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Lethal and behavioural effects of a green insecticide against an invasive polyphagous fruit fly pest and its safety to mammals

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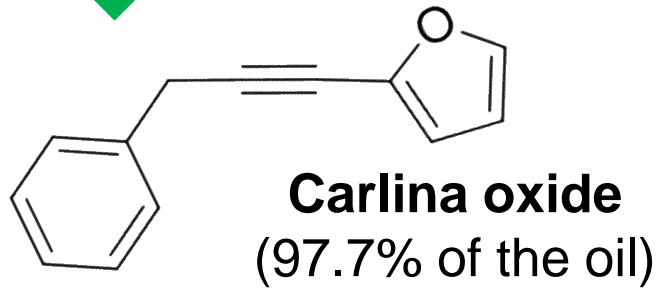
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Carlina acaulis



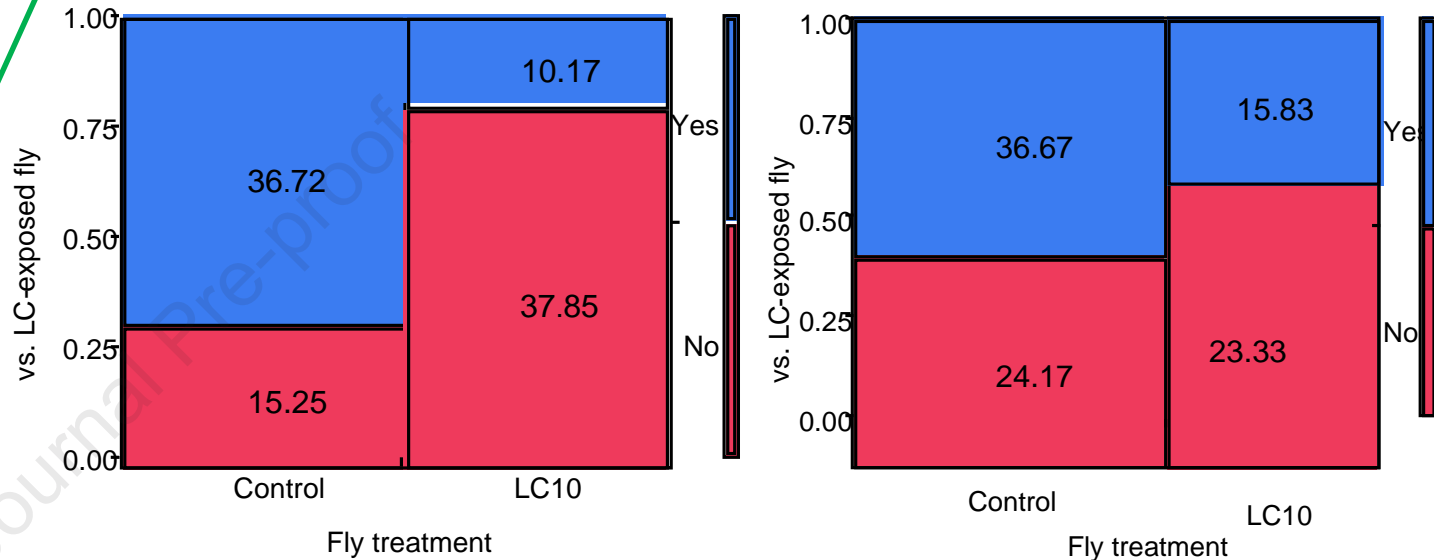
- Essential oil extraction
- Carlina oxide purification
- NMR analysis



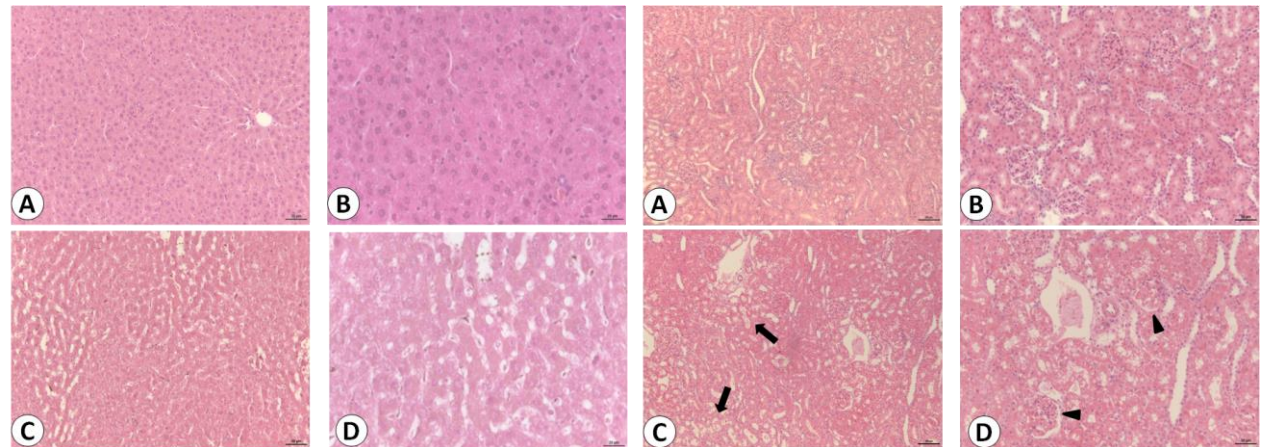
Ingestion toxicity tests on adult medflies, *Ceratitis capitata*

LC₁₀=555, LC₃₀=906, LC₅₀=1273, LC₉₀=2922 ppm

Impact on medfly aggressive interaction asymmetries



Impact on non-target mammals: histological insights



1 **Lethal and behavioural effects of a green insecticide against an invasive polyphagous fruit**
2 **fly pest and its safety to mammals**

3

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23

24 **Abstract**

25 Plant essential oil-based insecticides, with special reference to those that may be obtained from
26 largely available biomasses, represent a valuable tool for Integrated Pest Management.
27 However, the sublethal effects and the potential effects on aggressive insect traits of these green
28 insecticides are understudied. Herein, the lethal and sub-lethal effects of the carlina oxide,
29 constituting more than 97% of the whole *Carlina acaulis* (Asteraceae) root essential oil (EO),
30 were determined against an invasive polyphagous tephritid pest, *Ceratitis capitata* (medfly).
31 The carlina oxide was formulated in a mucilaginous solution containing
32 carboxymethylcellulose sodium salt, sucrose, and hydrolysed proteins, showing high ingestion
33 toxicity on medfly adults. The behavioural effects of carlina oxide at LC₁₀ and LC₃₀ were
34 evaluated on the medfly aggressive traits, which are crucial for securing reproductive success
35 in both sexes. Insecticide exposure affected the directionality of aggressive actions, but not the
36 aggression escalation intensity and duration. The EO safety to mammals was investigated by
37 studying its acute toxicity on the stomach, liver, and kidney of rats after oral administration.
38 Only the highest dose (1000 mg/kg, slightly lower than the LD₅₀ calculated on medflies) of the
39 EO caused modest neurological signs and moderate effects on the stomach, liver, and kidney.
40 The other doses, which are closer to the practical use of the EO when formulated in protein
41 baits, did not cause side effects. Overall, *C. acaulis*-based products are effective and safe to
42 non-target mammals, deserving further consideration for eco-friendly pesticide formulations.

43

44 **Keywords:** Aggressiveness; attract and kill; *Carlina acaulis*; carlina oxide; plant essential oil;
45 Tephritidae

46

47 1. Introduction

48 Growing concerns about climate change, biodiversity, animal welfare, and food security have
49 pushed agriculture towards a more sustainable approach (Bijani *et al.*, 2019; Karami *et al.*,
50 2017; Valizadeh and Hayati, 2021). The overuse of synthetic insecticides affected human health
51 (Singh *et al.*, 2018), the environment (Cachada *et al.*, 2016; Capowiez *et al.*, 2005; Postigo *et*
52 *al.*, 2021; Senthil Rathi *et al.*, 2021), especially non-target organisms (Bozhgani *et al.*, 2018;
53 Forson *et al.*, 2006; Ricupero *et al.*, 2020; Wu *et al.*, 2018). In addition, synthetic
54 insecticides are also responsible for the quick development of insecticide-resistant pest strains
55 (Guillem-Amat *et al.*, 2020; Hsu and Feng, 2006; Nwankwo, 2021; Horowitz *et al.*, 2020).
56 Given all the side effects of using synthetic insecticides, (Postigo *et al.*, 2021; Singh *et al.*,
57 2018; Wu *et al.*, 2018;), botanical pesticides, such as essential oils (EOs) and their main
58 compounds, represent a valid alternative for the control of pests of agricultural interest (Benelli
59 *et al.*, 2021).

