

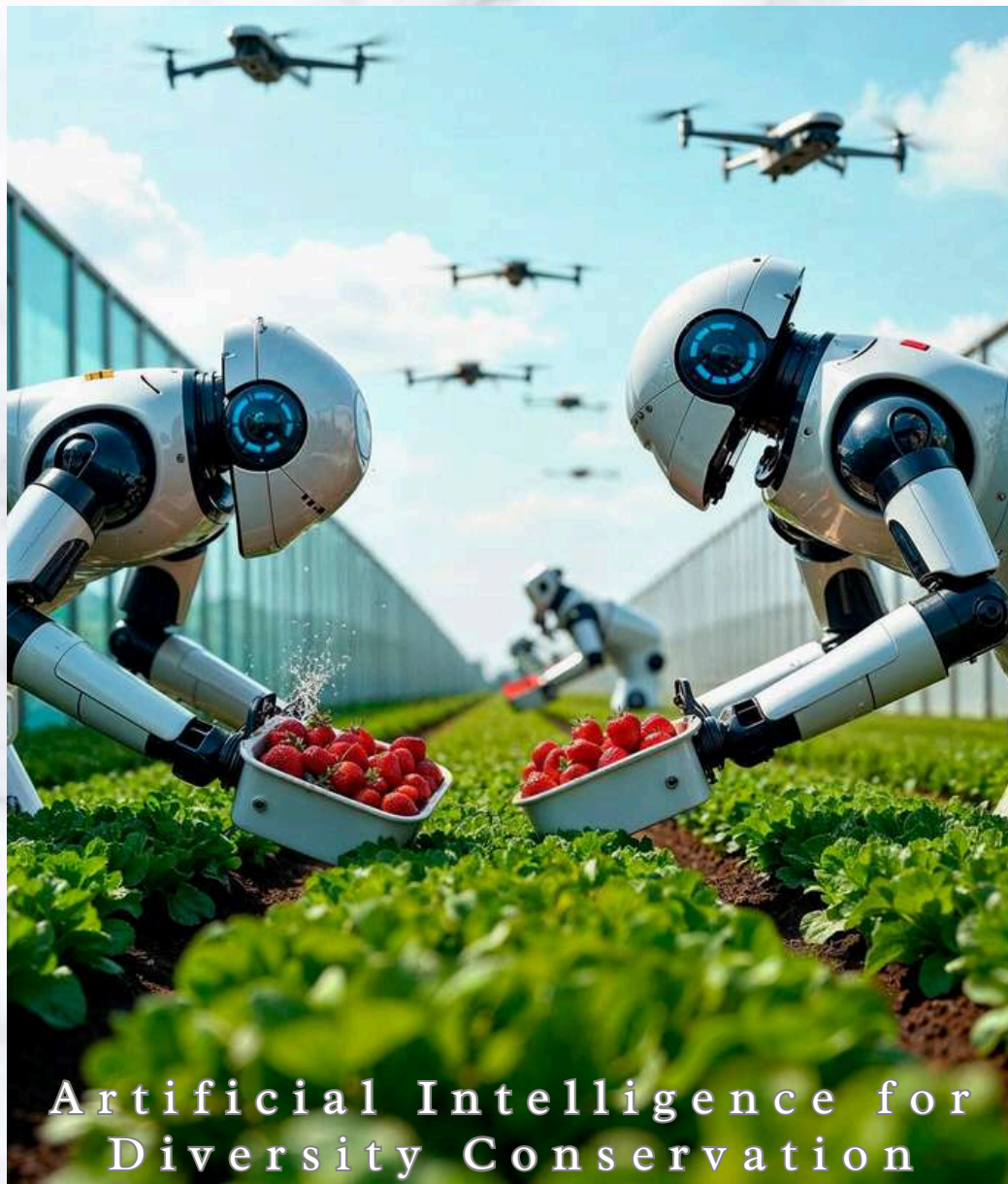


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A STEP TOWARDS AGRICULTURE

Agri Roots e-Magazine



Artificial Intelligence for
Diversity Conservation

“Empowering diversity conservation
for sustainable horticultural crops.”

NOVEMBER 2025

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“ARTIFICIAL
INTELLIGENCE:
EMPOWERING
DIVERSITY
CONSERVATION FOR
SUSTAINABLE
HORTICULTURAL
CROPS.”

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from the editor

Horticultural crops form a vital component of global agriculture, contributing not only to food and nutritional security but also to economic development and ecological stability. However, the genetic diversity of these crops is under increasing threat due to habitat loss, climate change, and the over-dependence on a few high-yielding varieties. In this context, Artificial Intelligence (AI) has emerged as a powerful tool for the conservation and sustainable utilization of horticultural crop diversity.

AI technologies such as machine learning, deep learning, and computer vision are revolutionizing the way genetic resources are identified, catalogued, and managed. Through predictive analytics, AI can help in mapping crop diversity, identifying rare or endangered germplasm, and forecasting genetic erosion risks under changing climatic conditions. Moreover, AI-driven image analysis and phenotyping tools enable precise characterization of germplasm, facilitating the development of digital gene banks and improved breeding programs.

By integrating AI with genomics, remote sensing, and data analytics, researchers and policymakers can make informed decisions to preserve valuable genetic traits, ensure resilience against pests and diseases, and enhance climate adaptability. Ultimately, AI is not just a technological innovation—it is a strategic ally in safeguarding horticultural biodiversity for future generations.

