



Pesticide Plants: Diversity and Use in Crop Protection in a Southern Mediterranean Area: Case Study of Chlef in North-West Algeria

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ABSTRACT:

In order to identify the pesticidal plants present in the region of Chlef northwest Algeria, monthly surveys were conducted over a period of 1 year in three distinct area (coastal zone, plain zone and mountain zone), as a result 47 plant species distributed over 21 different botanical families were identified as biopesticides. The most represented families were the Lamiaceae, Asteraceae, Apiaceae and Cupressaceae. While in terms of plant life form, the most dominant forms were the Therophyte and Hemicryptophytes. For most of the identified species the toxic molecules were largely located in the leaves and flowers. It was also observed that forested areas were characterized by a limited number of pesticidal plants with a higher coverage rate, while the opposite is true in fallow lands and scrublands.

Introduction

Chemical pesticides are characterized by their high toxicity which makes them particularly dangerous for humans, animals, living organisms and the environment as whole (Ravindran *et al.*, 2016). It is estimated that that each year, between 5.000 and 20.000 deaths are attributed to pesticides (Alewu *et al.*, 2011), and between 500.000 to 1 million people are poisoned by these toxic substances (Yadav *et al.*, 2015). It is therefore necessary to explore other effective ways of protection, less toxic and less polluting especially biopesticides.

Biopesticides, as a part of biological control methods, can be derived from bacteria, fungi, viruses, nematodes, and plants (Vincent, 1998) and offer many advantages, including. They can be produced in large quantities to meet the needs of industry, and their application is compatible with conventional sprayers, thus facilitating their adoption by farmers (Wachenheim *et al.*, 2021).

Any plant whose chemical properties can be exploited to control pests, thereby significantly reducing the

pressure of bio-aggressors and the need for synthetic pesticides, is called a pesticide plant (Amoatey & Acquah, 2010) (Yarou *et al.*, 2017).

"In addition to plant molecules with insecticidal, fungicidal, or herbicide properties, recent research has highlighted the capabilities of plant compounds in plant defense mechanisms. These findings open up new perspectives in terms of stimulating the plant's natural defenses or developing chemical and biological processes to valorize these molecules as phytosanitary products or strategies (Regnault-Roger *et al.*, 2008) (Berestetskiy, 2023).

This paper reviews the current status of research plants and their active substances to identify potential sources of biological and natural pesticides, has become a concern for researchers in recent years. In this context, the present work aims to identify and determine pesticide plants in different environments in the region of Chlef (Algeria) that can be the subject of tests and studies for their use in the protection of crops against pests and pathogens.



Methods

Study sites

The study region (Chlef) is located in Northwest Algeria, at an altitude of 116 meters, at 36.21° North latitude and 1.33° East longitude. It includes three distinct geographical zones: a coastal zone, a plain zone, and a mountain zone. In each of these three zones, we chose three different stations (wasteland, scrubland, and forest) where we conducted our floristic surveys (fig 1). These stations or study sites are located in Beni Haoua for the coastal zone, in Oued Fodda for the plain zone, and in Beni Bouatab for the mountain zone.

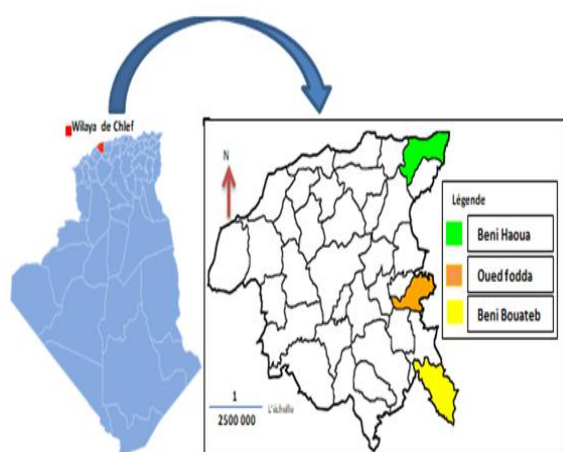


Fig 1: Geographic location of the region and study sites

In each station (forest, scrubland, and wasteland) of the three zones mentioned above, a monthly plant survey is conducted throughout an entire year. This is done in 10m² plots chosen at random in different locations of the study station (fig 2).

