabolismo secundário, como os óleos essenciais, também é amplamente utilizado na área de cosméticos e perfumaria (RÍOS, 2016, IVANO et al, 2023), na preservação de alimentos (RÍOS, 2016) e na agricultura (OOTANI et al., 2013).

2.2 METABÓLITOS SECUNDÁRIOS

Os metabólitos secundários ou produtos do metabolismo secundário das plantas são compostos orgânicos que, aparentemente, não tem função direta no seu crescimento e desenvolvimento (TAIZ e ZEIGER, 2013). Diferentemente dos produtos do metabolismo primário, que são essenciais para os processos de crescimento e desenvolvimento das plantas, os produtos do metabolismo secundário são derivados do metabolismo basal e responsáveis pela defesa das plantas (PAGARE et al., 2015).

Os compostos oriundos do metabolismo secundário apresentam, muitas vezes, uma grande variabilidade química estrutural, de modo que substâncias com estruturas semelhantes não possuem necessariamente propriedades biológicas idênticas (HARTMANN, 1996). Outra característica dos produtos do metabolismo secundário é que alguns compostos são formados, muitas vezes, apenas durante fases muito específicas do desenvolvimento das plantas, como consequência, ocorrem alterações nos teores de metabólitos secundários específicos durante o processo de desenvolvimento das plantas (TAIZ e ZEIGER, 2013), essa variação pode ser atribuída a fatores intrínsecos (genética da planta) e extrínsecos (disponibilidade de água, luz, temperatura, sazonalidade). Além disso, os produtos do metabolismo secundário costumam ser depositados e armazenados em estruturas específicas, variando de metabólito para metabólito (SEMMAR, 2024).

Os metabólitos secundários são divididos em três grupos distintos, devido a sua constituição química: terpenos, substâncias fenólicas e compostos nitrogenados (TAIZ e

ZEIGER, 2013, BORGES e AMORIM, 2020), no entanto, a origem de todos os metabólitos secundários parte do metabolismo da glicose, através de dois intermediários principais, o ácido chiquímico e o acetato (KREIS, MUNKERT, PÁDUA, 2017, BORGES E AMORIM, 2020) (Figura 1).

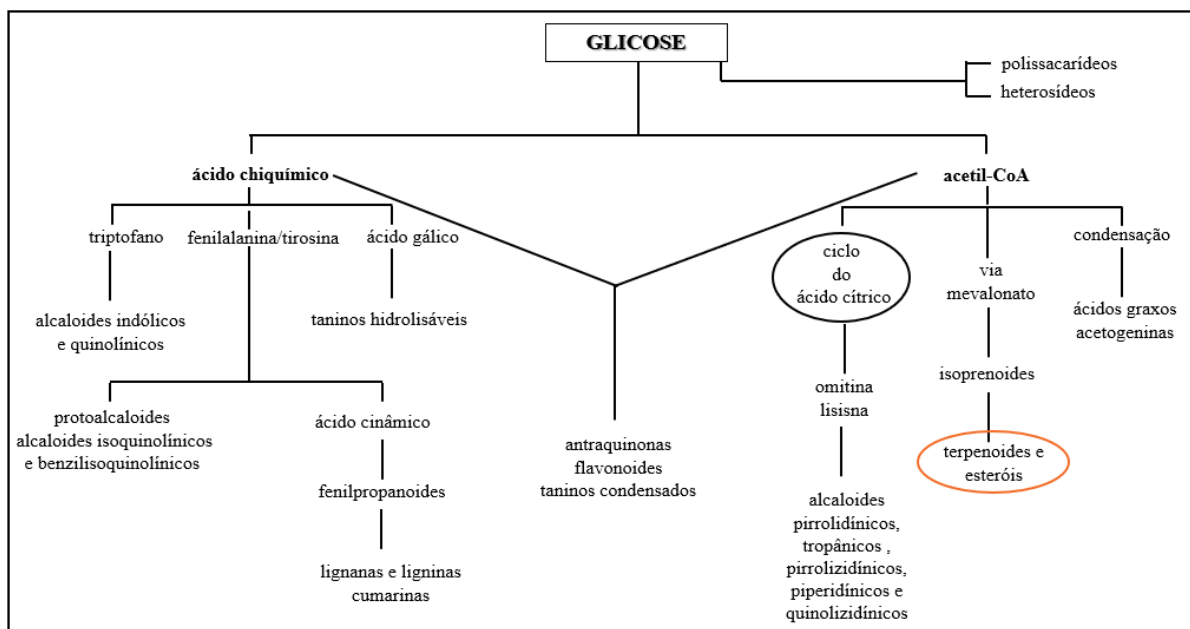


Figura 1: Ciclo biossintético de metabólitos secundários. Adaptado de Simões et al. (2007).

Os terpenóides formados a partir da justaposição sucessiva de unidades de cinco carbonos são denominados isopentilpirofosfato (IPP). O IPP é derivado do ácido mevalônico ou mevalonato e dá origem a todos os outros terpenos. Sendo que os monoterpênicos (C₁₀), sesquiterpênicos (C₁₅) e diterpênicos (C₂₀) são formados por adição de duas unidades de C₁₀, os triterpênicos (C₃₀) são resultado da junção de duas unidades C₁₅ (Farnesilpirofosfato) e os tetraterpênicos de duas unidades C₂₀ (Geranilgeranilpirofosfato) (CASTRO et al., 2005).

2.2.1 Óleos essenciais

No grupo dos terpenos, encontra-se um produto do metabolismo secundário que é conhecido como óleos essenciais (HEINZMANN; SPITZER; SIMÕES, 2017), que podem ser definidos como misturas complexas de compostos voláteis, lipofílicas, geralmente odoríferas e líquidas (TAIZ e ZEIGER, 2013, RÍOS 2016, BORGES e AMORIM, 2020).

Por serem solúveis em solventes orgânicos, como éter, recebe a denominação de óleos etéreos e, devido ao aroma agradável e intenso da maioria dos óleos voláteis, também são chamados de essências. Quimicamente, são constituídos geralmente por compostos terpênicos e fenilpropanóides (SIMÕES et al., 2007; BIASI e DESCHAMPS, 2009).

Os óleos essenciais estão presentes em diversos órgãos dos vegetais, como nas flores, folhas, cascas, raízes e frutos (HYLDGAARD et al., 2012) (Figura 2), sendo armazenados em estruturas secretoras internas, como as células parenquemáticas, idioblastos, bolsas esquizógenas ou lisígenas e canais oleíferos (TAIZ e ZEIGER, 2013, FRANCO e ALBIERO, 2018), ou ainda em estruturas externas, como os tricomas glandulares (TAIZ e ZEIGER, 2013). Estes últimos se projetam da epiderme e atuam como sinal de advertência sobre a toxicidade do vegetal, repelindo potenciais herbívoros, mesmo antes que ataquem as plantas (PARK e TAK, 2016).

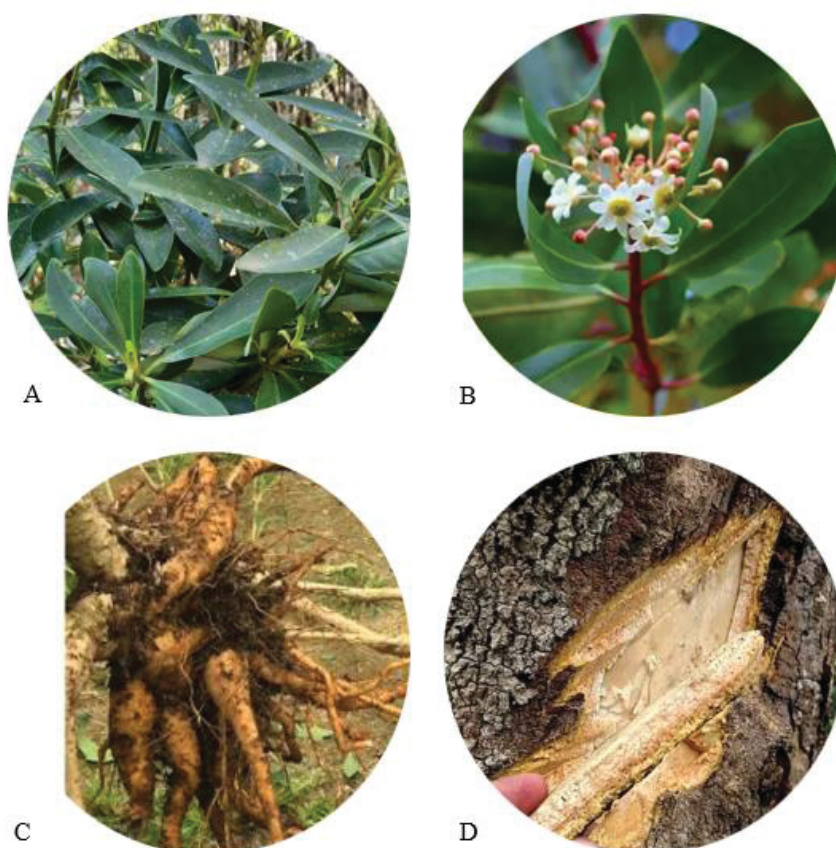


Figura 2: Estruturas de armazenamento de óleo essencial de *Drimys brasiliensis*: A) folhas; B) flores; C) raízes; D) cascas. Adaptado de Carvalho, 2008.

A extração dos óleos essenciais das estruturas de armazenamento pode ser feita por meio de diversos métodos (FLAMINI et al., 2007; STRATAKOS e KOIDIS, 2016), como pela prensagem do material vegetal, maceração, extração por solvente, hidrodestilação, destilação por arraste a vapor (CASSEL et al., 2009), entre outras. Dentre esses, o método de maior aplicação é o de destilação, utilizando a técnica de arraste a vapor, que consiste em um

método de separação de misturas que utiliza o vapor de água para volatilizar as substâncias presentes nas plantas (SANTOS et al., 2004), e é utilizado em larga escala industrialmente.

2.3 FAMÍLIAS BOTÂNICAS E OS GÊNEROS QUE PRODUZEM ÓLEOS ESSENCIAIS

Dentro da classificação botânica das plantas, existem muitas plantas ricas em óleos voláteis, e estas são abundantes no grupo das Angiospermas, e nas Dicotiledôneas, pertencentes principalmente às famílias botânicas Asteraceae, Apiaceae, Lauraceae, Myrtaceae, Myristicaceae, Piperaceae, Rutaceae, entre outros, com grande abrangência em espécies nativas na América tropical e subtropical (CHIZZOLA, 2013).

2.3.1 Asteraceae

A família Asteraceae possui distribuição cosmopolita, sendo a maior família de Eudicotiledôneas, classe Euasterídeas II, ordem Asterales, com aproximadamente 1600 gêneros e 23000 espécies. No Brasil a família também está bem representada, ocorrendo aproximadamente 300 gêneros e 2000 espécies. São particularmente comuns em formações abertas, como cerrado e campos. As espécies desta família são representadas por ervas ou subarbustos, menos frequentemente arbustos, pequenas árvores ou lianas, látex às vezes presentes, espinhos presentes em algumas espécies, com folhas alternas, menos frequentemente opostas, raramente verticiladas, simples (pinatissectas e terminadas em gavinha em algumas espécies), sem estípulas, margem inteira ou mais frequentemente serrada. Inflorescência do tipo capítulo, o qual é envolvido por brácteas que formam um involúcro e flores dispostas sobre um receptáculo geralmente discoide, as flores são todas iguais entre si ou diferenciadas em flores do raio (as mais externas) e flores do disco (as mais internas), as primeiras, em geral, altamente modificadas, podendo ser estéreis e possuir corola hipertrofiada, flores do disco bissexuadas ou raramente unissexuadas, geralmente actinomorfas, diclamídeas ou sem cálice, cálice frequentemente transformado em papilho cerdoso ou plumoso, corola geralmente valvar, 5 estames, sinanteros, epipétalos, anteras rimosas, ovário ínfero, bicarpelar, unilocular, com um único óvulo de placentação ereta. Fruto geralmente do tipo aquênio, com papilho geralmente persistente, auxiliando na dispersão do fruto (SOUZA e LORENZI, 2008).

Muitas Asteraceae são cultivadas como ornamentais, destacando-se a margarida (*Leucanthemum vulgare*), os crisântemos (*Chrysanthemum* spp.), a dália (*Dahlia x hybrida*), entre outras, como alimentícia pode-se citar a alface (*Lactuca sativa*) (SOUZA e LORENZI, 2008). Diversas espécies estão incluídas como medicinais e aromáticas produtoras de óleos

essenciais como, por exemplo, *Calendula officinalis*, *Baccharis uncinella*, *Baccharis dracunculifolia*, *Matricharia recutita*, *Artemisia absinthium*, *Cynara scolymus* (Figura 3).



Figura 3: Exemplos de plantas do gênero *Baccharis*. A) *Baccharis calvescens*; B) *Baccharis dracunculifolia*; C) *Baccharis articulata*; D) *Baccharis milleflora*; E) *Baccharis uncinella*. Amaral (2024).

Um dos maiores gêneros da família é o *Baccharis* (Figura 2-3) com diversas espécies com propriedades farmacêuticas (GRECCO et al., 2010a; GRECCO et al., 2010b; PASSERO et al., 2011; GRECCO et al., 2012; KURDELAS et al., 2012; OLIVEIRA et al., 2014) e ecológicas (SCHRIPSEMA et al., 2019).

2.3.2 Winteraceae

Esta família pertence a classe das Magnoliídeas, ordem Canelales, é composta por árvores ou arbustos, com folhas alternas, simples, sem estípulas, com margem inteira. Suas inflorescências são cimosas, flores vistosas, geralmente actinomorfas e bissexuais, diclamídeas, com cálice 2-4(-6)-mero, geralmente dialissépalo, corola com 2 a muitas pétalas, geralmente dispostas em 2 ou mais verticilos, dialipétala, prefloração imbricada, estames 3-numerosos, geralmente livre entre si, anteras rimosas, gineceu dialicarpelar, uni a

pluricarpelar, o ovário súpero, uni a plurióvulado, estigma às vezes pouco diferenciado, disposto ao longo da sutura do carpelo. Fruto composto, frutículos geralmente bacáceos.

Anatomicamente a família destaca-se por não possuir elementos de vaso em seu sistema vascular, mas apenas traqueídes, à semelhança das Gimnospermas. Possui distribuição predominantemente pan-tropical, com 4 gêneros e cerca de 60 espécies, sendo o gênero *Drimys* (Figura 4) o único nativo do Brasil (SOUZA e LORENZI, 2008).



Figura 4: Exemplar de *Drimys brasiliensis*. Amaral (2024).

Algumas espécies do gênero *Drimys* possuem óleo essencial (LAGO, 2010; SANTOS et al., 2013), *Drimys brasiliensis* possui como componente majoritário no óleo essencial o germacreno D, com atividade antibacteriana e insetífuga (FRANCESCATO et al., 2007).

2.3.3 Poaceae

A família Poaceae (Gramineae) pertence à classe Liliopsida, ordem Poales e é composta por plantas monocotiledôneas caracterizadas por um conjunto de características morfológicas e anatômicas próprias (JUDD et al., 2009). A principal característica que define as monocotiledôneas é a presença de apenas um cotilédone (primeira folha embrionária) na semente, além disso, apresentam o sistema radicular fasciculado e as folhas apresentam venação paralela, ou seja, as nervuras correm paralelamente ao longo da folha, sem ramificações evidentes (CHASE, 1991). O caule das monocotiledôneas não apresenta crescimento secundário, de modo que o tecido vascular está disperso ao longo do caule em feixes vasculares e as flores, podem ser divididas em partes florais (pétalas, sépalas e estames) dispostas em múltiplos de três, por isso são chamadas trímeras.

Estima-se que a família Poaceae tenha cerca de 12.000 espécies distribuídas em aproximadamente 780 gêneros. Essa família é uma das mais diversificadas e ecologicamente importantes, com espécies adaptadas a diversos ambientes ao redor do mundo, desde regiões tropicais até áreas temperadas e áridas (CHASE, 1991).

Apesar de ser uma família botânica conhecida por suas gramíneas alimentícias, como arroz, trigo, milho e cana-de-açúcar, além de outras espécies importantes para a forragicultura (ALCÂNTARA e BUFARAH, 1982), essa família botânica abriga gêneros como o *Elionurus*, encontrado principalmente em regiões tropicais e subtropicais, incluindo a América do Sul, África e partes da Ásia, com potencial considerável para a produção de óleos essenciais (CELAYA et al., 2023). *Elionurus muticus* (Figura 5) produz óleo essencial com aroma cítrico, rico em compostos como citronelal, citrionelol e outros terpenos.



Figura 5: Exemplares de *Elionurus muticus*. Amaral (2024).

Devido à sua composição química, que apresenta diversas propriedades biológicas (CACCIABUE et al., 2005; SABINI et al., 2006; HESS et al., 2007), *E. muticus* tem despertado interesse econômico significativo, especialmente para a indústria farmacêutica (FÜLLER et al., 2010).

2.4 IMPORTÂNCIA ECONÔMICA DO MILHO (*Zea mays*)

O milho (*Zea mays* L.) enquanto cultivo agrícola e fonte alimentar teve seu potencial reconhecido pelos povos da Mesoamérica, na região que hoje corresponde ao sul do México, há cerca de 9 mil anos (PIPERNO et al., 2009). À medida em que o milho se tornou mais domesticado e produtivo, se espalhou para outras regiões das Américas, sendo um dos alimentos centrais no desenvolvimento de sociedades complexas e nas práticas agrícolas de toda a América pré-colombiana.

O cultivo de milho nessa região era favorecido por sua adaptabilidade a diferentes tipos de clima e de solo, e pela sua capacidade de ser armazenado por longos períodos após a colheita. O processo de expansão agrícola do milho envolveu a disseminação gradual para o norte (FRITZ, 2007), onde foi adotado pelas sociedades nativas norte-americanas, e também para o sul, para as regiões andinas (IRIARTE, 2007).

Na Europa, o milho foi inicialmente visto como uma curiosidade, mas logo se tornou um alimento importante para comunidades rurais em países como a Espanha, Itália e França (REBOURG et al., 2003). Na África, ele se tornou uma cultura agrícola fundamental,

especialmente nas regiões subsaarianas, onde substituiu diversos cereais nativos (FAKOREDE et al., 2001), isso se deu, principalmente, devido à alta densidade energética e ao rendimento do milho, fatores que contribuíram para a sua popularidade crescente.

Com o passar do tempo, o milho passou a desempenhar um papel crucial não apenas na alimentação humana, mas também na alimentação animal e na produção de combustíveis, particularmente na forma de etanol (SHIFERAW et al., 2011; THOMPSON, 2012).

Atualmente, o milho é o cereal mais produzido no mundo, superando trigo e arroz em volume total. No ano de 2023, a produção global de milho foi estimada em cerca de 1,2 bilhão de toneladas, sendo os Estados Unidos o maior produtor mundial, seguido da China, Brasil e Argentina (ERENSTEIN et al., 2022). A produção estadunidense é destinada ao consumo animal, produção de etanol e outros derivados industriais (SHIFERAW et al., 2011; ERENSTEIN et al., 2022), já a China tem sua produção voltada principalmente para a alimentação animal e o consumo humano (PICKSON et al., 2022). O Brasil é um dos maiores exportadores de milho, desempenhando um papel importante no comércio mundial de grãos, assim como a Argentina (ANEC, 2023).

Segundo a Companhia Nacional de Abastecimento (CONAB), na safra brasileira 23/24 a produção de milho foi de 112,7 milhões de toneladas, com grande parte sendo destinada à exportação. Os estados de Mato Grosso, Paraná, Mato Grosso do Sul, Goiás e Minas Gerais são os maiores produtores do cereal no país, respondendo por uma parte significativa da produção nacional (COÊLHO, 2024), a qual é destinada à alimentação de animais, particularmente no setor de aves e suínos, e também como matéria-prima para a indústria de biocombustíveis (COÊLHO, 2024).

A alta produtividade do milho pode ser atribuída a diversos fatores, bióticos e abióticos, entre os quais estão a disponibilidade adequada de água e nutrientes, manejo adequado do solo e a sanidade da lavoura (RUSSO et al., 2021; DAWAR et al., 2022; WANG et al., 2022; IQBAL et al., 2024). No que diz respeito a sanidade da lavoura de milho, diversas são as doenças e insetos, caracterizados como pragas, que podem comprometer a produtividade do cereal se não forem bem manejadas.

Na diversidade de insetos que podem acometer a sanidade das plantas de milho, a lagarta *Spodoptera frugiperda* (J. E. Smith, 1797) (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) ganha destaque, pois ela figura entre as principais pragas da cultura do milho. Também conhecida como lagarta-do-cartucho, *S. frugiperda* é de ocorrência frequente e voracidade, no entanto, a importância da lagarta-do-cartucho deve-se não somente aos danos provocados, mas também

à dificuldade de controle devido à resistência que apresenta, aos principais inseticidas utilizados como estratégia de controle (KAUR et al., 2024).

2.5 IMPORTÂNCIA AGRONÔMICA DA LAGARTA DO CARTUCHO – *Spodoptera frugiperda*

A lagarta do cartucho do milho *Spodoptera frugiperda* (J. E. Smith, 1797) (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) é uma praga holometábola, polífaga e com característica migratória (RUSSO et al., 2020), esses fatores aliados à voracidade das lagartas, a alta taxa de dispersão das mariposas e a capacidade destas de gerar grandes populações de descendentes, fazem de *S. frugiperda* um dos noctuídeos mais importantes do milho na América do Sul (CASTRO et al., 2009; OVERTON et al., 2021).

Levantamentos apontam que a lagarta do cartucho ataca aproximadamente 353 espécies de plantas hospedeiras de 76 famílias botânicas (MONTEZANO et al., 2018), mas o maior dano é comumente registrado em gramíneas cultivadas, como o milho (Figura 6) e o sorgo, tanto na fase vegetativa, quanto na fase reprodutiva das culturas.