As we advance into an era of smart agriculture, embracing AI-driven approaches for diversity conservation will be key to maintaining the rich genetic heritage of horticultural crops and ensuring sustainable productivity in the years to come.

Dr. Deepak Kumar
FOUNDER & EDITOR



EXPLORING KNOWLEDGE & DISCOVERING AGRICULTURE



AGRI ROOTS E-MAGAZINE

Artificial Intelligence for Diversity Conservation of Horticultural Crops

ARTICLE ID: 0274

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Horticultural crop diversity is vital for food security, economic stability, and nutrition but faces threats from climate change, habitat loss, and reliance on few high-yield varieties. Traditional conservation methods are labor-intensive and inefficient. This paper explores how artificial intelligence (AI)—through computer vision, machine learning, and natural language processing—enhances crop diversity conservation via automated trait measurement, predictive genotype-phenotype modeling, and improved *ex situ* and *in situ* management. It also examines challenges like data quality and explainable AI. Overall, AI offers transformative potential to make conservation more efficient, scalable, and precise, supporting a resilient and sustainable agricultural future.

Horticultural crops, encompassing fruits, vegetables, ornamentals, and spices, are vital for human nutrition, economic development, and cultural heritage. Their genetic diversity, a product of centuries of natural and human selection, underpins their ability to adapt to changing environments, resist pests and diseases, and provide a wide array of desirable traits. However,

this invaluable diversity is increasingly threatened by factors such as habitat loss, the spread of uniform high-yielding varieties, and the impacts of climate change (Laraswati *et al.*, 2021).

Traditional methods of diversity conservation, including *ex situ* conservation in gene banks and *in situ* conservation on farms and in the wild, are essential but can be resource-intensive and time-consuming. The advent of artificial intelligence (AI) offers powerful



new tools and approaches to enhance the efficiency and effectiveness of these efforts. AI, with its ability to analyze large datasets, identify complex patterns, and automate tasks, holds immense potential for revolutionizing how we understand, manage, and conserve the genetic resources of horticultural crops (Vardhan et al., 2025). This review paper aims to provide a comprehensive overview of the current applications of AI in diversity conservation of horticultural crops, highlighting its key contributions, challenges, and future prospects.

Application of AI in Horticulture

Horticultural operations are arduous and expensive and it is challenging to get and retain the labor force in this sector. The use of robots, drones, and automated systems is the future when it comes to enhancing efficiency and productivity within the horticulture industry. Some of the important uses of AI in horticulture are as:-

Disease Diagnosis

Pre-processing of the image ensures the leaf images are segmented into areas like background, non-diseased part, and diseased part. The diseased portion is then trimmed and sent to remote labs for further diagnosis. It also helps in pest identification, nutrient deficiency recognition, and recommendations on disease diagnosis on a real-time basis. By this, there is a reduction in pesticide losses which also leads to reducing the contamination of the soil and groundwater as well as the chances of pesticide residues in the human food system. This also helps farmers to overcome the labor challenge.

Produce Maturity Identification

Images of different crops under white/UV-A light are captured to determine the proper stage of maturity of fruits. Farmers can create different maturity grades based on the crop/fruit category and add them into separate stacks before sending them to the market, especially in the case of highly perishable horticulture crops, and harvesting at proper maturity will enhance post-harvest shelf life.

Field Management

Using high-definition images from airborne systems (drones or copters), real-time estimates can be made during the cultivation period by creating a field map and identifying spots where crops need water, fertilizer, or pesticides. This will sustain resource optimization up to a great extent.

Automation Systems in Irrigation

The smart Irrigation system is an Internet of things (IoT) based instrument which can automate the irrigation process by analyzing the moisture status of soil and the weather parameters. Irrigation is one of the most labor-intensive processes in farming which can be avoided by artificial intelligence because it is aware of historical weather patterns, soil quality, and the type of crops to be grown. Automated irrigation systems are designed to utilize real-time devices which can constantly maintain desired soil conditions to increase water use efficiency and average returns. With close to 70% of the world's freshwater being used in irrigation, automation can help farmers better manage these problems, and the objective of more crops per drop can be fulfilled.

Grading of Fruits

The use of image processing for the grading of fruits has increased in recent years. Grading is an important step in the post-harvest process and involves the categorization of fruits, with consideration of the severity of the disease, defects, and contamination on fruits. Manually grading fruits is time taking and unreliable process. Consequently, it is needful to adopt the automated faster system in this regard. One such

reliable method is the automatic image processing technique for sorting and grading of fruits.

AI Techniques for Diversity Assessment and Characterization

One of the fundamental steps in diversity conservation is the accurate assessment and characterization of genetic resources. AI techniques are playing a significant role in improving the precision and scale of these processes.

Applications of AI in Horticultural Crop Diversity Conservation

Application	AI Technique	Example Crop	Out come
Variety classification	CNN	Mango	95% accuracy in identification
Disease detection	Hyperspectral + ML	Banana	Early black sigatoka detection
Climate suitability	RNN	Grapevine	Adaptation prediction for 2050
Trait phenotyping	Drone + DL	Tomato	Automated height & yield data

Computer Vision for Phenotyping

Computer vision, a field of AI that enables computers to "see" and interpret images, is being increasingly used for high-throughput phenotyping of horticultural crops. This involves the automated measurement of various morphological and physiological traits from images captured in the field, greenhouses, or laboratories (Choudhury et al., 2019).

Computer vision can be trained to automatically identify and classify different flower and fruit types, stages of development, and even detect defects or diseases based on visual characteristics. This is crucial for germplasm characterization and quality control (Dhiman & Singh, 2025).

