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Acta Tropica

Excito-repellency and biological safety of β-caryophyllene oxide against *Aedes albopictus* and *Anopheles dirus* (Diptera: Culicidae)

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Highlights

- β-caryophyllene oxide had stronger repellent and irritant effect than DEET
- *Ae. albopictus* was more sensitive to β-caryophyllene oxide than *An. dirus* while, knockdown responses (37%) were observed in *An. dirus* exposed to 1% β-caryophyllene oxide in the contact trial.
- β-caryophyllene oxide did not show any phototoxic activity.
- None of the tested β-caryophyllene oxide induced a significant increase of micronucleated cells with or without metabolic activation.
- β-Caryophyllene oxide could be considered as a safe repellent, effective against mosquitoes.

Abstract

The activity of β -caryophyllene oxide as either a contact or non-contact repellent was evaluated against two laboratory strains (Aedes albopictus and Anopheles dirus) using an excitorepellency test system. N, N-Diethyl-3-methylbenzamide (DEET) was used as a standard reference baseline for comparative purposes. β-Caryophyllene oxide and DEET were tested at concentrations of 0.1, 0.25, 0.5 and 1.0% (v/v). In addition, the phototoxic and genotoxic effects of β-caryophyllene oxide were investigated on Balb/c 3T3 mouse fibroblasts (3T3-L1) and Chinese hamster ovary cell line (CHO-K1). The results demonstrated that the higher concentrations of test compounds (0.5 and 1.0%) produced greater behavioral responses. Ae. *albopictus* was more sensitive to β -caryophyllene oxide than *An. dirus*. Moderate avoidance response rates (25-56% escape) of Ae. albopictus at 0.5% and 1.0% β -caryophyllene oxide were observed in contact and non-contact trials compared with low response rates from An. dirus (26-DEET at <1% displayed lower irritancy and repellency (1-38%) than β -31% escape). caryophyllene oxide when tested against the two mosquito species. Knockdown responses (37%) were only observed in An. dirus exposed to 1% β -caryophyllene oxide in the contact trial. β -Caryophyllene oxide did not show any phototoxic potential (PIF= 0.38) nor was there any significant genotoxic response as indicated by no increase in micro-nucleated cells with or without metabolic activation. β-Caryophyllene oxide could be considered as a safe repellent, effective against mosquitoes.

Keywords: Excito-repellency test system, β-Caryophyllene oxide, Phototoxic, Genotoxic, Mosquitoes

1. Introduction

2 Mosquito-borne diseases represent a key hazard for millions of people worldwide. 3 Mosquitoes serve as vectors of pathogens for devastating human scourge, including malaria, 4 filariasis, yellow fever, dengue, West Nile virus and chikungunya (Benelli and Mehlhorn, 5 2018). Malaria and dengue are the two most common mosquito-borne diseases that cause high 6 morbidity and mortality (Wiwanitkit, 2011). Millions of humans in undeveloped and 7 developing countries are now at risk from these diseases. To a lower extent, developed 8 countries are too at risk of dengue outbreaks due to the invasion of Aedes albopictus into 9 temperate regions and population movement from dengue-endemic areas. In 2017, an estimated 219 million cases of malaria occurred worldwide, with an estimated 435,000 deaths 10 11 from malaria globally (WHO, 2018). Anopheles dirus is the one of the most important malaria 12 vector in Southeast Asia (Tainchum et al., 2015). This species inhabits forest and forest fringes 13 and exhibits mostly exophagic behavior (Baimai et al., 1984; 2019; Tananchai et al., 2012). In 14 contrast, dengue and chikungunya are arboviral infections transmitted by two species of Aedes mosquitoes-Ae. aegypti L. and Ae. albopictus (Skuse). The latter, known as the Asian tiger 15 mosquito, is native from Southeast Asian countries (Smith, 1956). The distribution of Ae. 16 17 albopictus has been extended recently by invasion into more northerly latitudes as well as into higher altitudes such as the United States of America and Southern Europe (Chouin-Carneiro 18 19 et al., 2016; Fidyt et al., 2016).

Personal protection using insect repellents is considered as one of the most efficient measures which has been widely used to reduce the outdoor transmission of mosquito-borne diseases (Debboun and Strickman, 2013). Commercial mosquito repellents containing *N*, *N*-Diethyl-3-methylbenzamide (DEET) have been used by people worldwide. Research has suggested that DEET is not safe when applied to children's skin or if improperly used (Briassoulis et al., 2001). Several side effects have been reported from DEET including rash,
skin irritation and eye irritation (Amichai et al., 1994; Patel et al., 2012).

27 In addition, mosquitoes have developed resistance to all main groups of insecticides 28 (organochlorines, organophosphates, carbamates). For example, the commonly used pyrethroids are applied to control malaria mosquitoes but have become increasingly less 29 effective due to the development of physiological resistance in mosquito populations 30 31 (Chareonviriyaphap et al., 2000; 2013). Consequently, alternative plant-based repellents have 32 been used to protect people, particularly children, during outdoor activities. In addition, such 33 alternative repellents cause no harm to various nontarget organisms (with additional benefits as a potential source of bioactive chemicals, fragrances and flavoring agents) and are 34 recommended as an alternative source of materials for insect control (Isman, 2002; Yang et al., 35 36 2005).

