

## Field efficacy and persistence of synthetic pesticidal dusts on stored maize grain under contrasting agro-climatic conditions

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### Abstract

Grain storage trials were conducted in two districts of Zimbabwe with contrasting agro-climatic conditions (mean annual temperature of 18 - 30 °C and 28 – 42 °C; total rainfall of 750-1000 mm per annum and < 450 mm per annum; respectively) to determine the comparative efficacy of commercially-available grain storage synthetic pesticides under contrasting climatic conditions. The five grain protectants, namely Shumba super dust<sup>®</sup> (fenitrothion 1 % + deltamethrin 0.13 %), Actellic gold dust<sup>®</sup> (pirimiphos-methyl 1.6 % + thiamethoxam 0.36 %), Super guard<sup>®</sup> (pirimiphos-methyl 1.6 % + permethrin 0.4 %), Chikwapuro<sup>®</sup> (pirimiphos-methyl 2.5 % + deltamethrin 0.1 %) and Ngwena yedura<sup>®</sup> (pirimiphos-methyl 2.5 % + deltamethrin 0.2 %) were evaluated at label rates on stored shelled maize. The trials were conducted for a 40 week-long storage season in 2014/15 and again in 2015/16. Samples were analysed for insect grain damage, total insects per kilogram, grain weight loss, insect feeding chaff and grain moisture content. Temperature and relative humidity within stores were recorded using data loggers. The results highlighted the generally poor efficacy of the synthetic pesticides under both cooler and hotter climatic test conditions. The pesticides failed to prevent insect grain damage or suppress insect pest numbers. Only Actellic gold dust<sup>®</sup>, introduced in the 2015/16 storage season was effective under both the agro- climatic conditions. The current study suggests that only Actellic gold dust<sup>®</sup> can be recommended for smallholder farm grain protection under both cooler and hotter climatic conditions. The findings confirm the frequent claims of smallholder farmers in east and southern Africa regarding poor storage pesticide performance, and emphasize the need to develop alternative effective storage insect pest control options.

**Key words:** Grain storage, synthetic pesticide efficacy, insect feeding chaff, grain damage, *Prostephanus truncatus*

## 36 1. INTRODUCTION

37 The increased production and use of synthetic pesticides worldwide since the 1960s has helped  
38 reduce pest infestations, boost food production and extend food shelf-life (Ortiz-hernández et al.,  
39 2013). Most pesticides are targeted at reducing pest species which attack crops during the field  
40 growth stages, thus helping to increase agricultural production. Far fewer pesticides are available  
41 for protecting grain from insect infestation after harvest. Given the climatic projections of global  
42 increases in temperatures, the efficacy of pesticides may be reduced (Arthur et al., 1992; Stathers  
43 et al., 2013), while pest infestation may rise, affecting both the crop production and storage  
44 stages.

45 In the current study, the efficacy of the five commercially available grain storage pesticides in  
46 Zimbabwe was investigated on stored maize. These grain storage synthetic pesticides are widely  
47 used in Zimbabwe, with at least 75 % of farmers relying on them to protect their stored grain  
48 from insect pests (Mvumi and Stathers, 2003; Nyabako et al., in preparation). Grain protectants  
49 containing a wide variety of active ingredients, including carbamates, pyrethroids,  
50 organophosphates and neonicotinoids have been formulated, and most of them contain more than  
51 ingredient (Arthur, 1996). These binary formulations are employed to improve efficacy and  
52 reduce development of insect tolerance which can occur more easily to products with a single  
53 active ingredient (Daglish and Nayak, 2012; Rumbos et al., 2013). However, little information is  
54 available on the effect of temperature and relative humidity on the efficacy of binary pesticides  
55 in grain storage (Rumbos et al., 2013). Theses is particularly important under farm conditions  
56 where a combination of extreme temperatures and new pests such as the larger grain borer  
57 (LGB), *Prostephanus truncatus* Horn. (Coleoptera: Bostrichidae) are experienced.

58 The documented effects of temperature on pesticide activity differ by pesticide class. The  
59 efficacy of organophosphate and neonicotinoid-based insecticides increases with increasing  
60 temperature from 20 to 30 °C (Arthur et al., 2004; Vassilakos and Athanassiou, 2013) while that  
61 of pyrethroid pesticides decrease as temperatures increase (Subramanyam and Cutkomp, 1987;  
62 Arthur, 1999). Some studies suggest that although high temperatures generally decrease the  
63 efficacy of pesticides; organophosphates are more effective at temperatures above 20 °C, than ≤  
64 20 °C (Arthur et al., 2004). This is understood to be due to increased pest movement, breathing  
65 and uptake rate of the pesticide at higher temperatures (Arthur et al., 2004). Other researchers

66 noted that whilst mortality increased at high temperatures in the first few days of pesticide  
67 (organophosphates) application, general efficacy and pesticide persistence decreased over a long  
68 storage period (Hamacher et al., 2002). Similarly, studies by Afridi et al. (2000) concluded that  
69 degradation of organophosphate (chlorpyrifos-methyl and pirimiphos-methyl) and pyrethroid  
70 (permethrin) admixed pesticides is faster at temperatures of 35 °C to 40 °C than at 25 to 30 °C,  
71 and faster still on grain with a higher moisture content.

72 Furthermore, higher insect mortality was recorded at 75 % r.h. than at 55 % r.h., not as a result of  
73 “insecticide activity *per se* but due to the increased metabolic stress of the target insect species”  
74 (Vassilakos and Athanassiou, 2013). However, in most studies, temperature is considered more  
75 important than relative humidity in influencing pest activity resulting in increased pesticide  
76 contact or uptake at elevated temperatures (Rumbos et al., 2013). In terms of degradation, the  
77 residues of organophosphate pesticides degrade more rapidly than those of pyrethroids. For  
78 example, organophosphate residues on stored grain were below detection point after 52 weeks of  
79 grain storage, while the pyrethroid permethrin was more stable (Afridi et al., 2000). In terms of  
80 insect survival, Arthur et al. (2004) reported that the rusty red flour beetle, *Tribolium castaneum*  
81 (Herbst) (Coleoptera; Tenebrionidae), a secondary pest of stored cereals, has a better chance of  
82 survival after pesticide application since it attacks stored maize at a later stage when the pesticide  
83 has likely degraded, compared to primary pests such as the maize weevil, *Sitophilus zeamais*  
84 Motschulsky (Coleoptera; Curculionidae) which infests grain as it matures and persists  
85 throughout the postharvest stages.

86 Three classes of insecticides namely; organophosphates, pyrethroids and neonicotinoids; are  
87 commonly used in Zimbabwe and other countries in sub-Saharan Africa in grain protection as  
88 dust formulations. The insecticidal dusts are admixed with dried grain to protect it against  
89 storage insect pest damage. The organophosphates include pirimiphos-methyl and fenitrothion  
90 (Hazard class II). This class of pesticides has a quick knock-down effect and a fast degradation  
91 pathway and hence do not leave long-term residues after application (Tadeo, 2008). The  
92 pyrethroids include deltamethrin and permethrin. They are contact poisons which affect the  
93 nervous system and present low mammalian toxicity risks (Hazard class II); hence they are often  
94 viewed as the safest of all pesticides in terms of use (Kamrin, 2000). The neonicotinoids group of  
95 insecticides include thiamethoxam which interferes with the nicotinic acetylcholine receptors

96 (Arthur et al., 2004), thus affecting the insect nervous system (Maienfisch et al., 2001). This  
97 unique mode of action makes them desirable for controlling insect pests which have developed  
98 some resistance to organophosphate, pyrethroid and carbamate insecticides (Maienfisch et al.,  
99 1999). The insecticide thiamethoxam, is widely used for seed treatment of most field crops but  
100 its documented use as a stored grain protectant is very low (Arthur et al., 2004).

101  
102 An efficacy and persistence study of five synthetic insecticidal dusts admixed with maize grain  
103 was conducted in two agro-climatic regions of Zimbabwe with contrasting environmental  
104 conditions; one cool and sub-humid and the other hot and dry. The objective of the study was to  
105 determine the comparative efficacy and persistence of the grain protectants in contrasting  
106 climatic conditions, to deepen understanding of how the protectants perform as temperature and  
107 r.h. alter due to changing climatic conditions and provide guidance on validity of current  
108 recommendations.

109

## 110 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### 111 *2.1. Site description*

112 Field trials were conducted in Hwedza (18° 37' S; 31° 34' E) and Mbire (20° 43' S; 30° 34' E)  
113 districts in Zimbabwe. Hwedza district, located in agro-ecological region II b receives an annual  
114 rainfall of 750 - 1000 mm and mean annual temperatures of 18 – 30 °C (FAO, 2006). Mbire  
115 district, is located in agro-ecological region V characterised by low rainfall below 450 mm per  
116 annum and extreme temperatures ranging from 28 - 42 °C (FAO, 2006). A rise of about 2.6 °C  
117 and 2 °C in minimum and maximum daily temperatures respectively, has been recorded in the  
118 last 30 years in Zimbabwe (Brown, 2012). This warming has resulted in increasing aridity as  
119 well as marked shifts in the onset of rains, increased proportions of low rainfall years and  
120 increased frequency of mid-season dry spells (Nyabako and Manzungu, 2012; Rurinda et al.,  
121 2013). The changes have resulted in a proposed shifting of Zimbabwe's agro-ecological zoning  
122 (Nyabako and Manzungu, 2012; Brown, 2012; Mugandani et al., 2012).

