

**Universidade de Brasília**  
**Faculdade de Medicina**  
**Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ciências Médicas**

**George Harrison Ferreira de Carvalho**

**Caracterização química e avaliação do efeito inseticida de  
frações obtidas de *Anacardium occidentale* sobre vetores de  
doenças e insetos-pragas agrícolas**

**Brasília**  
**Dezembro/2018**

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**Orientador:** Dr. Jaime Martins de Santana

**Coorientadora:** Dra. Izabela Marques Dourado Bastos

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## SUMÁRIO

<b>Lista de tabelas e figuras.....</b>	<b>8</b>
<b>Lista de abreviaturas e símbolos.....</b>	<b>10</b>
<b>Resumo.....</b>	<b>13</b>
<b>Abstract.....</b>	<b>14</b>
<b>1. Introdução.....</b>	<b>15</b>
<b>2. Revisão da literatura.....</b>	<b>17</b>
2.1. Vetores biológicos de doenças.....	17
2.1.1. Origem e distribuição <i>Aedes (stegomyia) aegypti</i> .....	17
2.1.2. Hábitos e biologia do <i>Aedes aegypti</i> .....	18
2.1.3. Doenças transmitidas pelo <i>Aedes aegypti</i> .....	19
2.2. O <i>Culex quinquefasciatus</i> .....	19
2.2.1. Biologia e distribuição do <i>Cx. quinquefasciatus</i> .....	19
2.2.2. Doenças transmitidas pelo <i>Cx. quinquefasciatus</i> .....	20
2.3. Vetores mecânicos de doenças <i>Musca domestica</i> e <i>Chrysomya megacephala</i> .....	20
2.3.1. Distribuição, ciclo biológico da <i>Musca domestica</i> e sua importância médico-sanitária.....	20
2.3.2. Distribuição, ciclo biológico da <i>Chrysomya megacephala</i> e sua importância médico-sanitária.....	21
2.4. Insetos-pragas.....	22
2.4.1. Distribuição, ciclo biológico da <i>Anticarsia gemmatilis</i> e sua importância na cultura da soja.....	22
2.4.2. Distribuição, ciclo biológico da <i>Spodoptera frugiperda</i> e sua importância na produção de milho e outras culturas.....	23
2.5. Controle químico de artrópodes vetores de doenças e pragas agrícolas.....	24
2.6. O <i>Anacardium occidentale</i> como alternativa estratégica e econômica para a Saúde Pública.....	24
<b>3. JUSTIFICATIVA.....</b>	<b>26</b>
<b>4. OBJETIVOS.....</b>	<b>26</b>

4.1.	Objetivos gerais.....	26
4.2.	Etapas do trabalho.....	26
<b>5.</b>	<b>MATERIAL E MÉTODOS.....</b>	<b>27</b>
5.1.	Obtenção do líquido da castanha do caju (LCC <i>in natura</i> ) .....	27
5.1.2.	Bioensaios com larvas de terceiro instar (I3) e pupas de <i>A. aegypti</i> e <i>Cx. quinquefasciatus</i> .....	29
5.1.3.	Bioensaio com <i>A. aegypti</i> e <i>Cx. quinquefasciatus</i> em condição de laboratório.....	29
5.1.4.	Bioensaio com fenol, resorcinol, ácido salicílico e pentadecano.....	29
5.1.5.	Bioensaio em condição de campo com frações do <i>A. occidentale</i> sobre larvas e pupas de <i>A. aegypti</i> e <i>Cx. quinquefasciatus</i> .....	30
5.1.6.	Obtenção dos ovos de <i>M. domestica</i> e <i>C. megacephala</i> .....	30
5.1.7.	Bioensaios com <i>M. domestica</i> e <i>C. megacephala</i> .....	31
5.1.8.	Aquisição das lagartas <i>Anticarsia gemmatilis</i> e <i>Spodoptera frugiperda</i> ..	32
5.1.9.	Bioensaio com <i>Anticarsia gemmatilis</i> e <i>Spodoptera frugiperda</i> .....	32
5.2.	Análise da citotoxicidade.....	33
5.2.1.	Ensaio Colorimétrico de Alamar Blue®.....	34
5.3.	Análises estatísticas.....	34
<b>6.</b>	<b>REFERÊNCIAS.....</b>	<b>35</b>
	<b>Anexo I.</b> Artigo <u>aceito para publicação</u> na revista Environmental Science and Pollution Research.....	42
	<b>Anexo II.</b> Artigo submetido na revista Chemistry and Biodiversity.....	67

## LISTA DE TABELAS E FIGURAS

### Introdução e revisão da literatura

**Fig. 1:** Comparação da estrutura do fenol, resorcinol e ácido salicílico, com os lipídeos congêneres cardanol, cardol e ácido anacárdico.

**Fig. 2:** Mapa global da distribuição prevista de *Ae. aegypti*. O mapa mostra a probabilidade de ocorrência (de 0 azul para 1 vermelho) em uma resolução de 5 km × 5 km.

**Fig. 3:** Esquema representando o ciclo biológico (holometábolo) do *A. aegypti*.

**Fig. 4:** Esquema representando o ciclo biológico (holometábolo) do *Cx. quinquefasciatus*.

**Fig. 5:** Esquema representando o ciclo biológico (holometábolo) do *M. domestica*.

**Fig. 6:** Esquema representando o ciclo biológico (holometábolo) do *C. megacephala*.

**Fig. 7:** Parte do ciclo biológico (holometábolo) do *A. gemmatalis*.

**Fig. 8:** Ciclo biológico (holometábolo) massa de ovos, lagarta, pupa e adulto de *S. frugiperda*.

### Material e métodos

**Fig. 9:** Obtenção do LCC in natura e suas respectivas frações: LCC técnico, ácido anacárdico, cardanol e cardol.

**Fig. 10:** Teste de atividade celular.

### Figuras e tabelas do artigo 1.

**Fig. 1:** Structural representation of the organic molecules extracted from natural cashew nut shell liquid (CNSL) and the commercial compounds: salicylic acid, phenol and resorcinol which are structurally similar to anacardic acid, cardanol and cardol, respectively.

**Fig. 2:** Phenol, resorcinol, salicylic acid and pentadecane activities against *Aedes aegypti* and *Culex quinquefasciatus*. (a) Pentadecane activity against larvae and pupae of *Ae. aegypti* (black) and *Cx. quinquefasciatus* (gray); (b) Resorcinol and salicylic acid activity against larvae of *Ae. aegypti* (black) and *Cx. quinquefasciatus* (gray). Compounds were assayed at 100 mg/L against larvae and 300 mg/L

**Fig. 3:** Residual larvicidal and pupicidal activities of natural and technical CNSL from *Anacardium occidentale* nut shell tested against *Aedes aegypti* and *Culex quinquefasciatus* under field conditions. The assay was carried out as described in the Material and Methods section. Standard curve and points correspond to *Ae. aegypti* (blue) or *Cx. quinquefasciatus* (red). Bars indicate the standard deviation of triplicate determinations.

**Fig. 4:** Residual larvicidal and pupicidal activities of anacardic acid, cardanol and cardol from *Anacardium occidentale* nut shell tested against *Aedes aegypti* and *Culex quinquefasciatus* under field conditions. Standard curve and points correspond to *Ae. aegypti* (blue) or *Cx. quinquefasciatus* (red). Bars indicate the standard deviation of triplicate determinations.

**Online Resource 1: Fig. S1** Chromatographic profile of a natural CNSL mixture monitored at 280 nm for its constituents: anacardic acid, cardanol, cardol, and methylcardol. The natural CNSL profile demonstrated the presence of cardol (I); cardanol (II); anacardic acids - triene (III), diene (IV) and monoene (V).

**Online Resource 2: Table S1** CNSL sample composition and comparison with literature data.

**Online Resource 3: Fig. S2** Residual larvicidal and pupicidal activities of natural and technical CNSL from *Anacardium occidentale* nut shell against *Aedes aegypti* and *Culex quinquefasciatus*. Data are represented by points over a standard sigmoidal curve produced by GraphPad Prism. Colors indicate different concentrations. Bars indicate the standard deviation of triplicate determinations.

**Online Resource 4: Table S2** Median residual activity time of each compound at different concentrations and life stage.

**Online Resource 5: Fig. S3** Residual larvicidal and pupicidal activities of anacardic acid, cardanol and cardol from *Anacardium occidentale* nut shell against *Aedes aegypti* and *Culex quinquefasciatus*. Data are represented by points over a standard sigmoidal curve produced by GraphPad Prism. Colors indicate different concentrations. Bars indicate the standard deviation of triplicate determinations.

**Online Resource 6: Table S3** Larvicidal and pupicidal activities of *Anacardium occidentale* oil derivatives after 24 h exposure period on larvae and pupae of *Aedes aegypti*.

**Online Resource 7: Table S4** Larvicidal and pupicidal activities of *Anacardium occidentale* oil derivatives after 24 h exposure period on larvae and pupae of *Culex quinquefasciatus*.

**Online Resource 8: Table S5** Backtransformation of the data performed to fit the proposed probit model.

**Table 1** Larvicidal and pupicidal activities of *Anacardium occidentale* oil derivatives after 24 h exposure period on larvae and pupae of *Aedes aegypti* and *Culex quinquefasciatus*.

**Table 2** Median residual activity time of each compound tested at the highest concentrations on different life stages of *Aedes aegypti* and *Culex quinquefasciatus*.

**Table 3** Percentage of viable L6 cells after 24 hours of contact with the extracts.

## **Figuras e tabelas do artigo 2.**

**Figure 1.** Scheme representation of structures of the organic molecules extracted from the natural and technical cashew nut shell liquid (CNSL).

**Figure 2.** Egg mortality of cashew nut shell fractions at concentrations of 150mg/L on *M. domestica* (A) and 250mg/L on *C. megacephala* (B). \* statistical difference (ANOVA) at 5% significance ( $p < 0.05$ ).

**Table 1.** Susceptibility of *Musca domestica* and *Chrysomya megacephala* eggs to exposure to samples of natural CNSL, technical CNSL, anacardic acid, cardanol and cardol after 48 hours.

**Table 2.** Susceptibility of *Anticarsia gemmatalis* caterpillars (L1 and L2) to exposure to the fractions of, natural CNSL, technical CNSL, anacardic acid, cardanol and cardol after 72 hours of exposure.

**Table 3.** Susceptibility of *Spodoptera frugiperda* caterpillars (L1 and L2) to exposure to the fractions of, natural CNSL, technical CNSL, anacardic acid, cardanol and cardol after 72 hours of exposure.

## LISTA DE ABREVIATURAS E SÍMBOLOS

% - Porcentagem

%V – Porcentagem de células viáveis

< - Menos que

± - Mais ou menos aproximadamente

°C - Graus Celsius

AcOET – Acetato de etilo

ANOVA - Análise de variância

C - Carbono

C15 - Pentadecila

Ca(OH)<sub>2</sub> – Hidróxido de cálcio

Co<sub>2</sub> – Dióxido de carbono

CC<sub>50</sub> - Concentração de citotoxicidade necessária para matar 50%

CCD - Cromatografia em camada delgada

CDCl<sub>3</sub> - Brand of chloroform

CENARGEN - Recursos Genéticos e Biotecnologia

Cm – Centímetro

COOH – Carboxila

DENV 1,2,3 e 4 – Sorotipos do vírus da dengue

Df - Degrees of freedom

DMEM - Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's médium

DMSO - Dimetilsulfóxido

EMBRAPA - Empresa brasileira de pesquisa agrapecuária

Fa - Unidades de fluorescência de controle

FBS - Soro fetal bovino

Fc - Unidades de fluorescência

G – Gramas

GABA – Ácido gama - aminobutírico

g.a.i./L - Gramas de ingrediente ativo por litro de água

H – Horas

H<sup>+</sup> - Hidrogênio

Hcl – Ácido clorídrico

HPLC - High performance liquid chromatography

HPTLC - High-performance thin layer chromatography

IB - Instituto de Ciências Biológicas

IR, <sup>1</sup>H and <sup>13</sup>C NMR – Técnica espectrométrica

L1- Larva de primeiro instar

L2- Larva de Segundo instar

L3 – Larva de terceiro instar

L4 – Larva de quarto instar

L6 - Células (derivadas de mioblastos de ratos)

LC – Concentração letal

LCC - Líquido da castanha do caju *in natura* em inglês Natural CNSL

LCC - Líquido da castanha do caju técnico em inglês Technical CNSL

LCL - lower confidence limit

LIPH - Laboratório de Interação Parasito-Hospedeiro

LITMO - Laboratório de Isolamento e Transformação de Moléculas Orgânicas

mg/L - Miligrama litro

MHz - Mega-hertz

Mim - Minuto

mL - Mililitros

mL/min - Mililitros por minutos

Mm – Milímetros

mmHg – Milímetro de mercúrio

nm – Nanômetro

OH – Hidroxila

P - Índice de significância

P.A – Pró-análise

PBS - Phosphate Buffered Saline

PET - Politereftalato de etileno

PH - Potencial hidrogeniônicoSD – Desvio padrão

SLEV - Vírus da encefalite Saint Louis

TLC - Thin-layer chromatography

TR<sub>50</sub> – Tempo médio da atividade residual

µg/mL – Microlitro por mili-litro

µL – Microlitro

UCL - Upper confidence limit

UnB - Universidade de Brasília

UR – Umidade relativa

UV - Ultra violeta

v/v - Volume/volume

X<sup>2</sup> – Qui-quadrada

## RESUMO

Na tentativa de controle de vetores de doenças como os mosquitos *Aedes aegypti* e *Culex quinquefasciatus* (Diptera: Culicidae), das moscas como *Musca domestica* (Diptera: Muscidae) e *Chrysomya megacephala* (Diptera: Calliphoridae) e de insetos-pragas como as mariposas *Anticarsia gemmatalis* e *Spodoptera frugiperda* (Lepidoptera, Noctuidae), bilhões de reais são gastos, anualmente, com inseticidas. O uso indiscriminado desses inseticidas, tem causado resistência desses insetos a estes produtos. Na expectativa de obtenção de inseticidas, economicamente viáveis, eficazes, seguros a população humana, animal e ao ecossistema, moléculas extraídas de plantas ganham destaque. Neste contexto, o cajueiro *Anacardium occidentale*, surge como alternativa, econômica, eficiente e segura a população. Após a obtenção do óleo do *A. occidentale* denominado de LCC natural e das frações obtidas deste, como o LCC técnico, ácido anacárdico, cardanol, cardol bem como larvas e pupas do *Ae. aegypti* e *Cx. quinquefasciatus*; dos ovos da *M. domestica* e *C. megacephala* e de larvas da *A. gemmatalis* e *S. frugiperda*, iniciaram-se os testes, seguindo protocolos específicos para criação e bioensaio para cada uma das espécies. Os ensaios foram realizados em condições de laboratório e campo para larvas e pupas do *Ae. aegypti* e *Cx. quinquefasciatus*, apenas em laboratório para os ovos da *M. domestica* e *C. megacephala* e para as larvas de *A. gemmatalis* e *S. frugiperda*. Todos os testes foram acompanhados com os grupos controle positivo e negativo, seguindo protocolo específico para cada espécie. Produtos comerciais como fenol, resorcinol, ácido salicílico e pentadecano, também, foram investigados, devido a semelhança químico-orgânica existentes entre estas substâncias e as frações do *A. occidentale*. Testes de citotoxicidade sobre células L6, derivadas de mioblastos de rato, com as frações do *A. occidentale* foram, também, realizados. As CL<sub>50</sub> foram obtidas pelo programa Probit e as CC<sub>50</sub> por análise de variância (ANOVA) as médias foram comparadas pelo teste de Scott-Knott e regressão, ambos com (5%). As frações do *A. occidentale* que apresentaram melhores efeitos inseticidas foram o ácido anacárdico e cardol, tanto em condições de laboratório quanto de campo, com concentração letal de CL<sub>50</sub> 5,9 mg/L e 6,1 mg/L sobre larvas de terceiro estágio (L3) de *Ae. aegypti* e 109,6 mg/L e 90,7 mg/L para pupas, respectivamente em laboratório. O maior tempo residual (TR) no campo para larvas (L3) de *Ae. aegypti* foi de 5,75 dias para o cardol na concentração de 100 mg/L. Para as pupas de *Ae. aegypti* o (TR) foi de 3,40 dias para o cardol na concentração de 300 mg/L. O ácido anacárdico e o cardol, também, foram mais efetivas sobre larvas (L3) e pupas de *Cx. quinquefasciatus* com LC<sub>50</sub> em condição de laboratório de 5,3 mg/L para o ácido anacárdico e 6,7 mg/L para o cardol. Para as pupas, a CL<sub>50</sub> foi de 105,0 mg/L para o ácido anacárdico e de 96,6 mg/L para o cardol. O tempo residual (TR) no campo para larvas (L3) de *Cx. quinquefasciatus* foi de 5,36 dias para o cardol. Para as pupas de *Cx. quinquefasciatus* o (TR) foi de 3,53 dias para o cardol na concentração de 300 mg/L. A fração cardol, para ambas as espécies de moscas, apresentou a menor concentração letal com CL<sub>50</sub> de 80,4 mg/L para *M. domestica* e 90,2 mg/L para *C. megacephala*, enquanto para as mariposas *A. gemmatalis* e *S. frugiperda* a fração mais eficaz foi o ácido anacárdico com CL<sub>50</sub> de 295,1 mg/L e 318,4 mg/L, respectivamente. Não houve mortalidade nos grupos controles negativo em nenhuma das espécies. Nos controles positivos houve 100% de morte das larvas e de ovos de todas as espécies testadas e sobrevivência das pupas de *Ae. aegypti* e do *Cx. quinquefasciatus*. A fração ácido anacárdico apresentou menor efeito citotóxico sobre as células L6. Esses resultados sugerem as frações do *A. occidentale* como alternativa no controle de insetos de importância médica, veterinária e agrícola.

**Palavras-chaves:** *A. occidentale*, *Ae. aegypti*, *Cx. quinquefasciatus* e insetos – pragas.

## ABSTRACT

In an attempt to control vectors of diseases such as the mosquitoes *Aedes aegypti* and *Culex quinquefasciatus* (Diptera: Culicidae), of flies such as *Musca domestica* (Diptera: Muscidae) and *Chrysomya megacephala* (Diptera: Calliphoridae) and insect pests such as the moth *Anticarsia gemmatalis* and *Spodoptera frugiperda* (Lepidoptera, Noctuidae), billions of reais are spent annually with insecticides. The indiscriminate use of these insecticides has caused resistance in these insects to these products. In the expectation of obtaining insecticides, economically viable, effective, and safe to the human and the animal population, and the ecosystem, molecules extracted from plants are highlighted. In this context, the cashew *Anacardium occidentale* emerges as an alternative, economical, efficient and safe the population. After obtaining the oil of *A. occidentale* denominated natural CNSL and fractions obtained from this, such as technical CNSL, anacardic acid, cardanol, cardol as well as larvae and pupae of *Ae. aegypti* and *Cx. quinquefasciatus*; of the eggs of *M. domestica* and *C. megacephala* and of *A. gemmatalis* and *S. frugiperda* larvae, the tests were started, following specific breeding and bioassay protocols for each species. The tests were carried out in laboratory and field conditions for larvae and pupae of *Ae. aegypti* and *Cx. quinquefasciatus*, only in laboratory for the eggs of *M. domestica* and *C. megacephala* and for the larvae of *A. gemmatalis* and *S. frugiperda*. All the tests were followed up with the positive and negative control groups, following a specific protocol for each species. Commercial products such as phenol, resorcinol, salicylic acid and pentadecane, were also investigated, due to the chemical-organic similarity between these substances and the fractions of *A. occidentale*. Cytotoxicity tests on L6 cells derived from rat myoblasts with *A. occidentale* fractions were also performed. The LC<sub>50</sub>s were obtained by the Probit program and the CC<sub>50</sub> by analysis of variance (ANOVA) the means were compared by the Scott-Knott test and regression, both with (5%). The fractions of *A. occidentale* that presented the best insecticidal effects were anacardic acid and the cardol, both in laboratory and field conditions, with a lethal concentration of LC<sub>50</sub> 5.9 mg/L and 6.1 mg/L on third instar larvae (L3) of *Ae. aegypti* and 109.6 mg/L and 90.7 mg/L for pupae, respectively in the laboratory. The largest residual time (RT) in the field for larvae (L3) of *Ae. aegypti* was 5.75 days for cardol at a concentration of 100 mg/L. For the pupae of *Ae. aegypti* o (RT) was 3.40 days for cardol at the concentration of 300 mg/L. The anacardic acid and cardol were also more effective on larvae (L3) and pupae of *Cx. quinquefasciatus* with LC<sub>50</sub> in laboratory condition of 5.3 mg/L for anacardic acid and 6.7 mg/L for the cardol . For the pupae, LC<sub>50</sub> was 105.0 mg/L for anacardic acid and 96.6 mg/L for cardol. The residual time (RT) in the field for larvae (L3) of *Cx. quinquefasciatus* was 5.36 days for the cardol. For pupae of the *Cx. quinquefasciatus* (RT) it was 3.53 days for cardol at the concentration of 300 mg/L. The cardol fraction for both species of flies presented the lowest lethal concentration with LC<sub>50</sub> of 80.4 mg/L for *M. domestica* and 90.2 mg/L for *C. megacephala*, while for butterflies *A. gemmatalis* and *S. frugiperda* the most effective fraction was the LC<sub>50</sub> anacardic acid of 295.1 mg/L and 318.4 mg/L, respectively. There was no mortality in the negative control groups in any of the species. In the positive controls there was 100% death of the larvae and eggs of all the species tested and survival of the pupae of *Ae. aegypti* and *Cx. quinquefasciatus*. The anacardic acid fraction had a lower cytotoxic effect on the L6 cells. These results suggest the fractions of *A. occidentale* as alternating in the control of insects of medical, veterinary and agricultural importance.

