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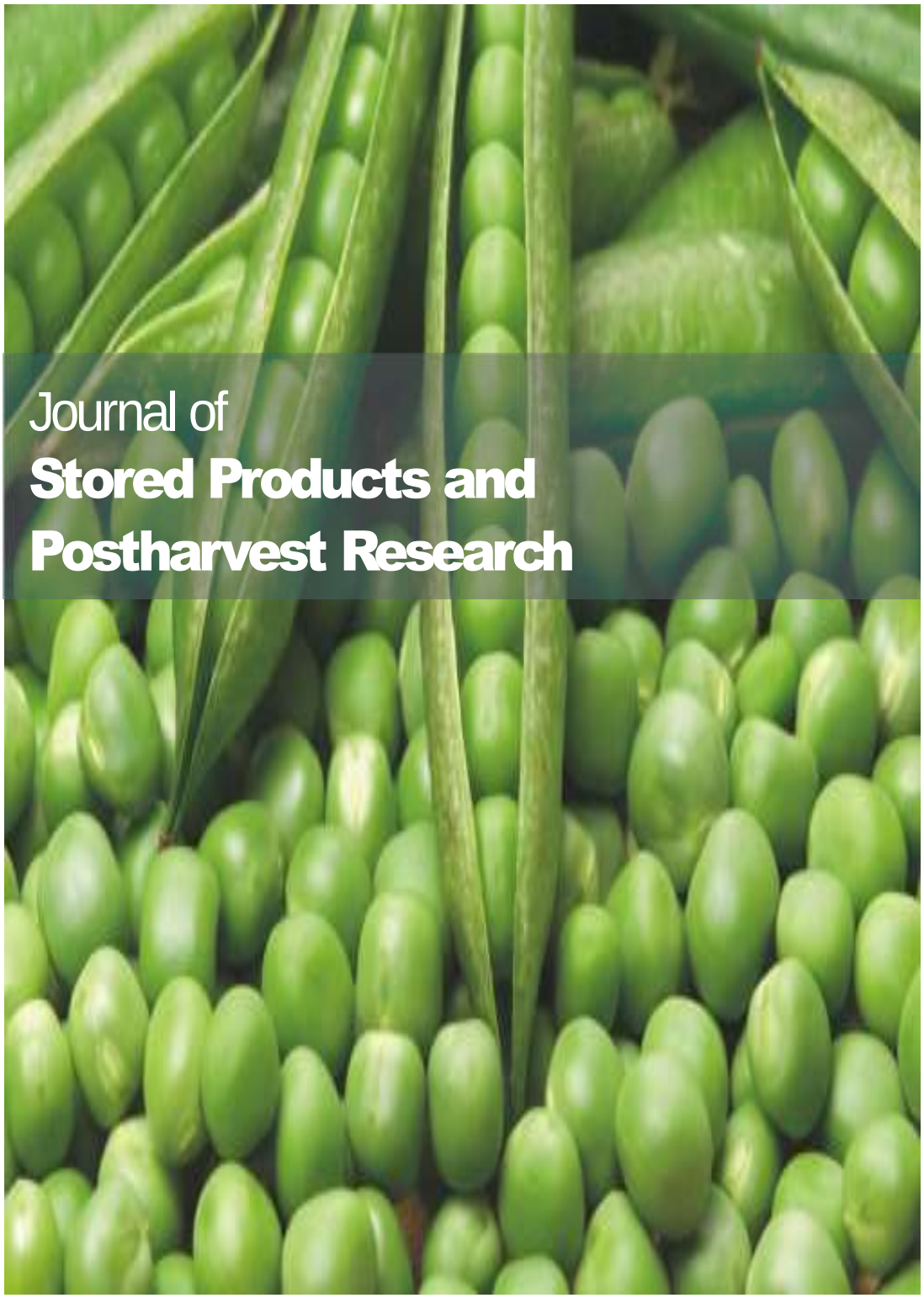

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Journal of Stored Products and Postharvest Research

Full Length Research Paper

Evaluation of four variant diatomaceous earths and a commercial DE Insecto® against *Callosobruchus maculatus* F. (Coleoptera:Chrysomelidae) on two varieties of stored cowpea in Nigeria

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Nigerian Stored Products Research Institute (NSPRI) has patented a Diatomaceous Earth, a non-toxic pesticide NSPRIDUST® Patent No. 000744 for storage of grains with Trade Marks Section of the Federal Ministry of Trade and Investment, Abuja, Nigeria. Efficacy of four Nigerian Diatomaceous Earths (DEs): Bularafa, Abakire, Share and Kwami as grain protectants of stored cowpea against cowpea bruchid were compared to a commercial DE Insecto®. The grains were admixed with two varieties of cowpea (Ife brown and IT 98-12 white) separately at 0.1% w/w (1000 ppm). All treatments were infested with 30 unsexed adults of *Callosobruchus maculatus* (48 h-old). Adult mortality, progeny production, IDK, repellency test and germination of seeds were assessed in NSPRI laboratories in 2016. The Insecto®, Bularafa, Abakire, Share and Kwami caused corrected mortalities of 90, 80, 76, 76 and 43% respectively against adult *C. maculatus* on Ife brown cowpea while 86, 80,76, 73% and 73% were recorded respectively on IT 98-12 after 72 h exposure. There was F_1 progeny suppression. Bularafa was as effective as Insecto®. Results showed that the number of emerged F_1 progeny reduced in proportion with increased DE dose rate, but could not prevent progeny production even where complete adult mortality was observed within 5 days. This study showed that progeny suppression is a more important criterion to be considered in efficacy of the DEs on cowpea than adult mortality as the adults are short-lived, do not feed or cause damage but only lay eggs. Repellency showed that test insects avoided treated grains of the two cowpea varieties. There was no significant effect on germination capacity observed in the study.

Key words: Nigerian diatomaceous earth, *Callosobruchus maculatus*, infestation, stored cowpea.

INTRODUCTION

Nigeria is the world largest producer of cowpea [*Vigna unguiculata* (L) Walp.] of which the bulk comes from the drier states of Northern Nigeria (Singh et al., 2002). Cowpea grain is nutritious and is a source of plant protein and minerals for both rural and urban consumers in Nigeria and other subtropical countries in Africa (Bamaiyi et al., 2006).

Callosobruchus maculatus (F.) is the most serious insect pest of cowpea both in the field and storage (Turaki, 2012). *C. maculatus* is a primary grain (pulse) beetle which is widely distributed throughout the world. In Nigeria alone, the dry weight loss due to *C. maculatus* exceeded 2,900 tonnes each year. In some cases damage in terms of holes produced by adult emergence from seed increased to 99% after 6 months of storage (Singh, 2005; Umeozor, 2005).

The losses incurred during cowpea storage by *C. maculatus* cannot be compensated; this therefore requires urgent and effective pest management strategies for year round availability of cowpea that is the major source of plant protein for the population for food quality and safety. In this work, we focused on novelty strategies that will transform both the smallholder farmers and grain aggregators to meet food security, reduce malnutrition resulting from protein deficiencies and sustain economic growth.

Various studies on the efficacy of inert dusts have been reported particularly those based upon activated silica which are finding increasing use as storage protectants in the grain industry (Obeng-Ofori, 2010). These materials can be classified into different groups depending on their composition and particle size. Non-silica dusts and those composed of coarse grain silicates, such as kaolin, sand and Attapulgite Based Clay Dust (ABCD), have been used traditionally as grain protectants by small-scale farmers in the developing world (Okonkwo and Okoye 2000). Materials including diatomaceous earths and silica aerogels have been used increasingly in commercial storage in the developed world, replacing conventional chemicals (Golob, 1997).

Another advantage of DEs over conventional insecticides is their low mammalian toxicity. In the USA, diatomaceous earths are 'Generally Recognized as Safe' by the US Food and Drug Administration and are registered for use as food additives (Subramanyam et al., 1994).