123

### 124 *2.2. Treatments*

125 Most of the grain protectant pesticides used in Zimbabwe are organophosphate- and pyrethroid-  
126 based including Shumba super dust<sup>®</sup>, Chikwapuro<sup>®</sup>, Ngwena yedura<sup>®</sup> and Super guard<sup>®</sup>; even

127 though they differ in terms of their specific active ingredients and respective percentages (Table  
128 1). Only Actellic gold<sup>®</sup> dust contains a neonicotinoid active ingredient in combination with an  
129 organophosphate. The pesticides were purchased from Farm & City, a registered agro-dealer in  
130 Harare, Zimbabwe. Untreated grain in polypropylene bags was used as a control for the  
131 experiment.

132

133 *Insert Table 1 about here*

134

### 135 2.3. Trial setting and management

136 In Hwedza district, a 1:2 mixture of two hybrid maize varieties; Sirda 113 (Seed Company of  
137 Zimbabwe- Seed-co) and PHB 30G19 (Pioneer Seed Company) were used in the trials during the  
138 2014/15 season whilst in the 2015/16 season a 1:3 mixture of PHG 30G19 and Pioneer 2859  
139 (Pioneer Seed Company) was used. Mixtures were used due to a local shortage of sufficient bulk  
140 grain of a single variety as a result of poor growing seasons. In Mbire district, a single variety of  
141 PHB 30G19 was used in both the grain storage seasons. In both districts, grain was purchased in  
142 the same locality where the trials were conducted.

143

144 The same grain treatment process was used in both districts. The trial grain was thoroughly  
145 mixed at one place. Each treatment was allocated 75 kg of grain and treated with a respective  
146 pesticide. Manufacturer's recommended application rates were used for all pesticides (Table 1).  
147 After pesticide treatment, the 75 kg lot of each treatment was sub-divided to make three 25 kg  
148 replicates contained in polypropylene bags.

149

150 Brick wall structures with cement floors, ceiling boards and asbestos roofs housed the treatments  
151 in both districts. Data loggers (EL-USB-2, USA) were used to record temperature and rh in the  
152 trial rooms. In the 2014/15 season, the loggers were installed eight weeks after trial setting due to  
153 their late delivery. Polypropylene bags of 50 kg capacity were used to contain the treated grain  
154 and these were placed on a raised platform (about 10 cm above the floor) of mud bricks in a  
155 completely randomised design (CRD). Immediately after trial setting, baseline samples were  
156 collected. Thereafter, sampling was conducted at eight-week intervals over a period of forty  
157 weeks. Sampling was done using 40 cm bag probes (Hodges, 2013) inserted horizontally at

158 multiple points across the circumference and different levels of the bag. Grain samples were  
159 analysed to determine grain moisture content, presence of live and dead insects, grain damage,  
160 chaff weight and grain weight loss. The trials relied on natural insect infestation; no insects were  
161 artificially introduced into the treatments.

162

#### 163 2.4. *Sample analysis and calculations*

164 For each sample, the weight was recorded before sieving off the insects. Two and five millimetre  
165 aperture standard test sieves were nested to separate the chaff and insects respectively from the  
166 grain. Live and dead insect counts were converted to the number of live or dead insects per  
167 kilogram of sample. The live and dead insects per kilogram were summed up to give total insects  
168 per kilogram of sample weight. Grain moisture content was measured using a pre-calibrated  
169 GrainPro moisture meter (model GMK- 303CF, GrainPro Inc, Philippines). Thereafter, samples  
170 were kept in a freezer at  $\leq -18$  °C to stop further insect damage whilst grain damage assessment  
171 was underway. For damage assessment, each maize sample was sub-divided into eight sub-  
172 samples using a grain sample divider. Three sub-samples, equivalent to three-eighths of the total  
173 sample were analysed for grain damage. Damaged and undamaged grain was separated manually  
174 and each category counted using a seed counter (Numigral seed counter, CHOPIN, Villeneuve  
175 LA Garenne, France). Damage was then converted to percentage as  $[Nd / (Nd + Und)] \times 100$  %  
176 where  $Nd$  represents the number of damaged grains and  $Und$  represents the number of  
177 undamaged grains (Boxall, 1986). Grain weight loss was calculated using the count and weigh  
178 assessment method (Equation 1):

179

$$180 \quad \text{Weight loss \%} = \frac{NdWu - WdNu}{(Nd + Nu) \times Wu} \times 100 \quad (\text{Boxall, 1986}) \quad \text{Equation 1}$$

181 where  $Nd$  = number of damaged grains in a sample,  $Nu$  = number of undamaged grains in a  
182 sample,  $Wu$  = weight of undamaged grains in a sample and  $Wd$  = weight of damaged grains in a  
183 sample.

184

#### 185 2.5. *Data analysis*

186 Square root transformations were done on the data including insect grain damage, weight loss  
187 and insect feeding chaff to stabilise data variance and conform to normality (Kirchner, 2001).  
188 Thereafter, the data were subjected to a two-way analysis of variance in Genstat 14 (VSN

189 International, 2011) to test for significant differences between treatments, sites and treatment-site  
190 interactions. In case of significant differences, Fisher's protected LSD at 5 % probability was  
191 used to separate means. Temperature data, recorded using data loggers for the two sites, were  
192 analysed using a paired sample t-test.

193

### 194 **3. RESULTS**

#### 195 *3.1 Grain damage*

##### 196 *3.1.1 Season 1 (2014/15)*

197 In Hwedza, grain insect damage increased swiftly in the untreated control from slightly above  
198 10 % at 16 weeks to above 40 % of grains at week 24. However, in the pesticide treatments,  
199 grain damage remained much lower throughout the trial (Fig. 1). It was only after 32 and 40  
200 weeks storage, respectively, that grain damage in two of the pesticide treatments, Ngwena  
201 yedura<sup>®</sup> and Super guard<sup>®</sup>, rose above 10 % during the 2014/15 storage season. In Mbire district,  
202 grain damage levels were generally higher in the respective treatments, than those recorded in  
203 Hwedza except for the untreated control where damage levels began to rise at week 16 whereas  
204 in the pesticide treatments, this occurred as from week 32 (Fig. 1). Differences in grain damage  
205 among treatments were significant ( $F_{4, 20} = 5.60$ ;  $P = 0.003$ ) within sites at week 40. However,  
206 there were no significant differences ( $F_{1, 20} = 2.35$ ;  $P = 0.141$ ) for inter-site comparison.  
207 Treatment-site interactions were significant ( $F_{4, 20} = 4.62$ ;  $P = 0.008$ ) showing that treatments  
208 performed differently across the two sites. For combined data across sites, Shumba super dust<sup>®</sup>  
209 had the least damage followed by Super guard<sup>®</sup>, Chikwapuro<sup>®</sup>, Ngwena yedura<sup>®</sup> and untreated  
210 control.

211

212 ***Insert Figure 1 about here***

213

##### 214 *3.1.2 Season 2 (2015/16)*

215 In the 2015/16 storage season in Hwedza, grain damage remained below 10 % in all treatments  
216 only up to week 16. In contrast to the previous season, grain damage remained below 10 %  
217 throughout the 40 weeks of storage only in the Actellic gold dust<sup>®</sup> treatment. While over 75 % of  
218 grains were damaged in the untreated control, Shumba super dust<sup>®</sup>, Chikwapuro<sup>®</sup>, Ngwena  
219 yedura<sup>®</sup> and Super guard<sup>®</sup> by week 40 (Fig. 2). It is striking that all the organophosphate- and

220 pyrethroid-based pesticide treatments (Shumba super dust<sup>®</sup>, Ngwena yedura<sup>®</sup>, Super guard<sup>®</sup> and  
221 Chikwapuro<sup>®</sup>) experienced very high grain damage similar to levels found in the untreated  
222 control grain. However, the Actellic gold dust<sup>®</sup> treatment, which contains a neonicotinoid in  
223 combination with an organophosphate active ingredient was effective throughout the storage  
224 period.

225 In Mbire district, grain damage levels were much lower than in Hwedza. In the Actellic gold  
226 dust<sup>®</sup>, Chikwapuro<sup>®</sup> and Shumba super dust<sup>®</sup> treatments mean percentage insect damaged grain  
227 remained below 10 % throughout the 40 weeks of storage (Fig. 2). Statistically, treatments were  
228 significantly different ( $F_{5, 24} = 33.20$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ) when data was combined across the sites at 40  
229 weeks. Site comparisons were also significant ( $F_{1, 24} = 311.67$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ); together with  
230 treatment-site interactions ( $F_{5, 24} = 16.56$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ). Actellic gold dust<sup>®</sup> produced a stand-alone  
231 performance followed by Shumba super dust<sup>®</sup>, Chikwapuro<sup>®</sup> and Ngwena yedura<sup>®</sup> whilst Super  
232 guard<sup>®</sup> and the untreated control had the highest damage for combined sites data.

