



CONTROL AND PREVENTION OF BIODETERIORATION CAUSED BY TERMITES (*ISOPTERA*)

*Oludairo, O. O.¹, Aiyedun J. O.¹, Adeyi, a. J.², Ayeni, A. M. J.³ and Aungbias, A. A.³

¹Department of Veterinary Public Health & Preventive Medicine
Faculty of veterinary medicine, university of Ilorin, Ilorin, Nigeria

²Museums Department, Conservation unit,
National Commission for Museums and Monuments Jos, nigeria.

³National Museum Zoological Garden, Jos, Nigeria.

ABSTRACT

The paper reviewed the control measures against damage caused by termites. The objective was achieved using baseline published literature and data. This is particularly important because of the ever present destructive effect and presence of termites in every area of life worldwide. Multiple effective measures, ranging from chemical treatments to independent pest management procedures were identified. The right choice and application of termite preventive and control measures will be a great reprieve to stakeholders all over the world.

Keywords: Damage, Control, Termites.

INTRODUCTION

Termites are social insects belonging to the order *Isoptera*, they are essential in the ecosystem of the soil and are found throughout the world (Abdel and Skai, 2011). Although by their activities they have beneficial values, they also have harmful damaging effects on their targets (Debelo and Degaga, 2014). The undesirable change in the properties of a material caused by the vital activities of living organisms like termites different from physical, chemical and mechanical influences is referred to as biodeterioration. Cellulose containing materials like wood, plants, trees, papers; houses, stones, plastics, leather and almost any other soft material are vulnerable to termite attack (Verkerk, 1990).

Termites or *Isoptera*, commonly called ‘white ants’ are not true ants. They are considered to be primitive and eusocial creatures (Wilson, 1971). They live in large colonies that have a

complex structure of different types of ‘castes’ which consists of workers, soldiers, kings and queens including developing eggs, larvae and nymphs (Verkerk, 1990; Pinniger and Harmon, 1999; Harmon-Smith *et al.*, 2010). Together with ants, they are about the most common pests in the urban environment (Forschler and Robinson, 2015). They cause serious damage and are increasingly destructive to many objects (Kunika, 2011) especially, wooden houses, wood works, artifacts, buildings, agricultural plantations, trees, structural timber, manufactured wooden goods and papers leading to colossal losses in many parts of the world (Ahmed and Qasim, 2011). In nature, termites function as decomposers that break down dead wood, log or timber which accumulate in and around the soil. The beneficial products of this breakdown are returned to the soil as humus. Tunnels excavated during foraging movements by termites help to aerate the soil. They however,

also attack other useful structures and their presence is seldom noticed until damage is discovered (Kunika, 2011).

Termites are generally divided into three; the drywood eg *Cryptotermes* spp., dampwood eg *Zootermopsis* spp and subterranean termites eg *Reticulitermes* spp. (Anon., 2015a).

There are over 2,300 termites species in the world, 183 are known to cause damage to buildings, while 83 species cause significant damage. Subterranean termites accounts for 80% of the economically important species (Su and Scheffrahn, 2015).

Some termites develop their colonies and maintain their headquarters in the ground, building their tunnels through the earth and around obstructions to reach food sources. They must have a constant source of moisture either from what they eat or where they nest. They travel underground from the nest to the food source creating mud tunnels across surfaces exposed to air (Kunika, 2011). Other termites establish colonies in dry, sound wood with low levels of moisture and do not require contact with the soil. They attack wooden items of all kinds, feeding across the grain of the wood, excavating chambers which are connected by small tunnels (Anon., 2015a).

Biodeterioration by termites

Biodeterioration is defined as damage to any object caused by living organisms such as termites, fungi etc or the undesirable change in the properties of a material caused by the vital activities of living organisms as distinguished from changes produced by chemical, mechanical and physical influences (Kumar and Pardeshi, 2011). The presence of biodeterriogens like termites endanger objects, structures and properties all over the world causing enormous destruction and economic losses (Khadelwal, 2003).

Materials derived from plants and animals are particularly vulnerable to this biological attack

because of the food value of the cellulose or protein embedded in them. Wooden objects and structures, bamboo artifacts, manuscripts, books, textiles, leather, paper, basketry, paintings, stone, masonry are among vulnerable objects (Allsopp *et al.*, 2004).