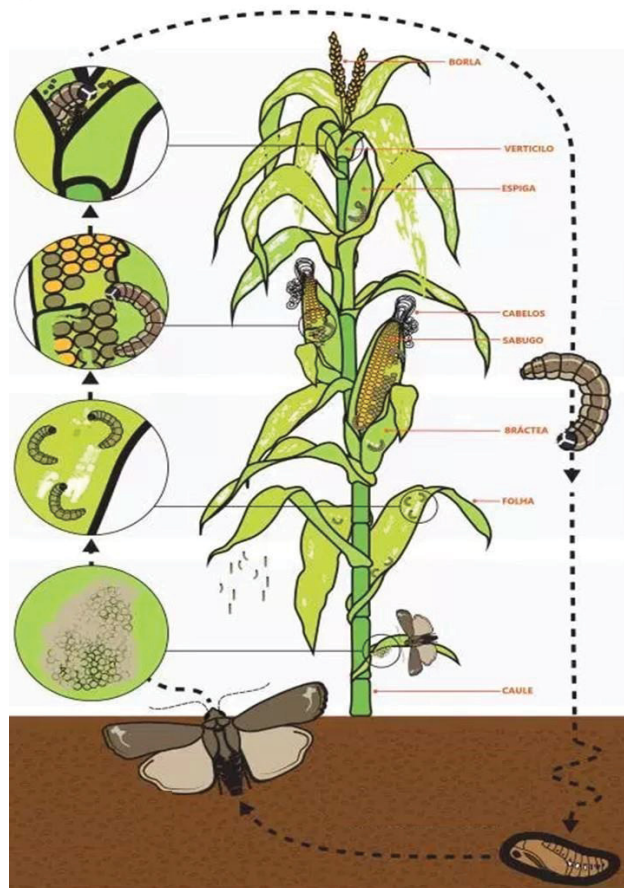


Figura 6: Ilustração do ataque de *S. frugiperda* na fase reprodutiva do milho. CABI, 2024.

Nativa dos neotrópicos, na América, *S. frugiperda* foi relatada como uma praga invasora na África (NIASSY et al., 2021) e na Ásia (SUN et al., 2021) e atualmente impõe uma séria ameaça à segurança alimentar e à produtividade sustentável das culturas devido à falta de manejo eficaz (BHUSAL e CHAPAGAIN, 2020), visto que as medidas de controle atuais concentram-se amplamente na aplicação pesada e indiscriminada de inseticidas de amplo espectro, que não só afetam negativamente a saúde humana e o ambiente, mas frequentemente resultam em um controle inconsistente da lagarta (STOKSTAD, 2017; HARRISON et al., 2019).

Em populações nativas de *S. frugiperda*, a resistência a piretróides, carbamatos e organofosforados foi relatada desde a década de 1970 (CARVALHO et al., 2013; PITRE, 1988; YOUNG e McMILLAN, 1979), e, mais recentemente, foi relatada a resistência de populações de *S. frugiperda* às novas classes de compostos inseticidas (toxinas de Bt e espinosade), no Brasil (FARIAS et al., 2014; OKUMA et al., 2017) e em Porto Rico (STORER et al., 2010; GUTIÉRREZ-MORENO et al., 2019).

Por apresentar um ciclo de desenvolvimento holometábolo, *S. frugiperda* vive aproximadamente 40 dias (Figura 7), em condições de desenvolvimento favoráveis (ROSA et al., 2012).

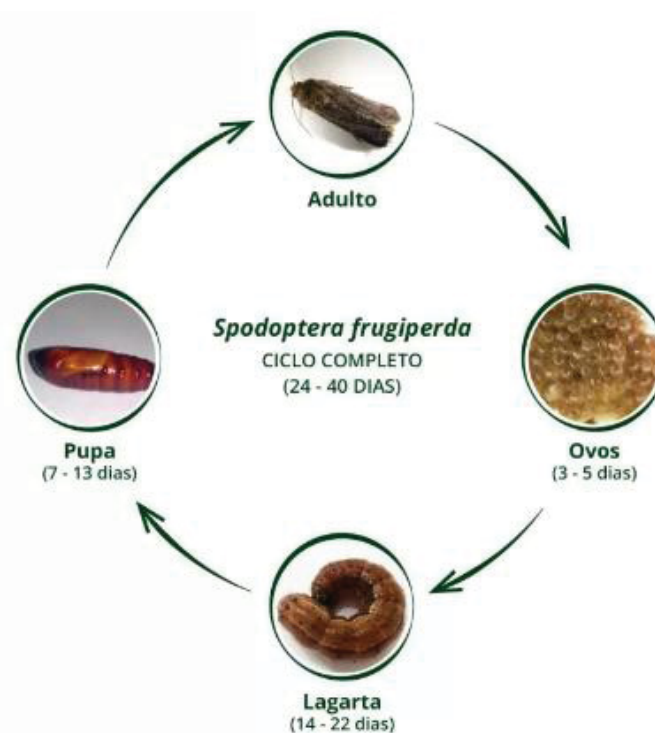


Figura 7: Metamorfose e estimativa do período de desenvolvimento de *Spodoptera frugiperda*.

No entanto, ao longo do período embrionário e pós-embrionário, *S. frugiperda* pode ser atacada por um grande número de patógenos (bactérias, fungos e vírus), parasitoides (Diptera e Hymenoptera) e predadores (Coleoptera, Dermaptera, Hemiptera e Hymenoptera) (TAY et al., 2023). Pesquisas apontam, dentro do contexto de manejo integrado de pragas, que utilizar estratégias como o controle biológico pode ser bastante interessante para o controle da lagarta do cartucho e que para liberações aumentativas, os parasitoides de ovos são os inimigos naturais mais fáceis de criar em grandes números (SAMPAIO et al., 2024).

No Brasil, uma série de estudos mostrou que a liberação dos parasitoides de ovos *Telenomus remus* Nixon e *Trichogramma pretiosum* Riley tem o potencial de reduzir populações de campo, e informações suficientes foram coletadas sobre o número de indivíduos liberados (FIGUEIREDO et al., 2002; POMARI-FERNANDES et al., 2013), capacidade de dispersão (POMARI-FERNANDES et al., 2018) e custos (VIEIRA et al., 2017) para permitir o desenvolvimento de um programa de liberação de *T. remus*. Um programa de liberação de *T. pretiosum* no milho também foi desenvolvido usando dados sobre o número de machos de *S. frugiperda* capturados em armadilhas de feromônios (FIGUEIREDO et al., 2015).

Diferentes tipos de vírus também foram identificados e explorados como potenciais agentes de controle biológico (HUSSAIN et al., 2021) e os candidatos virais mais promissores são o *S. frugiperda* nucleopolyhedrovirus (SfNPV) (POPHAM et al., 2021) e granulovirus (CUARTAS et al., 2014).

2.6 ÓLEOS ESSENCIAS E SUA UTILIZAÇÃO NO MANEJO INTEGRADO DE PRAGAS

O uso de óleos essenciais (OEs) como alternativa no manejo de pragas agrícolas tem ganhado destaque devido às suas propriedades inseticidas (ISMAN, 2020) e pesquisas tem demonstrado um grande potencial de controle de diversas espécies vegetais contra insetos-praga (BENELLI et al., 2019).

O uso de OEs no controle da lagarta do cartucho está emergindo como uma alternativa promissora para complementar o controle biológico tradicional (BABENDREIER et al., 2020), e justamente por isso, essa abordagem tem atraído a atenção dos pesquisadores, devido à necessidade de reduzir o uso de inseticidas sintéticos, aos quais já é conhecido o desenvolvimento de resistência de *S. frugiperda* (TAY et al., 2023).

Óleos essenciais como os das famílias botânicas Asteraceae, Rutaceae, Lamiaceae e Apiaceae possuem compostos voláteis com atividade inseticida e repelente (CANTÓ-TEJERO et al., 2022; AL-GHANIM et al., 2023), devido à presença de compostos, como

terpenos, aldeídos e fenóis, que atuam de maneira direta, afetando o sistema nervoso dos insetos, e indireta, repelindo-os ou inibindo a sua alimentação (CASTILLO-MORALES et al., 2019; DUQUE et al., 2023).

Estudos demonstraram que OEs extraídos de espécies como *Thymus vulgaris*, *Rosmarinus officinalis*, *Melaleuca alterifolia* e *Mentha spicata* apresentaram boa eficácia no controle da população de lepidópteros (PLATA-RUEDA et al., 2021; SANTOS et al., 2021), por meio de altas taxas de mortalidade de lagartas e efeito de antixenose (PAVELA et al., 2016).

A integração de OEs com inimigos naturais de *S. frugiperda*, como parasitoides do gênero *Trichogramma* (PARREIRA et al., 2017; CRUZ et al., 2021) ou predadores (CAMPOLO et al., 2020), potencializa o controle de insetos-praga, apontando que o uso combinado desses recursos é vantajoso e promissor (ISMAN, 2020).

2.7 MARCADORES ENZIMÁTICOS PARA ENTENDIMENTO DO MECANISMO DE AÇÃO DOS ÓLEOS ESSENCIAIS SOBRE *Spodoptera frugiperda*

Os insetos são um dos organismos mais bem-sucedidos que sobreviveram em seus habitats, isso graças a sua adaptabilidade a mudanças climáticas, e principalmente aos vários sistemas que eles desenvolveram para neutralizar ou aliviar os efeitos causados por discrepâncias alimentares e compostos químicos (SHAHRIARI et al., 2018), que poderiam ser fatais.

Além da adaptabilidade digestiva e do sistema imunológico, os insetos recrutaram alguns componentes altamente eficazes na estrutura do sistema antioxidante, para proteger seus tecidos contra alguns componentes químicos, como os radicais livres (AHMAD E PARDINI, 1990). Espécies reativas de oxigênio (ROS), incluindo ânion superóxido, peróxido de hidrogênio e radical hidroxila, são consideradas geradas durante processos oxidativos normais em todos os organismos aeróbicos (MENG et al., 2009). Acredita-se que baixos níveis de ROS não são prejudiciais às células e desempenham papel importante na sinalização celular e na indução de defesa do hospedeiro (WANG et al., 2001).

No entanto, sob vários tipos de estresse ambiental, por exemplo, radiação ultravioleta (UV) ou exposição a compostos químicos, o nível de ROS pode aumentar drasticamente e resultar em estresse oxidativo (LUKASIK et al., 2007; LOPEZ-MARTINES et al., 2008; MENG et al., 2009; KIRAN e PRAKASH, 2015). O excesso de ROS causa peroxidação lipídica, que rompe a estrutura da membrana, levando a morte celular (HALLIWELL e GUTTERIDGE, 2015). Danos oxidativos às proteínas podem variar de modificações

específicas de aminoácidos e cisão de peptídeos até a perda da atividade enzimática (STADTMAN, 1986; STADTMAN e LEVINE, 2003), além de alterações irreversíveis no DNA (IMLAY e LINN, 1988).

Em um organismo, níveis aumentados de peroxidação lipídica e carbonilas de proteínas são considerados geradores de estresse oxidativo (WANG et al., 2001; LOPEZ-MARTINEZ et al., 2008), para neutralizar a toxicidade de ROS, os insetos desenvolveram um conjunto de enzimas antioxidantes, como outros eucariotos, para lidar com o estresse oxidativo.

Nos insetos, entre as principais enzimas responsáveis pela desintoxicação estão as esterases, glutathione – S – transferase (GST), superóxido dismutase (SOD) e catalase, que atuam biotransformando compostos químicos e combatendo espécies reativas de oxigênio (ROS) (MENG et al., 2009; SHAHRIARI et al., 2018). Essas enzimas previnem o estresse oxidativo, bloqueando a formação de radicais livres e agindo na homeostase celular. Isso indica que o papel dessas enzimas é degradar e transformar moléculas tóxicas em substâncias inativas mais hidrossolúveis, que serão excretadas, permitindo que o inseto sobreviva após a exposição a compostos químicos, sejam naturais ou sintéticos, como é o caso dos inseticidas (HALLIWELL e GUTTERIDGE, 2015; BAI et al., 2024).

Os OEs são usados em todo o mundo e tem mostrado efeitos negativos significativos na sobrevivência, reprodução, desenvolvimento, comportamento e vias metabólicas dos insetos (TRIPATHI et al., 2003; ISMAN, 2006; SENTHIL-NATHAN, 2013; TAK e ISMAN, 2016).

As reações de desintoxicação geralmente são parte de um sistema multi-enzimático, que pode ser dividido em enzima de Fase I e II. Entre as enzimas que atuam na Fase I estão as oxidases de função múltipla, que reconhecem o composto exógeno, e atuam sobre ele, provocando a oxidação, e as esterases (PARKINSON e OGILVIE, 2008).

As esterases estão entre os grupos de enzimas que desempenham diferentes funções fisiológicas vitais para os insetos, e estudos mostraram que as enzimas esterase α e esterase β atuam no processo de desintoxicação de moléculas químicas de óleos essenciais, incluindo inseticidas sintéticos (GUENGERICH et al., 2008).

Baixas concentrações de óleos essenciais provocam um aumento na síntese dessas enzimas e, conseqüentemente, os insetos podem realizar a biotransformação desses compostos por meio da hidrólise das cadeias de ésteres de compostos químicos, presentes nos óleos essenciais, em moléculas que serão excretadas pelo organismo (REGNAULT-ROGER et al. 2012).

A GST é importante na Fase II da biotransformação de compostos orgânicos, catalisando a conjugação do tripeptídeo glutationa, com grupos eletrofílicos de compostos xenobióticos, visando torná-los menos tóxicos. Tal como acontece com as esterases, o aumento da atividade da enzima GST está associado à capacidade do inseto de desintoxicar e sobreviver (LILLIG e BERNDT, 2013).

As GSTs atuam na Fase II catalisando a redução peróxido, mediada pela glutathione (GSH), com uma variedade de eletrófilos reativos, mais comumente gerados pelo metabolismo do citocromo P450. As GSTs compreendem duas super-famílias distintas: a microsomal, ligadas à membrana e as cistólicas solúveis. Devido a polimorfismos, duplicação de genes e recombinação genética, as GSTs têm múltiplas isoenzimas com sobreposição de especificidade de substrato e diversidade, dessa forma, as GSTs biotransformam compostos orgânicos, catalisando a conjugação do tripeptídeo GSH com grupos eletrofílicos de compostos xenobióticos, com o objetivo de torná-los menos tóxicos e predispostos para modificação posterior e excreção pela célula (FELTON e SUMMERS, 1995; FORMAN et al., 2009).

As GSTs também estão envolvidas no transporte de xenobióticos através do citoplasma para serem novamente metabolizados através de enzimas da Fase I, fundamental para biotransformação intracelular. Por outro lado, a redução na atividade enzimática da GST pode afetar a capacidade de neutralizar os efeitos dos peróxidos lipídicos, podendo ocasionar o acúmulo de metabólitos da Fase I e o desequilíbrio do estado redox celular (HAYES e McLELLAN, 1999; SHEEHAN et al., 2001).

As enzimas antioxidantes SOD são importantes mecanismos de defesa dos insetos contra a toxicidade do estresse oxidativo causado por ROS, nas vias enzimáticas de eliminação de ROS, a SOD decompõe o superóxido de hidrogênio em peróxido de hidrogênio, que é então eliminado pela catalase (BARBEHENN, 2002; FELTON e SUMMERS, 2005).

Além de alterar a síntese enzimática, os OEs também podem atuar desregulando a homeostase celular, por meio da formação e liberação de radicais livres, aumentando o nível de ROS nas células resultando na peroxidação lipídica (ISMAN, 2000). Dessa forma, pode-se entender que a peroxidação lipídica é o dano direto, causado na membrana plasmática celular, o qual aumenta a permeabilidade da membrana e, favorece a liberação de conteúdo intracelular, aumentando o estresse oxidativo, o que resulta em apoptose celular (BAKKALI et al., 2008).

Os diferentes compostos presentes nos OEs como fenilpropanoides e monotepenoides, com propriedades inseticidas, além de atuar gerando compostos oxidativos que levam ao vazamento iônico das células e à degeneração de mitocôndrias e proteínas (LUKASIK et al., 2007; MONAGHAM et al., 2009; RAHIMI et al., 2018), também podem atuar na inibição da acetilcolinesterase (AChE) (KIM et al., 2013; SEO et al., 2014).

A AChE é uma das mais importantes enzimas hidrolíticas do sistema nervoso dos insetos, que equilibram a transdução do sinal neural pela hidrólise rápida do sinal de acetilcolina na fenda sináptica (JACOB e MASON, 2005). Além de inseticidas químicos como organofosforados e carbamatos, a AChE tem se mostrado um alvo significativo de OEs (PHILIPPOU et al., 2010; KIM et al., 2013; LI et al., 2013; SEO et al., 2014), isso pode ser atribuído, principalmente pela presença de monoterpenos, com propriedades inibitórias da AChE, que são ligadas a diferença na lipofilicidade e volatilidade, bem como a inibição de monoxigenases P450 (De OLIVEIRA et al., 1997; LEE et al., 2001).

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CHAPTER 1: INSECTICIDAL ACTIVITY, TOXICITY AND BIOCHEMICAL ALTERATIONS OF *Drimys brasiliensis* ESSENTIAL OIL AGAINST *Spodoptera frugiperda*

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Abstract

Spodoptera frugiperda is a major pest in corn crops, causing significant productivity losses and exhibiting high resistance to synthetic insecticides. Essential oils (EOs) are natural substances known for their insecticidal activity against various agricultural pests. This study describes the chemical composition and bioactivity of *Drimys brasiliensis* EO against *S. frugiperda* larvae. The EO was extracted using the steam distillation method in a vat, and its chemical composition was determined using gas chromatography coupled with mass spectrometry (GC-MS). The insecticidal activity of this EO was assessed by the contact method to estimate the lethal concentration (LC₅₀ and LC₉₀) and to evaluate the effects on biochemical markers, including glutathione S-transferase (GST), esterase- α (EST- α), esterase- β (EST- β), superoxide dismutase (SOD), acetylcholinesterase (AChE), and lipid peroxidation (LPO), in 3rd instar larvae of *S. frugiperda*. Twenty-nine compounds were identified by GC-MS, accounting for 81.32% of the total chemical composition. *D. brasiliensis* EO resulted in 100% mortality of *S. frugiperda* larvae at a concentration of 2.5%, with LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ values of 0.90% and 1.40%, respectively. Both lethal concentrations increased AChE and LPO activity, while only LC₉₀ affected the EST- α and EST- β enzymes. *Drimys brasiliensis* EO exhibits insecticidal activity against *S. frugiperda* with neurotoxic effects, as well as cellular damage, demonstrating its potential as a control method in managing this pest in conventional and organic production methods.

Keywords: fall armyworm, enzymatic activities, Winteraceae, biochemical effects

1. Introduction

Spodoptera frugiperda (JE Smith, 1797) (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae), commonly known as the fall armyworm, is the most destructive pest of corn crops in Brazil and other South American countries (Pogue 2002; Cruz et al., 2012). In this country, the prevailing production systems promote high levels of insect infestations at all stages of corn growth (Barros et al., 2010).

Historically, the control of fall armyworms in corn has relied on synthetic insecticides. However, the efficacy of this control strategy is limited by the larval behavior of the species, as the caterpillars remain within the corn whorl, which complicates targeting with sprays from conventional insecticides (Carvalho et al., 2013; Kenis et al., 2023). Moreover, intensive corn cultivation in certain regions of Brazil has also accelerated the evolution of insecticide resistance in *S. frugiperda* populations. In these agricultural systems, the insect has developed resistance to several insecticides, including lambda-cyhalothrin, chlorpyrifos, spinosad, and lufenuron (Bolzan et al., 2019; Lira et al., 2019).

Low adherence to integrated pest management and insecticide resistance management strategies has negatively affected the control of *S. frugiperda* in Brazil (Moscardini et al., 2020). Given this scenario, developing new control tactics for *S. frugiperda* that are more effective and less harmful to the environment and non-target organisms, such as bioinsecticides, is necessary. Several botanical families produce a variety of bioactive secondary metabolites, including terpenes, flavonoids, and alkaloids (Erb and Kliebenstein, 2020; Ninkuu et al., 2021), which may exhibit insecticidal activity.

Among the products derived from plant secondary metabolism are essential oils (EOs) (Heinzmann et al., 2017), which are complex mixtures of volatile, lipophilic, generally odorous, and liquid compounds (Borges and Amorim 2020). These compounds are stored in various plant organs, such as bark, leaves, and fruits (Taiz and Zeiger 2013). EOs offer several advantages, including low toxicity to non-target organisms, minimal persistence in

field conditions, reduced environmental and human health risks, and a lower likelihood of inducing pest resistance (Isman 2020). However, despite their potential as botanical insecticides for agricultural use, there is a scarcity of studies investigating their mechanisms of action on agricultural pests and their effects on biotransformation or antioxidant enzymes (Zhang and Feng 2018).

Among the EO-producing species, those of the genus *Drimys* (Winteraceae) stand out, such as *Drymis angustifolia* Miers and *Drimys brasiliensis* Miers; these arboreal plants are endemic to the Atlantic Forest and popularly known as cataia or casca de anta, and its barks are widely used in folk medicine to treat different diseases and health problems (Amaral et al., 2017; Graf Júnior et al., 2021). Several studies have demonstrated that EOs from *D. brasiliensis* possess various biological properties (Ribeiro et al., 2008; Gomes et al., 2013; Graf Júnior et al., 2021), including insecticidal activity (Ribeiro et al., 2008; Anese et al., 2018). However, research on the insecticidal action of *D. brasiliensis* EO against lepidopteran pests and its effect on biochemical markers is lacking. Consequently, this study evaluated the contact toxicity of *D. brasiliensis* EO and its constituents against *S. frugiperda*, as well as its effects on lipid peroxidation (LPO) and on important biotransformation (esterase- α , EST- α ; esterase- β , Est- β ; glutathione S-transferase, GST), antioxidant (superoxide dismutase, SOD), and neurotransmission (acetylcholinesterase, AChE) enzymes.

2. Material and Methods

2.1 Plant material collection and essential oil extraction

To obtain *D. brasiliensis* EO, plant material was collected from Bio Estação Gaia in the municipality of Piraquara, Paraná, Brazil (-25.501217 S; -49.001598 W) in April 2022. After herborization and identification, the species was deposited at the Herbarium of the Municipal Botanical Museum in the Botanical Garden of Curitiba, Paraná, under MBM No. 052485. This research was also registered in SISGEN under the number AE4C4BF. Terminal

branches with leaves were harvested, and the EO was extracted using the steam drag method in a vat for three hours.

