

ORYCTES RHINOCEROS BEETLES, AN OIL PALM**PEST IN MALAYSIA****ABSTRACT**

Oryctes rhinoceros, commonly known as the rhinoceros beetle is an important agricultural pest that is known to inflict serious damage on young oil palm trees. Many researches have been conducted on its development, life cycle, habitat, management and genomic variation ever since the need to understand this pest arose. It is among the longest present agricultural pest in Malaysia and various phases and strategies for its control have been formulated. However, to date, research and development are still ongoing in Malaysia for the successful management of this pest. In this review, we look into details on the characteristics of this pest, the modes of its introduction into as well as the events that helped to establish and contribute to the proliferation of this pest as a major oil palm threat in Malaysia. The progressive development of various research and development in this pest's management and control are also highlighted.

Keywords: *Oryctes rhinoceros*, *rhinoceros beetle*, *oil palm pest*, *Malaysia*.

INTRODUCTION

The oil palm, *Elais guineensis* Jacq. is a native West African plant [1]. It was first introduced into Southeast Asia in 1848 when it was planted in the Bogor Botanic Gardens, Java, as an ornamental plant. Subsequently it was commercially developed as a plantation crop in Sumatera. In Malaysia, this plant was first introduced by Sir M. H. Fauconnier during 1911 and 1912. This later led to the establishment of Tennamaram Estate, the first Malaysian commercial oil palm estate in 1917 [2]. Since its early introduction into Malaysia in 1911, oil palm plants have rapidly developed to become the number one commercial crop of the country resulting in Malaysia being the second highest producer of palm oil in the world after Indonesia [3]. However, various hurdles and trials were faced by planters and researchers throughout the process. Amidst the various problems that arose, attacks by *Oryctes rhinoceros* beetles had been an unremitting dilemma faced by Malaysian planters.

TAXONOMIC CLASSIFICATION

Oryctes rhinoceros being an important agricultural pest has been widely studied in various aspects over a very long period of time. Incomplete taxonomic studies on this beetle began very early and constant revisions were made in the classification of this beetle. This species was originally described as *Scarabaeus rhinoceros* by Linnaeus. In further taxonomic work published in 1840, this beetle was called *Oryctes stentor* Castelnau. Finally, with the establishment of the zoological nomenclature system, this species was renamed as *Oryctes rhinoceros* [4]. *Oryctes rhinoceros* is a member of the superfamily Scarabaeoidea which has been on the face of the earth for as long as 200 million years [5]. Out of the 42 species in this genus [4] only *O. rhinoceros* is present as an oil palm pest in the Asian region [6]. Locally in Malaysia, this beetle is known as the 'kumbang badak', whereby 'kumbang' means beetle and 'badak' means rhinoceros.

BIOLOGY AND HABITAT OF THE RHINOCEROS BEETLES

Several works had been done on the life cycle of this pest which comprises of four stages namely egg, larva, pupa and imago with the duration of each stage being variable, depending on climatic conditions, nutrition and humidity of the different localities in which the developmental process occurred [4, 7-9]. Generally the whole life cycle lasts for around four to nine months allowing for more

53 than one generation per year [10]. Throughout this period the female lays 70 to 100 eggs [8]. Adult
54 beetles have been observed to mate right after their first feeding once they have left their pupal site
55 [11]. These observations further conclude and support the fact that *O. rhinoceros* are robust, long-
56 lived and highly productive and this contributes towards the large and frequent events of beetle attack
57 [12].

58

59 There is a clear difference in the choice of habitats between the immature and the adult *O. rhinoceros*
60 beetles. A dead standing coconut palm which was been previously affected by disease, pest or
61 lightning provides a suitable breeding environment for the immature beetles [13]. Materials like
62 compost, sawdust heaps, rotting logs, decaying vegetable, bridges made of coconut trunk, dead
63 pandanus, old latrines, sugar cane bagasse, rice straws and also humus rich soil also serve as
64 suitable habitats for immature beetles [4,6,8,14-15]. Meanwhile, the adults spend most of their life
65 time on fresh plants but they also return to decomposing sites for mating and breeding [11-12].
66 Studies were also conducted by several researchers to understand the role of abiotic factors in the
67 beetles' habitat selection. It was successfully revealed that ground cover of more than 70 cm,
68 decomposing tree trunk with 77% moisture content, soil pH lower than 4.2 and a high rainfall are
69 important features in the beetles' habitat which increase their population density [16].