There has been a renewed interest in diatomaceous earth as a grain protectant because of concerns of insecticide residues in grain, worker exposure to insecticides and resistant insect populations for over three decades (Fields et al, 2002). Admixture of inert dusts with grains, especially DEs are gaining acceptability among grain storage practitioners in the developing world as protectants against stored products insect pests being effective alternatives to chemical insecticides and plant materials (Korunic, 1998; Arthur, 2000; Fields and Korunic, 2000; Subramanyam and Roesli, 2000; Athanassiou et al., 2003; 2007). Diatomaceous earth products are composed of microscopic fossils of diatoms. Insecticidal activity depends on the DE capacity to damage insects' cuticle and cause water loss from their bodies, so that they die of desiccation (Korunic, 1988). These products are attractive because they have very low mammalian toxicity, are inert, leave no toxic residues on grains, control the insecticide resistant pests and are long-lasting and are applied using the same technology for conventional grain protectants (Vayias et al., 2006; Athanassiou et al., 2007).

There are several commercially available DE formulations which have been successfully evaluated as grain protectants against a wide range of insect species: *Sitophilus oryza*e (L.), *Rhyzopertha dominica* (Fab.), *Tribolium castaneum* (Herbst.) (Subramanyam and Roesli, 2000; Stathers et al., 2004). The efficacy of DE products depends on several parameters, such as insect morphology, type of grains, DE physical parameters, temperature and relative humidity (Korunic, 1998). Insecto® DE of marine origin has been found to be effective against several stored grain insect species at 0.5-1.0g/kg (Golob, 1997).

Although, there are numerous studies on commercially formulated DEs to control stored product insects, only few studies have been evaluated against *C. maculatus* despite the importance of cowpea and the destructive nature of *C. maculatus*. Apart from documented literature on use of commercially formulated DEs to control *C. maculatus* of stored cowpea in Nigeria (Kabir and Gaya, 2013; Kabir and Wuglo, 2014), the authors did not find documented literature on the use of raw Nigeria-derived DEs, and commercially formulated DE Insecto® against *C. maculatus* on stored cowpea. Previous works by Nwaubani et al. (2014) and Otitodun et al. (2015) reported the effectiveness of a variant Nigeria DE against two species of stored wheat pests - *Sitophilus oryzae* and *Rhyzopertha dominica*.

Diatomaceous Earths are already registered in some countries to control stored products pests. Insecto® is registered in the United States for use on stored grains and empty grain-holding facilities to control insects.

NSPRIDUST® is registered in Nigeria with Trade Marks Section of Federal Ministry of Trade and

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Investment, Abuja in 2017 by Nigerian Stored Products Research Institute as an effective grain protectant for stored insect pests with Patent No. 000744.

Based on this, the present work describes further studies of additional variants of DEs Insecto®, Bularafa, Abakire, Share and Kwami from different geographical locations in Nigeria against the stored cowpea bruchid.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

All studies were conducted in the Entomology Laboratories of Nigerian Stored Products Research Institute, Headquarters, Ilorin, Kwara State, Nigeria at uncontrolled conditions of temperature fluctuation between 28.4 to 35.1°C and 34.9 to 67.4% RH.

Test insects

C. maculatus was used in the experiments. *C. maculatus* was obtained from the stock cultures maintained on cowpea seeds in the insectary of Entomology Department. New cultures were reared on the cowpea seeds (IT98-12 white and Ife brown); 9% moisture content in Kilner jars. The F_1 generation was put into another set of Kilner jars containing IT98-12 white or Ife brown which was used to culture subsequent generations. Adults emerging from the cowpea seeds, aged 1 to 48 h old were used in the experiments.

DE formulations

The DEs used were commercially formulated Insecto®, and raw Nigeria-derived DEs namely - Bularafa, Abakire, Share and Kwami. The raw DEs were dried in ventilated oven, pulverized into dust, sieved with 90 µm sieve (Endecott Laboratory Standard Sieves, London). Insecto® is a marine DE (Natural Insecto® Products, Inc. Costa Mesa, CA 92627, USA) with 10% food grade bait. It is a gray coloured powder containing 87% (w/w) amorphous silicon dioxide, with 2 to 4% m.c.; and a chemical composition of 3% Al_2O_3 and 1% Fe_2O_3, and less than 1% CaO, MgO, TiO_2 and P_2O_3 (Subramanyam et al., 1994; Arnaud et al., 2005). The physical characteristics of the formulation are as follows: mean particle diameter, 6.89 µm; medium particle size is 8.2 µm and particles range from 1.0-34.3 µm, retention 325 mesh, 0.5% oil adsorption capability, 175% by weight; pH, 6.0; bulk density, 0.128 g/cm^3; specific gravity, 0.23; and surface area of 10 to 20 m^2/g (Subramanyam et al., 1994). A sample of dry formulation of Insecto® was obtained from Natural Insecto® Products, Inc. Costa Mesa, CA 92627, USA.

The fresh water crude Bularafa DE ore was obtained from Bularafa community in Gulani LGA, Yobe state. The fresh water crude Abakire DE ore was obtained from Abakire community, Fika LGA, Yobe state. Bularafa is a fine whitish dust containing 80.98% amorphous silica, with 1.4% m. c. Bularafa is composed of 4.9% Al_2O_3 and 2.30% Fe_2O_3, and less than 1% CaO, Na_2O, K_2O, MgO, TiO_2 and P_2O_5, MnO, Cr_2O_3. The composition of elements is: Ba 130 ppm; Ni 45 ppm; Sr 66 ppm; Zr 107 ppm. Particle sizes ranged from 1.0 to 13.5 µm (Nwaubani et al., 2014; Otitodun et al., 2015). Abakire is a whitish dust containing 60.17% silicon dioxide with …% m.c.. Abakire is composed of 18.39% Al_2O_3 and 5.09% Fe_2O_3, and less than 1% CaO, Na_2O, K_2O, MgO, TiO_2 and P_2O_5, MnO, Cr_2O_3.

The composition of elements is: Ba 293 ppm; Ni 45 ppm; Sr 115 ppm; Zr 288 ppm. Minimum particle size, 1.8µm; mean particle size, 16.3 µm and particles range from 1.0 to 100 µm (Nwaubani et al., 2014; Otitodun et al., 2015).

Share is a fresh water crude DE ore obtained from Share community in Share LGA, Kwara State while Kwami is a fresh water crude DE ore obtained from Gombe State. Share and Kwami are whitish dusts. Geochemical, physical parameters and pH analyses of Share and Kwami DEs have not been determined. Share and Kwami DEs were dried to 4% m.c. for use during the study.

Cowpea

The cowpea varieties IT98-12 white and Ife Brown were obtained from Institute of Agricultural Research and Training (IAR&T), Ibadan, Oyo State. The seeds were already disinfested by fumigation with phosphine for 72 h before purchase; ventilated for 7 days in a plastic basin covered with muslin cloth to allow entire volatilization of the phosphine gas from the seeds; then cleaned by sieving, picked before packed in polythene bag and kept in the domestic deep freezer at -18°C for 7 days. After 7 days, the seeds were brought out and kept on the laboratory table for equilibrium for 2 weeks.

DE and cowpea grain Bioassay

A protocol developed for standardized testing of diatomaceous earth (Fields et al., 2002) was followed.