2.2 Identification of the chemical composition of the essential oil

Analysis by gas chromatography was performed on a Shimadzu TQ8040 chromatograph coupled with mass spectrometry (GC-MS), utilizing an Rtx-5MS fused silica capillary column (30m x 0.25mm x 0.25 μ m) with helium as the carrier gas at a flow rate of 1.02 mL/min. The injector temperature remained constant at 250 °C and the ionization system operated at 70 eV. The sample was injected with a split ratio of 1:90. The temperature of the capillary column was programmed to increase from 60 °C to 250 °C at a rate of 3 °C/min.

The injected sample volume consisted of 1.0 μ L of a solution comprising 1.0 μ L of EO dissolved in 1 mL of hexane. The EO was identified by retention index calculated and mass spectra comparison with literature (Adams, 2007) and NIST 02 mass library (NIST, Gaithersburg, MD, USA). The retention index was calculated using a homologous series of alkanes (C8 to C19) (Van den Dool and Kratz, 1963).

2.3 *Spodoptera frugiperda* breeding

The breeding of *S. frugiperda* was performed in the laboratory, and the insects used in this research were obtained from stock breeding. During the larval phase, the larvae were reared using the methodology proposed by Parra (2001) and fed with an artificial diet according to Marchioro & Foerster (2012). Each larva was housed in a 100 mL plastic container containing approximately 40 mL of diet until it reached the pupal stage. Subsequently, they were transferred to transparent acrylic boxes (Gerbox®) measuring 11 cm in width, 11 cm in length, and 3.5 cm in height. After emergence, adults were housed in polyvinyl chloride (PVC) cages measuring 35 cm in height and 20 cm in diameter, which were closed with voile fabric at the top and lined with bond paper to serve as an oviposition surface for the females.

The adults were fed a 10% honey solution diluted in distilled water, provided in plastic containers with cotton wool soaked in the solution. Sheets of bond paper bearing the egg masses were replaced three times a week, and the egg masses were affixed with adhesive tape to the lids of plastic containers (300 mL) containing approximately 100 mL of artificial diet, ensuring that the newborn caterpillars had access to food. The breeding of *S. frugiperda* was conducted in a climate-controlled chamber, maintained at a temperature of 25 ± 1 °C, $70 \pm 10\%$ RH, and a photophase of 14:10 hours, consistent across all developmental stages of the insect.

2.4 Insecticide potential of *D. brasiliensis* essential oil on *S. frugiperda*

Preliminary tests were conducted with *D. brasiliensis* EO at a concentration of 2.5% (v/v), diluted in acetone. Acetone (ALPHA024, 99.5% PA) served as the negative control, whereas the synthetic insecticide chlorfenapyr (Pirate®) at 0.75 L/ha was used as the positive control. The experimental design was completely randomized, with five replicates per treatment, and the experiment was repeated five times.

The methodology was adapted from Eccel et al. (2024) for this bioassay. Ten 3rd-instar larvae were placed in 145 mL plastic containers containing 25 g of artificial diet. Subsequently, 150 µL of the treatments were pipetted onto the diet and the larvae, using a Kasvi basic pipette (20–200 µL). After treatment application, the containers were sealed with voile fabric and placed in an incubator chamber maintained at 25 ± 1 °C, $70 \pm 10\%$ RH, and a photophase of 14:10 hours. Mortality was assessed after 48 hours of exposure; larvae were gently prodded with a brush, and those that did not respond were considered dead.

2.5 Toxicity of *D. brasiliensis* essential oil on *S. frugiperda*

To determine the lethal concentrations (LC₅₀ and LC₉₀), a bioassay was conducted using eight concentrations ranging from 0.65% to 1.7%, diluted in acetone (used as the

negative control). The experimental design and methodology were identical to those described in section 2.4.

2.6 Effect of *D. brasiliensis* essential oil on biochemical markers of *S. frugiperda*

For enzymatic and LPO analysis, the insects were exposed to the LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ of *D. brasiliensis* EO, and the survivors were frozen at -80°C. Preliminary tests were conducted to ascertain the minimum larval count required to quantify enzymatic activity within the detection limits of the spectrophotometer (Multiskan Sky Thermo Scientific™). Ten pools of four larvae each were evaluated for both treatment and control groups, amounting to 40 caterpillars. Subsequently, the larvae were thawed and homogenized in 620 µL of Milli-Q water.

2.6.1 Esterases

The enzymatic activity of EST- α and EST- β was analyzed following the protocol outlined by Valle and Montella (2006). For both, 10 µL of the sample was added (replaced with 10 µL of Milli-Q water for the blank). Subsequently, for EST- α , 200 µL of alpha-naphthyl acetate/naphosphate (0.3 mM) was added, using alpha-naphthol (0.3 mg.L⁻¹) as a positive control. Meanwhile, for EST- β , 200 µL of beta-naphthyl acetate/naphosphate (0.3 mM) was added, with beta-naphthol (0.3 mg.L⁻¹) used as a positive control. The plates were not incubated; instead, 50 µL of Fast Blue dye (0.3%) was added, followed by a second incubation lasting 5 minutes. Subsequently, an endpoint reading was conducted at a wavelength of 570 nm. The results were expressed as nmol α -naphthol/mg ptn/min for EST- α and nmol beta-naphthol/mg ptn/min for EST- β . A standard curve was generated to convert absorbance values into alpha/beta naphthol content.

For the curve, masses of 0 µg, 1 µg, 2 µg, 3 µg, 4 µg, and 5 µg of alpha/beta naphthol were used, along with volumes of 0 µL, 2 µL, 4 µL, 6 µL, 8 µL, and 10 µL. Milli-Q water was added proportionally to complete the total volume of 10 µL. The curve was

conducted in duplicate, and subsequently, the microplates were prepared and read following the same procedure.

2.6.2 Glutathione S-transferase

GST activity was analyzed following the protocol of Keen et al. (1976). For this, 15 μL of samples were added (replaced with 15 μL of Milli-Q water for the blank), along with 195 μL of a solution containing reduced glutathione (10 mM GSH) and chlorodinitrobenzene (21mM CDNB). Readings were performed at a wavelength of 340 nm, every minute, for 20 minutes. The results were expressed in $\mu\text{moles/mg ptn/min}$.

2.6.3 Superoxide dismutase

SOD activity was assessed following the protocol outlined by Gao et al. (1998). First, 40 μL of the sample (with 40 μL of Milli-Q water for the blank) were aliquoted in duplicate into 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tubes. Subsequently, 885 μL of ethylenediamine tetraacetic acid tris buffer (EDTA; pH 8.0; 5 mM) and 50 μL of pyrogalllic acid were added. The microtubes were then incubated for 30 minutes, following which 25 μL of HCl (1 N) was added to partially halt the reaction. Microplates for the control treatment underwent the same procedures except for the incubation step, which was absent. Next, 300 μL of the solution was added to the plate in triplicate, and readings were taken at a wavelength of 440 nm. The results were expressed in units (U) of SOD/mg of protein.

2.6.4 Lipid peroxidation

LPO was determined following the protocol described by Jiang et al. (1992). Initially, 70 μL of sample and 70 μL of methanol (PA) were combined in 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tubes. Subsequently, the samples were centrifuged at 5000xg for 5 minutes at 4°C. Following centrifugation, 100 μL of the supernatant (with 100 μL of methanol replaced by Milli-Q water for the blank) was transferred to a new microtube. To this, 900 μL of FOX 2 reagent (consisting of a methanolic solution of xylenol orange 0.1 mM and crystalline

butylated hydroxytoluene (BHT) 4 mM in methanol PA) and 2500 μ L of ferrous ammonium sulfate solution (containing H₂SO₄ and Milli-Q water) were added. Subsequently, the solution was dispensed into 96 microplate wells in triplicate, with a volume of 300 μ L each. Readings were taken at 560 nm, and the results were expressed in nmol of hydroperoxides/mg of protein.

2.6.5 Acetylcholinesterase

First, 95 μ L aliquots of each sample were separated. AChE enzymatic activity was then analyzed following the protocol outlined by Ellman et al. (1961), with modifications for microplate use by Silva de Assis (1998). Specifically, 25 μ L of the samples were added (for the blank, 25 μ L of Milli-Q water was substituted), along with 200 μ L of 5,5-dithio-bis-2nitro-benzoate (DTNB; 0.75 mM) and 50 μ L of iodetoacetylcholine (ATC; 10mM). Immediately after pipetting, the plate was incubated at room temperature and exposed to light for 30 minutes. Readings were taken every 30 seconds for five minutes, with a wavelength of 405 nm. The results were expressed in μ moles/mg ptn/min.

2.6.6 Protein assay

The total protein content was determined according to the protocol described by Bradford (1976). To achieve this, 10 μ L of the samples, 10 μ L of bovine serum albumin (BSA) for the positive control, and 250 μ L of Bradford dye (prepared as 1 part of Bradford solution to 5 parts of Milli-Q water) were added. Readings were taken at a wavelength of 620 nm. For constructing the BSA standard curve, a serial dilution was conducted with quantities of 0 μ g, 2.5 μ g, 5 μ g, 7.5 μ g, 10 μ g, and 15 μ g of BSA dissolved in Milli-Q water. The highest concentration consisted of 150 μ L of the stock solution (2 mg/ml BSA) mixed with 50 μ L of Milli-Q water, while the blank consisted of 200 μ L of Milli-Q water. Subsequently, 10 μ L of the sample was pipetted in quadruplicate per concentration into a microplate. The absorbance readings followed the same protocol as for total protein measurement.

2.5 Statistical analysis

Insect mortality data were modeled using generalized linear models (GLM) with Poisson distribution. The data concerning insecticidal activity and its impact on biochemical markers were analyzed using Gaussian distribution. In both instances, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted, and when statistically significant, Tukey's mean test was applied with a 5% probability of error. Lethal concentration data underwent Probit analysis using the “ecotox” package within the R software (R Core Team, 2021). All statistical analyses were performed in R.

3. Results

3.1 Chemical composition of *D. brasiliensis* essential oil

Twenty-nine compounds were identified in the *D. brasiliensis* EO sample by GC-MS, totaling 81.31% of its total chemical composition. Our sample has a high concentration of sesquiterpene (60.72%) and monoterpene (17.51%) compounds. The major compounds were α -pinene, germacrene D and bicyclogermacrene, which account for 49.3% of the total chemical composition (Table 1).

Table 1: Chemical composition of essential oil from leaves and terminal branches of *Drimys brasiliensis* collected in Piraquara (Paraná, Brazil), analyzed using gas chromatography and mass spectrometry.

Compounds	RIlit ^b	RIcal ^a	% ^c SD ^d	Classes	Method of Identification
α -pinene	932	934	11.38 $\pm$ 0.04	Monoterpene	RI, MS ^e
sabinene	969	973	0.75 $\pm$ 0.06	Monoterpene	RI, MS
β -pinene	974	979	3.32 $\pm$ 0.08	Monoterpene	RI, MS
Myrcene	988	989	0.56 $\pm$ 0.02	Monoterpene	RI, MS
δ -3-carene	1008	1010	0.31 $\pm$ 0.04	Monoterpene	RI, MS
α -terpineol	1014	1018	0.25 $\pm$ 0.01	Oxygenated monoterpene	RI, MS
β -phellandrene	1025	1031	0.18 $\pm$ 0.03	Monoterpene	RI, MS

γ -terpineol	1054	1058	0.31 $\pm$ 0.02	Oxygenated monoterpene	RI, MS
Terpinolene	1086	1087	1.01 $\pm$ 0.02	Monoterpene	RI, MS
Safrole	1285	1291	0.45 $\pm$ 0.03	Oxygenated monoterpene	RI, MS
α -cubebene	1348	1349	1.81 $\pm$ 0.01	Sesquiterpene	RI, MS
α -copaene	1374	1378	0.59 $\pm$ 0.02	Sesquiterpene	RI, MS
β -bourbonene	1387	1387	3.70 $\pm$ 0.03	Sesquiterpene	RI, MS
β -elemene	1389	1391	1.53 $\pm$ 0.02	Sesquiterpene	RI, MS
(E)-caryophyllene	1417	1423	2.41 $\pm$ 0.10	Sesquiterpene	RI, MS
β -copaene	1430	1433	1.39 $\pm$ 0.03	Sesquiterpene	RI, MS
Aromadendrene	1439	1442	0.42 $\pm$ 0.01	Sesquiterpene	RI, MS
α -humulene	1452	1459	0.91 $\pm$ 0.03	Sesquiterpene	RI, MS
Dauc-5,8-diene	1471	1475	0.60 $\pm$ 0.02	Sesquiterpene	RI, MS
γ -muurolene	1478	1478	1.93 $\pm$ 0.07	Sesquiterpene	RI, MS
Germacrene D	1480	1484	29.90 $\pm$ 0.10	Sesquiterpene	RI, MS
γ -amorphene	1495	1495	1.63 $\pm$ 0.03	Sesquiterpene	RI, MS
Bicyclogermacrene	1500	1499	8.02 $\pm$ 0.08	Sesquiterpene	RI, MS
γ -cadinene	1513	1516	1.34 $\pm$ 0.02	Sesquiterpene	RI, MS
δ -cadinene	1522	1521	4.29 $\pm$ 0.10	Sesquiterpene	RI, MS
Zonarene	1528	1526	0.25 $\pm$ 0.04	Sesquiterpene	RI, MS
Spathulenol	1577	1580	1.09 $\pm$ 0.02	Oxygenated sesquiterpene	RI, MS
<i>Epi</i> - α -muurolol	1640	1647	0.53 $\pm$ 0.07	Oxygenated sesquiterpene	RI, MS
Drimenol	1766	1775	0.45 $\pm$ 0.08	Oxygenated sesquiterpene	RI, MS
Classes of compounds					
Monoterpene					17.51
Oxygenated monoterpene					1.01
Sesquiterpene					60.72
Oxygenated sesquiterpene					2.07
Total					81.31

^aRical Experimental Retention Index. ^bRilit Literature Retention Index. ^cConcentrations are means of three determinations. ^dStandard deviation. ^eRI: according to values reported in the ADAMS library, and MS: mass spectra aligned to those stored in the ADAMS, NIST 02 libraries.

3.2 Insecticide potential of *D. brasiliensis* essential oil on *S. frugiperda*

The mortality of 3rd instar *S. frugiperda* larvae exposed to *D. brasiliensis* EO was 98.6%, exhibiting a statistically significant difference ($\chi^2 = 57.7$; $df = 2$; $p < 0.05$) compared to the synthetic insecticide, which resulted in 100% mortality, and the control groups, where no mortality was observed.

3.3 Assessment of toxicity and estimation of the lethal concentration of *D. brasiliensis* essential oil on *S. frugiperda*

Following 48 hours of exposure, *D. brasiliensis* EO exhibited significant toxicity towards 3rd instar larvae of *S. frugiperda*, with LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ values of 0.90% and 1.40%, respectively, ($p = 0.00000740$). The mortality rate was 46% for LC₅₀ and 92% for LC₉₀, and no mortality was observed in the negative control group treated with acetone.

Table 2: Toxicity of *Drimys brasiliensis* EO essential oil to *Spodoptera frugiperda* by contact after 48 h of exposure.

N	LC ₅₀ (CI 95%) % (v/v)	LC ₉₀ (CI* 95%) % (v/v)	χ^2	Slope
2250	0.90 (0.79 – 1.71)	1.40 (1.29 – 1.63)	33.8	6.57

*95% CI: Confidence interval (95%).

3.4 Effect of *D. brasiliensis* essential oil on biochemical markers

Larvae exposed to the LC₉₀ concentration of *D. brasiliensis* EO showed significant alterations in various enzymatic activities following acute exposure compared to the controls groups. There was a significant increase in EST- α and EST- β enzymes compared to the control groups. However, regarding SOD activity, the treatment did not exhibit statistically significant differences from the acetone group (negative control). Both LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ treatments led to heightened AChE and LPO activities (Figure 1).

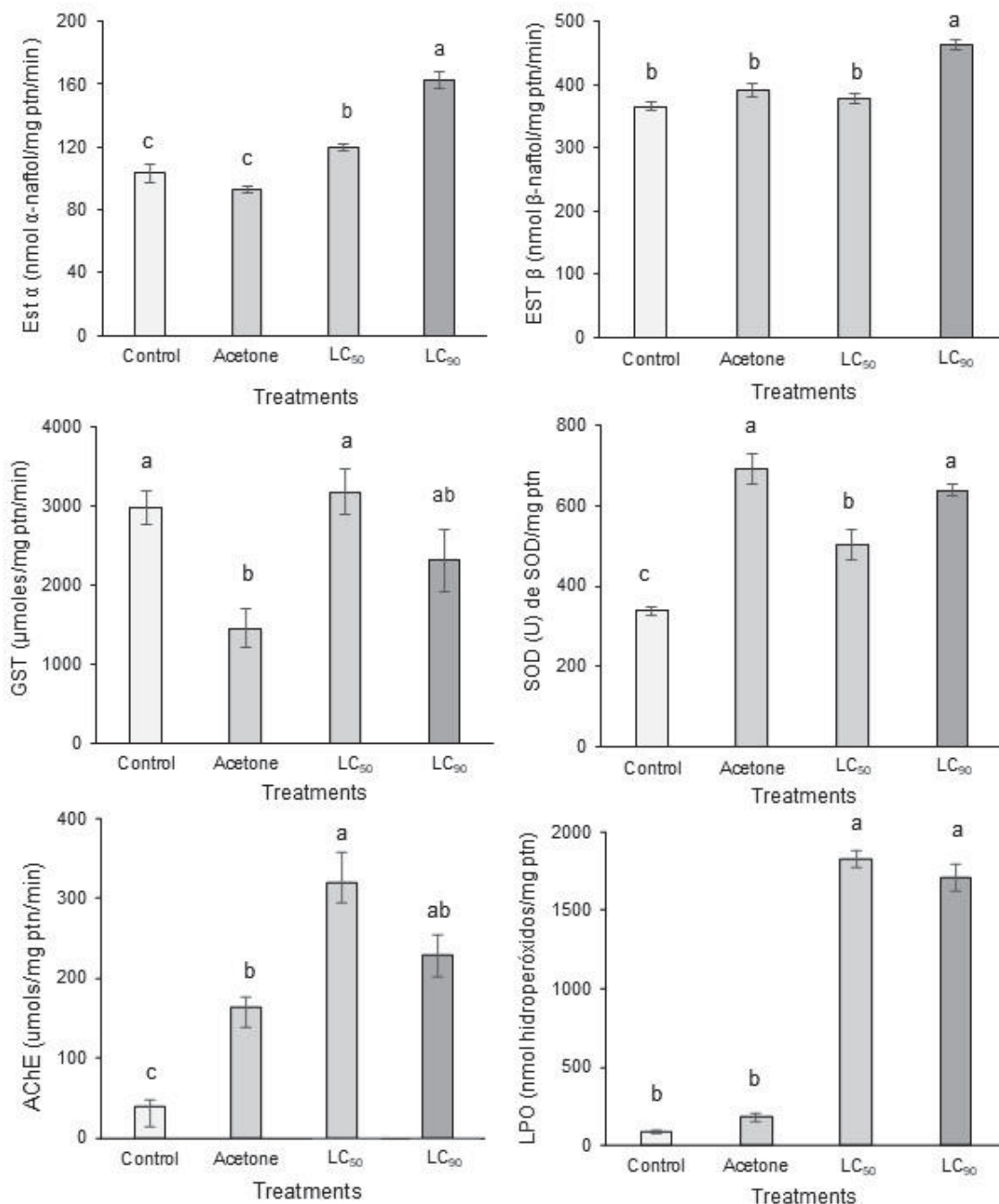


Fig. 2 Effect of control, acetone (negative control), and *Drimys brasiliensis* essential oil on EST- α , EST- β , GST, SOD, LPO, and AChE activities against *Spodoptera frugiperda*. Means sharing the same letter in the bar diagram indicate no significant difference according to One-way ANOVA and Tukey's multiple comparison tests at 5% of probability.

4. Discussion

EOs represent one of the most promising natural alternatives as biopesticides for integrated pest management of agricultural pests (Benelli et al., 2020). In this context, our study marks the inaugural investigation into the bioactivity of *D. brasiliensis* EO against *S. frugiperda*.

Our results reveal that the analyzed *D. brasiliensis* EO sample mainly consisted of sesquiterpenes followed by mono and, to a lesser extent, sesquiterpenes and mono oxygenated, respectively, with germacrene D, α -pinene, bicyclogermacrene, δ -cardiene, β -bourbonene, and β -pinene identified as the predominant compounds. However, previous studies have reported quantitative and qualitative variations in the chemical composition of this species by hydrodistillation method, and with distinct major compounds identified in our results. Although, bicyclogermacrene compound was identified in all samples reported in the literature as the majority compound, with proportions similar to those in our study, indicating that this compound could determine a chemotype for this species (Ribeiro et al., 2008; Lago et al., 2010; Gomes et al., 2013; Cruz et al., 2014; Zem et al., 2016; Graf Júnior et al., 2021). The variability observed in the chemical composition of EOs can be attributed to intrinsic and extrinsic factors of the plant. These factors include the plant part used for extraction, seasons of the year in which the plant was collected, extraction methods employed, ecological and geographical conditions of the region, population genetics, and even the plant's sex (Besten et al., 2014; Manfron et al., 2021).

EOs are defined as complex mixtures of highly variable chemical compounds that determine the biological activities of these products (Giunti et al., 2023). The specific array and proportions of these compounds directly influence the bioactivity of EOs, including their insecticidal effects on agricultural pests (Ainane et al., 2020; Abdoul-latif et al., 2020).