233  
234 *Insert Figure 2 about here*

235  
236 *3.2 Grain weight loss*

237 *3.2.1 Season 1 (2014/15)*

238 Weight losses remained below 4 % in all the pesticide treatments in Hwedza during the 2014/15  
239 season. Only 11 % weight loss occurred in the untreated control by 40 weeks storage. In Mbire  
240 district, grain weight losses were generally low, remaining below 8 % throughout the trial, with  
241 the highest figures of 7.8 % and 6.8 % occurring in the Chikwapuro<sup>®</sup> and Ngwena yedura<sup>®</sup>  
242 treatments respectively (Fig. 3). Differences in grain weight losses for combined treatments were  
243 significant ( $F_{4, 20} = 3.13$ ;  $P = 0.037$ ) at 40 weeks of storage. The site differences were not  
244 significant but treatment-site interactions had significant differences ( $F_{4, 20} = 3.82$ ;  $P = 0.018$ ).  
245 Across sites, Shumba super dust<sup>®</sup> had the least weight losses, followed categorically by Super  
246 guard<sup>®</sup>, Chikwapuro<sup>®</sup>, Ngwena yedura<sup>®</sup>, with the untreated grain experiencing the highest weight  
247 losses.

248  
249 *Insert Figure 3 about here*

250



251 3.2.2 Season 2 (2015/16)

252 In Hwedza district, weight loss started to increase from week 16 onwards in the untreated  
253 control, Shumba super dust<sup>®</sup>, Chikwapuro<sup>®</sup>, Ngwena yedura<sup>®</sup> and Super guard<sup>®</sup>, all these  
254 treatments suffered very high weight losses of 20 % and above by 32 and 40 weeks storage. It  
255 was only in the Actellic gold dust<sup>®</sup> treatment that weight loss remained below 1 % throughout  
256 the 40 weeks of storage (Fig. 4). In Mbire, weight losses were much lower ( $\leq 10\%$ ) compared to  
257 those in Hwedza. Significant differences at 40 weeks were recorded between treatments ( $F_{5, 24} =$   
258  $10.57$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ), sites ( $F_{1, 24} = 144.56$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ) and treatment-site interactions ( $F_{5, 24} = 9.98$ ;  $F$   
259  $< .001$ ). The lowest weight losses were incurred in Actellic gold dust<sup>®</sup> followed surprisingly by  
260 the untreated control. Shumba super dust<sup>®</sup>, Chikwapuro<sup>®</sup> and Ngwena yedura<sup>®</sup> recorded  
261 similarly high losses and Super guard<sup>®</sup> had the highest across site weight losses.

262

263 ***Insert Figure 4 about here***

264

265 3.3 Adult insect species diversity

266 3.3.1 Season 1 (2014/15)

267 In Hwedza, the maize weevil *S. zeamais* was the dominant insect species recorded during the  
268 2014/15 storage season. The beetle *P. truncatus* was recorded at week 32 and 40 in most  
269 treatments. The highest number of insects was recorded in the untreated controls, with over 300  
270 adult insects per kilogram at week 24. The insect population remained below 50 insects per kg in  
271 the Shumba super dust<sup>®</sup> (in both Mbire and Hwedza) as well as Chikwapuro<sup>®</sup> and Ngwena  
272 yedura<sup>®</sup> treatments during the entire 40 weeks of storage, and Super guard<sup>®</sup> only exceeded 50  
273 insects per kilogram at 32 and 40 weeks (Fig. 5).

274

275 In the same season lower populations of insects were recorded in Mbire than in Hwedza, but the  
276 spectrum of insect species was wider. *Prostephanus truncatus* was more prevalent in the  
277 pesticide-treated grain especially Chikwapuro<sup>®</sup>, Ngwena yedura<sup>®</sup> and Super guard<sup>®</sup>, whereas  
278 *S. zeamais* was more pronounced in untreated and Shumba super dust treatments. *Tribolium*  
279 *castaneum*, being a secondary pest of maize, was more prevalent towards the end of the storage  
280 season although in the untreated control it was recorded earlier at 16 weeks. The grain moth

281 *Sitotroga cerealella* (Olivier) (Lepidoptera; Gelechiidae) and wasps of the hymenoptera order  
282 were also recorded in most treatments (Fig. 5).

283  
284 Treatments had significant differences ( $F_{4, 20} = 7.26$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ) for across site comparisons at 40  
285 weeks. Treatment-site interactions were also significant ( $F_{4, 20} = 7.59$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ). However, site  
286 differences were not significant in influencing insect populations. The insects were highest in  
287 untreated control, followed by Super guard<sup>®</sup> and Ngwena yedura<sup>®</sup>, Chikwapuro<sup>®</sup> and Shumba  
288 super dust<sup>®</sup> in that order.

289  
290 ***Insert Figure 5 about here***

291  
292 ***3.3.2 Season 2 (2015/16)***

293 In Hwedza, *P. truncatus* was the main insect pest recorded in treated grain whilst high  
294 populations of *S. cerealella* were also present in the untreated grain. High insect populations  
295 (600 - 800 insects per kg) were recorded in the Ngwena yedura<sup>®</sup>, untreated control, Shumba  
296 super dust<sup>®</sup>, Chikwapuro<sup>®</sup> and Super guard<sup>®</sup> (Fig. 6). Actellic gold dust<sup>®</sup> out-performed the  
297 other treatments, with less than 50 adult insects per kg by 40 weeks storage. In contrast to the  
298 2014/15 season, *S. zeamais* was recorded at very low levels in most treatments except the  
299 untreated control at week 40. In Mbire district, *S. cerealella* and *S. zeamais* were dominant from  
300 trial setting in August 2015 to week 24 in most treatments. However, in the untreated control,  
301 *T. castaneum* also became dominant from week 24 to week 40, whereas in Ngwena yedura<sup>®</sup> and  
302 Super guard<sup>®</sup>, *P. truncatus* became dominant at week 32 and 40. The total insect numbers per  
303 kilogram recorded in Mbire of up to 220 insects per kilogram were much less than those  
304 recorded in Hwedza (above 600 insects per kilogram) for the same treatments (Fig. 6).

305  
306 Across sites, both treatments ( $F_{5, 24} = 9.20$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ) and sites ( $F_{1, 24} = 177.91$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ) were  
307 significantly different. Treatment-site interactions were also significant ( $F_{5, 24} = 7.01$ ;  $P < 0.001$ )  
308 hence performance of treatments across sites differed. Actellic gold dust<sup>®</sup> had the least number  
309 of total insects followed by the untreated control for pooled data. Chikwapuro<sup>®</sup>, Shumba super  
310 dust<sup>®</sup> and Super guard<sup>®</sup> were in the same range and Ngwena yedura<sup>®</sup> had the highest number of  
311 total insects.

312 ***Insert Figure 6 about here***

313

314 *3.4 Insect feeding dust*

315 *3.4.1 Season 1 (2014/15)*

316 Very little insect feeding dust or chaff (< 2 % by weight) was generated in any of the pesticide  
317 treatments in Hwedza during the 2014/15 storage season, and it only reached 4 % in the  
318 untreated control by week 40. In Mbire, Shumba super dust<sup>®</sup> and the untreated control recorded  
319 below 1 % chaff dust, whilst Super guard<sup>®</sup>, Chikwapuro<sup>®</sup> and Ngwena yedura<sup>®</sup> recorded  
320 between 2 and 4 % chaff. Only treatment-site interactions were significant ( $F_{4, 20} = 3.53$ ;  $P =$   
321  $0.025$ ) at 40 weeks of storage.

322

323 *3.4.2 Season 2 (2015/16)*

324 In contrast to the 2014/15 storage season, during the 2015/16 season, large quantities of  
325 feeding/boring dust were generated in Hwedza from week 24 onwards, rising to between 10 and  
326 25 % by week 40. Only Actellic gold dust<sup>®</sup> remained with little chaff. Greater quantities of chaff  
327 were generated in the pesticide treatments Chikwapuro<sup>®</sup>, Super guard<sup>®</sup>, Ngwena yedura<sup>®</sup> and  
328 Shumba super dust<sup>®</sup> than the untreated control at week 40. Again, almost no dust/chaff was  
329 recorded in the Actellic gold dust<sup>®</sup>. In the Mbire district, all treatments recorded very low chaff  
330 content below 5 % (Fig. 7). Treatments were significantly different ( $F_{5, 24} = 11.13$ ;  $P < 0.001$ )  
331 across sites. The two sites also had significant differences ( $F_{1, 24} = 151.03$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ) and  
332 treatment-site interactions were also significant ( $F_{5, 24} = 9.23$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ).

333

334 ***Insert Figure 7 about here***

335

336 *3.5 Grain moisture content, store temperature and relative humidity*

337

338 *3.5.1 Season 1 (2014/15)*

339 In Hwedza district, moisture content of the trial grain ranged from 9 to 12 % during the 40 week  
340 trial. Moisture content increased from trial setting in November 2014 to February 2015 before  
341 stabilizing at around 11 % from March to June (Fig. 8). Temperatures for Hwedza were

342 consistently below 25 °C except in January and March 2015. On the other hand, r.h. ranged  
343 between 50 and 70 % for most of the season and only dropped below 50 % in June. In Mbire  
344 grain moisture content dropped from 10 % to about 9 %, between November 2014 and January  
345 2015 before rising to a peak of 11 % in March 2015 (Fig. 8). During this period temperatures  
346 were beyond 30 °C for most of the time except in January 2015 when heavy rains and flooding  
347 occurred in Mbire (13 weeks into the trial). Relative humidity was highly variable in Mbire,  
348 rising from as low as 30 % during the hot dry summer in November to above 70 % in the hot wet  
349 summer in January 2015. Between February and June of 2015, r.h. decreased gently from about  
350 65 % to 40 %. There were no significant differences in grain moisture content between  
351 treatments for across site comparisons. However, the sites were significantly different ( $F_{1, 20} =$   
352  $83.66$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ). Treatment-site interactions were also insignificant, statistically. There were  
353 significant differences in mean temperatures for Hwedza and Mbire districts (Paired sample t-  
354 test:  $T = -5.88$ ;  $N = 8$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ).