**Keywords:** *A. occidentale*, *Ae. aegypti*, *Cx. quinquefasciatus* and insect pests.

## 1 INTRODUÇÃO

Substâncias de origem botânica, com atividade inseticida sobre artrópodes de importância médica são amplamente investigadas, principalmente com efeitos sobre mosquitos (Carvalho, 2010; Silva et al., 2006; Simas et al., 2004). Assim como os mosquitos, outros artrópodes como as moscas possuem sua importância no contexto de saúde, por serem vetores mecânicos de doenças, e devido às larvas de algumas espécies, serem parasitóides e poderem causar miíases em animais e eventualmente nos seres humanos (Ferraz et al., 2010).

Diversos produtos, de origem vegetal, têm despertado grande interesse por pesquisadores (Guizardi & Pinheiro, 2008; Marques., 2000). Isso ocorre, devido essas substâncias serem fonte primária de princípios ativos utilizados para tratamento de diversas doenças que afetam a saúde humana (Bouchara et al., 2017). Além de produtos de origem vegetal serem biodegradáveis, apresentarem baixo efeito biocumulativo, menos risco à população humana e alto aspecto seletivo (Silva et al., 2006).

Neste contexto apresenta-se o *Anacardium occidentale*, popularmente conhecido como cajueiro (Gallo et al., 2002). Os pesquisadores Guissoni et al., (2013) avaliaram os efeitos de frações obtidas do *A. occidentale* sobre larvas de terceiro instar de *Aedes aegypti* em condições de laboratório. Contudo, ainda, não há publicações com estas frações com efeitos sobre o *Culex quinquefasciatus* outro importante vetor de doenças.

Com frequência surgem na literatura trabalhos com bioinseticidas, Deleito & Borja., (2008), avaliaram os efeitos do óleo de Nim extraído da *Azadirachta indica* na redução da emergência de *Musca domestica* e *Chrysomya megacephala*, importantes vetores mecânicos de patógenos, em 95,6 % das pupas de *M. domestica* tratadas na concentração de 0,6 %. Contudo, na literatura, ainda não há relatos de frações do *A. occidentale* com efeitos deletérios sobre *M. domestica* e *C. megacephala*.

As frações derivadas do óleo do *A. occidentale*, também conhecido como líquido da castanha do caju (LCC *in natura*) e seus derivados LCC técnico, ácido anacárdico, cardanol e cardol podem ser obtidos por cromatografia em sílica gel e algumas dessas frações, como o cardanol, é utilizada como lubrificante e comercializada por baixo preço (Mazzetto et al., 2009).

Inseticidas vegetais não são apenas importantes para insetos que afetam a saúde humana e animal, há interesse, também, no uso dessas moléculas, para o controle de insetos-pragas que causam grande prejuízo para a agroindústria e o agrocomércio do

Brasil (Teixeira Prates et al., 2003) a exemplo da *Anticarsia gemmatalis* e a *Spodoptera frugiperda*.

Os pesquisadores (Braga et al., 2004) avaliaram os efeitos inseticidas de extratos de folhas de *Solanum fastigiatum* e *Solanum acicularium*, plantas silvestres da família Solanaceae, sobre o controle de *Brevicoryne brassicae* conhecido, popularmente, como o pulgão-da-couve, demonstrando que o interesse na ação dos bioinseticidas ocorre não apenas em insetos de importância médica.

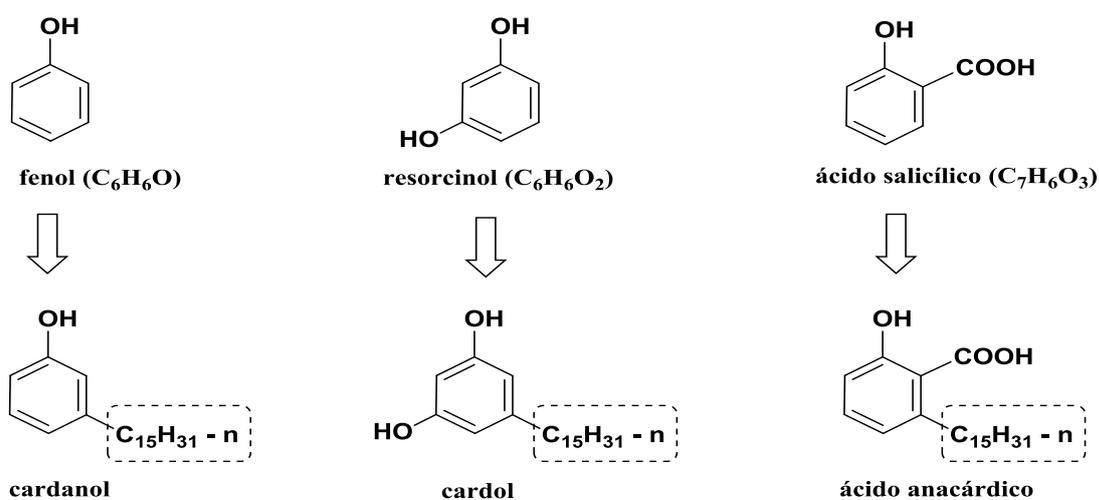
Os pesquisadores Lima et al., (2008) constataram, por meio de bioensaios em condições de campo, efeitos de produtos extraídos do óleo de Nim, na redução de cerca de 40% de infestação de lagartas da espécie *Spodoptera frugiperda* ou lagarta-do-cartucho no cultivo de milho. Esta lagarta, é a principal praga que ataca o milho, causando danos gigantescos a pequenos e grandes produtores dessa cultura no Brasil (Lagoas, 2009). Não há relato na literatura de uso de frações, com atividade lagartocida, obtidas do *A. occidentale* sobre as espécies *S. frugiperda* e a *Anticarsia gemmatalis*.

O controle de insetos de importância médico-sanitário, médico-veterinário e de insetos-pragas agrícolas se faz, utilizando defensivos químicos que, por sua vez possuem altos efeitos residuais, podendo poluir nascente d'água, leito de rios e matar insetos polinizadores (Braga & Valle, 2007; Silva et al., 2003).

Assim, o uso incorreto de substâncias químicas, no controle de insetos, causam preocupação por serem algumas comprovadamente carcinogênicas e teratogênicas como o organofosforado (temefós) e podendo, ainda, favorecer o surgimento de cepas de insetos resistentes a esses defensivos (Viegas, 2003).

Neste contexto, este estudo teve por objetivo investigar, em condições de laboratório e de campo, o uso de frações do *A. occidentale*, que atuem em diferentes estágios do ciclo das espécies *Ae. aegypti* e *Cx. quinquefasciatus*, principais vetores biológicos de doenças de diversas etiologias como dengue, chikungunya, Zika vírus e febre amarela urbana transmitidas pelo *Ae. aegypti* e febre do Oeste do Nilo, encefalite viral japonesa e filariose linfática transmitidas pelo *Cx. quinquefasciatus*. Bem como avaliar os efeitos deletérios das frações do *A. occidentale* sobre a biologia de vetores mecânicos como as moscas *M. domestica* e *C. megacephala*, que da mesma maneira que os mosquitos, representam um problema de saúde pública e veterinária. Por fim, avaliar os efeitos lagartocidas sobre insetos-pragas como a *A. gemmatalis* e *S. frugiperda*, artrópodes de alta relevância para a agroindústria.

Objetivou-se, ainda, realizar bioensaios com substâncias comerciais fenol, resorcinol e o ácido salicílico, por serem estas moléculas, semelhante as frações do LCC *in natura*: cardanol, cardol e ácido anacárdico. A diferença entre estes produtos comerciais, com as frações do *A. occidentale* cardanol, cardol e o ácido anacárdico reside no fato de que, estes últimos, apresentam uma longa cadeia hidrocarbônica C15 (pentadecila) como apresentada nas estruturas químicas **Figura 1**. Esses testes foram realizados para verificar se as subunidades aromáticas presentes no fenol, resorcinol e ácido salicílico, substâncias que não exibem a cadeia lateral pentadecila, apresentariam efeitos sobre larvas e pupas de *Ae. aegypti* e *Cx. quinquefasciatus*. Para determinar se a cadeia, pentadecila ou pentadecano [ $\text{CH}_3\text{-(CH}_2\text{)}_{13}\text{-CH}_3$ ], isolada apresentaria ou não efeitos sobre larvas e pupas de *Ae. aegypti* e *Cx. quinquefasciatus*, bioensaios com o pentadecano foram realizados. Os compostos: fenol, resorcinol, ácido salicílico (Vetec®) e pentadecano (Sigma-Aldrich) foram respectivamente obtidos de fontes comerciais.



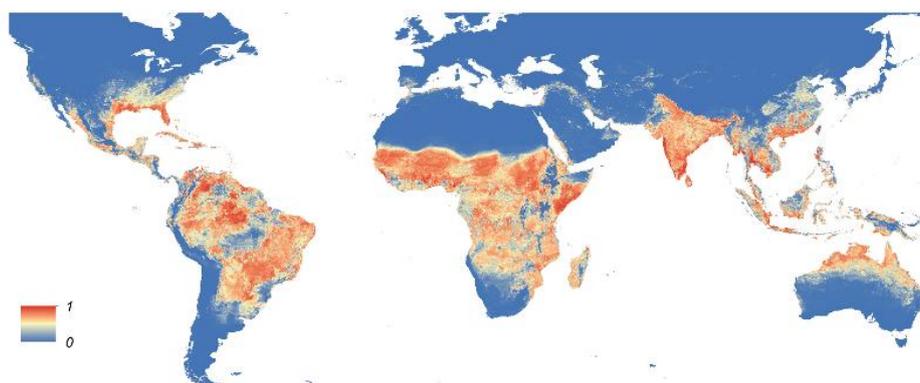
**Figura 1.** Comparação da estrutura do fenol, resorcinol e ácido salicílico, com os lipídeos congêneres cardanol, cardol e ácido anacárdico.

## 2 REVISÃO DA LITERATURA

### 2.1. Vetores biológicos de doenças

#### 2.1.1. Origem e distribuição *Aedes (stegomyia) aegypti*

Acredita-se que o *Aedes (Stegomyia) aegypti* (Linnaeus, 1762) (Diptera: Culicidae), conhecido popularmente como “mosquito da dengue”, com ampla distribuição mundial **Figura 1**, tem sua origem na África e chegou às Américas por navios negreiros e logo se disseminou por todo o continente americano, através de dispersão passiva, pelo próprio homem e por meio de navios, aviões e veículos terrestres. Após a cepa africana da espécie *Ae. aegypti* ter sido praticamente erradicada no Brasil na década de quarenta, cepas da espécie *Ae. aegypti* asiáticos chegaram ao Brasil, igualmente aos mosquitos africanos chegaram nos portos brasileiros e se espalharam por todo o país (Schaffner & Mathis, 2014).

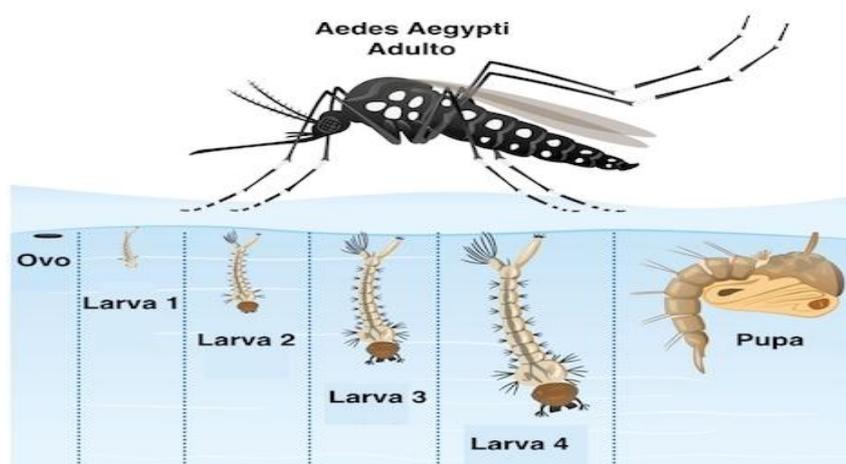


**Figura 2.** Mapa global da distribuição prevista de *Ae. aegypti*. O mapa mostra a probabilidade de ocorrência (de 0 azul para 1 vermelho) em uma resolução de 5 km × 5 km. Fonte: Kraemer et al., (2015).

### 2.1.2. Hábitos e biologia da espécie *Aedes aegypti*

O *Ae. aegypti* é um mosquito de hábito antropofílico, sinantrópico e apenas as fêmeas são hematofugas. Após realizar o repasto sanguíneo, em período diurno, as fêmeas liberam feromônios que atraem os machos para a cópula, em seguida buscam reservatório com água parada, limpa e/ou poluída para realizarem a ovipostura (Forattini et al., 1978; Silva et al., 2006).

O ciclo reprodutivo deste mosquito é holometábolo, iniciando na postura dos ovos, que após a eclosão liberam na água larvas que compreendem quatro estádios (L1, L2, L3 e L4) transformando-se, na sequência, em pupas e por fim emergem mosquitos (Silva & Silva, 1999; Forattini, 1995) adultos **Figura 3**.



**Figura 3.** Esquema representando o ciclo biológico (holometábolo) da espécie *Ae. aegypti*. Fonte: imagem obtida pela internet.

A maioria dos inseticidas utilizados no controle da espécie *Ae. aegypti* são depositados na água, devido as fases imaturas ovos, quatro estádios larvais e pupas **Figura 3** concentrarem-se em criadouros (focos) aquáticos e possuírem menor mobilidade que os mosquitos adultos. A fase pupa apresenta maior resistência aos efeitos de inseticidas Carvalho et al., (2012).

### 2.1.3. Doenças transmitidas pelo *Aedes aegypti*

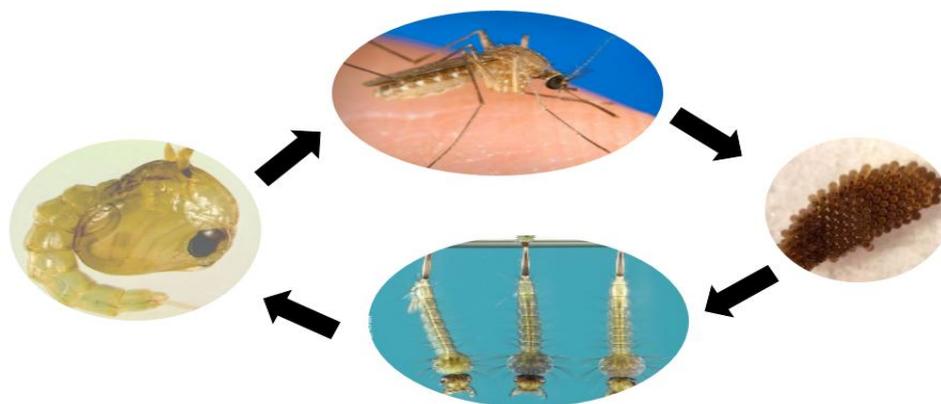
*Ae. aegypti* é o principal vetor de arboviroses que causam grande impacto na saúde pública de diversos países. Essa espécie é incriminada como transmissor dos quatro sorotipos de dengue (DENV-1, DENV-2, DENV-3 e DENV-4), chikungunya e o vírus ZIKA. Todas estas doenças com altos índices de incidência e prevalência, como ocorreu com a disseminação do vírus ZIKA, nas epidemias de microcefalia em recém-nascidos na região do nordeste do Brasil. Há risco, também, devido os casos atuais de infecções pelo vírus da febre amarela silvestre, em alguns Estados da região Sudeste do Brasil, que haja ocorrência de epidemias de febre amarela urbana, pois há risco do *A. aegypti* transmitir esse arbovírus (Cavalcante & Tauil, 2017).

## 2.2. O *Culex quinquefasciatus*

### 2.2.1. Biologia e distribuição da espécie *Culex quinquefasciatus*

*Culex quinquefasciatus* (Say, 1823) (Diptera: Culicidae), é um mosquito cosmopolita com grande presença nas regiões tropicais e apresenta hábitos antropofílicos, sinantrópicos e as fêmeas dessa espécie praticam hematofagia em

período noturno (Forattini, 1995). No Brasil, disseminou-se por todos os estados da federação (Consoli & Lourenço-de-Oliveira, 1994). Esta espécie apresenta ciclo holometábolo, partindo de ovos, larvas, pupas e mosquitos adultos (Consoli & Lourenço-de-Oliveira, 1994; Forattini, 1995) **Figura 4**.



**Figura 4.** Esquema representando o ciclo biológico (holometábolo) da espécie *Cx. quinquefasciatus*.  
Fonte: As imagens foram obtidas pela internet.

### **2.2.2. Doenças transmitidas pela espécie *Culex quinquefasciatus***

O controle populacional dessa espécie apresenta grande relevância, devido o *Cx. quinquefasciatus* ser vetor de importantes doenças de diferentes etiologias. Esse artrópode é responsável pela incidência e prevalência do helminto *Wuchereria bancrofti* causador da filariose linfática, e dos vírus causadores da encefalite viral japonesa, febre do oeste do Nilo, da encefalite Saint Louis (SLEV) e a *encefalomielite equina ocidental* (EEO) (Jones et al., 2012; Reisen et al., 2005, 2003).

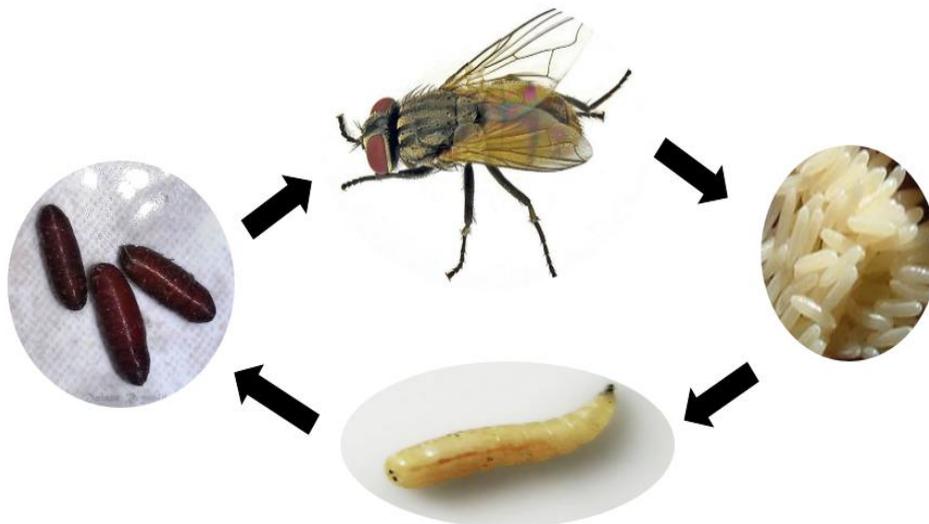
Recente pesquisa realizada por Guedes et al., (2017) detectaram a infecção pelo ZIKA vírus em *Cx. quinquefasciatus* em ensaios laboratoriais e também em mosquitos capturados no campo. Contudo, outros pesquisadores consideram que a espécie *Cx. quinquefasciatus* é um mal vetor para o vírus ZIKA (Fernades et al., 2017; Epelboin et al., 2017; Lourenço-de-Oliveira et al., 2018)

## **2.3. Vetores mecânicos de doenças *Musca domestica* e *Chrysomya megacephala***

2.3.1. Distribuição, ciclo biológico da *Musca domestica* e sua importância médico-sanitária

A *Musca domestica* (Linnaeus, 1758), (Diptera, Muscidae) é um artrópode cosmopolita, que apresenta elevado comportamento sinantrópico e tem sido incriminada pela transmissão de mais de 60 categorias de patógenos para o homem, animais domésticos e silvestres (Britto et al., 2008). A relevância desta mosca não está relacionada, apenas ao fato dessa espécie ser vetor mecânico de doenças, frequentemente larvas dessa espécie podem causar miíases em animais e eventualmente no homem (Delshad et al., 2008). Assim, esta espécie apresenta grande interesse médico-sanitária (Couri et al., 2010; Fatchurochim et al., 1989).