70

71 ESTABLISHMENT OF THE RHINOCEROS BEETLE IN MALAYSIA

72

73 *Oryctes rhinoceros* began to establish themselves in Malaysia with the emergence of coconut
74 cultivation. As the beetles have a range of hosts, they adapted well to survive on coconut trees which
75 were abundant along the Malaysian coastline. In the 1970s, oil palm estates were developed on ex-
76 rubber land. Old rubber trees were uprooted and left to rot in the newly developed oil palm planting
77 sites as estate owners and small holders could not afford complete clearing due to the high cost of
78 planting the palms. In addition, during that time land owners disregarded the importance of field
79 sanitation and the consequences of improper field management. In this case, a combination of readily
80 available suitable breeding ground in the form of rotting rubber tree stumps as well as abundant food
81 resources provided by the young oil palm trees led to a drastic increase in the beetle population in
82 Malaysia [17].

83

84 In addition, enforcement of the Zero Burning Concept [Environment Quality Clean Air: Amendment
85 Regulation, 2000] in Malaysia further aggravated the situation. Previous replanting techniques
86 adopted felling, shredding, partial burning and complete burning as common practices at replanting
87 sites [18]. These methods minimized the availability of suitable breeding sites for *O. rhinoceros*.
88 However, under the new Zero Burning Concepts, open burning was not permitted due to
89 environmental pollution issues and this led to increasing numbers of rotting materials [19]. In addition,
90 an under planting technique was also introduced to overcome burning problems. In this technique,
91 new palms were planted under old palms which were gradually poisoned [9]. It was found that the
92 techniques introduced by the Zero Burning Concepts facilitated the increase in the beetle population
93 as windrowed and poisoned plant biomass took two years to decompose [20]. In addition, practices of
94 piling old palm around nurseries, leaving dead palms standing upright and usage of empty fruit
95 bunches as fertilizers for young palms are common practices in Malaysia and these contributed
96 greatly to the increase in the beetle population in the country [21-22].

97

98 Moreover, more beetles were further accidentally introduced to Malaysia via shipping and cargo
99 transportation, shipping of timber, trade of potted rubber cuttings from Sri Lanka, nursery trade and
100 transportation of habitat material. Ideal climate as well as suitable geographic landscapes of an
101 altitude less than 900 m and suitable ecological surroundings in addition to food availability and
102 plentiful breeding ground further facilitated the rapid spread of this pest [4].

103

104 INCIDENCE OF RHINOCEROS BEETLE ATTACK IN MALAYSIA

105

106 In Malaysia, articles on the attack of this pest on local plantation in the west and east coasts of
107 Peninsular Malaysia appeared a few years after the introduction of this crop into our country [23].
108 Beetle attacks were more serious in the west coast of Peninsular Malaysia due to the earlier usage of
109 the land for coconut cultivation [24,17]. Immature and young mature palms are the major targets of
110 this pest. This was proven during an 18 months of observation in a two-year-old oil palm replanting
111 site in northern Perak that revealed the presence of 200 adult beetles per acre [25]. It was observed
112 that the beetles were present in most estates within one to six months after replanting. This

113 observation further confirmed that replanting sites played an important role as a breeding ground for
114 the beetles in Malaysia [25].

115
116 The feeding activity of the beetles causes major crop loss in many coconut and oil palm plantations.
117 As the beetles are nocturnal and feeding as well as mating activities are carried out at night, many
118 events of initial attacks go unnoticed. Often, the beetle bores into the base of the cluster of unopened
119 fronds (spears) of the young oil palms, damaging several of the still-furled fronds [9]. This boring
120 activity produces holes on the petioles and 'V' shaped cuts on leaves as they unfold. The beetle's
121 mandibles are used to chisel the inner part of the palm while the horn, clypeus and tibiae are used to
122 bore holes. Beetles did not ingest the solid plant material but sucked the juices [4]. Damage to the
123 inflorescence due to the beetle attack often leads to a reduction in the photosynthesizing area
124 resulting in decreased or delayed fruit production [4, 18, 26]. Continuous attacks on young oil palms
125 may often be lethal.