355

356 *Insert Figure 8 about here*

357

358 *Insert Figure 9 about here*

359

### 360 3.5.2 Season 2 (2015/16)

361 In the 2015/16 season, grain moisture content in Hwedza district decreased from 12 % in  
362 September 2015 to about 9.6 % in December before rising gently and remaining at around 11 %  
363 until the end of the season. During the season steady temperatures of 25 to 27 °C were recorded,  
364 and only dropping below 25 °C in April and May 2016 (Fig. 9). Relative humidity decreased  
365 from 40 to 35 % between September and October 2015 before rising steadily to above 50 % from  
366 January 2016 onwards. In Mbire district, grain moisture content decreased steeply from 12 % to  
367 about 7 % between September and December 2015 (Fig. 8) in response to high temperatures  
368 (Fig. 9) which were consistently high above 30 °C during that period. Grain moisture content  
369 then increased between December 2015 and January 2016, then remained constant at just below  
370 10 % until the season's end in May 2016. The hot dry spells of Mbire resulted in r.h. falling  
371 below 30 % in September and October 2015 before a rapid rise to slightly above 50 % between  
372 November and December. Beginning 2016, r.h. remained steady above 50 % until April, when it

373 dropped to about 42 % in May. No significant differences in grain moisture content between  
374 treatments were recorded for across site comparisons. Treatment-site interactions were also not  
375 significant. However, sites were significantly different ( $F_{1, 24} = 71.96$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ) at 40 weeks.  
376 Significant differences were also confirmed for the mean temperatures (Paired sample t-test:  $T =$   
377  $-5.22$ ;  $N = 9$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ) of the two sites.

378

379

#### 380 4. DISCUSSION

381 The study found that the performance of grain storage pesticides differed across the sites and was  
382 influenced by the contrasting environmental conditions. This resulted in significant treatment-  
383 site interactions. Grain damage and weight losses in the pesticide treated maize grain were higher  
384 in Mbire than Hwedza district in the 2014/15 season, although this was not the case for the  
385 untreated control. However, in the 2015/16 season, damage and weight losses in all treatments  
386 were higher in Hwedza than Mbire district. In the 2014/15 season, Shumba super dust<sup>®</sup>  
387 effectively suppressed damage in treated grain in both districts, and Chikwapuro<sup>®</sup> was equally as  
388 effective but only in Hwedza district. In the 2015/16 storage season, in Hwedza district, grain  
389 damage levels were very high in all treatments except Actellic gold dust<sup>®</sup> after 40 weeks storage.  
390 In contrast, in the hotter more arid Mbire district, insect grain damage was suppressed in all  
391 pesticide treatments for 32 weeks storage after which high damage levels were recorded in Super  
392 guard<sup>®</sup> and Ngwena yedura<sup>®</sup> in 2015/16.

393 Several other recent storage studies from African countries (Mutambuki and Ngatia, 2012, Abass  
394 et al., 2014; Midega et al., 2016), also reported grain damage levels as high as those experienced  
395 in Hwedza in 2015/16, where over 70 % grain was damaged and 40 % weight losses recorded. In  
396 many African countries, *P. truncatus* and *S. zeamais* are ranked as the most destructive stored  
397 maize insect pests (Midega et al., 2016), and the former is estimated to cause double the losses  
398 caused by *S. zeamais* (Hodges, 2002). Some farmers perceive *P. truncatus* to account for about  
399 56 % and *S. zeamais* up to 36 % of the maize losses (Abass et al., 2014). In the current trial,  
400 *P. truncatus* and *S. zeamais* were the main cause of high grain damage and weight losses.

401 The damage levels and pest populations varied widely between the two seasons in Mbire district,  
402 which may be linked to climatic aspects. As in the 2014/15 storage season, flooding occurred in

403 Mbire between January and February 2015 during which time temperatures dropped to below  
404 30 °C and grain moisture content simultaneously rose to a high of 11 %. In relation to grain  
405 damage and pest infestations, there were no sudden fluctuations in response to flooding or  
406 environmental conditions as the effects took longer to manifest. Higher damage levels and insect  
407 populations did not manifest immediately in response to the flooding and changed environmental  
408 conditions, but occurred later on from April to June 2015 (after 32 and 40 weeks storage).  
409 Generally, the higher the grain moisture content, the more susceptible the grain is to insects  
410 (Rashid et al., 2013).

411 Another factor which may have caused wide variability in grain damage and pest populations  
412 between seasons in the Mbire trials may be the excessively high temperatures experienced during  
413 the El-Niño heat wave (WFP, 2016) which affected the 2015/16 season. During this season there  
414 was a very slow build-up of insect populations in Mbire trials enabling all the pesticide  
415 treatments to perform fairly well for 32 weeks of grain storage. However, a sudden dramatic  
416 increase in damage occurred by 40 weeks storage in the untreated control, Super guard<sup>®</sup> and  
417 Ngwena yedura<sup>®</sup> treatments after temperatures dropped below 30 °C. It is possible that pest  
418 build-up was suppressed in the earlier weeks due to the excessively high temperatures  
419 experienced during the heat wave. As optimum conditions for life cycle development of most  
420 storage insect pests fall in the ranges of 27 – 32 °C at 72 % r.h., excessive temperatures above  
421 35 °C may slow establishment (Mason and McDonough, 2011). It is likely that the heatwave  
422 caused pesticide breakdown, leaving insect populations to increase with little restriction when  
423 temperatures dropped to optimal levels.

424 Additionally the different grain moisture content levels experienced in the two districts (9 – 12 %  
425 mc in Hwedza, and as low as 8.5 % in Mbire district), which were linked to the high  
426 temperatures, may also have influenced insect pest development. When temperatures are high  
427 and grain moisture content is so low, it becomes difficult for insects to perforate grain (Rashid et  
428 al., 2013) or to breed (Beckett et al., 2007), and hence grain damage is typically lower. There  
429 were significant differences between sites for the across site comparisons of grain moisture  
430 content confirming that site conditions influenced treatment grain moisture content. Furthermore,  
431 the generally higher r.h. (> 50 %) of Hwedza was more favourable for insect pest development  
432 compared to the drier conditions (< 30 % r.h.) of Mbire district. Typically, optimum conditions

433 for *S. zeamais* development are 25 °C at 70 % r.h., 35 °C at 75 % r.h. for *T. castaneum* and 32 °C  
434 at 80 % r.h. for *P. truncatus* (Haines, 1991; Fields, 1992). *Prostephanus truncatus* has, however,  
435 higher tolerance to drier conditions (Haines, 1991).

436 Overall, no general pattern across the two districts for the two storage seasons in terms of  
437 pesticide efficacy as measured by grain damage, weight loss, pest prevalence and abundance was  
438 found. As noted earlier, in the 2014/15 season, damage, weight loss and *P. truncatus* prevalence  
439 were higher in Mbire than Hwedza district. However, in the 2015/16 season, the reverse occurred  
440 with higher grain damage, weight loss and *P. truncatus* populations recorded in Hwedza than in  
441 Mbire district. Similarly, the pesticides were fairly effective in Hwedza in 2014/15, but less so in  
442 Mbire. However, the 2015/16 season's trial found all the pesticides except Actellic gold dust®  
443 performed poorly. The variabilities in terms of damage, weight levels and *P. truncatus* prevalence  
444 across the two seasons may be attributed to the characteristically sporadic occurrence of  
445 *P. truncatus* (Boxall, 2003; Hodges et al., 2003; Muantinte et al., 2014). According to Krall  
446 (1984), damage and losses caused by *P. truncatus* are difficult to measure due to their often  
447 isolated and unpredictable occurrence. The pest's presence is known to be sporadic between  
448 treatments, farm stores and storage seasons (Boxall, 2003; Hodges et al., 2003). This was the  
449 case across treatments, sites and seasons in both Hwedza and Mbire districts during these trials.  
450 Therefore, any pesticide used needs to be able to perform whether *P. truncatus* is present or not  
451 that year, because the risk of food shortages is so high if the pest does attack.

452 In terms of general pesticide efficacy, the grain damage and total insect numbers graphs clearly  
453 demonstrate the failure of most of the pesticides in suppressing insect pest development in both  
454 study districts. With the exception of Actellic gold dust® which performed very well in both  
455 districts, and Shumba super dust® in the 2014/15 season, all the other pesticides succumbed to  
456 insect pressure. These studies found that the organophosphate and pyrethroid pesticide  
457 combinations failed to control insect pests and only Actellic gold dust® which is composed of an  
458 organophosphate (pirimiphos-methyl 1.6 %) and a neonicotinoid (thiamethoxam 0.36 %)   
459 performed well across the two contrasting environmental conditions. In this case, the  
460 neonicotinoid (thiamethoxam 0.36 %) active ingredient appears to be the differential active  
461 ingredient between the poor and high efficacy pesticides. Failure of organophosphate and

462 pyrethroid pesticides can be attributed to either poor pesticide persistence or pesticide tolerance  
463 and/ resistance, among other factors.