During each survey, the frequency of pesticide plants is estimated according to the phytosociological method of Braun-Blanquet and the determination of the biological type was made according to the Raunkiaer classification (1934).



Fig 2: Plant census and frequency estimation methods

To facilitate plant identification, we used different guides to the Algerian flora described by Gubb (1930), Maire (1959), Quezel and Santa (1962 and 1963), Bremness (2005), and Ilbert *et al.* (2016). In addition, to distinguish pesticide plants from the entire set of identified plants, we referred to, on the one hand, the work on the pesticide effect of plants carried out in Algeria and elsewhere, and on the other hand, to the testimonies and opinions of Algerian passants and farmers who have already used this practice in the protection of their cultures.

Frequency calculation

To calculate the frequency of plants in different environments, we delineated plots of 10 m² within which we estimated the areas occupied by each plant at the level of each environment. Then we calculated the frequency of territory occupied by the plant in the environment in question. This is obtained as follows:

$$fr = \frac{\text{area occupied by the plant}}{\text{delimited area}} \times 100$$

Statistical analysis: Correspondence Analysis (CA)

To determine the correlations between the different plants identified, on the one hand, and the correlations of these plants with the study environments, on the other hand, the data collected underwent a correspondence analysis (CA) using the software (IBM SPSS Statistics (2020)).



Results

Table 1: Inventoried pesticide plants, their botanical families, their toxic parts, and their target insects

Family	Scientific name	Part used	Target pest	Bibliography reference
Lamiacées	<i>Lavandula stoechas</i>	Flowers and leaves	<i>Aphis fabae</i>	Ketoh (1998)
	<i>Rosmarinus officinalis</i>	Leaves	<i>Aphis fabae</i> <i>Penicillium digitatum</i>	Sehari et al. (2018) Daferera (2000)
	<i>Thymus vulgaris</i>	Leaves	<i>Ceratitis capitata</i>	Oulebsir- Mohandkaci et al. (2015)
	<i>Origanum vulgare</i>	Leaves	<i>Penicillium digitatum</i> <i>Aspergillus sp</i>	Daferera (2000) Carmo et al. (2008)
	<i>Origanum majorana</i>	Flowers and leaves	<i>Spodoptera littoralis</i>	Souguir et al. (2013)
	<i>Mentha rotundifolia</i>	Leaves	<i>Ephestia kuehniella</i>	Aouadi et al. (2020)
	<i>Salvia officinalis</i>	Flowers and leaves	<i>Aphis fabae Scopol</i>	Benoufella-kitous (2015)
	<i>Marrubium vulgare</i>	stem with leaves	<i>Sitophilus oryzae</i>	Sehari et al. (2018)
	<i>Phlomis crinita</i>	Leaves	<i>Agrobacterium sp,</i> <i>Erwinia amylovora</i>	Fettah (2011)
	<i>Mentha pulegium</i>	Leaves	<i>Sitophilus oryzae</i>	Sehari et al. (2018)
Asteraceae	<i>Chamaemelum nobile</i>	Flowers	<i>Tribolium castaneum</i>	Hashem & Ramadan (2021)
	<i>Chrysanthemum cinerariaefolium</i>	Flowers	<i>Aphis fabae</i>	Ketoh (1998)
	<i>Calendula officinalis</i>	Flowers	<i>Aphis fabae</i>	Bouzeraa et al. (2019)
	<i>Inula viscosa</i>	Flowers and leaves	<i>Cladosporium cladosporioides</i>	Touhidul et al. (2022)
	<i>Bellis annua</i>	Flowers and leaves	<i>Aphis fabae</i>	Smith et Boon (2004)
	<i>Anacyclus clavatus</i>	Flowers	<i>Aphis fabae</i>	Khabbach et al. (2012)
	<i>Echinops spinosus</i>	Leaves	Bactrocera oleae	Belabes et al. (2020)
	<i>Calendula arvensis</i>	Flowers	<i>Tribolium castaneum</i>	Abudunia et al. (2014)
	<i>Artemisia absinthium</i>	Leaves	<i>Sitophilus zeamais</i>	Abbott (1925)
Apiaceae	<i>Amoïdes verticillata</i>	Flowers and leaves	<i>Acanthoscelides obtectus</i>	Bittner et al. (2008)
	<i>Daucus carota</i>	Flowers and leaves	<i>Ceratitis capitata</i>	Duyck (2002)
	<i>Foeniculum vulgare</i>	Seeds	<i>Sitophilus zeamais</i>	Zoubiri & Aoumeur (2011)
	<i>Daucus Crinitus</i>	Flowers and leaves	<i>Tuta absoluta</i>	Benyahia-Bouayad Alam (2015)



