

1 Minireview Article
2 **ORYCTES RHINOCEROS BEETLES, AN OIL PALM**

3 **PEST IN MALAYSIA**

4
5
6 **ABSTRACT**

7
8 *Oryctes rhinoceros*, commonly known as the rhinoceros beetle is an important agricultural pest that is
9 known to inflict serious damage on young oil palm trees. Many researches have been conducted on
10 its development, life cycle, habitat, management and genomic variation ever since the need to
11 understand this pest arose. It is among the longest present agricultural pest in Malaysia and various
12 phases and strategies for its control have been formulated. However, to date, research and
13 development are still ongoing in Malaysia for the successful management of this pest. In this review,
14 we look into details on the characteristics of this pest, the modes of its introduction into Malaysia, as
15 well as the events that helped to establish and contribute to the proliferation of this pest as a major oil
16 palm threat in Malaysia. The progressive development of various research and development in this
17 pest's management and control are also highlighted.

18
19 **Keywords:** *Oryctes rhinoceros*, *rhinoceros beetle*, *oil palm pest*, *Malaysia*.

20
21 **INTRODUCTION**

22
23 The oil palm, *Elais guineensis* Jacq. is a native West African plant [1]. It was first introduced into
24 Southeast Asia in 1848 when it was planted in the Bogor Botanic Gardens, Java, as an ornamental
25 plant. Subsequently, it was commercially developed as a plantation crop in Sumatera. In Malaysia,
26 this plant was first introduced by Sir M. H. Fauconnier during 1911 and 1912. This later led to the
27 establishment of Tennamaram Estate, the first Malaysian commercial oil palm estate in 1917 [2].
28 Since its early introduction into Malaysia in 1911, oil palm plants have rapidly developed to become
29 the number one commercial crop of the country resulting in Malaysia being the second highest
30 producer of palm oil in the world after Indonesia [3]. However, various hurdles and trials were faced
31 by planters and researchers throughout the process. Amidst the various problems that arose, attacks
32 by *Oryctes rhinoceros* beetles had been an unremitting dilemma faced by Malaysian planters. Often,
33 beetle attack results in loss of productivity, irreversible damage to plants and plant death. Attacked oil
34 palm plants are also predisposed to further lethal secondary infestation by the red palm weevils
35 (*Rhynchophorus* spp.). In Malaysia, *O. rhinoceros* has established its self as a major Coleopteran
36 pest of the oil palm industry and this had been made possible by a series of events that began with
37 the development of this pest in Malaysia through the coconut industry up to its establishment as an oil
38 palm pest due to several plantation practices that caused unanticipated population increase. To date,
39 the severity and impact of the damage by *O. rhinoceros* is often observed and recorded in plantations
40 throughout the country to aid monitoring and control practices. Various control measures and
41 integrated pest management strategies have been applied in field and constant research and
42 developments are undertaken to improvise control measures as well as to improve the understanding
43 on the *O. rhinoceros* its self.

44
45 **TAXONOMIC CLASSIFICATION**

46
47 *Oryctes rhinoceros* being an important agricultural pest has been widely studied in various aspects
48 over a very long period of time. Incomplete taxonomic studies on this beetle began very early and
49 constant revisions were made in the classification of this beetle. This species was originally
50 described as *Scarabaeus rhinoceros* by Linnaeus. In further taxonomic work published in 1840, this
51 beetle was called *Oryctes stentor* Castelnau. Finally, with the establishment of the zoological
52 nomenclature system, this species was renamed as *Oryctes rhinoceros* [4]. *Oryctes rhinoceros* is a

53 member of the superfamily Scarabaeoidea which has been on the face of the earth for as long as 200
54 million years [5]. Out of the 42 species in this genus [4] only *O. rhinoceros* is present as an oil palm
55 pest in the Asian region [6]. Locally in Malaysia, this beetle is known as the 'kumbang badak',
56 whereby 'kumbang' means beetle and 'badak' means rhinoceros.

57 58 **BIOLOGY AND HABITAT OF THE RHINOCEROS BEETLES**

59
60 Several works had been done on the life cycle of this pest which **comprises four stages** namely egg,
61 larva, pupa and imago with the duration of each stage being variable, depending on climatic
62 conditions, nutrition and humidity of the different localities in which the developmental process
63 occurred [4, 7-9]. Generally the whole life cycle lasts for around four to nine months allowing for more
64 than one generation per year [10]. Throughout this period the female lays 70 to 100 eggs [8]. Adult
65 beetles have been observed to mate right after their first feeding once they have left their pupal site
66 [11]. These observations further conclude and support the fact that *O. rhinoceros* are robust, long-
67 lived and highly productive and this contributes towards the large and frequent events of beetle attack
68 [12].