37 β-Caryophyllene oxide is generally found in essential oils of various plant species such as Artemisia anomala S. Moore, Salvia miltiorrhiza Bunge, Chloroxylon swietenia DC., 38 39 Psidium guajava L., Origanum vulgare L., Cinnamomum spp., Svzvgium aromaticum (L.) Merr. & L.M. Perry, Piper nigrum L. and Serjania yucatanensis Standl. (Garneau et al., 2013; 40 41 Gertsch et al., 2008; Jun et al., 2011; Liang et al., 2009; Polanco-Hernández et al., 2012; Shell, 1997; Telang et al., 2003; Zhao et al., 2013) Furthermore, β-caryophyllene oxide has been 42 reported to repel mosquitoes. Suleiman et al. (2014) reported that leaves of Artabotrys 43 44 hexapetalus (L. f.) Bhandari contained large amounts of β -caryophyllene oxide with high mosquito repellent activity against Anopheles gambiae s.s. in Africa. A more recent study 45 46 reported that Aedes aegypti and Anopheles minimus exhibited high avoidance response rates at 47 0.5% and 1% concentrations of β -caryophyllene oxide compared to DEET (Nararak et al., 2019), showing the high repellent potential of this molecule. 48

49 In recent years, the food and cosmetic industries and both national and international health and food safety authorities have extensively debated the safety of novel plants and plant-50 derived ingredients for their use in foods. These discussions consistently produced a consensus 51 52 that adequate specifications of plant identity and composition are key issues in the safety assessment of plant-derived ingredients (Antignac et al., 2011). Although β-caryophyllene 53 54 oxide is beneficial as a mosquito repellent, this compound may produce toxic and adverse 55 effects on humans or animals or both. Consequently, potential cytotoxic effects of hazardous 56 substances must be assessed prior to product development. Little scientific data is available on 57 the possible adverse effects or the biological safety of β -caryophyllene oxide in experimental administration to animals. What has been reported is that based on a biomembrane model, β-58 59 caryophyllene oxide could pass through the cell membrane without inducing genotoxic effects 60 at the gene or chromosomal level (Di Sotto et al., 2013).

61 In the current study, following the repellent study already done on Aedes aegypti and An. minimus (Nararak et al., 2019), we investigated the active excito-repellent properties of β -62 63 carvophyllene oxide against Ae. albopictus and An. dirus, using an excito-repellency (ER) test system. The excito repellency (ER) test system is the gold standard to quantitatively determine 64 65 the two distinct forms of behavioral responses in mosquito population in response to test chemicals (Sathantriphop et al., 2006). A test chamber system and protocol that can easily 66 67 differentiate these two types of behavioral responses has been described (Chareonviriyaphap 68 et al., 1997; Roberts et al., 1997). Moreover, in the current study, we evaluated the safety of 69 β-caryophyllene oxide using an *in vitro* photoxicity test and an *in vitro* micronucleus assay.

2. Materials and Methods

71 **2.1 Mosquitoes used**

72 Samples of Aedes albopictus were originally captured in 1996 in Chanthaburi province, 73 eastern Thailand by staff from the Ministry of Public Health, Thailand. Representatives of this 74 population have been maintained in the entomological laboratory at Kasetsart University for 75 since 2013 and females only were used in the current study. Samples of Anopheles dirus were 76 based on individuals originally collected in 1981 in Khao Mai Kaeo sub-district, Bang Lamung 77 district, Chonburi province, eastern Thailand. These two mosquito species were reared in 78 separate insectaries of the Department of Entomology, Faculty of Agriculture, Kasetsart 79 University, Bangkok, Thailand. All larvae and adults were held under laboratory-controlled 80 conditions of 25±5° C and 80±10% relative humidity with a 12:12 (L:D) photoperiod. Larvae 81 were fed with fish food twice daily. Adults were reared in a screened cage and provided with 82 10% sugar solution as food. Three-to-five day-old female mosquitoes were starved for 24 h 83 before testing.

84

2.2 Test compounds

DEET (*N*,*N*-Diethyl-3-methylbenzamide) with 97% purity obtained from the SigmaAldrich Company Ltd. (Lot No: MKBH0428V) was used as the gold standard insect repellent.
β-Caryophyllene oxide was purchased from the Acros Organics Company Ltd. (95% purity,
Lot No: A0356135).

89

2.3 Filter paper treatment

90 β -Caryophyllene oxide and DEET were diluted with absolute ethanol to provide 91 respective concentrations of 0.1, 0.25, 0.5 and 1.0% (v/v). The 2.8 mL test solution was spread 92 evenly over the fine surface of filter paper (14.7 × 17.5 cm) using a 5 mL serological pipette 93 and pipette controller. Similar treated papers for four replicates were prepared for each 94 concentration and the control papers were treated with absolute ethanol only. All treated papers were air-dried in a horizontal position at room temperature for 1 h prior to starting the test. Allsolutions and treated papers were freshly prepared on the day required.

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2.4 Excito-repellency test system

Experiments were conducted to compare the behavioral responses of mosquitoes using 98 99 an excito-repellency test system described by (Chareonviriyaphap et al., 2002). The test system 100 consisted of two pairs each for contact and noncontact exposure chambers. For a pair of contact 101 chambers, the treated papers were placed on the inside of a screened inner chamber so that 102 female mosquitoes could rest directly on the treated papers. Alternatively, a pair of noncontact 103 trials had treated papers outside the screened inner chamber, which prevented the female mosquitoes from resting directly on the treated papers. 104 Fifteen healthy, unfed female 105 mosquitoes were introduced into four chambers simultaneously using a mouth aspirator and 106 allowed 3 min to adjust to the chambers. Subsequently, the escape funnels were opened to 107 begin the observation period. The number of mosquitoes escaping from the chamber into the 108 receiving cage was recorded at 1 min intervals for a total of 30 min. After the 30 min exposure 109 period, the numbers of knockdown and dead mosquitoes were recorded separately. All mosquitoes that either escaped to the receiving box or remained inside the chamber were kept 110 111 in clean plastic cups and provided with cotton pads soaked with 10% sugar solution for 24 h. The numbers of both knockdown and mortality were respectively recorded after 30 min 112 113 exposure and after 24 h.

The mean percentage of escaped mosquitoes was calculated per test chamber. Abbott's formula was applied to adjust escape responses based on paired control escape responses (Abbott, 1987). A log-rank test was used to analyze paired comparisons of the escape patterns based on the compound, species and concentrations (Mantel and Haenszel, 1959). Statistical significance was accepted for all tests at P < 0.05.