Cupressaceae	<i>Juniperus oxycedrus</i>	Flowers and leaves	<i>Sitophilus oryzae</i> <i>Tribolium confusum</i>	Athanassiou et al. (2013)
	<i>Juniperus phoenicea</i>	Leaves	<i>Aphis sp</i>	Amokrane et al. (2023)
	<i>Cupressus sempervirens</i>	Leaves	<i>Tribolium castaneum</i>	Saada et al. (2022)
	<i>Tetraclinis articulata</i>	Flowers and leaves	<i>Culicidae</i>	Aouinty et al. (2006)
Myrtaceae	<i>Myrtus comminus</i>	Flowers	<i>Tribolium confusum</i> <i>Callosobruchus maculatus</i>	Khani and Basavand (2013)
	<i>Eucalyptus globulus</i>	Leaves	<i>Myzus persicae</i>	Oulebsir- Mohandkaci et al. (2015)
Cucurbitaceae	<i>Ecballium elaterium</i>	Flowers and leaves	<i>Aphis fabae</i>	Maria et al. (1999)
	<i>Colocynthis vulgaris</i>	Fruit	<i>Phytophthora infestans</i> <i>Myzus persicae</i>	Maqsoud et al. (2022)
Asparagaceae	<i>Drimia maritima</i>	Flowers	<i>Drosophila melanogaster</i>	Saadane et al. (2020)
Poaceae	<i>Cymbopogon shoenanthus</i>	Leaves	<i>Callosobruchus maculatus</i>	Ketoh et al. (2006)
Agavaceae	<i>Agave americana</i>	Leaves	<i>Sitophilus oryzae</i>	Maazoun (2019)
Fabaceae	<i>Genista scoparia</i>	Flowers and leaves	<i>Aphis fabae</i>	Ketoh (1998)
Tamaricaceae	<i>Tamarix aphylla</i>	Leaves	<i>Aspergillus sp</i>	Bibi et al. (2015)
Rhamnaceae	<i>Ziziphus lotus</i>	Leaves	<i>Thaumetopoea pityocampa</i>	Bammou et al. (2015)
Rutaceae	<i>Ruta montana</i>	Leaves	<i>Acanthoscelides obtectus</i>	Bittner et al. (2008)
Pinaceae	<i>Pinus sylvestris</i>	Flowers and leaves	<i>Botrytis cineria</i>	Capieau et al. (2004)
Anacardiaceae	<i>Pistacia lentiscus</i>	Leaves	<i>Aphis sp</i>	Amokrane et al. (2023)
Zygophyllaceae	<i>Peganum harmala</i>	Seeds	<i>Locusta migratoria</i>	Benzara et al. (2011)
Apocynaceae	<i>Nerium oleander</i>	Flowers	<i>Chaitophorus leucomelas</i>	Zaid et al. (2022)
Urticaceae	<i>Urtica dioica</i>	Leaves	<i>Culex pipiens</i>	Toubal et al. (2019)
Oleaceae	<i>Olea europaea</i>	Leaves	<i>Ephestia uehniella</i>	Lahcene et al. (2018)
Asphodelaceae	<i>Asphodelus microcarpus</i>	Flowers and leaves	<i>Tribolium castaneum</i>	Saada et al (2022)
Euphorbiaceae	<i>Ricinus communis</i>	Roots	<i>Macrosiphum rosae</i>	El Haddad et al. (2022)
	<i>Mercurialis annua</i>	Flowers	<i>Tribolium confusum</i>	Ben Nasr et al. (2021)



In the present study, we have identified 47 plant species that are potentially useful as biopesticides for crop protection against pests and pathogens. These are distributed over 21 botanical families, the most represented of which are Lamiaceae with 10 species and Asteraceae with 9 species. They are followed by Apiaceae with 4 species, Cupressaceae with 4 species, Myrtaceae and Cucurbitaceae with 2 species, and finally the other families with 1 species each (table 1).