Each DE–Insecto®, Bularafa, Abakire, Share and Kwami was tested at three concentrations of 500, 1000 and 1500 ppm (ppm: parts per million, mg of DE per g of cowpea; equivalent of 0.05%, 0.1% and 0.15% w/w). DE was added to each jar containing 300 g of Ife brown or IT98-12 white cowpea (9% m.c). The cowpea seeds and each DE were shaken in jars by hand for 2 min. After mixing, the treated cowpea was divided into three 100 g samples, one for each replicate. Each treated and untreated jar was infested with 30 unsexed adults of *C. maculatus* (1 to 48 h old) and covered with muslin cloth held tightly with a rubber band. The necks of the jars were coated with non-sticky Polytetrafuloroethylene (PTFE) Fluon emulsion to prevent insects climbing to the top. Insecto® was used as positive control, while untreated grains served as negative control. Adult mortality was assessed after 3 and 5 days. After 3 days the contents of each jar were poured onto stainless aluminum tray gently avoiding loss or damage to eggs. The number of live and dead adults were counted and recorded. After 5 days the seeds were sieved, all adults removed and the number of dead and live counted, recorded and discarded. The seeds were returned to their respective jar for offspring production and kept under the same conditions. After 35 days post-treatment, seeds in each jar were sieved and the total number of F_1 adults counted. To determine the seed damage, in each jar, 100 seeds were randomly taken and examined for exit hole. The number of seeds with exit holes were termed damaged seeds were expressed as percentage of seeds in the sample.

Germination of seeds

Each DE dust was added to 100 g of IT98-12 white or Ife brown cowpea separately at (0.05%, 0.1%, 0.15% w/w). Untreated control was set up. No insect was added to seeds in different treatments and the untreated control. The jars were stored for 180 d in the laboratory. This was to determine the effect of the five DE dusts on germination capacity. One hundred seeds from each treatment and untreated jar were selected at random, divided into five batches of 20 seeds and placed in Petri dishes containing moistened cotton wool. Initial germination was determined at the start of the experiment. The percentage of germination was calculated after 7

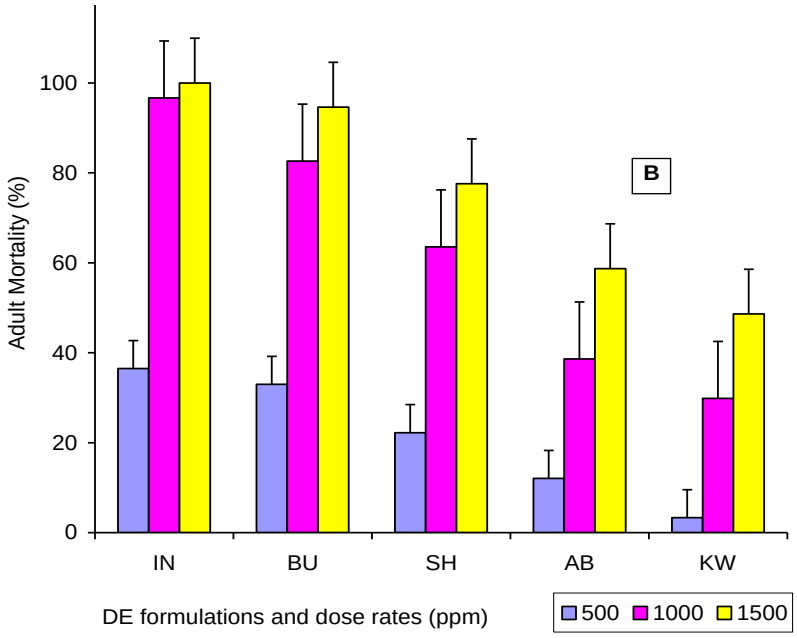


Figure 1. Mortality of adult *C. maculatus* in IT98-12 White cowpea after 5 days of exposure to different dose rates of five DEs. IN, Insecto®; BU, Bularafa; SH, Share; AB, Abakire; KW, Kwami.

days.

Repellency test

This test was conducted for Insecto®, Bularafa, Share, Abakire and Kwami DE dusts, using the two-way choice method (Nwaubani and Fasoranti, 2008) to assess the likelihood of bruchids avoiding contact with DE-treated grain in natural storage condition. Samples of 100 g of each variety of cowpea treated separately with Insecto®, Bularafa, Share, Abakire and Kwami dusts at 0.1% w/w and untreated 100 g samples were placed 10 cm apart in a long plastic chamber (30 x 12 x 10 cm) covered all round with black tape to avoid photo effect of sunlight on the distribution of the bruchid. Thirty 1 to 48h old adults of *C. maculatus*, starved for 48 h, were placed between the treated and untreated cowpea through a centrally-located opening on the lid. Insects found within 1 cm of treated or untreated cowpea were counted after 1, 3 and 5 days. Dead insects were replaced with live ones during each count. There were four replications for each cowpea variety set up.

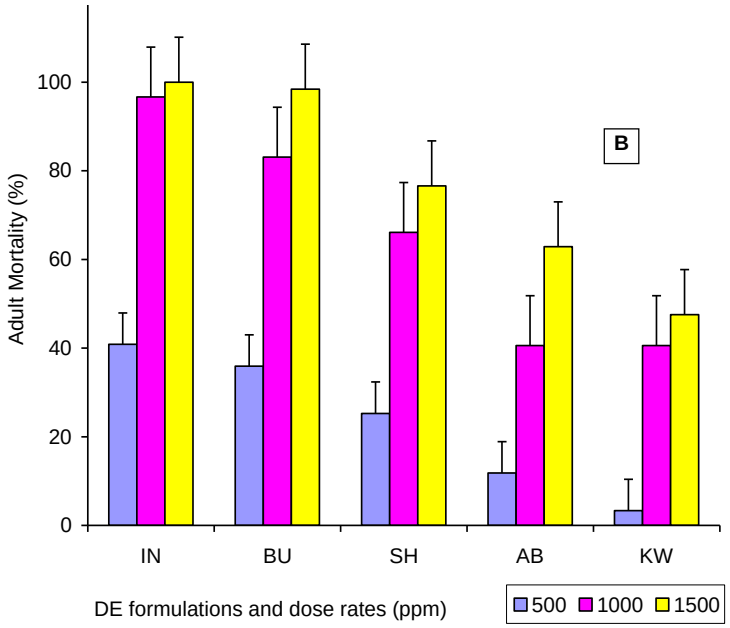
Statistical analysis

Data on adult mortality were first corrected for mortality in controls using the Abbott's formula (Abbott, 1925). To equalize variances, corrected mortality data was transformed using the square root of the arcsin. Data on number of progeny was square-root transformed. All percentage data were arcsin-transformed. The transformed data were subjected to analysis of variance (ANOVA) using Stata Statistics Program Version 12. The lethal dose for 50% of the population (LD_{50}) was estimated using probit analysis (SPSS Version 20). Differences between treatment means were compared by Tukey-Kramer HSD test at $p < 0.05$. For repellency test, Student's t-test was used to determine deviation from the expectation of equal distribution of bruchids in treated and untreated cowpea seeds.

RESULTS

Mortality of *C. maculatus*

The insecticidal efficacy of the DE dusts tested against *C. maculatus* on two varieties of cowpea, IT98-12 white and Ife Brown is presented in Figures 1 and 2. Mortality was observed to increase with increase in the DE concentration and exposure interval. The highest corrected mortality of *C. maculatus* adults after 3 days of exposure to DE treated cowpea was recorded to increase with increase in DE dose rates. Significant differences were noted among dose rates (500 and 1000/1500 ppm) within each DE dust treatment and between treatments (Insecto®/Bularafa and the other three DEs). *C. maculatus* had lowest 27.4% mortality and the highest 85.6% mortality recorded on Kwami and Insecto® applied at 1000 ppm respectively for IT98-12 white cowpea; and lowest 34.3% and highest 85.1% recorded on Kwami and Insecto® applied at 1000 ppm respectively for Ife brown cowpea. The effectiveness of the five DE treatments in decreasing order was Insecto®, Bularafa, Share, Abakire and Kwami. *C. maculatus* mortality increased as exposure interval increased from 3 to 5 days. The highest corrected mortality of 100% was by Insecto® at 1500



Figures 2. Mortality of adult *C. maculatus* in Ife brown cowpea after 5 days of exposure to different dose rates of five Des IN (Insecto®); BU (Bularafa); SH (Share); AB (Abakire) KW (Kwami).