Com relação ao ciclo biológico, cada fêmea de *M. domestica* deposita, em média, 120 ovos a cada postura. Após a eclosão das larvas é verificada a presença de três estádios larvais até tornarem-se pupas, que depois de um período de três a seis dias, em temperaturas ambientes elevadas, a mosca adulta emergirá. O ciclo completo de ovo a adulto **Figura 5** dura em média de 10 a 14 dias (Britto et al., 2008). Esta espécie se desenvolve em quase todos os tipos de matéria orgânica em decomposição ou fermentação, sendo considerado um inseto - praga devido às altas populações em que é encontrada, representando um importante problema de saúde pública (Fatchurochim et al., 1989; Mariconi et al., 1998).



**Figura 5.** Esquema representando o ciclo biológico (holometábolo) da espécie *M. domestica*. Fonte: As imagens do mosquito adulto, ovos, larvas e pupa foram obtidas pela internet.

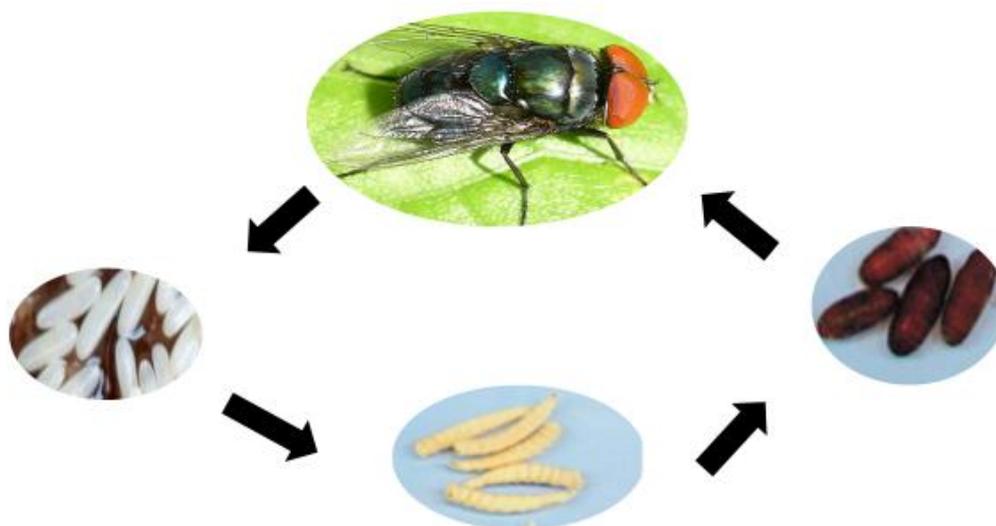
### **2.3.2. Distribuição, ciclo biológico da *Chrysomya megacephala* e sua importância médico-sanitária**

A *Chrysomya megacephala* (Fabricius, 1794), (Diptera: Calliphoridae) é uma espécie de moscas varejeira originária da África, Mediterrâneo e Oriente Médio (Gagné,

1981). Evidências faunísticas revelam que a chegada desta mosca no Brasil, na década de 1970, trazida em embarcações que transportavam refugiados do continente africano, animais domésticos e variados tipos de artigos alimentícios (Guimarães JH, Prado AP, 1979), encontrando-se, atualmente, em zona rural, urbana e florestal, predominando sobre outras espécies de califorídeos em diversas regiões do Brasil demonstrando elevado comportamento sinantrópico (Marinho et al., 2006).

A *C. megacephala* apresenta alto tropismo por matéria orgânica em decomposição, encontrada em aterros sanitários, cadáveres, lixos hospitalares, e exatamente, nesses ambientes, são escolhidos pelos machos para alimentação, e pelas fêmeas para alimentação e/ou ovipostura; por isso transportam vários microrganismos através de suas patas, atuando, desta forma, como vetores mecânicos de agentes patogênicos, como: enterovírus, bactérias entéricas, esporos de fungos, cistos de protozoários e ovos ou larvas de helmintos, (Monzon et al., 1991) além de eventualmente poderem causar miíases em animais e seres humanos (Fernandes et al., 2009) provenientes de locais próximos aos criadouros e ausentes de saneamento básico. Um fator positivo desta espécie está relacionado à sua importância na medicina forense (Chen et al., 2004).

Concernente ao ciclo biológico da *C. megacephala* é, também, um inseto que possui ciclo completo (holometábolo) com formação de ovo, larva, pupa e adulto (Herzog., 1992) **Figura 6.**



**Figura 6.** Esquema representando o ciclo biológico (holometábolo) da espécie *C. megacephala*. Fonte: As imagens do mosquito adulto, ovos, larvas e pupa foram obtidas pela internet.

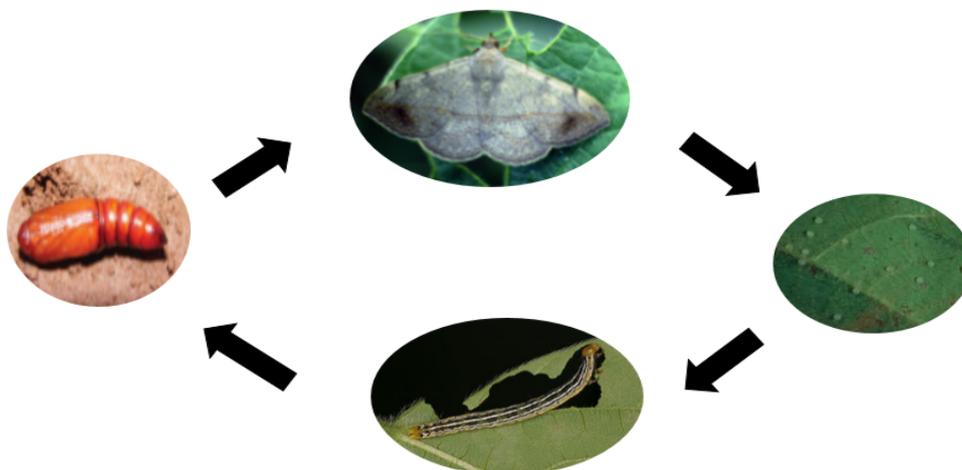
## 2.4. Insetos-pragas agrícolas

### 2.4.1. Distribuição, ciclo biológico da *Anticarsia gemmatalis* e sua importância na cultura da soja

A lagarta da soja, como é popularmente conhecida a espécie *Anticarsia gemmatalis* Hübner, 1818 (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) é a principal desfolhadora da soja no Brasil, sendo encontrada em todos os locais de cultivo, representando um risco às lavouras de soja e à qualidade da produção (Moscardi, F; Souza, 2002). Esse inseto tem capacidade de desfolhar e até destruir completamente a planta.

As fêmeas de *A. gemmatalis* fazem as posturas de seus ovos em período noturno de forma agrupada ou isolada em vários locais na planta: caules, ramos e nas folhas (Costilla, 1988; Gallo et al., 2002; Gazzoni & Yoriniori, 1995; Pratissoli, 2002). Após o término de incubação dos ovos, ocorre a eclosão das lagartas que passam a se alimentar de folhas (Gallo et al., 2002). Essa espécie pode apresentar de cinco a seis instares larvais; dependendo das condições ambientais, podem chegar a medir de 40-50 mm de comprimento (Costilla, 1988; Gazzoni & Yoriniori, 1995).

A fase pré-pupa dura em média dois dias, nesta fase, a lagarta não se alimenta. Na fase de pupa, que ocorre na seqüência e no solo, uma semana após emerge o adulto (Costilla, 1988; Gazzoni & Yoriniori, 1995; Pratissoli, 2002). Parte do ciclo de desenvolvimento deste artrópode está representado na **Figura 7**.



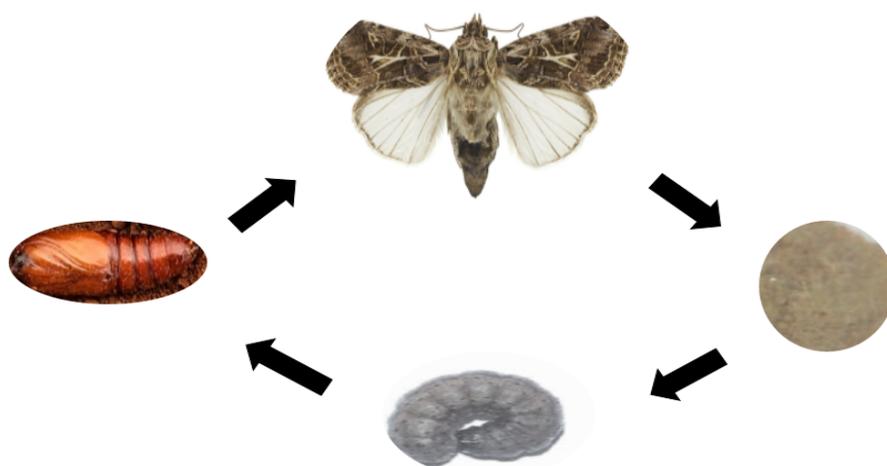
**Figura 7.** Ciclo biológico (holometábolo) do *A. gemmatalis*. Fonte: arquivo Embrapa.

### 2.4.2. Distribuição, ciclo biológico da *Spodoptera frugiperda* e sua importância na produção de milho e outras culturas

A lagarta-do-cartucho como é conhecida a *Spodoptera frugiperda* (J. E. Smith, 1797) (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) é a principal praga que ataca o milho no Brasil e em

algumas regiões, lagartas desta espécie, atacam, também, outras culturas como o plantio de arroz. Todas essas lavouras de significativa importância sócio-econômica para o Brasil (Cruz, 1995; Pulver, 2001; Viana & Costa, 1998). Essa espécie tem ampla distribuição em várias partes do mundo (Pogue, 2002).

O ciclo de desenvolvimento da espécie *S. frugiperda* é holometábolo compreendendo as seguintes fases: ovos, seis estádios larvais ou lagartas, pupas e adultos **Figura 8**. As lagartas de quinto e sexto instar são as que provocam maiores danos nos cartuchos e nas folhas do milho (Cruz, 1995).



**Figura 8.** Ciclo biológico (holometábolo) massa de ovos, lagarta, pupa e adulto da espécie *S. frugiperda*.  
Fonte: arquivo Embrapa.

## 2.5. Controle químico de artrópodes vetores de doenças e pragas agrícolas

O controle da espécie *Ae. aegypti*, nas fases imaturas, se faz por meio de organofosforados como o temefós; por análogos do hormônio juvenil como o piriproxifen (PPF) e pelo inibidor de crescimento diflubenzuron. Já para a espécie *Cx. quinquefasciatus*, nas fases larvais, o controle é feito, principalmente, utilizando-se *Bacillus sphaericus*. Para os adultos dos vetores biológicos o controle é feito com a pulverização do inseticida malathion, conhecido como “fumacê”. Para o combate de vetores mecânicos é amplamente recomendado o uso da cipermetrina. Para o controle de pragas agrícolas recomenda-se o uso de (Bti) contudo, ainda é ampla a utilização de organoclorados, organofosforados e piretroídes (Monnerat, 2007). No entanto, o uso de alguns desses produtos não tem alcançado o êxito esperado no controle das populações principalmente dos mosquitos (Marcombe et al., 2009). Outro fator importante a destacar é a resistência de populações desses insetos aos inseticidas utilizados (Marcombe et al., 2009; Moscardi & Souza, 2002).

Inseticidas como os organoclorados e organofosforados, por não possuírem aspectos seletivos e serem comprovadamente teratogênicos e carcinogênicos, podem causar muitos danos à população urbana, rural e grande impacto no ecossistema (Braga & Valle, 2007).

## **2.6. O *Anacardium occidentale* como alternativa estratégica e econômica para a Saúde Pública**

Inseticidas de origem botânica aparecem como alternativa no controle de insetos vetores de doenças por serem biodegradáveis, apresentarem especificidade e baixa toxicidade aos vertebrados (Carvalho, 2010; da Silva and da Silva, 1999; Ferreira de Carvalho et al., 2012; Guissoni et al., 2013).

O *A. occidentale* conhecido popularmente como cajueiro, pertencente à família Anacardiaceae árvore frutífera com amplo cultivo na região do Nordeste brasileiro (Mazzetto et al., 2009). Do beneficiamento de seu fruto, obtêm-se a castanha do caju, fator de grande importância socioeconômica para esta região (Cardoso et al., 1999). Curiosamente, são nos Estados dessa região que ocorrem as maiores incidências e prevalências de doenças transmitidas pelo *Ae. aegypti* e o *Cx. quinquefasciatus* (Rocha et al., 2000; Mattos & Dreyer, 2006), o que gera um prejuízo enorme para os cofres públicos, tanto no tratamento dos doentes quanto no combate aos insetos vetores.

Neste contexto, investigar os efeitos inseticidas das frações do *A. occidentale*, como o LCC *in natura*; o LCC técnico; o ácido anacárdico; o cardanol e o cardol, torna-se uma questão economicamente estratégica e viável, uma vez que são obtidos toneladas de possíveis inseticidas naturais quase sem custo no processo de produção da castanha do *A. occidentale* (Mazzetto et al., 2009), resultando numa economia incomensurável para os Estados do nordeste, maiores produtores da castanha e do LCC *in natura* no Brasil.

Deste modo, a possibilidade de utilização dessas frações, oriundas do beneficiamento da castanha do *A. occidentale*, novas estratégias com alta efetividade e baixo custo, podem se tornar realidade, diminuindo assim a aquisição de inseticidas químicos e/ou produtos advindos de controle biológicos que são igualmente caros para a Saúde Pública e, sendo frações de origem botânicas, menos prejudiciais aos seres humanos e a natureza.

Portanto, frações originárias do *A. occidentale*, surgem como possibilidade no combate a insetos vetores, já que diversas pesquisas com substâncias extraídas dessa planta foram publicadas com efeitos inseticidas apenas sobre a espécie *Ae. aegypti* (Farias et al., 2009; Guissoni et al., 2013; Torres et al., 2015), fazendo-se necessária a investigação dos efeitos vantajosos do *A. occidentale* no controle de outros insetos vetores biológicos, mecânicos e até mesmo pragas agrícolas que como os mosquitos, geram gastos para a economia brasileira pelo consumo indiscriminado de agrotóxicos químicos, ocasionando, assim, desequilíbrio no ecossistema e prejuízos à saúde humana.

### **3 JUSTIFICATIVA**

Devido ao uso indiscriminado de inseticidas como organofosforados (temefós) e cipermetrina para o controle de vetores de doenças, cepas de insetos *Ae. aegypti*, *Cx. quinquefasciatus*, *M. domestica* e *C. megacephala* tem apresentado resistências a estes inseticidas. A utilização desregrada de inseticidas no combate aos insetos – pragas *A. gemmatilis* e *S. frugiperda*, tem levado a um desequilíbrio ambiental e conseqüentemente aos seres humanos (Soares & Porto, 2007). A maior parte dos inseticidas químicos utilizados no controle de vetores são, comprovadamente, teratogênico e carcinogênico (Braga & Vall, 2007).

Produtos de origens botânica por serem biodegradáveis e apresentarem efeitos não biocumulativos, surgem como boas alternativas para insetos de importância médica, veterinária e agrônoma.

A necessidade de se investigar efeitos de não citotoxicidade de inseticidas naturais sobre células de mamíferos, se faz importante para a comprovação do aspecto seletivo destes produtos e por estes não prejudicarem o meio ambiente; a saúde humana; a saúde animal e a saúde ambiental.

### **4 OBJETIVOS**

#### **4.1. Objetivo geral**

- Analisar a mortalidade de formas imaturas das espécies *Ae. aegypti*, *Cx. quinquefasciatus*, *M. domestica*, *C. megacephala*, *A. gemmatilis* e *S. frugiperda* tratadas com frações do *A. occidentale* (Sapindales: Anacardiaceae).

#### **4.2. Etapas do trabalho**

- Realizou-se análise conformacional de moléculas do óleo de *A. occidentale* comparando-as às moléculas oriundas da indústria (fenol, resorcinol, ácido salicílico e pentadecano).
- Investigou-se, o efeito de citotoxicidade das frações do *A. occidentale* sobre células L6 originárias de mioblastos de ratos para avaliar a citotoxicidade e índice de seletividade das mesmas.
- Determinaram-se, as CL<sub>50s</sub> das frações do *A. occidentale* em condições de laboratório e de campo para o *Ae. aegypti* e o *Cx. quinquefasciatus* e, apenas, em laboratório sobre a ação ovicida dessas frações sobre *M. domestica* e a *C. megacephala* e atividade lervicida em (L1) e (L2) de *A. gemmatalis* e *S. frugiperda*.

## 5 MATERIAL E MÉTODOS

### 5.1. Obtenção do líquido da castanha do caju (LCC *in natura*)

O líquido da casca da castanha de caju LCC *in natura* bem como os produtos que dele derivam: ácido anacárdico, LCC técnico e suas frações: cardanol e cardol **Figura 9** foram fornecidos pelo Laboratório de Isolamento e Transformação de Moléculas Orgânicas LITMO do Instituto de Química da Universidade de Brasília UnB. A caracterização das moléculas foram feitas no mesmo laboratório. A metodologia de obtenção foi descrita abaixo seguindo protocolo padrão do laboratório LITMO.

#### 5.1.1. Separação dos componentes de (LCC *in natura*)

Para a aquisição do LCC *in natura* pesou - se aproximadamente 300g das cascas cortadas da castanha do *A. occidentale*. Estas, foram colocadas em extrator do tipo Soxhlet com 1L de etanol P.A. **Figura 9**. A extração aconteceu durante dois dias.

Para obtenção do ácido anacárdico pesou-se 30,02 g de LCC *in natura*, em um balão de fundo redondo de 500 mL, o LCC *in natura* pesado foi então solubilizado com 200 mL de metanol P.A. sob agitação. Após a dissolução, adicionou-se, sob agitação vigorosa 19,02 g de hidróxido de cálcio. Assim, a mistura foi submetida a aquecimento e permaneceu nessas condições por 2h45min.

Ao fim da reação, confirmada por placa de cromatografia em camada delgada (CCD), foi realizada uma filtração em funil sinterizado para a separação do anacardato de cálcio dos demais fenóis. O LCC técnico foi concentrado em um rota evaporador e na sequência pesado. Para aquisição do ácido anacárdico, utilizou-se 15,00 g de



**Figura 9.** Obtenção do LCC in natura e suas respectivas frações: LCC técnico, ácido anacárdico, cardanol e cardol

### **5.1.2. Bioensaios com larvas de terceiro instar (L3) e pupas das espécies *Ae. aegypti* e *Cx. quinquefasciatus***

As larvas (L3) e as pupas de *Ae. aegypti* e *Cx. quinquefasciatus* foram fornecidas pelo laboratório da EMBRAPA Recursos Genéticos e Biotecnologia (CERNAGEN).

### **5.1.3. Bioensaio com *Ae. aegypti* e *Cx. quinquefasciatus* em condição de laboratório**

As amostras foram pesadas e solubilizadas em dimetilsulfóxido (DMSO 1%), onde, separadamente, para cada fração se acrescentou água destilada até a obtenção de uma solução inicial de 100 mg/L. A partir dessa, foi realizada uma série de diluições até chegar a concentração de 5mg/L.

Utilizaram-se larvas e pupas de *Ae. aegypti* e *C. quinquefasciatus* em laboratório com temperatura regulada de  $25^{\circ}\text{C} \pm 2$ , umidade relativa de  $70\text{-}80\% \pm 10$  e fotoperíodo de 12 horas.

Os bioensaios foram realizados em copos de poliestireno com capacidade para 30mL para as larvas e 200mL para as pupas. Nesses recipientes foram inseridos 25mL de cada uma das soluções e 25 larvas, recém transformadas de L2 para L3 e pupas com menos de duas horas de transformação, os recipientes onde foram colocadas as pupas tiveram sua superfície coberta com organza para evitar fuga no caso de emergência do mosquito. Todos os experimentos foram acompanhados de controle positivo com Temefós 1mg/L e negativo (DMSO 1%), com volume ajustado com água destilada. Os ensaios foram realizados em triplicata para a obtenção do ajuste de dose e das concentrações letais ( $CL_{50}$ ). A mortalidade das larvas e pupas foi observada em 24h após o experimento.