2.5 Safety evaluation procedures for β-caryophyllene oxide

121 In accordance with OECD (2004) for the identification of efficacy of β -caryophyllene 122 oxide, the safety evaluation showed no prohibited or restricted components. For safety reasons, 123 the in vitro 3T3 NRU phototoxicity test (OECD N°432) was first conducted to identify the toxicity of the test substance induced by the excited chemicals after exposure to light. The 3T3 124 125 NRU phototoxicity test is based on the comparison of a chemical when tested in the presence 126 and in the absence of exposure to a non-cytotoxic dose of simulated solar light. Cytotoxicity 127 is expressed as a concentration-dependent reduction of the uptake of the vital dye Neutral Red 128 when measured 24 h after chemical treatment and irradiation.

Balb/c 3T3 mouse fibroblasts (3T3-L1) (ATCC, USA, ATCC® CL-173™, N° 129 130 P6110401, Lot. 09I006), low passage number (<50), maintained into DMEM (Dulbecco's 131 Minimum Essential Medium, PAN BIOTECH. lot 1874561) supplemented with penicillin 100 132 IU/mL, streptomycin 100 µg/mL (PAN BIOTECH, Lot 945514) and 10% inactivated calf 133 serum (PAN BIOTECH, Lot P56314), were seeded into two 96-well tissue culture plates (0.1 mL per well) at concentration of 1×10^5 cells/mL, and incubated at 37°C (5% CO2) for 24 h 134 until semi-confluent. At the end of the incubation period, the culture medium was decanted 135 136 and replaced by 100 µL of Hank's balanced salt solution (HBSS) containing the appropriate concentrations of the test substance (eight different concentrations). Subsequently, cells were 137 138 incubated at 37°C (5% CO₂) in the dark for 60 min. From the two plates prepared for each 139 series of test substance concentrations and the controls, one was randomly selected for the determination of cytotoxicity without irradiation (-Irr), and the other for the determination of 140 photo-cytotoxicity with irradiation (+Irr). The irradiation procedure was performed using a 141 142 solar simulator Suntest CPS+ apparatus (Atlas Material Testing Technology BV, Moussy le Neuf, France) equipped with a xenon arc lamp (1,100 W), a special glass filter restricting 143 144 transmission of light below 290 nm and a near IR-blocking filter. The irradiance was fixed at 145 750 W/m² throughout the experiments and the combined light dose was 5 J/cm²/min based on UVA irradiation (0.41 J/cm²) or visible irradiation (4.06 J/cm²). The test solution was removed, 146 cells were rinsed twice with 150 µL HBSS and incubated for 18-22h in 0.1 mL of culture 147 148 medium at 37°C (5% CO₂). Cells were washed, placed into Neutral Red medium (50 µg/mL 149 Neutral Red in complete medium) and incubated for 3 h at 37°C, 5% CO2. Then the medium was removed and cells were washed three times with 0.2 mL of HBSS to remove any excess 150 151 dye. The Neutral Red medium was removed and destaining solution (50% ethanol, 1% acetic 152 acid, 49% distilled water; 50 µL per well) was added into each well. Then, the plates were 153 shaken for 15-20 min at room temperature in the dark. All the test samples and controls were run in triplicate in three independent experiments. A positive control (chlorpromazine 154 155 (SIGMA), final concentrations 1-100 µg/mL without irradiation and 0.01 to 1 µg/mL with 156 irradiation) and a negative control (HBSS) were included in each set of experiments. Cell 157 viability (increase Neutral Red uptake) was measured using a fluorescence-luminescence 158 reader (Infinite M200 Pro, TECAN). The optical density (OD) of each well was read at 540 159 nm. The results obtained for wells treated with the test material were compared to those of untreated control wells (HBSS, 100% viability) and converted to percentage values. The 160 161 concentrations were calculated for the test material causing a 50% release of the preloaded Neutral Red without irradiation (IC₅₀ -Irr) and with irradiation (IC₅₀ +Irr) compared to the 162 163 control culture using the Phototox Version 2.0 software (Federal Institute for Risk Assessment, 164 zebet@bfr.bund.d). The mean OD value of blank wells (containing only Neutral Red desorbed 165 solution) was subtracted from the mean OD value of three treated wells (dilutions of the test material, positive control or HBSS). The percentages of cell viability were calculated as: 166 167

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8 Viability (%) = $\frac{\text{Mean OD of test wells} - \text{mean OD of blanks}}{\text{Mean OD of negative control} - \text{mean OD of blanks}}$

The photo-irritation-factor (PIF) was calculated using the following formula:

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$$PIF = \frac{IC50 (-Irr)}{IC50 (+Irr)}$$

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Based on validation studies, a test substance with a PIF < 2 predicts no phototoxicity,
a PIF between 2 and 5 predicts a probable phototoxicity and a PIF > 5 predicts phototoxicity.

Then, the in vitro micronucleus assay (MNvit) was used to detect the long-term toxicity 176 of the chemical. Micronucleus assay is a mutagenicity assay which is based on the detection 177 178 of micronuclei (MNC) in the cytoplasm of interphase cells and allows the detection of the 179 cytogenetic activity of clastogenic or aneugenic compounds or both in cell culture (Johnson et 180 al., 2010). The micronucleus assay was performed on a Chinese hamster ovary cell line (CHO-K1; ATCC, USA) maintained in McCoy's 5A medium supplemented with 1 mM glutamine, 181 100 unit/mL and 10 µg/mL of a mixture of penicillin and streptomycin, respectively and 10% 182 183 of inactivated calf serum. The CHO-K1 cells were transferred into Labteck wells at a 184 concentration of 100,000 cells/mL, and incubated for 24 h at 37°C in CO₂ (5%). When the test was performed without metabolic activation, the test substance was added into cell cultures at 185 186 the concentrations previously defined. A negative control containing culture medium, a solvent 187 control containing 1% DMSO and a positive control containing 0.6 µg/mL of mitomycin C were added. 188

When the assay was performed in the presence of metabolic activation, S9 mix metabolizing mixture was added to cell cultures at a concentration of 10%. The metabolic activation system (S9) was a 9,000 g centrifuged supernatant of a liver homogenate (S9) and was prepared from male Sprague-Dawley rats treated with a single injection of Aroclor 1254 (500 mg/kg body weight). The protein concentration in the S9 homogenate was 26 mg/ mL as determined by the method of Lowry. S9 mix contained 10% S9, 5 mM G6P, 4 mM NADP, 33 mM KCl, and 8 mM MgCl2 diluted in saline phosphate buffer. Then, the test substance was added to the cell cultures at the concentrations previously defined. A negative control containing culture medium, a solvent control containing 1% DMSO and a positive control containing 5 μ g/mL of benzo[a]pyrene were added.