Table 1. Mean ± SE for main effects and interactions for percentage corrected mortality of *Callosobruchus maculatus* after 5 d of exposure on IT98-12 white and Ife Brown cowpea treated with five Diatomaceous earth dusts at three dose rates.

DE Dose rate (ppm)	DEs				
	Insecto®	**Bularafa**	**Share**	**Abakire**	**Kwami**
500	36.49 ± 4.0^{bA}	$33.0\ \pm3.3^{bA}$	22.22 ± 0.0^{cB}	12.04 ± 1.9^{cC}	3.3 ± 2.2^{cD}
1000	96.7 ± 2.2^{aA}	82.6 ± 1.1^{aB}	63.5 ± 1.9^{bC}	38.6 ± 1.1^{bD}	9.8 ± 0.0^{bE}
1500	100 ± 0.0^{aA}	96.7 ± 1.9^{aA}	77.6 ± 1.1^{aB}	58.7 ± 1.9^{aC}	8.6 ± 2.2^{aD}
500	$40.9\ \pm2.9^{bA}$	35.9 ± 4.4^{bA}	25.3 ± 1.1^{bB}	11.8 ± 2.2^{cC}	6.0 ± 2.00^{bD}
1000	96.7 ± 2.2^{aA}	83.1 ± 1.1^{aB}	66.1 ± 1.1^{aC}	40.6 ± 1.1^{bD}	40.6 ± 1.1^{aD}
1500	100 ± 0.0^{aA}	98.4 ± 1.9^{aA}	76.6 ± 2.9^{aB}	62.9 ± 2.2^{aC}	47.5 ± 2.2^{aD}

Means within a column accompanied by same lower case letters and within a row- upper case letter are not significantly different: Tukey-Kramer HSD test; P=0.05.

ppm at 27.3±2°C.

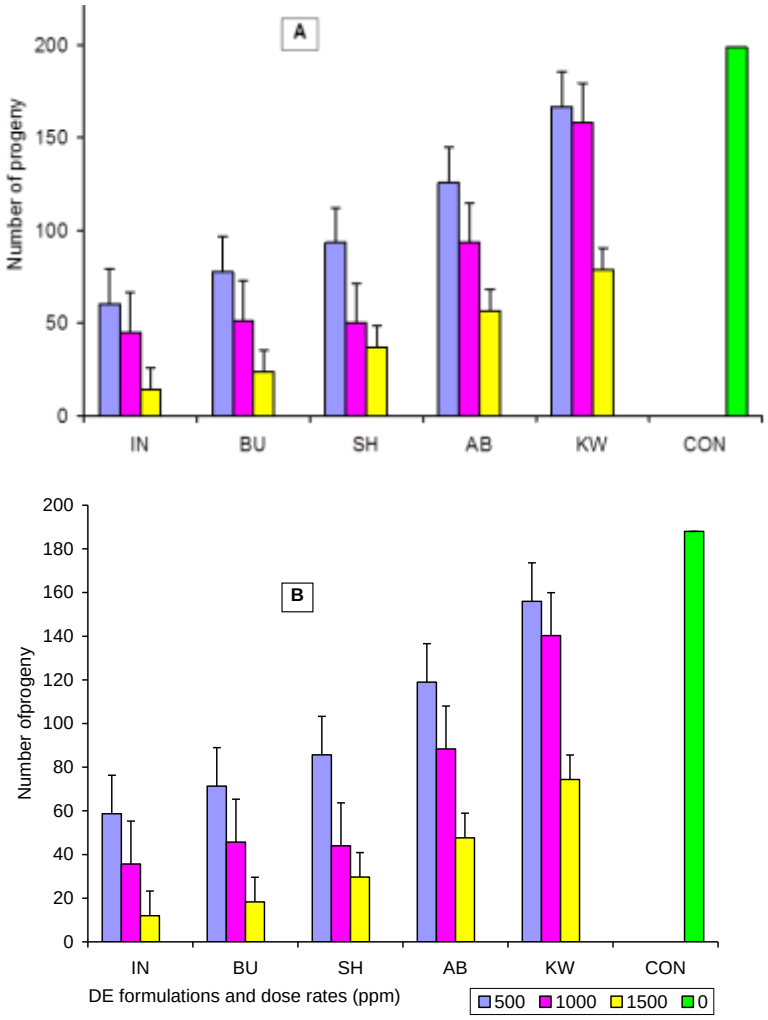
The highest mortality of *C. maculatus* adults after 5 days of exposure to DE treated cowpea was recorded to increase with increase in DE dose rate (Figures 1 and 2). Significant differences were noted among dose rates within each DE formulation. *C. maculatus* had lowest 29.8% mortality and the highest 96.7 mortality recorded on Kwami and Insecto® applied at 1000 ppm respectively for IT98-12 white cowpea; and lowest 40.6% and highest 96.7% recorded on Kwami and Insecto® applied at 1000 ppm respectively for Ife brown cowpea.

The main effects and interactions for percentage corrected mortality of *C. maculatus* after 5 days of exposure on IT98-12 white cowpea and Ife brown cowpea treated with five Diatomaceous earth dusts at three dose rates are shown in Table 1.

Tukey test conducted to compare the efficacy of the five DE formulations, showed there were no significant difference (P>0.05 (P>0.05) between Insecto® and Bularafa in any dose rate tested, whereas Share, Abakire and Kwami were significantly different (P<0.05) from Insecto® and Bularafa in any dose rate tested.

F_1 Progeny production

The main effects of DE formulations and dose as well as interactions were significant (p≤ 0.05) for number of F_1



Figures 3. Number of progeny of *Callosobruchus maculatus* in (A) IT98-12 White cowpea and (B) Ife Brown cowpea treated with IN (Insecto®); BU (Bularafa); SH (Share); AB (Abakire) KW (Kwami), CON (control).

progeny and reduction in progeny. The mean number of progeny in untreated control (199±2.5 and 188±7.2) for IT98-12 white and Ife brown cowpea respectively was significantly higher (P<0.05) than the numbers that were produced on treated seeds after 35 days post-treatment (Figure 3a and b). Progeny production was reduced by increasing DE dose rate. On treated cowpea seeds the lowest number of progeny and the highest progeny suppression were 13.2 and 12; and 92.8 and 93.7% for IT98-12 white and Ife brown cowpea respectively (Figure 4a and b).

Percentage seed damage

Percentage of cowpea seeds damaged by *C. maculatus* was significantly affected by DE dusts and dose rate and interactions within the treatments and between the treatments (Table 2). The untreated control recorded significantly higher (P<0.05) seed damage of 66.3±0.0% than in the other four treatments. There were no significant difference (P>0.05) in seed damage between Insecto® and Bularafa in any dose rate tested. Seed damage decreased with increased dose rate. Seed damage of <5% and <3% were recorded for both IT98-12 white and Ife brown treated with Bularafa and Insecto® at 1000 and 1500 ppm respectively.