We found that *D. brasiliensis* EO induced mortality rates exceeding 80% in *S. frugiperda* 3rd instar larvae, within the standard threshold set by the Brazilian Ministry of Agriculture for registering insecticidal products (Filomeno et al., 2017; Zimmermann et al., 2021). This threshold also serves as a criterion for toxicity assessments. Additionally, other studies have reported similar tick and insecticidal activities for *D. brasiliensis* EO against *Rhipicephalus (Boophilus) microplus* Canestrini, *Rhipicephalus sanguineus* Latreille (Ribeiro et al., 2008), and *Cryptotermes brevis* Walker (Isoptera: Kalotermitidae) (Gomes et al., 2014). However, the major compounds in those studies differed qualitatively and quantitatively from those identified in our research. The insecticidal activity of other EOs against *S. frugiperda* has already been reported in the literature, demonstrating that these substances are effective in controlling the pest. The mainly botanical families studied that produce EO with insecticidal activity for this insect were Piperaceae, Lamiaceae and Verbenaceae. While the genera *Piper*, *Ocimum*, *Lippia* and *Eucalyptus* showed several species with potential use as contact and ingestion biopesticides to control *S. frugiperda* (Usseglio et al., 2023).

The toxicity of EOs is influenced by several factors, including the chemical composition, concentration, exposure method and duration, the developmental stage of the insect, temperature and the target species (Liao et al., 2017; Pavela and Sedlák, 2018; Benelli et al., 2019; Isman, 2019; Zimmermann et al., 2021; Renoz et al., 2022; Cortez-Vega et al., 2023). The major compounds identified in our EO sample germacrene D, α -pinene, bicyclogermacrene, δ -cardiene, β -bourbonene, and β -pinene have shown insecticidal activity against various pests. These include stored grain pests (Bai et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2019; Tampe et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2021; Zimmermann et al., 2022), different lepidopteran species (Alam et al., 2017; Liao et al., 2017; Vicenço et al., 2021; Santos et al., 2021; Silvestre et al., 2022; Al-Ghanim et al., 2023; Mayanglambam and Rajashekar, 2023), and dipterans of agricultural importance (Kumar et al., 2012; Souza et al., 2021; Al-Ghanim et al., 2023;

Zapata et al., 2010). Therefore, it is necessary to know the chemical composition of essential oils, which is extremely important in order to identify chemotype profiles for a given plant species or assist in the genetic selection of populations to standardize compounds that exhibit bioactivity (Isman, 2019).

Throughout the co-evolutionary process between plants and insects, various botanical species have evolved to synthesize several chemical compounds to counteract insect herbivory (Piri et al., 2020). Conversely, insects have developed enzymes capable of detoxifying these substances (Kiran et al., 2017; Ercan et al., 2022). However, there is a lack of research evaluating the mechanism of action in enzymatic responses of EOs against *S. frugiperda*, which implies the difficulty of formulating these products as biopesticides and including them within pest management (Usseglio et al., 2023). In this study, we observed that *D. brasiliensis* EO influenced biochemical markers, marking the first report of the use of this product on the enzymatic activity of *S. frugiperda*.

Detoxification enzymes play a crucial role in supporting and maintaining the primary physiological processes of insects when confronted with environmental challenges, such as exposure to toxic molecules (Shahriari et al., 2020; Ercan et al., 2022). In this context, ESTs are enzymes linked to the detoxification metabolism, working to hydrolyze ester chains found in synthetic insecticides (Marschall and Jiang, 2011). Our findings indicate that the LC₉₀ concentration of *D. brasiliensis* EO increased the activity of EST- α and EST- β , confirming the high toxicity of this EO against *S. frugiperda*.

GSTs are a group of enzymes found in various living organisms that serve dual functions: they aid in detoxification and defend against oxidative stress. These enzymes are part of phase II of biotransformation, and convert potentially toxic substances into smaller, more water-soluble molecules, facilitating their excretion (Marschall and Jiang, 2011; Mojarab-Mahboubkar et al., 2015; Shahriari et al., 2018). Another key enzyme in the defense

against oxidative stress is SOD, which neutralizes free radicals and prevents the formation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) (Kiran et al., 2017; Shahriari et al., 2018; Shahriari et al., 2020).

We found no significant difference between treatments concerning the activity of GST and SOD, suggesting that *D. brasiliensis* EO may have led to an increase and accumulation of ROS within the cells, subsequently resulting in heightened LPO activity. ROS accumulation alters cell membrane permeability, potentially leading to their rupture. A consequence of the presence of these ROS and oxidative stress is measured through lipid peroxidation, which alters the permeability of cell membranes and consequently their integrity (Shahriari et al., 2020; Ercan et al., 2022). In the present research, there was a significant difference in the lipoperoxidation of organisms exposed to EO in relation to those exposed to controls.

In addition to causing biochemical damage, EOs can target various sites within the nervous system. We observed that both concentrations of *D. brasiliensis* EO increased AChE activity, indicating its neurotoxic effects on *S. frugiperda*. Research indicates that monoterpenes, a class of compounds commonly found in EOs, primarily affect nerve synapses (Kiran et al., 2017; Shahriari et al., 2020; Abdelgaleil et al., 2021; Gad et al., 2022). These compounds modulate AChE activity, either increasing or inhibiting it, which can lead to symptoms of neurotoxicity such as hyperexcitability, tremors, convulsions, paralysis, and ultimately, death of the insect.

5. Conclusion

Since EOs are composed of various chemical compounds, they possess insecticidal activity and hold the potential to replace synthetic insecticides within integrated pest management strategies. We found that *D. brasiliensis* EO exhibits significant potential in controlling *S. frugiperda* due to its toxicity and its effects on different mechanisms related to

biotransformation enzymes, nervous system enzymes and in addition to causing damage to biomolecules. Due to its higher toxicity, combined with its diverse chemical composition, *D. brasiliensis* EO can be used as an alternative substance to synthetic insecticides in *S. frugiperda* management programs. However, further research is necessary to develop effective formulations, application methods for field use, and its toxicity on non-target organisms in addition to its effect on human health, with the aim of being used in large-scale systems for more sustainable agricultural models.

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CHAPTER 2: INSECTICIDAL AND TOXICITY ACTIVITIES OF *Elionurus muticus* ESSENTIAL OIL AGAINST *Spodoptera frugiperda*

* These results were submitted in Journal of Applied Entomology

Abstract

Several botanical groups produce essential oils (EOs) with different biological activities for agricultural purposes. However, there is a lack of studies on the potential use of *Elionurus* species to control agricultural pests. This study aimed to analyze the insecticidal action and toxicity of *E. muticus* EO against *Spodoptera frugiperda* larvae, as well as its effect on biomarkers and biological processes. The EO was extracted using the steam distillation method in a vat, and its chemical composition was determined using gas chromatography coupled with mass spectrometry (GC-MS). The insecticidal activity of this oil was assessed by the contact method to estimate the lethal concentration (LC) and evaluate the effects on glutathione S-transferase (GST), esterase- α (EST- α), esterase- β (EST- β), superoxide dismutase (SOD), acetylcholinesterase (AChE), and lipid peroxidation (LPO) in third-instar larvae. We found 14 compounds in the EO sample, accounting for 95.93% of its composition; neral and geranial were the major compounds. *E. muticus* EO resulted in 99.3% mortality of *S. frugiperda* larvae at 2.5%, with LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ values of 1.26% and 2.25%, respectively. Both lethal concentrations caused an increase in LPO, differing from both negative controls. LC₉₀ reduced the activity of EST- β and SOD enzyme, while LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ increased GST, compared to negative control. We conclude that *E. muticus* EO exhibits bioinsecticide activity against *S. frugiperda* with neurotoxic effects and cellular damage, underscoring its potential as a control method in managing this pest.

Keywords: Natural Compounds, Chemical Composition, Biopesticide, Biomarkers, Detoxification enzyme

1. Introduction

Essential oils (EOs) are characterized as complex mixtures of volatile, lipophilic, generally odorous, and liquid molecules derived from the secondary metabolism of plants. These compounds are produced by different botanical families and display various types of biological properties (Amoabeng et al., 2019; Garay et al., 2020; Kumar et al., 2022). Regarding the purpose of agricultural use, EOs can present insecticidal activity against different pests, with advantages such as low toxicity to non-target organisms, low persistence in field conditions, and minimal risk to the environment, human health, and the selection of resistant individuals (Giunti et al., 2022; Isman, 2020a). In recent years, there has been an increase in the number of research on bioprospecting EO-producing species as potential bioinsecticides for agricultural pest control (Eccel et al., 2024; Isman, 2020b, 2019; Murcia-Meseguer et al., 2018; Stevenson et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2020).

Elionurus (Poaceae) plants are distributed on the American and African continents and in Australia. This genus comprises approximately 15 species that produce natural compounds with medicinal properties. However, there are few studies on the potential of *Elionurus* EOs for agronomic purposes (Yedomon et al., 2017).

Elionurus muticus (Poaceae) is popularly known as lemongrass; it occurs in high altitude, floodplain, and rocky fields (Chagonda et al., 2000; Füller et al., 2014). This plant is native to Argentina (Celaya et al., 2023) and has a geographic distribution in the southern region of Brazil (Füller et al., 2014). Research points to the diverse biological properties displayed by lemongrass EO, such as antioxidant, antimicrobial, and antifungal activities (Cacciabue et al., 2005; Sabini et al., 2006; Hess et al., 2007), and that is why this species has aroused significant economic interest, especially for the pharmaceutical industry (Füller et al., 2010). However, there is a lack of studies on the potential insecticidal effect of *E. muticus* EO on lepidopterans, which is considered an agricultural pest.

The fall armyworm *Spodoptera frugiperda* (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) is a pest of great economic importance for several crops, especially maize (*Zea mays*) (Guerrero et al., 2014; Usseglio et al., 2023). The primary tool for its control is the use of synthetic insecticides and genetically modified plants with Bt technology (Bolzan et al. 2019, Lira et al. 2019). However, due to the intensive and inadequate use of these techniques, this insect has become resistant to them (Carvalho et al. 2013, Kenis et al. 2023). Studies demonstrate that EOs have insecticidal activity against *S. frugiperda*, indicating the potential of these substances as promising alternatives to control the pest (de Oliveira et al., 2018; Dutra et al., 2019; Ferreira de Carvalho et al., 2019; Sombra et al., 2020; Usseglio et al., 2023). In this context, the present study evaluated the contact toxicity of *E. muticus* EO against *S. frugiperda*, as well as its impact on biochemical processes, including lipid peroxidation (LPO), key detoxification enzymes (Est- α , Est- β , GST), antioxidant defense systems (SOD), and neurotransmission-related enzyme activity (AChE).

2. Material and Methods

2.1 Rearing of *Spodoptera frugiperda*

During the larval phase, the larvae were raised according to the methodology proposed by Parra (2001) and fed with an artificial diet by Marchioro and Foerster (2012), supplied in 100 mL plastic containers containing approximately 40 mL of diet. One larva was kept in each container until the pupal stage. They were later transferred to transparent acrylic boxes (Gerbox® 11 cm wide x 11 cm long x 3.5 cm high). After emergence, adults were kept in polyvinyl chloride (PVC) cages (35 cm high x 20 cm diameter), closed with voile fabric at the upper end, and covered with bond paper as an oviposition surface for the females.

The adults were fed with a 10% honey solution diluted in distilled water and supplied in plastic containers containing cotton wool soaked in the solution. The sulfite sheets

containing the egg masses were changed three times a week, and the egg masses were fixed with adhesive tape to the lids of plastic containers (300 ml) containing approximately 100 ml of artificial diet so that the newborn larvae had access to food.

2.2 Collection of plant material and extraction of *E. muticus* essential oil

In April 2022, plant material was collected at Bio Estação Gaia, in the municipality of Piraquara, Paraná, Brazil (-25.501217 S; - 49.001598 W). EO was extracted from the leaves using the steam drag method in a vat for three hours. After herborization and identification, the species was listed in the Herbarium of the Municipal Botanical Museum, located in the Botanical Garden of Curitiba, Paraná, under the number MBM052485. This research was registered in SISGEN under number AE4C4BF.

2.3 Identification of the chemical composition of the essential oil

The phytochemical analysis was performed using a gas chromatograph coupled with mass spectrometry (GC-MS-Shimadzu-2010 Plus, Shimadzu Corporation, Kyoto, Japan). The equipment was operated under Rtx-5MS fused silica capillary column conditions (30m x 0.25mm x 0.25µm) and helium as carrier gas (1.02 mL.min⁻¹), an injector temperature of 250° C with flow division of 1:90; the column was programmed at an initial temperature of 60° C, with an increase of 3° C.min⁻¹ until reaching 250 °C. The mass detector was operated in scanning mode and electron impact ionization at 70 eV.

The sample volume injected was 1.0 µL of a solution of 10 µL of EO in 1 mL of hexane. Under the same sample conditions, a series of linear hydrocarbon standards (C8 – C19) were injected. The EO components were identified by comparing the retention indices obtained from the Van den Dool and Krats (1963) equation with the retention indices recorded in the literature (Adams, 2007) and the NIST 02 mass library (NIST, Gaithersburg, MD, USA).

2.4 Larvicidal activity of *E. muticus* essential oil on *S. frugiperda*

Preliminary tests were conducted with *E. muticus* EO at 2.5% (v:v), diluted in acetone. This solvent (ALPHA024, 99.5% PA) and the synthetic insecticide chlorfenapyr (Pirate®) at 0.75 L/ha were used as negative and positive controls, respectively. The experimental design was completely randomized, with five replicates per treatment, and the experiment was repeated five times.

For this bioassay, the methodology used was adapted from Eccel et al. (2024). Ten third-instar larvae were placed in 145 mL plastic containers containing 25 g of artificial diet. Then, 150 µL of treatments were applied to the larvae. After applying the treatments, the containers were closed with voile fabric and placed in an incubator chamber at $25 \pm 1^\circ \text{C}$, $70 \pm 10\%$ relative humidity (RH), and a photophase of 14:10 hours. Mortality was assessed after 48 hours of exposure, and individuals were lightly touched with a brush, and those that did not respond to touch were considered dead.

2.5 Assessment of the toxicity of *E. muticus* essential oil on *S. frugiperda* larvae

To determine the lethal concentrations (LC₅₀ and LC₉₀), a bioassay was carried out covering eight concentrations, with values between 0.65 and 1.7%, diluted in acetone (negative control). The experimental design and methodology adopted were described in topic 2.4.

2.6 Effect of essential oil on biochemical markers of *S. frugiperda*

For enzymatic and LPO analysis, the insects were exposed to the LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ of *E. muticus* EO, and the survivors were frozen in a freezer at -80°C . For each treatment and control group, 10 pools of four larvae were evaluated, totaling 40 larvae. The larvae were thawed and homogenized in 620 µL of Milli-Q water.

2.6.1 Esterases

The enzymatic activity of EST- α and EST- β was analyzed according to the protocol of Valle and Montella (2006). For both assays, 10 µL of the sample was added (10 µL of

Milli-Q water was used for the blank). For EST- α , 200 μ L of α -naphthyl acetate/naphosphate (0.3 mM) was added, with α -naphthol (0.3 mg.L⁻¹) serving as the positive control. For EST- β , 200 μ L of β -naphthyl acetate/naphosphate (0.3 mM) was added, using β -naphthol (0.3 mg.L⁻¹) as the positive control. The plates were not incubated; 50 μ L of Fast Blue dye (0.3%) was added, and incubation was carried out for 5 minutes. A reading was then carried out at a wavelength of 570 nm. The results were expressed as nmol α -naphthol/ mg pt/ min for EST- α and nmol β -naphthol/ mg pt/ min for EST- β . A standard curve was used to convert absorbance values into α/β naphthol content.

For the standard curve, masses of 0 μ g, 1 μ g, 2 μ g, 3 μ g, 4 μ g, and 5 μ g of α/β naphthol were used. Corresponding volumes of 0 μ L, 2 μ L, 4 μ L, 6 μ L, 8 μ L, and 10 μ L of α/β naphthol were prepared, with Milli-Q water added proportionally to complete a total volume of 10 μ L. The curve was prepared in duplicate, following the same procedure for preparing and reading the microplates as described earlier.

2.6.2 Glutathione S-transferase

The enzymatic activity of GST was assessed following the protocol by Keen et al. (1976). For each sample, 15 μ L was added (replaced with 15 μ L of Milli-Q water for the blank), along with 195 μ L of a solution containing 10 mM of reduced glutathione (GSH) and 21mM of chlorodinitrobenzene (CDNB). The absorbance was measured at 340 nm every minute for 20 minutes. The results were expressed in μ moles/min/mg protein.

2.6.3 Superoxide dismutase

SOD activity was measured following the protocol proposed by Gao et al. (1998). For this assay, 40 μ L of the sample (blank: 40 μ L of Milli-Q water) was aliquoted in duplicate into 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tubes. Next, 885 μ L of ethylenediamine tetraacetic acid (EDTA)-tris buffer (5 mM; pH 8.0) and 50 μ L of pyrogalllic acid were added. The microtubes were incubated for 30 minutes, after which 25 μ L of HCl (1 N) was added to partially stop the

reaction. Microplates for handling the control were prepared using the same procedure but without the incubation step. Afterward, 300 μ L of the solution was added to the microplates in triplicate, and absorbance was measured at 440 nm. The results were expressed in units (U) of SOD/ mg of protein.

2.6.4 Lipid peroxidation

LPO was determined using the protocol of Jiang et al. (1992). Initially, 70 μ L of sample and 70 μ L of methanol (PA) were combined in 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tubes. Subsequently, the samples were centrifuged at 5000xg for 5 minutes at 4°C. Following centrifugation, 100 μ L of the supernatant (with 100 μ L of methanol replaced by Milli-Q water for the blank) was transferred to a new microtube. To this, 900 μ L of FOX 2 reagent (consisting of a methanolic solution of xylenol orange 0.1 mM and crystalline butylated hydroxytoluene (BHT) 4 mM in methanol PA) and 2500 μ L of ferrous ammonium sulfate solution (containing H₂SO₄ and Milli-Q water) were added. The solution was then transferred to 96-well microplates in triplicate, with 300 μ L per well. Absorbance was measured at 560 nm, and the results were expressed in nmol of hydroperoxides/mg of protein.

2.6.5 Acetylcholinesterase

To measure AChE activity, 95 μ L aliquots of each sample were previously separated, and AChE enzymatic activity was assessed following the protocol of Ellman et al. (1961), as modified for microplates by Silva de Assis (1998). For each sample, 25 μ L was added (with 25 μ L of Milli-Q water for the blank), along with 200 μ L of 5,5-dithio-bis-2nitro-benzoate (DTNB; 0.75 mM) and 50 μ L of iodetoacetylcholine (ATC; 10mM). Immediately after pipetting, the plate was incubated at room temperature under light for 30 minutes. Absorbance was measured every 30 seconds for 5 minutes at a wavelength of 405 nm. The results were expressed in μ moles/min/mg protein.

2.6.6 Protein assay

Total protein content was determined following the Bradford method (Bradford, 1976). For each sample, 10 μL was added, along with 10 μL of bovine serum albumin (BSA) as the positive control and 250 μL of Bradford reagent (diluted 1:5 with Milli-Q water). Absorbance was measured at 620 nm. A BSA standard curve was created using serial dilutions of 0 μg , 2.5 μg , 5 μg , 7.5 μg , 10 μg , and 15 μg of BSA in Milli-Q water. The highest concentration was prepared by mixing 150 μL of the stock solution (2 mg/ml BSA) with 50 μL of Milli-Q water, and the blank consisted of 200 μL of Milli-Q water. For each concentration, 10 μL of the sample was pipetted in quadruplicate into a microplate. Absorbance readings were performed using the same protocol as for total protein.

2.7 Statistical analysis

Insect mortality data were analyzed using generalized linear models (GLM) with a Poisson distribution. For the data on insecticidal activity and biochemical markers, a Gaussian distribution was applied. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted for these datasets. Tukey's mean test was used for post-hoc comparisons where significant differences were found, with a significance level set at 5% probability. Lethal concentration data were subjected to the Probit analysis using the “ecotox” package in the R software (R Core Team, 2021).

3. Results

3.1 Chemical composition of *E. muticus* essential oil

Fourteen compounds were identified in the *E. muticus* EO sample, accounting for 95.93% of its total chemical composition. The EO exhibited a predominance of monoterpenes, constituting 89.36% of the composition. Among these, neral and geranial were the major compounds, comprising 79.95% of the total composition (Table 1).

Table 1. Chemical composition of the essential oil from *Elionurus muticus* leaves collected in Piraquara (Paraná, Brazil) using gas chromatography coupled with mass spectrometry.

Compounds	R lit ^a	R cal ^b	±SD	%	Classes
Myrcene	988	989	0.05	0.65	Monoterpenes
p-Cymene	1020	1025	0.02	0.23	
(Z)-β-Ocimene	1032	1035	0.01	2.27	
(E)-β-Ocimene	1044	1046	0.03	1.72	
γ-Terpinene	1054	1058	0.01	0.10	
Linalool	1095	1100	0.01	1.58	Oxygenated monoterpenes
Exo-Isocitral	1144	1143	0.02	0.29	
(Z)-Isocitral	1160	1161	0.03	0.87	
(E)-Isocitral	1177	1180	0.04	1.61	
Neral	1235	1238	0.08	24.92	
Geraniol	1249	1251	0.04	0.19	
Geranial	1264	1269	0.02	54.93	
Isoledene	1374	1372	0.02	4.13	Sesquiterpene
Geranyl acetate	1379	1377	0.09	2.44	Oxygenated sesquiterpenes
Monoterpenes				4.97	
Oxygenated monoterpenes				84.39	
Sesquiterpenes				4.13	
Oxygenated sesquiterpenes				2.44	
Total				95.93	

^aRI lit: Literature Retention Index. ^bRI cal: Experimental Retention Index. ^cStandard deviation.

^dConcentrations are means of three determinations.

3.2 Insecticidal activity

The mortality rate of *S. frugiperda* third-instar larvae exposed to *E. muticus* EO was 99.3%. This result showed a statistically significant difference compared to the synthetic insecticide ($\chi^2 = 24.7$; df = 3; $p < 0.01$). No mortality was observed in the control groups.