464 Earlier laboratory studies of pirimiphos-methyl (organophosphate) in stored-maize under hot-  
465 humid conditions (30 °C, > 50 % relative humidity) showed that it was effective for a short  
466 duration of four months after which efficacy was greatly reduced (Richter et al., 1997).  
467 Pirimiphos-methyl and fenitrothion (organophosphates) have also been categorised as less  
468 persistent pesticides at 30 °C temperatures, whilst deltamethrin and permethrin (pyrethroids)  
469 showed higher persistence over a nine months storage period (Morton et al., 2001). Therefore  
470 considering the 40 weeks storage duration ( $\approx$  10 months) of this current trial and the high  
471 temperatures experienced in both districts, it might have been too long a period for effective  
472 storage, especially considering the pesticides' low persistence. Although deltamethrin and  
473 permethrin have in previous studies shown higher persistence (Morton et al., 2001), in the  
474 current study the effectiveness of products in which they were included barely lasted 24 weeks.

475 Besides the poor persistence, poor efficacy of synthetic pesticides may also be a result of  
476 pesticide dilution by high chaff dust. The dust generated due to extensive tunneling by  
477 *P. truncatus* has the potential to dilute the pesticidal dust, making it ineffective (Mlambo et al.,  
478 2017). This is also one of the reasons why delayed pesticide application results in pesticide  
479 failure (Mutambuki and Ngatia, 2012). At the same time, it was also noted in some cases that  
480 untreated grain suffered less damage and weight loss than pesticide- treated grain which can be  
481 due to the high sensitivity of natural enemies to synthetic pesticides (Stathers et al., 2008).  
482 Studies done by Stathers et al., (2008) indicate that natural enemies (parasitic wasps) numbers  
483 were higher in untreated grain compared to pesticide treatments, showing how natural enemies  
484 can be killed in treated grain but survive in untreated grain and help to regulate insect  
485 populations and hence lower damage.

486 Pesticide resistance world-wide is being fueled by the over-reliance on synthetic pesticides,  
487 mainly organophosphates and pyrethroids for grain storage (Pereira et al., 2009). “Low levels of  
488 resistance” in the case of *S. zeamais* have been reported in South America (Pereira et al., 2009).  
489 Strains of *R. dominica* with “normal” and “intermediate” tolerance as well as high resistance  
490 factors have also been screened (Lorini and Galley, 1999; Chen and Chen, 2013). Resistance of  
491 *S. zeamais* and *T. castaneum* to pirimiphos-methyl and fenitrothion has also been reported



492 (Lorini and Galley, 1999). It is concerning that even laboratory cultures of the *S. zeamais* and  
493 *T. castaneum* species showed resistance to these pesticides without any obvious selection  
494 pressure (Lorini and Galley, 1999). Furthermore, Collins (1998) postulated that elimination of  
495 weaker insects due to rapid field selection will make it even more difficult to control insect pests.  
496 The dominant insect species in this trial *P. truncatus* and *S. zeamais*, may therefore have  
497 developed some form of resistance to some of these pesticides and this calls for further studies to  
498 investigate pest resistance to organophosphate and pyrethroid pesticides in Zimbabwe and the  
499 SSA subcontinent as a whole.

500 Due to the novelty of the neonicotinoid, thiamethoxam as a grain protectant (Khan et al., 2016),  
501 development of resistance may be minimal compared to the more commonly applied  
502 organophosphates and pyrethroids. To manage the development of pesticide resistance, the  
503 poorly performing pesticides should be withdrawn from the market to avoid continuous selection  
504 for resistant insect species.

## 505 **5. CONCLUSION**

506 Our study demonstrates the generally poor efficacy of the organophosphate and pyrethroid grain  
507 protectant combinations currently commercially available in Zimbabwe, under both cooler and  
508 hotter climatic conditions. This study confirms frequent reports by farmers that the synthetic  
509 insecticidal dusts on the market are not effective. Only Actellic gold dust<sup>®</sup>, which contains a  
510 neonicotinoid (thiamethoxam 0.36 %) active ingredient suppressed insect pest build-up,  
511 minimising insect grain damage and grain weight losses in both districts. These findings  
512 highlight the need for further research to investigate why the efficacy of these organophosphate  
513 and pyrethroid grain protectants is poor. The very high temperatures and minimal grain moisture  
514 conditions experienced in Mbire district during the 2015/16 season appear to have suppressed  
515 insect development in the stored grain compared to the more favourable insect-developmental  
516 temperature ranges of Hwedza district. The study showed that the general efficacy of synthetic  
517 pesticide on stored maize grain varies across different climatic conditions and only Actellic gold  
518 dust<sup>®</sup> was efficacious under both the hotter and cooler climatic areas, suggesting it can be widely  
519 recommended. Nevertheless, as documented by Blacquièrè et al. (2012), the neonicotinoid  
520 components of the pesticide also negatively affect pollinator bees so the search for effective and  
521 safer (to both humans and the environment) alternatives to synthetic pesticides needs to continue.

522 The simultaneous effects of multiple insect stressors such as pesticides, and extreme  
523 temperatures, especially high temperature, and low relative humidity (hence low grain moisture  
524 content) on both pests and natural enemies needs further investigation.

525  
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537  
538 **Highlights**

- 539 • High grain damage and weight loss occurred in stored maize treated with most  
540 organophosphate-pyrethroid combinations
- 541 • The organophosphate-neonicotinoid-based pesticide restricted grain damage and losses  
542 below 5 % for 40-weeks storage
- 543 • Poor pesticide efficacy occurred in both cool and hot climatic locations
- 544 • *Prostephanus truncatus* prevalence increased the magnitude of weight losses recorded
- 545 • Extremely high ambient temperatures suppress insect pest development and grain damage  
546

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707 [Nino Situation Report 2, 23 March 2016.pdf](http://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/WFP_Southern_Africa_Regional_El_Nino_Situation_Report_2_23_March_2016.pdf).  
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715 **List of tables**

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717 **Table 1: Treatments used in the experiment**

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Trade name	Active ingredients	Application rate (g/25kg grain)*	Pesticide groups combined in product			Hwedza district		Mbire district	
			Organophosphates	Pyrethroids	Neonicotinoids	2014/15 season	2015/16 season	2014/15 season	2015/16 season
Shumba super dust	Fenitrothion 1% + deltamethrin 0.13%	12.5	•	•		✓	✓	✓	✓
Actellic gold dust	Pirimiphos-methyl 1.6% + thiamethoxam 0.36%	12.5	•		•	x	✓	x	✓
Chikwapuro	Pirimiphos-methyl 2.5% + deltamethrin 0.1%	10	•	•		✓	✓	✓	✓
Ngwena yedura	Pirimiphos-methyl 2.5% + deltamethrin 0.2%	10	•	•		✓	✓	✓	✓
Super guard	Pirimiphos-methyl 1.6% + permethrin 0.4%	13.9	•	•		✓	✓	✓	✓
Untreated control	N/A	N/A				✓	✓	✓	✓

719 \* For pesticides, manufacturer's label application rates were used. The symbols (✓) and (x)  
 720 show which treatments were included or not included, respectively