Germination capacity of treated seeds

The DE dusts had no effect on the germination of cowpea seeds treated and stored for 180 d. Treated seeds with different doses for the five DE dusts had between

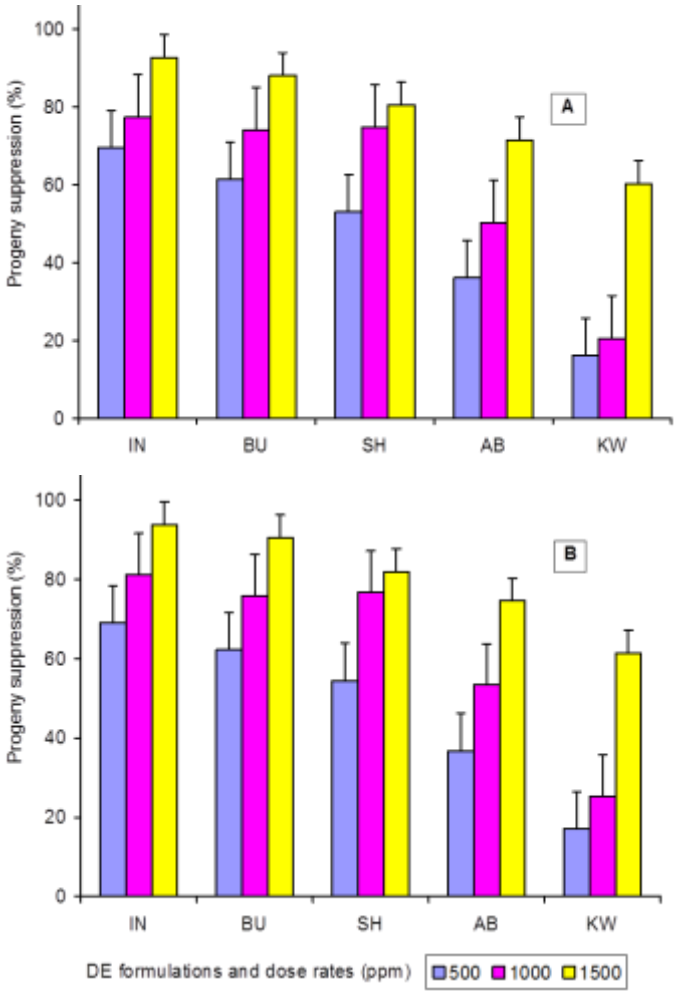


Figure 4. (A and B). Reduction in number of progeny of *Callosobruchus maculatus* in Ife Brown cowpea treated with IN is Insecto; BU is Bularafa; SH is Share; AB is Abakire and KW is Kwami

Table 2. Percentage seed damage of IT98-12 white and Ife brown cowpea varieties treated with five Diatomaceous Earth dusts at three doses after 35 day post-treatment. Mean percentage weight seed damage in untreated control were 66.3±0.0% and 66.0 ±0.0% respectively

DE Dose rate (ppm)	DEs				
	Insecto®	**Bularafa**	**Share**	**Abakire**	**Kwami**
	Mean ± SE for IT98-12 White cowpea				
500	11.0±0.6^{aC}	11.7±0.9^{aC}	15.7±0.9^{aB}	15.3±0.9^{aB}	23.3±0.9^{aA}
1000	4.0±0.6^{bC}	4.7±0.7^{bC}	12.0±1.2^{bB}	11.7±0.9^{bB}	17.7±0.9^{bA}
1500	2.3±0.3^{bD}	2.7±0.3^{bD}	6.0±0.6^{bC}	8.7±0.3^{bB}	13.0±0.6^{cA}
	Mean ± SE for IT98-12 White cowpea				
500	10.3±0.3^{aC}	10.7±0.3^{aC}	15.0±0.6^{aB}	14.3±1.2^{aB}	22.3±0.3^{aA}
1000	3.7±0.3^{bC}	4.7±0.7^{bC}	11.0±0.6^{bB}	10.7±0.3^{bB}	17.0±0.6^{bA}
1500	2.0±0.0^{cD}	2.3±0.3^{cD}	5.7±0.3^{cC}	8.0±0.6^{bB}	12.7±0.7^{cA}

Means within a column accompanied by same lower case letters and within a row- upper case letter are not significantly different: Tukey-Kramer HSD test; P=0.05.

Table 3. Mean ± SE Percentage seed germination of IT98-12 white and Ife brown cowpea treated with five Diatomaceous earth dusts at three dose rates after 180 days.

DE Dose rate (ppm)	DEs				
	Insecto®	Bularafa	Share	Abakire	Kwami
	Mean ± SE for IT98-12 White cowpea				
500	100.0±0.0^{aA}	100±0.0^{aA}	100.0±0.0^{aA}	100.0±0.0^{aA}	99.0±1.0^{aA}
1000	100.0±0.0^{aA}	100.0±0.0^{aA}	100.0±0.0^{aA}	100.0±0.0^{aA}	97.0±2.0^{aA}
1500	99.0±1.0^{aA}	99.0±1.0^{aA}	98.0±1.2^{aA}	96.0±2.4^{aA}	94.0±2.4^{aA}
	Mean ± SE for Ife brown cowpea				
500	100.0±0.0^{aA}	100±0.0^{aA}	100.0±0.0^{aA}	100.0±0.0^{aA}	98.0±2.0^{aA}
1000	100.0±0.0^{aA}	99.0±0.0^{aA}	98.0±2.0^{aA}	99.0±1.0^{aA}	98.0±2.0^{aA}
1500	99.0±1.0^{aA}	98.0±2.0^{aA}	99.0±1.0^{aA}	99.0±1.0^{aA}	97.0±2.0^{aA}

Means within a column accompanied by same lower case letters and within a row- upper case letter are not significantly different: Tukey-Kramer HSD test; P=0.05.

Table 4. Repellency Test - Number of *C. maculatus* adults found within 1 cm of cowpea seed for five DE-treated and untreated seeds after 3 d in IT98-12 white and Ife brown.

DEs	Number of adults within 1.0 cm of seed			
	Untreated seed	Treated seed	T-value	P-value
IT98-12 White				
Insecto®	24.5	5.5	24.3	0.002
Bularafa	22.0	8.0	6.6	0.001
Share	21.0	9.0	12.2	0.000
Abakire	21.7	8.3	6.1	0.005
Kwami	20.0	10.0	5.5	0.002
Ife brown				
Insecto®	25.7	4.3	10.3	0.002
Bularafa	22.0	8.0	18.4	0.004
Share	20.7	9.3	7.8	0.001
Abakire	21.5	8.5	7.9	0.002
Kwami	20.3	9.7	5.7	0.005

Values are means of four replicates.

94.0±2.4 and 100±0.0% germination; while the untreated control seed had mean germination of 100±0.0%. There was no significant difference (p>0.05) between the untreated control and treated seeds or among seeds treated at any dose rates of the five DE dusts (Table 3).

Repellency

The result on avoidance test is summarized in Table 4. The test data showed that adults of *C. maculatus* avoided contact with treated cowpea seeds.

DISCUSSION

In this study, raw Des derived from freshwater diatoms was used and compared to Insecto® which is derived from saltwater diatoms. The Insecto®, Bularafa and Abakire have silica content of 87, 80.98 and 60.17% respectively. Share and Kwami silica content had not been analysed. Insecto® is recommended at 1000 ppm. But we evaluated the DEs using 500, 1000 and 1500 ppm because different insects have different susceptibility to DE depending on different factors, such as DE type and concentration, grain moisture content, temperature, relative humidity of the environment, insect species, insect density and type of grain commodity (Korunic, 1997; Rigaux et al., 2001; Fields et al., 2003; Korunic and Fields, 2006). Diatomaceous earths differ in species of diatoms (shape), origin (marine or freshwater), particle size distribution, SiO_2 content. These propertiesof DEs influence their insecticidal activities (Korunic, 1997, 1998).

It was observed that increasing DE concentrations resulted in increased *C. maculatus* mortality (Shams et al., 2011) and that DE concentration affects mortality which was confirmed in this study. Bualrafa DE was significantly most effective of the four Nigeria-derived DE dusts against *C*. *maculatus*, both in terms of causing adult beetle mortality and in suppressing progeny production, while Insecto® was the most effective of the five DEs tested. We observed that Insecto® and Bularafa were at most efficient DE formulations. The high efficacy of Bularafa could be explained by the size of its particle, almost equal to Insecto®. The 10% of food-grade bait present in Insecto® may had influenced its efficacy against insects through internal desiccation due to feeding compared to Bularafa which is in raw state. Small percentage of added silica gel to Protect-It enhanced the efficacy of the DE (Korunic and Fields, 1995). Insecto® dose at 0.5 g and 1.0 g/kg of wheat or barley (500 and 1000 ppm has been found to achieve 94 to 100% mortality of seven insect species within 7-14 days (Subramahayam et al., 1994).