3.3 Assessment of toxicity and estimation of the lethal concentration of the essential oil on *S. frugiperda*

After 48 hours of exposure, *E. muticus* EO showed high toxicity to third-instar larvae of *S. frugiperda*, with values LC_{50} and LC_{90} of 1.26% and 2.25%, respectively, and a slope of 5.11 ($\chi^2 = 31.5$; $p = 0.0000203$). No mortality was observed in the negative control (acetone).

3.4 Effect of essential oil on biochemical markers

There was variation in the effect of *E. muticus* EO concentrations and controls on biochemical markers of *S. frugiperda* larvae, except for EST- α . Both lethal concentrations increased LPO compared to the negative controls. LC_{90} reduced the activity of ES- β and SOD enzymes relative to the negative control, while GST activity increased for both LC_{50} and LC_{90} compared to the negative control.

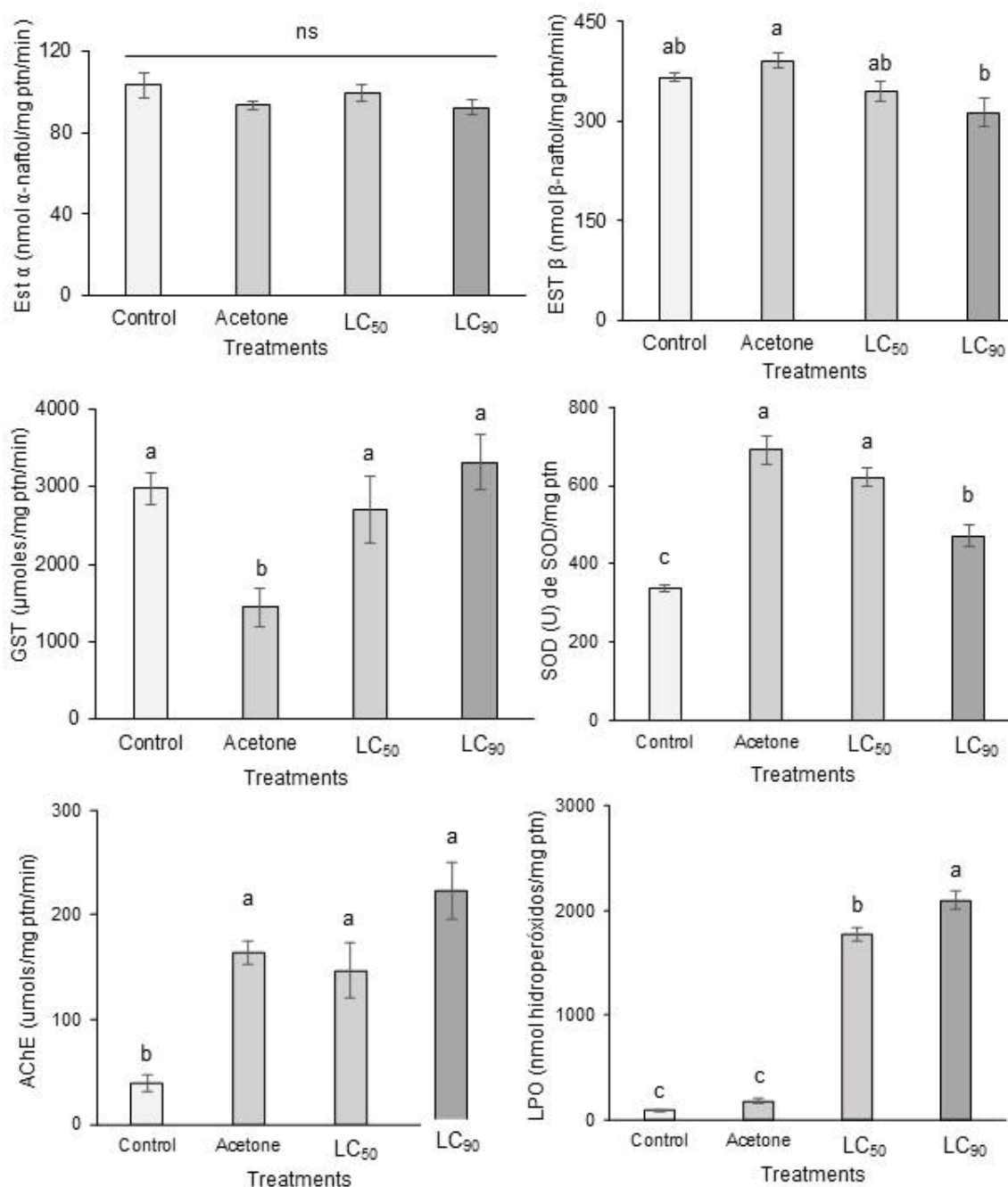


Figure 1: Effect of control (acetone as negative control) and *Elionurus muticus* essential oil on EST- α , EST- β , GST, SOD, LPO, and AChE against *Spodoptera frugiperda*. Means followed by the same letter in the bar diagram are not significantly different according to ANOVA and Tukey's multiple comparison tests.

4. Discussion

Throughout their evolutionary history, plants have developed the ability to synthesize EOs as a defense mechanism against various abiotic and biotic stresses. EOs are typically composed of diverse chemical compounds, predominantly monoterpenes and sesquiterpenes (Crescente et al., 2023).

We found that the EO sample of *E. muticus* primarily consisted of geranial and neral, which together accounted for almost the entire chemical composition. Similar results were observed with samples collected in other countries (Chagonda et al., 2000; Stefanazzi et al., 2011) and in Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil (Füller et al., 2014). Notably, Chagonda et al. (2000) reported that neral and geranial were the predominant compounds in both wild and cultivated populations of *E. muticus*. However, other research has shown that EO compositions can vary significantly in quantity and quality depending on the region and plant parts used (Celaya et al., 2023; Füller et al., 2017).

The variations in chemical composition observed in the EO of the same species can be attributed to several factors related to the interaction of the specific population with intrinsic and extrinsic elements. Key factors influencing these differences include the extraction method and time, the plant part used, the stage of phenological development, population genetics (which helps identify chemotypes), geographic location, and the relationship with edaphoclimatic conditions. Additionally, interactions with abiotic and biotics can influence the secondary metabolic pathways involved in the synthesis of these compounds (Celaya et al., 2023; Crescente et al., 2023; Faria et al., 2023; Füller et al., 2014).

Among the various chemical groups that combat herbivory caused by insects, EOs are known for their insecticidal activity. They can act as fumigants, contact insecticides, or repellents against pests of agricultural interest, including *Spodoptera* species. In this regard, this is the first report of the insecticidal activity of *E. muticus* against *S. frugiperda*.

We observed that *E. muticus* EO caused a high mortality rate in third-instar larvae of *S. frugiperda* by the contact method. To date, there is only one report on the insecticidal activity of *E. muticus* EO, which evaluated its toxicity via fumigation, contact, and repellency methods against *Tribolium castaneum* (Coleoptera: Tenebrionidae) and *Sitophilus oryzae* (Coleoptera: Curculionidae) (Stefanazzi et al., 2011). The authors identified geranial and neral as the major compounds in the EO.

The insecticidal activity of *E. muticus* EO may be attributed to the presence and proportion of geranial and neral in its chemical composition. Monoterpenes have demonstrated insecticidal effects against various agricultural pests, primarily exerting neurotoxic action by inhibiting enzymes responsible for synapses. Notably, the insecticidal properties of these isolated compounds have also been reported for other insects (Aungtikun et al., 2021; Jang et al., 2017; Kim et al., 2013; Mounghthipmalai and Soonwera, 2023; Reis et al., 2016; Yeom et al., 2015).

The toxicity of *E. muticus* EO against *S. frugiperda* observed in the present study may be associated with the type of interaction between the major and minor compounds in its chemical composition. Generally, EO compounds have synergistic effects, where minor compounds enhance or potentiate the toxic effects of the major compounds, leading to increased mortality rates (Aungtikun et al., 2021; Mounghthipmalai and Soonwera, 2023).

EOs, composed of diverse compounds and chemical groups, exert insecticidal activity on various systems. They can impact the nervous or muscular system and also influence the endocrine system (Abdelgaleil et al., 2021; Aungtikun et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2022; Renoz et al., 2022). In this context, our study marks a significant milestone as the first to explore the effect and toxicity of *E. muticus* EO on the biochemical parameters of insects.

Due to co-evolutionary processes with plants, insects have developed various enzymes with detoxifying activities to counteract allelochemical substances produced by them (Julio et

al., 2017; Shahriari et al., 2020). Esterases and GST are keys in the metabolic biotransformation process of organic substances: esterases are involved in Phase I reactions, while GST is responsible for Phase II reactions. Chemical compounds such as drugs and toxins are transformed by hydrolysis and conjugation into molecules different from those originally present in the body, making them less toxic and soluble in water for excretion. These enzymes are among those responsible for detoxifying insecticides and are associated with insect resistance to synthetic insecticides, in addition to mitigating oxidative stress in cells (Hu et al., 2019; Mojarab-Mahboubkar et al., 2015; Piri et al., 2020; Shahriari et al., 2020).

Our results showed that *E. muticus* EO inhibited EST- β activity at LC₉₀ and increased GST activity at both LC₉₀ and LC₅₀ compared to the negative control. Similar findings have been observed with various EOs in other Lepidoptera species, such as *Tuta absoluta* (Gelechiidae) (Piri et al., 2020), *Helicoverpa armigera* (Noctuidae) (Mojarab-Mahboubkar et al., 2015), and *Ephestia kuehniella* (Pyralidae) (Shahriari et al., 2020). The bioactivity of *E. muticus* EO on esterases and GST may be linked to its monoterpene content, which has an inhibitory effect on the synthesis of detoxifying enzymes (Liu et al., 2022). For instance, Jang et al. (2017) demonstrated that neral and geranial affected the synthesis or activity of this enzyme in *Drosophila suzukii* (Diptera: Drosophilidae), impairing their function during acute intoxication.

In addition to affecting detoxification enzymes, our findings indicated that *E. muticus* EO caused changes in LPO in *S. frugiperda* larvae. Increased LPO activity suggests an increase and accumulation of reactive oxygen species (ROS), which can damage fatty acid chains in cell membranes, resulting in the degradation of the plasma membrane and, consequently, in the rupture of the cell, leading to the leakage of cellular contents (Ercan et al., 2022; Olmedo et al., 2015; Shahriari et al., 2020). Similar results have been observed in *E.*

kuehniella (Shahriari et al., 2020) and *T. castaneum* (Olmedo et al., 2015) after exposure to different EOs and monoterpenes.

SOD is a key antioxidant enzyme that combats oxidative stress in insect tissues, maintaining cellular homeostasis by preventing the accumulation of free radicals and ROS (Chaudhari et al., 2021; Pan et al., 2022; Shahriari et al., 2020, 2018; Upadhyay et al., 2019). We found that both concentrations of *E. muticus* EO led to increased SOD activity in *S. frugiperda* larvae, suggesting oxidative stress and ROS accumulation. Similar effects of different EOs on SOD activity have been reported for *D. sukii* (Pan et al., 2022), *E. kuehniella* (Shahriari et al., 2020, 2018), *T. castaneum* (Upadhyay et al., 2019), *S. oryzae*, and *Oryzaephilus surinamensis* (Coleoptera: Silvanidae) (Kiran and Prakash, 2015), with different results in enzymatic activity.

AChE is one of the main enzymes acting in the synaptic cleft and is a primary target for insecticides, as it causes high mortality rates in a short period (Giunti et al., 2023; Piri et al., 2020; Usseglio et al., 2023). We found that *E. muticus* EO caused increased (although not significant) AChE activity in *S. frugiperda* compared to the negative control. AChE acts in the transmission of insect nerve impulses by causing the hydrolysis of acetylcholine, which is one of the main neurotransmitters. This leads to the interruption of the transmission process and ensures the intermittency of nerve impulses. Disruption of AChE activity can cause neurotoxicity, leading to hyperexcitability, tremors, convulsions, and death of the insect (Hu et al., 2019; Piri et al., 2020; Shahriari et al., 2018; Sombra et al., 2020). The observed effects on AChE may be associated with the neral and geranial compounds in *E. muticus* EO, similar to findings in *D. sukii* (Jang et al., 2017).

5. Conclusion

EOs offer a promising alternative to synthetic insecticides for controlling agricultural pests, aligning with the demand for organic production. The EO of *E. muticus* demonstrates a

diverse chemical composition and presents high toxicity against *S. frugiperda*, with various mechanisms of action. However, further studies are needed to explore formulation technologies and field applications to optimize pest control using this EO.

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CHAPTER 3: ESSENTIAL OIL OF THE GENUS *Baccharis* AND ITS TOXICITY ON *Spodoptera frugiperda* (LEPIDOPTERA: NOCTUIDAE) AND ITS EFFECT ON *Telenomus remus* (HYMENOPTERA: SCELIONIDAE)

* These results will be submitted in Chemosphere

Abstract

The species *Spodoptera frugiperda* is considered a key pest of corn crops and has shown resistance to several active ingredients. In this sense, botanical insecticides such as essential oils (EOs) may be a promising alternative and can be used with other control strategies, such as biological control. In this context, the objective of this study was to evaluate the bioactivity of EOs of *Baccharis articulata*, *Baccharis calvescens*, *Baccharis dracunculifolia*, *Baccharis milleflora* and *Baccharis uncinella* in the control of *S. frugiperda*, and their effect on the parasitoid *Telenomus remus*. The identification of the chemical composition of the EOs was performed by gas chromatography coupled to mass spectrometry (GC-MS). The insecticidal activity of the EOs was evaluated by contact and ingestion, and the toxicity of the EOs through biochemical markers. Subsequently, the effect of the EOs on different developmental stages of *T. remus* was evaluated. The number of compounds identified in the evaluated EO ranged from 7 for *B. articulata* to 27 for *B. milleflora*. There was variation in the toxicity of *Baccharis* EOs in *S. frugiperda*, with neurotoxic effect and damage by lipid peroxidation. The species *B. calvescens* and *B. milleflora* did not cause mortality in *T. remus* eggs and pupae, but demonstrated repellency ranging from 40 to 55%. The genus *Baccharis* demonstrates insecticidal activity for *S. frugiperda*, with evidence of neurotoxicity, and are selective for *T. remus*, proving to be promising botanical insecticides as an alternative to synthetic insecticides aiming at sustainable agricultural production models.

Keywords: Natural products, Biopesticides, Biomarkers, Parasitoids

1. Introduction

Maize (*Zea mays*) is a plant of the Poaceae family and is among the three most cultivated cereals in the world, being used mainly for human and animal consumption due to its high energy value (Pinheiro et al., 2021). Despite its significant production, corn cultivation has several phytosanitary obstacles that can cause significant damage and even compromise production (Montezano et al., 2018; Harrison et al., 2019), among which we can highlight the occurrence of pests, such as species of the genus *Spodoptera*, considered one of the main pests of the crop (Bernal et al., 2015; Arias et al., 2019, Oliveira et al., 2023).

The fall armyworm, *Spodoptera frugiperda* (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae), is considered a key pest of corn crops. The species is polyphagous and the damage it causes is significant, as it can feed on all plant structures, mainly leaves and ears (Nurnina; Muis, 2022). This pest causes significant yield losses, which can vary from 17 to 72%, depending on the location and the insect's development conditions (Murúa et al., 2019; Maruthadurai; Ramesh, 2020).

Chemical control is the most widely used method to reduce *S. frugiperda* populations in corn crops. However, the strong selection pressure caused by intensive and sometimes inadequate use has contributed to the evolution of the species resistance to several active ingredients and modes of action (Okuma et al., 2017; Bolzan et al., 2019; Guan et al., 2020; Garlet et al., 2021; Muraro et al., 2021), making research necessary to evaluate new methods and molecules for pest management in the crop.

In recent years, biological control (BC) with macroorganisms has been a strategy used to reduce the population of this insect, with emphasis on egg parasitoids that are more effective (Mahjan and Bhamare, 2023, Navik et al., 2023, Lacerda et al., 2023), among which the species *Telenomus remus* (Hymenoptera: Scelionidae) is the main bioagent in the management of *S. frugiperda* (Colmenarez et al., 2022; Chen et al., 2021).

EOs are products of the secondary metabolism of plants and present in their chemical composition a broad complex mixture of chemical compounds (Hikal et al., 2017, Velasques et al., 2017). In recent years, research has shown that these products have insecticidal action and that they can be promising substances as an alternative to synthetic insecticides (Isman, 2019). Studies with the genus *Baccharis* (Asteraceae) present reports of repellent, deterrent and insecticidal activity for different insects (Souza et al., 2021; Zimmermann et al., 2021; Eccel et al., 2024), including *S. frugiperda* (Usseglio et al., 2023; Giraldi et al., 2024). One of the main advantages of botanical insecticides is that they are selective, that is, they do not cause harm to beneficial organisms and can be used within integrated pest management (IPM) programs. However, for these products to be used in IPM programs, it is necessary to evaluate their effect on beneficial organisms, especially BC agents.

In view of this scenario, the present study evaluated the insecticidal action by contact and ingestion of EOs from the species *B. articulata*, *B. calvescens*, *B. dracunculifolia*, *B. milleflora* and *B. uncinella* in the control of *S. frugiperda*, and their toxicity in biochemical markers, and the selectivity of EO from *B. calvescens* and *B. milleflora* in the development of *T. remus*.

2. Material and Methods

2.1. Rearing of *S. frugiperda*

During the larval stage, the larvae were reared according to the methodology proposed by Parra (2001) and fed with an artificial diet of Marchioro; Foerster (2012), provided in 100 mL plastic containers containing approximately 40 mL of diet. One caterpillar was kept in each container until it reached the pupal stage, when they were transferred to transparent Gerbox® boxes (11 cm wide x 11 cm long x 3.5 cm high). After emergence, the adults were kept in polyvinyl chloride (PVC) cages (35 cm high x 20 cm

diameter), closed with voile fabric at the upper end, and lined with sulfite paper as an oviposition surface for the females.

Adults were fed with a 10% honey solution diluted in distilled water and provided in plastic containers containing cotton soaked in the solution. The paper sheets containing the egg masses were changed three times a week, and the egg masses were fixed with adhesive tape to the lids of plastic containers (300 ml) containing approximately 100 ml of artificial diet, so that the neonate larvae had access to food. *S. frugiperda* was reared in a climate-controlled chamber with a temperature of 25 ± 1 °C, $70 \pm 10\%$ RH and a photophase of 14:10 hours, during all stages of insect development.

2.2. Rearing of *T. remus*

The eggs parasitoid was reared in test tubes, closed with cotton. Cards with *S. frugiperda* eggs up to 24 hours old were provided daily in glass tubes measuring 7.5 cm in height and 1.0 cm in diameter, so that the females could oviposit. After 24 hours, the card was removed and placed in another tube so that the parasitoids could develop until emergence. The adult insects were fed with pure honey, 3 times a week and all the rearing was kept in a climate chamber with a temperature of 25 ± 1 °C, $70 \pm 10\%$ RH and a photophase of 14:10 hours, in all stages of insect development.

2.3. Collection of plant material and extraction of essential oils from the genus *Baccharis*

To obtain the EOs, the plant materials were collected at Bio Estação Gaia, in the municipality of Piraquara, Paraná, Brazil (-25.501217 S and -49.001598 W). The samples of *B. dracunculifolia* and *B. uncinella* were collected in May/2019, and the samples of *B. articulata*, *B. calvenscens* and *B. milleflora* were collected in April/2022.

The EO of all species was extracted from terminal branches with leaves and flowers, and terminal branches with cladodes by the steam distillation method, in a vat, for a period of 3 h. After herborization and identification, the species *B. articulata*, *B. calvenscens* and *B.*

milleflora were deposited in the Herbarium of the Botanical Museum, located in the Botanical Garden of Curitiba, PR, under the numbers MBM n° 256683, MBM n° MBM n° 3222203 and MBM n° 078951, respectively. Meanwhile, the species *B. dracunculifolia* and *B. uncinella* were deposited in the Herbarium of Faculdades Integradas Espírita, Curitiba, Paraná, Brazil, under the numbers HFIE n° 8372 and HFIE n° 9004, respectively. This research was also registered in SISGEN under number AE4C4BF.

2.4. Identification of the chemical composition of essential oils of the genus *Baccharis*

The analysis was performed by gas chromatography, in a Shimadzu TQ8040 gas chromatograph coupled to mass spectrometry (GC-MS). A Rtx-5MS fused silica capillary column (30m x 0.25mm x 0.25µm) and helium as carrier gas (1.02 mL min⁻¹) were used. The injector was operated at a temperature of 250 °C and the ionization system was operated at 70 eV, in a 1:90 split injection mode. The temperature of the capillary column varied from 60 °C to 250 °C, at a rate of 3 °C min⁻¹.

The injected sample volume was 1.0 µL of a 10 µL EO solution in 1 mL of hexane. For identification of EO components, the experimental mass spectra were compared with literature data (Adams 2007) and the NIST 02 mass library (NIST, Gaithersburg, MD, USA).

2.5. Insecticidal activity of *Baccharis* EOs against *S. frugiperda*

Preliminary tests were conducted with the EOs of the five *Baccharis* species at a concentration of 2.5% (v:v), diluted in acetone. The solvent acetone (ALPHA024, 99.5% PA) and the synthetic insecticide Chlorfenapyr (Pirate®) at a concentration of 0.75 L/ha were used as negative and positive controls, respectively. The experimental design was completely randomized, with 5 replicates per treatment, and the experiment was repeated five times in time.

2.5.1. Contact mode of action

For this bioassay, the methodology used was adapted from Eccel et al. (2024). Ten third-instar larvae were placed in 145 ml plastic containers containing 25 grams of artificial diet. Subsequently, 150 μ L of the treatments were pipetted in to the larvae, using a Kasvi basic pipette (20 – 200 μ L). After applying the treatments, the containers were sealed with voile fabric and placed in an incubator chamber at 25 ± 1 °C, $70 \pm 10\%$ RH and a photophase of 14:10 hours. Mortality was assessed after 48 hours of exposure. At this stage, the individuals were lightly touched with a brush, and those that did not respond to touch were considered dead.