According to the literature, the substances or molecules with pesticide effects are largely located in the leaves and flowers. Thus, in 21 species, only the leaves are toxic compared to 9 species in which only the flowers are toxic, while 14 other species are toxic through the leaves and flowers at the same time.

Distribution of inventoried plants by biological type:

The enumeration of species by biological type is carried out on all the species inventoried in the study stations (Table 2). Thus, the percentage of the different types is recorded in Fig 3. It appears that the hemicryptophytes and phanerophytes are the most represented with 17 species (36.17%) and 15 species (31.92%), respectively. They are followed by therophytes with only 9 species, or 19.15%, then chamaephytes with 4 species (8.51%) and finally geophytes with only 2 species (4.25%).

Table 2: Biological types of pesticide plants found in the study sites:

Types Biologiques	Espèces
Phanerophytes,	<i>Agave Americana</i> , <i>Cupressus sempervirens</i> , <i>Ziziphus lotus</i> , <i>Myrtus communis</i> , <i>Nerium oleander</i> , <i>Olea europaea</i> , <i>Tetraclinus articulata</i> , <i>Tamarix aphylla</i> , <i>Pinus sylvestris</i> , <i>Pistacia lentiscus</i> , <i>Ricinus communis</i> , <i>Eucalyptus globulus</i> , <i>Genista scoparia</i> , <i>Juniperus oxycedrus</i> , <i>Juniperus phoenicea</i>
Therophytes	<i>Ammoides verticillata</i> , <i>Anacyclus clavatus</i> , <i>Bellis annua</i> , <i>Calendula arvensis</i> , <i>Calendula officinalis</i> , <i>Chrysanthemum cinerariaefolium</i> , <i>Colocynthis vulgaris</i> , <i>Mercurialis annua</i> , <i>Urtica dioica</i>
Heicryptophytes	<i>Chamaemelum nobile</i> , <i>Artemisia absinthium</i> , <i>Cymbopogon shoenanthus</i> ; <i>Daucus carota</i> , <i>Daucus crinitus</i> , <i>Mentha rotundifolia</i> ; <i>Mentha pulegium</i> , <i>Marrubium vulgare</i> , <i>Thymus vulgaris</i> , <i>Ruta Montana</i> , <i>Salvia officinalis</i> , <i>Inula viscosa</i> , <i>Phlomis crinita</i> , <i>Origanum vulgare</i> , <i>Origanum majorana</i> , <i>Ecballium elaterium</i> , <i>Echinops spinosus</i>
Chamaephytes	<i>Peganum harmala</i> , <i>Foeniculum vulgare</i> , <i>Lavandula stoechas</i> , <i>Rosmarinus officinalis</i>
Geophytes	<i>Asphodelus microcarpus</i> , <i>Drimia maritima</i>