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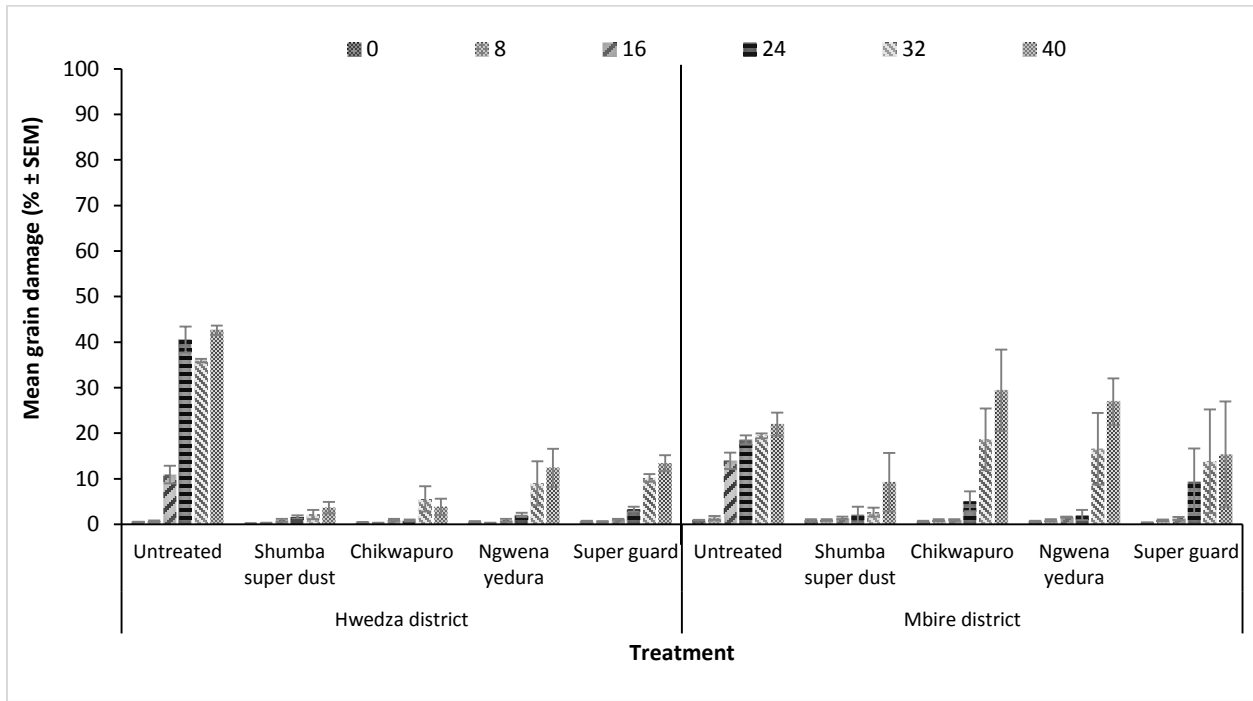
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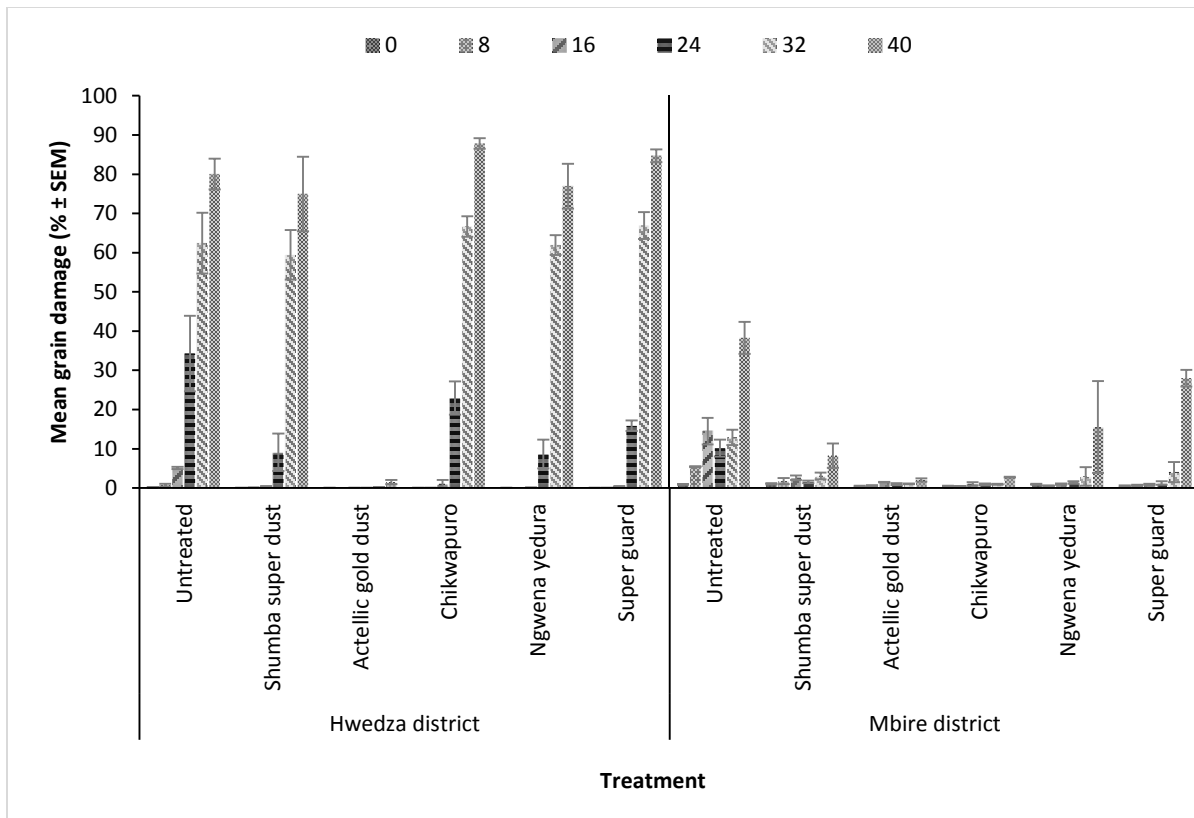
730 **List of figures**  
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 733 **Figure 1: Mean insect grain damage (% ± SEM) recorded in maize stored under different**  
 734 **treatments in Hwedza and Mbire districts during the 2014/15 storage seasons (n = 3).** The legend 0,  
 735 8, 16 etc. represent the sampling period in weeks  
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742 **Figure 2: Mean maize insect grain damage (% ± SEM) recorded under different treatments in**  
 743 **Hwedza and Mbire districts during the 2015/16 storage seasons (n = 3). The legend 0, 8, 16 etc.**  
 744 **represent the sampling period in weeks**