After 3 h of incubation at 37 °C in CO₂ (5%), the culture medium was removed, the cells were rinsed with phosphate buffered saline (PBS), and then returned to culture in McCoy's 5A medium containing 3 μ g/mL of cytochalasin B. After incubation for 21 h at 37°C, the cells were rinsed with PBS, fixed with methanol and stained with 10% Giemsa for 20 min.

The results were analyzed under a microscope at $\times 1,000$ magnification. The antiproliferative activity of test substances was estimated by counting the number of binucleated cells relative to the number of mononucleated cells for 500 cells for each dose (250 cells counted per well). The cytokinesis blocked proliferative index (CBPI) was calculated using the following formula:

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 $CBPI = \frac{2 \times (BI + MONO)}{500}$

210

where, BI is the number of binucleated cells and MONO is the number of mononucleated cells
 The cytostasis index (CI%) is the percentage of cell replication inhibition and was
 calculated using the following formula:

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215
$$CI\% = 100 - \left(\frac{100 \times (CBPItest material - 1)}{CBPIsolvent \ control - 1}\right)$$

216

After this step, only the doses inducing a decrease of less than 55±5% of CI% compared
to the negative control were considered for counting micronuclei. The rates of micronuclei

219 were evaluated for the presence of independent nuclear core entities in 1,000 binucleated cells per well, which corresponded to 2,000 cells examined by test substance dose. Micronuclei 220 were identified as small nuclei well-differentiated from the cell nucleus, stained in the same 221 222 manner and having a diameter less than one-third of that of the cell nucleus. The micronuclei rates obtained for different doses of test substances were compared to the negative control using 223 a χ^2 test. The assay was considered positive if a dose-response relationship was obtained 224 between the rate of micronuclei and the doses tested, where at least one of these doses induced 225 a statistically significant increase (P < 0.05) in the number of micronucleated cells compared 226 227 to the negative control.

3. Results

229 Excito-repellency responses of Ae. albopictus and An. dirus exposed to 0.1, 0.25, 0.5, 230 1.0% v/v of DEET and β-caryophyllene oxide were evaluated for contact irritancy and noncontact repellency responses using an excito-repellency system. DEET was used as a standard 231 repellent for comparison purposes. The results showed that Ae. albopictus (3.51-56.36%) had 232 233 a much higher escape response to β -caryophyllene oxide than An. dirus (0-32.73%) in both the 234 contact and non-contact trials (Table 1). A higher escape response percentage was seen from 235 the contact chamber than from the noncontact chamber and control, regardless of test 236 compounds and concentrations.

237 The escape responses of *Ae. albopictus* to β-caryophyllene oxide were characterized in 238 contact and noncontact exposure chambers by comparison to DEET (Table 1). β-239 Caryophyllene oxide at 0.5 and 1.0% elicited stronger escape responses than DEET in the 240 contact and noncontact treatments. No knockdown and mortality were observed from 241 treatments and control chambers at all concentrations. The greater escape response percentages 242 of Ae. albopictus were observed at 0.5 and 1.0% in the contact trial with β-carvophyllene oxide (46.43 and 56.36%, respectively) and DEET (38.98 and 38.18% respectively). For An. dirus, 243 244 the stronger escape responses were found at 0.5 and 1.0%, in both contact (26.32 and 32.73%) respectively) and non-contact trial (31.03 and 31.67%, respectively) as shown in Table 1. A 245 246 knockdown response (37%) was observed in An. dirus exposed to 1% β-caryophyllene oxide 247 in the contact trial.

The escape patterns from the chambers using survival curves at 1 min intervals in the contact and noncontact designs with paired controls under different concentrations of β caryophyllene oxide and DEET against *Ae. albopictus* and *An. dirus* are shown in Figures 1-4. The rates represent probabilities for escaping from a chamber with a particular compound and concentration. Overall, β -caryophyllene oxide exhibited a strong escape response in both 253 contact and noncontact trials at all concentrations. Delayed escape responses were observed 254 for 0.1 and 0.25% with all compounds in the contact and noncontact trials (Figures 1-2). With 255 *Ae. albopictus*, strong contact escape patterns were evident for 0.5 and 1.0% β -caryophyllene 256 oxide (Figures 3-4).

The multiple log-rank comparisons of *Ae. albopictus* and *An. dirus* in the paired contact and noncontact treatment trials for β -caryophyllene oxide and DEET are shown in Table 2. Interestingly, there were no significant differences in escape patterns for contact *versus* noncontact trials, except for 0.5% and 1.0% with *Ae. albopictus* (Table 2).

261 The statistical comparison of the escape responses for mosquitoes exposed to β -262 caryophyllene oxide compared to DEET, at different concentrations, are presented in Table 3. 263 In both the contact and noncontact trials using Ae. albopictus, the escape responses were 264 significantly higher with β -caryophyllene oxide than DEET at 1.0% concentration. For An. 265 *dirus*, the escape responses were significantly more important with β -caryophyllene oxide than DEET in the noncontact trials at 0.5 and 1%. The statistical comparisons between the two 266 267 species exposed to β-carvophyllene oxide and DEET in either the contact or noncontact trials are shown in Table 4. For β-caryophyllene oxide, *Ae. albopictus* showed significantly higher 268 escape responses compared to An. dirus in the contact trials at 0.5% and 1.0% (P = 0.0184 and 269 0.0024, respectively), while significance differences in the escape responses were found at 270 271 0.5% in both contact and noncontact trials using DEET.