The results of the work shows that for adult mortality, the number of emerged F1 progeny reduced in proportion with increased DE dose rate, but could not prevent progeny production even where complete adult mortality was observed within 5 days. This is in agreement with the studies of Arnaud et al. (2005) who observed that mortality increased with concentration of DEs but live Tribolium castaneum were observed at highest 1000 ppm of Perma-Guard®, Insecto® and Dryacide®. This study shows that at dose rate of 1500 ppm, the five DE formulations did not prevent progeny emergence. Similar observations were recorded in previous studies with DEs against C. maculatus (Stathers et al., 2004; Kabir and Gaya, 2013; Kabir and Wuglo, 2014) and it seems this trend is common to all internal feeders as the developmental stages - larvae and pupae are inside the grain.

This study shows that longer exposure period interval at high dose rate had less progeny emergence in the treated seeds (Athanassiou et al., 2003; 2005; Wakil et al., 2010). Our results showed that DEs do not exhibit ovicidal effect; because 1500 ppm did not prevent oviposition before the death of the insects (Kabir and Wuglo, 2014). The effective progeny suppression (>90%) may be compensated for progeny production at the highest dose rate. This study showed that progeny suppression is a more important criterion to be considered in efficacy of the DEs on cowpea than adult mortality as the adults are short-lived, do not feed or cause damage but only lay eggs (Wakil et al., 2010; Kabir and Wuglo, 2014). The highest dose rate 1500 ppm used in our study was above the Insecto® dose of 1000 ppm for grain commodities. The dose rate was increased because the initial seed damage of cowpea was <2%; and high relative humidity when the study was conducted. In addition, Insecto® dosages up to 0.15% (w/w) gave complete mortality of *T*. *castaneum* adults (Subramanyam et al., 1994).

Studies have shown that DE efficacy decreases with increased relative humidity or grain moisture content (Arthur, 2000; Fields and Korunic, 2000). Wakil et al. (2010) reported 100% adult mortality of C. *maculatus* at 30°C and 50% rh and 91.7% at 30°C and 60% RH. It has been reported by studies that at high relative humidity levels, insects moderate water loss and the survival rate is increased after exposure in a DE-treated substrate (Fields and Korunic, 2000; Athanassiou et al., 2007).

The results indicated that the DEs could be used to control *C*. *maculatus* under the condition of optimum relative humidity (67%), based on the level of adult mortality, progeny suppression and prevention of seed damage achieved. There was no significant effect on germination capacity observed in the study which confirmed that there is no adverse effect on the quality of treated commodities (Korunic et al., 1996; Shayeateh and Ziaee, 2007; Kabir and Wuglo, 2014).

Repellency test data showed that adults of *C*. *maculatus* avoided contact with treated cowpea. Similar observation has been reported in studies with inert dusts against *Sitophilus zeamais* and *Rhyzopertha dominica* (Nwaubani and Farsoranti, 2008; Nwaubani et al., 2014). A possible negative implication of this is that stored grain beetle pests could reduce the effectiveness of DEs through this behavioral response (Rigaux et al., 2001).

Conclusion

Findings of this study indicate that DEs could be effective against *C*. *maculatus* in stored cowpea. The DEs were ranked in decreasing order of efficacy against *C*. *maculatus*: Insecto®=Bularafa>Share>Abakire>Kwami. As was previously reported for wheat, Bularafa seems to be an effective grain protectant in IPM program strategies for cowpea by both smallholder farmers and grain aggregators in Nigeria. The focus should be higher temperature and lower relative humidity combinations for storage of grain commodities in order to add value to the product and derive the benefit for application of DE-based strategy. As the DEs do not have adverse effect on germination capacity, Bularafa and the other three DEs could be used to protect cowpea seeds. In an effort to provide residue-free commodities for the consumers, Bularafa DE is a good alternative to synthetic insecticides. Additional studies should be conducted on oviposition and residual efficacy of the DEs against subsequent generations of the bruchid.

CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

The authors have not declared any conflict of interests.

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Full Length Research Paper

Evaluation of the storage and drying processes of *Melissa officinalis* L. leaves

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***Melissa officinalis* L. (Lamiaceae), medicinal plant used as sedative commercialized in natura and as dry plant in Brazil. The aim of this study was to determine the postharvest life and drying processes of *Melissa* leaves in function of essential oil contents. Leaves (10 g) were stored at room temperature (RT=19.6°C) and refrigeration temperature (10°C, AR), measured daily loss of fresh mass. In the evaluation, the drying processes used were microwave equipment (MW), thin-layer drying (TLD) and conventional oven (CO). The essential oil was obtained by the Clevenger apparatus. All treatments were done with four replicates and the data compared at 5% significance. The efficiency of the storage process was more effective in RT ($\hat{y}=9.5222x^2-51.271x+98.981$; $R^2=0.99$) with shelf-life of three days. AR had chilling causing a loss of essential oil and making commercialization impossible. The ideal wet mass was estimated to be between 2.70 and 2.83 g (ideal theoretical drying point) and the best dryings occurred in CO and TLD. The essential oil contents decreased in function of inadequate drying (MW), in relation to TLD and CO. The most suitable drying was in conventional oven (CO) and the major shelf-life time at room temperature (RT) and both processes had the best biomarker preservation.**

Key words: Postharvest, shelf-life, medicinal plant, drying process, quality control, bio-actives.

INTRODUCTION

Melissa officinalis L. (Lamiaceae) is popularly known in Brazil as lemon balm herb, true lemon balm herb, crawling lemon, melissa, cidrilha and meliteia. It is a European plant introduced in the Brazil, widely used in infusions, compresses and tisanes (Brant et al., 2009; Martins et al., 2003). It is a perennial plant with the quadrangular stem and the leaves are opposite, oval, bright green and with toothed margins (Figure 1). It has a lemon odor and the leaves are used to attract bees. Its main constituents, already isolated, are polyphenolic

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Figure 1. *Melissa officinalis* L. (A) Fresh stems, (B) Stems 1 day after storage, (C) Storage after three days at RT, (D) Storage after three days in AR, detail of injury, € Drying in microwave apparatus (MW), (F and G) Obtaining essential oil.
Source: Ouro Preto, Brazil (2017).

compounds (rosmarinic acid and caffeic acid), essential oils (citral), monoterpenoid aldehydes, sesquiterpenes, flavonoids (luteolin) and tannins (EMA, 2013; Shakeri et al., 2016; Lorenzi and Matos, 2002; Meira et al., 2011; Martins et al., 2003). The chemical marker for plant drugs is rosmarinic acid higher than 1% (PH EUR, 2018).

The essential oils of Lamiaceae family plants are composed primarily of mono and sesquiterpenes (Lewinsohn et al., 2000). The main components of volatile oil (0.02 to 0.8%) are geranial (citral a), neral (citral b), citronellal (major compound 40 to 75%), linalool, geraniol, geranyl acetate, methyl citronellate, α-octen-4-ol, 6-methyl-5-hepten-2-on, β-caryophyllene, cariofilen epoxide, germacren-D, and eugenol (ESCOP, 2013; PH. EUR., 2018, Gruenwald et al., 2007).

The main uses are in nervous crisis, agitation, tachycardia, melancholia, hysteria and anxiety (Haber et al., 2005; Meira et al., 2012; Lorenzi and Matos, 2002) or as a calming, digestive, carminative, antispasmodic and anti-neuralgic. The leaves are used in the treatment of insomnia, nervous problems, wounds and acts as a hypotensive agent. The leaves are used as flavouring add in foods king and in liqueurs (Martins et al., 2003; Lorenzi and Matos, 2002). In Europe, it is traditionally used in the symptomatic treatment of digestive disorders, such as epigastric distension, slow digestion, flatulence, among others (PH EURO, 2018; EMA, 2013).