Leaf Area and Shape Analysis

AI algorithms can analyze leaf images to extract quantitative data on leaf area, perimeter, shape, and other morphological parameters, providing valuable information for distinguishing between different genotypes and assessing their growth and development.

Plant Growth Monitoring

Time-series image analysis using AI can track plant growth patterns, canopy cover, and biomass accumulation, providing insights into the performance of different genotypes under various environmental conditions.

Machine Learning for Genotype-Phenotype Association

Machine learning (ML) algorithms can analyze large genomic and phenotypic datasets to identify complex

Flower and Fruit Recognition

relationships between genes and observable traits. This is crucial for understanding the genetic basis of diversity and for predicting the performance of different genotypes (Saiwa, 2024).

Genome-Wide Association Studies (GWAS): ML techniques can enhance the power of GWAS by identifying subtle but significant associations between genetic markers and phenotypic traits relevant to adaptation, quality, or resistance.

Predictive Breeding: By integrating genomic and phenotypic data with ML models, breeders can predict the performance of offspring and make more informed decisions in breeding programs aimed at conserving and enhancing desirable traits. This approach has the potential to reduce breeding timelines by up to 70% (Farmonaut, 2024).

Germplasm Classification and Clustering: ML algorithms can analyze genetic and phenotypic data to group accessions based on their similarity, helping to identify core collections and minimize redundancy in gene banks.

traits from diverse textual sources, such as gene bank databases, research publications, and farmer knowledge.

Automated Annotation: NLP techniques can automatically extract and standardize trait information from textual descriptions, facilitating the creation of comprehensive and searchable germplasm databases.

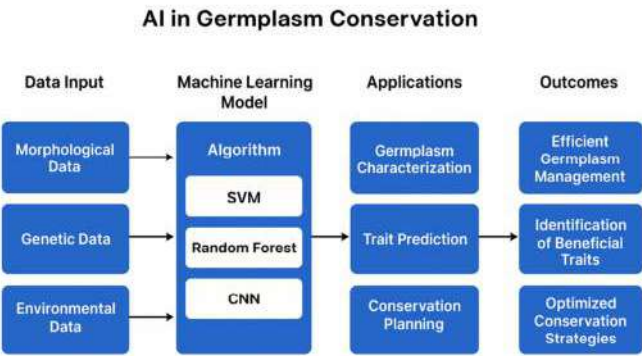
Knowledge Discovery: By analyzing large volumes of text, NLP can identify novel associations between genes, traits, and environmental factors, contributing to a deeper understanding of crop diversity.

AI for Conservation Management

Beyond assessment and characterization, AI can also play a vital role in the active management of horticultural crop diversity.

Precision Conservation in *In Situ* Settings

AI-powered tools can improve the efficiency and effectiveness of *in situ* conservation efforts by providing detailed information about the distribution, health, and threats to wild relatives and landraces of horticultural crops (Choudhury *et al.*, 2021).



Species Distribution Modeling: ML algorithms can integrate environmental data with species occurrence records to predict the potential distribution of target species and identify priority areas for conservation.

Natural Language Processing for Trait Information Extraction

Natural language processing (NLP) can be used to extract valuable information about horticultural crop

Habitat Monitoring: Remote sensing data analyzed with AI can monitor habitat changes, deforestation, and other threats to *in situ* populations, enabling timely intervention.

Threat Detection: Computer vision can be used to detect signs of pests, diseases, or invasive species that may threaten the diversity of horticultural crops in their natural habitats (Afzaal *et al.*, 2021).

Optimizing *Ex Situ* Gene Bank Management

AI can enhance the efficiency and cost-effectiveness of *ex situ* conservation in gene banks.

Automated Seed Quality Assessment: Computer vision and ML can be used to automate the assessment of seed viability, vigor, and health, reducing the need for manual inspection (Mahato *et al.*, 2025).

Inventory Management: AI-powered systems can optimize the storage and retrieval of germplasm accessions, ensuring efficient management of large collections.

Regeneration Prioritization: ML algorithms can analyze data on germplasm viability and genetic diversity to prioritize accessions for regeneration, maximizing the conservation of valuable genetic resources.

Challenges and Future Directions

While the application of AI in horticultural crop diversity conservation holds great promise, there are several challenges that need to be addressed. These include the need for large, high-quality datasets, the development of robust and generalizable AI models, and the integration of AI tools into existing conservation workflows (Tao *et al.*, 2022).

Future Research Should Focus on

Developing Explainable AI (XAI): Making AI models more transparent and interpretable will increase trust and facilitate their adoption by conservation practitioners.

Integrating Multi-Modal Data: Combining data from genomics, phenomics, remote sensing, and other sources will lead to a more holistic understanding of crop diversity.

Developing User-Friendly AI Tools: Creating accessible and user-friendly AI platforms and applications will empower a wider range of stakeholders to utilize these technologies.

Addressing Ethical Considerations: Ensuring data privacy, equitable access to AI tools, and responsible use of AI in conservation are crucial.

Conclusion

Artificial intelligence is rapidly emerging as a powerful tool for enhancing the conservation of horticultural crop diversity. By enabling more efficient and accurate assessment, characterization, and management of plant genetic resources, AI can significantly contribute to safeguarding this invaluable heritage for future generations. Continued research, development, and collaboration among AI experts, plant scientists, and conservation practitioners are essential to fully realize the transformative potential of AI in ensuring food security, agricultural sustainability, and the preservation of our planet's rich biodiversity.