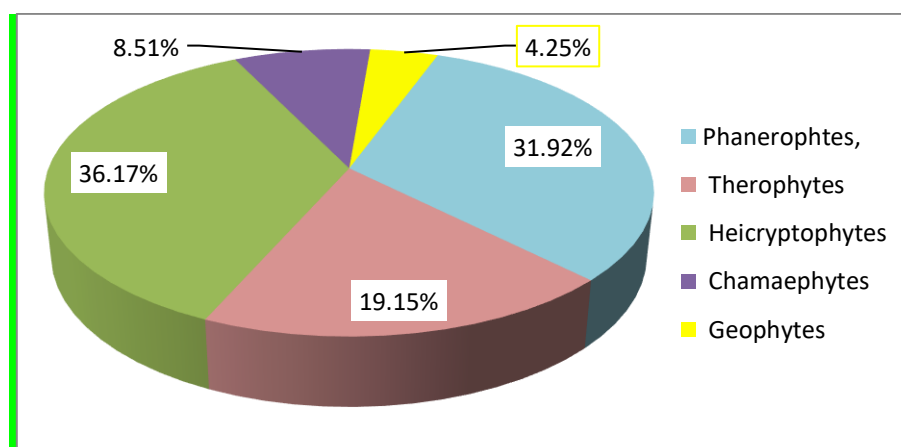


Fig 3: Frequency of biological types in the study areas



Table3: Frequency of each pesticidal plant found in each of the surveyed sites

Region Species	Mountain region			Plain region			Coastal region		
	Wasteland	Scrubland	Forest	Wasteland	Scrubland	forest	Wasteland	Scrubland	Forest
<i>Agave americana</i>		2						1,5	
<i>Ammoides verticillata</i>	0,8	0,15		1,25			0,55		
<i>Anacyclus clavatus</i>	4,5	0,5		8,45	0,3		2,5		
<i>Artemisia absinthium</i>		0,8		0,4	0,8				
<i>Asphodelus microcarpus</i>	0,1	4	0,05				0,05	0,55	
<i>Bellis annua</i>	1,5	0,15		3,2	0,2		0,85		
<i>Calendula arvensis</i>	1,15			0,95			0,85		
<i>Calendula officinalis</i>	1,25			0,5			2,5		
<i>Chamaemelum nobile</i>	0,8			2,5					
<i>Chrysanthemum cinerariaefolium</i>	1,85	0,25		5,55			1,55		
<i>Colocynthis vulgaris</i>	2,35								
<i>Cupressus sempervirens</i>		0,8	2					0,02	1,2
<i>Cymbopogon shoenanthus</i>	1,85	0,25					1,25	0,3	
<i>Daucus carota</i>	0,08	0,02		0,1	0,02				
<i>Daucus crinitus</i>	0,8			1,95	0,15		0,55		
<i>Drimia maritime</i>	0,3	0,1	0,05				0,1	0,08	
<i>Ecballium elaterium</i>	0,4			0,25					
<i>Echinops spinosus</i>	0,25			0,2			0,1		
<i>Eucalyotus globulus</i>						65			
<i>Foeniculum vulgare</i>	1,2	0,04			0,55				
<i>Genista scoparia</i>		1,35	0,25				0,25	3,55	0,75
<i>Inula viscosa</i>	0,5	0,08		0,75	0,08				
<i>Juniperus oxycedrus</i>		3,2	2,15					1,5	
<i>Juniperus phoenicea</i>		0,75	3,04						
<i>Lavandula stoechas</i>	2,8	0,25					3,1	0,75	
<i>Marrubium vulgare</i>	0,55			1,2					
<i>Mentha pulegium</i>					0,05				
<i>Mentha rotundifolia</i>				1,2					
<i>Mercurialis annua</i>	0,15	0,08		0,25	0,1				
<i>Myrtus communis</i>								2,2	1,4
<i>Nerium oleander</i>					5,25				
<i>Olea europaea</i>		3,5	3,25					4,2	2,2
<i>Origanum majorana</i>	0,25						0,4		
<i>Origanum vulgare</i>	0,08			0,25	0,03				
<i>Peganum harmala</i>		0,03							
<i>Phlomis crinite</i>	0,08	0,03					0,05		
<i>Pinus sylvestris</i>		3,50	65					8,5	70



<i>Pistacia lentiscus</i>		10,25	5,25					15.35	6,5
<i>Ricinus communis</i>					8,5				
<i>Rosmarinus officinalis</i>		0,85							
<i>Ruta Montana</i>	1,2						0,65		
<i>Salvia officinalis</i>	0,75	0,25					0,8	0,25	
<i>Tamarix aphylla</i>		2,5			50				
<i>Tetraclinus articulate</i>		6,25	3,25					7,55	2,35
<i>Thymus vulgaris</i>	0,75	0,9							
<i>Urtica dioica</i>	0,45			3,55	4,25				
<i>Ziziphus lotus</i>				0,5	3			1,5	
Total coverage by pesticidal plants (%)	26.74	42.83	84.29	33	73.28	65	16.1	47.8	84.4

Total coverage by pesticide plants was high in forests, ranging from 65% to over 84% depending on the zone, slightly less in scrublands (42.83% to 73.28%) and low in wastelands (16% to 33%). In any case, the presence of this type of plant is very marked in the study area, although the coverage rate differs according to the type of environment (table 3).