Due to its ethnopharmacological relevance, the use of Melissa leaves was validated as a soothing and sedative, the species was selected as a therapeutic option in Green Pharmacy Program (phytopharmacy) in the state of Minas Gerais, Brazil. This program aims at the insertion and supply of phytotherapy to the users of the Single Health System (SUS-BRAZIL) through certified medicinal plants produced in an agroecological way and cultivated by the agricultural family. It is important to remember that commercial cultivation by the agricultural family is an option for income generation and family attachment in the countryside. According to Martins et al. (2003) the commercial plantation can produce about 1.800 kg of dry leaves ha^{-1} $year^{-1}$.

The use of dry leaves is called plant drugs. The drug *M. officinalis folium* consists of fresh and/or dried leaves of *M. officinalis* L. and other preparations in effective dosage. The leaves contain at least 0.05% (v/w) of essential oil, based on the dried herb (PH EUR, 2018).

Although drying is the best form of commercialization of medicinal plants, data referring to acceptance of use refer to the acquisition of fresh plants by the population. It is believed that the option to purchase the fresh plant refers to the vitality of the product, the healing properties as well as adequate storage.

In the chain of production of medicinal plants, there is little technical information that correlates the drying processes to the production of the plant drug, the preservation of bioactive materials and the shelf life of the *Melissa* leaves. In this sense, this study had as objective to evaluate packaging for the commercialization of fresh leaves of *M. officinalis* L. in function of the preservation of essential oil contents and shelf life. The effectiveness of the drying process and preservation of the biomarkers was also studied.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Obtaining treatments

The seeds propagation was done by sowing in organic substrate.

After the development of branches already in secondary growth, that is, fully expanded, these were picked from a single access, at Ouro Preto, Brazil, in December. The transport was made in refrigerated boxes to the Laboratory of Medicinal and Phytotherapeutic Plants at Federal University of Ouro Preto. The leaves were removed from the stems, separating the intact from the non-perfect.

Evaluation of storage in ecological packaging

For packaging, to evaluate storage, commercial type of 25 g was chosen, consisting of a neutral, white, heat-resistant, multi-polypropylene cellulose (paper), packaging that did not allow the passage of light or moisture, being absorbent but not excessively porous. The rules for storing and marketing products were observed.

Leaves (10 g) were stored at room temperature (RT, average temperature = 19.60°C, RH = 80.30%) and refrigeration temperature (AR, 10°C), disposed on multifolium paper and measured daily loss of fresh mass and wilting.

The sealing of the packaging was manual, by enveloping, with folding and manual creasing. Metallized staples or any other form of closure were not used as adhesive tapes.

Evaluation of drying processes

The determination of the initial water content in fresh leaves of *M. officinalis* L. was previously determined by gravimetry. Approximately, 10 g of fresh leaves were weighed in a porcelain crucible, pre-weighed and dried for 30 min at 105°C. Fresh leaf weights were conditioned in a preheated oven at 105°C for 5 h. After this period, the crucibles were removed, cooled in desiccator for 1 h at room temperature and again weighed. The moisture content was calculated as a function of initial mass and desiccation loss (Brazil, 2010).

In the evaluation of the drying processes, the artificial and natural drying methods were used. Microwave equipment (MW, BRASTEMP BMG45AR) and conventional oven (TECNAL, TE394) were used for the artificial process, while thin-layer drying (TLD) was used as the natural process.

Fresh leaves (10 g) were packed in neutral, white, multifolium paper, commercial type packaging for 25 g, previously weighed, identified and destined to the treatments MW, CO and TLD.

Individually, 10 g of leaves, duly pre-weighed (paper and sheets) were placed in a microwave oven (WO) at an average temperature of 80°C, being removed every 30 s and cooled in the desiccator for 5 min, being weighed to constant weight (total of 5 weighings), with total time of 150 s.

Leaves (10 g) of duly conditioned and pre-weighed leaves were placed in a conventional oven (CO) at a temperature of 40°C, up to constant weight. The moment of interruption of the drying process was previously determined when the final mass was equivalent to the water content of 8 to 14% of initial water (wet basis, wb) (Barbosa et al., 2006).

In the natural drying process, TLD, 10 g of leaves were packed in neutral, duly identified paper, arranged at room temperature, under direct light. The internal, external temperature and relative humidity of the air were monitored with the aid of a digital thermohygrometer (HOBO U14-001).

TLD and CO treatments were weighed daily, until constant weight was obtained. In the drying, the mass loss and the residual moisture were evaluated as a function of the time spent, in hours for the conclusion of the process. The calculations of moisture determination were expressed according to the Equations 1 to 5:

$$1.\ Mf = Mi \times \frac{(100 - Wi)}{(100 - Wf)}$$

$$2.\ \%WB = \frac{Mw}{Mi} \times 100$$

$$3.\ \%DB = \frac{Mw}{Ms} \times 100$$

$$4.\ \%WB = \frac{WB}{100 + WB}$$

$$5.\ Mi = Md + Mw$$

where Mf = final mass (g); Mi = initial mass of fresh stems (g); Wi = initial water content of fresh stems (% d.b.); Wf = final water content (% d.b.); Mw = mass of water; Md = dry mass; WB = moisture, on wet basis (wb); and Db = moisture on dry basis (Barbosa et al., 2006).

Obtaining essential oil

From the drying procedures, the essential oil was obtained by hydrodistillation in a Clevenger apparatus (Vidrolabor) for 4 h according to the methodology of The European Pharmacopeia 8th (2018), the volume obtained was quantified in microliters and the yield was estimated.

Experimental design

The experimental design was in a completely randomized block (5×4) where the five treatments (AR, RT, TLD, MW, CO) and their four replicates (per treatment) were evaluated over time, compared to each other at 5% significance.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In the marketing of products of plant origin, whether *in natura* or fresh plant or as plant drug or dry plant, some aspects must be observed. Perhaps the most important is the consumer profile. The consumer attributes the effectiveness of medicinal plants as a function of the visual and affective memory of the organoleptic aspects (color, odor and taste). Therefore, the fresh plant is always better accepted, being more acquired and used, than the vegetal drug. To these factors are added the primary conditions of hygiene processing, storage and commercialization of the dried plants, besides origin that in most of the times is unknown.

In Brazil, medicinal plants must come from organic or agroecological cultivation, not being allowed the use of herbicides or chemical fertilizers or any treatment coming from conventional agriculture. Today, the best option for medicinal plants is associated with crops consorted with vegetables made by the agricultural family.

The agroecological concepts for production and commercialization range from the selection of the species, with certified seeds and seedlings, to the type of manure, dealing with integrated management, harvesting, postharvest treatments, storage in ecological packages that are effective in preserving shelf life.

The search for packaging that does not cost (low cost) the producer/consumer, allow greater shelf life and are ecologically is fundamental. When one chooses not to market vegetables in plastic packaging, such as

polyethylene terephthalate (pet) or styrofoam associated with plastic films, it breaks with the paradigm of better hygiene of the final product and longer shelf life, however, it promotes the appreciation of the agroecological culture, allowing the optimization of green concepts of sustainability. The option for paper packaging, in this experiment, sought to associate all these variables.

The purpose of packaging is the preservation of the product in the physical, chemical and microbiological aspects for a relatively long time, minimizing the physiological changes during transportation and storage (Smith et al., 2004). For the consumer, the packaging must awaken the desire to buy, transmit information, communication, and be support for promotional actions. Currently, these factors are added to the question of bioactive packaging, which signals to the consumer the state of the product, whether in terms of validity or functional maturity. The return of sustainable, organic packaging is tied to another aspect that is the sustainability of the planet (Landim et al., 2016).

The choice of white multifoil paper packaging was due to the ease of acquisition (low cost, availability) and because it is an option to the craft paper (brown). The white color, popularly, refers to hygienic characters and allows the visualization of spots or residual moisture.

Packaging and materials that come into direct contact with food are intended to contain them, from their manufacture to their delivery to the consumer, to protect them from external agents, changes and contaminations, as well as from adulterations (Brasil, 2010).