60 Polyacetylenes are a chemical class that includes all compounds with one or more carbon-
61 carbon triple bond or alkynyl functional groups (Minto *et al.*, 2008). These compounds are
62 widely distributed and occurred in several botanical families among which Asteraceae,
63 Apiaceae, Campanulaceae, and Pittosporaceae are the most representative ones (Negri, 2015).
64 Polyacetylenes may act as phytoalexins, i.e., insect-induced defence compounds (Yactayo-
65 Chang *et al.*, 2020), and therefore they may represent an interesting prototype for the
66 development of ecological insecticides. In particular, our research group recently focused on
67 the insecticidal potential of carlina oxide (syn. 2-(3-phenylprop-1-ynyl)furan), an aromatic C₁₃
68 polyacetylene bearing one carbon-carbon triple bond and a furan ring, which is the main
69 component (> 95%) of *Carlina acaulis* L. (Asteraceae) EO oil as well as other *Carlina* species
70 (Mejdoub *et al.*, 2020; Strzemeski *et al.*, 2017), and *Carthamus caeruleus* L. (Mami *et al.*, 2020).
71 The carlina oxide and its corresponding EOs, probably due to their phytotoxicity and ease of

72 penetration into the insect cuticle (Champagne *et al.*, 1986), are effective against a wide number
73 of noxious insects, including mosquitoes (*Culex quinquefasciatus* Say), house flies (*Musca*
74 *domestica* L.), tephritid flies (*Ceratitis capitata* (Wiedemann)), moths (*Lobesia botrana* (Denis
75 & Schiffermüller)), and stored-product beetles (*Prostephanus truncatus* (Horn) and
76 *Trogoderma granarium* Everts) (Benelli *et al.*, 2019, 2020, 2021; Kavallieratos *et al.*, 2020;
77 Pavela *et al.*, 2020).

78 To develop a proper pest management protocol, it is also essential to gain knowledge about the
79 impact of EOs applied at low doses. Sublethal doses of botanical pesticides may impact the
80 insect life span, development, sex ratio, fertility, fecundity, and behavioural traits (Lee, 2000).

81 The large majority of sublethal effect research is focused on synthetic pesticides (Fernandes et
82 al 2016; Lin et al 2020), while a lower number of efforts has been directed to understand the
83 impact of new plant-borne insecticides (Izakmehri *et al.*, 2013; Khosravi *et al.* 2010; Borzoui
84 *et al.*, 2016; Nouri-Ganbalani et Borzoui, 2017). Concerning the EO of *C. acaulis*, the exposure
85 of *M. domestica* adults to a sublethal dose (LD₃₀) led to significant reductions in female
86 longevity, fecundity, and F₁ vitality (Pavela *et al.*, 2020). Recent studies investigated how
87 exposure of *C. capitata* adults to *C. acaulis* essential oil also impacts insect intraspecific
88 aggression dynamics (Benelli *et al.*, 2021).

89 As a continuation of our studies on this interesting plant species, herein we evaluated the acute
90 toxicity of the main compound of *C. acaulis* EO: carlina oxide (constituting > 90% of the whole
91 *C. acaulis* EO) towards adult of *Ceratitis capitata* (Diptera: Tephritidae) in ingestion toxicity
92 assays. Also known as medfly, *C. capitata* is a highly invasive polyphagous pest species
93 causing both quantitative and qualitative damages to several crops (Schliserman *et al.*, 2014).
94 Besides its importance as a fruit pest, the medfly is a model organism for behavioural research,
95 due to its complex aggressive and mating behavior (Benelli *et al.*, 2015a; Benelli and Romano,
96 2018; Briceño *et al.*, 1999). Therefore, LC₁₀ and LC₃₀ of carlina oxide were evaluated for their

97 potential impact on aggressive traits of medfly adults, which are crucial for securing
98 reproductive success in both sexes (Benelli *et al.*, 2015b). Lastly, to give new insights into the
99 mammal safety of *C. acaulis* based products, herein we evaluated acute toxicity of its EO,
100 containing 97.7% of carlina oxide, on the stomach, liver, and kidney of rats after oral
101 administration. These assays were performed with *C. acaulis* EO, for sake of practicality, yield,
102 and costs related to carlina oxide purification. Our findings shed light on the possible utilization
103 of the polyacetylenes carlina oxide as an active ingredient to substitute insecticides in “attract
104 and kill” formulations, and at the same time, we provide new important information about
105 mammal safety.

106

107 **2. Materials and methods**

108

109 **2.1. *Carlina acaulis* EO extraction**

110 *Carlina acaulis* dry roots were purchased from A. Minardi & Figli S.r.l. (Bagnacavallo,
111 Ravenna, Italy, <https://www.minardierbe.it>). The roots were powdered with a grinder (Albrigi,
112 Stallavena, Verona, Italy, mod. E0585) using a 1.5 mm sieve. One kg of the roots was soaked
113 overnight in 6 L of distilled water into a 10 L Pyrex glass flask and hydrodistilled for 8 h with
114 a Clevenger-type device, heated by a Falc MA mantle (Falc Instruments, Treviglio, Italy). The
115 yellowish EO was isolated in 0.89% yield (w/w, dw), with a density of 1.063 g/mL.

116

117 **2.2. Chemical analysis of *C. acaulis* EO and purification of carlina oxide**

118 The chemical composition of the EO was investigated by an Agilent 6890 N gas chromatograph
119 provided with a single quadrupole 5973 N mass spectrometer and an auto-sampler 7863
120 (Agilent, Wilmington, DE). The separation of EO chemical constituents was performed using

121 an HP-5MS capillary column (30 m length, 0.25 mm i.d., 0.1 μm film thickness; 5%
122 phenylmethylpolysiloxane) from Agilent (Folsom, CA, USA). The column was allowed to
123 reach a temperature of 60 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 5 min, then of 220 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ at 4 $^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{min}$, and finally of 280 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ at 11
124 $^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{min}$ held for 15 min. Injector and detector were thermostated at 280 $^{\circ}\text{C}$. The mobile phase
125 was constituted of 99.9% He, with a flow of 1 mL min^{-1} . Before the analysis, the EO was
126 diluted 1:100 in *n*-hexane and then 2 μL were injected in split mode (1:50). Electron impact
127 (EI, 70 eV) mode in the range of 29-400 m/z was used for peak acquisition. The analysis of
128 chromatograms was performed using the MSD ChemStation software (Agilent, Version
129 G1701DA D.01.00), while data analysis was performed using the NIST Mass Spectral Search
130 Program for the NIST/EPA/NIH EI and NIST Tandem Mass Spectral Library v. 2.3. The
131 identification of the EO components was achieved by the combination of the temperature
132 programmed retention indices (RIs) and mass spectra (MS) in comparison with those of
133 ADAMS, NIST 17, and FFNSC2 libraries (Adams, 2007; NIST 17, 2017; FFNSC 2, 2012).
134 The RI were calculated using a mix of *n*-alkanes ($\text{C}_8\text{-C}_{30}$, Supelco, Bellefonte, CA, USA),
135 according to the Van den Dool and Kratz (1963) formula. The EO was mainly characterized by
136 carlina oxide (97.7%) and two minor components such as benzaldehyde (1.14%) and *ar*-
137 curcumene (0.29%). The total of identified compounds was 99.13%. The EO (1.41 g) was
138 chromatographed by silica gel column chromatography (70–230 mesh, 60 \AA , Merck) using
139 100% of *n*-hexane as mobile phase, yielding 1.34 g of pure carlina oxide. NMR analysis
140 confirmed its chemical structure, through a Bruker Avance 400 Ultrashield spectrometer using
141 tetramethyl silane (TMS) as an internal standard. The NMR spectrum was linear with the
142 literature (Benelli *et al.*, 2019).

143

144 2.3. Carlina oxide ingestion toxicity on medflies

145 *C. capitata* medflies were from a mass-rearing of the University of Pisa; they were reared as
146 detailed by Canale *and* Benelli (2012) at 25 ± 1 °C and 45 % R.H., 16:8 (L:D) photoperiod.
147 Following Benelli *et al.* (2012, 2021), ingestion toxicity was evaluated on 30 medfly adults
148 (both males and females), placing them in a plastic container (600 mL) covered with a thin
149 mesh. *C. capitata* adults were fed for 96 h with 2 mL of viscous formulation containing 0.0039,
150 0.0078, 0.0156, 0.0312, 0.0625, 0.125, 0.25, 0.5, and 1% of carlina oxide. The viscous
151 formulation was obtained emulsifying carlina oxide with dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) (1:1),
152 then adding 2% of carboxymethylcellulose Na salt, 12.5% of sucrose, and 1% of protein bait
153 (NuBait, Biogard, Italy). The formulation was provided in a bakelite cup ($\varnothing = 30$ mm). For the
154 prevention of medfly drowning, a cotton disk ($\varnothing = 30$ mm) was used to cover the cup. The
155 negative control for each test was performed testing the viscous carrier without carlina oxide.
156 During the experiments, medfly mortality was noted after 96 h. No less than 4 replicates were
157 performed per carlina oxide concentration, over different days, under laboratory conditions (21
158 ± 1 °C, 45 ± 10 % R.H., 16:8 (L:D) photoperiod).

159

160 **2.4. Analysis of medfly aggressive behaviour**

161 Carlina oxide at the LC_{10} and LC_{30} estimated on adult medflies as described above was
162 evaluated for its potential impact on *C. capitata* aggressive behaviour, following the
163 methodology recently proposed by Benelli *et al.* (2021). Either the mucilage with carlina oxide
164 or the negative control was prepared and administered as described in paragraph 2.3. Prior
165 observation, medfly sorted by sex were fed on the viscous formulation for 96 h, and the potential
166 impact of feeding on carlina oxide on the fly aggressiveness was observed till 4 days post-
167 feeding.

