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**Original Article** 

### Larvicidal Activity Of Croton Sparciflorus Morong (Euphorbiaceae) Leaf Extracts Against Three Vector Mosquitoes

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### ABSTRACT

The present investigation was undertaken to assess the larvicidal potential of the leaf extract from the medicinal plant Croton sparciflorus Morong (C. sparciflorus) against the medically important mosquito vectors, Aedes aegypti, Anopheles stephensi and Culex quinquefasciatus. Twenty five III instar larvae of three mosquitoes are exposed to different concentration (50-250) and were assayed in the laboratory by using the protocol of WHO 2005; The 24 h LC50 values of the C. The Sparciflorus leaf extract was determined following Probit analysis. Among the plant extract tested against Aedes aegypti, Anopheles stephensi and Culex quinquefasciatus the pronounced lethal activity was recorded against C. sparciflorus extract in the experimental larvae of A. Stephens with an LC<sub>50</sub> and LC<sub>90</sub> value of 28.88 and 65.35 ppm. It is accomplished that the highest larvicidal activity against A. stephensi was obtained with ethyl acetate extract of C. sparciflorus. The present investigation revealed that the possible utilization of C. sparciflorus to control the mosquito menace to a greater extent. Thus, paving the way for further exploration of identification and isolation of active principles present on the selected plant.

#### **Keywords:**

Croton sparciflorus, Aedes aegypti, Anopheles stephensi and Culex quinquefaciatus, Larvicidal activity.1.

#### **INTRODUCTION**

Mosquitoes represent a significant threat to human health because of their ability to vector pathogens that cause diseases that afflict millions of people worldwide (WHO 2010). Several species belonging to genera Aedes, Anopheles and *Culex* are vectors for the pathogen of various diseases like dengue fever, dengue hemorrhagic fever, malaria, Japanese encephalitis and filariasis (Borah et al., 2010; Rahuman 2009; Samuel 2010). Aedes aequpti is known to carry dengue and yellow fever; malaria is carried by Anopheles stephensi; and filarial disease by Culex. The dengue fever incidence has increased fourfold since 1970 and nearly half the world's population is now at risk. In 1990, almost 30% of the world population, 1.5 billion people, lived in regions where the estimated risk of dengue transmission was greater than 50% (Hales et al., 2002). An outbreak of Chikungunya virus disease emerged in the southwest Indian Ocean islands in 2005, spread out to India, and resulted in an ongoing outbreak that has involved <sup>1</sup>. 5 million patients, including travelers who have visited these areas (Taubitz et al., 2007). Anopheles stephensi are major malaria vectors in India. With an annual incidence of 300-500 million, malaria is still one of the most important communicable diseases. Currently, about 40% of the world's population live in areas where malaria is endemic (Wernsdorfer and Wernsdorfer, 2003). Culex quinquefasciatus, a vector of lymphatic filariasis, is widely distributed in tropical zones with around 120 million people infected worldwide and 44 million people having common chronic manifestation (Bernhard et al., 2003). The present proliferation of these diseases is not only due to higher number of breeding places in urban agglomeration, but also due to increasing resistance of mosquitoes to current commercial insecticides such asorganochlorides, organophosphates,



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carbamates and also to biological insecticides (Goettel *et al.*, 1992; Das and Amalraj, 1997; Yadav *et a*l., 1997).