2.5.2 Mode of action by ingestion

For this bioassay, the methodology used was adapted from De Menezes et al. (2020). Ten third-instar larvae were placed in 145 ml plastic containers. A 25 grams portion of corn leaves (cultivate: SCS 155 CATARINA) was treated by immersion in 150 μ L of the treatments. After applying the treatments to the leaves, they were left for 10 minutes on sulfite paper for the acetone to evaporate. The leaves were then placed in the containers and made available to the larvae. The containers were then sealed with voile fabric and placed in an incubator chamber at 25 ± 1 °C, $70 \pm 10\%$ RH, and a photophase of 14:10 hours. Mortality was assessed after 48 hours after ingestion of corn leaves. The individuals were lightly touched with a brush, and those that did not respond to touch were considered dead.

2.6 Evaluation of the toxicity of *Baccharis* EOs against *S. frugiperda*

The EOs that obtained a mortality result higher than 80%, which is the standard limit used by the Brazilian Ministry of Agriculture to register products as insecticides (Filomeno et al., 2017, Zimmermann et al., 2021), were selected for toxicity evaluation. To determine the lethal concentrations (LC₅₀ and LC₉₀), a bioassay was performed including 7 to 9 concentrations, with values between 0.25 and 2.3%, diluted in acetone (negative control). The experimental design and methodology used were described in topic 2.5.1.

2.7 Effect of EOs on biochemical markers of *S. frugiperda*

For enzymatic analyses and lipid peroxidation, the insects were exposed to LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ of *Baccharis* EOs and the survivors were frozen in a freezer at -80 °C. For each treatment and control group, 10 pools of 4 larvae were evaluated, totaling 40 larvae stored individually in 1.5 mL centrifuge microtubes. Each pool was homogenized in 620 µL of milli-Q water, and subsequently centrifuged (except the samples for measuring acetylcholinesterase activity) at 12000×g at 4 °C for one minute and then stored at -80 °C. Assays were carried out on a 96-well microplate and absorbances measured using spectrophotometry.

The methodology used was that described by Giraldi et al. (2024). AChE activity was evaluated using 25 µL of homogenate, 200 µL of 5,5-dithio-bis-2-nitro-benzoate (DTNB; 0.75 mM), and 50 µL acetylthiocholine iodine (10 mM), as described by Ellman et al. (1961), adapted for microplate by Dizer et al. (2001). To measure GST activity, 15 µL of soluble phase of homogenate, 195 µL of solution (reduced glutathione 10 mM), and 2,4-dinitrochlorobenzene were added, following Keen et al. (1976). Using the protocol established by Jiang et al. (1992), lipid peroxidation was determined by adding 70 µL of soluble phase of homogenate, 70 µL methanol (100%) and 900 µL of a solution of xylenol Orange (butylated hydroxytoluene (4 mM), ammonium ferrous sulfate (2500 µM), and methanol (100%). The Bradford assay (Bradford, 1976) was applied to determine total protein contents by adding 10 µL of soluble phase of homogenate, 10 µL of bovine serum albumin as the standard, and 250 µL of Bradford reagent (Sigma ®). Using the protocol established by Valle and Montella (2006) EST-α and EST-β activity was evaluated using for each enzyme 10 µl of homogenate, 200 µl of alpha-naphthyl acetate/Naphosphate (0.3 mM) or beta-naphthyl acetate/Naphosphate (0.3 mM) and 50 µl of Fast Blue dye (0.3%). Alpha-naphthol (0.3 mg.L⁻¹) and beta-naphthol (0.3 mg.L⁻¹) were using as a positive control. A standard curve was performed to convert absorbance values into alpha/beta-naphthol content.

2.8 Repellency and toxicity tests of EOs on *T. remus*

To evaluate the repellency and toxicity in *T. remus*, the methodology proposed by Bibiano et al. (2022), with adaptations, was used. The test was conducted in the laboratory using cards with 100 ± 20 *S. frugiperda* eggs. The eggs were treated with *B. calvescens* and *B. milleflora* EOs, at LC 90 concentrations (2.05% (v:v) and 2.2% (v:v)), respectively, for 5 seconds. Subsequently, they were stored at room temperature for 30 minutes for solvent evaporation, and then the cards were placed in glass tubes measuring 7.5 cm in height and 1.0 cm in diameter.

For the repellency test, 3 females were added to the glass tube containing the cards and parasitism was allowed for 24 h. After 12 days, the number of parasitized eggs was evaluated. To evaluate the toxicity of *Baccharis* EOs on *T. remus* eggs, the egg packs were placed in test tubes containing 3 females per tube. After 24 hours in contact with the eggs, the females were removed from the tube and the treatments were applied to the egg packs. To evaluate the toxicity to pupae, after 11 days, the treatments were applied to the egg packs parasitized by *T. remus* and the evaluation occurred on the 12th day.

The experimental design was completely randomized, with 20 replicates per treatment for each experiment. The solvent acetone (ALPHA024, 99.5% P.A.) and the synthetic insecticide chlorfenapyr (Pirate®) at a concentration of 0.75 L/ha were used as negative and positive controls, respectively. A control without application of any treatment was also performed as a parameter of biological activities.

2.9 Statistical Analysis of Data

Insect mortality data were adjusted by generalized linear models (GLM) using the Poisson distribution. For insecticide activity data and the effect on biochemical markers, the Gaussian distribution was used. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed in both cases

and, when significant, Tukey's mean test was applied with a 5% probability of error. Biomarker results were integrated using the Integrated Biomarker Response Index (IBR) described by Beliaeff and Burgeot (2002). Lethal concentration data were subjected to the Probit analysis method, using the “ecotox” package of the R software. All results were analyzed in the R software (R Core Team, 2021).

3. Results

3.1. Chemical composition of *Baccharis* essential oils

There was a variation in the amount of compounds present among the *Baccharis* species, with variability of 7 compounds for *B. articulata* EO to 27 for *B. milleflora* EO. A variability was identified in the total value of identified compounds, *B. uncinella* EO presented 80.04% and *B. articulata* EO 93.16%, being the lowest and highest values, respectively. The *B. articulata* EO presented a higher proportion of monoterpenes (73.11%), while for sesquiterpenes *B. milleflora* EO (50.9%) presented the highest value (Table 1).

For *B. articulata* EO, 3 major compounds were identified, namely β -pinene, limonene and germacrene D, totaling 78.59% of the compounds present. For EOs from *B. calvescens*, *B. dracunculifolia* and *B. uncinella*, 4 major compounds were identified, totaling 69.88%, 58.07% and 55.52%, respectively. And for *B. milleflora*, 8 major compounds were identified, totaling 64.57% of the compounds present in the EO. Among the compounds identified in all species, the molecule β -pinene was identified as the major compound in all oils, with the exception of *B. milleflora* EO (Table 1).

Table 1. Chemical composition of essential oils from species of the genus *Baccharis* collected in Piraquara (Paraná, Brazil), by gas chromatography and mass spectrometry method.

Nº	Compounds (%)	RIlit	RIcalc	<i>B. articulata</i>	<i>B. calvescens</i>	<i>B. dracunculifolia</i>	<i>B. milleflora</i>	<i>B. uncinella</i>
1	α -tujeno	924	924	-	-	-	-	3,80
2	α -pineno	932	930	3,48	15,55	4,49	6,82	17,27
3	sabineno	969	969	-	-	-	0,34	1,67
4	β -pineno	974	975	52,24	25,12	21,58	0,90	11,96
5	mirreno	988	990	-	2,03	1,77	5,26	1,77
6	α -felandreno	1002	1005	-	-	-	0,55	-
7	limoneno	1024	1027	17,39	22,75	13,45	2,13	0,29
8	β -felandreno	1025	1028	-	-	-	5,89	-
9	(Z)- β -ocimeno	1032	1026	-	-	-	-	16,98
10	(E)- β -ocimeno	1044	1044	-	-	1,27	2,35	-
11	γ -terpineno	1054	1055	-	-	-	-	1,01
12	terpinen-4-ol	1174	1173	-	-	-	-	1,99
13	α -terpineol	1186	1187	-	-	-	-	0,42
14	α -ylangeno	1373	1371	-	0,68	-	0,48	-
15	β -elemeno	1389	1385	-	1,76	-	0,51	-
16	α -gurjuneno	1409	1401	-	-	-	0,77	-
17	(E)-cariofileno	1417	1413	3,93	3,3	1,34	11,87	1,96
18	β -gurjuneno	1431	1424	-	-	-	0,34	-
19	aromadendreno	1439	1432	-	-	-	1,49	-
20	α -humuleno	1452	1449	-	1,20	-	5,88	0,35
21	allo-aromadendreno	1458	1454	-	-	-	0,88	-
22	γ -gurjuneno	1475	1467	-	-	-	0,45	-
23	trans-cadina-1(6),4-dieno	1475	1474	-	-	2,18	-	-
24	γ -muuroleno	1478	1470	-	-	-	-	-
25	amorfa-4,7(11)-dieno	1479	1471	-	-	-	0,68	-
26	germacreno D	1480	1475	8,96	6,46	-	1,10	0,76
27	γ -amorfeno	1495	1485	-	-	0,1	2,13	-
28	biciclogermacreno	1500	1490	4,56	4,40	3,61	12,06	-
29	α -muuroleno	1500	1494	-	-	-	-	0,34
30	β -bisaboleno	1505	1505	-	-	-	0,23	-
31	δ -amorfeno	1511	1513	2,6	-	1,67	1,92	-
32	γ -cadineno	1513	1507	-	0,39	-	-	-
33	iso-epóxido de italeceno	1514	1502	-	-	-	-	3,46

Nº	Compounds (%)	RIlit	RIcalc	<i>B. articulata</i>	<i>B. calvescens</i>	<i>B. dracunculifolia</i>	<i>B. milleflora</i>	<i>B. uncinella</i>
34	δ-cadineno	1522	1513	-	2,01	-	-	1,52
35	germacreno <i>B</i>	1559	1552	-	1,44	-	-	-
36	(<i>E</i>)-nerolidol	1561	1563	-	-	17,01	-	-
37	espatulenol	1577	1570	-	1,95	6,03	0,44	9,31
38	óxido de cariofileno	1582	1575	-	-	2,59	-	3,22
39	globulol	1590	1587	-	-	3,03	6,68	1,25
40	ledol	1602	1594	-	-	1,69	-	-
41	<i>cis</i> -cadin-4-en-7-ol	1635	1629	-	-	-	0,83	-
42	epi-α-cadinol	1639	1636	-	0,25	1,89	-	-
43	epi-α-murolol	1640	1639	-	-	0,50	-	-
44	α-murolol	1644	1643	-	-	0,37	-	-
45	α-cadinol	1652	1647	-	-	2,03	-	0,71
46	selin-11-en-4-α-ol	1658	1658	-	1,75	-	-	-
	Monoterpene			73,11	65,45	42,56	24,24	54,75
	Oxygenate monoterpenes			-	-	-	-	2,41
	Sesquiterpene			20,05	8,90	8,9	50,9	8,39
	Oxygenate sesquiterpenes				35,14	35,14	7,95	14,49
	Total	-	-	93,16	91,04	86,06	83,09	80,04

3.2. Insecticidal activity by contact mode of action of *Baccharis* EOs against *S. frugiperda*

All treatments showed insecticidal activity against *S. frugiperda*, resulting in a mortality rate of 100%. There was no mortality in the negative control.

3.3. Insecticidal activity by mode of action by ingestion of *Baccharis* EOs against *S. frugiperda*

Treatments with *Baccharis* EO did not show insecticidal activity against *S. frugiperda*, presenting a mortality rate of less than 5%, as well as the control. Only the synthetic insecticide Pirate® presented a mortality rate of 100%.

3.4. Toxicity of *Baccharis* EO against *S. frugiperda*

There was variation in the toxicity of EOs from *Baccharis* species against *S. frugiperda*. The EO from *B. milleflora* presented the lowest values for LC₅₀, while the EO from *B. calvescens* presented the lowest values for LC₉₀. Among the other treatments, the EO from *B. articulata* presented the highest values for LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ (Table 2).

Table 2. Toxicity of EOs from *Baccharis* species against 3rd instar caterpillars of *S. frugiperda*, after 48 h of exposure.

Species	N	LC ₅₀ (CI 95%)	Slope	LC ₉₀ (CI 90%)	Slope	Chi-square	P value
<i>B. articulata</i>	2250	1.55 (1.42–1.67)	7.44	2.31 (2.08-2.78)	7.44	40.8	0.0000000891
<i>B. calvescens</i>	1750	1.23 (1.05-1.34)	5.78	2.05 (1.83-2.61)	5.78	24.4	0.000178
<i>B. dracunculifolia</i>	2250	1.53 (1.44-1.61)	8.76	2.14 (2.00-2.42)	8.76	40.4	0.00000105
<i>B. milleflora</i>	2000	0.67 (0.43-0.88)	2.50	2.20 (1.55-4.82)	2.50	49.0	0.00000000734
<i>B. uncinella</i>	2000	1.28 (1.12-1.39)	5.82	2.13 (1.91-2.59)	5.82	33.6	0.00000808

3.5. Enzymatic activity of essential oils of the genus *Baccharis* in *Spodoptera frugiperda*

Our results showed enzymatic alterations in relation to EOs and negative controls, indicating that acetone (solvent) is a factor that causes enzymatic alterations. For our data, acetone caused a reduction in GST activity and an increase in SOD and AChE. This pattern occurred for EOs of all *Baccharis* species, so the interpretation was based on enzymatic alterations and LPO in relation to the water control.

For LC₅₀, exposure to *B. articulata* EO caused an increase in the enzymatic activity of EST- α , EST- β and SOD, and reduced GST activity (Fig. 1). *B. calvescens* EO increased EST- β , SOD, AChE activity, reduced EST- α activity and caused LPO (Fig. 2). *B. dracunculifolia* EO increased EST- α , EST- β , SOD activity and caused LPO (Fig. 3). Meanwhile, *B. milleflora* EO increased EST- β , SOD, AChE, reduced GST and caused LPO (Fig. 4). Finally, *B. uncinella* EO caused increased EST- β and SOD activity (Fig. 5).

For LC₉₀, exposure to *B. articulata* EO increased the activity of EST- α , GST, and AChE and caused LPO (Fig. 1). *B. calvescens* EO increased the activity of EST- α , GST, and AChE and caused LPO (Fig. 2). *B. dracunculifolia* EO reduced the activity of EST- α and EST- β , increased the activity of GST, SOD, and AChE and caused LPO (Fig. 3). *B. milleflora* EO increased the activity of EST- α , GST, SOD, and AChE and caused LPO (Fig. 4). Finally, *B. uncinella* EO increased the activity of EST- α , GST, and AChE and caused LPO (Fig. 5).

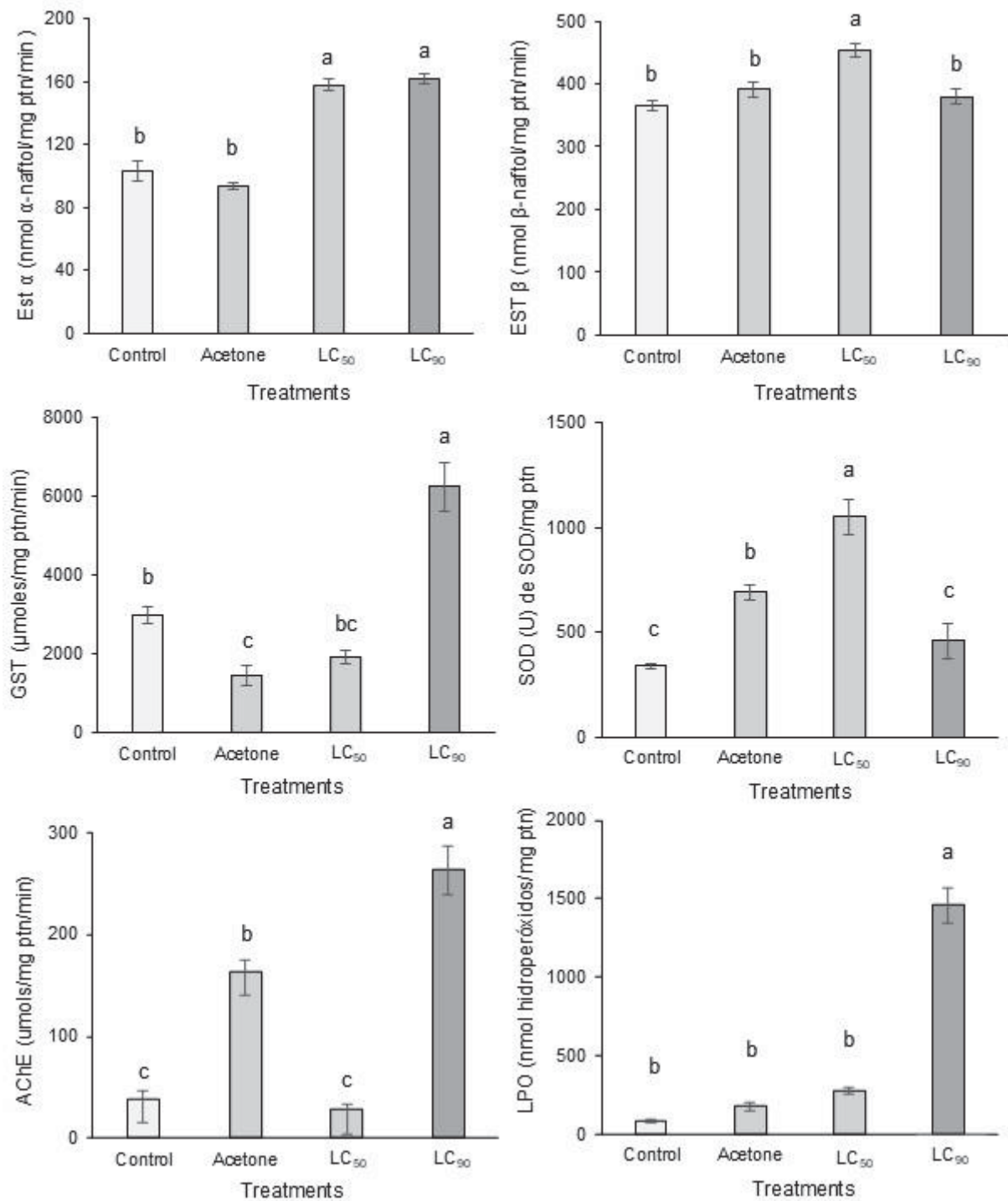


Figure 1: Effect of control, acetone (negative control) and *Baccharis articulata* essential oil on EST-α, EST-β, GST, SOD, LPO, and AChE against *Spodoptera frugiperda*. The means followed by the same letter in the bar diagram are not significantly different according to ANOVA and Tukey's multiple comparison tests.

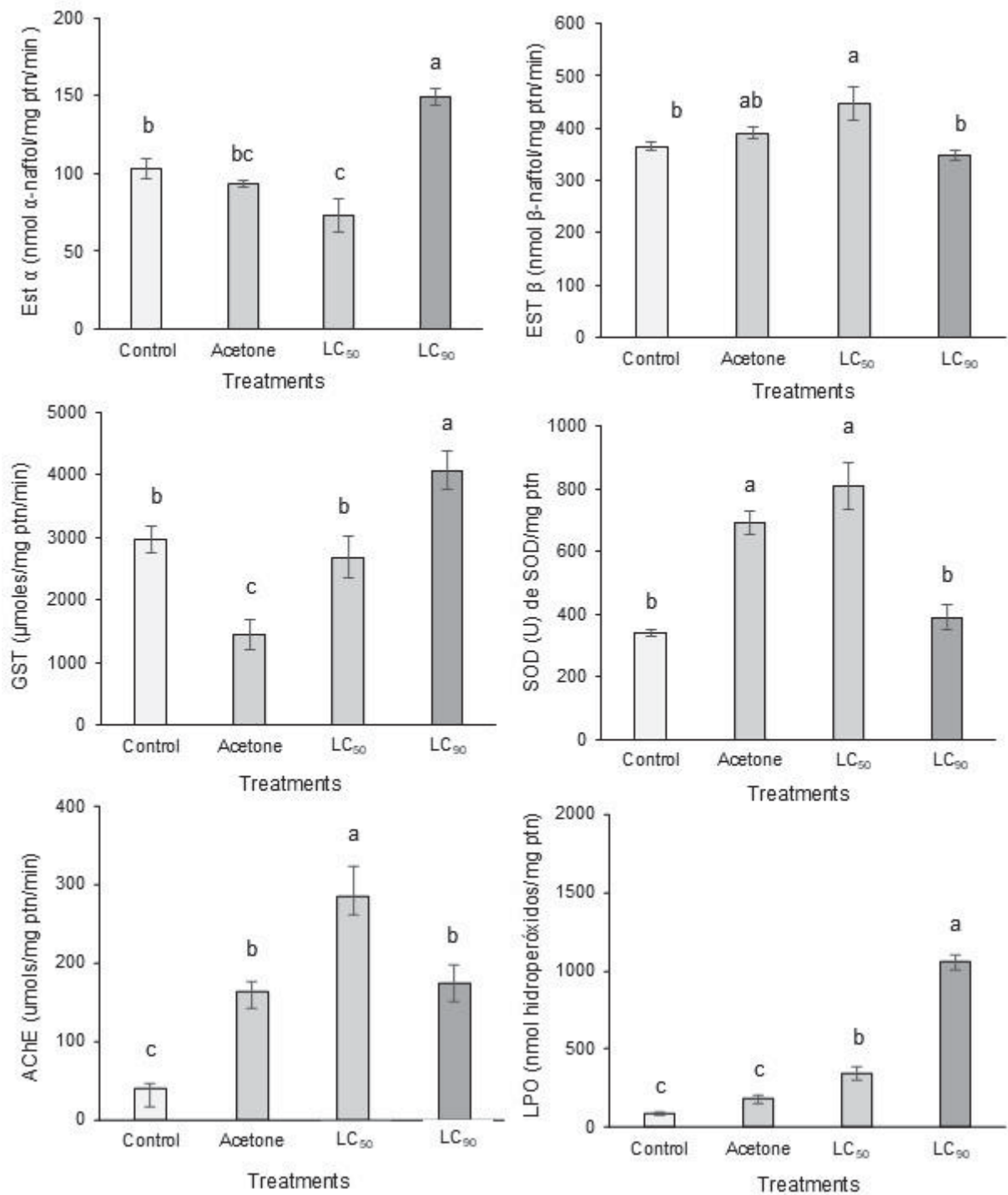


Figure 2: Effect of control, acetone (negative control) and *Baccharis calvescens* essential oil on EST-α, EST-β, GST, SOD, LPO, and AChE against *Spodoptera frugiperda*. The means followed by the same letter in the bar diagram are not significantly different according to ANOVA and Tukey's multiple comparison tests.