168 The behavioural assays were performed inside an arena (i.e., a plastic container, volume: 600
169 mL) covered by a piece of glass, where a *Citrus limon* (L.) Osbeck twig or leaf (~ 15 cm, 1
170 leaf/twig) was placed. Trials on a given LC and fly sex were repeated on 30 groups composed

171 by 4 *C. capitata* adults, two earlier were fed on the mucilage containing carlina oxide, while
172 the remaining were fed with the vicious control carrier. Each replicate lasted 30 min, with an
173 initial adaptation phase of 10 min. At the end of each replica, the glass and the plastic container
174 were washed with soap and hot water and new specimens and lemon twig were used. An
175 aggression event occurred when a *C. capitata* adult (treated or control) approached the other
176 and displayed an escalating aggressive behaviour as reported by Benelli *et al.* (2015a). The
177 intensity of the aggression event was recorded in terms of aggression score, both during ♂-♂
178 and ♀-♀ aggressive interactions. The above-mentioned aggression score ranges from 0 to 12
179 and includes the following events: 1. Avoidance (one). 2. Wing waving (one). 3. Wing waving
180 (both). 4. Chasing. 5. Fast head rocking. 6. Pouncing. 7. Labellar (one). 8. Labellar (both). 9.
181 Wing strike. 10. Dive. 11. Boxing (one). 12. Boxing (both). Each event is defined in detail in
182 Benelli *et al.* (2015a). We also noted which fly (i.e., control or treated) started attacking a
183 conspecific, as well as the number of aggressive events per sex, and the length of each
184 aggressive event (Benelli *et al.* 2021). Experiments were conducted from May to October 2020
185 in a room illuminated with fluorescent daylight tubes (Philips 30W/33) (16:8 (L:D)
186 photoperiod).

187

188 **2.5. Non-target toxicity on rats**

189 To have enough amount of sample to perform *in vivo* toxicological assays, we decided to test
190 the *C. acaulis* EO containing 97.7 % of carlina oxide instead of the purified compound (99%)
191 which requires additional costs in terms of devices for chromatographic separations and
192 consumption of organic solvent with relative waste disposal.

193 **2.5.1. Animals**

194 For the acute toxicity studies were employed female Wistar rats weighting 250-300 g. Each
195 animal was single caged and kept in cycles of 12 h of the dark followed by 12 h of light at 20-

196 22 °C and R.H. 44-45%. Water and food were available ad libitum. Housing and experiments
197 were carried out following the guidelines of the European Community Council Directive Care
198 and Use of Laboratory Animals (Ministry of Health Authorization n° 1D580.22).

199 2.5.2. Acute toxicity procedures

200 The doses of the *C. acaulis* EO were constituted by the EO dissolved in 2% Tween 80 vehicle.
201 The administration was performed by gavage. For the acute toxicity studies, the animals were
202 divided into four groups, each composed of four individuals. The first group received the
203 vehicle; the second group 250 mg of *C. acaulis* EO per kg by oral administration; the third
204 group 500 mg/kg; the fourth group 1000 mg/kg. After the oral administration, possible signs of
205 toxicity were observed in each animal for the first 30 min., then periodically, for the remaining
206 48 h until the harvesting of the tissues. When occurring, the time of death was registered. Signs
207 of toxicity noted focused on central nervous and autonomic system activities and were
208 convulsions, tremors, ataxia, straub, ptosis, coma, cyanosis, lacrimation, piloerection, and
209 salivation. 48 h after the dosing, the weight of each rat was recorded, and the rats were
210 sacrificed. The organs were surgically removed, and their weight and characteristics were
211 observed. Finally, the organs were placed in a fixative solution or frozen at – 80°C.

212 The stomach, the liver, and the kidneys were removed, separated into small pieces, and fixed
213 in Bouin's solution for 6 hours. After fixation, samples were dehydrated in gradual ethanol from
214 70% to absolute and cleared in xylene for the paraffin embedding. 5 µm consecutive sections
215 were stained with haematoxylin and eosin dye (H&E), observed under a light microscope Leica
216 DMR (Germany) connected by a DS-R12 Nikon camera to the computer and estimated using a
217 NIS Elements Nikon image analyser software. Sections were blindly analysed; at the level of
218 the stomach, the presence of inflammatory aggregate, and the presence of ulcer and elements
219 of necrosis were evaluated. In the sections of the liver, the following parameters were evaluated:
220 inflammatory elements, degeneration of hepatocytes, vacuolization, presence of apoptotic cells

221 or hepatic necrosis, dilated sinusoids. Signs of infiltration, glomerular and tubular alterations
222 were examined in the kidney.

223

224 **2.6. Data analysis**

225 In *C. capitata* ingestion toxicity assays, control mortality values ranging from 1 to 20% were
226 adopted to accurate experimental mortality rates through Abbott's formula (Abbott, 1925).
227 Ingestion LC₁₀, LC₃₀, LC₅₀, and LC₉₀ with associated 95% confidence intervals (CI), χ^2 values,
228 and *p*-values were assessed using probit analysis (Finney, 1978).

229 Following Benelli *et al.* (2021), differences in the abundance of *C. capitata* adults showing
230 aggressive displays after feeding on a given carlina oxide LC were analysed using a likelihood
231 chi-square test with Yates' correction (Rohlf *and* Sokal, 1981). Differences among the
232 aggression duration values characterizing carlina oxide-exposed or control *C. capitata* adults
233 were analysed through a weighted generalized linear model (GLZ) described by Benelli *et al.*
234 (2015a, 2021), i.e., $y = X\beta + \varepsilon$, where *y* is the vector of the observation (i.e., aggression duration),
235 *X* is the incidence matrix, β is the vector of the fixed effect (i.e., exposure to a given carlina
236 oxide LC), and ε is the vector of the random residual effects ($\alpha = 0.05$). Differences among the
237 aggression scores characterizing carlina oxide-exposed or control *C. capitata* adults were
238 assessed through the Kruskal-Wallis test ($p = 0.05$). JMP[®] 9 (SAS) and Minitab Inc., State
239 College, PA were used for these analyses.

240 In mammal safety experiments, the rat body weight data were analysed by one-way ANOVA
241 as the main effects. When appropriate, Tukey's multiple tests was used as post-hoc test
242 ($\alpha=0.05$). GraphPad Prism 8 software (San Diego, CA) was used for analysing these data.

243

244 **3. Results**

245

246 **3.1. Carlina oxide ingestion toxicity on medfly**

247 The toxicity of carlina oxide obtained in *C. capitata* adults was estimated by probit analysis and
248 evaluated at different concentrations. Dose-response bioassays showed that the LC values of
249 the oxide were: $LC_{10} = 555.086$ ppm, $LC_{30} = 906.731$ ppm, $LC_{50} = 1273.708$ ppm, and $LC_{90} =$
250 2922.671 ppm. Overall, the carlina oxide was highly effective and proved to be a good
251 candidate as an active ingredient in the “attract and kill” formulation tested adult medflies
252 (Table 1).

253 **3.2. Analysis of the medfly aggressive behaviour**

254 3.2.1. Number of aggressive events

255 The potential impact of feeding on carlina oxide was firstly examined on *C. capitata* aggressive
256 behaviour at a population level, i.e., impact on the overall abundance of medfly adults
257 displaying aggressive behaviour, regardless of the intensity and length of the events. As a
258 general trend, both male and female medflies fed on carlina oxide-based viscous formulations
259 showed an aggressiveness comparable to control individuals, except for females exposed to
260 LC_{10} (Figure 1). Indeed, LC_{10} -fed females showed a significant difference in number of
261 aggressive events, if compared with the control ones (47 vs. 73 aggressive events, respectively,
262 $\chi^2 = 5.642$, $d.f. = 1$, $p = 0.017$), while the number of aggressive events performed by LC_{10} -fed
263 males (85 vs. 92 aggressive events, $\chi^2 = 0.282$, $d.f. = 1$, $p = 0.598$), LC_{30} -fed males (86 vs. 94
264 aggressive events, $\chi^2 = 0.361$, $d.f. = 1$, $p = 0.551$), and LC_{30} -fed females (55 vs. 70 aggressive
265 events, $\chi^2 = 1.808$, $d.f. = 1$, $p = 0.179$) did not differ from the respective controls (Figure 1).
266 Overall, control medflies performed a higher number of aggressive actions compared to
267 medflies exposed to the carlina oxide, but a significant difference was found only between
268 LC_{10} -fed females and control flies.

269

270 3.2.2. Asymmetries in aggressive interactions

271 Herein, we evaluated the directionality of the aggressions to discriminate between medflies
272 carrying out the aggression and those suffering it. The tested LC significantly influenced the
273 directionality of aggressive actions. Both medfly sexes fed on carlina oxide LC₃₀ were more
274 attacked by control flies (σ : $\chi^2 = 26.945$, $d.f. = 1$, $p < 0.0001$; φ : $\chi^2 = 24.890$, $d.f. = 1$, $p <$
275 0.0001) (Figure 2). Similarly, medflies fed on carlina oxide LC₁₀ were more attacked by control
276 flies (σ : $\chi^2 = 43.427$, $d.f. = 1$, $p < 0.0001$; φ : $\chi^2 = 4.517$, $d.f. = 1$, $p = 0.033$) (Figure 2). Overall,
277 the exposure to both concentrations of the tested carlina oxide seemed to affect the willingness
278 to receive attacks from control flies by the treated flies.