Foram consideradas mortas as larvas e pupas que apresentassem escurecimento corpóreo seguidos de constatação de ausência de mobilidade.

### **5.1.4. Bioensaio com fenol, resorcinol, ácido salicílico e pentadecano**

Foram realizados, simultaneamente, bioensaios com fenol, resorcinol e ácido salicílico, devido à semelhança existente entre essas moléculas, com as moléculas obtidas do fracionamento do LCC *in natura*: cardanol, cardol e ácido anacárdico,

respectivamente, utilizando-se 25 larvas e pupas de cada espécie nas concentrações de 100 mg/L para as larvas e 300 mg/L para as pupas **Figura 1**.

#### **5.1.5. Bioensaio em condição de campo com frações do *A. occidentale* sobre larvas e pupas das espécies *Ae. aegypti* e *Cx. quinquefasciatus***

As frações foram pesadas e solubilizadas em (DMSO 1%), onde, separadamente, para cada amostra se acrescentou água destilada até a obtenção de uma solução inicial; para as pupas de 500 mg/L, seguidas de diluições seriadas de 450, 400, 350, 250, 200, 150 e 100 mg/L. Para as larvas a concentração inicial partiu de 100 mg/L em seguida foram feitas diluições em serie de 50mg/L, 25 mg/L, 15 mg/L e 05mg/L respectivamente. Foram monitoradas a temperatura e a umidade relativa do ar utilizando para isto termômetro e higrômetro, anotados os resultados diariamente até a constatação do fim do efeito residual das frações.

Os bioensaios no campo foram realizados na própria Embrapa (CENARGEN) as larvas e pupas de ambas as espécies, *Ae. aegypti* e *C. quinquefasciatus*, foram colocadas em copos de poliestireno com capacidade para 30mL para as larvas e 200mL para as pupas. Nesses recipientes foram inseridos 25mL de cada uma das soluções e 25 larvas (L3) de *Ae. aegypti* e *C. quinquefasciatus*, o mesmo número de pupas foi utilizado. Contudo, os recipientes onde foram colocadas as pupas tiveram sua superfície coberta com organza para evitar fuga de mosquito sobrevivente. Todos os experimentos foram acompanhados de controle positivo com Temefós 1 mg/L e negativo (DMSO 1%), com volume ajustado com água destilada para a obtenção do ajuste de dose da concentração letal (CL<sub>50</sub>), os ensaios foram realizados em triplicata.

Em cada recipiente, introduziram-se diariamente 25 larvas L3 e 25 pupas de ambas as espécies. Após 24h, eram contabilizadas e retiradas todas as larvas e pupas mortas, acrescentando em seguida novas larvas e pupas. Este procedimento se repetiu até que, cada uma das frações, perdesse sua capacidade larvicida e pupicida. Os dados obtidos foram submetidos à Análise de Variância (ANOVA), visando à comparação da incidência de mortalidade diária das larvas e pupas, sendo considerados significativos valores de  $p < 0,05$ .

#### **5.1.6. Obtenção dos ovos das espécies *M. domestica* e *C. megacephala***

As colônias de *M. domestica* e *C. megacephala* foram estabelecidas a partir de larvas e adultos coletados, com auxílio de iscas de carcaças de peixe e fígado bovino em

decomposição colocados no aterro sanitário da Cidade Ocidental de Goiás, cidade que faz parte do entorno de Brasília.

A coleta das larvas foi feita, retirando-as das iscas. Já a captura das moscas adultas foi feita por meio de armadilhas entomológicas, confeccionadas a partir de garrafas de Politereftalato de etileno (PET) onde foram colocadas, no interior dessas armadilhas, as iscas carcaça de peixe e fígado bovino em decomposição.

As moscas, depois de capturadas, foram devidamente identificadas. Assim, para a identificação da *M. domestica* utilizou-se o Manual de Identificação, Importância e Manutenção de Colônias Estoque de Dípteras de Interesse Veterinário em Laboratório, descritas por (Britto et al., 2008). Para a identificação da *C. megacephala* foi utilizada chave de identificação das espécies de Calliphoridae publicada por Carvalho & Ribeiro, (2000). Em seguida as moscas, de ambas as espécies, foram transferidas para gaiolas de madeira com (60 cm comprimento x 40 cm largura x 50 cm altura) revestidas nos lados de madeira e na face anterior e top com tela de náilon com abertura superior para permitir o manuseio dos espécimes, dos ovos e das larvas.

Como substrato para ovipostura, foi utilizado carne bovina moída em decomposição (cerca de 25,0 mg/recipiente), seguindo o protocolo de criação de (Estrada et al., 2009) com adaptações. Logo após a ovipostura, os ovos foram transferidos para outro envoltório com dieta que consistia de massas de ovos e carne em início de decomposição (carne bovina moída fresca, descongelada e mantida durante 12 dias em refrigerador a 12°C). Esta dieta foi depositada em recipientes plásticos com capacidade para 500 ml e introduzidas dentro de outro recipiente plástico com capacidade para 1000 ml, até a empupação.

#### **5.1.7. Bioensaios com *M. domestica* e *C. megacephala***

Os bioensaios foram realizados no laboratório de criação de insetos da EMBRAPA Cenargen, onde foi colocado 10g de dieta para cada espécie em copos de plástico com capacidade para 30mL, cobertas com tecido organza. Em seguida, foi feita a coleta dos ovos que foram transferidos para a dieta. Os bioensaios foram mantidos a  $25 \pm 2$  °C, UR de  $70 \pm 10\%$  e fotofase de 12h.

Para cada uma das amostras a serem testadas, preparou-se uma solução-mãe com LCC *in natura* com suas frações, ácido anacárdico, LCC técnico, cardanol e cardol que foram solubilizados em (DMSO 1%), onde se acrescentou água num volume suficiente para obter a concentração de 300 mg/L. A partir destas soluções uma série de diluições

foram preparadas a fim de se obterem concentrações menores de 250 mg/L, 200 mg/L, 150 mg/L, 100 mg/L, 50 mg/L e 25 mg/L e em seguida adicionou-se: 30 ovos de ambas as espécies de moscas, separadamente, sobre os recipientes contendo a dieta. As soluções foram pulverizadas sobre os ovos. Todos os bioensaios foram realizados em triplicata. As leituras da mortalidade foram feitas após 48h de exposição dos ovos às soluções. Os ovos que não apresentaram eclosão de larvas até o prazo de 48h foram considerados inviáveis. Todos os experimentos foram acompanhados de controles positivos com cipermetrina que foi diluída 3 ml em 1 litro de água, de acordo com a dose recomendada pelo fabricante, em seguida, pulverizada nas amostras com auxílio de pulverizador manual. O controle negativo foi utilizado o (DMSO 1%) contendo o mesmo número de ovos e o volume ajustado com água destilada.

As larvas que eclodiram dos ovos dos grupos tratamento, com LCC e suas frações, para ambas as espécies tiveram seu desenvolvimento monitorado para verificação de possíveis alterações no ciclo biológico.

#### **5.1.8. Aquisição das lagartas *Anticarsia gemmatalis* e *Spodoptera frugiperda***

As lagartas de *A. gemmatalis* e *S. frugiperda* foi fornecido pelo laboratório de criação de insetos da EMBRAPA Recursos Genética e Biotecnologia (Cenargen).

#### **5.1.9. Bioensaio com *Anticarsia gemmatalis* e *Spodoptera frugiperda***

Os bioensaios foram realizados utilizando lagartas L1 recém eclodidas e L2 recém-transformadas de *A. gemmatalis* e *S. frugiperda*. Todos os testes foram realizados em condições de laboratório com temperatura de  $25 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ , umidade relativa de  $80 \pm 5\%$  e fotofase de 14 h. As lagartas foram colocadas sobre 10g de dieta artificial específica para cada espécie, em copos de plástico com capacidade para 30mL, com tampa de acrílico seguindo seus respectivos protocolos (Greene et al, 1976). Em seguida, as frações do óleo do *A. occidentale*, foram pesadas e pré-solubilizadas em (DMSO 1%). Para cada uma das amostras a serem testadas preparou-se uma solução inicial na concentração de 800 mg/L e o volume ajustado com água e a partir desta solução uma série de diluições foi preparada a fim de se obter concentrações menores até chegar a concentração de 100 mg/L. Assim, após preparada às diluições, adicionou-se 20 lagartas L1 e L2 de cada espécie separadamente sobre as dietas e com auxílio de um pulverizador, seguindo o protocolo de (Monnerat et al., 2007), com adaptações, foi administrado às soluções por três vezes, com um intervalo de 4h entre cada

pulverização. Desta forma foi obtida a concentração letal (CL<sub>50</sub>). Todos os bioensaios foram realizados em triplicata. As leituras da mortalidade foram feitas após 72h, de exposição das lagartas às soluções. Todos os experimentos foram acompanhados de uma série de controle negativo e positivo contendo o mesmo número de lagartas e o mesmo volume de (DMSO 1%) para os controles negativos e (temefós 2 mg/L) para os controles positivos no mesmo intervalo de aplicações.

## 5.2. Análise da citotoxicidade

A atividade citotóxica *in vitro* foi realizada no Laboratório de Interação Parasito-Hospedeiro (LIPH), do Instituto de Ciências Biológicas (IB) da Universidade de Brasília (UnB).

O LCC *in natura* e técnico, ácido anacárdico, cardanol e cardol com seus componentes isolados foram testados sobre células L6 (derivadas de mioblastos de rato), empregando o ensaio fluorimétrico de AlamarBlue® (resazurina), de acordo com a metodologia descrita por (O'Brien et al., 2000), com modificações.

As células foram tratadas com concentrações dos extratos, partindo da concentração de 80 mg/L com diluições seriadas de 40, 20, 10 e 05 mg/mL. Inicialmente, os extratos foram diluídos em (DMSO 2%) e, em seguida, submetidos à sequência de diluição no meio de DMEM suplementado com 5% de soro fetal bovino (SFB) e gentamicina a 100mg/L. A concentração final de (DMSO) no meio de ensaio foi inferior a 1% (v/v). As amostras em cada concentração foram testadas em duplicata juntamente com o controle negativo (DMSO).

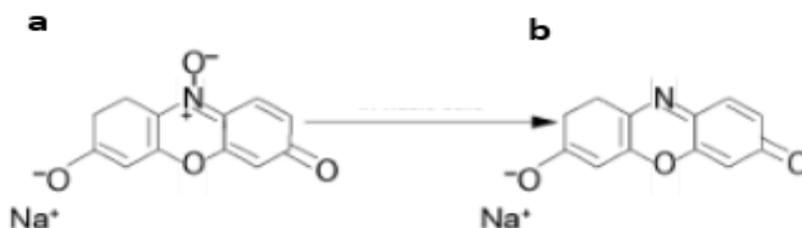
A suspensão celular de  $1 \times 10^6$  células/mL foi distribuída em placas de 96 poços, com 100 µL por poço. As placas foram incubadas a 37 °C em incubadora a 5% de CO<sub>2</sub> por 24h. Ao final desse tempo, o meio foi retirado e as células lavadas com tampão fosfato-salino (PBS) pH 7,2. Em seguida, foram adicionados em cada poço 180 µL de meio de cultura e 20 µL de solução da diluição dos extratos, incubando-se novamente as placas a 37 °C em mini incubadora a 5% de CO<sub>2</sub> por 24h. Decorrido esse período, o meio foi retirado cuidadosamente, sendo adicionado em seguida 20µL de Resazurina 2mM em cada poço. Envolveu-se a placa em papel alumínio e incubou-se novamente por 4h. Posteriormente foi realizada leitura de fluorescência correspondente a cada amostra, em leitor de microplacas (SpectraMax M5) nas seguintes condições: 570nm - comprimento de onda de excitação e 595nm - comprimento de onda de emissão. A

fluorescência obtida com as células controle não-tratadas foi considerada como 100% de viabilidade celular.

A porcentagem de células viáveis foi determinada pela equação:  $\%V = (100 \times Fa/Fc)$ . Em que: %V: porcentagem de células viáveis; Fc: fluorescência do controle; Fa: fluorescência da amostra analisada.

### 5.2.1. Ensaio Colorimétrico de Alamar Blue®

A resazurina, conhecido comercialmente por Alamar Blue®, é um indicador de oxidação-redução. A resazurina, forma oxidada do Alamar Blue®, apresenta como características importantes a ausência de emissão de fluorescência e coloração azul. Este composto pode ser reduzido intracelularmente, por células viáveis, a um composto conhecido como resorufina, cor rosa e fluorescente, o que permite uma avaliação da atividade celular metabólica **Figura 10**. Portanto, a análise da alteração de emissão de fluorescência ou coloração, por espectrofotometria do Alamar Blue é um método rápido, sensível e atóxico para analisar a viabilidade celular, contribuindo para a investigação de mecanismos de toxicidade de diversos compostos (O'Brien et al., 2000).



**Figura 10.** Teste de atividade celular (a) sal de sódio de resazurina fracamente fluorescente (b) sal de sódio resorufina fortemente fluorescente

### 5.3. Análises estatísticas

Os valores das concentrações letais (CL<sub>50</sub>) foram determinados pela análise de Probit. A diferença de mortalidade entre as substâncias testadas sobre cada espécie de vetores biológicos, mecânicos e pragas agrícolas foi verificada pela Análise de Variância, teste Tukey (ANOVA) pelo programa Graph PadPrism 5, ao nível de 5%. Para o teste de citotoxicidade CC<sub>50</sub> foi utilizado o teste de Scott-Knott, a 5% de significância pelo programa Graph PadPrism 6.

Os resultados e discussão bem como a conclusão deste trabalho estão apresentados nos artigos em anexos I e II.

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**Larvicidal and pupicidal activities of eco-friendly phenolic lipid products from *Anacardium occidentale* nutshell against arbovirus vectors**

George Harrison Ferreira de Carvalho<sup>1</sup>, Milene Aparecida de Andrade<sup>1</sup>, Carla Nunes de Araújo<sup>1</sup>, Maria Lucília Santos<sup>2</sup>, Natália Alves de Castro<sup>1</sup>, Sébastien Charneau<sup>3</sup>, Rose Monnerat<sup>4</sup>, Jaime Martins de Santana<sup>1\*</sup> and Izabela Marques Dourado Bastos<sup>1\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Pathogen-Host Interface Laboratory, Department of Cell Biology, University of Brasilia, Brasilia, Brazil

<sup>2</sup>Institute of Chemistry, University of Brasilia, Brasilia, Brazil

<sup>3</sup>Laboratory of Protein Chemistry and Biochemistry, Department of Cell Biology, University of Brasilia, Brasilia, Brazil

<sup>4</sup>Embrapa Genetic Resources and Biotechnology, Brasilia, Brazil

\*Corresponding authors:

Izabela M. D. Bastos – [dourado@unb.br](mailto:dourado@unb.br). Tel.: +55 (61) 98383-8905 and +55 (61) 3107-3051

Jaime M. de Santana – [jsantana@unb.br](mailto:jsantana@unb.br). Tel.: +55 (61) 98103-0880

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## Abstract

*Aedes aegypti* and *Culex quinquefasciatus* are vectors of diseases that constitute public health problems. The discovery of products capable of inhibiting their development which are less harmful to the environment would have a huge impact on vector control. Here, natural cashew nut shell liquid (CNSL), technical CNSL, anacardic acid, cardanol and cardol were isolated from *Anacardium occidentale* and evaluated for larvicidal and pupicidal activity against *Ae. aegypti* and *Cx. quinquefasciatus* under laboratory and field conditions. The activities of phenol, resorcinol, salicylic acid and pentadecane, commercial chemicals similar in structure to nut shell derivatives, were also evaluated. All of the fractions extracted from *A. occidentale* oil exerted larvicidal effects against both mosquito species ( $LC_{50}$  5.4 – 22.6 mg/L), and two of the aforementioned were effective against pupae ( $LC_{50}$  90.8 – 109.7 mg/L). Of all the fractions tested, cardol demonstrated the strongest larvicidal and pupicidal effects and presented the most prolonged residual activity against the larvae and pupae of *Ae. aegypti* and *Cx. quinquefasciatus* under field conditions. This study suggests that *A. occidentale* nut shell derivatives are sustainable and promising candidates for the development of novel insecticides to overcome the problem of harmful chemical insecticides.

**Keywords:** *Aedes aegypti*, *Culex quinquefasciatus*, insecticidal activity, cashew nut shell liquid (CNSL), field experiment, cardol, cardanol, anacardic acid

## Introduction

*Aedes (Stegomyia) aegypti* (Linnaeus, 1762) and *Culex quinquefasciatus* Say, 1823 (Diptera: Culicidae) are arthropods distributed in almost all continents, mainly in tropical and subtropical regions (Hennessey et al., 2015; Bhattacharya and Basu, 2016). *Ae. aegypti* is the main vector of dengue, urban yellow fever, chikungunya and currently zika in Latin America (Campos et al., 2015; Zanluca et al., 2015). In 2016, approximately US\$ 700 million from Brazil's gross domestic product (GDP) were expended on *Ae. aegypti*-borne arboviruses. *Cx. quinquefasciatus* is the main vector of *Wuchereria bancrofti*, the causative agent of lymphatic filariasis or elephantiasis. This disease poses serious public health problems in various continents, including South America, with the northeastern region of Brazil recording increased incidence and prevalence (Forattini et al., 1978; Rocha et al., 2000; Epelboin et al., 2017). Owing to the absence of vaccines, with the exception of yellow fever, and efficient therapeutics, vector control is the only current

efficient way to avoid these diseases. Existing control measures include preventing adult mosquitoes from biting human beings together with killing larvae, pupae and adult mosquitoes (Patil et al., 2010; Benelli and Duggan, 2018).

Investments in vector control have mainly focused on the acquisition of insecticides and larvicides, such as organochlorines, organophosphates, pyriproxyfen, and pyrethroids (cypermethrin and deltamethrin) growth inhibitor diflubenzuron and *Bacillus sphaericus*. Management of these synthetic insecticides requires constant monitoring because they are endocrine-disrupting chemicals (EDCs), and as such are harmful to urban and rural populations in addition to ecosystems. EDC exposure contributes to human diseases and dysfunctions by disrupting reproductive and sexual development, with a high prevalence of cryptorchidism and hypospadias documented in areas of extensive use (Carbone et al., 2006; Kristensen et al., 1997; Mnif et al., 2011). The risks associated with EDCs are regarded as a major global health challenge that cost more than 2% of the USA's annual GDP (Attina et al., 2016).

To avoid these problems, it is necessary to search for new alternative insecticides. In this context, substances of botanical origin emerge as an option to control these vectors, since some of them present biomolecules with proven entomopathogenic properties. Phytochemicals derived from plant sources can act as larvicides, insect growth regulators, repellents and oviposition attractants, playing an important role in the interruption of mosquito-borne disease transmission at both individual and community levels (Patil et al., 2010; Benelli and Duggan, 2018). These eco-friendly molecules are also attractive as they are biodegradable, selective and have a low environmental impact affording greater security to the population and are potentially suitable for use in integrated pest management programs. Furthermore, many such molecules can be obtained by synthetic approaches (Brogdon and McAllister, 1998; Silva et al., 2004; Braga and Valle, 2007; Pavela, 2015).

Studies of the nut shell derivatives of *Anacardium occidentale*, a native Brazilian plant belonging to the Anacardiaceae family, showed larvicidal effects against *Ae. aegypti* (Guissoni et al., 2013; Torres et al., 2015). A product named cashew nut shell liquid (CNSL) obtained from its fruit, designated natural CNSL, is a rich source of phenolic constituents such as anacardic acid, cardol and cardanol, which contain a side chain of 15 carbon atoms with different degrees of unsaturation (Oliveira et al., 2011). Thermal decarboxylation converts anacardic acid into technical CNSL, which is mainly composed of cardanol. Natural and technical CNSL, anacardic acids, cardol and cardanol have all been shown to have

high technological and therapeutic potentials (Wu et al., 2011). Moreover, CNSL constitutes 25% of cashew fruit weight and is a low cost product as it is wasted in processing (Mazzetto et al., 2009).

Thus, this study aimed to evaluate the insecticide effects of the fractions extracted from *A. occidentale* oil against larvae and pupae of *Ae. aegypti* and *Cx. quinquefasciatus* in laboratory and field bioassays. The activities of phenol, resorcinol, salicylic acid and pentadecane, commercial chemicals similar in structure to cardanol, cardol, anacardic acid and to the pentadecyl chain, respectively, were also evaluated.