126
127 Due to the gregarious nature of this beetle, usually more than one beetle attacks a single palm and
128 this often results in serious damage and plant death have negative effects on oil palm production and
129 the industry. Serious damage to plantations due to *O. rhinoceros* attacks have been well documented
130 in Malaysia. Damage by *O. rhinoceros* could cause an average crop loss of 40% to 92% during the
131 first year of harvesting [22]. In addition, more than 15% reduction in canopy size had also been
132 observed due to beetle attack [27]. Reduction in canopy size often results in reduced photosynthetic
133 activity, delayed plant maturity, reduced fruit bunch size and an approximately 25% crop loss [18].

134 135 **CONTROL AND MANAGEMENT OF RHINOCEROS BEETLES: RELATED RESEARCH** 136 **AND DEVELOPMENTS IN MALAYSIA**

137
138 With the increasing number of beetles, the damage faced by the oil palm industry was significant. This
139 brought upon the interest to control and manage this incessant pest. A successful pest management
140 technique generally incorporates the applications of several control techniques together with a fair
141 understanding and appreciation of the surrounding ecological factors [28]. Records highlighting
142 devastating damages to palm crops by the *O. rhinoceros* have raised concern on the importance of
143 the establishment of suitable eradication methods. Biological control agents, chemical controls, mass
144 trapping and cultural controls are commonly practiced in managing the beetle population with each
145 procedure having a different success rate [28].

146
147 The first step that is highly recommended among the control and management techniques of this pest
148 is the proper management of field sanitation as it helps to the control beetle population thus avoiding
149 sudden population outbursts. A hygienic plantation ground can be achieved by clearing standing logs,
150 stumps and rubbish piles that may serve as breeding grounds [4,6]. Apart from that, three commonly
151 used pulverizing techniques in Malaysia namely the Enviro Mulcher Method, The Mountain Goat
152 Method and The Beaver Method are often applied [20]. All three pulverization techniques proved to be
153 useful as the decomposition period of the felled palm could be reduced, thus restricting the availability
154 of the breeding grounds for the beetles. Planting of a cover crop is also important as it acts as a
155 physical barrier to the breeding sites. Beetles were not present when cover crops measured more
156 than 70 cm in height. *Centrosema pubescens* and *Pueraria javanica* are among the commonly grown
157 cover crops in Malaysia [16].

158
159 When considering chemical control procedures, direct application of insecticides is not an appropriate
160 technique in the management of this beetle due to its insufficiently exposed situation. Nevertheless, a
161 variety of chemical treatments have been considered for managing *O. rhinoceros*. According to [29]
162 lamdachyhalothrin, cypermethrin, fenvelarate, monochrotophos and chlorpyrifos were effective at both
163 the nursery stage and in field trials. Lambdacyhalothrin effectively reduced the number of broken
164 spear dieback while carbofuran and cypermethrin were effective in reducing the number of holes on
165 the spears and fronds [9, 29, 30]. Gamma benzene hexachloride, aldrin and carbaryl were used to
166 control the larval stage. Naphthalene balls had also been considered once as a prophylactic method
167 [4, 17]. Although various chemical control methods have been trialed on the population of *O.*
168 *rhinoceros*, this choice of treatments are still not effective and it imposes health and environmental
169 hazards.

170
171 The usage of biological control agents to control this beetle is another option that has been looked
172 into for a long time. The release of natural predators into the fields was recorded in the early 1950s to

173 1970s. Among the list of natural predators that were trialed were *Scolia patricialis* (Hymenoptera),
174 *Scolia procer* (Hymenoptera) and *Catascopus fascialis* (Coleoptera). Unfortunately, this has proven to
175 be a futile method as these natural pests failed to establish themselves and produce satisfactory
176 results [8, 31].