Mosquito control has been becoming increasingly difficult because of the indiscriminate uses of synthetic chemical insecticides which have an adverse impact on the environment and disturb ecological balance. Majority of the chemical pesticides are harmful to man and animal, some of which are not easily degradable and spreading toxic effects. The increased use of these insecticides may enter into food chain, and thereby, the liver, kidney, etc., may be irreversibly damaged. They even result in mutation of genes and these changes become prominent only after a few generations (Ghosh et al., 1991). These problems have highlighted the need for the development of new strategies for selective mosquito control. Phytochemical are advantageous due to their eco-safety, target-specificity, non development of resistance, reduced number of application, higher acceptability, and suitability for rural areas. Botanicals can be used as alternative to synthetic insecticides or along with other insecticides under integrated vector control programs. The plant product of phytochemical, which is used as insecticides for killing larvae or adult mosquito bites. Phytochemicals obtained from the whole plant or specific part of the plant by the extraction with different types of solvent such as aqueous, methanol, chloroform, benzene, acetone, etc., depending on the polarity of the phytochemical. Some phytochemicals act as toxicant (insecticide) both against adult as well as larval stages of mosquitoes, while others interfere with growth and growth inhibitor or with reproduction or produce an olfactory stimulus, thus acting as repellent or attractant (Markouk et al., 2001).

Many studies on plant extract against mosquito larvae have been conducted in the region of the World. Plants may be a source of alternative agents for control of mosquitoes because they are rich in bioactive chemicals, are active against a limited number of species including specific target insects, and are biodegradable. They are potentially suitable for use in integrated pest management programs (Alkofahi *et al.*, 1989, Dharmshaktu *et al.*, 1987, Green *et al.*, 1991). Croton is extensive flowering plants genus in the spurge family, Euphorbiaceae established by Carl Linnaeus in 1737. The common names for this genus are rushfoil and *croton*, but the latter also refers to *Codiaeum variegatum* (Gledhill 2008). It has recently been shown in Kenya that *Croton* nuts, such as those *C. megalocarpus*, are a more economical resource of biofuel than Jatropha (Milich and Lenard 2009). It is used as a potent Hypotensive agent (Radcliffe-Smith 1986) and for the treatment of a variety of ailments like fever, inflammation, hypertension (Dubey *et al.*, 1969), and it causes sharp fall in blood pressure (Mandal *et al.*, 2004). Different extracts of this plant show larvicidal activity (Bhakuni and Jain 1981).

#### **Materials And Methods**

#### Plant collection

The leaves of *C. sparciflorus* are collected from Velankanni costal area, Nagai district, Tamil Nadu, South India (Fig. 1). The plant is authenticated by a plant taxonomist from the Department of Botany, Annamalai University. Voucher herbarium specimens have been deposited in the laboratory of Zoology, Annamalai University and Chidambaram.



Fig-1Collection of C. sparciflorus from Velankanni costal area

#### **Preparation of the Extract**

The dried leaf (100g) was powdered mechanically using commercial electrical stainless steel blender and extracted sequentially with ethyl acetate, hexane, dichloromethane and diethyl ether (500 ml, Ranchem), in a Soxhlet apparatus separately until exhaustion. The extract was concentrated under reduced pressure 22–26 mmHg at 45°C by 'Rotavapour' and the residue obtained was stored at 4°C.

#### **Test Mosquitoes**

All tests were carried out against laboratory reared vector mosquitoes viz., *Aedes aegypti* (*Ae. Egyptian*), *Anopheles stephensi* (*An. stephensi*) and *Culex quinquefasciatus* (*Cx. quinquefasciatus*) free of exposure to insecticides and pathogens, Cyclic generations of vector mosquitoes were maintained at 25-30 OC and 80-90 % relative humidity in the insectariums. Larvae were fed on larval food (powdered dog biscuit and yeast in the ratio of 3:1) and adult mosquitoes were periodically blood-fed to restrained albino mice for egg production.

#### Larvicidal Activity

Standard WHO protocol with slight modifications was adopted for the study (WHO 1996). From the stock solution, the concentration of 50, 100, 150, 200 and 250 ppm was prepared. Early third instar larvae were introduced in 250 ml plastic cups containing 200 ml of water with each concentration. A control was prepared by the addition of acetone to water. Mortality was recorded after 24 hours. For each experiment, five replicates were maintained at a time. The observed percentage mortality was corrected by Abbott's Formula (Abbott 1925).

#### **Statistical Analysis**

Statistical analysis of the study records was carried out with the help of SPSS to find the LC50, LC90, Standard Deviation (±SD), Mortality, Degree of freedom and Regression equations.