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

81 82 **ESTABLISHMENT OF THE RHINOCEROS BEETLE IN MALAYSIA**

83
84 *Oryctes rhinoceros* began to establish themselves in Malaysia with the emergence of coconut
85 cultivation. **Beetles were previously introduced into Malaysia from other countries via various activities**
86 **such as shipping and cargo transportation of timber, nursery trade and transportation of habitat**
87 **material. As the beetles have a range of hosts, they soon adapted well to survive on coconut trees**
88 **which were abundant along the Malaysian coastline. This slowly led to the establishment of the *O.***
89 ***rhinoceros* populations along the east and west coast of Malaysia.** Later on in the 1970s, oil palm
90 estates were developed on ex-rubber land. Old rubber trees were uprooted and left to rot in the newly
91 developed oil palm planting sites as estate owners and small holders could not afford complete
92 clearing due to the high cost of planting the palms. In addition, during that time land owners
93 disregarded the importance of field sanitation and the consequences of improper field management.
94 In this case, a combination of readily available suitable breeding ground in the form of rotting rubber
95 tree stumps as well as abundant food resources provided by the young oil palm trees led to a drastic
96 increase in the beetle population in Malaysia [17].

97
98 In addition, enforcement of the Zero Burning Concept [Environment Quality Clean Air: Amendment
99 Regulation, 2000] in Malaysia further aggravated the situation. Previous replanting techniques
100 adopted felling, shredding, partial burning and complete burning as common practices at replanting
101 sites [18]. These methods minimized the availability of suitable breeding sites for *O. rhinoceros*.
102 However, under the new Zero Burning Concepts, open burning was not permitted due to
103 environmental pollution issues and this led to increasing numbers of rotting materials [19]. In addition,
104 an under planting technique was also introduced to overcome burning problems. In this technique,
105 new palms were planted under old palms which were gradually poisoned [9]. It was found that the
106 techniques introduced by the Zero Burning Concepts facilitated the increase in the beetle population
107 as windrowed and poisoned plant biomass took two years to decompose [20]. In addition, practices of
108 piling old palm around nurseries, leaving dead palms standing upright and usage of empty fruit
109 bunches as fertilizers for young palms are common practices in Malaysia and these contributed
110 greatly to the increase in the beetle population in the country [21-22]. **Above all, an ideal climate as**
111 **well as suitable geographic landscapes of an altitude less than 900 m and suitable ecological**

112 surroundings in addition to food availability and plentiful breeding ground further facilitated the rapid
113 spread of this pest [4].
114

115 **INCIDENCE OF RHINOCEROS BEETLE ATTACK IN MALAYSIA**

116
117 In Malaysia, articles on the attack of this pest on local plantation in the west and east coasts of
118 Peninsular Malaysia appeared a few years after the introduction of this crop into our country [23].
119 Beetle attacks were more serious in the west coast of Peninsular Malaysia due to the earlier usage of
120 the land for coconut cultivation [24,17]. Immature and young mature palms are the major targets of
121 this pest. This was proven during an 18 months of observation in a two-year-old oil palm replanting
122 site in northern Perak that revealed the presence of 200 adult beetles per acre [25]. It was observed
123 that the beetles were present in most estates within one to six months after replanting. This
124 observation further confirmed that replanting sites played an important role as a breeding ground for
125 the beetles in Malaysia [25].
126

127 The feeding activity of the beetles causes major crop loss in many coconut and oil palm plantations.
128 As the beetles are nocturnal and feeding as well as mating activities are carried out at night, many
129 events of initial attacks go unnoticed. Often, the beetle bores into the base of the cluster of unopened
130 fronds (spears) of the young oil palms, damaging several of the still-furled fronds [9]. This boring
131 activity produces holes on the petioles and 'V' shaped cuts on leaves as they unfold. The beetle's
132 mandibles are used to chisel the inner part of the palm while the horn, clypeus and tibiae are used to
133 bore holes. Beetles did not ingest the solid plant material but sucked the juices [4]. Damage to the
134 inflorescence due to the beetle attack often leads to a reduction in the photosynthesizing area
135 resulting in decreased or delayed fruit production [4, 18, 26]. Continuous attacks on young oil palms
136 may often be lethal.
137