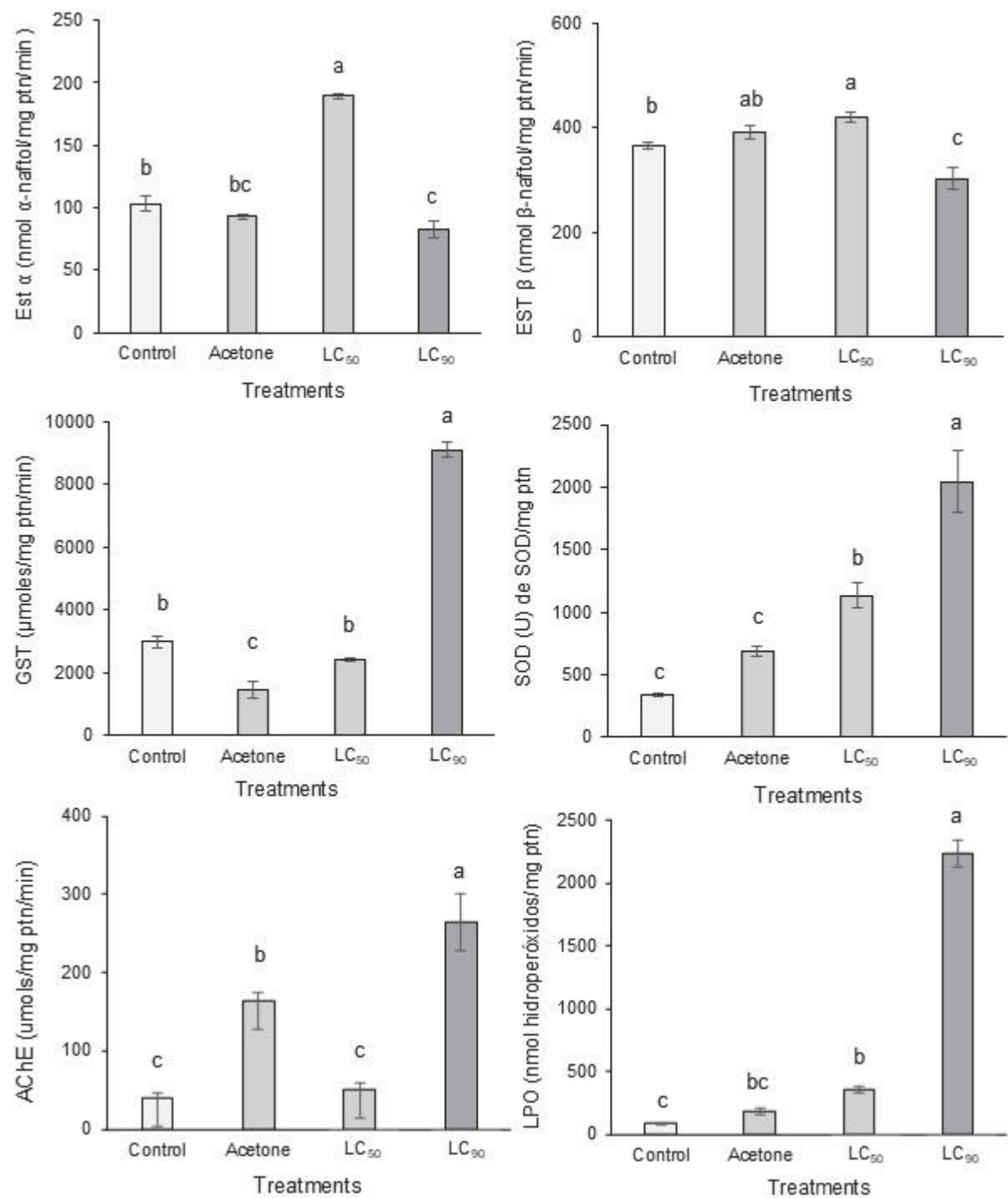


Figure 3: Effect of control, acetone (negative control) and *Baccharis dracunculifolia* essential oil on EST-α, EST-β, GST, SOD, LPO, and AChE against *Spodoptera frugiperda*. The means followed by the same letter in the bar diagram are not significantly different according to ANOVA and Tukey's multiple comparison tests.

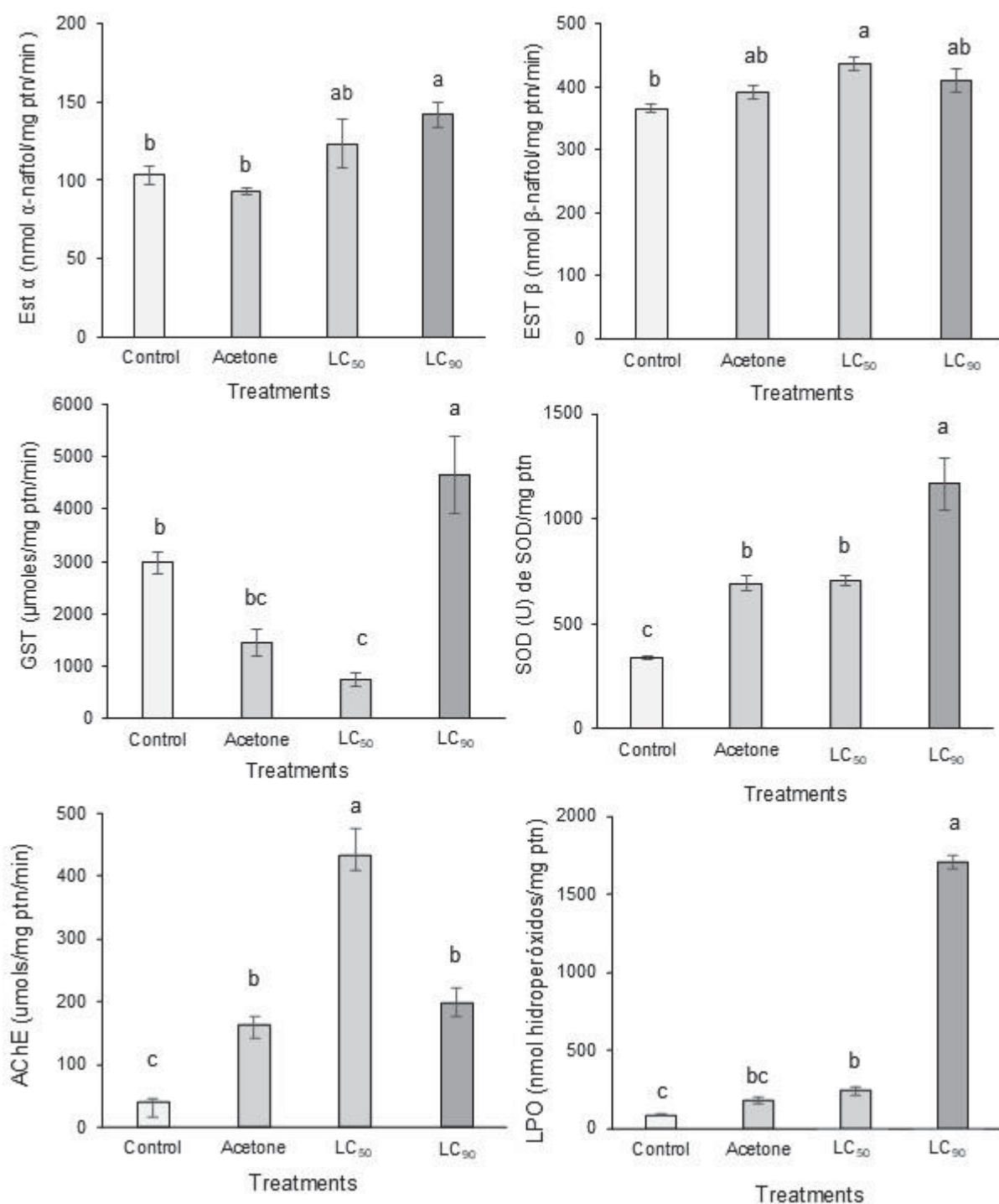


Figure 4: Effect of control, acetone (negative control) and *Baccharis milleflora* essential oil on EST-α, EST-β, GST, SOD, LPO, and AChE against *Spodoptera frugiperda*. The means followed by the same letter in the bar diagram are not significantly different according to ANOVA and Tukey's multiple comparison tests.

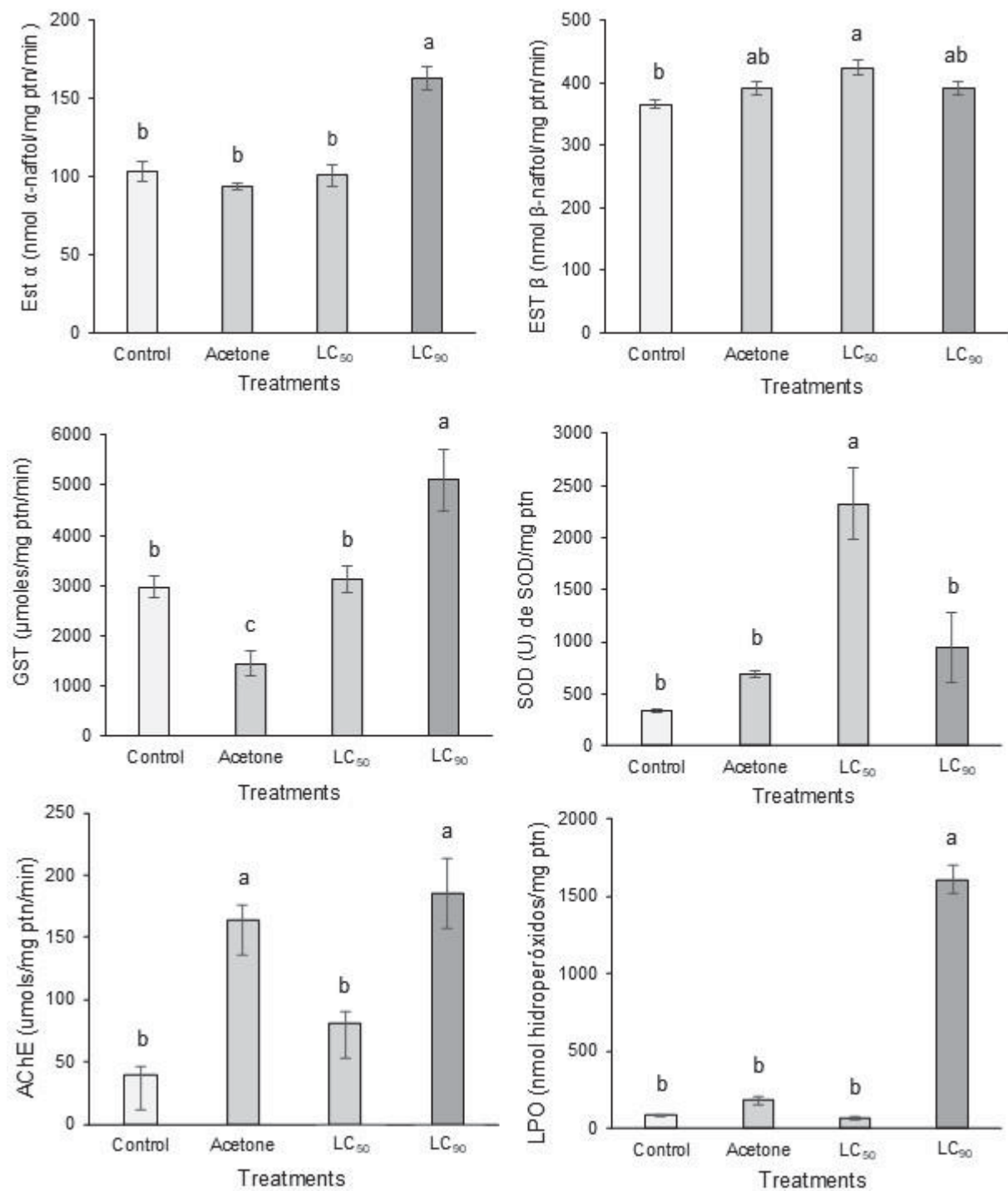


Figure 5: Effect of control, acetone (negative control) and *Baccharis uncinella* essential oil on EST-α, EST-β, GST, SOD, LPO, and AChE against *Spodoptera frugiperda*. The means followed by the same letter in the bar diagram are not significantly different according to ANOVA and Tukey's multiple comparison tests.

Based on the analysis of the integrated biomarker index (IBR), it was possible to verify that acetone, used as a solvent for EOs, increased AChE activity and inhibited GST activity.

For LC₅₀, the EOs of *B. articulata*, *B. dracunculifolia* and *B. uncinella* had the greatest influence on the antioxidant enzyme SOD, while *B. calvenscens* and *B. milleflora* had the greatest effect on AChE activity (Fig. 6). For LC₉₀, *Baccharis* species showed higher scores of biomarker alterations in relation to the values of LC₅₀, with *B. milleflora* presenting the highest score, followed by *B. dracunculifolia* (Fig. 7). For all *Baccharis* at this concentration, there was an increase in AChE and LPO activity.

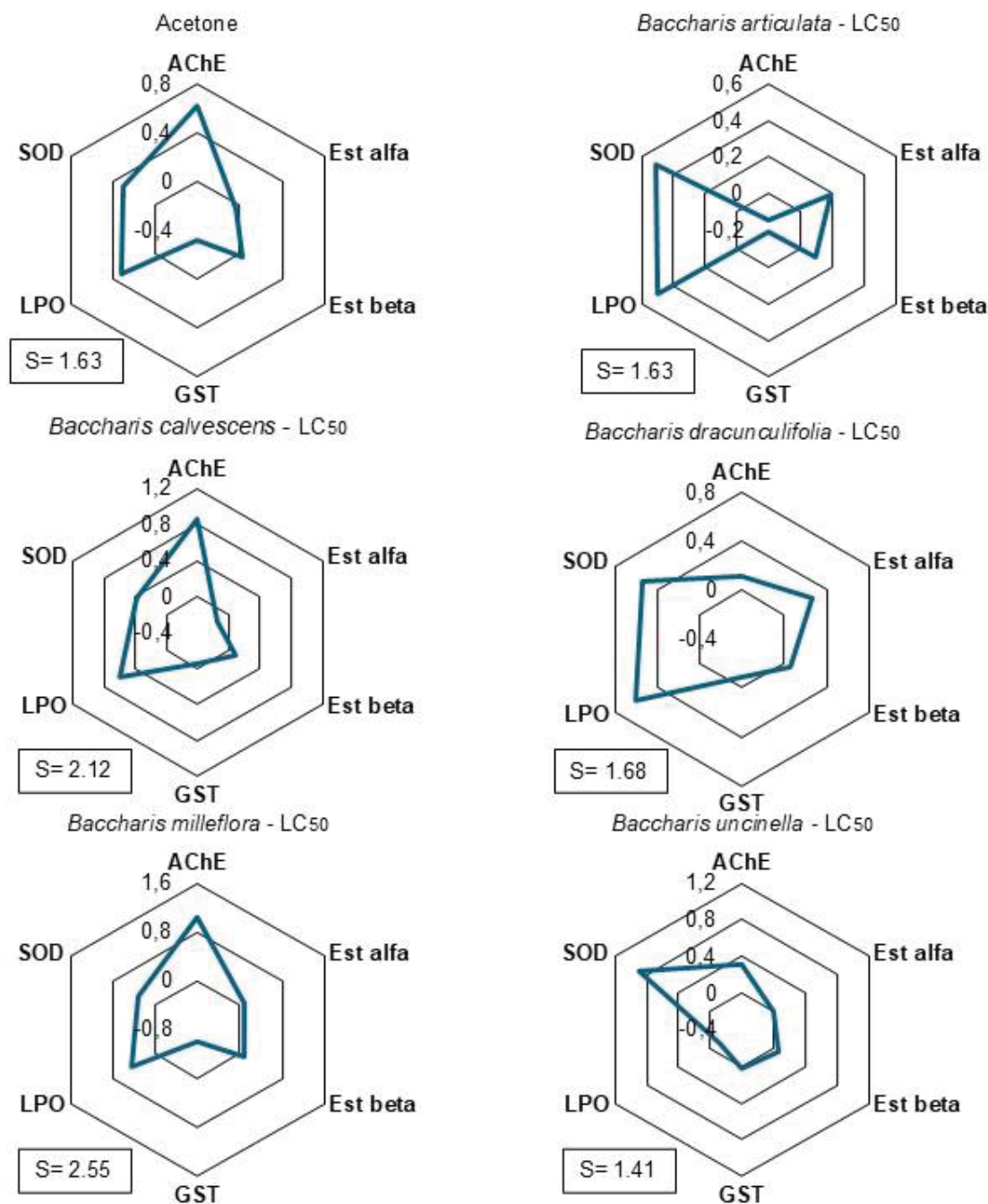


Figure 6: Integrated Biomarker Index (IBR) for each LC_{50} of essential oil from the *Baccharis* genus tested. AChE = acetylcholinesterase. GST = glutathione S-transferase. EST alpha = α -Esterase. EST beta = β -esterase. SOD = Superoxide dismutase. The S value represents the result of the sum of the values attributed to each of the biomarkers in relation to the control. The results are presented as radar graphs indicating the deviation of all biomarkers in relation to the control. Values above the zero line represent the induction of biomarkers, while values below zero represent inhibition of biomarkers. The higher the S value, the greater the accumulation of biomarker changes in exposure to the essential oil.

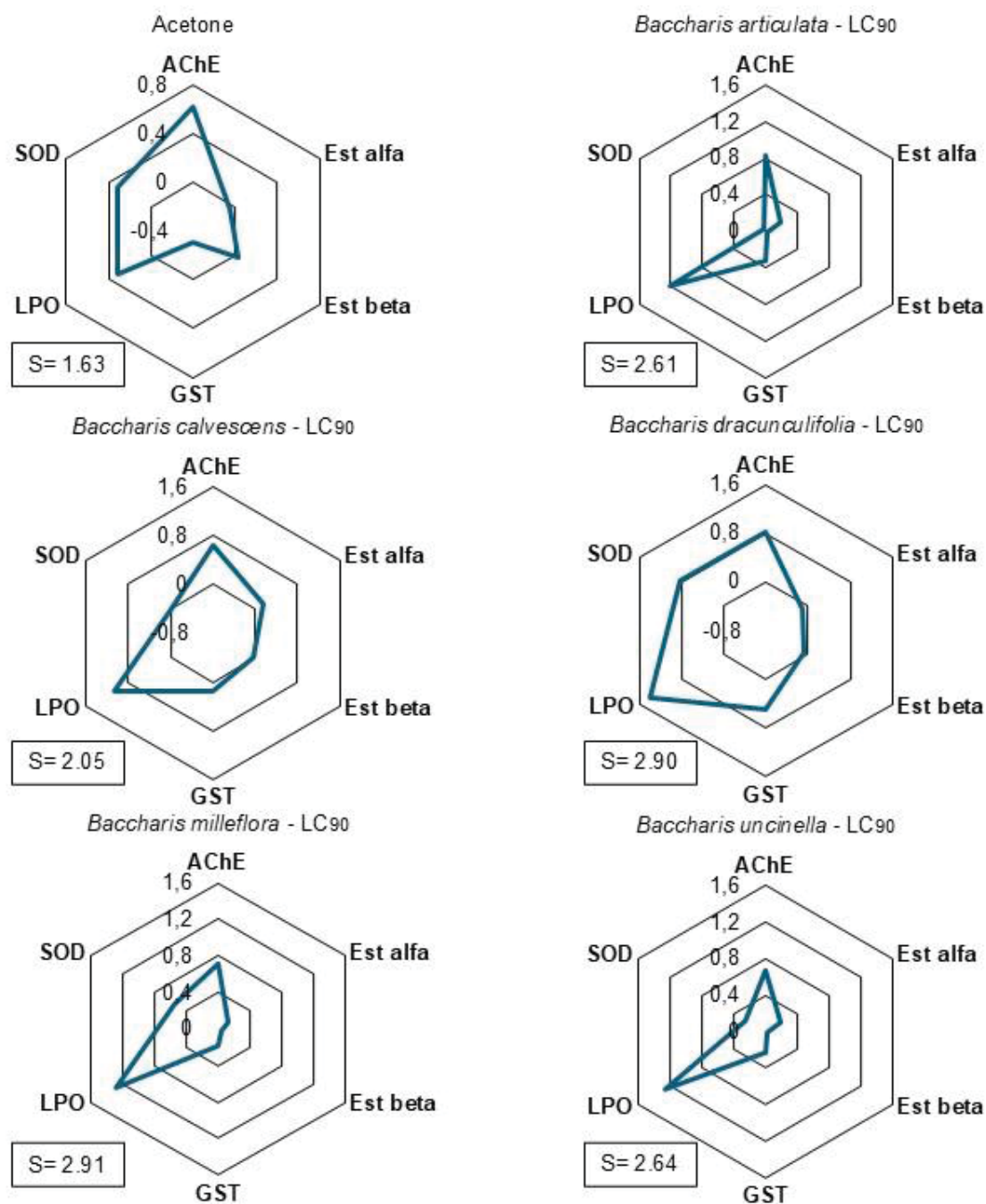


Figure 7: Integrated Biomarker Index (IBR) for each LC90 of essential oil from the genus *Baccharis* tested. AChE = acetylcholinesterase. GST = glutathione S-transferase. EST alpha = α -Esterase. EST beta = β -esterase. SOD = Superoxide dismutase. The S value represents the result of the sum of the values attributed to each of the biomarkers in relation to the control. The results are presented as radar graphs indicating the deviation of all biomarkers in relation to the control. Values above the zero line represent the induction of biomarkers, while values below zero represent inhibition of biomarkers. The higher the S value, the greater the accumulation of biomarker alteration in exposure to the essential oil.

