



ISSN (E): 2277-7695
ISSN (P): 2349-8242
NAAS Rating: 5.23
TPI 2023; 12(9): 2062-2066
© 2023 TPI

www.thepharmajournal.com

Received: 17-06-2023

Accepted: 21-07-2023

S Senthamilselvi
Department of Agricultural
Entomology, Tamil Nadu
Agricultural University,
Coimbatore, Tamil Nadu, India

VR Saminathan
Department of Agricultural
Entomology, Tamil Nadu
Agricultural University,
Coimbatore, Tamil Nadu, India

K Subaharan
Division of Germplasm
Conservation and Utilisation,
ICAR – National Bureau of
Agricultural Insect Resources,
Bengaluru, Karnataka, India

A Suganthi
Department of Agricultural
Entomology, Tamil Nadu
Agricultural University,
Coimbatore, Tamil Nadu, India

MR Srinivasan
Department of Agricultural
Entomology, Tamil Nadu
Agricultural University,
Coimbatore, Tamil Nadu, India

C Thangamani
Department of Vegetable
Sciences, HC& RI, TNAU,
Coimbatore, Tamil Nadu, India

Corresponding Author:
S Senthamilselvi
Department of Agricultural
Entomology, Tamil Nadu
Agricultural University,
Coimbatore, Tamil Nadu, India

Effect of insecticides on the Indian honey bees *Apis cerana indica* F (Hymenoptera: Apidae) in cotton and bhendi ecosystems

S Senthamilselvi, VR Saminathan, K Subaharan, A Suganthi, MR Srinivasan and C Thangamani

Abstract

Honey bees are critical pollinators worldwide, yet it is increasingly vulnerable to biotic and abiotic stresses. Agrochemicals are the major cause of pollinator decrease around the world. Field studies were conducted to study the effect of insecticidal exposure on Indian honey bees. It was found that the honeybee death rate in both cotton and bhendi crops was lowest when exposed to chlorantraniliprole (14.19) followed by fipronil (23.69), imidacloprid (25.81), dinotefuran (30.53). In terms of toxicity ranking, the insecticides were ordered from least to most toxic as follows: chlorantraniliprole < fipronil < imidacloprid < dinotefuran. The mean mortality rate was highest when exposed to dinotefuran (15.09 and 15.44), followed by imidacloprid (12.35 and 13.46), fipronil (12.02 and 11.67), and chlorantraniliprole (5.27 and 8.92), in cotton and bhendi ecosystems. These pesticides caused varied poisoning symptoms in bees, which could aid beekeepers in identifying the reason behind colony deaths. The findings offer valuable insights for choosing insecticides that minimize harm to foraging honey bees while effectively managing crop pests.

Keywords: *Apis cerana indica*, insecticides, field doses, cotton, bhendi, different pests, mortality

Introduction

Honey bees are significant pollinators that play a crucial ecological and functional role in maintaining native plant communities and agricultural productivity (Potts *et al.*, 2010) [17]. *Apis cerana* is an important social honey bee species present at high elevations in the Asian tropics and northeastern Asia, and it is a key pollinator (Corlett, 2004) [6]. *A. cerana indica* is distributed in China, Japan, India, Bangladesh, Nepal, Papua New Guinea, and Malaysia (Jones & Bienefeld, 2016) [27]. They impact 75 per cent of the world's most important food crop and 35 per cent of agricultural crop production (IPBES, 2016) [2]. As the frequency of foraging by honeybees in crops increases, the pollination effectiveness also increases (Singh *et al.*, 2006) [22]. While foraging, they are exposed to challenges like parasites, predators, diseases, and xenobiotics in the environment (Ollerton *et al.*, 2011) [15] and thereby contaminated by either plant-derived chemicals or agrochemicals that are applied to the crop (Kumar *et al.*, 2020) [12]. The increasing use of synthetic pesticides such as insecticides, herbicides, and fungicides in agriculture has direct effects like worker bee mortality (Johnson *et al.*, 2010) [10]. The xenobiotics are also accumulated in pollen and nectar stored in the colony. This accumulation can contribute to Colony Collapse Disorder (CCD), a phenomenon linked to significant colony losses and potential threats to agricultural systems and biodiversity. Currently, a variety of insecticides belonging to different classes are used for pest management in crop ecosystems.