## **Materials and methods**

### **Plant material and general experimental procedures**

A voucher specimen of the *A. occidentale* cashew nut (14334) was deposited in the Dardano de Andrade-Lima herbarium – Universidade Federal Rural do Semi-Árido, Brazil. Natural and technical CNSL, anacardic acid, cardanol and cardol were provided by the Laboratório de Isolamento e Transformação de Moléculas Orgânicas (LITMO) in the chemistry institute of the University of Brasilia.

Briefly, compound preparation was monitored using thin layer chromatography (TLC) analysis on F254/0.2 mm silica gel plates using the 4:1 hexane-ethyl acetate mixture as the eluent and visualized with sulfuric vanillin UV radiation. Chemical characterization was conducted by NMR spectra recorded on a Varian Mercury Plus (7.05 T) spectrometer, operating at 300 MHz and 600 MHz, using deuterated chloroform (CDCl<sub>3</sub>) as the solvent. High-performance liquid chromatography with diode array detection (HPLC-DAD) analyses of the natural CNSL and all isolated constituents were carried out on a Perkin Elmer modular quaternary pump at a pressure of 1130 psi, using a Supelcosil LC-18 column (150 mm x 4.6 mm, packed with 5 µm particle size). All of the samples were injected in 5 µL aliquots and eluted with an isocratic mobile phase of acetonitrile/ water Milli-Q/acetic acid 80:20:1 (v/v/v), at a flow rate of 1.5 µL/min and race time of 40 min. Column temperature was maintained at 25 °C with absorbance monitored at 280 nm (Santos and Magalhães, 1999). The chromatographic profiles of natural CNSL and each constituent, monitored at 280 nm, are presented in Online Resource 1. The CNSL composition comparison with the literature data is shown in Online Resource 2.

### **Natural and technical CNSL extraction and derivative isolation**

**Natural CNSL extraction:** Cashew nuts (263 g) of *A. occidentale* were cut into small pieces and extracted under reflux with ethanol (900 mL) continuously for 15 h in Soxhlet equipment. Following

filtration and evaporation of the organic solvents, the natural CNSL (65 g; 24.7% of the initial sample) was obtained and analyzed by TLC (Trevisan et al., 2006).

**Technical CNSL extraction:** Natural CNSL (65 g) was placed into a 100 mL flask fitted to a reflux condenser with a stirring plate and oil bath heating. The initial mixture was stirred vigorously and refluxed (180 °C), accompanied by TLC, until the entire anacardic acid mixture was consumed. After 12 h, the reaction mixture was adjusted to a vacuum distillation system (1 mmHg) and heated to boiling point. Two fractions of distillate were collected in the range of 180 - 220 °C. Both fractions contained yellowish oil, characterized by TLC as a phenol mixture, similar to the technical CNSL (32 g, 43%).

**Anacardic acid extraction:** In a 500 mL round bottom flask, 56.86 g of natural CNSL in 340 mL of acetone P.A. was dissolved under stirring. After dissolution, 34 g of calcium hydroxide was slowly added and vigorous stirring continued. The mixture was subsequently heated to 50 °C and the supernatant monitored by TLC to verify the absence of anacardic acids. At the end of the reaction, approximately 7 h later, the calcium anacardate precipitate was sintered into a funnel, washed thoroughly with 300 mL of acetone and vacuum dried. The filtrate was concentrated in a rotary evaporator to give 11.50 g of dark oil, a phenol mixture free of anacardic acid (similar to the technical CNSL). To obtain the anacardic acid, the calcium anacardate precipitate was resuspended in 230 mL of distilled water with 45 mL of 12 M hydrochloric acid added under stirring for 1 h. The resulting mixture was then extracted with 3 volumes of 100 mL ethyl acetate. The combined organic phase was washed with 3 volumes of 100 mL distilled water, dried with sodium sulfate, filtered and concentrated to provide 41.4 g of the anacardic acid mixture (72.8 %).

**Cardanol and cardol separation and purification:** The anacardic acid-free oil (similar to the technical CNSL) reserved in the above procedure, was impregnated on silica 60, and the mixture was fractionated by silica gel 60 (0.05 - 0.2 mm, column chromatography), eluted under suction by dry-flash column chromatography with a gradient of hexane: ethyl acetate at concentrations of: 2, 5, 10, 30 and 50% in 50 mL aliquots yielding, from 56.86 g of natural CNSL, 3.4 g (6.0%) of cardanol, 1.7 g (2.7%) of 2-methylcardine and 9.7 g (17%) of cardol.

#### **Larvicidal and pupicidal assays under laboratory conditions**

Third instar larvae and pupae of *Ae. aegypti* and *Cx. quinquefasciatus* were provided by EMBRAPA Genetic Resources and Biotechnology. Samples were brought to laboratory and maintained at  $25 \pm 2$  °C

with 70–80% relative humidity and a 12-hour photoperiod in 30 mL (larvae) or 200 mL (pupae) polystyrene cups containing distilled water.

The extracted dried and pre weighed anacardic acid, cardanol and cardol were solubilized in dimethylsulfoxide (1 % DMSO) and distilled water to an initial concentration of 100 mg/L, which were subsequently diluted to different concentrations down to 5mg/L. Higher concentrations were used for the natural and technical CNSL (from 500 mg/L). Twenty-five larvae or pupae of each mosquito species were added to 25 mL of each solution concentration. In addition, phenol, resorcinol, salicylic acid and pentadecane were also tested at 100 mg/L. The polystyrene cups containing the pupae were covered with organza to prevent mosquito escape in case of emergency. Temephos (1 mg/L) and 1% DMSO solution were used as positive and negative controls, respectively. The larvae and pupae mortality rates were calculated 24 h after the start of the experiment. The assays were performed in triplicate to obtain the dose setting and the LC<sub>50</sub>.

#### **Larvicidal and pupicidal assays under field conditions: residual activity of natural CNSL and its fractions**

The samples were weighed, solubilized in 1 % DMSO and distilled water to an initial concentration of 500 mg/L, followed by dilutions of: 450, 400, 350, 300, 250, 200, 150 and 100 mg/L for assays with pupae. For larvicidal assays, the initial concentration was 100 mg/L, followed by dilutions of 50, 25, 15 and 5 mg/L.

Field bioassays were carried out at Embrapa (CENARGEN). Thirty larvae or pupae of each mosquito species were added daily to the polystyrene cups, after removing and quantifying dead larvae and pupae. This procedure was repeated until each of the fractions lost its larvicidal or pupicidal capacity. Temephos (1 mg/L) and 1% DMSO solution were used as positive and negative controls, respectively. The assays were performed in triplicate.

The residual activity of natural CNSL and its fractions was evaluated by probit analysis (Finney, 1971). The median residual activity time (RT<sub>50</sub>) in days and 95% confidence intervals were recorded for each sample concentration assayed. The regression equation, slope, and chi-square were also estimated (Online Resource 6 and 7). Backtransformation of the data was performed to fit the proposed probit model (Throne et al., 1995) (Online Resource 8).

### **Cytotoxicity assays**

The nut shell derivatives were tested on L6 cells using the fluorimetric assay (Resazurin) according to the methodology described by (O'Brien et al., 2000), with modifications. The cells previously seeded into 96-well plates ( $5 \times 10^4$  cells/well) were treated for 24 h at 37 °C with sample serial dilutions from 40 mg/L in DMEM medium supplemented with 5% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and 100 mg/L gentamicin. The final concentration of DMSO in the assay medium was less than 1% (v/v). After this period, 20 µL of Resazurin solution (Sigma-Aldrich®) were added to achieve a 2 mM final concentration and the samples were incubated for a further 4 h at 37 °C. Cell viability was calculated by the mean fluorescence emitted at 595 nm (under excitation at 570 nm) recorded in the SpectraMax M5 microplate reader (Molecular Devices, Sunnyvale, CA, USA), compared to the untreated cell control.

### **Statistical analysis**

Data for the LC<sub>50</sub> and CC<sub>50</sub> were submitted to analysis of variance (ANOVA). The averages were then compared by the Scott-Knott test and regression, both 5 % probability. Mortality in the fractions of each species of biological vector was verified by analysis of variance (ANOVA), and the averages compared by Tukey's test (5 % probability). The graphs were constructed using the GraphPad Prism software (version 6.0).

### **Results and discussion**

#### ***A. occidentale* oil and its derivatives show larvicidal and pupicidal activities**

*A. occidentale* natural and technical CNSL, anacardic acid, cardanol and cardol activities were evaluated against larvae and pupae from *Ae. aegypti* and *Cx. quinquefasciatus*. All of these fractions were effective against larvae of both mosquito species, with LC<sub>50</sub> values varying from 5.4 to 22.6 mg/L. With regards to activity against pupae, the LC<sub>50</sub> values were higher, varying from 90.8 to 400.4 mg/L and no pupicidal activity was observed against *Ae. aegypti* and *Cx. quinquefasciatus* with cardanol treatment for 24 h for the concentrations tested. Anacardic acid and cardol demonstrated the most effective larvicidal and pupicidal activities against both mosquito species when compared to other fractions (Table 1). Moreover, the LC<sub>50</sub> of anacardic acid against *Ae. aegypti* larvae was lower than reported in the literature against this species (Guissoni et al., 2013; Torres et al., 2015) and against *Aedes fluviatilis* fourth instar larvae (Consoli et al., 1988). Cardanol and technical CNSL, which is mainly composed of cardanol, were similarly the less effective fractions against larvae and pupae (Table 1).

Temephos (1 mg/L) treatment resulted in 100% third instar larval mortality and 100% pupal survival for both *Ae. aegypti* and *Cx. quinquefasciatus*. Pupal resistance of vector mosquitoes to synthetic chemical insecticides such as Temephos was reported in the literature (Campos and Andrade, 2001; Marcoris et al., 2003; Carvalho et al., 2004) and is probably due to the large layer of chitin that forms the pupae exoskeleton. This layer prevents the mechanisms of action of the active components in Temephos. No larvae or pupae deaths were observed in the negative control groups (1 % DMSO).

Structure-activity relationships can provide important information about the possible mechanisms of action of *A. occidentale* oil derivatives against the larvae and pupae of *Ae. aegypti* and *Cx. quinquefasciatus*. Cardanol, cardol and anacardic acid share a phenolic core comprised of phenol, resorcinol and salicylic acid, respectively, to which a long hydrocarbon chain (C15, pentadecyl) is linked (Fig. 1). Chemically, resorcinol and salicylic acid basically consist of a benzene ring, hydroxyl group (phenol) and a substituent group of either hydroxyl (OH) or carboxyl (COOH). Pentadecane is a single unsaturated hydrocarbon chain basically consisting of carbon (C) and hydrogen (H) atoms. Bioassays using pentadecane and the three analogous cashew oil derivatives (phenolic compounds) were performed to evaluate which subunits were responsible for their larvicidal and pupicidal activities against both mosquito species.

Resorcinol, salicylic acid and pentadecane (at 100 mg/L) were responsible for approximately 30, 39 and 60 % of *Ae. aegypti* larvae mortality, and for 40, 48 and 55 % of *Cx. quinquefasciatus* larvae mortality, respectively. Phenol was considered inactive since it did not kill mosquito larvae from both species at the concentration tested. Only pentadecane showed pupicidal activity against *Ae. aegypti* (15% mortality) and *Cx. quinquefasciatus* (18% mortality) at 300 mg/L at 24 h (Fig. 2). There was no pupae mortality in the controls. These results show that both the phenolic moiety and the pentadecane chain from *A. occidentale* derivatives contribute to its larvicidal and pupicidal effects.

Scientific evidence suggests that the biological activity of phenol is increased with the addition of alkyl groups ( $-C_nH_{2n+1}$ ) in the aromatic system in which so-called phenolic lipids are formed. Increasing lipophilicity is important for the activity of compounds, since it renders them more amphiphilic (Kubo et al., 2003; Nagabhushana et al., 2002).

In addition, phenolic lipids such as resorcinol and other CNSL compounds (resorcinolic lipids) have the capacity to inhibit the growth of several microorganisms (Stasiuk and Kozubek, 2010). This

effect seems to depend on their interaction with proteins and/or membrane-disturbing properties due to their potentially strong amphiphilic character.

*Acacia nilotica* seed essential oil was tested for bioefficacy and demonstrated strong larvicidal activity with low LC<sub>50</sub> values (3.17 -5.24 µg/mL) against three major mosquito species, *Ae. aegypti*, *Cx. quinquefasciatus* and *Anopheles stephensi* (Vivekanandhan et al., 2018a). A petroleum benzene crude extract of *Acanthospermum hispidum* leaves showed the highest larvicidal and pupicidal activities against these three mosquito vectors (Vivekanandhan et al., 2018b).

### **Larval and pupal mortality assays under field conditions and residual activity evaluation**

Larval and pupal mortalities were measured under field conditions in the presence of different concentrations of the studied fractions. The residual activity of these fractions was also evaluated until 10 days after the onset of the experiment. Both natural and technical CNSL caused total larval and pupal mortalities after 24 h of exposure to the highest concentration tested for each stage (100 mg/L against larvae; 500 mg/L against pupae) (Fig. 3). A similar median residual activity time (RT<sub>50</sub>) of approximately 3.5 days was observed for both mosquitoes against larvae. Natural and technical CNSL RT<sub>50</sub> values were approximately 3.6 and 2.8 days, respectively, against pupae of *Ae. aegypti* and *Cx. quinquefasciatus* (Table 2). In addition, 100 mg/L natural CNSL showed total larvicidal activity after the second day. Following incubation with 50 mg/L natural CNSL, total larvicidal activity was also observed at 24 h, which persisted over 75% larvae for 48 h against both mosquito species (Online Resource 3), with an RT<sub>50</sub> of 1.94 and 1.90 for *Ae. aegypti* and *Cx. quinquefasciatus*, respectively (Online Resource 4). Thus, natural CNSL was shown to be more efficient than technical CNSL with regards to prolonged incubations under field conditions.

For anacardic acid, although all larvae died following 24 h exposure to 100 mg/L and 50 mg/L anacardic acid (Fig. 4), this compound presented a greater loss of residual activity during prolonged incubation under field conditions (Table 2, Online Resources 4 and 5). A similar loss of residual activity was reported against pupae, in which 100% mortality was observed only for 24 h at 300 mg/L. No larvicidal and pupicidal activities were observed against both mosquito species after three days.

The cardanol fraction induced total mortality of the larvae at 100 mg/L (Fig. 4) and showed an RT<sub>50</sub> against larvae from both *Ae. aegypti* and *Cx. quinquefasciatus* of approximately 3.7 days (Table 2).

However, similarly to laboratory conditions, this fraction showed no pupicidal effect against both mosquito species under field conditions.

The highest RT<sub>50</sub> against the larvae of *Ae. aegypti* and *Cx. quinquefasciatus* were observed for 100 mg/L and 50 mg/L cardol (Table 2, Online Resources 4 and 5). Concerning its pupicidal effect, this fraction showed a similar RT<sub>50</sub> to natural and technical CNSL and cardol in the highest concentrations evaluated. In the field, stabilization processes are required to avoid loss of efficiency against target pests (Pavela and Benelli, 2018). Encapsulation and nanoparticle synthesis are examples of such technology that could help prevent high degradation levels of the *A. occidentale* oil active compounds evaluated in this research. Regarding the use of nanoparticles, a number of nanomaterials have been reported to demonstrate toxicity against mosquito vectors and could act synergistically against target species. However, their impact(s) on non-target species and the environment must be evaluated (Benelli, 2018).

The cytotoxic effects of the five *A. occidentale* oil derivatives were tested on the L6 mammal cell line by using the resazurin assay. The compounds did not present cytotoxic activity under the conditions evaluated (Table 3). Phenolic lipids have been intensively investigated *in vitro* and *in vivo* as cytotoxic and antitumor agents. Results showed a lack of mutagenic, carcinogenic and cocarcinogenic effects, and protection of DNA against UV- and hydrogen peroxide-induced damage (Stasiuk and Kozubek, 2010; Xiu et al., 2014). Of the *A. occidentale* oil fractions tested, anacardic acid presented higher a higher antioxidant capacity compared to cardol and cardanol (Trevisan et al., 2006). Therefore, in addition to having high insecticidal power, these fractions are also antioxidants and effective in the fight against free radicals, proving to be innocuous to the health of vertebrates. Low acute toxicity for oral and dermal applications has been reported for some essential oils in non-target vertebrates (Pavela and Benelli, 2018).

The third instar larvae of *Ae. aegypti* and *Cx. quinquefasciatus* were more susceptible to the toxic effects of *A. occidentale* oil derivatives than the pupae of both species. This could be explained by the fact that these larvae feed on microplankton and organic matter present in water, ingesting the insecticide molecules as they feed (Arruda et al., 2003; da Silva and da Silva, 1999). As pupae do not feed, higher concentrations of active compounds are required in order to exert their toxic effect(s). There was no difference between the susceptibility of *Ae. aegypti* and *Cx. quinquefasciatus*, showing that these derivatives have potential for the development of a broad spectrum of insecticides against Culicidae.

The most common mechanisms of action of essential oils against insects are: inhibition of cytochrome P450, GABA receptors and acetylcholinesterases, and modulation of the octopaminergic system (Pavela and Benelli, 2018). *A. occidentale* oil fractions are mixtures of substances and individual compounds that may have different modes of action and mutual synergistic relationships, as previously observed for the aromatic compounds of some essential oils evaluated against *Cx. quinquefasciatus* larvae (Pavela, 2015). A more in depth evaluation of the mutual relationships of the individual compounds contained in the phenolic lipid products of *A. occidentale* nut shell is of great importance and can strengthen the prospects of *A. occidentale* oil derivatives as active ingredients in botanical insecticide production.

### **Conclusions**

Importantly, our results raise the possibility of using *A. occidentale* oil fractions in northeastern Brazilian states, together with countries considered major cashew nut producers such as India and Vietnam, which are also endemic for vector-borne diseases (Mutheneni et al., 2017; Dinh Pham et al., 2017; Pham Thi et al., 2017). Tons of CNSL are produced during cashew nut processing and consequently the oil fractions can be produced at a low cost (Mazzetto et al., 2009). Thus, in addition to the profits from cashew nut production in these regions, *A. occidentale* byproducts (oil derivatives) could also be employed to prevent *Ae. aegypti* and *Cx. quinquefasciatus* breeding. It is noteworthy that the northeast of Brazil was indeed the region directly affected with an outbreak of Zika from 2014 to 2016, with a significant number of infants reported with microcephaly (Guedes et al., 2017; Kraemer et al., 2015; Zanluca et al., 2015).

In conclusion, our study supports the promising insecticide potential of natural and technical CNSL, anacardic acid and cardol as sustainable materials that can be obtained from cashew nut shell recycling. These compounds constitute a potential tool to reliably manage arthropod pathogen vectors in an eco-friendly manner. Further studies are necessary in order to better elucidate their mechanisms of action and their possible effects on the environment. Standardization of *A. occidentale* oil derivative extraction and bioactivity evaluation methods, as well as field trials, stability and efficacy demonstrations, not to mention regulatory approval, are imperative if these natural compounds are to be used in the production of botanical insecticides (Isman, 2006; Isman, 2017). Moreover, to develop these study results into a practical application and contribute to the One Health worldwide strategy, which aims at expanding interdisciplinary communication and collaboration in all aspects of healthcare for humans, animals and

the environment (Benelli, 2018), closer cooperation between academia and manufacturers remains a challenge.