279

280 3.2.3. Sex of the fighting flies

281 Aggressive interactions might vary according to the sex of the involved fly. Contingency
282 analysis carried out between the fly treatment, i.e, LC-fed or LC-unfed fly, and the sex showed
283 no significant differences between sexes for both sub-lethal doses (LC₁₀: $\chi^2 = 2.272$, $d.f. = 1$, p
284 $= 0.131$; LC₃₀: $\chi^2 = 0.424$, $d.f. = 1$, $p = 0.515$) (Figure 3), highlighting that there is no difference
285 in term of aggressiveness between males and females of *C. capitata*.

286

287 3.2.4. Aggression score

288 *Ceratitis capitata* fights are escalating and highly ritualized. Relying to the aggression score
289 described in the Materials and Methods section, herein we quantified the intensity of the
290 aggressions carried out by medflies. As regards aggression scores, no differences were found
291 between *C. capitata* fed on distinct carlina oxide concentrations and the control insects (males
292 fed on LC₁₀: $\chi^2 = 1.670$, $d.f. = 1$, $p = 0.196$; males fed on LC₃₀: $\chi^2 = 0.585$, $d.f. = 1$, $p = 0.444$;
293 females fed on LC₁₀: $\chi^2 = 0.097$, $d.f. = 1$, $p = 0.754$; female fed on LC₃₀: $\chi^2 = 1.670$, $d.f. = 1$, p

294 = 0.196) (Figure 4). The carlina oxide did not influence the aggression score of exposed
295 medflies.

296

297 3.2.5. Aggression duration

298 As for the aggression score, also the overall duration of the aggression was not affected by the
299 ingestion of the carlina oxide. Indeed, our results showed that there was no significant
300 difference in terms of aggression duration between *C. capitata* adults fed on carlina oxide and
301 control flies (males fed on LC₁₀: $\chi^2 = 1.226$, *d.f.* = 1, *p* = 0.268; males fed on LC₃₀: $\chi^2 = 0.0076$,
302 *d.f.* = 1, *p* = 0.930; females fed on LC₁₀: $\chi^2 = 0.482$, *d.f.* = 1, *p* = 0.487; females fed on LC₃₀: $\chi^2 =$
303 0.419, *d.f.* = 1, *p* = 0.517) (Figure 5). The duration of an individual aggressive event ranged
304 from a few seconds to a maximum of 30 s, i.e., wing waving.

305

306 3.3. Non-target acute toxicity on rats

307 Signs of toxicity consisting of tremors, sedation, ataxia, and ptosis were observed in the rat
308 group administered with the dose of 1000 mg/kg which was slightly lower than the LD₅₀
309 previously determined (Pavela *et al.*, 2021). No evident signs of toxicity were instead observed
310 for the lower doses. No significant alterations in the body weight and the organ's weight were
311 evident after the acute administration of the different doses of the *C. acaulis* EO, even if a non-
312 statistically significant decrease in the body weight was noticeable in animals treated with the
313 highest dose (Table 2).

314 In the gross anatomy evaluation of the inner wall of the stomach, an area of hyperaemia with a
315 sign of necrosis was evident at the level of the fundus, in animals treated with the highest dose
316 of *C. acaulis* EO (Figure 6). No evident signs of damage were present in the wall of the stomach
317 of the animals of the other experimental groups (data not shown). Analysis of 5 μm sections of
318 the organs stained with H&E allowed for comparison of structures and evaluation of the

319 presence of damages resulting from the exposure to the EO. The stomachs of rats of groups
320 “vehicle” and the rats treated with 250 and 500 mg/kg of *C. acaulis* EO did not show any
321 significant damage (data not shown). The stomach of two out of four rats treated with 1000
322 mg/kg of *C. acaulis* EO showed mucosae necrosis (Figure 6), especially at the level of the
323 fundus. The morphological analysis at the level of *gastric mucosae* of the body revealed no
324 morphological alterations in the animal treated with vehicle or 250 mg/kg and 500 mg/kg of *C.*
325 *acaulis* EO (data not shown). Ulcers with the presence of inflammatory elements were evident
326 in the animals treated with *C. acaulis* EO at the highest dose (Figure 6). In the gross anatomical
327 analysis of the liver, the hepatic parenchyma was not macroscopically affected by the different
328 doses of *C. acaulis* EO we observed the occurrence of the normal capsule made of dense
329 connective tissue (data not shown). The liver of the animals treated with an acute dose of 250
330 and 500 mg/kg of *C. acaulis* EO did not reveal damage in the parenchyma (data not shown).
331 Differently in the liver of animal treated with the highest dose (1000 mg/kg) were evident signs
332 of the dilated sinusoid, vacuolations in a perivascular central zone, without inflammatory
333 aggregate, degenerated hepatic cord, and apoptotic cells (Figure 7).

334 Finally, the kidney was histologically investigated in micrometers sections stained with
335 haematoxylin and eosin. The section of the renal cortex showed, even at low magnification,
336 normal renal corpuscles, and convoluted tubules (Figure 8A and B). The images of kidney
337 sections from an animal treated with 1000 mg/kg of *C. acaulis* EO showed that alterations of
338 the renal interstitium were oedematous even with a lack of mononucleate cellular infiltrates
339 such as macrophages and lymphocytes. Glomeruli were normal, but in some elements, capillary
340 and Bowman’s spaces were more dilated (arrowheads in Figure 8D). The *C. acaulis* EO at the
341 dose of 500 and 1000 mg/kg induced an increase of the luminal diameter of renal tubules
342 compared with control ones, which was more evident with the highest dose in all animals (arrow
343 in Figure 8C).

344

345 **4. Discussion**

346

347 Several studies have been carried out to propose novel plant-borne insecticides effective against
348 medfly adults, and various routes of applications of botanicals have been attempted, including
349 contact, fumigation, and ingestion toxicity. For example, topical applications of *Melaleuca*
350 *alternifolia* (L.) (Myrtaceae) EO were toxic to medfly, even at 0.117 $\mu\text{L}/\text{cm}^2$ (Benelli *et al.*,
351 2013). *Baccharis spartioides* (Hook *et* Arn.) (Asteraceae) and *Schinus polygama* (Cav.)
352 (Anacardiaceae) EOs also obtained a good level of toxicity when applied at 10-22 $\mu\text{g}/\text{fly}$ (Barud
353 *et al.*, 2014). *Baccharis spartioides* and *S. polygama* showed toxicity comparable to *Tagetes*
354 species EOs (i.e., $\text{LC}_{50} \leq 20 \mu\text{g}/\text{fly}$) (Lopez *et al.*, 2011), as well as *Baccharis darwinii* (L.)
355 (Asteraceae) (i.e., $\text{LC}_{50} < 31 \mu\text{g}/\text{fly}$) (Kurdelas *et al.*, 2012) and *Azorella cryptantha* (Clos)
356 Reiche (Apiaceae) (i.e., $\text{LC}_{50} = 11 \mu\text{g}/\text{fly}$) (Lopez *et al.*, 2012).

357 While the impact of EO fumigation efficacy against a frugivorous pest like the medfly is of
358 limited interest and can be disregarded, replacing synthetic insecticides with eco-friendly
359 molecules in “attract and kill” programs is a valuable goal for modern tephritid research (Scolari
360 *et al.*, 2021). In this framework, the insecticidal efficacy of *C. acaulis* EO on *C. capitata*, has
361 been recently highlighted by Benelli *et al.* (2021). The study showed high ingestion toxicity in
362 both sexes. The EO, formulated in protein baits, showed an LC_{50} of 1094 ppm, which is
363 markedly lower if compared with the LC_{50} estimated for other EOs tested against the medfly,
364 such as *Lavandula angustifolia* Mill. (Lamiaceae), *Hyptis suaveolens* (L.) Poit. (Lamiaceae),
365 *Thuja occidentalis* L. (Cupressaceae), and *Rosmarinus officinalis* L. (Lamiaceae), all showing
366 LC_{50} ranging from 3664 ppm (*R. officinalis*) to 13041 ppm (*H. suaveolens*) (Benelli *et al.*,
367 2012). The relevant insecticidal activity of *C. Acaulis* EO seems to be linked to carlina oxide
368 (>97% of the EO). Of note, carlina oxide has been recently reported as a highly effective

369 insecticide on other key Diptera species, such as *C. quinquefasciatus* ($LC_{50} = 1.39 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$),
370 and its mode of action seems to be moderately related to acetylcholinesterase (AChE) inhibition
371 (Benelli *et al.*, 2019). In the present study, carlina oxide showed a very promising LC_{50} (1273
372 ppm) against adult medflies, outlining that the overall toxicity of *C. acaulis* EO is mostly linked
373 to the bioactivity of this major constituent. Polyacetylenes, as carlina oxide, have insecticide,
374 fungicide, and nematocide properties (Gorman *et al.*, 1993). Their toxicity can be linked to
375 several modes of action dictated by environmental conditions. Aromatic polyacetylenes, such
376 as carlina oxide, can lead to phototoxicity in insects (Arnason *et Bernard*s, 2010; Konovalov,
377 2014). In the absence of light, polyacetylenes are antifeedant to insects, while in the presence
378 of light the toxicity may be caused by a photocatalytic cycle of single oxygen generation and
379 another excited state molecule that leads to rapid lipid peroxidation and cell death (Haouas *et*
380 *al.*, 2011). Furthermore, several polyacetylenes are responsible for modulating the gamma-
381 aminobutyric acid-A (GABA-A) receptors (Lin *et al.*, 2016). The compounds binding to GABA
382 receptors related to chloride channels located on the membrane of postsynaptic neurons disrupt
383 the functioning of the GABA synapse (Pavela *and* Benelli, 2016).