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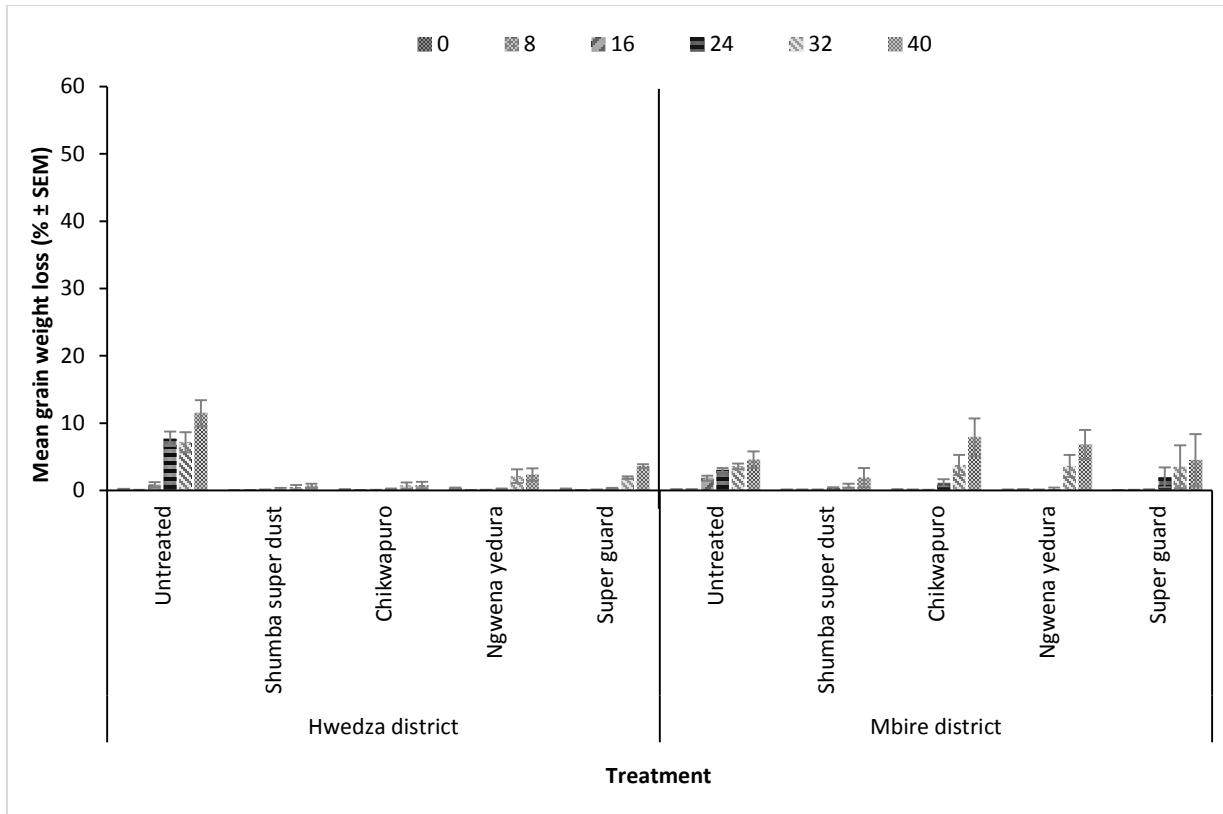
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753 **Figure 3: Mean maize grain weight loss (% ± SEM) recorded under different treatments in**  
 754 **Hwedza and Mbire districts during the 2014/15 storage seasons (n = 3).** The legend 0, 8, 16  
 755 etc. represent the sampling period in weeks  
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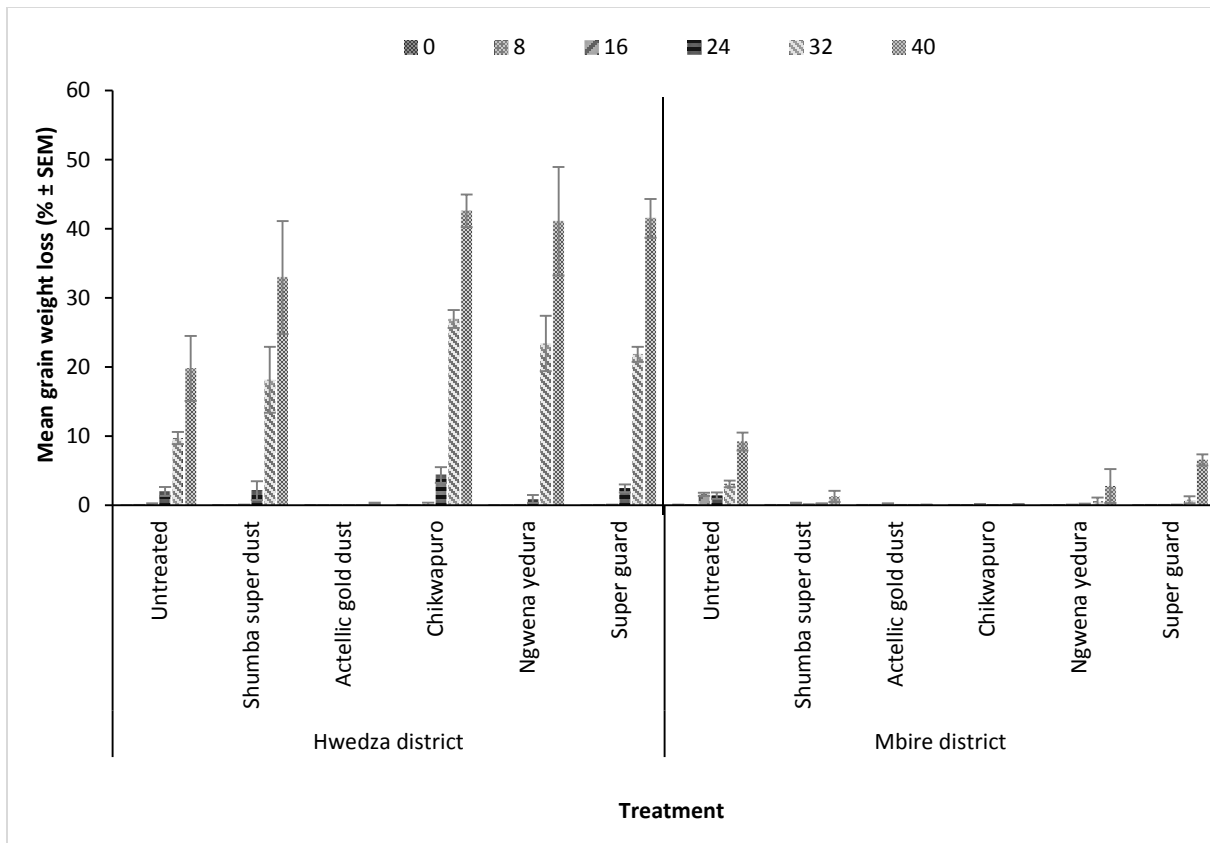
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765 **Figure 4: Mean maize grain weight loss (% ± SEM) recorded under different treatments in**  
 766 **Hwedza and Mbire districts during the 2015/16 storage season (n = 3).** The legend 0, 8, 16 etc.  
 767 represent the sampling period in weeks  
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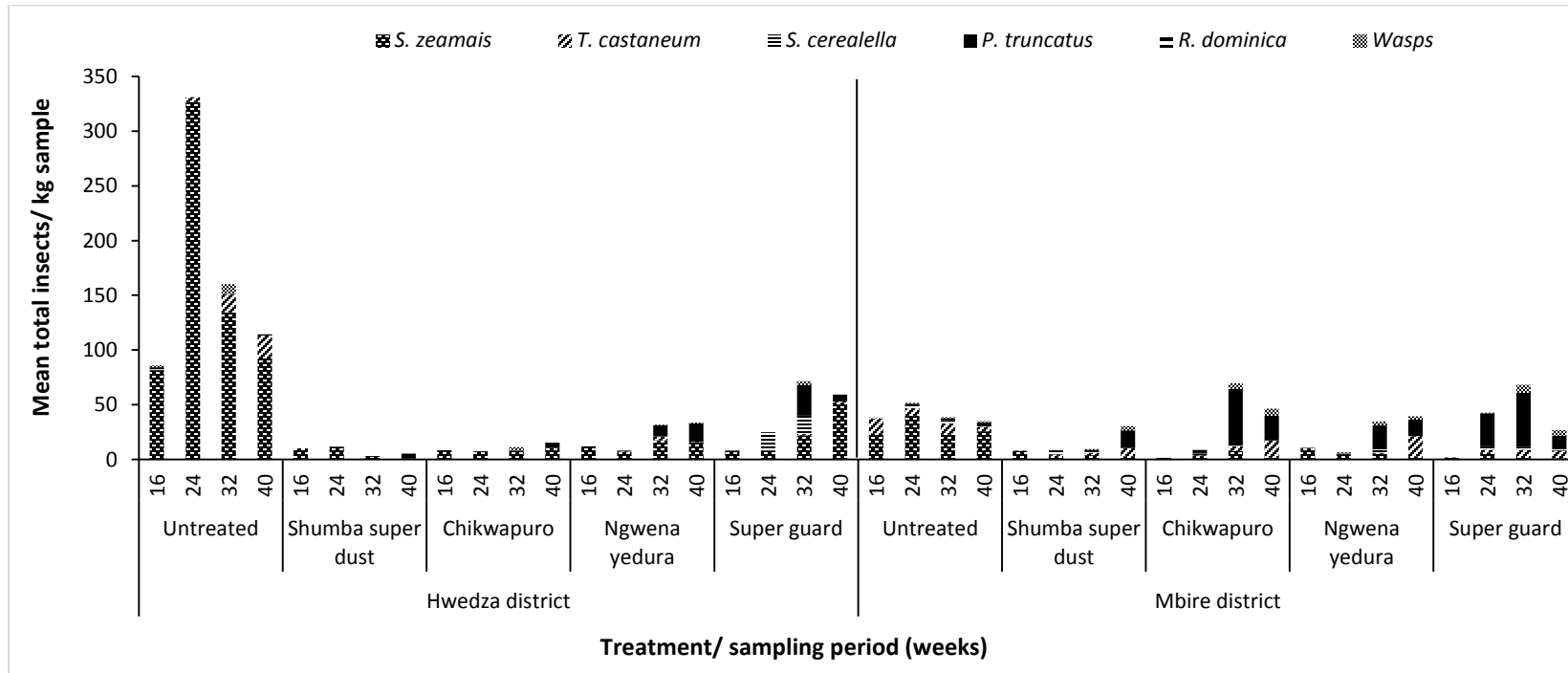
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776 **Figure 5: Mean total insects recorded in maize grain stored under different treatments in Hwedza and Mbire districts during**  
 777 **the 2014/15 storage season (n = 3). The legend shows insect species recorded**