Most termite species eat anything containing cellulose especially when such materials are wet from rain or dampness or when moisture content is high due to high humidity. The damage done by termites can be extensive when left unchecked. Some other species of termites don't only eat cellulosic materials but also plastic, leather and almost any other soft materials (Kingsolver, 1988; Verkeerck, 1990).

The symbiotic protozoa living in the gut of worker termites enable digestion of cellulose which is typically indigestible, they help the termite to breakdown cellulose to simple sugar which are then used as sustainable nutrients. Termites are not born with these intestinal organisms but they are passed from older termites to nymphs by way of 'trophilaxis' (mouth to mouth transfer) and through other excrements. The protozoa do not survive outside the gut of the termites (Parker, 2002).

The activities of termites can cause agricultural damage due to their voracious appetite for cellulose and other materials (Allsopp *et al.*, 2004).

Crops and ultimately farm yield, timber and timber products, animals and animal products, farm houses, electric poles, installations and fences could be affected (Anon. 2015a). This can lead to agronomic, economic and social challenges (Ruth, 2010). They are known to cause damage to buildings throughout the tropics, subtropics and temperate regions leading to inestimable negative economic impact worldwide (Abe, *et al.*, 2000).

Termites attack wood and manufactured wooden goods as well as paper (Nkunika, 1994; Grace, 1997). Drywood and subterranean

termites are the most destructive insect pests of wood causing more than \$1.7 billion damage each year in the United States (Gouge *et al.*, 2009).

Museums and natural history collections including walls, roofs, windows, doors, artifacts, paintings, potteries, wooden objects, bamboo artifacts, manuscripts, books, papers, leather, basketry, various types of paintings, stones, textiles, monsony, cultural and monumental structures like heritage sites are possible endangered and vulnerable objects to termite attacks (Pinniger and Harmon, 1999; Allsopp *et al.*, 2004).

Prevention and control of termite damage

Prevention and control of termite biodeterioration is complicated because the biodeteriogens require a variety of different treatments which must be rightly chosen so as to be effective and at the same time not posing danger to the direct object involved. It generally involves the use of chemical treatment and integrated pest management (IPM). Chemicals or pesticides are not only expensive and requires skilled labour but also have many harmful effects (Logan *et al.*, 1990). IPM approach includes cultural, physical and biological methods of control (Linnie, 1996). Understanding termite biology, habits, movement patterns and preferred food sources is key to successful prevention and control.

Termite colonies can be detected using wooden bait stakes. This is dependent on the stake being suitable food source and the termite having efficient and timely foraging patterns (Thompson, 1985).

Conduct regular inspection on objects that are vulnerable to termite infestation (Anon. 2015b). Inspection can be carried out monthly using bright flashlight to look for adult, larvae and shed larvae skins or faeces. Trap bait could also be used to detect the presence of termites (Anon., 2015b). Maintain good routine sanitation. Poor sanitation, food debris, grease, loose hairs can attract termites (Ebeling, 1975;

Kumar and Pardeshi, 2011; Anon., 2015a). Control exterior lightings because they attract reproductive termites. Minimizing this will reduce the number of flying reproductives that may want to establish colonies in the environment (Mallis, 1990; Penniger and Harmon, 1999).

Lowered humidity and temperature have been reported to reduce the chances of infestation and slow down the growth of existing ones. Temperature as low as 25⁰C and relative humidity of 65% is recommended (Story, 1984; TTMPB, 1998; Thompson, 1985; Anon., 2015a). Cold treatments of about 0⁰C can be given inside deep freezer for at least 48hours or 4days (Ishizaki, 2003). Heat treatment in an oven at 55⁰F for 3 hours have reported to destroy eggs, larvae and adults provided the objects itself will not be adversely affected, metal or wooden heat chambers which utilizes electric heaters, fans and sensors for even heat distribution and monitoring could be used (Zycherman, 1988).