384 As reported by Benelli *et al.* (2019), the carlina oxide toxicity, is partially attributable to
385 cholinergic system blockage by AChE inhibition, which mediates nerve transmission splitting
386 acetylcholine into choline and acetic acid. The insect dies of acetylcholine accumulation in the
387 synaptic space (Boison, 2007). Furthermore, the high lipophilicity of carlina oxide leads to an
388 easy entrance into the insect body (Benelli *et al.*, 2019).

389 The aggressive behaviour of *C. capitata* plays a key role in routing the reproductive success of
390 this species (Benelli *et al.*, 2014, 2015 a, b). The research carried out by Benelli *et al.* (2021)
391 and this study, considered the influence of *C. acaulis* EO and carlina oxide, respectively, at low
392 concentrations on the medfly aggressive behaviour dynamics. Our results showed a significant
393 impact of feeding on the carlina oxide on the directionality of aggressive actions; at both tested

394 concentrations (LC₁₀ and LC₃₀), medfly males and females have received more aggressions by
395 control flies, at variance with the results obtained testing the *C. acaulis* EO (Benelli *et al.*,
396 2021). Surprisingly, our study displayed a substantial decrease of medfly aggressive
397 interactions at the population level only for females fed on LC₁₀ vs. control flies. However, by
398 testing the whole EO an important reduction of medfly aggressive interaction at the population
399 level was noted, along with a shorter time of aggressive events, in medflies treated with both
400 EO LC₁₀ and LC₃₀ (Benelli *et al.*, 2021). The differences exposed above may be due to a
401 synergic action of the other minor components of EO, with special reference to benzaldehyde
402 (1.14 %) and *ar*-curcumene (0.29 %), as synergistic and antagonistic interactions between EO
403 constituents have been reported in earlier studies (Benelli *et al.*, 2017a,b; Yuan *et al.*, 2019).
404 The two minor constituents mentioned above have insecticidal activity and can also act as
405 carrier agents for carlina oxide to penetrate better into the insect cuticle. Indeed, as reported by
406 Alshebly *et al.* (2016), *Hedychium larsenii* M. Dan & C. Sathish Kumar (Zingiberaceae) EO
407 and its main components, *ar*-curcumene and *epi*- β -bisabolol showed sublethal effects on
408 *Anopheles stephensi* Liston (Diptera: Culicidae), *Aedes aegypti* L. (Diptera: Culicidae) and *C.*
409 *quinquefasciatus*. Low concentrations of *ar*-curcumene and *epi*- β -bisabolol negatively
410 influenced the oviposition of the three species tested. Another study, carried out by Nattudurai
411 *et al.* (2012), showed how the exposition of *Tribolium castaneum* (Herbst) (Coleoptera:
412 Tenebrionidae) to low concentration (i.e., LC₁₀, LC₂₀, and LC₃₀) of benzaldehyde reduced the
413 female fecundity (i.e., from 4.7 to 0.92 eggs/female). Further research on the bioactivity of these
414 two molecules against adult medflies is required, with a special focus on synergistic toxicity
415 tests.

416 Concerning mammal toxicity, changes in body and organs weight are valuable indicators of
417 toxicity (Michael *et al.*, 2007; OECD, 2008). Herein, we did not observe any change in the
418 weights of the liver and kidney of rats due to the different dosages of *C. acaulis* EO. Similarly,

419 the total body weight was unaffected by the treatments. Thus, our results showed that the
420 treatment with the EO does not affect the body weight. However, it should be considered that
421 we carried out an acute administration, and the time of observation was limited. A trend in the
422 reduction of body weight was observed after 48 h in the animals with the highest dosage
423 compared with the vehicle and the lower doses. Symptoms of neurological toxicity were
424 observed only after acute oral administration of the highest dose (1000 mg/kg), a little lower
425 than the LD₅₀. Increasing signs of sedation, ataxia, ptosis, and tremors were detected over the
426 48 h of observation after the administration, indicating that the main component of the EO
427 impacts the central nervous system. Neurotoxicity is not uncommon among the EOs that can
428 pass the brain-blood barrier without difficulty due to their lipophilicity. For instance, it is well
429 known that thujone can cause convulsion and excitation (PMID: 23201408). Similarly, 1,8-
430 cineole and camphor, which are abundant compounds in the EO of eucalyptus and rosemary,
431 are capable of inducing seizures (PMID: 19893077). These effects are probably due to the
432 modulation of the GABAergic system. On the other hand, no signs of neurological toxicity were
433 observed at the lower doses, suggesting a significant safe profile of *C. acaulis* EO since its
434 dosage in the insecticidal formulations would be much lower than the ones tested here.

435 The assessment of histopathological alterations in organs represents one of the basic tests for
436 the assessment safety of tested materials (Greaves 2011). No abnormality was observed on
437 gross anatomy evaluations of organs examined in this study. The histopathological findings on
438 the liver, the stomach, and the kidney indicated a moderately toxic effect of *C. acaulis* EO, at
439 the dose of 1000 mg/kg. On the other hand, the dose of 500 mg/kg did not cause any toxicity in
440 the rats. Based on our evidence, the *C. acaulis* EO seemed to be slightly toxic to rats, with LD₅₀
441 overlapping those of other industrially important EO elements such as thymol and
442 cinnamaldehyde (Pavela and Benelli, 2016). Therefore the *in vivo* toxicological study reveals
443 that the EO has low oral toxicity. Nevertheless, it should be appropriate to avoid high dosages

444 to prevent possible harmful effects. The LD₅₀ of *C. acaulis* EO was higher when compared with
445 that of plant extracts containing polyacetylenes as active compounds. Polyacetylenes are widely
446 distributed among the families Apiaceae, Araliaceae, and Asteraceae, and some of them showed
447 antibacterial, antifungal, anti-inflammatory, anticancer, and antiplatelet aggregation properties
448 (Christensen *et al.*, 2006; Hinds *et al.*, 2017; Zaini *et al.*, 2012). Some of these compounds have
449 been considered undesirable due to their toxic properties. A study on the toxicity of *Bupleurum*
450 *longiradiatum* (Apiaceae) displayed that the CH₂Cl₂ fraction and the ethanol extract exhibited
451 high toxicity, with LD₅₀ values of 37.5 mg/kg (95% CI: 32.8–42.9 mg/kg) and 77.7 mg/kg (95%
452 CI: 67.7–89.3 mg/kg), respectively, and toxicity correlate to the amount of polyacetylenes in
453 this plant (You *et al.*, 2012).

454

455 5. Conclusions

456

457 The chief contribution of carlina oxide to the overall bioactivity of *C. acaulis* EO for the
458 development of “attract and kill” tools has been outlined in the present study. Concerning *C.*
459 *acaulis* EO and carlina oxide, marked differences have been found about their impact through
460 ingestion on medfly aggressive behaviour. Our results show an influence of carlina oxide on
461 aggression directionality, with the actions of control flies directed mostly to medflies previously
462 fed on carlina oxide concentrations. Further research is still needed to assess possible subtle
463 interactions among EO minor constituents, as well as to assess toxicity and potential
464 behavioural variations (e.g., impact on predation or parasitization activity) in invertebrates
465 acting as biocontrol agents of *C. capitata* treated with a low concentration of carlina oxide.

466 Although the cultivation of *Carlina acaulis* and the consequent extraction of the essential oil
467 and the oxide is a feasible process, certain limitations related to the physical and chemical
468 properties of the compounds, especially their photosensitivity, must be overcome. Indeed, from

469 an application point of view, it should be stressed that nanotechnologies can be particularly
470 useful to improve the effectiveness and stability of *C. acaulis* EO and carlina oxide and enable
471 long-term effectiveness in the field (Pavoni *et al.*, 2019). So, further studies are needed to
472 analyse the lethal and sub-lethal effects of micro- or nano-emulsion of *C. acaulis* EO and carlina
473 oxide. The *in vivo* toxicological assays displayed that the *C. acaulis* EO containing 97.7% of
474 carlina oxide, can produce modest neurological signs and moderate effects on the stomach,
475 liver, and kidney only at the highest dose (1000 mg/kg), slightly lower than the LD₅₀. The other
476 tested doses, which are closer to the practical use of the EO when formulated in protein baits,
477 did not cause side effects worthy of mention. Therefore, our study proved the safety of this
478 natural product to be used in “attract and kill” approaches for controlling major agricultural
479 pests.

480

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484

485 **Conflict of Interest**

486 The authors declare no competing interests.

487

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755

Table 1. Ingestion toxicity of carlina oxide in proteic baits on *Ceratitis capitata* adults.

Tested product	LC₁₀ (ppm) (95% CI)	LC₃₀ (ppm) (95% CI)	LC₅₀ (ppm) (95% CI)	LC₉₀ (ppm) (95% CI)	χ^2, (df), p-value
Carlina oxide	555 (394-698)	906 (725-1071)	1273 (1078-1480)	2922 (2413-3839)	5.860, (7), $p = 0.556$ ns

LC = lethal concentration.

95 % CI = lower and upper limits of the 95 % confidence interval.

ns = not significant ($p > 0.05$).

Table 2. Non-target toxicity of *Carlina acaulis* essential oil on rats: body and organs weight in the different experimental groups.