Cotton (*Gossypium hirsutum* L.) and bhendi (*Abelmoschus esculentus* L.) are two important crops pollinated by Indian honey bees (*Apis cerana indica* Fab). Both crops face numerous insect pests throughout their growth cycle, starting from germination and continuing until harvest (Naeem-Ullah, 2020; Sharma & Rao, 2012) [14, 20]. They are vulnerable to sucking pests in the early stages and borers in the reproductive stages, which leads to a significant yield loss, estimated at around 20-40% (Ahmad, 1999) [1] in cotton and 69% (Rawat & Sahu, 1975; Mani *et al.*, 2005) [18, 13] in okra. Infestation by these pests negatively impacts both the quality and quantity of the yield, ultimately resulting in reduced market prices. A wide range of chemical insecticides used in these crops to control various pests, persist throughout various plant parts for extended durations and impact the foraging habits of bees and other pollinators.

Prolonged exposure to these residues can disrupt their behaviour, posing risks to their survival and the ecosystems they support. Certain insecticides lack taste and odor which honey bees struggle to distinguish between treated and untreated crops (Kessler *et al.*, 2015) [11]. Consequently, when these insecticides are applied to crops, honey bees are significantly attracted to them, resulting in both lethal and sub-lethal consequences for the bee population. Hence, investigations on the potential threats posed by these insecticides on the Indian honey bee, *A. cerana indica* in cotton and bhendi ecosystems are essential.

Materials and Methods

Site of the experiment

The cotton experimental field was located at Thondamuthur, in the Coimbatore district of Tamil Nadu (10° 35' N latitude,

76° 46' E longitude) which experiences a tropical climate with ample rainfall during both the monsoon seasons. The cotton hybrid RCH 659 was raised at a spacing of 45 x 30 cm during 2023 by following recommended agronomic practices. Bhendi experimental field was located at Oddanchatram, in the Dindigul district of Tamil Nadu (10° 28' N latitude, 77° 44' E longitude). The bhendi hybrid Vikram was raised at a spacing of 15 x 30 cm during 2023 by following recommended agronomic practices.

Spraying of insecticides

During the experiment, the following insecticides were administered as foliar sprays at 50% flowering stage in both cotton and bhendi. All the insecticides were used at field-recommended doses as per the CIBRC guidelines, 2021. Water spray was used as control.

Table 1: List of insecticides used in the cotton and bhendi fields

S. No	Insecticides	Recommended Dose / ha	Quantity/ litre	Company
1	Dinotefuran 20% WG	125- 150 g	0.25 g	Indofil Industries Ltd
2	Fipronil 5% SC	750 ml	1.5 ml	Bayer crop science
3	Chlorantraniliprole 18.5% SC	150 ml	0.3ml	FMC India private ltd
4	Imidacloprid 17.8% SL (Chemical check)	150 ml	0.3 ml	Rallis India ltd

These insecticides were applied using a hand-operated knapsack sprayer. The experiment was conducted in Randomized Block Design (RBD), with five treatments and four replications. Each individual plot was measured 10 x 5 m², with a three-meter isolation distance between plots to prevent the drift of pesticides during spraying. To prevent the escape of bees during the experiment, nylon nets were placed around the individual plots. These nets had dimensions of 10

meters in length, 5 meters in width, and 2 meters in height, with a mesh size of 1 mm (Fig 1). Within each plot, Indian bee hives with equal strength, sufficient food storage, and queens of the same age were placed. These hives were well-maintained with regular water supply to prevent overheating and forage space was confined using netting to ensure that bees remained within the experimental area.