#### **Results And Discussion**

Results of the larvicidal activity of the ethyl acetate, hexane, dichloromethane and diethyl ether leaf extract of C. sparciflorus against Ae. aegypti, An. stephensi and Cx. quinquefasciatus reported in the present study showed the mosquitocidal properties in the plant signifying their use in mosquito population control (Table 1, 2, 3 and 4). The leaf extracts of C. sparciflorus showed larval mortality. An. stephensi was more vulnerable followed by Ae. aegypti and Cx. quinquefasciatus. The ethyl acetate extract of C. sparciflorus exhibited the maximum larvicidal activity with  $LC_{50}$  and  $LC_{90}$  value of 28.88 and 65.35 p.m. against the larvae of An. stephensi (Table 1). The screening of local medicinal plants for mosquito larvicidal activity may eventually lead to their use in natural product-based mosquito abatement practices. The results of the present study are equivalent with previous reports. They reported that the Dhanasekaran et al., have that the  $LC_{50}$ of ethanol crude extracts of selected indigenous medicinal plants were 82.86ppm, 89.45ppm, 109.37ppm 109.87ppm and 172.31 respectively, against the malarial vector, An. stephensi, dengue vector Ae. aegypti, Japanese Encephalitis vector, Culex tritaeniorhynchus. Kaliyamoorthy krishnappa et al., (a) has ethanol extracts of Gliricidia sepium showed larvicidal showed  $LC_{50}$  and LC<sub>90</sub> value of 121.79ppm and 231.98 respectively, against the malarial vector, An. Stephens. Elangovan et al., (a) have leaf extracts of Corchorus capsularis the against common malarial vector, Anopheles stephensi (LC<sub>50</sub> and LC<sub>90</sub> values of 197.34, 205.48, 176.19 and 358.59, 363.42, 334.56 ppm), against dengue vector Ae. aegypti (LC50 and LC90 values of 222.45, 190.52, 182.06 and 383.06, 354.84, 306.81 ppm), respectively. Krishnappa et al., (b) have hexane, benzene, chloroform and methanol extracts of Adansonia digitata against III instar larvae of medically important human malaria vector mosquito Anopheles stephensi ( $LC_{50}$  and  $LC_{90}$  values of 111.32, 97.13, 88.55, 78.18 and 178.63, 176.19, 168.14, 155.42 mg/l) respectively. Elumalai (a) et al., have various extracts of Gymnema Sylvestre showed LC<sub>50</sub> values of 34.756, 31.351 and 28.577 respectively, against the Japanese Encephalitis vector, Culex tritaeniorhynchus. Elumalai et al.,(b) have that larvicidal, ovicidal and pupicidal activity of Eranthemum roseum against malarial vector mosquito, Anopheles stephensi (LC<sub>50</sub> and LC<sub>90</sub> values of 121.65, 139.86 ppm and 237.38, 255.51 ppm), respectively. Elumalai et al., (c) have that mosquitocidal activity of Abrus precatorius against chickungunya vector, Ae. aegypti (LC<sub>50</sub> and LC<sub>90</sub> values of 264.57ppm and 500.76ppm), against the Japanese Encephalitis vector, *Culex tritaeniorhynchus* (LC<sub>50</sub> and LC<sub>90</sub> values of 257.73ppm and 496.94ppm),