Dose	Body weight		Liver weight	Kidney weight
	0 h	48 h	48 h	48 h
1000 mg/kg	223.25 ± 6.22	211.75 ± 8.68	10.58 ± 0.51	0.96 ± 0.04
500 mg/kg	212.50 ± 9.00	219.75 ± 11.02	11.70 ± 0.94	0.93 ± 0.05
250 mg/kg	237.50 ± 13.17	241.5 ± 15.19	13.52 ± 1.04	0.93 ± 0.06
Vehicle	223.75 ± 6.91	231.5 ± 10.07	10.13 ± 0.76	0.87 ± 0.02
		0 h vs. 48 h		
		$F_{7,24}=1.096$	$F_{3,12}= 3.244$	$F_{3,12}=0.7463$
		$p=0.3966$	$p=0.0602$	$p=0.5450$

Time 0: weight at the time of essential oil administration. Time 48 h: weight at the moment of the sacrifice. Data are the mean ± SE. No significant differences between experimental groups were noted ($p>0.05$).

Figure 1. Overall abundance of aggressive events performed by *Ceratitis capitata* adults fed on LC₁₀ and LC₃₀ of carlina oxide vs. control flies. The asterisk shows a significant difference over the control (χ^2 test with Yates' correction, $p < 0.05$).

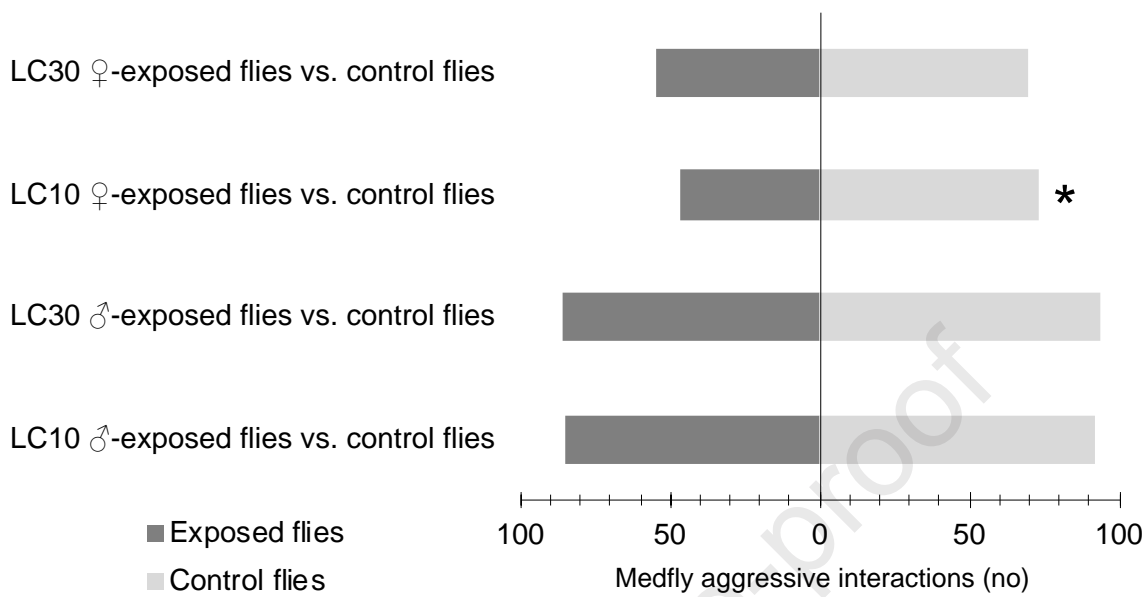


Figure 2. Mosaic diagram of the aggressions in *Ceratitis capitata* adults after being fed on carlina oxide. The bar on the right (yes/no) shows the directionality of the action, i.e., whether it has been directed or not towards the target subject, namely: **(A)** males fed on carlina oxide LC₃₀; **(B)** females fed on carlina oxide LC₃₀; **(C)** males fed on carlina oxide LC₁₀; **(D)** females fed on carlina oxide LC₁₀. The value within each mosaic tile specifies the percentage of aggressions. The size of each various mosaic tile varies according to the number of individuals who have shown aggressive behaviour.

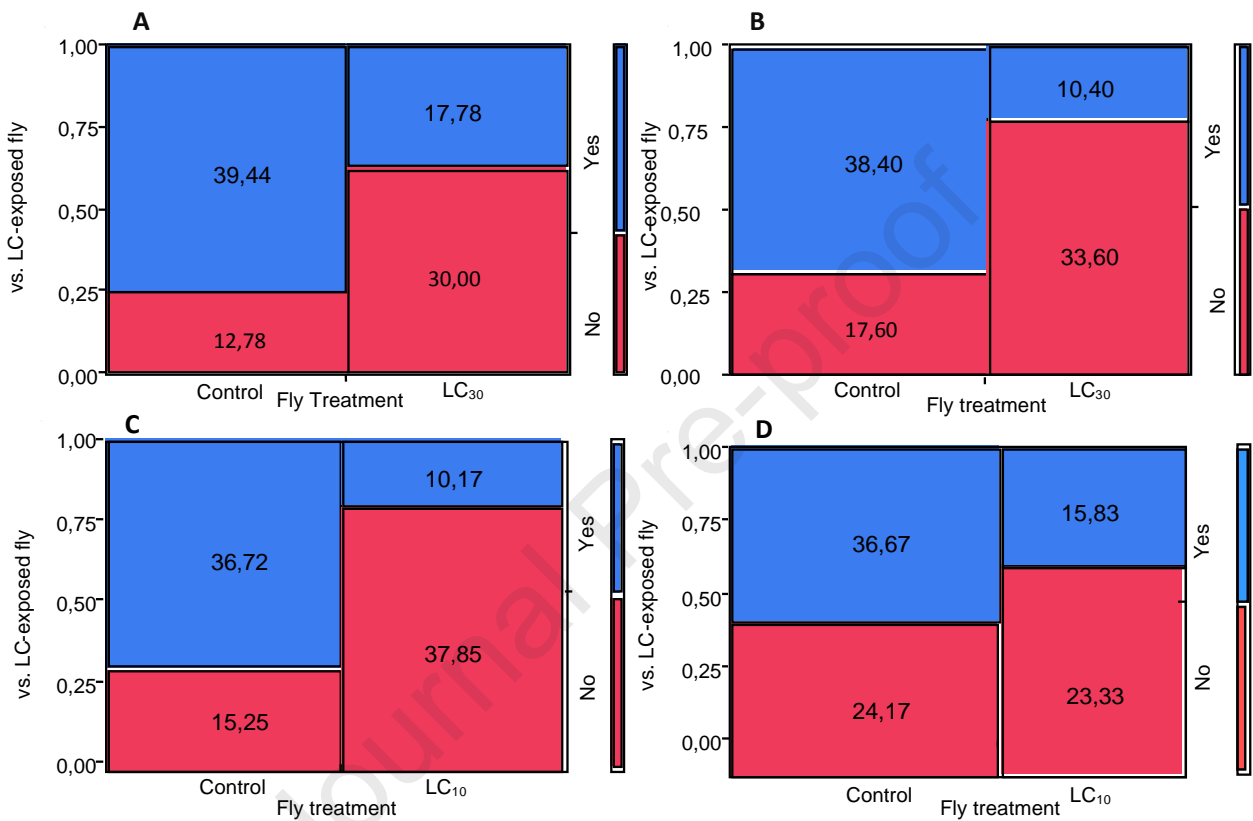


Figure 3. Mosaic diagram of the aggressions in *Ceratitis capitata* adult males and females feeding on carlina oxide: **(A)** adults fed on LC₃₀ of carlina oxide **(B)** adults fed on LC₁₀ of carlina oxide. The bars on the right denote the percentage of males and females out of the total number of individuals tested. The numbers inside each box show the percentage of aggressions based on gender (red = female; blue = male). The size of each mosaic tile varies according to the number of adults that have shown aggressive behaviour.

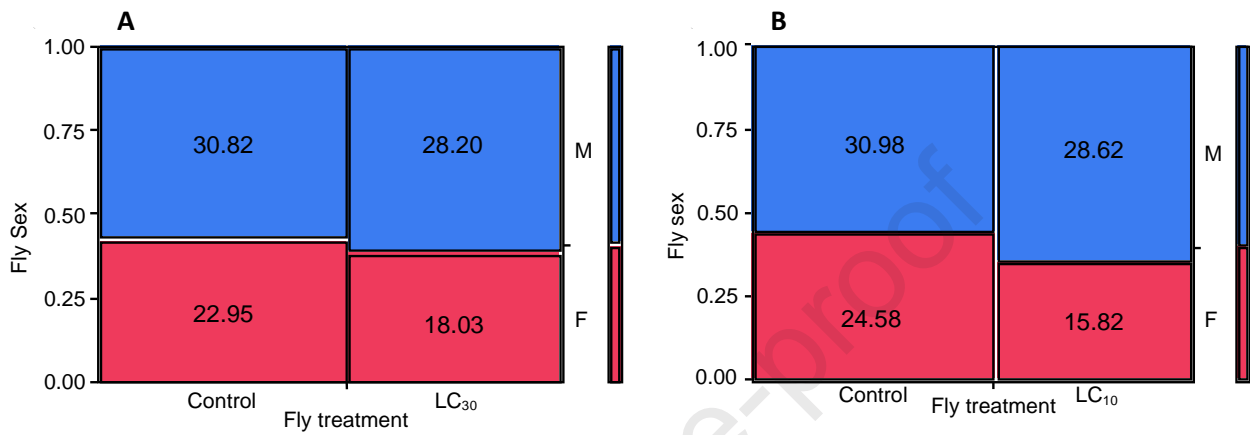


Figure 4. Aggression score of *Ceratitis capitata* males and females fed or not to LC₁₀ and LC₃₀ of carlina oxide (A) male fed on LC₁₀, (B) male fed on LC₃₀, (C) female fed on LC₁₀, (D) female fed on LC₃₀. Each box plot indicates the median (red line) and its dispersion range (lower, upper quartile and extreme values, outliers). The mean is indicated by a green line, the standard error is a blue T-bar; ns = not significant (Kruskal-Wallis test, $p > 0.05$).