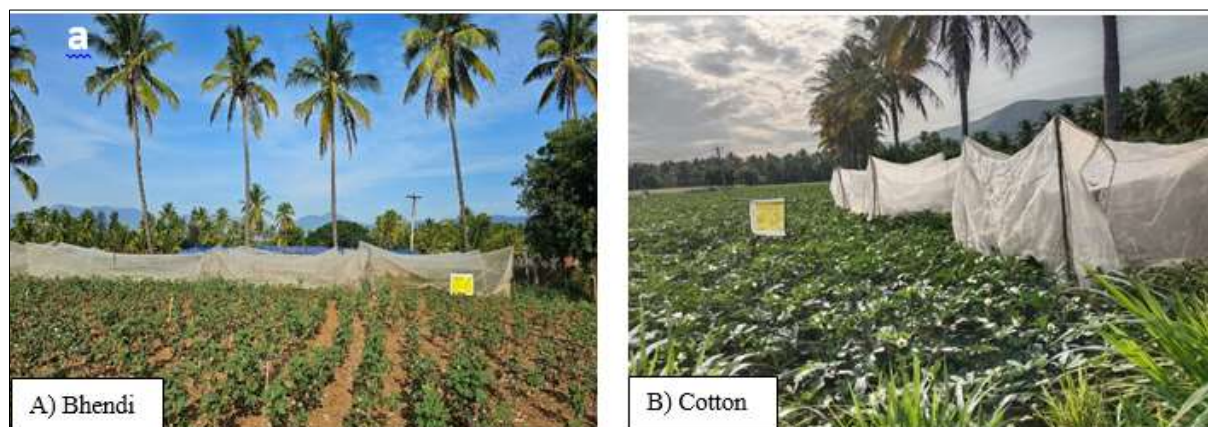


Fig 1: Field covered with net for the experiment

Experimental setup

The experimental setup involved the use of an Indian honey bee hive and a khada cloth. This same setup was employed for both cotton and bhendi fields. Marthandam type of Indian honey bee hive with 27cm x 23cm x 24cm dimension was chosen for the study. This hive contained a healthy queen, approximately 2500 to 3,000 bees, and three full frames containing an average amount of food and brood storage. A khada cloth, measuring 100cm in length and 25cm in width,

was placed around the hive (Faucon *et al.*, 2005) [8]. To assess the impact of insecticide spray, the number of dead adult bees in front of the hive was monitored (Fig 2). The khada cloth was emptied on a daily basis throughout the exposure period. The count of dead bees was recorded at various intervals, including 1 day after spray (DAS), 2 DAS, 3 DAS, and 4 DAS, to analyze the immediate effects of insecticide application. Dead bees that were collected and counted were disposed of at specific intervals during the experiment.



Fig 2: Dead bees at the entrance of the hive

Statistical analysis

The values, after square root transformation, were analyzed by using a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) in the Statistical Analysis Software programme (SAS academics) (SAS Institute, 1985). When significant, the means were separated using Tukey's test ($p < 0.05$).

Results and Discussion

Bees that ingested food contaminated with insecticides displayed signs of dying. As part of their hygienic behavior, dead bees were removed and collected on the khada cloth, and some dead bees were also observed in the area around the net. Forager bees returning to the hive experienced mortality and fell onto the khada cloth placed near the hives. A differential rate of mortality with different insecticidal exposure was observed in both cotton and bhendi crops. The mean mortality rate was highest when exposed to dinotefuran (15.09 and 15.44 bees), followed by imidacloprid (12.35 and 13.46 bees), fipronil (12.02 and 11.67 bees), and chlorantraniliprole (5.27 and 8.92 bees), in cotton and bhendi ecosystems. In terms of toxicity ranking, the insecticides were ordered from least to most toxic as follows: chlorantraniliprole < fipronil < imidacloprid < dinotefuran. Among all the insecticides tested, diamide (chlorantraniliprole) safest for the bees. Neonicotinoids like dinotefuran and imidacloprid caused higher mortality in honeybees compared to pyrazoles like fipronil. (Carrillo *et al.*, 2013; Yasuda *et al.*, 2017) [4, 28]