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Beyond the Internet: Why Community Radio Still Matters in Rural Development

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How Community Radio is Transforming Rural India

In a world full of 5G networks and AI-driven tools, it's easy to forget that large parts of rural India still face electricity cuts, poor internet, and digital illiteracy. In these regions, community radio (CR) has emerged as a powerful, low-cost, and hyperlocal solution—not just to share information, but to solve real-world problems for farmers, women, and marginalized communities. UNESCO. (2022) From broadcasting mandi prices and weather alerts to giving women a voice in decision-making, CR is filling crucial gaps where other systems fail.

1. Farming Smarter with Local Knowledge

Climate change is making farming riskier every year. Irregular rainfall, pests, and declining soil health are now everyday challenges. CR stations act like village-

level agri-extension hubs, broadcasting timely and trusted information in local dialects.

- Radio Mewat (Haryana) runs *Kheti Ki Baat*, where agri-experts provide weather alerts, seasonal



sowing tips, and pest control advice. Local farmer Saroj Devi shared how a rain alert helped her delay sowing by three days—saving her wheat crop from heavy losses Chand (2018).

- In Tamil Nadu, Kalanjiam Samuga Vanoli partners with Tamil Nadu Agricultural University to give live plant health consultations. Farmers call in to describe pest symptoms and get real-time organic solutions that are cost-effective and locally available.
- Ujas Radio (Gujarat) serves tribal farmers in Dahod and Panchmahal districts. When locust swarms were spotted nearby in 2022, the station broadcast a locust alert every 15 minutes. Farmers used nets and

smoke as suggested—and saved entire fields from being eaten overnight.

- These aren't just broadcasts—they're lifelines One World Foundation India. (2020).

2. Cutting out Middlemen: Fair Prices for Hard Work

One of the biggest challenges Indian farmers face is lack of access to market information. Without knowing the current rates, they often sell produce to middlemen at throwaway prices.



- Radio Namaskar (Odisha) started broadcasting daily mandi prices in and around Ganjam district. Farmers began coordinating sales in groups, and over time, many reported earning ₹8,000–₹12,000 more per season just by choosing better market days CRFC (2014).
- Sangham Radio (Telangana), one of India's first community radios run by rural women, shares market trends and helps tribal farmers avoid exploitation. They also host role-play skits on how to bargain effectively—a method that resonates with low-literacy audiences.

3. Empowering Rural Women—One Voice at a Time

In many rural areas, women work from dawn to dusk in the fields but remain invisible in decisions about

farming, money, or family welfare. Community radio is changing that—by giving women space to speak, share, and lead.



- Alfaz-e-Mewat (Haryana) trains women as on-air reporters and producers. Their program *Chhorion ki Chhap* features girls interviewing local women entrepreneurs and grandmothers sharing seed-saving traditions. It's building pride and rewriting gender norms.
- In Madhya Pradesh, Radio Bundelkhand runs a WhatsApp service where rural women can send questions—often about taboo topics like menstruation, domestic violence, or legal rights. The station answers them on air anonymously, providing access without stigma.
- Ujas Radio's toll-free helpline has become a lifeline for tribal women. They ask about everything from goat-rearing to widow pensions. Trained volunteers even follow up to connect them with government schemes or veterinary support.

By hearing voices like theirs on air, rural women begin to believe that their opinions and experiences matter.

4. Why Community Radio Still Wins in the Digital Age

You'd think that with YouTube, WhatsApp, and agri-apps, radio would be obsolete. But in rural India, community radio often outperforms digital tools—

especially when it comes to accessibility, trust, and relevance.

Affordability: A battery-powered radio costs less than ₹200 and lasts for years—no need for smartphones or mobile data.

Trust and Familiarity: Unlike social media, where misinformation spreads easily, community radio stations are run by locals for locals. The language, culture, and accent match the listener, building instant trust.

Resilience: During Assam's 2023 floods, when mobile towers collapsed, Radio Brahmaputra continued broadcasting safety instructions, rescue alerts, and medical help—powered by backup batteries and sheer determination The Wire. (2023).

Hybrid Innovation: Stations like CGNet Swara (Chhattisgarh) blend traditional radio with mobile tech. Jha, A. (2021) Farmers can leave a voice message describing a crop issue. The solution is broadcast back the next day, creating an interactive, two-way platform.

The Future: What Needs to Happen Next

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India has over 4,000 viable community radio license zones, but less than 350 stations are operational. Ministry of Information and Broadcasting (India). (2022). To scale this powerful tool, we need:

- Simplified licensing and funding support for NGOs and farmer groups to start community radio stations.
- Public-private partnerships with agri-tech startups and Krishi Vigyan Kendras (KVKs) to deliver expert content.
- Dedicated slots for women's voices, youth programs, and tribal dialects to make radio even more inclusive.

Conclusion

Community radio isn't about flashy tech—it's about real people, speaking real language, solving real problems. In a world obsessed with going digital, community radio reminds us that connection is more powerful than bandwidth. From saving crops to amplifying women's voices, India's community radios are proving that sometimes, the oldest technology can still create the most revolutionary change.

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Use of Botanical Pesticides in Pest Control

ARTICLE ID: 0276

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Botanical pesticides are naturally occurring, plant-derived substances used to control pests. They are considered safer, eco-friendly, and biodegradable alternatives to synthetic chemical pesticides. This article presents an expanded discussion on the importance, types, mode of action, examples, advantages, limitations, and future prospects of botanical pesticides.