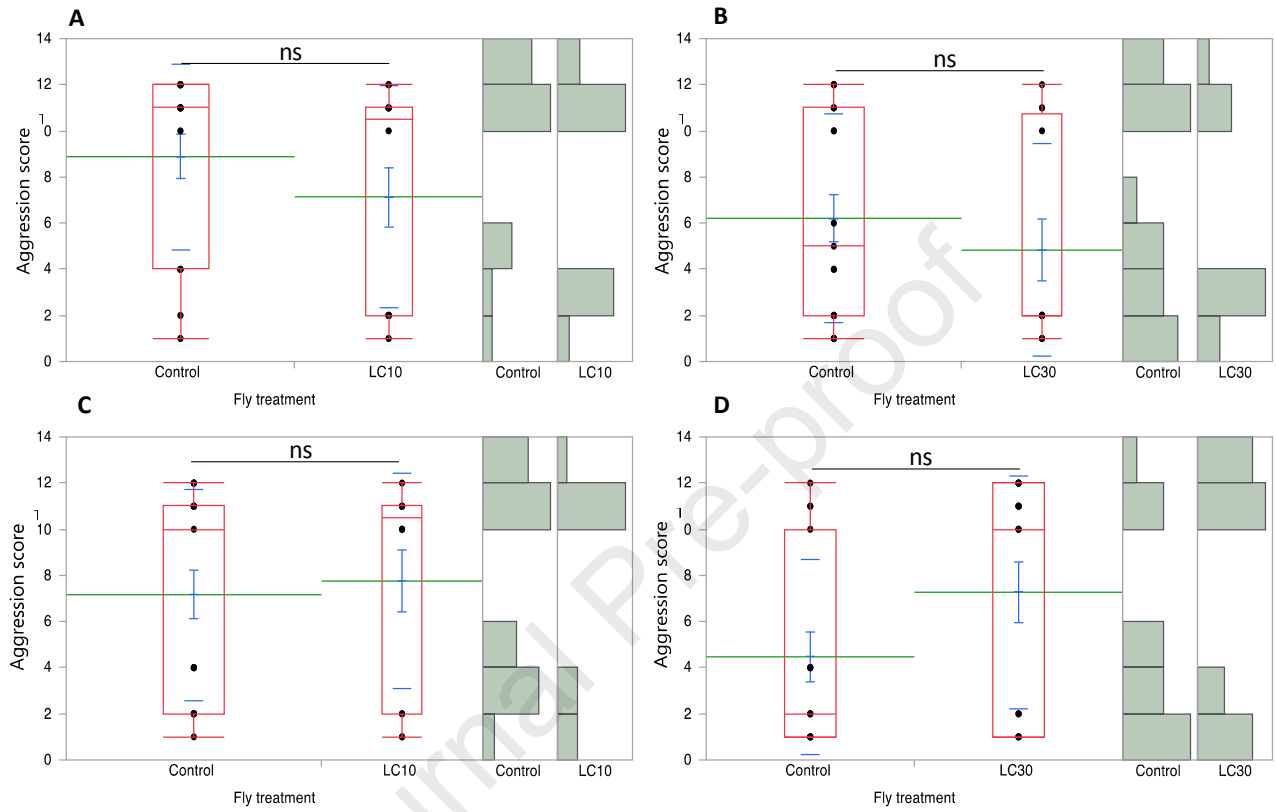


Figure 5. Aggression duration in *Ceratitis capitata* males and females fed or not to LC₁₀ and LC₃₀ of carlina oxide: **(A)** males fed on LC₁₀, **(B)** males fed on LC₃₀, **(C)** females fed on LC₁₀, **(D)** females fed on LC₃₀. Each box plot indicates the median (red line) and its dispersion range (lower, upper quartile and extreme values, outliers). The mean is indicated with a green line, the standard error is a blue T-bar. ns = not significant (Kruskal-Wallis test, $p > 0.05$).

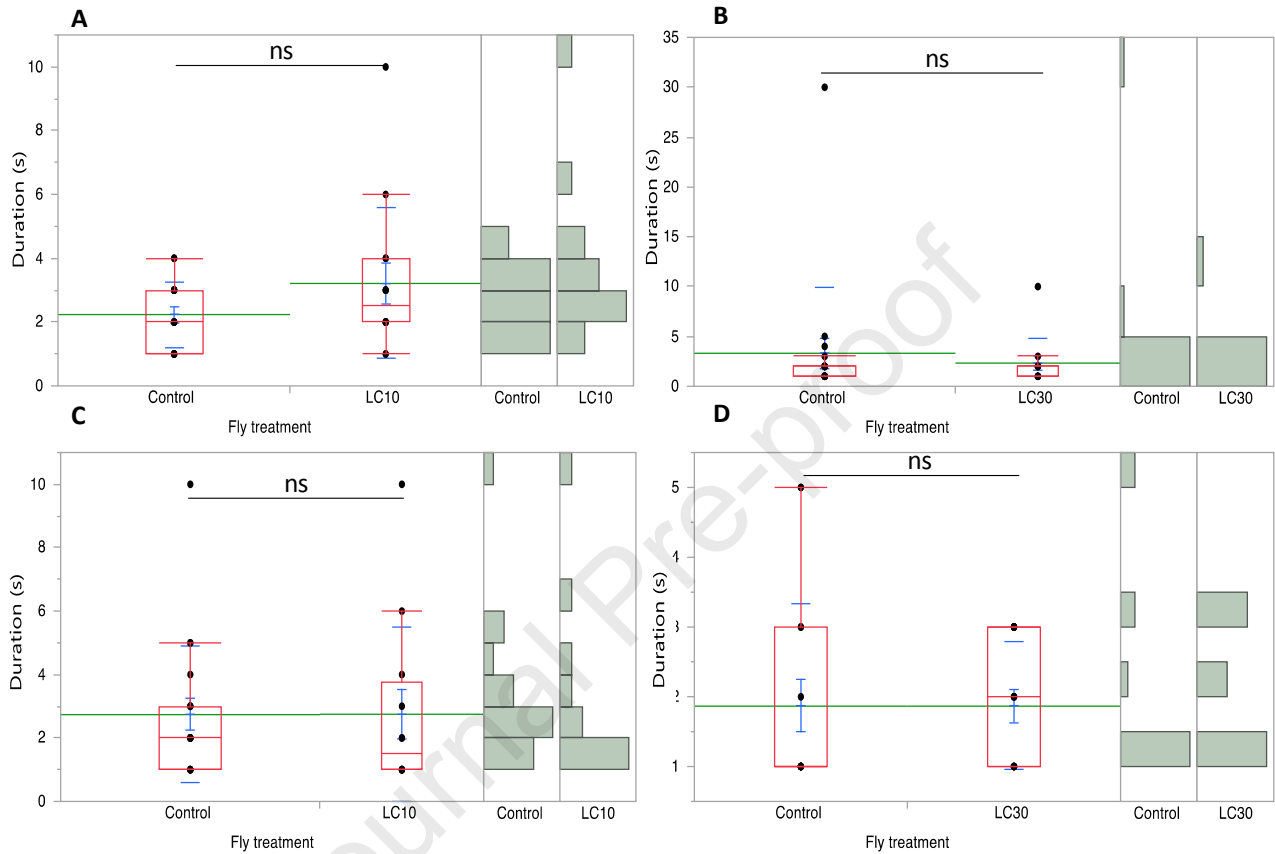


Figure 6. Inner wall of the stomach (A, D) and sections staining with haematoxylin and eosin at the levels of the fundus (B, E) and body (C, F) of animal treated with vehicle (A-C) and *Carlina acaulis* essential oil (D, E, F) at the dose of 1000 mg/kg. B, C, E, F: calibration bar 50 μ m (magnification 20X).