The cytotoxic potential of β -caryophyllene oxide was evaluated in murine fibroblasts (3 T3) incubated with the compound (0.1-10 mg/mL). The compound exhibited negligible cytotoxicity (IC₅₀ = 13.23±1.37 µg/mL) as shown in Table 5. PIF values were used to classify the phototoxicity potential (Table 5). The phototoxicity assay considered dark (IC₅₀ = 13.23±1.37 µg/mL) and irradiated (IC₅₀ = 34.79±5.49 µg/mL) conditions. According to the 277 analyses, β -caryophyllene oxide did not exhibit phototoxic potential (PIF = 0.368) for the dose 278 levels tested.

Genotoxicity was assayed starting from the highest concentration at which neither 279 280 necrosis nor cytotoxic or cytostatic effects was observed. When tested on the Chinese hamster 281 ovary (CHO)-K1 cell line, β-caryophyllene oxide did not produce any cytotoxic effects up to a concentration of 5 μ g/mL. At concentrations of 0.5, 1.0 and 5.0 μ g/mL, β -caryophyllene 282 oxide did not increase the MNC (micronucleated cells) frequency with respect to the control 283 284 (Table 6). No concentration of β -caryophyllene oxide induced an increase in MNC with or 285 without metabolic activation. These results indicated that the compound was not derived from 286 clastogenic/aneugenic activity and did not produce clastogenic/aneugenic metabolites (Table 287 6).

4. Discussion

289 Approximately 3,500 species of mosquitoes have been formally described, with some species having ecological distributions in many urban, peri-urban, or forest settings in close 290 291 association with humans, and these species include Aedes albopictus and Anopheles dirus. Ae. 292 albopictus, an important vector of dengue viruses in many urban and semi-forest communities, is a predominately day-biting mosquito, often found in and around human dwellings and 293 294 preferentially feeds on humans (Chareonviriyaphap et al., 2003; Gomes et al., 2003), whereas 295 An. dirus occurs in forest and forest-fringe habitats with a preference for night feeding and it 296 is a major vector of malaria in several Asian countries (Suwonkerd et al., 2013; Tainchum et 297 al., 2015). These two mosquito species have been found highly refractory to common control 298 tools due to their mostly exophagic behavior and are regarded as excellent vectors even though 299 they are present in low population densities. Therefore, the prevention and control of most 300 vector-borne diseases remains dependent on various vector control strategies to decrease the 301 transmission risk, which is a major challenge for outdoor-biting mosquitoes such as these 2 302 species.

303 Among the available vector control tools, chemical control remains the most used and 304 effective in combatting mosquito vectors. A number of chemical compounds can protect humans from blood-feeding pests by one or more of three identified actions: contact irritancy, 305 306 non-contact spatial repellency, or toxicity (Grieco et al., 2007). The first two properties are 307 potential outcome behavioral responses of mosquitoes after or before they make tarsi contact with treated surfaces (Chareonviriyaphap et al., 1997; Roberts et al., 1997). Most studies have 308 focused primarily on the insecticidal action of chemicals to control mosquitoes, whereas few 309 310 investigations have played attention to the non-toxic properties, including irritancy and 311 repellency (Chareonviriyaphap et al., 2013; Chareonviriyaphap et al., 2004; 312 Chareonviriyaphap et al., 1997; Grieco et al., 2007). Moreover, much of the previous work has focused on potent synthetic compounds (Mongkalangoon et al., 2009; Thanispong et al., 2009). For years, the development of physiological resistance by mosquitoes to synthetic compounds has resulted in the reduced effectiveness of chemical-based prevention and control methods (Chareonviriyaphap et al., 2013). For this reason, the potential use of plant extracts or products derived from native plants as a source of essential oils for use as natural repellents is an attractive option to replace or supplement synthetic compounds for the control of vectors and the prevention of disease transmission (Desgrouas et al., 2016; Maia and Moore, 2011)

320 Several plant-based essential oils have been evaluated for mosquito repellent activity 321 as protection against mosquitoes and other arthropod pests in Thailand. These have included Ocimum americanum L. (Hairy basil), Cymbopogon nardus (L.) Rendle (Citronella), Vetiveria 322 323 zizanioides (L.) Nash (Vetiver), Citrus hystrix DC. (Kaffir lime), Cinnamomum verum J. Presl 324 (Cinnamon leaf), Syzygium aromaticum (L.) Merr. & L.M. Perry (Clove flower), and Zingiber 325 officinale Roscoe (Ginger) (Boonyuan et al., 2014; Nararak et al., 2016; Nararak et al., 2017; 326 Suwansirisilp et al., 2013). These essential oils have shown great promise as insect repellents 327 and have been effective against several species of mosquitoes due to the presence of a variety 328 of bioactive constituents that interfere with insect behavior and growth (Tisgratog et al., 2016; 329 Tisgratog et al., 2018). The plant products have been effective as insect repellents or insecticidal agents and one of the potential repellent compounds is β -caryophyllene oxide 330 331 (Nararak et al., 2019).

 β -Caryophyllene oxide is a bicyclic sesquiterpene generated from the oxidation of βcaryophyllene and is found in a large number of plants worldwide (Fidyt et al., 2016). β-Caryophyllene oxide appears to be common among the essential oils that exhibit mosquito repellent ability (Jaenson et al., 2006; Trongtokit et al., 2005). *Artabotrys hexapetalus* (L.f.) Bhandari oil, obtained from leave parts, contains β-caryophyllene oxide as one of its major constituents and displays strong repellent activity against females of *An. gambiae* (Suleiman et al., 2014). Strong repellency against *An. gambiae* was also reported from a combination of linalool, β -caryophyllene oxide, γ -terpinene, and 1-methylpyrrole (45:39:8:8), and essential oil of *Croton pseudopulchellus* Pax (Odalo et al., 2005). Furthermore, (-)-caryophyllene oxide and (-)-limonene are the major chemical constituents found in essential oil extracted from the leaves of *Perilla frutescens* (L.) Britton, and provide good biting-deterrent activity (Tabanca et al., 2015).