The susceptibility of European honey bee *Apis mellifera* (Brar *et al.*, 2022) [3] and Indian bees *Apis cerana* (Chandrasekar *et al.*, 2022 & Sowmiya *et al.*, 2022) [5, 24] to various groups of insecticides was earlier demonstrated by many scientists. Prolonged exposure to imidacloprid increases imidacloprid toxicity to honey bees. The higher toxicity of the neonicotinoids to honey bees could be attributed to the fact that neonicotinoids accumulate in pollen (Suchail *et al.*, 2000) [25]. High worker mortality was observed when honeybees

consumed imidacloprid-contaminated pollen and sugar syrup (Decourtye *et al.*, 2003; Iwasa *et al.*, 2004) [7, 9]. The field-realistic levels of neonicotinoid residues in pollen pose substantial risks to honeybees and bumblebees (Sanchez-Bayo & Goka, 2014) [19]. Nitro-containing neonicotinoids like dinotefuran and imidacloprid are known for their high toxicity compared to the cyano-containing neonicotinoids like acetamiprid and thiacloprid to bees (Simon-Delso *et al.*, 2015) [21]. Fipronil, part of the phenyl pyrazole family, also acts systemically in plants. Both neonicotinoids and fipronil are particularly toxic when ingested by honeybees (Suchail *et al.*, 2001) [26]

When bees interact with flowers, they often come into contact with the floral parts, which differ from crop to crop. Additionally, variability may also result from differences in the environmental conditions during testing and any natural disparities in the condition of the bees being studied. Variation in the effect of thiamethoxam on honey bees in maize and oilseed rape ecosystem was already reported (Pilling *et al.*, 2013) [16].

Initially, the presence of pesticide residues resulted in heightened toxicity to the bees, leading to a significant increase in the mortality rate (Sowmiya, Unpublished data 2022) [23]. However, over the subsequent days, the mortality rate decreased significantly. In cotton, the initial mortality rate was highest on 1 DAS (26.22 to 8.46 bees), followed by 2 DAS (16.65 to 6.70 bees), 3 DAS (10.75 to 3.00 bees), and 4 DAS (6.75 to 2.90 bees). A similar trend was observed in bhendi and it was 23.25 to 14.10 bees on 1 DAS followed by 20.53 to 11.51 bees on 2 DAS, 12.00 to 7.25 bees on 3 DAS, and 6.00 to 2.50 bees on 4 DAS.

Comparing the mortality of bees in both cotton and bhendi, the overall mean mortality of bhendi is slightly higher than cotton to all the insecticides tested *viz.*, dinotefuran, imidacloprid, fipronil, and chlorantraniliprole. (Fig 3).