The enveloping (form of closure of the packages) allowed complete sealing of the experiment. The classification of the type of packaging used was in primary despite being in double envelopment. By primary packaging, it understood the one that maintains direct contact with the vegetal drug (Brasil, 2009).

In this experiment, the efficiency of the storage process was more effective in RT ($\hat{y} = 9.5222x^2 - 51.271x + 98.981$; $R^2 = 0.99$) with a maximum time of three days (72 h). In AR ($\hat{y} = 10.444x^2-54.248x + 98.366$; $R^2 = 0.98$), there was a cold injury, which made commercialization unfeasible and caused loss of essential oil (Figure 1D). This loss of quality and commercial value, in vegetables, occurs due to intense respiratory activity and great water loss (Mota et al., 2003).

In coriander (*Coriandrum sativum* L., Lamiaceae), spice and medicinal species, the shelf life was equivalent to 48 h, undergoing a great influence of the hydrocooling (72 h) and the reduction of the shelf life of the coriander was wilted and yellowing of the leaves (Oliveira, 2012). The wilting and/or wrinkling occurs due to the loss of water and altering the organoleptic characteristics (color, odor, flavor), resulting in loss of external quality, consequently the final appearance of the products for commercialization and bioactivity (Chitarra and Chitarra, 2005).

In the determination of moisture by gravimetry, the water loss was 78%. In drying, the ideal wet mass estimated was between 2.70 and 2.83 g, considered the ideal theoretical drying point (10 to 14%), with TLD = 2.60 g; MW = 2.52 g and CO = 2.98 g. According to Martins et al. (2003), the drying air temperature of medicinal plants generally ranges from 20 to 40°C for leaves and flowers. In drying, another priority factor is the speed with which the water is withdrawn, that is, the drying rate, because a very fast process can degrade the active principles (Melo et al., 2004). On the other hand, it should not be too slow, as it may lead to the appearance of undesirable microorganisms (Silva and Casali, 2000). In the analyzed treatments, the drying temperatures were for CO 40°C, MW 80°C and TLD 41°C, and relative humidity of 37%.

In the drying processes, in the production of the plant drug, the comparison of methods is linked to energy expenditure, drying temperature, dry mass yield and preservation of active compounds. In addition to the drying air temperature, which affects the relative humidity, the drying rate is influenced by the air velocity passing through the product (Melo et al., 2004). Although MW is the fastest process, the final dry mass values were lower than the values estimated in obtaining the final drying point (constant mass).

When evaluating such processes (three treatments) over time, the following equations were obtained in MW where $\hat{y} = -67.522x + 100$, $R^2 = 1$; CO where $\hat{y} = -80.785x + 100$, $R^2 = 1$, and TLD where $\hat{y} = -11.801x^2 - 59.113x + 98.973$, $R^2 = 0.99$.

Regarding the preservation of color and odor, it can be observed that in MW although the color was preserved (Figure 1), the odor was very discrete. In TLD and CO, the staining was well preserved, with better CO scent. According to Martins (2002), in medicinal plants, the relative humidity of the air during drying directly influences the composition of the essential oil. It was observed that drying air influenced the citral volatilization process, stating that the lower the moisture, the stronger the volatilization of monoterpenes.

During the drying process, the loss of color is one of the indicative changes in the material and consequently of the vegetable drug. It is common to see in specialized markets, dry plants with brownish appearance, which reflects ineffective processes of drying, with excessive loss of water and compounds (thermolabile). One can often observe leaf burning due to temperature excess, dehydration and black spots. It is emphasized that the parts of the plant after drying preserve the color, that is, if these parts (leaves, for example) are green they remain green, if yellow, like flowers, they will be yellow. In quality control of plant drugs, the visual aspects are easy to be observed even in sealed packaging. Regarding the packages for commercialization of dried plants, the ideal is the secondary type, with double envelopment and small display for identification of the species and visual contact of the consumer. They can be totally recyclable (cellulosic and with biofilms) where the vegetal drug will

be protected from light and heat and with an ecological presentation.

Considering the results to evaluate the drying processes of *M. officinalis* it can be affirmed that the best drying process occurred in conventional stove CO, followed by thin layer TLD. In MW, mean values of essential oil were 106.6981 ± 25.3975 mgg^{-1} dry mass (approximately 0.35% yield relative to the initial dry mass). The proportion of essential oil varies between 0.1 and 0.45% of the fresh mass based on climatic, soil and crop differences (Guimaraes et al., 2015). Thus, a yield of 478.620 ± 50.1483 mgg^{-1} of fresh mass (0.45%) and 106.36 ± 11.1440 mgg^{-1} of fresh mass (0.1%) was expected. The average oil content corresponds to 0.1% of the initial fresh mass (0.1003%). The essential oil dosages in the treatments during storage were at RT of 113.4159 ± 18.60992 mgg^{-1} and AR of 106.3394 ± 17.15054 mgg^{-1} of post-storage mass, demonstrating the superiority of storage at room temperature.

In the drying processes, the oil contents were small in MW relative to TLD and CO. The yields were, respectively 108.553 ± 40.1677 mgg^{-1} in TLD, 126.3952 ± 7.385318 mgg^{-1} in CO, being greater than MW 78.7867 ± 19.5749 mgg^{-1}, values estimated in dry mass.

The process of drying and yield of essential oil is linked to the time and date of harvesting of leaves of aromatic plants (seasonal variations). Several studies have shown that the contents fluctuate according to the maturity of the leaves (postharvest stages and extractive methods).

According to Rosado et al. (2011), the type of drying and the processing of leaves of *Ocimum basilicum* (basil) influenced in the content and chemical composition of the essential oil where greater percentage of linalool was obtained post-drying, being that drying in greenhouse conserved the aroma and coloration leaves, preserving the original characteristics of the cultivar.

The impact of hot air drying at temperatures of 30 to 90°C with constant specific humidity of 10 g kg^{-1} of dry air and uniform air flow of 0.2 ms^{-1} on the essential oil contents in leaves of lemon balm (*M. officinalis* L.) were evaluated and most of the oil loss was observed at the beginning of the drying process and was proportional to the drying temperature. Pronounced changes occurred at 60°C where the main components of the neral, geranial and citronellal essential oil were decreased, while citronellol showed an increasing tendency. The authors conclude that in addition to component temperature sensitivity, the loss of essential oil can also be attributed to structural changes caused by drying (Argyropoulos and Muller, 2014).

Leaves of *Ocimum gratissimum* L. (Lamiaceae) submitted to the different drying methods (greenhouse, dehumidification and air drying) did not alter the essential oil contents or caused damage to the trichomes, but dried leaves in a forced ventilation oven at 60°C had the trichomes damaged with the reduction of essential oil contents and all drying methods had a reduction in fungal contamination (Santana et al., 2014).

In the leaves of *Plectranthus barbatus* (Brazilian Boldus) and *Plectranthus ornatus* (Brazilian mulled leaf boldus), when the method of natural (thin layer) and artificial drying (forced ventilation oven and microwave) was compared, the best drying method was forced ventilation stove, for causing less damage to the leaves and for having less influence on the degradation the secondary principles (Rodrigues et al., 2011).

The drying process did not interfere with the oil yield in *Piper hispidinervum* (Piperaceae) (Negreiros et al., 2015). In *Varronia curassavica* Jaqc. (Borraginaceae), the essential oil content was not influenced by the harvesting schedule, although the picking time influenced the chemical composition of the *Varronia* essential oil (Queiroz et al., 2016). Thus, in native plants, physiologically by foliar, structural and morphological resistance, the drying processes did not alter the essential oil contents, contrary to the one demonstrated in Lamiaceae.

Conclusion

The most suitable drying was in a conventional oven and longer time of commercialization at room temperature and both processes had better preservation of biomarkers.

CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

The authors have not declared any conflict of interests.

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