respectively. Baluselvakumar *et al.*, have plant extracts of Oxystelma esculentum against Anopheles stephensi ( $LC_{50}$  and  $LC_{90}$  values of 75.46, 68.55, 98.47, 88.24, 63.84 and 140.66, 130.65, 184.10, 169.36 and 122.48 ppm,) respectively. Mullai and Jabanesan have leaf extracts of *C. colocynthis* and Cucurbita maxima showed  $LC_{50}$  values of 47.58, 66.92 and 118.74 ppm and 75.91, 117.73 and 171.64 ppm, respectively, against *Cx. quinquefasciatus* larvae. Krishnappa *et al.*, (c) have leaf extracts of Cissus quadrangularis and Combretum ovalifolium showed  $LC_{50}$  values of 56.42, 46.37, 47.55, 37.48ppm and 95.47, 85.37, 86.46, 74.53ppm respectively, against *Anopheles stephensi*. Elangovan *et al.*, (b) have that the larvicidal and ovicidal activity of Exacum pedunculatum against the common malarial vector, *Anopheles stephensi* ( $LC_{50}$  and  $LC_{90}$  values of 127.45, 121.39, 151.96 and 121.24). Karunamoorthi and ilango have that the  $LC_{50}$  and  $LC_{90}$  of a methanol leaf extract of *Croton macrostachyus* (*C. macrostachyus*) were 89.25 and 224.98 ppm, respectively against late third instar larvae of the malaria vector, *Anopheles arabiensis* (*A. arabiensis*).

Table 1:	Larvicidal	activity o	f Ethyl	acetate e	extracts	<b>C</b> .	sparciflorus	against A.	aegypti, A.
		st	ephensi	i, and Cx	. quinqı	ıefa	asciatus.		

			95% confi	dence limit		95% confidence limit			Regression
Concentration tested	%martality±SD	LС <sub>50</sub> (ррт)	LCL	UCL	– LC <sub>90</sub> (ppm)	LCL	UCL	- df	
A. aegypti									
50 ppm	36±2.387								
100 ppm	56±1.516	34.02	28.54	38.57	74.57	68.78	82.26	3	Y=-3.213x+9.897
150 ppm	76±2.280								
200 ppm	92±2345								
250 ppm	$100 \pm 0.00$								
A. Stephens									
50 ppm	20±1.3.03								
100 ppm	36±1.414	28.88	1.23	41.35	65.35	51.79	103.66	3	Y=-7.422x+15.93
150 ppm	56±2.915								
200 ppm	72±2387								
250 ppm	$84 \pm 1.923$								
Cx. quinquefasciatus									
50 ppm	36±3.130								
100 ppm	52±2.607	36.22	21.22	46.05	79.89	67.68	103.97	3	Y=-3.340x+10.02
150 ppm	72±3.633								
200 ppm	88±2.792								
250 ppm	$100 \pm 0.00$								

LC50= Lethal concentration that kills 50% of the exposed parasite, LC90= Lethal concentration that kills 90% of the exposed parasite. LCL- Lower Confident Limit, UCL- Upper Confident Limit, PPM- Parts Per Million, SD- Standard Deviation, DF- Degree of Freedom.

## Table 2: Larvicidal activity of Hexane extracts C. sparciflorus against A. aegypti, A.stephensi, and Cx. quinquefasciatus.

			95% confidence limit			95% confidence limit			
Concentration tested	%martality± SD	LC <sub>50</sub> (ppm)	LCL	UCL	- LC <sub>90</sub> (ppm)	LCL	UCL	- df	Regression
A. aegypti									
50 ppm	20±1.303								
100 ppm	36±1.414	55.28	49.88	60.42	110.70	101.08	124.29	3	Y= 2.594 x+0.651
150 ppm	56±2.915								
200 ppm	72±2.387								
250 ppm	84 ±1.923								
A.stephensi									
50 ppm	$24 \pm 2.167$								
100 ppm	$06 \pm 3.507$	63.47	56.23	71.14	143.91	125.56	174.35	3	Y= 1.785 x+1.879
150 ppm	48±3.209								
200 ppm	60±4.301								
250 ppm	72±2.949								
Cx. quinque fasciatus									
50 ppm	$12\pm2.121$								
100 ppm	08±2.966	69.59	64.08	75.71	129.34	116.91	147.63	3	Y= 2.489 x+0.51 1
150 ppm	44±2.774								
200 ppm	60±3.781								
250 ppm	72±2.683								

 $LC_{50}$ = Lethal concentration that kills 50% of the exposed parasite,  $LC_{90}$ = Lethal concentration that kills 90% of the exposed parasite. LCL- Lower Confident Limit, UCL- Upper Confident Limit, PPM- Parts Per Million, SD- Standard Deviation, DF- Degree of Freedom.