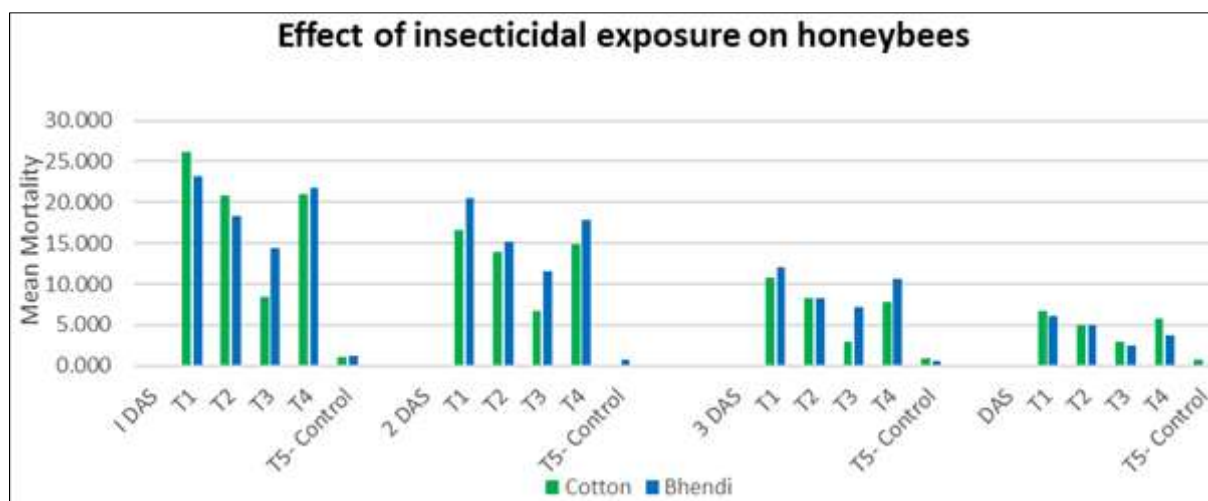


Fig 3: Comparison of mean mortality of bees in cotton and bhendi ecosystems

Table 2: Effect of insecticides on the Indian honeybees (*A. cerana indica*) in the cotton and bhendi ecosystems

Treatment	Mean no. of dead bees recorded at indicated DAS									
	Cotton					Bhendi				
	1 DAS	2 DAS	3 DAS	4 DAS	Mean	1 DAS	2 DAS	3 DAS	4 DAS	Mean
Dinotefuran	26.22 ^a (5.22)	16.65 ^a (4.15)	10.75 ^a (3.48)	6.75 ^a (2.66)	15.09 (3.87)	23.25 ^a (4.85)	20.53 ^a (4.59)	12.00 ^a (3.42)	6.00 ^a (2.53)	15.44 (3.84)
Fipronil	20.85 ^b (4.61)	13.98 ^c (3.80)	8.25 ^b (2.95)	5.00 ^{ab} (2.32)	12.02 (3.42)	18.25 ^b (4.32)	15.19 ^c (3.96)	8.25 ^{bc} (2.95)	5.00 ^{ab} (2.29)	11.67 (3.13)
Chlorantraniliprole	8.46 ^c (2.98)	6.70 ^d (2.67)	3.00 ^c (1.86)	2.90 ^b (1.80)	5.27 (2.33)	14.40 ^c (3.85)	11.51 ^d (3.47)	7.25 ^c (2.76)	2.50 ^{bc} (1.70)	8.92 (2.95)
Imidacloprid	21.00 ^b (4.63)	14.93 ^{ab} (3.92)	7.75 ^b (2.86)	5.75 ^a (2.49)	12.35 (3.48)	21.75 ^a (4.72)	17.81 ^b (4.27)	10.54 ^{ab} (3.31)	3.75 ^{ab} (2.05)	13.46 (3.58)
Control	1.00 ^d (1.22)	0.00 ^e (0.71)	0.88 ^c (1.17)	0.69 ^c (1.09)	0.64 (1.05)	1.25 ^d (1.31)	0.76 ^e (1.12)	0.62 ^d (1.05)	0.00 ^e (0.71)	0.65 (1.04)
SE	0.121	0.102	0.118	0.215	0.139	0.11	0.12	0.18	0.25	0.165
CD(P=0.05)	0.264	0.222	0.257	0.469	0.303	0.251	0.262	0.408	0.558	0.369

DAS- Days after spraying

Figures in parentheses are $\sqrt{(x+0.5)}$ transformed values.