138 Due to the gregarious nature of this beetle, usually more than one beetle attacks a single palm and
139 this often results in serious damage and plant death have negative effects on oil palm production and
140 the industry. Serious damage to plantations due to *O. rhinoceros* attacks have been well documented
141 in Malaysia. Damage by *O. rhinoceros* could cause an average crop loss of 40% to 92% during the
142 first year of harvesting [22]. In addition, more than 15% reduction in canopy size had also been
143 observed due to beetle attack [27]. Reduction in canopy size often results in reduced photosynthetic
144 activity, delayed plant maturity, reduced fruit bunch size and an approximately 25% crop loss [18].
145

146 **CONTROL AND MANAGEMENT OF RHINOCEROS BEETLES: RELATED RESEARCH** 147 **AND DEVELOPMENTS IN MALAYSIA**

148
149 With the increasing number of beetles, the damage faced by the oil palm industry was significant. This
150 brought upon the interest to control and manage this incessant pest. A successful pest management
151 technique generally incorporates the applications of several control techniques together with a fair
152 understanding and appreciation of the surrounding ecological factors [28]. Records highlighting
153 devastating damages to palm crops by the *O. rhinoceros* have raised concern on the importance of
154 the establishment of suitable eradication methods. Biological control agents, chemical controls, mass
155 trapping and cultural controls are commonly practiced in managing the beetle population with each
156 procedure having a different success rate [28].
157

158 The first step that is highly recommended among the control and management techniques of this pest
159 is the proper management of field sanitation as it helps to the control beetle population thus avoiding
160 sudden population outbursts. A hygienic plantation ground can be achieved by clearing standing logs,
161 stumps and rubbish piles that may serve as breeding grounds [4,6]. Apart from that, three commonly
162 used pulverizing techniques in Malaysia namely the Enviro Mulcher Method, The Mountain Goat
163 Method and The Beaver Method are often applied [20]. All three pulverization techniques proved to be
164 useful as the decomposition period of the felled palm could be reduced, thus restricting the availability
165 of the breeding grounds for the beetles. Planting of a cover crop is also important as it acts as a
166 physical barrier to the breeding sites. Beetles were not present when cover crops measured more
167 than 70 cm in height. *Centrosema pubescens* and *Pueraria javanica* are among the commonly grown
168 cover crops in Malaysia [16].
169

170 When considering chemical control procedures, direct application of insecticides is not an appropriate
171 technique in the management of this beetle due to its insufficiently exposed situation. Nevertheless, a

172 variety of chemical treatments have been considered for managing *O. rhinoceros*. According to [29]
173 **lambda**cyhalothrin, cypermethrin, fenvelarate, **monocrotophos** and chlorpyrifos were effective at both
174 the nursery stage and in field trials. Lambda cyhalothrin effectively reduced the number of broken
175 spear dieback while carbofuran and cypermethrin were effective in reducing the number of holes on
176 the spears and fronds [9, 29, 30]. Gamma benzene hexachloride, aldrin and carbaryl were used to
177 control the larval stage. Naphthalene balls had also been considered once as a prophylactic method
178 [4, 17]. Although various chemical control methods have been **tried** on the population of *O.*
179 *rhinoceros*, this choice of treatments are still not effective and it imposes health and environmental
180 hazards.

181
182 The usage of biological control agents to control this beetle is another option that has been looked
183 into for a long time. The release of natural predators into the fields was recorded in the early 1950s to
184 1970s. Among the list of natural predators that were **tried** were *Scolia patricialis* (Hymenoptera),
185 *Scolia procer* (Hymenoptera) and *Catascopus fascialis* (Coleoptera). Unfortunately, this has proven to
186 be a futile method as these natural pests failed to establish themselves and produce satisfactory
187 results [8, 31].
188

189 Later on, the use of *Oryctes* virus as a biological control agent in the 1960s was a milestone in the
190 classical biological control procedure. *Baculovirus oryctes* was originally discovered in Malaysia and
191 identified as *Rhabdionvirus oryctes* [32]. Since then, it has been introduced into many countries. The
192 presences of three *Oryctes* viral types were revealed in Malaysia [33]. Virus type A, was common
193 throughout the peninsula but showed less efficacy than the restricted virus type B. Meanwhile, type C
194 was only found in Sabah and appeared to have little effect on either larvae or adult beetles. This study
195 also revealed that the *Oryctes* virus is widespread in Malaysia and is transmitted readily in the adult
196 beetle populations. However, the incidence of the virus in the larvae, pupae, and neonate adults was
197 low [34] which could lead to the emergence healthy adults. Therefore, controlling the beetles using
198 the virus needs to be based on localized release of high virulence virus strains and integration with
199 other control procedures.
200