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## Compliance with ethical standards

**Conflict of Interest** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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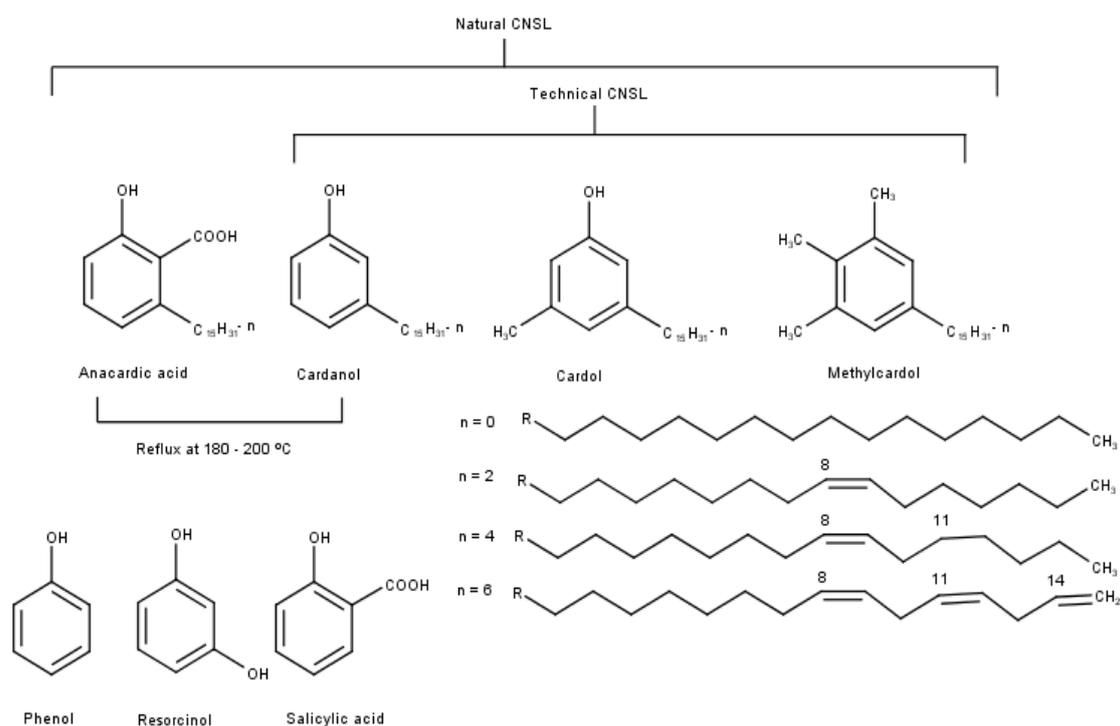
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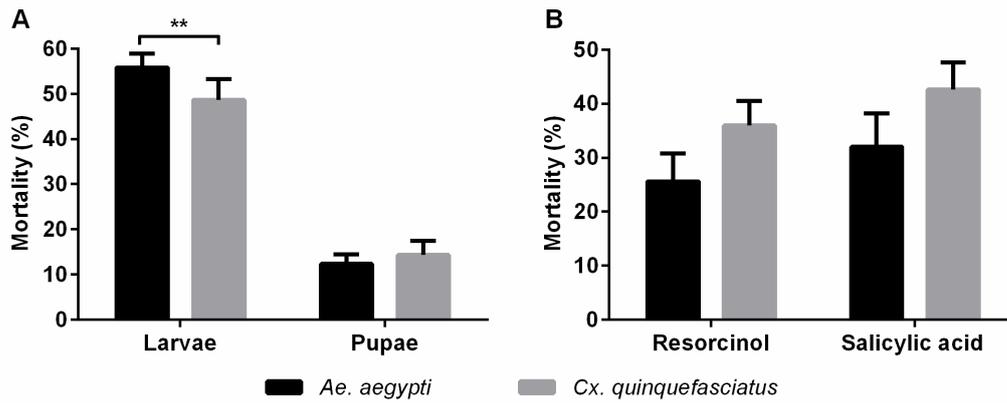
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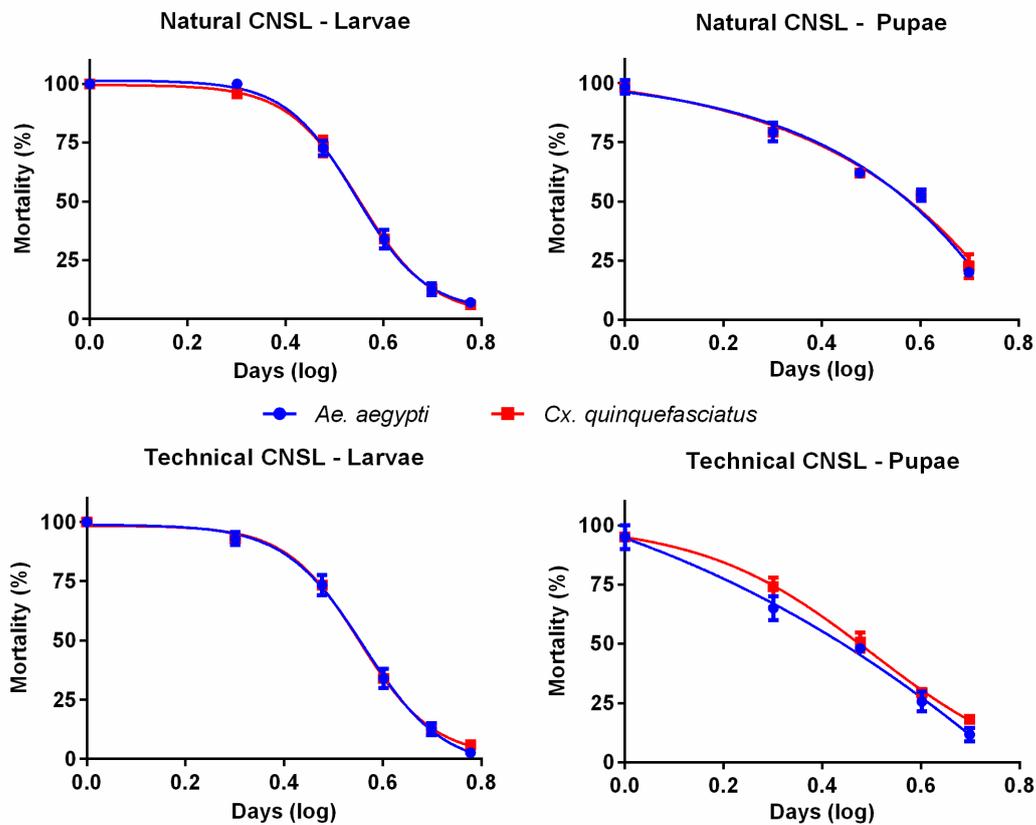
## Figure Legen



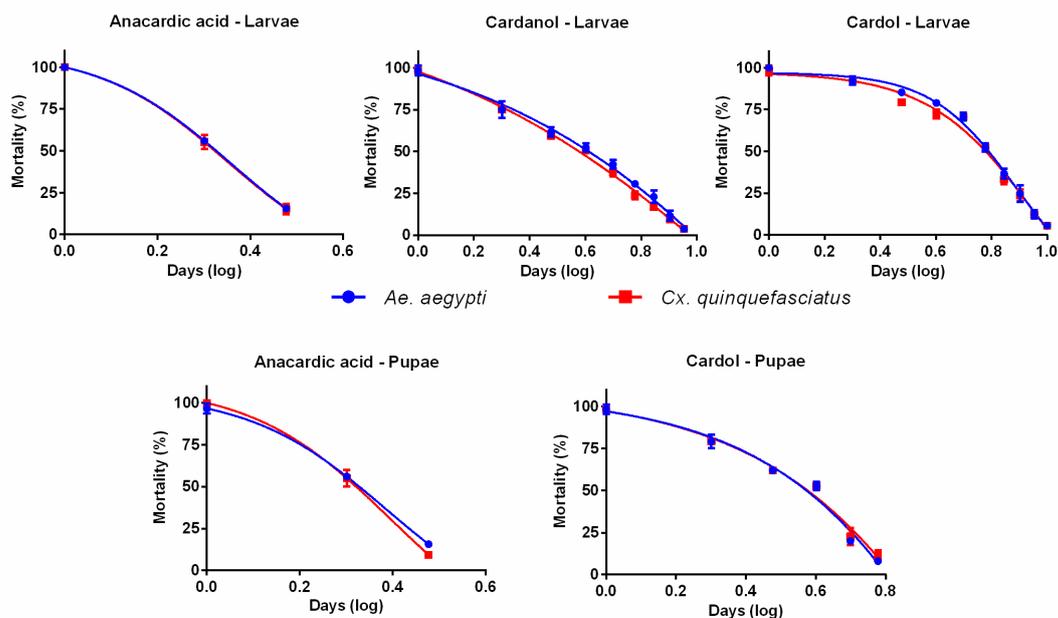
**Fig. 1** Structural representation of the organic molecules extracted from natural cashew nut shell liquid (CNSL) and the commercial compounds: salicylic acid, phenol and resorcinol which are structurally similar to anacardic acid, cardanol and cardol, respectively.



**Fig. 2** Phenol, resorcinol, salicylic acid and pentadecane activities against *Aedes aegypti* and *Culex quinquefasciatus*. (a) Pentadecane activity against larvae and pupae of *Ae. aegypti* (black) and *Cx. quinquefasciatus* (gray); (b) Resorcinol and salicylic acid activity against larvae of *Ae. aegypti* (black) and *Cx. quinquefasciatus* (gray). Compounds were assayed at 100 mg/L against larvae and 300 mg/L against pupae for 24 h. Bars indicate the standard deviation of triplicate determinations. ANOVA with *post hoc* Tukey test indicates a significant difference between groups (\*\*  $p < 0.01$ ).



**Fig. 3** Residual larvicidal and pupicidal activities of natural and technical CNSL from *Anacardium occidentale* nut shell tested against *Aedes aegypti* and *Culex quinquefasciatus* under field conditions. The assay was carried out as described in the Material and Methods section. Standard curve and points correspond to *Ae. aegypti* (blue) or *Cx. quinquefasciatus* (red). Bars indicate the standard deviation of triplicate determinations.



**Fig. 4** Residual larvicidal and pupicidal activities of anacardic acid, cardanol and cardol from *Anacardium occidentale* nut shell tested against *Aedes aegypti* and *Culex quinquefasciatus* under field conditions. Standard curve and points correspond to *Ae. aegypti* (blue) or *Cx. quinquefasciatus* (red). Bars indicate the standard deviation of triplicate determinations.

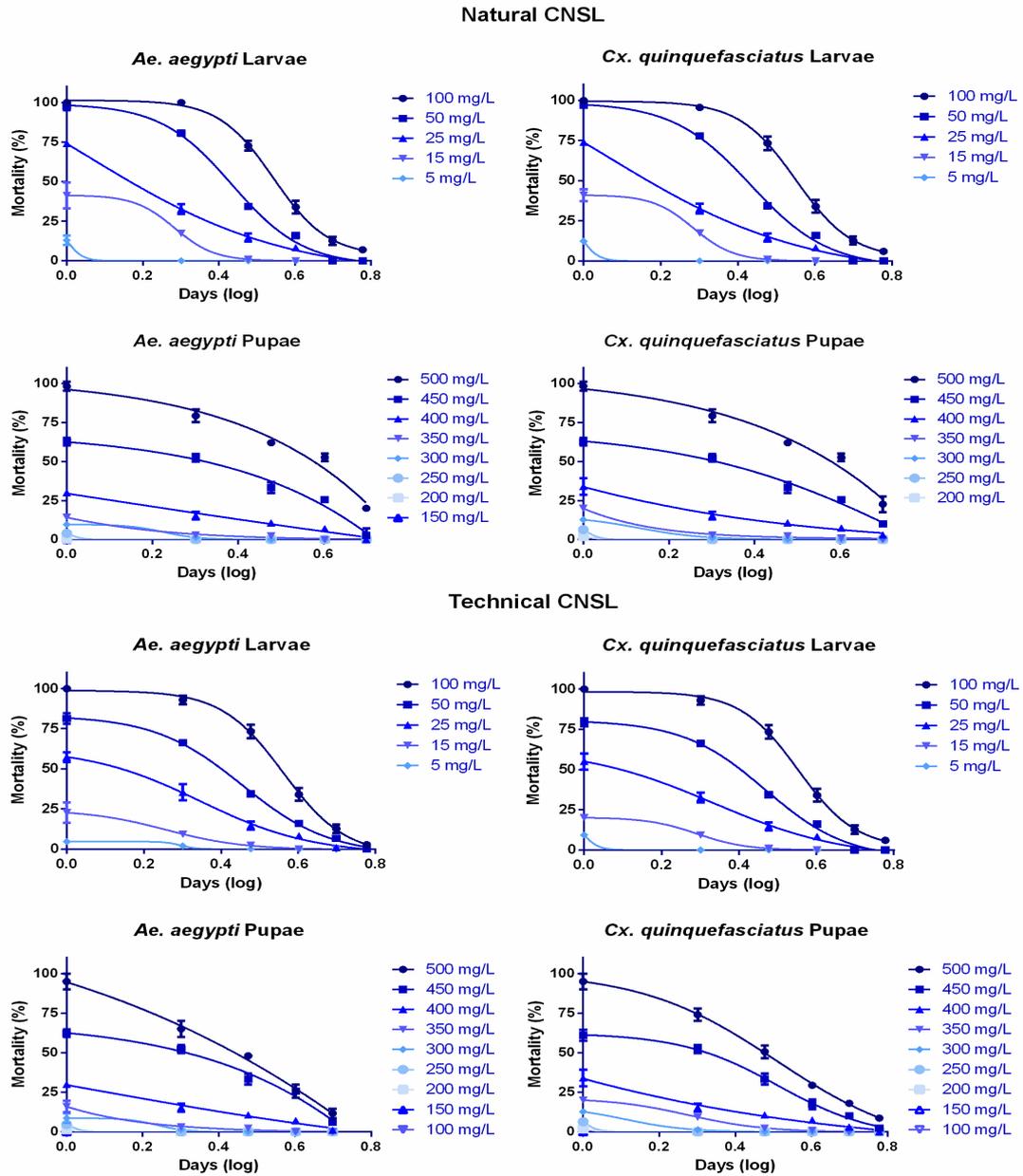
### Electronic Supplementary Material

**Online Resource 1: Fig. S1** Chromatographic profile of a natural CNSL mixture monitored at 280 nm for its constituents: anacardic acid, cardanol, cardol, and methylcardol. The natural CNSL profile demonstrated the presence of cardol (I); cardanol (II); anacardic acids - triene (III), diene (IV) and monoene (V).

**Online Resource 2: Table S1** CNSL sample composition and comparison with literature data.

<b>Sample</b>	<b>Literature % Yield</b>	<b>Experimental % yield</b>
Anacardic acid	71.70 – 82.00	72.8
Cardol	13.80 – 20.10	17
Cardanol	1.60 – 9.20	6.0
2-Methylcardol	1.65 – 3.90	2.7
Technical CNSL (*)	67.82 – 94.60	98 (mainly cardanol)

(\*) Technical CNSL obtained by a thermal process, refluxing of natural CNSL oil at 180 °C for 4h, followed by distillation carried out at approximately 200 °C to 240 °C under reduced pressure of 2 mmHg. The resulting chromatographic profile was very similar that of the isolated cardanol shown in Figure S1.

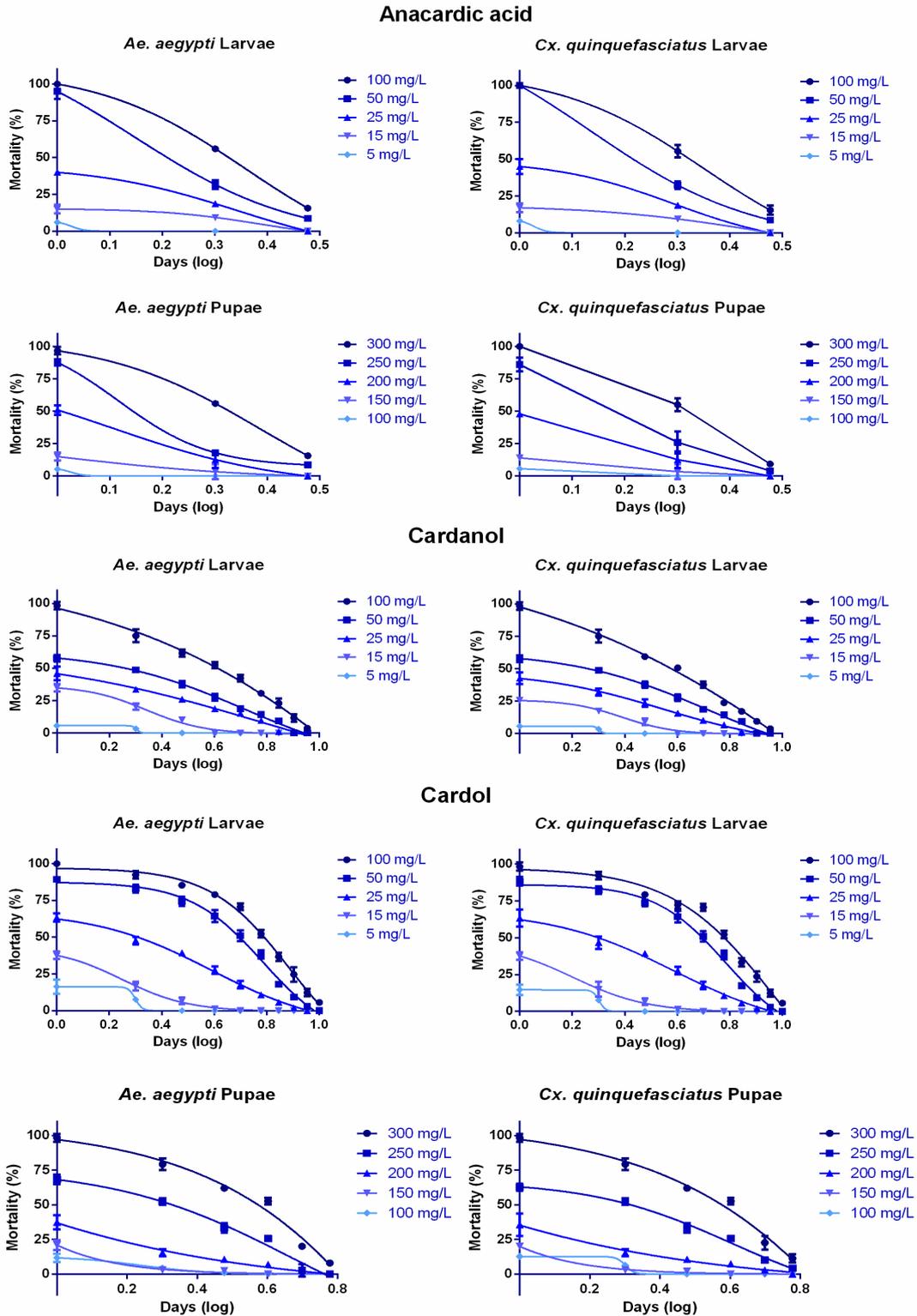


**Online Resource 3: Fig. S2** Residual larvicidal and pupicidal activities of natural and technical CNSL from *Anacardium occidentale* nut shell against *Aedes aegypti* and *Culex quinquefasciatus*. Data are represented by points over a standard sigmoidal curve produced by GraphPad Prism. Colors indicate different concentrations. Bars indicate the standard deviation of triplicate determinations.

**Online Resource 4: Table S2** Median residual activity time of each compound at different concentrations and life stage.

Stage	Sample	Concentration (mg/L)	RT <sub>50</sub> (days ± SD)*	
			<i>Ae. aegypti</i>	<i>Cx. quinquefasciatus</i>
L3	Natural CNSL	100	3.49 ± 1.31	3.40 ± 1.30
		50	1.94 ± 1.31	1.90 ± 1.30
		25	0.92 ± 1.22	0.92 ± 1.22
		15	0.40 ± 1.20	0.40 ± 1.19
	Technical CNSL	100	3.29 ± 1.31	3.35 ± 1.30
		50	1.63 ± 1.22	1.55 ± 1.23
		25	0.78 ± 1.16	0.73 ± 1.16
		15	0.21 ± 1.15	0.18 ± 1.14
	Anacardic acid	100	2.33 ± 1.43	2.30 ± 1.43
		50	1.51 ± 1.47	1.61 ± 1.51
		25	0.48 ± 1.21	0.53 ± 1.24
		15	0.16 ± 1.16	0.18 ± 1.16
	Cardanol	100	3.32 ± 1.13	2.99 ± 1.14
		50	1.30 ± 1.10	1.30 ± 1.09
		25	0.81 ± 1.08	0.70 ± 1.08
		15	0.37 ± 1.13	0.28 ± 1.11
	Cardol	100	5.75 ± 1.17	5.36 ± 1.16
		50	3.55 ± 1.17	3.51 ± 1.16
25		1.27 ± 1.10	1.26 ± 1.10	
15		0.36 ± 1.13	0.35 ± 1.13	
Pupae	Natural CNSL	500	4.22 ± 1.20	4.32 ± 1.19
		450	1.44 ± 1.14	1.52 ± 1.10
		400	0.37 ± 1.08	0.42 ± 1.08
		350	0.12 ± 1.14	0.17 ± 1.17
	Technical CNSL	500	2.50 ± 1.21	2.55 ± 1.20
		450	1.47 ± 1.12	1.28 ± 1.13
		400	0.37 ± 1.07	0.40 ± 1.10
		350	0.13 ± 1.17	0.19 ± 1.12
	Anacardic acid**	300	2.24 ± 1.40	2.13 ± 1.48
		250	1.17 ± 1.47	1.21 ± 1.46
		200	0.55 ± 1.32	0.52 ± 1.30
		300	3.40 ± 1.22	3.53 ± 1.20
Cardol	250	1.36 ± 1.16	1.39 ± 1.12	
	200	0.42 ± 1.12	0.41 ± 1.11	

\* Median residual activity time (RT<sub>50</sub>) – time required to reduce larvicidal and pupicidal capacity by 50 %, SD – standard deviation, L3 – third instar larvae. \*\* Anacardic acid in pupae life stage was assayed only for 3 days and the RT<sub>50</sub> represented here is approximate, but the 3 data points are insufficient to determine the value. RT<sub>50</sub> from Larvae stages for 5 mg/L concentration, Pupae stage of Natural and Technical CNSL for 300 to 100 mg/L and Pupae stage of Anacardic acid and Cardol for 150 and 100 mg/L were omitted from the table because of their low values. Results were obtained with GraphPad Prism 6.0 program.