Chemical treatments of objects including fumigation of environment with pesticides could be done. Insecticide dusts could be applied on suitable objects and blown into termite tunnels with the aid of a dust gun. Substances that could be used include paradichlorobenzene, naphthalene, methyl bromide, sulfuryl fluoride, ethylene oxide, carbon dioxide, phosphine gas, vapona, DDVP or dichlorvos, para-dichlorobenzene (PDB), pyrethrine, pyrethroids, alpha cypermethrin, chlorpyrifos, imidacloprid, fipronil, sodium fluosilicate powder, arsenic dust, boric acid and barium metaborate (Malis, 1990; Olkowski *et al.*, 1991; French, 1994; Ahmed and Qasim, 2011).

Chemical treatments may cause damage to certain plastics like Bakelite, soften or shrink resins, adhesives and paints or cause abrasion to some objects therefore should be used with care (Bennett *et al.*, 1988). Soil treatments can be

done using borate or other insecticides to prevent and control termites in the soil. Borate is none repellent and has slow toxic action. (Grace, 1990). There may be need to call a pest management professional to uncover, control and prevent termite infestation (Penniger and Harmon, 1999).

The environment should be made cooler, drier or both since warm moist environment favour the growth of termites especially in confined conditions (Kumar and Pardeshi, 2011). Routine preventive measures that reduce dampness in buildings, structures and environments will help prevent and control the growth of termites. Leaking roof and roof gutters, broken and leaking windows and doors should be repaired (Cor, 2000). Regularly paint timbers, windows and doors to prevent fungal growth which sometimes precedes termite infestation (Cor, 2000). Physical control involves breaking the mounds of the termites and removing the queen and the kings (Akutse *et al.*, 2012). Create physical barriers to termites by sealing gaps at wall joints and around electrical fittings and sewage lines (Grace 1990; Monowar and Noor, 1995).

Low oxygen treatments can be done for objects in which they are placed in a sealed container containing nitrogen or argon and no more than 0.3% oxygen with water vapour added to achieve 55% relative humidity. Objects can also be placed in a sealed bag for 2-4 weeks with ageless oxygen scavenger[®] which chemically bind with oxygen and removes it from the bag (Rust *et al.*, 1996; Sugiyama *et al.*, 2003). Quarantine new acquisitions and returned loans before joining them to the entire collection to prevent introduction of termites from outside especially in museum, natural history settings (Penniger and Harmon, 1999). Gamma radiation will kill termites at high doses and can be used for their control. High

safety precaution must however be observed (Penniger and Harmon, 1999).

Entomopathogenic fungi can be used as biological control of termites since termites are highly susceptible to them (Rath, 2000).

Intercropping of some crops have been reported to prevent and control termites in farms. Garlic and sarson intercropping with sugarcane have been reported to yield non significant termite count (Ahmed *et al.*, 2007). Other ethno methods include the planting of elephant grasses, 'banchi/yoobkarugu and wild tobacco, these plants were reported to have antitermitic activities and repellent to termites (Ahmed and Nasir, 2008; Maayiem *et al.*, 2012). Other ethnopreventive and control measures reported include use of wood ash, salt in shea butter residue, human urine stored for 1-2 weeks mixed with carbon used to spray themound directly having both toxic and repellent effects, Fowls introduced to the area infested by termites to pick and feed on then for the purpose of control (Ahmed and Nasir, 2008; Akutse *et al.*, 2012).

CONCLUSION

The problem posed by termites is worldwide and affects most spheres of life. Many objects and material are vulnerable to termites' infestation. These can however, be controlled and prevented using different chemical and non chemical means which have been found to be effective in varying degrees. The choice of control and preventive measures will however depend on a number of factors which include fund, ease of access to control methods, practicability of administration, effect on target objects, man and environment and the level of efficacy achieved.