3.6 *Baccharis* EOs repellency to *T. remus*

Treatments with *Baccharis* EOs showed a repellent effect for *T. remus*, with a significant difference when compared to the negative (acetone) and positive (Chlorfenapyr) controls. However, there was no statistical difference between the species *B. calvescens* and *B. milleflora*.

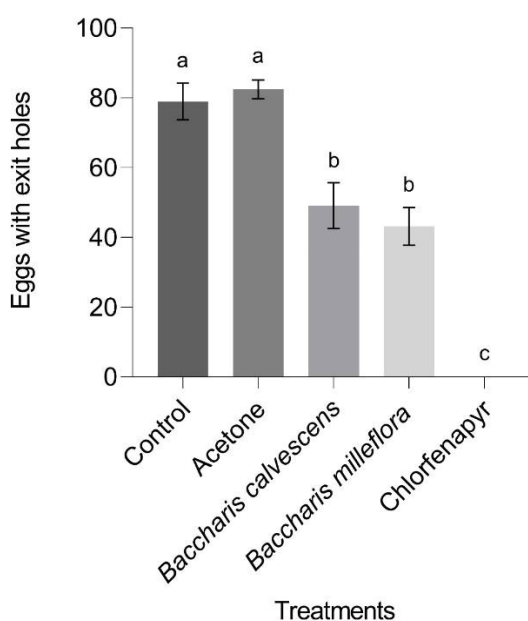


Figure 8: Repellent effect of *Baccharis calvescens* and *Baccharis milleflora* EOs on LC₉₀ concentration (2.05% e 2.20%) on adults of *Telenomus remus*. Acetone and the insecticide Chlorfenapyr were used as negative and positive controls, respectively. Treatments with the same letters did not differ from each other by Tukey's test ($p < 0.001$)

3.7 Ovicidal activity of *Baccharis* EOs on *T. remus*

Baccharis EOs did not show significant ovicidal activity against *T. remus*, not differing from the control and negative control (acetone). However, the synthetic insecticide Chlorfenapyr caused 100% mortality.

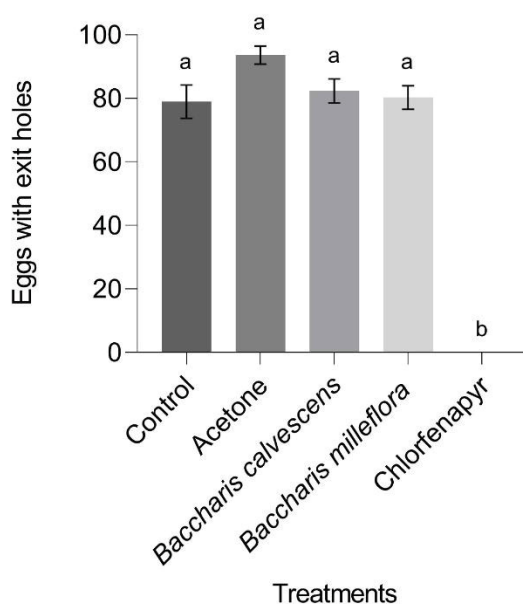


Figure 9: Ovicidal activity of *Baccharis calvenscens* and *Baccharis milleflora* at LC₉₀ (2.05% e 2.20%) concentration on *Telenomus remus*. Treatments with the same letters did not differ from each other by Tukey's test ($p < 0.001$).

3.8 Activity of *Baccharis* EOs in *T. remus* pupae

Baccharis EOs did not show significant insecticidal activity in the pupal stage of *T. remus*, not differing from the control and negative control. However, the synthetic insecticide Chlorfenapyr caused 100% mortality.

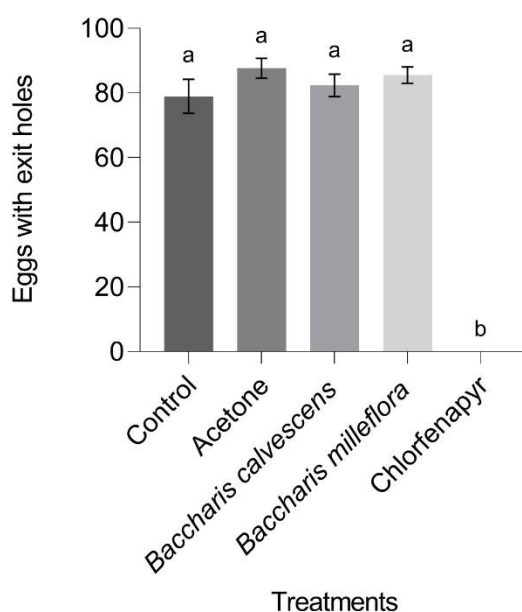


Figure 10: Insecticidal activity of *Baccharis calvescens* and *Baccharis milleflora* at LC₉₀ concentration (2.05% e 2.20%) on *Telenomus remus* pupae. Treatments with the same letters did not differ from each other by Tukey's test ($p < 0.001$).

4. Discussion

During their evolutionary process, some plant species began to synthesize a wide range of chemical compounds, from different secondary metabolism routes with effects aimed at avoiding or inhibiting herbivory caused by insects.(Piri et al., 2020).

Our results demonstrate that there was quantitative and qualitative variation in the chemical composition among the species of the genus *Baccharis*, and the insecticidal activity of all EOs against *S. frugiperda* was confirmed. This study describes the first report on the insecticidal activity and toxicity of *Baccharis* EOs on *S. frugiperda*.

For *B. articulate* EO, the compounds in the greatest proportion were β -pinene, limonene and germacrene D, and to date there are reports on the repellent effect of this species for *Tribolium castaneum* (Coleoptera: Tenebrionidae) and *Acanthoscelides obtectus* (Coleoptera: Chrysomelidae) (Campos et al., 2014; Saran et al., 2019), however, the authors did not report the chemical composition of the EOs. For *B. calvescens* EO, the major

compounds were α -pinene, β -pinene, limonene and germacrene D; while the *B. dracunculifolia* EO presented as major compounds β -pinene, limonene, (E)-nerolidol and spathulenol, being one of the most studied species within the genus *Baccharis*, with insecticidal activity reported for different types of insects, and with wide variability in its chemical composition (Chaaban et al., 2018; Souza et al., 2021; Zimmermann et al., 2021). In our sample of *B. milleflora* EO, the compounds in greatest proportion were α -pinene, myrcene, β -phellandrene, (E)-caryophyllene, α -humulene, germacrene D, bicyclogermacrene and globulol, and for *B. uncinella* EO, the major compounds were α -pinene, β -pinene, (Z)- β -ocimene and spathulenol.

Corroborating our results, the insecticidal activity of EOs from *B. calvescens*, *B. milleflora* and *B. uncinella* was reported for *Drosophila suzukii* (Diptera: Drosophilidae) (Souza et al., 2021), with variations in the major compounds in quantitative and qualitative terms, and for *Anticarsia gemmatilis* (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae), *Sitophilus oryzae* (Coleoptera: Curculionidae), *Sitophilus zeamais* (Coleoptera: Curculionidae), and *Lucilia cuprina* (Diptera: Calliphoridae) with same chemical composition (Eccel et al., 2024). However, Zimmermann et al. (2021) found that for *S. oryzae* and *S. zeamais*, the insecticidal activity of *B. dracunculifolia* and *B. uncinella* EOs was not significant, with mortality below 40%, with major compounds similar to that of our study.

The diversity and complexity of the chemical compounds presented in our results and compared with the literature indicate that the variation in the chemical composition of EOs may be related to the influence of intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Aspects such as seasonality, geographic location, population genetics, extraction method, plant organ used, edaphoclimatic conditions, interaction with biotic factors, among others, may result in quantitative and qualitative changes in the substances present in EOs (Leal et al., 2022; Cipriano et al., 2023).

The compounds present in EOs are associated with the biological activities that these products may present (Basaïd et al., 2020; Kumar et al., 2022). The insecticidal activity of EOs may be associated with mono and sesquiterpene compounds (Abdelgaleil et al., 2021; Jankowska et al., 2018), which in general are present in greater proportion, being called major compounds (Garay et al., 2020). However, in addition to the chemical composition, the insecticidal activity of EOs can be influenced by factors such as time and method of exposure, concentration, target organism and its stage of development (Koyama, Heinbockel, 2020; Fernandes et al., 2021; Silveira et al., 2022).

EOs are a complex of volatile lipophilic chemical substances that have several effects in the control of agricultural pests, and can perform insecticidal action (by contact, fumigation or ingestion) or repellency (Basaïd et al., 2020; Dhifi et al., 2016; Usseglio et al., 2023). In this context, the present study evaluated the bioactivity of EOs from the genus *Baccharis* by contact and ingestion against *S. frugiperda*, observing that the toxicity was greater by contact and indicating that this physicochemical property of EOs favors the penetration of the compounds into the insect's body through the cuticle. Therefore, the exposure method is one of the main factors that can influence the toxicity of EOs against insects (Usseglio et al., 2023; Chaudhari et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2019; Hashem et al., 2018).

Our results demonstrate that the increase in EO concentration caused a higher mortality rate of *S. frugiperda*. In general, the insecticidal activity of EOs is attributed to monoterpenes, which demonstrate a toxic effect on *Spodoptera littoralis* (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) and *S. frugiperda* (Abdelgaleil et al., 2022; Al-Nagar et al., 2020). However, *B. milleflora* EO showed greater diversity and proportion of chemical compounds in addition to greater toxicity, indicating that there is possibly a synergistic effect between all chemical compounds, contributing to a greater lethal effect (Hummelbrunner and Isman, 2001; Chen et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2021).

Because they are made up of different substances, EOs can act in different mechanisms of action, interfering mainly in the physiology of the nervous system of insects (Jankowska et al., 2018; Piri et al., 2020; Usseglio et al., 2023). However, there is few researches that aims to elucidate the effect of these substances on biochemical markers of agricultural pests.

This study is the first report of the effect of EOs from the genus *Baccharis* on biochemical markers of *S. frugiperda*. Our results indicate that EOs from this genus cause different changes in the enzymes and, in higher concentrations, cause high levels of lipid peroxidation. However, we found that acetone alone, the main solvent used, is also a factor that influenced the biochemistry of insects, causing a reduction in GST activity and an increase in SOD and AChE. A study conducted by Tunç et al. (1997) demonstrated that acetone is extremely toxic to storage insects, although we found no reports of toxicity to caterpillars and found that EO caused significant changes in the enzymes.

In exposure to LC_{50} , the GST enzyme showed inhibition in exposure to *B. milleflora* EO, indicating that this product can strongly inhibit its enzymatic action. At a higher concentration (LC_{90}), exposure to EOs from all *Baccharis* species increased bioactivity, possibly indicating an attempt to detoxify the insect organism due to the high toxicity of EOs. The GST enzyme is one of the main enzymes responsible for the detoxification process of chemical substances, especially insecticides, as it catalyzes these toxic products into water-soluble molecules through glutathione, making them less toxic to the organism and allowing them to be excreted by the organism (Mojarab-Mahboubkar et al., 2015; Liao et al., 2017; Moustafa et al., 2021). In addition to this function, the enzyme is also responsible for reducing possible negative effects of oxidative stress in cells (Liao et al., 2017; Awad et al., 2024). Similar results were reported for *S. frugiperda* (Giraldi et al., 2024), *Spodoptera littoralis* (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) (Moustafa et al., 2023; Awad et al., 2024), *Spodoptera*

litura (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) (Ruttanaphan et al., 2019), and for other lepidopteran species such as *Tuta absoluta* (Meyrick) (Lepidoptera: Gelechiidae) (Piri et al., 2020), *Helicoverpa armigera* (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) (Mojarab-Mahboubkar et al., 2015; Liao et al., 2017), and *Agrotis ipsilon* (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) (Moustafa et al., 2021).

Although acetone causes an increase in AChE activity, when compared to exposure to the water control, and exposure to LC₅₀, *B. articulata*, *B. dracunculifolia* and *B. uncinella* returned to baseline AChE values, indicating possible inhibition of EO despite the solvent. In contrast, the combination of EO from *B. calvescens* and *B. milleflora* with the solvent appears to have potentiated the activity of AChE, which had greater activity than the solvent alone. For LC₉₀, exposure to the EO of *B. articulata*, *B. dracunculifolia* enhanced AChE activity compared to solvent alone. Similar results of these products in AChE were observed by Giraldi et al. (2024) when evaluating the toxicity and EO effect of *Drimys brasiliensis* (Winteraceae) on *S. frugiperda* biomarkers.

AChE is the main enzyme responsible for catalyzing acetylcholine in the synaptic cleft. The increase in activity may be linked to the insect's need for detoxification caused by the increase in synaptic activity upon exposure to EOs. To explain this, we suggest two hypotheses: the first is related to the possibility that EOs mimic acetylcholine, and the second is related to changes at the transcriptional level that caused an increase in AChE translation. In contrast, the present research and other studies conducted with different EOs demonstrate that these substances can act as AChE inhibitors in *S. frugiperda*. (de Oliveira et al., 2018; Usseglio et al., 2023; Giraldi et al., 2024), and this bioactivity has already been reported for the species *S. littoralis* and *Spodoptera exigua* (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) (Chen et al., 2021; Fergani et al., 2020). Inhibition of AChE activity causes continuous transmission of the impulse in the synaptic cleft, leading to hyperexcitability of the nervous system, causing

paralysis of the insect's muscular and respiratory system, resulting in its death.(Jankowska et al., 2018; Piri et al., 2020; Usseglio et al., 2023).

In addition to the effects on enzymatic activities, EOs can cause damage at the cellular level through oxidative stress resulting in lipid peroxidation. In our study, we found high levels of lipid peroxidation in *S. frugiperda* larvae exposed to the highest EO exposure concentration of all *Baccharis* species. High levels of plasma membrane damage can lead to cell death. The cascade effect of peroxidation and cell death may explain the mortality of insects at this concentration (Olmedo et al., 2015; Basile et al., 2022), similar lipid peroxidation results were observed by Giraldi et al (2024) in *S. frugiperda*.

Synthetic insecticides can cause resistance because they have a single mode of action, and another aggravating factor is that they lack selectivity, causing negative consequences for biodiversity. Thus, one of the premises in the search for alternative substances is that these products present high selectivity, and therefore do not cause impacts on beneficial organisms, especially BC agents. Research with botanical extracts of species of the Asteraceae family demonstrated high toxicity against *S. frugiperda* but no negative effects on the development of *T. remus*, suggesting that chemical compounds present in species of this botanical family may present high selectivity with the possibility of being implemented in IPM programs (Tavares et al., 2009).

In this context, our results demonstrated that EOs of *B. calvescens* and *B. milleflora* did not cause mortality in eggs and pupae of *T. remus*, indicating the possibility of combined use of these two methods for the integrated management of this pest. While the synthetic insecticide (Chlorfenapyr) caused mortality of adults before they could parasitize. To date, there are no studies on the impact of EOs on *T. remus*, and this study is the first report. Similar results to those of our research with several EOs were observed for other egg parasitoids *Trichogramma pretiosum* (Hymenoptera: Trichogrammatidae) (Bibiano et al.,

2022; Parreira et al., 2019), *Trichogramma galloi* (Hymenoptera: Trichogrammatidae) (La Cruz et al., 2021; Parreira et al., 2018), *Trichogramma embryophagum* (Poorjavad et al., 2014), *Trichogramma evanescens* (Hymenoptera: Trichogrammatidae) (Elbehery and Ibrahim, 2024), *Telenomus podisi* (Hymenoptera: Platygasteridae) (Zachrisson et al., 2019) and *Trissolcus urichi* (Hymenoptera: Platygasteridae) (Turchen et al., 2016), demonstrating that there is compatibility between these two control strategies for *S. frugiperda*.

Although they do not present insecticidal activity against different stages of *T. remus* development, *Baccharis* EOs have been shown to have a repellent effect on adults and consequently reduced the parasitism capacity of *S. frugiperda* eggs, unlike the synthetic insecticide, which caused the mortality of adult females before they oviposited. The repellent effect of EOs may be related to the presence of monoterpenes, which are aromatic chemical substances with low molecular weight and high volatility. Due to these characteristics, these compounds can be detected by several sensory organs of insects, such as antennae or tarsi (Parreira et al., 2019) and cause a repellent effect on the insect due to interactions in olfactory receptors due to the presence of carbon in hydroxyl groups that can cause electrolytic changes (Nerio et al., 2010).

5. Conclusion

EOs of the *Baccharis* genus have insecticidal activity against *S. frugiperda* by contact mode of action, with evidence of action at sites of the nervous system and cause damage by lipid peroxidation. The species *B. calvescens* and *B. milleflora* did not cause mortality in eggs and pupae of *T. remus*, showing selectivity for the natural enemy. However, due to the repellent effect, studies are needed to develop formulations that minimize possible adverse effects on natural enemies or pollinating agents, aiming at the development of commercial botanical insecticides.

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CONCLUSÃO GERAL

Devido à grande biodiversidade de plantas nativas encontradas na Floresta Atlântica, é possível encontrar moléculas a partir da extração de metabólitos secundários, que expressam grande potencial de controle de pragas agrícolas. Os óleos essenciais (OEs) das plantas nativas da Floresta Atlântica estudadas nesse trabalho, apresentaram potencial inseticida para o controle de *S. frugiperda*.

Descobrimos que o OE de *D. brasiliensis* e o OE de *E. muticus* exibem potencial significativo no controle de *S. frugiperda*, devido à sua toxicidade e seus efeitos em diferentes mecanismos relacionados a enzimas de biotransformação, enzimas do sistema nervoso, além de causar danos a biomoléculas.

Os OEs do gênero *Baccharis* também apresentaram atividade inseticida para *S. frugiperda*, com evidências de ação em sítios do sistema nervoso e causaram danos por peroxidação lipídica. Além disso, as espécies *B. calvescens* e *B. milleflora* apresentaram seletividade para o parasitoide de ovos *T. remus*.

Observamos que todos os OEs testados nessa pesquisa apresentaram potencial inseticida, e isso aponta para uma tendência, em que esses OEs sejam alternativas promissoras aos inseticidas sintéticos em programas de manejo de *S. frugiperda*. No entanto, mais estudos voltados para formulações, viabilidade econômica e segurança ambiental se fazem necessários, visando o desenvolvimento de inseticidas botânicos comerciais.

CONSIDERAÇÕES FINAIS

O uso de substâncias naturais na agricultura, foi o precursor da maioria dos estudos voltados para a fitossanidade, pois desde que o homem deixou de ser nômade, surtos de pragas e doenças são comuns no meio agrícola. O uso de óleos essenciais (OEs) no controle de pragas agrícolas tem potencial para integrar-se a sistemas de manejo de pragas, tanto na agricultura convencional, quanto na agricultura orgânica e agroecológica, promovendo um controle mais sustentável e de menor impacto ambiental.

Esse estudo é entendido como um estudo de base, ao que também podemos chamar de pesquisa básica, onde identificamos, a partir de OEs extraídos de plantas nativas da Floresta Atlântica, substâncias que apresentam elevado potencial inseticida, no entanto, sabemos que os OEs são compostos que, na sua essência, apresentam alta volatilidade, e esse, atualmente, é um dos grandes entraves de estudos e pesquisas utilizando OEs em situações de campo.

Dada essa limitação, sugerimos que futuras pesquisas se concentrem no desenvolvimento de tecnologias que aumentem a estabilidade dos OEs e prolonguem sua atividade no ambiente. Entre as estratégias promissoras, estão a incorporação dos óleos essenciais em emulsões ou em sistemas de micro e nanoencapsulados. Essas técnicas podem encapsular as moléculas dos OEs em estruturas que limitam a volatilidade e protegem o composto ativo das condições externas, garantindo uma liberação controlada e prolongada, além disso, a nanoencapsulação permite direcionar o OE para locais específicos, o que pode otimizar o efeito inseticida e reduzir a quantidade de produto utilizado.

Outro ponto que consideramos relevante para que os avanços se traduzam em alternativas viáveis no que diz respeito à utilização dos OEs no setor agrícola, são os estudos de viabilidade econômica. É necessário avaliar o custo-benefício do uso dos óleos essenciais em larga escala, visto que a produção e o processamento dos OEs, assim como o desenvolvimento das tecnologias de dispersão, exigem investimentos que devem ser analisados frente à eficácia, durabilidade e à aceitação dos produtos pelo mercado.

Adicionalmente, para garantir a segurança ambiental e a sustentabilidade dos OEs a longo prazo, faz-se necessário que futuras pesquisas avaliem o impacto dos OEs nas cadeias tróficas e nos ecossistemas em que serão aplicados. Nesses estudos, seria importante considerar os efeitos dos OEs e seus compostos encapsulados sobre organismos não-alvo, incluindo inimigos naturais, polinizadores e outros elos essenciais das redes tróficas.

Por fim, ressaltamos que estudos visando a interação entre a segurança ecológica e a eficácia dos OEs contribuirão para soluções agrícolas que respeitem tanto a saúde ambiental quanto a eficiência produtiva.

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ANEXOS

ANEXO I – Inscrição do projeto no Sistema Nacional do Patrimônio Genético e do Conhecimento Tradicional Associado (SisGen)



Ministério do Meio Ambiente
CONSELHO DE GESTÃO DO PATRIMÔNIO GENÉTICO
SISTEMA NACIONAL DE GESTÃO DO PATRIMÔNIO GENÉTICO E DO CONHECIMENTO TRADICIONAL ASSOCIADO

Atestado de Regularidade de Acesso

Cadastro nº AE4C4BF

O Conselho de Gestão do Patrimônio Genético, no exercício da competência conferida pelo inciso IV do § 1º do art. 6º da Lei nº 13.123/2015, atesta que o acesso ao Patrimônio Genético, referente ao cadastro abaixo identificado e resumido, cumpriu os requisitos da Lei nº 13.123/2015 e seus regulamentos até a data de emissão deste atestado.

Número do cadastro:	AE4C4BF
Usuário:	Universidade Federal do Paraná
CPF/CNPJ:	75.095.679/0001-49
Objeto do Acesso:	Patrimônio Genético
Finalidade do Acesso:	Pesquisa