1. Introduction

Pesticides have been widely used in agriculture to manage pests, but the overuse of chemical pesticides has led to environmental pollution, pest resistance, and health hazards. Botanical pesticides offer a sustainable alternative. Their historical use dates back centuries when farmers relied on plant extracts like neem, derris, and tobacco for pest control. Today, renewed interest in these products aligns with organic farming practices.

2. Definition

Botanical pesticides are substances extracted from plants (leaves, seeds, roots, stems) that possess

insecticidal, fungicidal, nematocidal, or repellent properties.

They may be used directly as crude extracts or in refined formulations.

3. Importance of Botanical Pesticides

- Environmentally friendly and biodegradable
- Low toxicity to non-target organisms
- Reduced chances of pest resistance
- Promote organic farming and sustainable agriculture
- Often locally available and cost-effective
- Compatible with beneficial insects such as pollinators

4. Types of Botanical Pesticides

- a) Neem-based products (*Azadirachta indica*)
- b) Pyrethrum (*Chrysanthemum cinerariaefolium*)
- c) Rotenone (*Derris* spp.)
- d) Nicotine (*Nicotiana tabacum*)
- e) Essential oils (lemongrass, clove, eucalyptus)
- f) Garlic and chili extracts (repellents)



g) Custard apple seed extracts (acetogenins with insecticidal effects)

5. Detailed Examples of Botanical Pesticides

a) Neem

- Source: Seeds and leaves of *Azadirachta indica*
- Active ingredients: Azadirachtin, nimbin
- Mode of action: Antifeedant, insect growth regulator, repellent, oviposition deterrent
- Uses: Effective against aphids, whiteflies, beetles, leaf miners, and caterpillars

b) Pyrethrum

- Derived from dried flowers of *Chrysanthemum cinerariaefolium*
- Contains pyrethrins that attack the nervous system of insects
- Rapid knockdown effect on flies, mosquitoes, and stored-grain pests
- Low mammalian toxicity, making it safe for humans

c) Rotenone

- Extracted from roots of *Derris* spp. and *Lonchocarpus* spp.
- Effective against beetles, caterpillars, and aphids
- Biodegradable with short residual effect
- Used in organic farming for soil-dwelling pests

d) Nicotine

- Obtained from *Nicotiana tabacum* (tobacco)
- Acts as a contact and stomach poison
- Highly toxic to insects but less persistent in the environment
- Historically used but declining due to mammalian toxicity

e) Essential Oils

- Oils from plants such as lemongrass, clove, eucalyptus, and citronella act as repellents
- Used in stored grain pest management and as household repellents
- Work by interfering with insect nervous systems and respiration

6. Mode of Action of Botanical Pesticides

Antifeedant: Reduces feeding of insects

Repellent: Keeps insects away from crops

Insect Growth Regulator: Affects molting and reproduction

Contact Poison: Kills insects on contact

Respiratory Inhibitor: Blocks oxygen uptake in pests (e.g., rotenone)

7. Advantages of Botanical Pesticides

- Eco-friendly and biodegradable
- Safe for beneficial insects and humans
- Can be prepared locally by farmers
- Integrates well with other pest management strategies
- Lower risk of residue accumulation in food products
- Lower production cost in developing countries

8. Limitations of Botanical Pesticides

- Short shelf life
- Need for frequent application
- Sometimes less effective than synthetic pesticides
- Variability in active ingredient concentration due to plant source differences
- Limited availability of commercial formulations in some regions

9. Integrated Pest Management (IPM) and Botanical Pesticides

Botanical pesticides are an important component of Integrated Pest Management (IPM) programs. They can be combined with cultural, mechanical, and biological control methods to achieve effective pest control. For example, Neem Seed Kernel Extract (NSKE) is widely used in the IPM of rice, cotton, and vegetable crops.

10. Future Prospects

- Development of new formulations with improved efficacy and stability
- Increased adoption in organic farming systems

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- Greater research into unexplored plant species
- Standardization and commercialization of traditional plant-based pest remedies
- Use of nanotechnology to enhance delivery of botanical active ingredients

11. Conclusion

Botanical pesticides provide a sustainable and eco-friendly solution for pest management. With proper research, formulation, and integration into IPM programs, they can replace or reduce the use of hazardous chemical pesticides. Their role in organic farming and residue-free food production is vital for the future of sustainable agriculture.

Pumpkin Seed Oil: A Biochemical Perspective

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Pumpkin seed oil (PSO), derived from the seeds of *Cucurbita pepo* L. and related species, is a dark green to reddish oil widely valued for its nutritional and medicinal properties. Traditionally used in Central Europe and parts of Asia, PSO has gained attention for its unique biochemical profile, rich in unsaturated fatty acids, antioxidants, phytosterols, and bioactive compounds. The biochemical constituents of PSO are responsible for its diverse biological activities, including antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, hypolipidemic, and antiandrogenic effects.

2. Chemical Composition

2.1 Fatty Acid Profile

Pumpkin seed oil is primarily composed of triacylglycerols (TAGs) — esters of glycerol and fatty acids. The typical fatty acid composition (approximate percentages) is:

Fatty Acid	Type	Percentage (%)
Linoleic acid (C18:2, ω -6)	Polyunsaturated	40–55

Oleic acid (C18:1, ω -9)	Monounsaturated	25–40
Palmitic acid (C16:0)	Saturated	10–15
Stearic acid (C18:0)	Saturated	5–10

This high proportion of unsaturated fatty acids



contributes to the oil's fluidity and biological activity. Linoleic acid, an essential fatty acid, plays a key role in maintaining cell membrane integrity

and regulating eicosanoid synthesis.