Mean values followed by the same superscript alphabet (s) in the columns do not differ significantly by Tukey at P=0.05 level

Conclusion

A. cerana indica offers significant economic prospects for both small and large-scale beekeeping operations. Sustained and improved beekeeping with *A. cerana indica* is crucial to species preservation (Jones & Bienefeld, 2016) [27]. Exposure of bees to such insecticides has the potential to reduce the overall health and fitness of bee colonies, thereby impacting their sustainability. Additional research is required to assess the safety of applying these chemical insecticides in bee foraging areas. This should include the persistence of systemic insecticides that remain in the environment and affect plants that attract bees. It's crucial to understand that exposure of insect pollinators to hazardous chemicals like dinotefuran, imidacloprid, etc., even a small amount can disrupt the regular functions and performance of the bees, and cause mortality. The use of these insecticides must be restricted in bee-foraging crops that might endanger bees through contamination. Furthermore, these highly toxic chemicals should be replaced with insecticides which have lower toxicity to pollinators.

Acknowledgment

The authors acknowledge the facilities provided at the Department of Agricultural Entomology, Tamil Nadu Agricultural University, Coimbatore. The authors express

their sincere gratitude to the farmers in Thondamuthur and Oddanchatram for lending their field for my research work and my friend Ms. G.R. Nitya Sree for her immense support in carrying out the research work.

References

- Ahmad Z. Pest Problems of Cotton, A Regional Perspective, Proc. Regional Consultation, Insecticide Resistance Management in Cotton, Pakistan Central Cotton Committee, Pakistan; c1999. p. 5-21. <https://www.ipbes.net/article/press-release-pollinators-vital-our-food-supply-under-threat-2016>
- Brar PK, Kang BK, Rasool R, Sahoo SK. Validation of QuEChERS Method for Estimation of Imidacloprid and its Metabolites in Cotton Flower, Pollen, Nectariferous Tissue, and Honey. Journal of AOAC International. 2022 Jan, 1;105(1):74-79.
- Carrillo MP, Bovi TD, Negrão AF, Orsi RD. Influence of agrochemicals fipronil and imidacloprid on the learning behavior of *Apis mellifera* L. honeybees. Acta Scientiarum. Animal Sciences. 2013; 35:431-434.
- Chandrasekar S, Marimuthu M, Saravanan A, Angappan S, Kaithamalai B, Mannu J, et al. Impact of Neonicotinoid Insecticides on the Foraging Activity of Indian Honey Bee, *Apis cerana indica* (Fab.) in the