References

- Abdel, G. and Skai, E. (2011). Termite damage to buildings: Nature of attacks and preventive construction methods. *Am. J. Eng. Appl. Sci.* 4: 187-200.
- Abe, T. (2000). Termites, evolution, sociality, symbioses, ecology. Kluwer Academic Publishers. Pp 437-453.
- Ahmed, S., Riaz, M. A. and Hussain, A. (2007). Assessment of the damage and population of termites (*Odontotermes obesus* & *Microtermes nicolor*) under various methods of insecticide application. *Int. J. Agri. Biol.*, 9: 125-128.
- Ahmed S. and Nasir M. (2008). Integrated approach of management of termites in sugarcane. *Pak. Entomol.* 30; 127-132.
- Ahmed S. and Qasim M. (2011). Foraging and chemical control of subterranean termites in farm buildings in Faisalabad, Pakistan. *Pak. J. Life and Soc. Sc.*, 9: 58- 62.
- Akutse, K. S., Owusu, E. O. and Afreh-Nuamah, K. (2012). Perception of farmers' management strategies for termites control in Ghana. *Journal of Applied Biosciences* 49: 3394-3405.
- Allsopp D., Seal K. J. and Gaylarde C. C. 2004, *Introduction to Biodeterioration* (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Accessed 15 February 2008 <http://assets.cambridge.org/97805218/21353/sample/9780521821353ws.pdf>.
- Anon. (2015a). Museum pest. Management manual. Available at www.nature.nps.gov. Accessed on 24th November, 2015.
- Anon. (2015b). Preservation of artifacts. Available at www.palimpsest.stanford.edu. Accessed on 24th November, 2015.
- Bennett, G. W. Owens, J. M. and Corrigan, R. M. (1988). *Truman's Scientific Guide to Pest Control Operations*. (4th Edition). Edgell Communications, Duluth MN.
- Corr, S. (2000). *Caring for Collections: A Manual of Preventive Conservation*. Dublin: The Heritage Council of Ireland.
- Debelo, D. G. and Degaga, E. G. (2014). Preliminary study on termite damage on rural houses in the Central Rift Valley of Ethiopia. *African Journal of Agricultural Research*. 9: 2901-2910.
- Ebeling, W. (1975). *Urban Entomology*. Univ. Calif., Div. Ag. Sci.
- Fenemore, F. G. and Prakash, A. (2006). *Applied Entomology*. Second edition. New Age International (P) Ltd publishers. 200-203.
- Forschler, B. T. and Robinson W. H. (2015). Ants and subterranean termites in urban environment: The terminology of population management control tactics. www.researchgate.net
- French, J. R. J. (1994). Combining physical barrier bait and dust toxicant in future strategies for subterranean termite control (*Isoperla*). *Sociobiology*, 24:77-91.
- Gouge, D., Olson, C. and Baker, P. (2009). Drywood termites. Available on www.arizona.openrepository.com. Accessed on 24th November, 2015.
- Grace, J. K. (1990). Eastern subterranean termite responses to 3 soil pesticides. Doc no IRG/WP/1432. Intl. Res. Grp. On Wood Pres., Stockholm, Sweden.