2.2 Minor Lipid Constituents

- **Phytosterols:** β -sitosterol, stigmasterol, and Δ 7-avenasterol are major sterols found in PSO, making up 1–2% of the oil. These sterols structurally resemble cholesterol and competitively inhibit intestinal cholesterol absorption.
- **Tocopherols and Tocotrienols:** Vitamin E compounds, particularly γ -tocopherol, dominate in PSO. They act as potent lipid-soluble antioxidants

that protect unsaturated fatty acids from peroxidation.

- **Carotenoids:** Lutein and β -carotene contribute to the oil's dark color and antioxidant capacity.
- **Squalene:** A triterpene hydrocarbon that serves as a precursor in cholesterol biosynthesis and a scavenger of singlet oxygen.

3. Biochemical Metabolism and Function

3.1 Absorption and Metabolism

After ingestion, triacylglycerols from PSO are emulsified by bile salts in the small intestine and hydrolyzed by pancreatic lipase into free fatty acids and monoacylglycerols. These are absorbed into enterocytes, re-esterified, and packaged into chylomicrons for transport via the lymphatic system.

Linoleic acid (ω -6) can be desaturated and elongated in the liver to form arachidonic acid, a precursor for eicosanoids such as prostaglandins and leukotrienes. Oleic acid (ω -9) contributes to membrane fluidity and can modulate lipoprotein metabolism by influencing the ratio of LDL to HDL cholesterol.

3.2 Antioxidant Biochemistry

The high γ -tocopherol and carotenoid content allows PSO to act as a potent scavenger of reactive oxygen species (ROS). These antioxidants prevent lipid peroxidation of cell membranes and plasma lipoproteins. The tocopherols donate a hydrogen atom to lipid radicals ($\text{LOO}\bullet$), converting them into stable lipid hydroperoxides (LOOH) while forming relatively stable tocopheroxyl radicals, which can be regenerated by ascorbate or glutathione.

4. Physiological and Biochemical Effects

4.1 Cardiovascular Health

- **Hypocholesterolemic Effect:** Phytosterols reduce intestinal cholesterol absorption.
- **Lipid Profile Regulation:** Oleic and linoleic acids improve plasma lipid profiles by decreasing LDL and increasing HDL concentrations.
- **Antioxidant Protection:** Tocopherols inhibit oxidative modification of LDL, a key step in atherogenesis.

4.2 Prostate and Urinary Function

PSO exhibits antiandrogenic activity due to inhibition of 5α -reductase, the enzyme that converts testosterone to dihydrotestosterone (DHT). This mechanism underlies its use in benign prostatic hyperplasia (BPH). Additionally, zinc and phytosterols contribute to the modulation of prostate metabolism.

4.3 Anti-Inflammatory Activity

Linoleic acid-derived eicosanoids can exhibit both pro- and anti-inflammatory effects. However, the balance between ω -6 and ω -3 fatty acids determines the overall inflammatory response. PSO's antioxidants and sterols modulate cytokine signaling pathways, reducing markers such as $\text{TNF-}\alpha$ and IL-6.

4.4 Hepatoprotective and Antidiabetic Actions

Experimental studies indicate that PSO may reduce hepatic lipid peroxidation and improve antioxidant enzyme activities (superoxide dismutase, catalase, glutathione peroxidase). Additionally, its unsaturated fatty acids improve insulin sensitivity and modulate glucose metabolism.

5. Oxidative Stability and Biochemical Degradation

Due to its high degree of unsaturation, PSO is susceptible to oxidation when exposed to light, heat, or oxygen. Oxidative degradation proceeds through free

radical chain reactions, forming hydroperoxides and aldehydes. Tocopherols and carotenoids serve as intrinsic protectants, but storage in dark, airtight containers at low temperatures is essential to maintain biochemical integrity.

6. Conclusion

From a biochemical standpoint, pumpkin seed oil represents a complex mixture of bioactive lipids and

antioxidants with significant physiological importance. Its unsaturated fatty acids, phytosterols, and tocopherols confer benefits on cardiovascular, prostate, and metabolic health through well-characterized molecular pathways. Further biochemical and clinical studies continue to elucidate its mechanisms, making PSO both a valuable dietary component and a potential nutraceutical agent.

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Life Cycle of Aphids and Their Damage Pattern

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Aphids, also known as plant lice, are small soft-bodied insects that are among the most destructive pests of agricultural and horticultural crops. They belong to the family Aphididae under the order Hemiptera. Aphids are known for their rapid reproduction and ability to transmit plant diseases, making them a serious concern for farmers worldwide.

Life Cycle of Aphids

The life cycle of aphids is complex and varies depending on species and environmental conditions. They can reproduce both sexually and asexually through a process known as parthenogenesis.

- 1. Egg Stage:** The life cycle begins with the laying of eggs, usually on host plants during unfavorable conditions such as winter. The eggs are black and resistant to cold temperatures.
- 2. Nymph Stage:** When conditions become favorable, the eggs hatch into nymphs that resemble miniature

adults. Nymphs undergo four to five molts before becoming mature adults.

- 3. Adult Stage:** Adult aphids can be either wingless (apterous) or winged (alate). Winged forms appear



when the population becomes overcrowded or when food sources are scarce, helping the insects disperse to new plants.