- Cotton Ecosystem. Madras Agricultural Journal. 2022 May 23;109(4-6):1
5. Corlett RT. Flower visitors and pollination in the Oriental (Indomalayan) Region. Biological Reviews. 2004 Aug;79(3):497-532.
 6. Decourtye A, Lacassie E, Pham-Delègue MH. Learning performances of honeybees (*Apis mellifera* L) are differentially affected by imidacloprid according to the season. Pest Management Science: formerly Pesticide Science. 2003 Mar;59(3):269-278.
 7. Faucon JP, Aurières C, Drajnudel P, Mathieu L, Ribière M, Martel AC, *et al.* Experimental study on the toxicity of imidacloprid given in syrup to honey bee (*Apis mellifera*) colonies. Pest Management Science: formerly Pesticide Science. 2005 Feb;61(2):111-125.
 8. Iwasa T, Motoyama N, Ambrose JT, Roe RM. Mechanism for the differential toxicity of neonicotinoid insecticides in the honey bee, *Apis mellifera*. Crop protection. 2004 May 1;23(5):371-378.
 9. Johnson RM, Ellis MD, Mullin CA, Frazier M. Pesticides and honey bee toxicity—USA. Apidologie. 2010 May 1;41(3):312-331.
 10. Kessler SC, Tiedeken EJ, Simcock KL, Derveau S, Mitchell J, Softley S, *et al.* Bees prefer foods containing neonicotinoid pesticides. Nature. 2015 May 7;521(7550):74-76.
 11. Kumar G, Singh S, Nagarajaiah RP. Detailed review on pesticidal toxicity to honey bees and its management. Modern beekeeping bases for sustainable production. 2020 Feb 20.
 12. Mani M, Krishnamoorthy A, Gopalakrishnan C. Biological control of lepidopterous pests of horticultural crops in India-A review. Agricultural reviews-agricultural research communications centre India. 2005;26(1):39.
 13. Naeem-Ullah U, Ramzan M, Bokhari SH, Saleem A, Qayyum MA, Iqbal N, *et al.* Insect pests of cotton crop and management under climate change scenarios. Environment, climate, plant and vegetation growth; c2020. p. 367-396.
 14. Ollerton J, Winfree R, Tarrant S. How many flowering plants are pollinated by animals? A Oikos. 2011 Mar;120(3):321-326.
 15. Pilling E, Campbell P, Coulson M, Ruddle N, Tornier I. A four-year field program investigating long-term effects of repeated exposure of honey bee colonies to flowering crops treated with thiamethoxam. PLoS one. 2013 Oct 23;8(10):e77193.
 16. Potts SG, Roberts SP, Dean R, Marris G, Brown MA, Jones R, *et al.* Declines of managed honey bees and beekeepers in Europe. Journal of apicultural research. 2010 Jan 1;49(1):15-22.
 17. Rawat RR, Sahu HR. Estimation of losses in growth and yield of okra due to *Empoasca devastans* Distant and *Earias* species (India). Indian Journal of Entomology; c1975.
 18. Sanchez-Bayo F, Goka K. Pesticide residues and bees: A risk assessment. PloS one. 2014 Apr 9;9(4):e94482.
 19. Sharma D, Rao DV. A field study of pest of cauliflower cabbage and okra in some areas of Jaipur. International Journal of Life Sciences Biotechnology and Pharma Research. 2012;1(2):2250-3137.
 20. Simon-Delso N, Amaral-Rogers V, Belzunces LP, Bonmatin JM, Chagnon M, Downs C, *et al.* Systemic insecticides (neonicotinoids and fipronil): trends, uses, mode of action and metabolites. Environmental Science and Pollution Research. 2015 Jan; 22:5-34.
 21. Singh J, Agarwal OP, Mishra RC. Foraging rates of different *Apis* species visiting parental lines of *Brassica napus* L. Zoos' print journal. 2006;21(4):2226-2227.
 22. Sowmiya C. Assessment of deleterious impacts of selected Neonicotinoid insecticides on Indian honey bee Colonies. Unpublished doctoral dissertations. Department of Agricultural Entomology, Tamil Nadu Agricultural University, Coimbatore, India; c2022.
 23. Sowmiya C, Murugan M, Saravanan PA, Suganthi A, Bhuvanewari K, Jayakanthan M, *et al.* Impact of Neonicotinoid Insecticides on the Foraging Preference of Indian Honey Bee, *Apis cerana indica* (Fab.) (Hymenoptera, Apidae) Visiting Sunflower *Helianthus annuus* L. Crop. International Journal of Plant & Soil Science. 2022 Mar 23:85-96.
 24. Suchail S, Guez D, Belzunces LP. Characteristics of imidacloprid toxicity in two *Apis mellifera* subspecies. Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry: An International Journal. 2000 Jul;19(7):1901-1905.
 25. Suchail S, Guez D, Belzunces LP. Discrepancy between acute and chronic toxicity induced by imidacloprid and its metabolites in *Apis mellifera*. Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry: An International Journal. 2001 Nov;20(11):2482-2486.
 26. Theisen-Jones H, Bienefeld K. The Asian honey bee (*Apis cerana*) is significantly in decline. Bee World. 2016 Dec 19;93(4):90-97.
 27. Yasuda M, Sakamoto Y, Goka K, Nagamitsu T, Taki H. Insecticide susceptibility in Asian honey bees (*Apis cerana* (Hymenoptera: Apidae)) and implications for wild honey bees in Asia. Journal of economic entomology. 2017 Apr 1;110(2):447-452.