201 The entomopathogenic fungus, *Metarhizium anisopliae* is another common biological control agent
202 that has been used to control the *O. rhinoceros* beetles [35]. Known as the green Muscardine fungus,
203 it generally attacks larvae. Further development of *M. anisopliae* as a potential biopesticide in
204 Malaysia has also been studied [33, 35-36]. *M. anisopliae* variety major [37] is the most virulent
205 isolate which has the potential to kill 100% of the third instar larvae of *O. rhinoceros* between 12 to 14
206 days after treatment [35]. *M. anisopliae* can remain lethal for a long period of time. However, the
207 limited mobility of the fungus between the breeding sites is a drawback. Field applications using both
208 fresh spore solution and broadcasting of the solid substrate with spores onto the breeding sites were
209 observed to significantly reduce the beetle population, especially the larvae [35]. To date, various
210 attempts to release the fungus into the plantations have been carried out [35-36, 38]. Continuous
211 investigations are being pursued to further improvise the usage of this biopesticide. In addition,
212 various application strategies, formulation and modes of introducing the fungus into the plantations
213 are consistently being studied [35, 38-39, 40-42].
214

215 Apart from that, several trapping techniques have been considered by planters in order to manage
216 this pest. In the earlier days, self-constructed trapping pits in the form of coconut logs or compost pits
217 that are similar to the natural breeding sites were used. Some work on light trapping methods had
218 also been **tried** [6]. However the light traps were found to be an inefficient control method. The beetles
219 were attracted to the light but the results were merely beneficial for monitoring purposes. Recent
220 advances have modified the concept of mass trapping by incorporating the usage of the species
221 specific semiochemical called aggregation pheromone. Currently, mass trapping using an aggregation
222 pheromone with the active component ethyl 4-methyloctanoate is the commonly used technique by
223 many Malaysian plantation owners to trap and monitor the beetles in young oil palm replanting sites
224 [43-44]. This technique gained popularity among plantation managers due to its efficiency and
225 economical value [9]. The pheromone traps are also integrated with biological control agents like *M.*
226 *anisopliae* and also *B. oryctes* [30] to improve the management and control procedures.
227

228 Ethyl 4-methyloctanoate was first found in Indonesia to be the major aggregation pheromone
229 component produced by the beetle males [43]. Male-produced attractants have been referred to as
230 aggregation pheromones, because they result in the arrival of both sexes at a calling site leading to
231 an increase in the density of beetles at the pheromone source. Aggregation pheromones are useful

232 for mate selection, defense against predators and for overcoming host resistance through mass
233 attack [45]. In *O. rhinoceros* beetles, the aggregation pheromone helps the insect to find mates,
234 breeding sites and food [46-47]. To further improve the efficiency of mass trapping using pheromone
235 traps, the influence of these traps on the immigration activity of the beetles into the replanting sites
236 was studied [47]. Apart from that, it was also found that the occurrence of the aggregation
237 pheromone was irregular in different beetle samples suggesting a possible influence of specific
238 conditions that controlled the production of this pheromone by the male beetles [48]. Selective
239 attraction level to the pheromone traps had also been claimed to be observed among the beetle
240 populations (Chung, Ebor Research, Sime Darby Plantations, pers. comm. 2002) suggesting the
241 possible occurrence of a cryptic species complex. This hypothesis stimulated interest to study on the
242 pest's genome.

243
244 With interest to understand the *O. rhinoceros* beetles and to improve management and control
245 techniques, much research work was conducted on this pest's development and life cycle [4], habitat
246 [16] and management [29, 35]. However, little work has been carried out on the population genetic
247 structure of this pest species until recently. This scope of research gained interest with the claim of
248 selective attraction levels among the beetles to the pheromone trap and the possible presence of a
249 cryptic species complex. This hypothesis led to the detailed analysis of the population genetic
250 variation and genetic structure of *O. rhinoceros* from several locations in Malaysia.

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

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

289 **CONCLUSION**

290
291

292 Malaysia shares a very close and undeniable relationship with the *Oryctes rhinoceros* beetle.
293 Although this beetle has been a pest that is much feared by oil palm planter, incidence of beetle
294 attack has in fact contributed towards the various development and improvement in the scope of
295 science and pest management. In our battle to control this beetles, the researcher of the country has
296 contributed toward great understanding of this beetle which will be beneficial worldwide and in fact
297 contribute towards future ideas and theories in the management of other similar pests.
298

299 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

300
301 Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.
302

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