177

178 Later on, the use of *Oryctes* virus as a biological control agent in the 1960s was a milestone in the
179 classical biological control procedure. *Baculovirus oryctes* was originally discovered in Malaysia and
180 identified as *Rhabdionvirus oryctes* [32]. Since then, it has been introduced into many countries. The
181 presences of three *Oryctes* viral types were revealed in Malaysia [33]. Virus type A, was common
182 throughout the peninsula but showed less efficacy than the restricted virus type B. Meanwhile, type C
183 was only found in Sabah and appeared to have little effect on either larvae or adult beetles. This study
184 also revealed that the *Oryctes* virus is widespread in Malaysia and is transmitted readily in the adult
185 beetle populations. However, the incidence of the virus in the larvae, pupae, and neonate adults was
186 low [34] which could lead to the emergence healthy adults. Therefore, controlling the beetles using
187 the virus needs to be based on localized release of high virulence virus strains and integration with
188 other control procedures.

189

190 The entomopathogenic fungus, *Metarhizium anisopliae* is another common biological control agent
191 that has been used to control the *O. rhinoceros* beetles [35]. Known as the green Muscardine fungus,
192 it generally attacks larvae. Further development of *M. anisopliae* as a potential biopesticide in
193 Malaysia has also been studied [33, 35-36]. *M. anisopliae* variety major [37] is the most virulent
194 isolate which has the potential to kill 100% of the third instar larvae of *O. rhinoceros* between 12 to 14
195 days after treatment [35]. *M. anisopliae* can remain lethal for a long period of time. However, the
196 limited mobility of the fungus between the breeding sites is a drawback. Field applications using both
197 fresh spore solution and broadcasting of the solid substrate with spores onto the breeding sites were
198 observed to significantly reduce the beetle population, especially the larvae [35]. To date, various
199 attempts to release the fungus into the plantations have been carried out [35-36, 38]. Continuous
200 investigations are being pursued to further improvise the usage of this biopesticide. In addition,
201 various application strategies, formulation and modes of introducing the fungus into the plantations
202 are consistently being studied [35, 38-39, 40-42].

203

204 Apart from that, several trapping techniques have been considered by planters in order to manage
205 this pest. In the earlier days, self-constructed trapping pits in the form of coconut logs or compost pits
206 that are similar to the natural breeding sites were used. Some work on light trapping methods had
207 also been trialed [6]. However the light traps were found to be an inefficient control method. The
208 beetles were attracted to the light but the results were merely beneficial for monitoring purposes.
209 Recent advances have modified the concept of mass trapping by incorporating the usage of the
210 species specific semiochemical called aggregation pheromone. Currently, mass trapping using an
211 aggregation pheromone with the active component ethyl 4-methyloctanoate is the commonly used
212 technique by many Malaysian plantation owners to trap and monitor the beetles in young oil palm
213 replanting sites [43-44]. This technique gained popularity among plantation managers due to its
214 efficiency and economical value [9]. The pheromone traps are also integrated with biological control
215 agents like *M. anisopliae* and also *B. oryctes* [30] to improve the management and control
216 procedures.

217

218 Ethyl 4-methyloctanoate was first found in Indonesia to be the major aggregation pheromone
219 component produced by the beetle males [43]. Male-produced attractants have been referred to as
220 aggregation pheromones, because they result in the arrival of both sexes at a calling site leading to
221 an increase in the density of beetles at the pheromone source. Aggregation pheromones are useful
222 for mate selection, defense against predators and for overcoming host resistance through mass
223 attack [45]. In *O. rhinoceros* beetles, the aggregation pheromone helps the insect to find mates,
224 breeding sites and food [46-47]. To further improve the efficiency of mass trapping using pheromone
225 traps, the influence of these traps on the immigration activity of the beetles into the replanting sites
226 was studied [47]. Apart from that, it was also found that the occurrence of the aggregation
227 pheromone was irregular in different beetle samples suggesting a possible influence of specific
228 conditions that controlled the production of this pheromone by the male beetles [48]. Selective
229 attraction level to the pheromone traps had also been claimed to be observed among the beetle
230 populations (Chung, Ebor Research, Sime Darby Plantations, pers. comm. 2002) suggesting the
231 possible occurrence of a cryptic species complex. This hypothesis stimulated interest to study on the
232 pest's genome.