**Online Resource 5: Fig. S3** Residual larvicidal and pupicidal activities of anacardic acid, cardanol and cardol from *Anacardium occidentale* nut shell against *Aedes aegypti* and *Culex quinquefasciatus*. Data are represented by points over a standard sigmoidal curve produced by GraphPad Prism. Colors indicate different concentrations. Bars indicate the standard deviation of triplicate determinations.

**Online Resource 6: Table S3** Larvicidal and pupicidal activities of *Anacardium occidentale* oil derivatives after 24 h exposure period on larvae and pupae of *Aedes aegypti*.

Stage	Sample	LC <sub>50</sub> (LCL-UCL) mg/L <sup>+</sup>	Slope	Regression Equation	χ <sup>2</sup>	df	p
<b>L3</b>	Natural CNSL	7.84 (6.67 – 9.20)	4.09	y = 4.09x + 1.35	2.26	3	0.520 (n.s.)
	Technical CNSL	19.76 (15.00 – 26.02)	2.90	y = 2.90x + 1.24	8.20	2	0.016 *
	Anacardic acid	5.93 (4.41 – 7.98)	3.13	y = 3.13x + 2.58	1.92	2	0.383 (n.s.)
	Cardanol	20.32 (15.51 – 26.61)	2.90	y = 2.90x + 1.21	9.23	2	0.010 **
	Cardol	6.14 (4.50 – 8.38)	2.91	y = 2.91x + 2.70	3.25	2	0.197 (n.s.)
<b>Pupae</b>	Natural CNSL	338.28 (284.06 – 402.86)	3.77	y = 3.77x – 4.55	13.14	2	0.001 ***
	Technical CNSL	390.70 (343.46 – 444.44)	5.00	y = 5.00x – 7.96	7.63	3	0.054 (n.s.)
	Anacardic acid	109.66 (90.18 – 133.36)	3.56	y = 3.56x – 2.27	12.60	2	0.002 **
	Cardol	90.76 (71.74 – 114.81)	3.01	y = 3.01x – 0.89	10.07	2	0.007 **

<sup>+</sup> LC<sub>50</sub> – lethal concentration required to kill 50 % of the larvae and pupae, mg/L - milligrams per liter, L3 – third instar larvae, UCL – upper confidence limit (95%), LCL – lower confidence limit (95%), Regression equation – according to probit analysis, df – degrees of freedom, , p – p value, n.s. – not significant, \* p < 0.05, \*\* p < 0.01, \*\*\* p < 0.001. Results were obtained by probit analysis.

**Online Resource 7: Table S4** Larvicidal and pupicidal activities of *Anacardium occidentale* oil derivatives after 24 h exposure period on larvae and pupae of *Culex quinquefasciatus*.

Stage	Sample	LC <sub>50</sub> (LCL-UCL) mg/L <sup>+</sup>	Slope	Regression Equation	χ <sup>2</sup>	df	p
<b>L3</b>	Natural CNSL	7.09 (5.78 – 8.70)	4.11	y = 4.11x + 1.51	1.57	2	0.456 (n.s.)
	Technical CNSL	22.64 (17.92 – 28.60)	3.23	y = 3.23x + 0.62	5.53	2	0.063 (n.s.)
	Anacardic acid	5.36 (3.82 – 7.51)	3.02	y = 3.02x + 2.80	1.46	2	0.482 (n.s.)
	Cardanol	19.93 (15.13 – 26.26)	2.91	y = 2.91x + 1.21	8.43	2	0.015 *
	Cardol	6.70 (5.02 – 8.94)	2.92	y = 2.92x + 2.59	4.40	2	0.111 (n.s.)
<b>Pupae</b>	Natural CNSL	350.17 (293.63 – 417.58)	3.75	y = 3.75x – 4.54	7.48	2	0.023 *
	Technical CNSL	400.42 (347.77 – 461.05)	4.65	y = 4.65x – 7.11	8.74	3	0.033 *
	Anacardic acid	105.00 (86.08 – 128.10)	3.53	y = 3.53x – 2.14	11.18	2	0.004 **
	Cardol	96.60 (75.82 – 123.06)	2.79	y = 2.79x – 0.54	13.87	2	0.001 ***

<sup>+</sup> LC<sub>50</sub> – lethal concentration required to kill 50 % of the larvae and pupae, mg/L - milligrams per liter, L3 – third instar larvae, UCL – upper confidence limit (95%), LCL – lower confidence limit (95%), Regression equation – according to probit analysis, df – degrees of freedom, *p* – *p* value, n.s. – not significant, \* *p* < 0.05, \*\* *p* < 0.01, \*\*\* *p* < 0.001. Results were obtained by probit analysis.

**Online Resource 8: Table S5** Backtransformation of the data performed to fit the proposed probit model.

Stage	Species	Sample	$\chi^2$	df	<i>p</i>
L3	<i>Ae. aegypti</i>	Technical CNSL	1.64	2	0.44 (n.s.)
		Cardanol	2.33	2	0.31 (n.s.)
	<i>Cx. quinquefasciatus</i>	Cardanol	1.69	2	0.43 (n.s.)
Pupae	<i>Ae. aegypti</i>	Natural CNSL	8.84	2	0.01 *
		Anacardic acid	2.30	2	0.32 (n.s.)
		Cardol	1.91	2	0.38 (n.s.)
	<i>Cx. quinquefasciatus</i>	Natural CNSL	5.63	2	0.06 (n.s.)
		Technical CNSL	8.95	3	0.03 *
		Anacardic acid	1.86	2	0.39 (n.s.)
		Cardol	2.82	2	0.24 (n.s.)

<sup>+</sup> n = 25 individuals per replicate, L3 – third instar larvae, mg/L - milligrams per liter, chi square ( $\chi^2$ ) from proportion values obtained from predicted probit regression equations (predicted proportion – calculated using J. E. Throne backtransformation program; residual – observed minus predicted; standardized residual – residuals divided by their standard errors), n.s. – not significant, \* *p* < 0.05.

#### Tables:

**Table 1** Larvicidal and pupicidal activities of *Anacardium occidentale* oil derivatives after 24 h exposure period on larvae and pupae of *Aedes aegypti* and *Culex quinquefasciatus*.

Stage	Sample	LC <sub>50</sub> (LCL-UCL) mg/L*	
		<i>Ae. aegypti</i>	<i>Cx. quinquefasciatus</i>
L3	Natural CNSL	7.84 (6.67 – 9.20)a**	7.09 (5.78 – 8.70)a
	Technical CNSL	19.76 (15.00 – 26.02)b	22.64 (17.92 – 28.60)b
	Anacardic acid	5.93 (4.41 – 7.98)a	5.36 (3.82 – 7.51)a
	Cardanol	20.32 (15.51 – 26.61)b	19.93 (15.13 – 26.26)b
	Cardol	6.14 (4.50 – 8.38)a	6.70 (5.02 – 8.94)a
Pupae	Natural CNSL	338.28 (284.06 – 402.86)B	350.17 (293.63 – 417.58)B
	Technical CNSL	390.70 (343.46 – 444.44)B	400.42 (347.77 – 461.05)B
	Anacardic acid	109.66 (90.18 – 133.36)A	105.00 (86.08 – 128.10)A
	Cardanol	--	--
	Cardol	90.76 (71.74 – 114.81)A	96.60 (75.82 – 123.06)A

\* LC<sub>50</sub> – lethal concentration required to kill 50 % of the larvae and pupae, mg/L - milligrams per liter,

L3 - third instar larvae, (--) - Absence of mortality among conditions tested, UCL – upper confidence

limit (95%), LCL – lower confidence limit (95%). All results were obtained by probit analysis. \*\*Means followed by the same lower case or capital letter in the same column did not differ from each other by the ANOVA and Tukey’s test;  $p < 0.05$ .

**Table 2** Median residual activity time of each compound tested at the highest concentrations on different life stages of *Aedes aegypti* and *Culex quinquefasciatus*.

Stage	Sample	RT <sub>50</sub> (LCL-UCL) days*	
		<i>Ae. aegypti</i>	<i>Cx. quinquefasciatus</i>
L3	Natural CNSL	3.55 (3.28 – 3.85)b**	3.49 (3.21 – 3.79)b
	Technical CNSL	3.41 (3.13 – 3.72)b	3.44 (3.16 – 3.76)b
	Anacardic acid	2.13 (1.90 – 2.39)a	2.11 (1.89 – 2.37)a
	Cardanol	3.84 (3.37 – 4.37)b	3.63 (3.19 – 4.12)b
	Cardol	5.57 (5.08 – 6.11)c	5.34 (4.83 – 5.89)c
Pupae	Natural CNSL	3.54 (3.06 – 4.09)B	3.59 (3.09 – 4.16)B
	Technical CNSL	2.67 (2.32 – 3.07)A	2.89 (2.53 – 3.29)B
	Anacardic acid**	2.08 (1.84 – 2.35)A	2.06 (1.86 – 2.29)A
	Cardol	3.40 (3.02 – 3.83)B	3.47 (3.07 – 3.92)B

\* Median residual activity time (RT<sub>50</sub>) – time required to reduce larvicidal and pupicidal capacity by 50 %, SD – standard deviation, L3 – third instar larvae, UCL – upper confidence limit (95%), LCL – lower confidence limit (95%). \*\* Anacardic acid in pupae life stage were assayed only for 3 days and RT<sub>50</sub> represented here are suggestive, but the 3 data points were insufficient to determine that value. Concentrations were 100 mg/L for all compounds on L3 experiments. On pupae, concentrations were 500 mg/L for Natural and Technical CNSL, and 300 mg/L for Anacardic acid and Cardol. Results were obtained by probit analysis. \*\*Means followed by the same lower case or capital letter in the same column did not differ from each other by the ANOVA and Tukey’s test;  $p < 0.05$ .

**Table 3** Percentage of viable L6 cells after 24 hours of contact with the extracts.

<b>Concentration</b> (mg/L)	<b>Extract*</b>				
	<b>Natural CNSL</b>	<b>Technical CNSL</b>	<b>Anacardic acid</b>	<b>Cardanol</b>	<b>Cardol</b>
0	99.31a**	99.31a	99.31a	99.31a	99.30a
5	99.74a	100.00a	98.61a	98.50a	100.00a
10	98.97a	99.91a	99.74a	99.61a	99.93a
20	99.81a	99.81a	93.27a	77.42a	99.62a
40	99.97a	100.00a	90.92a	73.55a	98.80a
<b>CC<sub>50</sub>/24h***</b>					
(µg/mL)	NI****	NI	NI	NI	NI

\*The control (DMSO) showed 100% viability at all concentrations tested. \*\* Means followed by the same letter in the same column were not different from each other according to the Scott-Knott test at 5% significance. \*\*\* CC<sub>50</sub> /24h = Concentration giving 50% of the viable cells L6. \*\*\*\* NI: inhibition observed in the evaluated concentrations.

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**Ovicidal and developmental effects of cashew (*Anacardium occidentale*) nut shell oil and its fractions on *Musca domestica*, *Chrysomya megacephala*, *Anticarsia gemmatalis* and *Spodoptera frugiperda***

George Harrison Ferreira de Carvalho<sup>a</sup>, Maria Lucília dos Santos<sup>b</sup>, *Rose Monnerat*<sup>c</sup>, Milene Aparecida Andrade<sup>a</sup>, Marina Gonçalves de Andrade<sup>a</sup>, Alessandra Barbosa dos Santos<sup>d</sup>, Izabela Dourado Bastos<sup>a\*</sup>, Jaime Martins de Santana<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Pathogen-Host Interface Laboratory, Department of Cell Biology, University of Brasilia, Brasilia, Brazil.

<sup>b</sup>Institute of Chemistry, University of Brasilia, Brasilia, Brazil

<sup>c</sup>Embrapa Recursos Genéticos e Biotecnologia, Brasília, Brazil

<sup>d</sup>Centro Universitário de Brasília IESB, Brasília, Brazil

\* Corresponding author. E-mail: [dourado@unb.br](mailto:dourado@unb.br)

**Abstract**

In this work we evaluated the ovicidal activity and the deleterious effects of cashew (*Anacardium occidentale*) nut shell oil and its fractions on the development of *Musca domestica* and *Chrysomya megacephala*, important mechanical vectors of several human and animal diseases. The insecticidal effects of this plant were also measured on first and second instar larvae of *Anticarsia gemmatalis* and *Spodoptera frugiperda*, soy and maize pests. The fly eggs and the pest insect larvae were exposed to the cashew (*Anacardium occidentale*) nut shell liquid (CNSL) and its fractions: technical CNSL, anacardic acid, cardanol and cardol. The results show that the cardol fraction, for both species of flies, presented the lowest lethal concentration with LC<sub>50</sub> of 80.4 mg/L for *M. domestica* and 90.2 mg/L for *C. megacephala*, while for *A. gemmatalis* and *S. frugiperda* the most effective fraction was the anacardic acid with LC<sub>50</sub> of 295.1 mg/L and 318.4 mg/L, respectively. The results obtained suggest their potential in field trials, once the fractions of *A. occidentale* presented high mortality at low lethal concentrations in laboratory conditions, with the possibility of integrated use in the control of disease vectors and agricultural pests.

**Key words:** Disease vectors, crop pests, larvicidal and bioinsecticide.

## Introduction

*Musca domestica* (Linnaeus 1758) (Diptera: Muscidae) and *Chrysomya megacephala* (Fabricius 1794) (Diptera: Calliphoridae) are arthropods that present medical, sanitary and veterinary relevance, once these flies are vectors of pathogens such as *Citrobacter* sp, *Proteus mirabilis*, *Morganella* sp, *Klebsiella* sp, *Pseudomonas* sp and *Salmonella agona*, all enterobacteria (Veiga et al., 2005). In addition, the species larvae are parasitoids and are frequently associated with myiasis in humans and animals [2] [3] [4].

The occurrence, distribution and predominance of these species are factors of great importance for the evaluation of a population's health conditions, since they indicate hygiene habits of both domestic and business institutions [5].

*Anticarsia gemmatalis* (Hübner 1818) and *Spodoptera frugiperda* (J.E. Smith 1797) are insects of the Lepidoptera order and the Noctuidae family. *A. gemmatalis* is one of the most important soybean defoliant in Brazil, and for that reason it is known as the soybean caterpillar. The insect can be found in all production sites and represents a problem to both quantity and quality of Brazilian soya crops [6]. *S. frugiperda* is known as the fall armyworm caterpillar by maize growers in Brazil [8] [9], and the importance of this insect lies on the damage that it causes to the corn cultivation, one of the most relevant Brazilian crops [10].

*M. domestica* and *C. megacephala* are cosmopolitan species, and therefore are endowed with high power of dispersion, great voracity in predation and extremely competitive behaviors. These traits make the species more prevalent among human populations than other flies [11] [12] thus increasing the incidence risk and prevalence of diseases transmitted by these vectors.

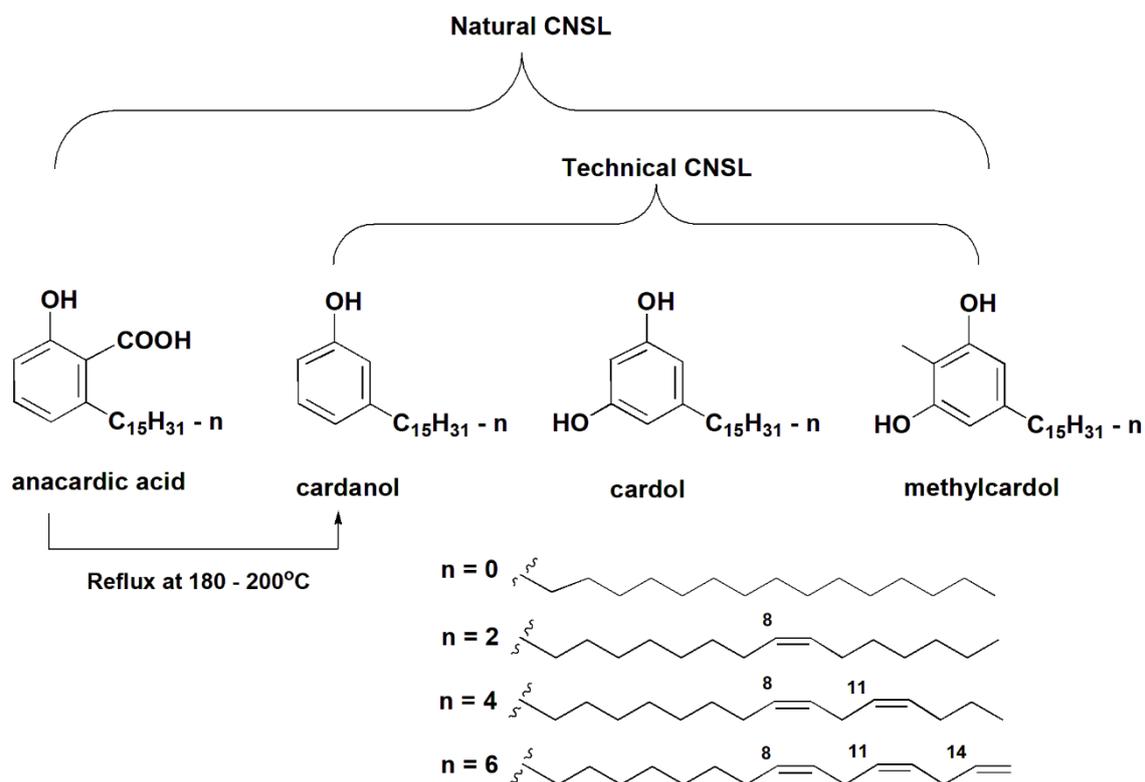
When in the adult phase and fertilized, the females of these species seek decaying organic waste such as manure, corpses and organic garbage to perform the egg-laying. The life cycles of both *A. gemmatalis* and *S. frugiperda* are holometabolic, starting from eggs and going through larvae and pupae stages. The combat against these arthropods is greatly important to the economy and agribusiness [13] [14], being the main control of the populations made in the larval stages for both species.

Several chemical insecticides have been used against these arthropods, such as cypermethrin, betacyclutrin and permethrin. However, the indiscriminate use of these substances may favor the selection of resistant individuals [15] [16], leading to insecticide dose increase. Higher doses can put human populations and other insects at risk, having major effects on the maintenance of the ecosystems [17] [18]. In this context, insecticides of botanical origin appear as an alternative for the control of insect disease vectors, once these options are biodegradable, have high specificity and low toxicity to vertebrates [19] [20].

In this context, *Anacardium occidentale*, a cashew tree extensively cultivated in Brazil, seems to be a promising alternative to chemical insecticides, as suggested in several studies that used substances extracted from this plant on mosquitoes [21] [22]. However, its insecticidal potential on insects of agricultural importance has not been reported, reinforcing the relevance of the present study.

From the cashew nut, which is actually the *A. occidentale* fruit, it is possible to extract a dark and inflammable liquid called *cashew nut shell liquid* (CNSL). This material is one of the richest sources of non-isoprenoid phenolic lipids (NIPLs) such as anacardic acid, cardol, cardanol and methylcardol (saturated and unsaturated) (Figure 1). During the manufacturing process of the kernel (hot oil process),

the anacardic acid undergoes thermal decarboxylation and is converted into the technical CNSL as a byproduct that mainly contains cardanol (67,82 – 94,60%). On the other hand, different processes may be employed for obtaining the natural CNSL (presses) extraction and solvent extraction<sup>[23]</sup>. The CNSL, anacardic acids, cardols, cardanols and methylcardols have been used for functional products and as a feedstock for production of fine chemicals and a wide variety of new materials, including potential bioactive compounds<sup>[22][23]</sup>.



**Figure 1.** Scheme representation of structures of the organic molecules extracted from the natural and technical cashew nut shell liquid (CNSL).

In order to demonstrate the insecticidal activity of the natural cashew nut shell liquid (CNSL) and its fractions in *A. gemmatalis*, *S. frugiperda*, *M. domestica* and *C. megacephala*, we carried out several assays to evaluate the ovicidal and larvicidal potential of the compounds, as well as the effects on the development of the larval stage.