344 β-Caryophyllene oxide has been approved as a food additive by the Food and Drug 345 Administration (FDA) and the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA) (Fidyt et al., 2016). 346 The two most common plant-associated repellent compounds are p-menthane-3,8-diol (derived 347 from the Australian lemon-scented gum tree) and picaridin (a synthetic derivative of pepper); 348 these have been tested for toxicity (U.S. EPA Biopesticide Registration Documents 011550 and 7505C) (EPA, 2019; Zhu et al., 2009). Phototoxic potential is assessed by comparing the 349 differences in IC₅₀ between negative control plates (not exposed to UVA) and test plates 350 (exposed to UVA) (Roesler et al., 2010). The phototoxicity results obtained using the *in vitro* 351 method are crucial because topical repellent formulations are also used during the day to protect 352 353 against day-biting mosquitoes such as Aedes species, and this involves exposure to the sun and 354 artificial light. The current study investigated the cytotoxicity and phototoxicity of β-355 caryophyllene oxide and showed that the compound was neither cytotoxic, nor phototoxic 356 (PIF=0.38). The potential genotoxic effects from β -caryophyllene oxide have also been 357 evaluated in mammalian cells. Likewise, the current study showed that β -caryophyllene oxide 358 did not induce genotoxicity at the chromosomal level, as observed in the micronucleus assay. Di Sotto et al. (2013) reported that β -caryophyllene oxide was tested for mutagenic effects 359 360 using the Ames test and micronucleus assay. Their results showed that the flavoring agent was devoid of mutagenic effects, both at the gene level (frameshift or based-substitution mutations) 361 and on chromosomes (clastogenicity and an euploid ogenicity), suggesting that β -caryophyllene 362

363 oxide is also safe when used as a flavoring/fragrance ingredient. Then, this finding highlights364 the fact this component could be safe for human topical applications.

Nararak et al. (2016, 2017) reported that essential oils of citronella, vetiver, hairy basil, 365 and kaffir lime had good irritant and repellent effects on mosquito vectors compared to DEET. 366 These studies suggested that plant-based substances have good potential efficacy to be 367 368 alternative insect repellents. In the current study, mosquitoes displayed varying levels of 369 behavioral escape responses to the compounds, indicating a clear dose response with 370 concentration. The study showed that at higher concentrations (0.5 and 1.0%), β -caryophyllene 371 oxide had significantly greater repellent and irritant effects compared to DEET. Moreover, Ae. *albopictus* exhibited much stronger escape responses against β -caryophyllene oxide than *An*. 372 373 dirus for both contact and non-contact assays. Knockdown (37.83%) was also found only in 374 non-escape An. dirus mosquitoes in the contact trial at 1.0% concentration of β -caryophyllene 375 oxide, whereas no knockdown and mortality at 24 h post exposure were observed for Ae. 376 albopictus. The results in contact and non-contact trials indicated that escape responses of 377 mosquitoes to the β -carvophyllene oxide were significantly greater than with DEET, similar to the previous study by Nararak et al. (2019) in which β -caryophyllene oxide was tested at 378 379 concentrations of 0.1, 0.25, 0.5 and 1.0% (v/v) against Ae. aegypti and An. minimus and the 380 results were compared to DEET at the same concentrations. The results showed that DEET 381 displayed lower irritancy and repellent responses than β -caryophyllene oxide and An. minimus 382 exhibited higher avoidance response rates (86–96% escape) at 0.5% and 1.0% concentrations 383 in contact and non-contact trials compared with Ae. aegypti (22-59% escape). When comparing the results obtained with the four mosquito species tested with β -caryophyllene 384 385 oxide, An. minimus presented the highest sensitivity to both types of escape responses (contact 386 irritancy and noncontact-spatial repellency) at 0.5-1% (v/v), followed by Ae. aegypti, Ae. 387 *albopictus*, and *An. dirus*. Comparatively, DEET was less efficient than β-caryophyllene oxide

388	at 0.5-1% (v/v) for all 4 species as they presented lower escape responses in both trials, contact
389	irritancy and noncontact-spatial repellency. Based on these results, β -caryophyllene oxide had
390	stronger repellent and irritant effects than DEET at the same concentrations, suggesting the
391	former has high potential for further development as an alternative active ingredient in
392	mosquito repellent formulations, safe for humans and the environment. Such efficient repellent
393	products are in need. In a study done in Vietnam, forest-goers were in favor of using repellent
394	products to avoid mosquito-biting pressure (Ohrt et al., 2018). The use of repellent is a
395	complementary vector control method to standard ones such as bednets, long-lasting
396	insecticidal nets (LLINs), indoor residual spraying (IRS), which has the advantage of repelling
397	outdoor-biting mosquitoes, then reducing residual malaria transmission risk (Durnez and
398	Coosemans, 2013). Then, appropriate formulations using β -caryophyllene oxide await
399	development for its use as repellent for a safe protection against mosquito bites.
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420

421 Conflict of interest

422 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

423

424 Author Contributions

425 TC conceived and designed the experiments. JN, CS and CG performed the

426 experiments. JN, CS and CG analyzed the data. JN, CS and CG wrote the manuscript. SM,

- 427 VML, EO and TC consulted and edited the manuscript. All authors read and approved the
- 428 manuscript.

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Compound	Test	Dose (%)	Aedes albopictus			Anopheles dirus				
			Treatment		Control		Treatment		Control	
			Ν	% Esp ^(a)	N	% Esp	N	% Esp ^(a)	Ν	% Esp
β-Caryophyllene oxide	С	0.1	60	3.51	60	5.00	60	0	60	8.33
		0.25	60	3.85	58	10.34	60	0	58	10.34
		0.5	60	46.43	61	8.20	62	26.32	61	6.56
		1.0	60	56.36	60	8.33	62	32.73	60	8.33
	NC	0.1	60	1.75	60	5.00	60	3.51	60	5
		0.25	60	1.79	60	6.67	60	1.79	60	6.67
		0.5	60	31.03	61	4.92	60	31.03	61	4.92
		1.0	60	25.45	60	8.33	60	31.67	60	0
DEET	С	0.1	60	0	60	8.33	60	3.57	60	5.08
		0.25	60	5.26	60	5	61	3.51	60	5.00
		0.5	60	38.98	60	1.67	60	16.98	59	11.67
		1.0	60	38.18	61	9.84	60	26.42	60	13.11
	NC	0.1	60	6.7	60	0	60	3.57	60	5.08
		0.25	60	0	58	6.9	60	1.79	58	6.90
		0.5	60	8.93	60	6.7	59	8.93	60	6.67
		1.0	60	10	60	0	60	1.82	60	8.33

618 Table 1. Percentage escape of *Aedes albopictus* and *Anopheles dirus* exposed to serial doses of β-caryophyllene oxide and DEET in contact and

619 non-contact chambers.