- Grace, J. K. (1997). Review of recent research on the use of borates for termite prevention. Proceeding of the Forest Products Society No 7284. Available on www.forestprod.org. accessed on 24th November, 2015.
- Harmon-Smith, M., Celia, L., Chertkov, O., Lapidus, A., Copeland, A., Glavina Del Rio, T. *et al.*, (2010). Complete genome sequence of *Sebaldella termitidis* type strain (NCTC 11300). *Stand. Genomic Sci.* 2 220–227
- Ishizaki, T. (2003). “Experimental study of physical effects of the freezing method for insect control on artifact materials”. In: Daniel, Vinod (ed.), *Papers from the fifth international conference on biodeterioration of cultural property AICCM Bulletin*, volume 28. Sydney: The Australian Institute for the Conservation of Cultural Material (Inc), pp, 62-66.
- Khandelwal, A. (2003). Sampling and estimate of fungal biodeteriogens of Lucknow, India”, In: Daniel, Vinod (ed.), *Papers from the fifth international conference on biodeterioration of cultural property, AICCM Bulletin*, volume 28. Sydney: The Australian Institute for the Conservation of Cultural Material (Inc), Pp, 76-80.
- Kingsolver, J. M. (1988). “Illustrated Guide to Common Insect Pests in Museums”. In: Zycherman, Lynda A. and Schrock, Richard John (eds.), *A Guide to Museum Pest Control*. Washington, D.C.; Foundation of the American Institute for Conservation of Historic and Artistic Works and Association of Systematics Collections, Pp, 53-81.
- Kofoid, C. A. (1934). Termite and termite control. A report to the termite committee. In *Med *vo Ed. Kofoid, C. A.* Publ: Beckeley, Calif., Univ.: London, Camb. Univ. Pre. Pp 734.
- Kumar, D. and Pardeshi, M. (2011). Biodiversity of Termites in Agroecosystem and Relation between their Niche Breadth and Pest Status. *Journal of Entomology*, 8: 250-258.
- Linnie, M. J. (1996). Integrated pest management: A proposed strategy for natural history museums. *Museum Management and Curatorship*, 15, 135—143
- Logan, J. W. M., Cowie, R. H. and Wood, T. G. (1990). Termite (*Isoptera*) control in agriculture and forestry by nonchemical methods: *Rev. Bulletin Entomol. Res.*, 80: 309-330.
- Maayiem, D., Bernard, B. N. and Irunuoh, A. O. (2012). Indegenous knowledge of termite control; A case study of five farming communities in Gshegu district of Northern Ghana. *Journal of Entomological and Nematology*, 4: 58-64.
- Mallis, A. (1990). *Handbook of Pest Control* (7th ed.) Franzak & Foster Co. Cleveland, OH.
- Monowar, J. S. A. and Noor, M. S. (1995). “Termite Infestation in the Museum: Possible Preventive Measures and Their Control”. In: Vanpheng Keopannha *Museum Collections and Biodeterioration in Laos Aranyanak, Chiraporn and Singhasiri, Chalit* (eds.), *Biodeterioration of Cultural Property 3: Proceedings of the 3rd International Conference*. Bangkok, Thailand, Pp. 598-607.
- Nkunika, P. O. Y. (2011). Control of termites in Zambia; Practical Realities. *International Journal of tropical Insect Science*, 15: 241-245.

- Olkowski W, Daar S and Olkowski H 1991. Common-Sense Pest Control. The Taunton Press, Newtown C T. pages?
- Parker, T. A. (2012). "Termite Basics." Stop Termites Before They Eat Your Wallet: A Behind-the-Scenes Look at the Professional Termite Control Industry, Pp19.
- Pinniger, D. B. and Harmon, J. D. (1999). Pest Management Prevention and control. In Carter, D. and Walker A. Care and conservation of natural history collections. Oxford: Butterworth Heinemann, pp 152-176 available at www.natsa.org.
- Rath, A. C. (2000). The use of entomopathogenic fungi for control of termites. *Biocontrol Science and Technology* 10: 563-581.
- Rust, M. K., Haagsma, K. and Nyugen, J. (1996). Enhancing foraging of western subterranean termites (Isoptera: Rhinotermitidae) in arid environments. *Sociobiology* 28:275–286.
- Story, K. O. (1984). Approaches to Pest Management in Museums. Conservation Analytical Laboratory, Smithsonian Institution.
- Zycherman, L. A. (ed.) (1988). A Guide to Museum Pest Control. Amer. Inst. for Conservation Hist. and Artistic Works and Assoc. Systematics Collections. Wash., D.C.
- Su, N. Y. and Scheffram, R. H. (2015). Termites as pests of buildings. Available at [www. link.springer.com](http://www.link.springer.com). Accessed on 24th Novevember, 2015.
- Sugiyama, M., Sato, K. and Daniel, V. (2003). "A new oxygen absorber – RP system: mortality and use". In: Daniel, Vinod (ed.), Papers from the fifth international conference on biodeterioration of cultural property, AICCM Bulletin, volume 28. Sydney: The Australian Institute for the Conservation of Cultural Material (Inc). Pp. 50-51.
- The Textile Museum (1998). Guidelines for the Care of Textiles (TTMPB). Washington, D.C.: The Textile Museum.
- Thompson, C. R. (1985). Detection and distribution of Formosan termites (*Isoptera: Rhinotermitidae*) in southeastern Florida. *J. Econ. Entomol* 78:528–530.
- Verkerk, R. (1990). Building out Termites: An Australian Manual for Environmentally Responsible Control. Sydney: Pluto Press Australia Limited.
- Wilson, E. O. (1971). The Insect Societies. Harvard University Press, Cambridge, MA.