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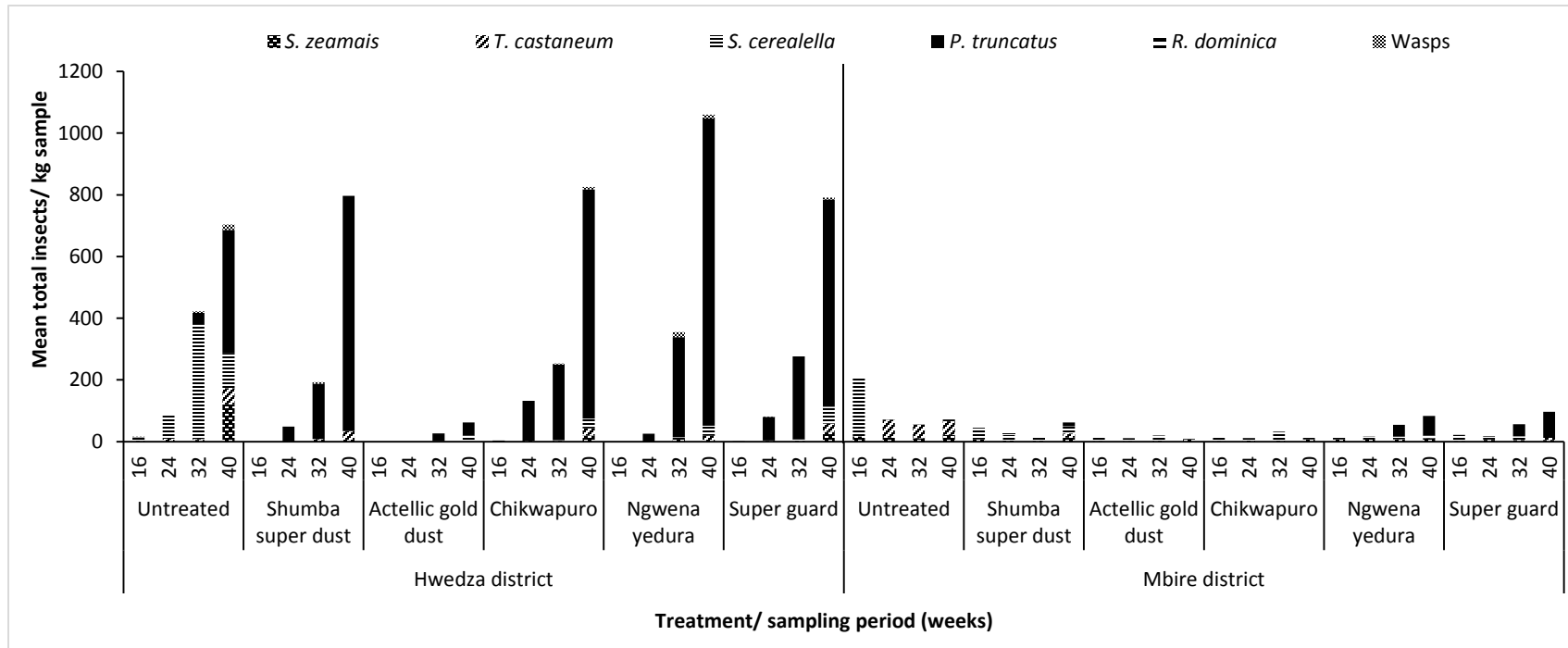
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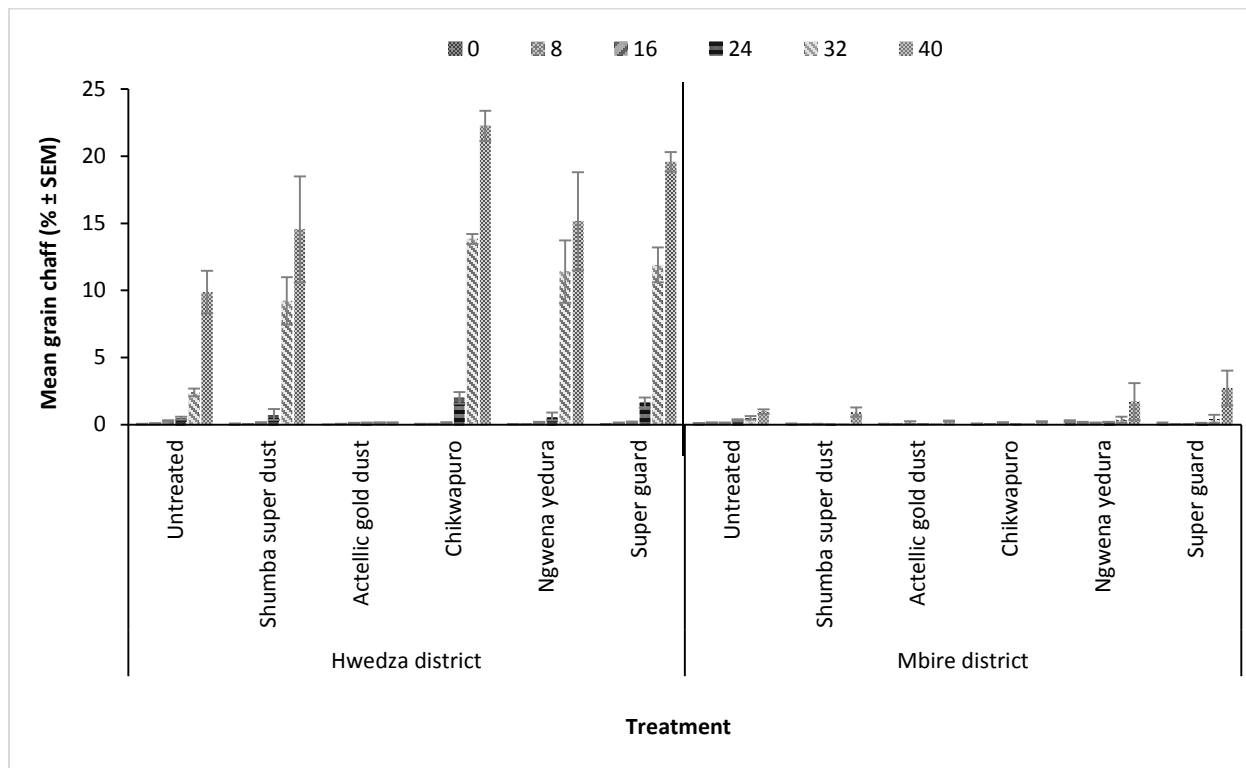
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**Figure 6: Mean total insects recorded in maize grain stored under different treatments in Hwedza and Mbire districts during the 2015/16 storage season (n = 3). The legend shows insect species recorded**



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794 **Figure 7: Mean chaff (% ± SEM) recorded in maize grain stored under different**  
 795 **treatments in Hwedza and Mbire during the 2015/16 season (n = 3).** The legend 0, 8, 16 etc.  
 796 represent the sampling period in weeks

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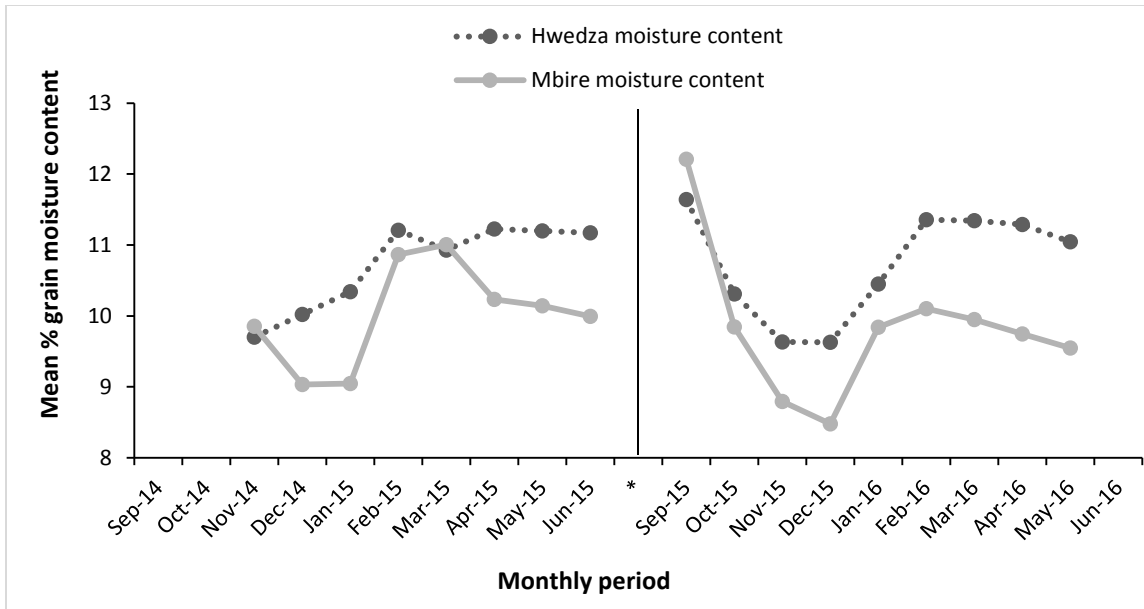
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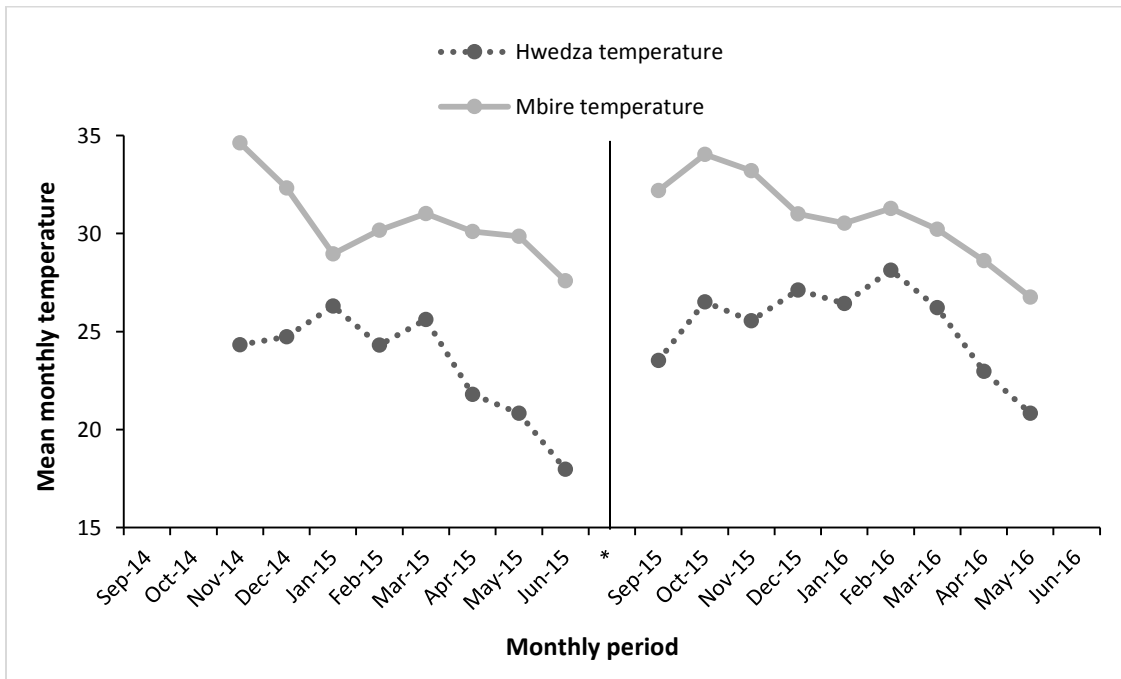
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804 **Figure 8: Mean moisture content recorded on maize grain samples in Hwedza and Mbire**  
 805 **districts during the 2014/15 and 2015/16 season**

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808 **Figure 9: Mean monthly store temperatures recorded in Hwedza and Mbire districts**  
 809 **during the 2014/15 and 2015/16 seasons**

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