 $\overline{\text{C=contact; NC=non-contact; Esp= escaped mosquitoes; NE= Non escape mosquitoes; a Escape rates adjusted with paired controls using}$

621 Abbott's formula.

622 Table 2. Comparisons of mosquito escape responses between contact and non-contact

Compound Dose (%)		<i>P</i> -value			
		Ae. albopictus	An. dirus		
β-Caryophyllene oxide	0.1	0.7430	0.7274		
	0.25	0.1510	0.7348		
	0.5	0.0394*	0.7644		
	1.0	0.0009*	0.5754		
DEET	0.1	0.9902	0.9898		
	0.25	0.4858	0.7063		
	0.5	0.3908	0.1368		
	1.0	<0.0001*	0.0011*		

623 chambers for *Ae. albopictus* and *An. dirus* exposed to β-caryophyllene oxide and DEET.

624 * Indicates significant difference (P < 0.05) between contact and non-contact.

625 Table 3. Comparisons of irritant and repellent actions between β-caryophyllene oxide and

Compound	Dose (%)	<i>P</i> -value	
		Contact	Non-contact
Ae. albopictus	0.1	0.7473	0.9828
	0.25	0.2850	0.7496
	0.5	0.1272	0.1994
	1.0	0.0142*	0.0030*
An. dirus	0.1	0.9529	0.7945
	0.25	0.7748	0.7496
	0.5	0.5365	0.0193*
	1.0	0.7112	0.0030*

626 DEET against *Ae. albopictus* and *An. dirus* in contact and non-contact chambers.

627 * Indicates significant difference (P<0.05) between β-caryophyllene oxide and DEET.

628 Table 4. Comparisons of escape responses between *Ae. albopictus* and *An. dirus* in contact

Compound	Dose (%)	<i>P</i> -value	
		Contact	Non-contact
β-Caryophyllene oxide	0.1	0.7374	0.7334
	0.25	0.2681	1.0000
	0.5	0.0184*	1.0000
	1.0	0.0024*	1.0000
DEET	0.1	0.9606	0.9606
	0.25	0.7495	1.0000
	0.5	0.0995*	0.0013*
	1.0	0.3584	1.0000

and non-contact chambers treated with β -caryophyllene oxide and DEET.

630 * Indicates significant difference (*P*<0.05) between *Ae. albopictus* and *An. dirus*.

631 Table 5. *In vitro* cytotoxic and phototoxic activity of β -caryophyllene oxide against mouse

632 normal fibroblast (BALB/c 3T3) cell lines.

Compound	IC ₅₀ without irradiation	IC_{50} with irradiation	PIF	Phototoxicity
β-Caryophyllene oxide	13.23 ± 1.37	34.79 ± 5.49	0.38	Non-phototoxic
Chlorpromazine	48.9 ± 3.26	1.05 ± 0.29	54.71	Phototoxic

633 Results are expressed as mean \pm SD

Compound (% or µg.mL ⁻¹)		Assay performed without S9 mix			Assay performed with S9 mix		
		Proliferative Index (%)	MNC (per 1,000)	Р	Proliferative Index (%)	MNC (per 1,000)	Р
Negative control		100	10.5 ± 0.7	-	100	10.5 ± 2.1	-
Positive control [§]		98.2	31.5 ± 2.1	< 0.001	97.6	24.0 ± 1.4	< 0.001
Solvent control		98.6	9.5 ± 0.7	NS ^a	98.4	10.0 ± 1.4	NS
β-caryophyllene oxide	0.5	99.7	10.5 ± 2.1	NS	98.8	9.5 ± 0.7	NS
	1	98.4	11.0 ± 1.4	NS	97.4	13.0 ± 2.8	NS
	5	65.1	9.5 ± 2.1	NS	73.2	11.0 ± 1.4	NS
	10	TOX	-	-	TOX	-	-

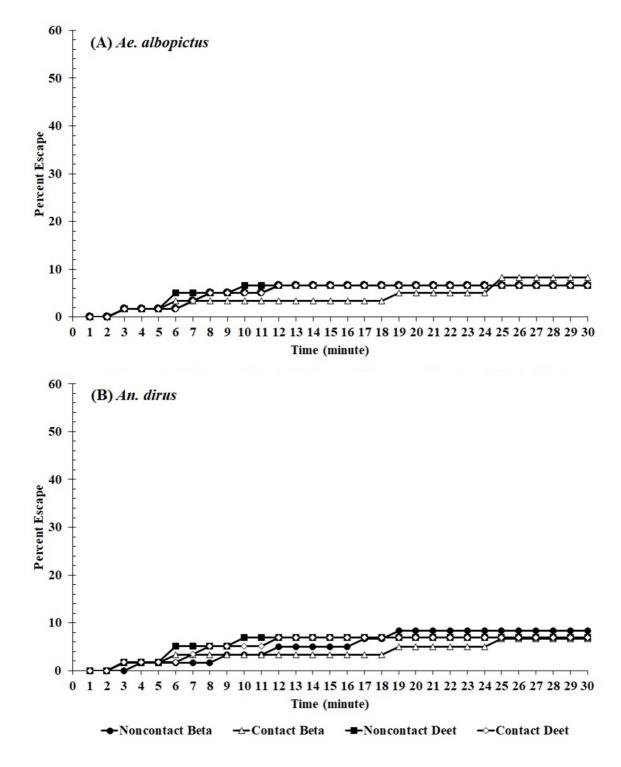
Table 6. *In vitro* genotoxicity activity of β-caryophyllene oxide on CHO-K1 cells.