# Table 3: larvicidal activity of dichloromethane extracts C. sparciflorus against A.aegypti, A. stephensi, and Cx. quinquefasciatus

			95% confi	dance limit		95% confidance limit			
Concentration tested	% martality+ SD	LCo	<b>7570 CO</b>	dance minte	- LC			- df	Regression
concentration tested	/vinurtunty= 50	(ppm)	LCL	UCL	(p p m )	LCL	UCL	,	
A.aegypti									
50 pp m	$32 \pm 1.095$								
100 ppm	48±1.673	41.58	18.23	55.47	88.44	71.20	137.20	3	Y = -3.402x + 9.978
150 ppm	64±1.816								
200 ppm	$80 \pm 1.949$								
250 ppm	$100 \pm 0.00$								
A.stephensi									
50 pp m	$40 \pm 2.863$								
100 ppm	$56 \pm 2.302$	32.32	26.33	37.18	74.95	68.92	83.02	3	Y = -3.356x + 10.16
150 ppm	$76 \pm 2.683$								
200 ppm	$92 \pm 2.880$								
250 ppm	$100 \pm 0.00$								
Cx. quinquefasciatus									
50 pp m	$24 \pm 2.509$								
100 ppm	$40 \pm 3.209$	54.77	48.68	60.49	117.47	105.95	134.50	3	Y = 2.279x + 1.197
150 ppm	52±3.033								
200 ppm	68±3.286								
250 ppm	84±2.509								

 $LC_{50}$ = Lethal concentration that kills 50% of the exposed parasite,  $LC_{90}$ = Lethal concentration that kills 90% of the exposed parasite. LCL- Lower Confident Limit, UCL- Upper Confident Limit, PPM-Parts Per Million, SD- Standard Deviation, DF- Degree of Freedom.

## Table 4: Larvicidal activity of Diethyl ether extracts C. sparciflorus against A. aegypti, A.stephensi, and Cx. quinquefasciatus.

			95% confide	nce limit		95% confider	ice limit		Regression
Concentration tested	% Martality± SD	LC <sub>50</sub> (ppm)	LCL	UCL	LC <sub>90</sub> (ppm)	LCL	UCL	df	
A. aegypti									
50 ppm	28±1.643								
100 ppm	44±1.483	47.22	40.89	52.73	106.06	96.31	120.09	3	Y=2.426x+1.113
150 ppm	60±1.140								
200 ppm	76±1.341								
250 ppm	88±2.073								
A.stephensi									
50 ppm	32±3.130								
100 ppm	04±3.781	45.04	38.65	50.52	102.62	93.30	115.97	3	Y=2.483x+1.085
150 ppm	60±3.271								
200 ppm	76±3.898								
250 ppm	92±2.280								
Cx. quinquefasciatus									
50 ppm	20±2.302								
100 ppm	36±3.240	60.55	54.70	66.44	123.65	111.35	141.94	3	Y=2.274x+1.084
150 ppm	48±2.607								
200 ppm	64±3.847								
250 ppm	80±3.082								

 $LC_{50}$ = Lethal concentration that kills 50% of the exposed parasite,  $LC_{90}$ = Lethal concentration that kills 90% of the exposed parasite. LCL- Lower Confident Limit, UCL- Upper Confident Limit, PPM- Parts Per Million, SD- Standard Deviation, DF- Degree of Freedom.

#### Conclusion

It may conclude that natural products as extracts from parts of plants of insecticidal and medicinal values have higher efficiency in reducing the mosquito menace due to their larvicidal toxicity. Further studies on the isolation and purification of compounds followed by in-depth laboratory and field bioassays are needed as the present study shows that there is scope to use C. sparciflorus leaf extracts to control the immature stages of vector mosquitoes.

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