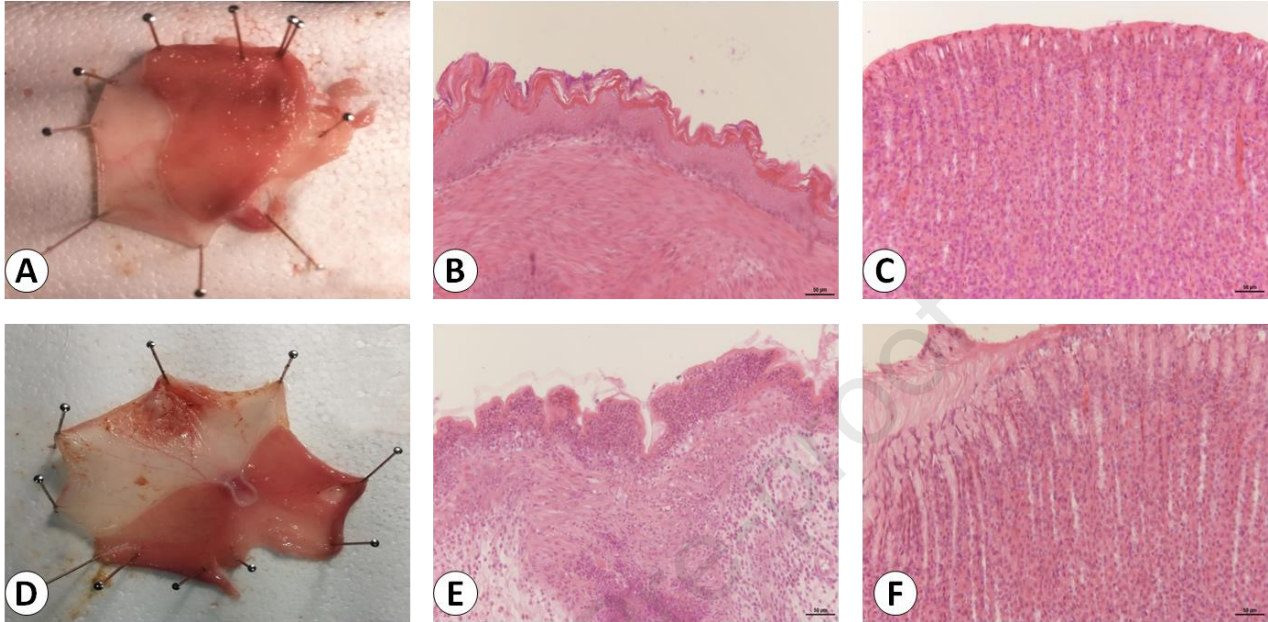


Figure 7. Sections of the liver stained with haematoxylin and eosin of animal treated with vehicle (A, B) and 1000 mg/kg of *Carlina acaulis* essential oil (C,D). A, C: calibration bar 50 μm (magnification 20X). B, D: calibration bar 25 μm (magnification 40X).

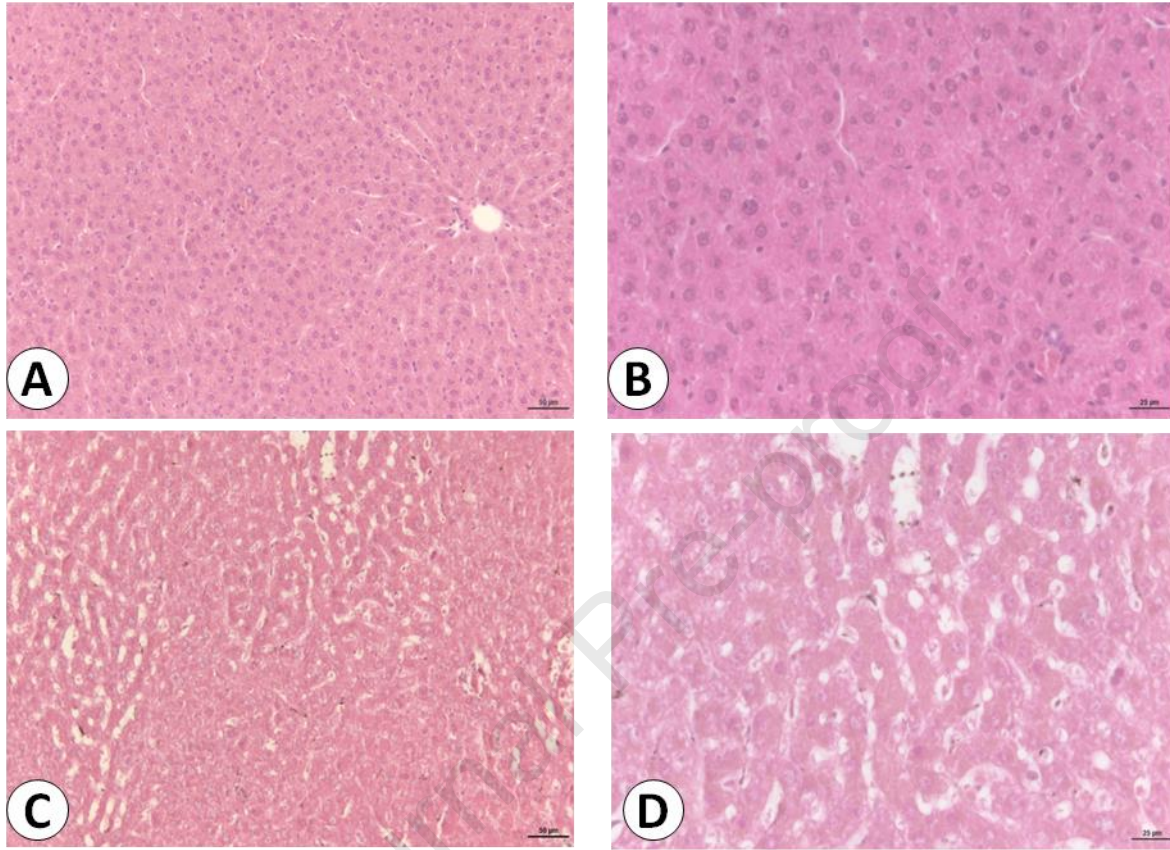
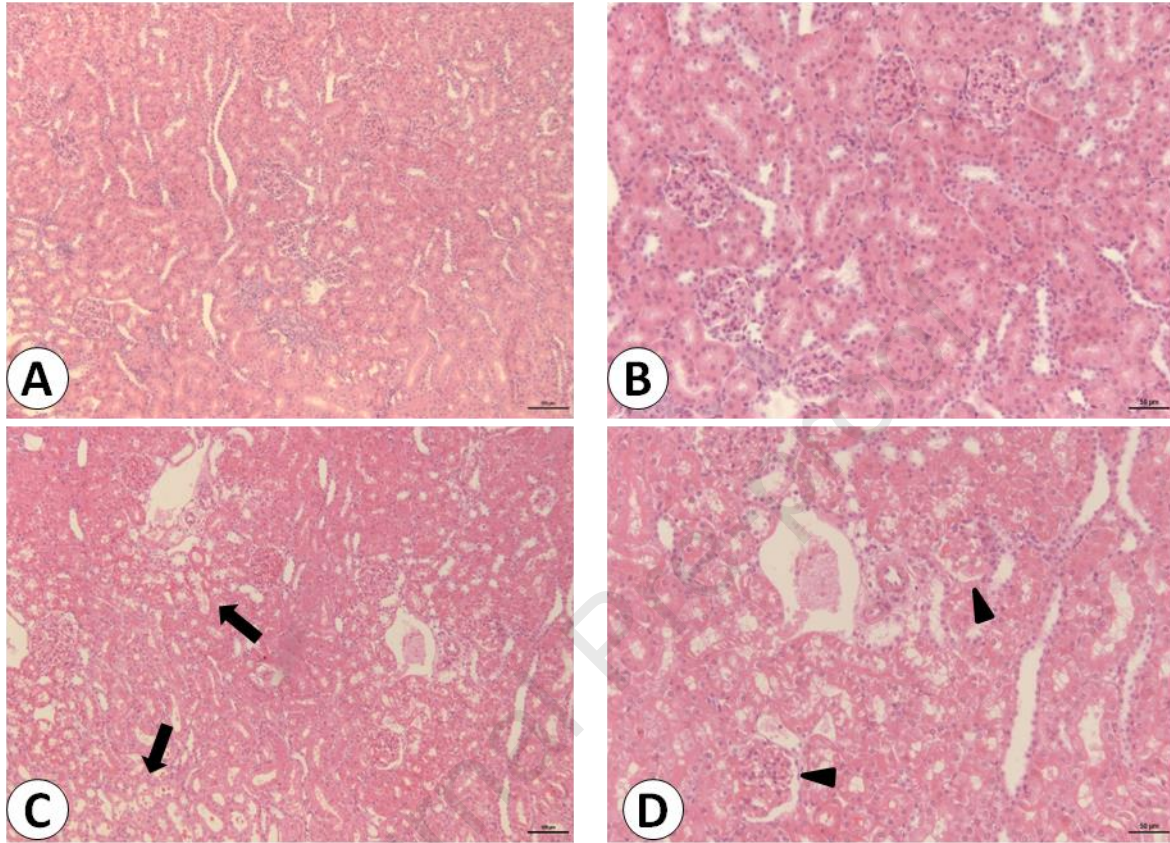


Figure 8. Sections of the cortical layer of kidney stained with haematoxylin and eosin of animal treated with vehicle (A, B) and 1000 mg/kg of *Carlina acaulis* essential oil (C, D). A, C: calibration bar 100 μm (magnification 10X). B, D: calibration bar 50 μm (magnification 20X).



Highlights

- *Carlina acaulis* essential oil represents green insecticides for fruit fly control
- Carlina oxide is the main constituent of the essential oil (>97%)
- Carlina oxide influences the aggression directionality of *C. capitata* adults
- A “lure & kill” formulation based on carlina oxide has been developed against *C. capitata*
- Oral toxicity tests on rats showed that the *C. acaulis* essential oil is safe for mammals

Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

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