635 [§]Positive controls: mitomycin C (0.05 μg.mL⁻¹) without S9 mix and benzo-[a]-pyrene (5

 μ g.mL⁻¹) with S9 mix; MNC: Micronucleated cells per 1,000; P: Probability of the comparison

between the negative control and the tested dose using the Chi-squared test; TOX: Toxic.

 ^{a}NS : non-significant activity; Results are expressed as mean \pm SD



640 Fig. 1 Patterns of escape percentage from ER chambers for contact and noncontact assay
641 designs during 30 min exposure to β-caryophyllene oxide and DEET at 0.1%: (A) *Ae.*642 *albopictus*, (B) *An. dirus*.

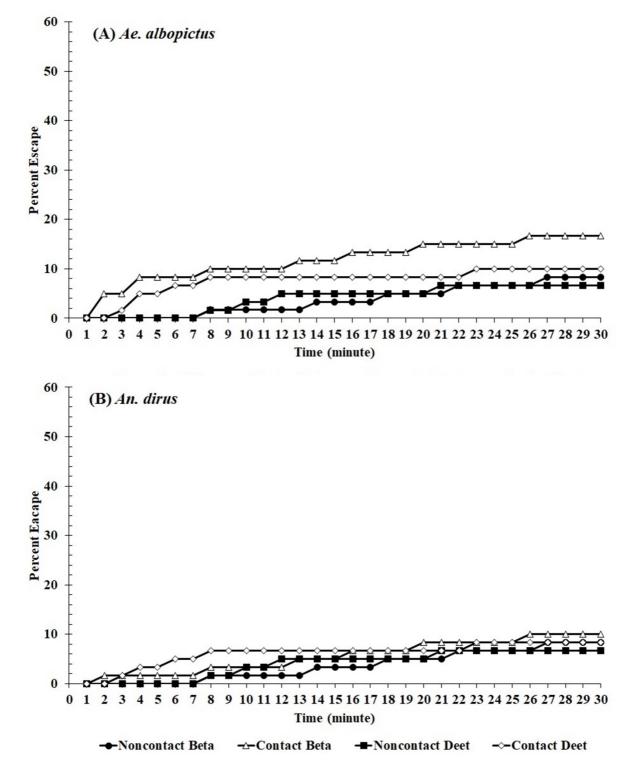
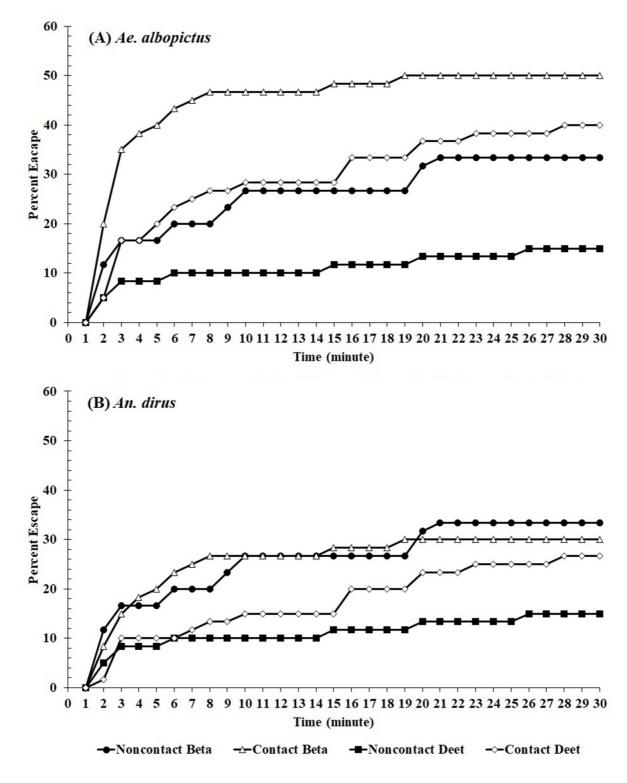


Fig. 2 Patterns of escape percentage from ER chambers for contact and noncontact assay
designs during 30 min exposure to β-caryophyllene oxide and DEET at 0.25%: (A) *Ae. albopictus*, (B) *An. dirus*



649 Fig. 3 Patterns of escape percentage from ER chambers under contact and noncontact assay
650 designs during 30 min exposure to β-caryophyllene oxide and DEET at 0.5%: (A) *Ae*.
651 *albopictus*, (B) *An. dirus*.

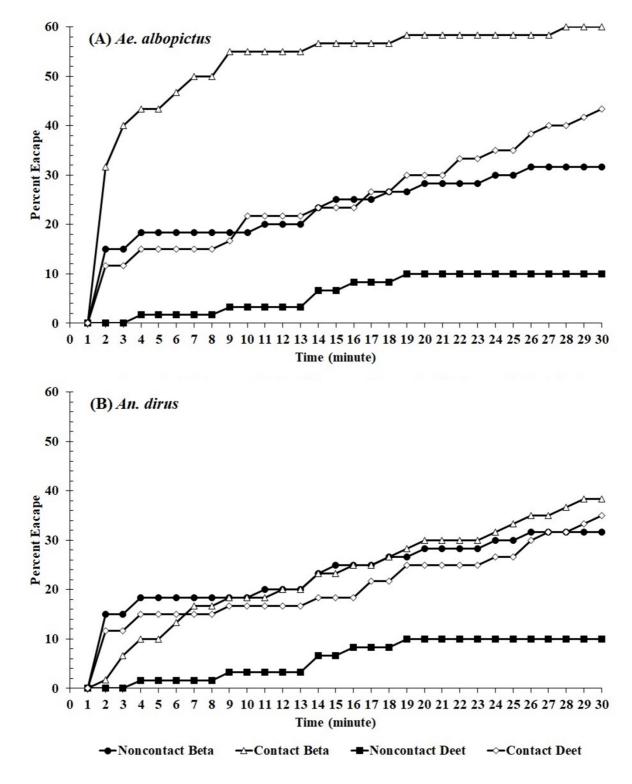


Fig. 4 Patterns of escape percentage from ER chambers under contact and noncontact assay
designs during 30 min exposure to β-caryophyllene oxide and DEET at 1%: (A) *Ae. albopictus*,
(B) *An. dirus*.