- 4. Reproduction:** During the growing season, aphids reproduce asexually, giving birth to live young

(viviparity) without mating. Under ideal conditions, a single aphid can produce dozens of offspring in a short time, leading to exponential population growth.

Damage Pattern

Aphids cause both direct and indirect damage to plants:

1. Direct Damage

- Aphids feed on plant sap using their piercing and sucking mouthparts.

- This weakens the plant, causing yellowing, curling, and distortion of leaves.
- Heavy infestations can stunt plant growth and reduce yield.

2. Indirect Damage

- Aphids excrete a sugary substance called honeydew, which promotes the growth of sooty mold on plant surfaces, reducing photosynthesis.
- They also act as vectors for many viral diseases such as mosaic and leaf curl, which can severely affect crop productivity.

Management Practices

- **Cultural Control:** Removing weeds and alternate hosts.
- **Mechanical Control:** Spraying water jets to dislodge aphids.

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- **Biological Control:** Introducing natural enemies like ladybird beetles, lacewings, and parasitic wasps.
- **Chemical Control:** Use of selective insecticides (only when necessary) to minimize harm to beneficial insects.

Conclusion

Aphids are small but highly destructive pests that can cause significant agricultural losses. Understanding their life cycle and damage patterns is crucial for developing effective pest management strategies. Integrated Pest Management (IPM) approaches, combining biological, cultural, and chemical methods, offer the most sustainable solution for controlling aphid populations.

Roselle: The Red Wonder of Nature

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Roselle (*Hibiscus sabdariffa* L.) is a versatile annual or perennial shrub native to West Africa and widely cultivated in tropical and subtropical regions. Its bright red calyces are rich in antioxidants and used in beverages, jams, jellies and natural food colorants, while its stems provide valuable bast fibre for the textile and paper industries. Beyond its culinary uses, it has significant medicinal properties, including antimicrobial and antioxidant effects, making it valuable in traditional medicine. Due to growing demand in food, cosmetics, pharmaceuticals, and sustainable industries, roselle holds promising commercial potential. Advances in cultivation and processing are expected to enhance its market presence, positioning roselle as an important crop for health, industry and agriculture worldwide.

Introduction

Hibiscus sabdariffa L., commonly referred to as a roselle, is a fast growing annual or perennial shrub belonging to the Malvaceae family. Originally native to West Africa, roselle is now cultivated extensively

across tropical and subtropical regions including countries such as Sudan, China, Thailand, India, Mexico, Senegal and Jamaica. The plant thrives in warm climates with well-drained soils and can tolerate



drought, making it suitable for diverse agro ecological zones. Roselle is especially prized for its bright red, fleshy calyces which are harvested to produce a variety of products like refreshing beverages, jams, jellies and natural food colorants. These calyces are

rich in antioxidants and other beneficial compounds, driving growing interest in the health and wellness sectors globally. Alongside its culinary uses, roselle stems provide bast fibre which is utilized in textile and paper industries, enhancing the plant's economic importance. The global production of roselle is dominated by countries such as China and Thailand, known for their large-scale cultivation, while Sudan is recognized for producing the highest quality roselle, although in limited quantities. Roselle cultivation supports many small-scale farmers, particularly in developing nations. Additionally, various parts of

roselle including its leaves, seeds and calyces in traditional medicine for their antimicrobial, antihypertensive and antioxidant properties. Due to its multifaceted uses, adaptability to various environments and increasing demand in international markets, roselle holds a significant role in agriculture, nutrition and industry.

Plant description and ecology

Roselle is highly adaptable to different environmental conditions and is tolerant of high temperature during its growth and fruiting phases. It requires a warm climate with an annual rainfall of about 45-50cm distribution over a 90-120 day period to flourish. The plant has a deep taproot system and can reach approximately 3.5 meters in height with cylindrical dark green or reddish stems (Figure 3). Its leaves are alternate, varying from simple in young plants and upper leaves to deeply lobed with toothed margins in older and lower leaves (Figure 2). Flowers are borne singly in leaf axils, about 12.5 cm wide and turn pink as they wither (Figure 3). The fruit is velvety capsule that turns brown and splits when mature, containing light- brown, kidney-shaped seeds (Figure 4 and Figure 1). The plant typically takes 3-4 months to reach the commercial stage, after which the flowers are harvested (Shruthi *et al.*, 2016)



Figure 1: Seeds



Figure 2: Leaves



Figure 3: Stem and Flower



Figure 4: Capsule

Nutritional value

- The seeds of Roselle are packed with protein and healthy fats, providing important nutrients and energy.
- The leaves contain protein, provides, vitamin A and B and fibre, which help with digestion and nutrition.
- Roselle calyces are a good source of vitamin C, calcium, potassium and antioxidants, all of which help strengthen the immune system and support overall health.

Industrial importance of Roselle

1. Food and Beverage Industry

- i. **Roselle Juice:** the calyces provide a safe, bright red colour for food and drinks without synthetic dyes (Salami & Afolayan, 2020).
- ii. **Jam and Jellies:** Roselle calyces are cooked with sugar to make sour and tasty jams and jellies (Ochelle *et al.*, 2024).
- iii. **Herbal Teas:** Dried calyces are brewed to create tangy herbal teas with antioxidant benefits (Nguyen & Chuyen, 2020).

2. Cosmetic Industry

- I. Roselle extract and powder are used in creams, soaps, facial masks, shampoos and conditioners for their rejuvenating and cleansing effects.