Forested areas are characterized by a reduced number of plant species, but their frequencies (coverage rate) are very high. Thus, it was noted that *Pinus sylvestris* has a frequency of 70% and 65% in two surveyed forest areas, and *Eucalyptus globulus* covers 65% of the forest area at the station in the Oued Fodda region (plain area). Scrublands are characterized by a mixture of herbaceous plants and shrubs. Sometimes, the dominance of certain species is noted, but their frequencies are lower than those mentioned in forest environments. We note *Tamarix aphylla* with a frequency of 50% in scrubland of Oued fodda (Plain area), *Pistacia lentiscus* whose frequency was 10.25% in the scrubland of Beni Bouatab (mountain area) and 15.35% in that of Beni Haoua (coastal area).

As for wastelands, characterized by a single herbaceous layer with a low coverage rate, the best frequencies noted are those of *Anacyclus clavatus*, which reached 8.45% in the site of Oued Fodda (Plain area) and 4.5% in that of Beni Bouatab (mountainous area), as well as that of *Lavandula stoechas*, which was 3.1% in the site of Beni Haoua (coastal area).

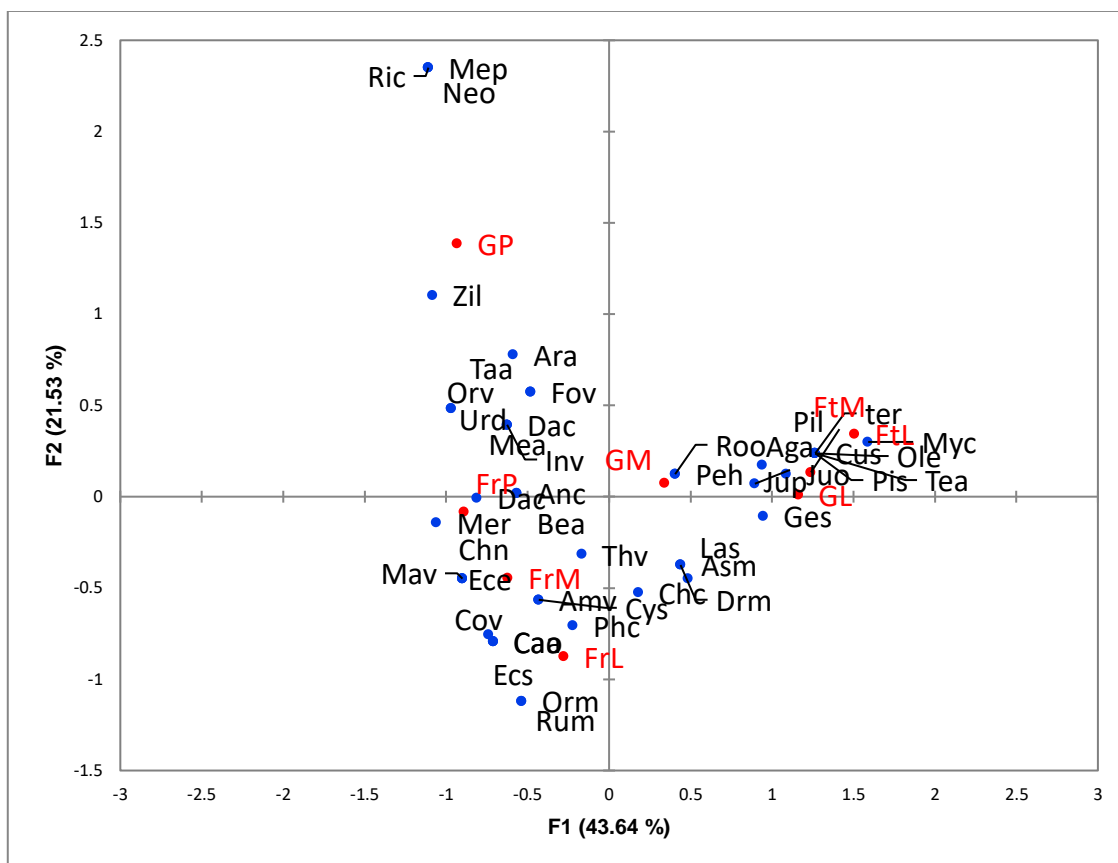
Distribution and correlation of pesticide plants through a CA