## Results and Discussion

### Ovicidal effects on *M. domestica* and *C. megacephala*

In the first trial, all fractions extracted from cashew nut shell *A. occidentale* were tested at 150.0 mg/L on *M. domestica* and 250.0 mg/L on *C. megacephala*, resulting in total of the eggs. In order to determine the LC<sub>50</sub>, several concentrations of the same fractions were used, showing that LC<sub>50</sub>s ranged from 80.4 to 104.5 mg/L for *M. domestica*, in which cardanol and technical CNSL presented the two lowest ovicidal

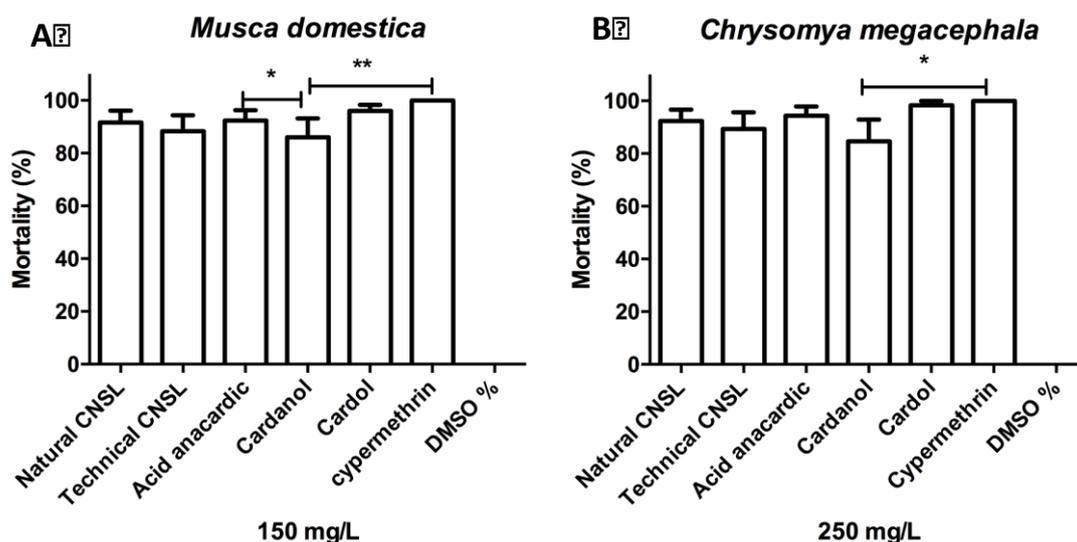
activities between the compounds tested (low % mortality) (Table 1). For *C. megacephala* eggs, the LC<sub>50</sub> were from 90.2 to 188.3 mg/L and cardanol presented the highest ovicidal activity.

**Table 1.** Susceptibility of *Musca domestica* and *Chrysomya megacephala* eggs to exposure to samples of natural CNSL, technical CNSL, anacardic acid, cardanol and cardol after 48 hours.

Sample	LC <sub>50</sub> (mg/L)	LC <sub>50</sub> (mg/L)
	<i>Musca domestica</i>	<i>Chrysomya megacephala</i>
Natural CNSL	85.1 ± 2.7 <sup>a*</sup>	102.3 ± 6.2 <sup>b*</sup>
Technical CNSL	98.7 ± 6.6 <sup>b</sup>	110.3 ± 5.2 <sup>b</sup>
Anacardic acid	84.9 ± 2.4 <sup>a</sup>	99.1 ± 7.8 <sup>ab</sup>
Cardanol	104.5 ± 13.5 <sup>b</sup>	188.3 ± 7.1 <sup>c</sup>
Cardol	80.4 ± 8.0 <sup>a</sup>	90.2 ± 7.3 <sup>a</sup>

\* Averages ± standard deviation (SD) followed by the same letter and same column are not different from each other according to the Tukey test (ANOVA) at 5% significance (p < 0.05).

There was no egg inviability in the negative control (DMSO 1%), whereas positive control with cypermethrin (3 mL in 1 22L of water) treatment completely impaired the egg hatching. There was no statistical difference between the samples of natural CNSL, anacardic acid and cardol in the ovicidal action on the eggs of *M. domestica*. The cardanol and technical CNSL samples showed higher lethal concentration LC<sub>50</sub> when compared to the other fractions, which indicates a lower ovicidal activity (Figure 2A).



**Figure 2.** Egg mortality of cashew nut shell fractions at concentrations of 150mg/L on *M. domestica* (A) and 250mg/L on *C. megacephala* (B). \* statistical difference (ANOVA) at 5% significance (p < 0.05).

The samples extracted from *A. occidentale* with significant ovicidal effect on *C. megacephala* were cardol, anacardic acid, natural CNSL, technical CNSL and cardanol, respectively. There was 100% inviability of the eggs at the concentration of 250 mg/L (Figure 2B), with lethal concentrations of LC<sub>50</sub>

shown in Table 2. There were no egg deaths in the negative control (1% DMSO), emphasizing that the cardol fraction presented the lowest lethal concentration. The cardanol fraction presented higher statistical difference with higher LC<sub>50</sub> than all of the other fractions on eggs of *C. megacephala*.

**Table 2.** Susceptibility of *Anticarsia gemmatalis* caterpillars (L1 and L2) to exposure to the fractions of, natural CNSL, technical CNSL, anacardic acid, cardanol and cardol after 72 hours of exposure.

Sample	LC <sub>50</sub> (mg/L)	LC <sub>50</sub> (mg/L)
	Stage L1	Stage L2
Natural CNSL	342.2 ± 33.8 <sup>c*</sup>	471.0 ± 20.5 <sup>c*</sup>
Technical CNSL	360.2 ± 19.4 <sup>cd</sup>	480.2 ± 21.8 <sup>cd</sup>
Anacardic acid	295.1 ± 12.8 <sup>a</sup>	358.6 ± 24.6 <sup>a</sup>
Cardanol	367.4 ± 27.1 <sup>cd</sup>	494.2 ± 17.2 <sup>cd</sup>
Cardol	310.4 ± 14.1 <sup>ab</sup>	375.6 ± 22.2 <sup>ab</sup>

\* Averages ± standard deviation (SD) followed by the same letter and same column are not different from each other according to the Tukey test (ANOVA) at 5% significance (p < 0.05).

#### Larvicidal activity on *A. gemmatalis* and *S. frugiperda*

Under the conditions in which this work was carried out, all *A. occidentale* oil samples presented insecticide activity on *A. gemmatalis* (Table 2) and *S. frugiperda* L1 and L2 caterpillars/larvae (Tables 3). There was no mortality of caterpillars/larvae in the negative control (DMSO 1%) in both species. However, the mortality of the larvae for the positive control group (Temephos 2 mg/L) was total. There was a statistical difference between the technical CNSL and cardanol samples that presented higher lethal concentrations LC<sub>50</sub> when compared to the samples of natural CNSL, anacardic acid and cardol. The anacardic acid and cardol acid samples presented lower lethal concentrations and greater insecticide activities on L1 and L2 larvae of both species as demonstrated in Tables 2 and 3.

**Table 3.** Susceptibility of *Spodoptera frugiperda* caterpillars (L1 and L2) to exposure to the fractions of, natural CNSL, technical CNSL, anacardic acid, cardanol and cardol after 72 hours of exposure.

Sample	LC <sub>50</sub> (mg/L)	LC <sub>50</sub> (mg/L)
	Stage L1	Stage L2
Natural CNSL	353.4 ± 11.4 <sup>b*</sup>	480.3 ± 20.4 <sup>b*</sup>
Technical CNSL	366.0 ± 21.7 <sup>bc</sup>	492.2 ± 21.5 <sup>bc</sup>
Anacardic acid	318.4 ± 17.6 <sup>a</sup>	432.2 ± 16.0 <sup>a</sup>
Cardanol	380.5 ± 20.3 <sup>cd</sup>	501.7 ± 15.7 <sup>c</sup>
Cardol	330.1 ± 14.7 <sup>ab</sup>	455.2 ± 15.6 <sup>ab</sup>

\* Averages ± standard deviation (SD) followed by the same letter and same column are not different from each other according to the Tukey test (ANOVA) at 5% significance (p < 0.05).

The results presented in the tables demonstrated that both L1 and L2 larvae of *A. gemmatalis* species were more susceptible to *A. occidentale* oil samples than *S. frugiperda*.

Several works indicate that plants are sources of substances and molecules with entomopathogenic effects. These botanical origin insecticidal compounds are widely reported in the literature on several types of arthropods, including ones of medical and agricultural relevance<sup>[24]</sup>.

The results obtained in this research are relevant considering the existing botanical insecticide studies, given that ovicidal activity and harmful effects on the development of flies are not frequently encountered. The literature only transmits information about plant products acting on repellency of all stages of the flies' life, non-lethal effects.

Under the conditions in which this work was carried out, the data showed that *M. domestica* exhibited higher susceptibility to the insecticidal effects of *A. occidentale* oil fractions than *C. megacephala*. These results were observed in both egg viability and biological development of the species. Similar results were observed by Sukontason et al. <sup>[25]</sup> with eucalyptol on third instar larvae of the same species, given that *M. domestica* was more susceptible to eucalyptol than *C. megacephala*.

The fractions of *A. occidentale* oil that showed the best ovicidal effect for both species were cardol and anacardic acid, with LC<sub>50</sub> 80.4 mg/L and 84.9 mg/L for *M. domestica* and 90.2 mg/L and 99.1 mg/L for *C. megacephala*, respectively. In a study conducted by<sup>[24]</sup>, in which a hand sprayer with azadirachtin Nim-I-Go® at a concentration of 100 mg/L was used on eggs of *Cycloneda sanguinea*, the specie did not show susceptibility to the ovicidal activity. On the other hand, our study shows that lethal concentrations LC<sub>50</sub> were observed in all fractions of *A. occidentale* oil.

Araujo et al. <sup>[26]</sup> analyzed the results of acetamiprid sprayed at 0.060 g per liter of water (g.a.i./L) on *Liriomyza sativae* leafminer eggs, this dose being the highest indicated by the manufacturer, and obtaining only 70% mortality of larvae and pupae. The hatching of larvae demonstrated that the tested product had no significant ovicidal action, however, there was an insecticidal effect on the reproductive cycle of larvae and pupae of this fly. In this work, in all samples of *A. occidentale* oil, the larvae that hatched did not reach the pupae stage.

The results reported by El-Shazly et al.<sup>[27]</sup> evaluated the effects of the ethanolic extract of *Nerium oleander* on second instar (L2) larvae of *Muscina stables*, in which the lethal concentration LC<sub>50</sub> was 113.66 mg/L and pupation delay was observed in the surviving larvae. The LC<sub>50</sub> results with the cardol sample of *A. occidentale* were lower and not any of the species of the flies exposed to this sample reached the pupae stage.

Fernandes et al. <sup>[28]</sup> evaluated the efficacy of an emulsion containing 10% neem oil applied to the substrate containing *Musca domestica* third instar (L3) larvae in a single daily dose until pupae formation. The efficacy of the product in larvae control of the specie was 10.2 and 16.9 %, however, applications were made daily to reach significant effects. In our study, *A. occidentale* oil fractions were applied to eggs of *M. domestica* and *C. megacephala* only once, thus obtaining ovicidal effects. Consequently, larvicidal effects were also observed, interfering in the biological development of these flies.

Pest control, when carried out in the first stages of development, does not damage plants as much as late stages control doses. For this reason, we decided to use L1 and L2 caterpillars of *A. gemmatalis* and *S. frugiperda* in our work. In evaluating the potential of plant extracts in the control of *A. gemmatalis*

under field conditions, Schlüter <sup>[29]</sup> tested the aqueous extract of cinnamon on the specie's larvae and demonstrated insecticidal action on caterpillars of *A. gemmatilis* in the concentration of 16.67% with seven days of applications. In this study, although under laboratory conditions, mortality of *A. gemmatilis* L1 and L2 caterpillars was observed in 72h.

In a study conducted by Prates et al. <sup>[30]</sup> with Nim aqueous extract on *S. frugiperda* caterpillars, the researchers obtained  $LC_{50} = 2.67 \text{ mg mL}^{-1}$  or 2670 mg/L, approximately five times the value shown by the cardanol sample in this work.

In conclusion, the fractions of CNSL, technical CNSL, anacardic acid, cardanol and cardol can be used as an alternative for the population control of flies that present both medical relevance (*M. domestica* and *C. megacephala*) and agricultural importance (*A. gemmatilis* and *S. frugiperda*). Therefore, the bioinsecticide activity of these fractions can be explored for integrated management in the population control of disease vectors, suggesting the necessity of further studies in field conditions to verify photo and thermo stability of these compounds.

### Acknowledgements

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### Author Contributions Statement

GHFC, RM, MLS, JS and IMDB designed the study. MLS performed the chemical experiments. GHFC, MAA and ABS performed the assays. GHFC, MAA, MGA and IMDB wrote the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final version of the manuscript.

### Experimental Section

#### *Isolation of natural CNSL and its fractions*

The cashew nuts from *Ae. occidentale* specimens were collected in 12<sup>th</sup> November 2016 in Sobradinho, Federal District, Brazil; the plant was identified by Jéssika Vieira (University of Brasilia, Federal District 70910-900, Brazil) and a voucher specimen (216955) was deposited at the University of Brasilia herbarium, Brazil. The natural and technical *cashew nut shell liquid* (CNSL) as well as the fractions derived therefrom (anacardic acid, cardanol and cardol) were obtained and characterized in the Laboratory of Isolation and Transformation of Organic Molecules (LITMO) of the Institute of Chemistry of the University of Brasilia (UnB). The obtainment methodology is described below.

For the isolation of the cashew nutshell liquid in nature, fresh cashew nuts (*A. occidentale*) were cut into two parts to remove the almond and then fragmented into smaller pieces. Thus 263.00 g of nut shells were exhaustively exposed to 900 mL of ethanol for 15 h in a Söhxlet apparatus, for extracting the oil.

After simple filtration and evaporation of the solvent, the dark oil was obtained (65.0 g, 24.7%). The sample analogous to the technical CNSL was obtained employing a thermal process, by refluxing of natural oil to 180 °C for 4h, followed by distillation carried out at about 200 °C to 240 °C under reduced pressure of 2 mmHg.

To obtain the anacardic acid and other mixture of phenols, 30.02 g of crude CNSL was dissolved in 200 mL of methanol under stirring in a 500 mL round-bottomed flask. After dissolution, 19.02 g of calcium hydroxide was gradually added to the mixture while vigorously stirring. Then, the temperature of the reaction mixture was raised to 50 °C and the supernatant solution was monitored by a thin layer chromatography – TLC (silica gel 60 F<sub>254</sub>/0.2 mm, hexane-ethyl acetate 4:1), visualized under UV radiation with sulfuric vanillin to check the absence of anacardic acid. At the end of the reaction, about 2h45min after it started, the precipitated calcium anacardate was filtered in a sintered funnel and exhaustively washed with methanol to separate 42.20 g of the calcium anacardate from the other phenols. The filtrate, free of anacardic acid (similar to the technical CNSL), was dried over anhydrous sodium sulphate, filtered, and finally concentrated in a rotator evaporator to yield 11.50 g of phenol mixture, which was fractionated by dry-flash column chromatography. The mixture of phenols (11.50 g) was supported in 15.00 g of silica, placed on top of a silica column and eluted under suction with a gradient of hexane and ethyl acetate. In this way, all the fractions of the *A. occidentale* were obtained.

To obtain the anacardic acid, 15.00 g of calcium anacardate was suspended in 50 mL of distilled water, followed by the addition of 9 mL of hydrochloric acid and 150 mL of ethyl acetate. After kept under stirring for 1h, the organic layer was washed with saline (5 x 50 mL) and dried over anhydrous sodium sulphate. The mixture was then filtered and finally concentrated under reduced pressure to obtain the mixture of anacardic acid.

The characterization of the obtained anacardic acid, cardanol and cardol was confirmed by high performance liquid chromatography (HPCL) and spectrometric techniques (IR, <sup>1</sup>H and <sup>13</sup>C NMR).

#### *Eggs of M. domestica and C. megacephala*

The colonies of *M. domestica* and *C. megacephala* were established from larvae and adults collected using baits consisting of fishes' carcasses and decomposed bovine liver placed in the landfill of the Cidade Ocidental de Goiás, city that is part of the surroundings of Brasília.

The capture of adult flies was performed with the help of entomological traps, made from polyethylene terephthalate (PET) bottles, in which the fishes' carcasses and decomposing bovine liver were placed. The larvae were collected by removing the larvae from the baits.

The flies were duly identified after captured. The identification of *M. domestica* was performed according to Britto et al. [31] and *C. megacephala* was identified according to Carvalho and Ribeiro [32]. The flies were then transferred to wooden cages (60 cm length x 40 cm width x 50 cm height) covered on the back and top sides with a nylon mesh top opening to allow the handling of the specimens, eggs and larvae.

As a substrate for oviposition, ground beef in decomposition (about 25.00 mg /container) was used, following protocol created by Estrada et al. [33], with adaptations. After the oviposition, the eggs were transferred to another recipient with egg masses and early decomposing meat (fresh ground beef, thawed

and kept for 12 days in a refrigerator at 12 °C). This diet was deposited in plastic containers with a capacity of 500 mL and inserted into another plastic container with a capacity of 1000 mL until the pupae formation.

#### *Larvae of A. gemmatalis and S. frugiperda*

The caterpillars (L1 and L2) of *A. gemmatalis* and *S. frugiperda* were supplied by the insect breeding laboratory of EMBRAPA Recursos Genética e Biotecnologia (Cenargen).

#### *Bioassays*

The bioassays were carried out in the insect breeding laboratory of the EMBRAPA Cenargen. Therefore, 10 g of diet for each specie were placed in 30 mL plastic cups covered with organza fabric, where the eggs were transferred to. The bioassays were maintained at  $25 \pm 2$  °C, RH of  $70 \pm 10\%$  and photoperiod of 12 h.

For each sample, a stock solution with *in vitro* CNSL was prepared with its fractions (anacardic acid, technical CNSL, cardanol and cardol) that were solubilized in 1% DMSO and water, which was added in a sufficient volume to reach the concentration of 300 mg/L. From these solutions, a series of dilutions were made in order to obtain concentrations lower than 250, 200, 150, 100, 50 and 25 mg/L, which were sprayed over 30 eggs of each specie in the cups that contained food. All bioassays were performed in triplicate. Mortality readings were made after 48 h of egg exposure to the solutions, and eggs that did not show larvae hatching out within 48 hours were considered inviable. All experiments were accompanied by a positive and a negative control. The positive control consisted of 3 mL of cypermethrin diluted in 1L of water, according to the dose recommended by the manufacturer. The negative control was performed with DMSO 1% and had its volume adjusted with distilled water. Both of the solutions were sprayed with the aid of a hand sprayer on the same number of eggs as the treatments.

The larvae that hatched out from the eggs of the treatment groups, with CNSL and its fractions, for both species, had their development monitored to verify possible changes in the biological cycle.

The bioassays were performed using *A. gemmatalis* and *S. frugiperda* L1 and L2 (newly transformed) larvae. All tests were performed under laboratory conditions with temperature of  $25 \pm 2$  °C, relative humidity of  $80 \pm 5\%$  and photoperiod of 14 hours. The L1 and L2 caterpillars were placed in 30 mL plastic cups with an acrylic lid containing 10 g of artificial diet, specific for each specie, following their respective protocols Monnerat et al. [34]. Then, fractions of *A. occidentale* oil were weighed, presolubilized in 1% DMSO and solubilized in water, which was used for volume adjustments. For each sample a starting solution at the concentration of 800 mg/L was tested and, from this solution, a series of dilutions were prepared in order to reach concentrations down to 100 mg/L. Thus, 20 L1 and L2 caterpillars/larvae of each specie were added separately to the cups with the diets where the solutions were sprayed, following the protocol described by Cosme et al [24], with adaptations. The mixtures were sprayed three times, with an interval of 4h between each spraying. Then, the LC<sub>50</sub> lethal concentration (concentration needed to kill 50% of caterpillars/larvae) was obtained. All bioassays were performed in triplicate. Mortality readings were taken after 72h of exposure of the caterpillars to the samples. All experiments were accompanied by a series of negative controls containing the same number of caterpillars/larvae and the same volume of DMSO 1%, utilizing similar application conditions. For the

bioassays with positive control, 2 mg/L Temephos were used for each stage of caterpillars, following the same protocol.

#### Statistical analysis

The LC<sub>50</sub> of all the samples for eggs of both fly species and larvae of pest insects were determined by Probit analysis (Thomas & Alexandra Sparks 1987). The data was submitted to Variance Analysis (ANOVA) and Tukey's test, comparing the incidence of egg inviability and larval mortality of non-exposed individuals and individuals that were treated with *A. occidentale* fractions, being considered significant values of  $p < 0.05$ .

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