233

234 With interest to understand the *O. rhinoceros* beetles and to improve management and control
235 techniques, much research work was conducted on this pest's development and life cycle [4], habitat
236 [16] and management [29, 35]. However, little work has been carried out on the population genetic
237 structure of this pest species until recently. This scope of research gained interest with the claim of
238 selective attraction levels among the beetles to the pheromone trap and the possible presence of a
239 cryptic species complex. This hypothesis led to the detailed analysis of the population genetic
240 variation and genetic structure of *O. rhinoceros* from several locations in Malaysia.

241

242 It is acknowledged that speciation events are crucial in pest management as accurate detection and
243 monitoring of the individuals are extremely important. The detection of a cryptic complex is difficult as
244 it often occurs in small population sizes [48]. However, the failure to identify the presence of
245 reproductively isolated pest species could result in serious errors in pest management control
246 strategies [49]. Therefore, several studies [50-51] were carried out to study the molecular genetic
247 variation of this pest from several locations in Malaysia. By studying the genetic structure of this
248 beetle the researchers intended to identify any isolated gene pool that could relate to the presence of
249 a cryptic species complex that could have resulted from prezygotic isolation behavior such as
250 variations in communication signals like pheromones which often contribute to reproductive isolation
251 between sympatric species [52].

252

253 Based on the use of randomly amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD) markers [50] and randomly
254 amplified microsatellite markers (RAMs) [53], the possible presence of two separate gene pools in *O.*
255 *rhinoceros* had been reported. However, when a morphometric analysis of *O. rhinoceros* was
256 performed [54] it revealed that the beetles are morphologically indistinguishable; consequently
257 strengthening the need for further molecular analysis of the insect. Hence, to obtain more concrete
258 results, species specific codominant single locus DNA microsatellite marker were for *O. rhinoceros*
259 [55]. As such microsatellite markers are powerful and promising genetic markers that allow analysis of
260 fine-scale ecological questions concerning population genetics and species-level population
261 structures [56], it was hoped that this set of markers would provide definitive answers on the species
262 status of this pest. However, the subsequent analysis on the genetic structure of this insect pest
263 species using the newly developed codominant microsatellite markers indicated no isolated gene
264 pools. The Peninsular Malaysian *O. rhinoceros* population was close to panmixia as only low to
265 moderate differentiation occurred between geographical populations from different locations such as
266 Selangor, Perak, and Pahang in the peninsula and a high gene flow occurred among them. Overall,
267 beetles of the different population interacted freely, thus permitting gene flow between closely and
268 distantly located populations. Based on this study, the possibility of a cryptic complex occurring in *O.*
269 *rhinoceros* was ruled out [51]. This study showed that the selective attraction exhibited by the beetles
270 toward the pheromone trapping system was not due to prezygotic isolation behavior that is commonly
271 exhibited by cryptic species of a sympatric nature but to other yet unknown environmental or
272 behavioral factors. As the non-existence of a cryptic species complex has been confirmed, the
273 current pest management strategies can be carried out without worrying about the influence of
274 possible genetic variations in the beetles towards the success of the control techniques. However,
275 there always exist possibilities of changes in the genetic structure of a pest like *O. rhinoceros* which is
276 widely exposed to insecticides. If such a situation arises, future genetic studies on the beetle
277 populations from any other regions could be conducted with ease by using the codominant
278 microsatellite markers developed [55].

279

280 CONCLUSION

281

282 Malaysia shares a very close and undeniable relationship with the *Oryctes rhinoceros* beetle.
283 Although this beetle has been a pest that is much feared by oil palm planter, incidence of beetle
284 attack has in fact contributed towards the various development and improvement in the scope of
285 science and pest management. In our battle to control this beetles, the researcher of the country has
286 contributed toward great understanding of this beetle which will be beneficial worldwide and in fact
287 contribute towards future ideas and theories in the management of other similar pests.

288

289 COMPETING INTERESTS

290

291 Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

292

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