The presence-absence of pesticide plants in the different surveyed sites underwent a CA of which we only retained the results of the first two axes which represent 64.24% of inertia (Fig4). From this, it appears three distinct groups. The first group appears on the positive side of axis 1 and includes plants correlated with forest environments (FtM and FtL) and scrublands (GM and GL). These are *Myrtus communis* (Myc), *Tetraclinus articulate* (Tea), *Pinus sylvestris* (Pis), *Cupressus sempervirens* (Cus), *Pistacia lentiscus* (Pis), *Cupressus sempervirens* (Cus), *Pistacia lentiscus* (Pil), *Olea europea* (Ole), *Juniperus oxycedrus* (Juo), *Juniperus phoenicea* (Jup), *Agave americana* (Aga), *Rosmarinus officinalis* (Roo) et *Peganum harmala* (Peh). The second group represents the plant species correlated exclusively with scrubland environments. This has been individualized on the positive side of axis 2. These are *Mentha pulegium* (Mep), *Nerium oleander* (Neo), *Ricinus communis* (Ric), *Ziziphus lotus* (Zil), *Artemisia absinthium* (Ara), *Foeniculum vulgare* (Fov), *Tamarix aphylla* (Taa), *Urtica dioica* (Urd), *Daucus carota* (Dac), *Origanum vulgare* (Orv), *Inula viscosa* (Inv), *Mercurialis annua* (Mea) and *Daucus crinitus* (Dar). The third group appeared on the negative side of axis 2 and concerns plants correlated with wastelands. These plants are *Origanum majorana* (Orm), *Calendula arvensis* (Caa), *Ruta montana* (Rum), *Echinops spinosus* (Ecs), *Cymbopogon shoenanthes* (Cys), *Calendula officinalis* (Cao), *Chamaemelum nobile* (Chn), *Colocynthis vulgaris* (Cov), *Phlomis crinite* (Phc),



Chrysanthemum cinerariifolium (Chc), *Lavandula stoechas* (Las), *Ecballium elaterium* (Ece), *Ammoides verticillata* (Amv), *Marrubium vulgare* (Mav), *Mentha*

rotundifolia (Mer), *Asphodelus microcarpus* (Asm), *Thymus vulgaris* (Thv), and *Bellis annua* (Bea).



FrP: Scrubland plain, FrM: Scrubland mountain, FrL: Scrubland Coastal

FtP: Forest plain, FtM: Forest mountain, FtL: Forest Coasta

GP: wasteland plain, GM: wasteland mountain GL: wasteland Coastal

Fig 4: Correlations of pesticidal plants - environments through CA

4. Discussion

The number of pesticide plants inventoried in the study area indicates a significant richness and diversity. In Algeria, no study has been devoted to the census of pesticide plants, but some attempts to know the aromatic and medicinal plants have been undertaken in some regions of the country such as those of Belouad (1998) and Kazi tani & Dali yahia (2020). An ethnobotanical study conducted in the southeast of Chlef allowed the determination of 84 spontaneous medicinal species (Maamar Sameut *et al.*, 2020). In West Africa, Yarou *et al* (2017) cited 23 plants used to

control arthropod pests of vegetable crops and 14 plants used against fungi and nematodes.

From a systematic point of view, this pesticide flora is dominated by Lamiaceae and Asteraceae, and a little less by Apiaceae and Cupressaceae. A study of medicinal and aromatic plants in the same study area revealed the dominance of the families of Lamiaceae and Asteraceae (Maamar Sameut *et al.*, 2020). It is worth noting that these two botanical families are commonly associated with Mediterranean regions (Johnson, *et al.*, 2008).

These plants produce active substances with insecticidal, antiseptic, or plant and insect growth



regulating properties. Most often, these active substances are secondary metabolites that originally protected plants from herbivores. These substances are largely located in the leaves and flowers. Plant pesticide extracts are less dangerous than synthetic pesticides and can have comparable efficacy in some conditions. They differ from them by their rapid decomposition and low polluting effect (Yarou *et al.*, 2017). The use of certain biopesticides in rotation or in combination with other biopesticides or with chemical products can help reduce the amount of chemical inputs, as well as the emergence of new strains resistant to pests (Xu *et al.*, 2011).

The pesticide plants in the Chlef region are dominated by therophytes, and much less by hemicryptophytes, chamaephytes, and phanerophytes. Maamar Sameut *et al.* (2020) noted that spontaneous medicinal and aromatic plants in the Chlef region are also dominated by therophytes and hemicryptophytes (27.38%) against 23.81% for phanerophytes and only 13.10 and 8.33% for chamaephytes and geophytes, respectively. Therophytes are considered a form that is resistant to drought and high temperatures in arid and semi-arid zones; they also adapt to winter cold and environmental disturbances due to grazing and cultivation (Kerzabi *et al.*, 2011), while Aidoud (1983) reports that in the Algerian high plateaus the increase in therophytes is directly related to a gradient of increasing aridity.

Biological types are morphological characteristics that allow plants to adapt to the environments in which they live (Dajoz, 1977). However, they express the form presented by plants in an environment without taking into account their systematic affiliation and translate a biology and a certain adaptation to the environment (Barry, 1988).

Overall, this distribution of biological types reflects the adaptation of plants to environmental conditions and survival strategies. The abundance of therophytes and hemicryptophytes can be associated with disturbed habitats or short life cycles, while the presence of chamaephytes and phanerophytes may indicate an adaptation to more rigorous and stable conditions. This understanding of biological types contributes to the knowledge of the structure and dynamics of plant communities in the ecosystem under study.

The results of species frequency reveal interesting variations in the distribution of plant species. Thus, some species are specific to certain zones (coastal,

plain, or mountain) or stations (wasteland, scrubland or Forest), while others are present in a more or less uniform manner.

Forested areas include fewer plant species, but their frequencies (coverage rate) are very high, given the nature and architecture of the plants present there (trees) such as *Eucalyptus globulus* and *Pinus sylvestris*. According to Johnson *et al.* (2008), the first species is adapted to hot and dry climates and frequents plains and regions with moderate precipitation, while the second species is adapted to mountain climates. These two forest plants have a bioinsecticidal effect against *Myzus persicae* (Oulebsir Mohand-Kaci *et al.*, 2015) and a biofungicidal effect against *Botrytis cinerea* (Capieau *et al.*, 2004), respectively.

In contrast to forests, wastelands and scrublands areas are composed mainly of herbaceous plants or at least a few shrubs, which are numerous but have low coverage. Among the abundant plants in these environments, we noted *Anacyclus clavatus*, whose insecticidal effect has been proven against *Tribolium castaneum* (Maria *et al.*, 1999), as well as *Lavandula stoechas* having a biocidal effect against *Aphis spiraeicola* and *Tuta absoluta* (Amara *et al.*, 2020) as well as certain insects of stored products, including *Rhizopertha dominica* and *Tribolium castaneum* (Ncibi, 2020).

The variations in the frequencies of pesticide plants from one area to another can be influenced by environmental factors, interactions between species and their habitat, as well as anthropogenic factors such as human activity (Anderson, 2016).

The correspondence factor analysis allowed us to identify among the pesticide plants found in the study area the forest species, those in scrublands and those in fallows, although it is difficult to attribute a plant species to a single environment. Forest species can be found in more open environments and vice versa. Significant correlations are noted between forest plants and those in scrubland. Hakou (2023) noted that about 80% of the forest plants in the Rabat region (Morocco) are aromatic and medicinal. These plants, which in most cases have a pesticide effect on herbivores and other phytopathogenic agents, can be used in biological crop protection. In general, it is important to continue research efforts in Algeria and elsewhere to understand pesticide plants and explore their potential as alternatives to chemical pesticides. Such studies could



provide valuable information for sustainable agriculture, environmental protection, and human health.

Conclusion

Algeria is debatably the country with the most to gain from developing natural plant-based pesticides. This study allowed us to identify 47 species with pesticidal properties have been quantified from Chlef region. These plants are distributed over 21 different botanical families; the most represented being the Lamiaceae and Asteraceae. They are dominated by therophytes, followed by hemicryptophytes, then chamaephytes and phanerophytes. Forested areas are characterized by a small number of plant species, but their frequencies or coverage rates are very high, in contrast to wastelands and scrublands where plants are numerous but with low frequencies.

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