- II. The high anthocyanin content gives roselle a deep red colour, making it a safe and effective natural colorant for lip balms, soaps and organic makeup products (Ariestanti *et al.*, 2023).

3. Fibre Industry

- I. The fibres are strong and shiny and it is used as an eco-friendly replacement for jute.
- II. It is commonly used into making items like sacks, ropes, carpets, upholstery, packing materials and paper (Akubueze *et al.*, 2019).

4. Pharmaceutical Industry

- I. Roselle seeds, leaves and calyces possess bioactive compounds like phenolic, flavonoids, tocopherols and organic acids with health benefits (Hassoon *et al.*, 2023)
- II. Seed oil rich in linoleic and oleic acids is used in functional foods and offers therapeutic properties.

Future prospects

The roselle market is poised for substantial growth in the coming years, driven by rising global demand for natural and health-enhancing products. Its wide-

ranging applications in food, beverages, cosmetics and pharmaceuticals contribute to this expanding market potential. Additionally, the plant's recognized antioxidant and cardiovascular benefits further solidify its position in the health and wellness sectors. Advances in sustainable cultivation and extraction technologies are expected to enhance production efficiency and product quality. Consequently, roselle presents promising opportunities for farmers, manufacturers and investors aiming to capitalize on its commercial and nutritional value.

Conclusion

Roselle holds significant potential as a multifunctional crop with growing demand in various industries. Its health benefits and natural origin drive rising consumer interest, especially in food, pharmaceutical and cosmetic sectors. The expanding global market is fuelled by increasing awareness of sustainable agriculture and natural products. Continued research and innovation in cultivation and product development are expected to further strengthen its commercial prospects. Overall, roselle is playing a vital role in the future of natural health and wellness markets.

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Nature of Damage Caused by Stem Borer in Rice

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Rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) is one of the most important cereal crops in the world and serves as the staple food for more than half

of the global population.

Among the various insect pests that attack rice, stem borers are considered the most destructive and widely distributed pests in Asia, including India. They primarily belong to the families Pyralidae and

Noctuidae and can cause severe yield losses ranging from 10–80%, depending on the infestation level and crop stage.

Major Species of Rice Stem Borers

The most common species of rice stem borers in India include:

- Yellow stem borer (*Scirpophaga incertulas*)
- White stem borer (*Scirpophaga innotata*)
- Pink stem borer (*Sesamia inferens*)
- Striped stem borer (*Chilo suppressalis*)

These borers attack rice from the nursery stage to harvest, causing significant damage during both the vegetative and reproductive phases.



Nature of Damage 1. At the Vegetative Stage (Dead Heart Formation)

The larvae bore into the stem and feed on internal tissues, disrupting nutrient flow to the upper parts of the plant.

- The central whorl or leaf shoot withers and dries,

forming the symptom known as a “dead heart.”

- Affected tillers can be easily pulled out and often show a bore hole near the base.

2. At the Reproductive Stage (White Ear or White Head Formation)

- During panicle emergence, larvae attack the stem just below the panicle.
- The panicle emerges but remains whitish and unfilled due to spikelet death — a symptom called “white ear” or “white head.”

- This results in significant yield loss since the grains fail to develop.

3. Other Indications of Damage

- Presence of silken webs and larval excreta near the leaf sheath.
- Reduced tillering and poor grain filling.
- Hollow stems due to larval tunneling, making plants more prone to lodging.

Economic Importance

Rice stem borers can cause 20–30% average yield loss, but under severe infestation, losses may exceed 80%. The pest remains active year-round in tropical regions, particularly in areas with continuous rice cultivation and high humidity. Therefore, adopting Integrated Pest Management (IPM) strategies is crucial for sustainable control.

Management Practices

1. Cultural Control

- Remove stubble and plant residues after harvest.
- Avoid continuous rice cropping; practice crop rotation.
- Adopt early planting to escape peak infestation periods.

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2. Biological Control

- Release egg parasitoids such as *Trichogramma japonicum* and *T. chilonis*.
- Conserve natural enemies like spiders and predatory insects.

3. Chemical Control

- Apply insecticides such as chlorantraniliprole, cartap hydrochloride, or fipronil at recommended doses.
- Dip rice seedlings in chlorpyrifos solution before transplanting to reduce early infestation.

4. Integrated Pest Management (IPM)

- Combine resistant varieties, biological control agents, and need-based chemical applications.
- Promote farmer awareness and timely monitoring for effective pest suppression.

Conclusion

Stem borers are among the most damaging pests of rice, causing both qualitative and quantitative yield losses. Early detection, cultural practices, and the implementation of integrated pest management strategies are vital to minimizing damage and ensuring sustainable rice production.

Pheromone Traps in Pest Management

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Pest management is a critical component of sustainable agriculture, as insect pests cause significant crop losses globally. Farmers often rely heavily on chemical pesticides, which, although effective, lead to environmental pollution, pest resistance, and non-target impacts. Integrated Pest Management (IPM) approaches have emerged as a sustainable alternative, emphasizing ecological balance and reduced chemical use. Among eco-friendly strategies, pheromone traps have proven highly effective in monitoring and controlling pest populations. These traps utilize insect communication signals to manipulate pest behavior for crop protection.

Definition and Concept of Pheromone Traps

Pheromones are chemical substances released by insects that influence the behavior or physiology of other individuals of the same species. The most commonly exploited pheromones in pest management are sex pheromones, used by insects for mate attraction.

By synthesizing these pheromones artificially, researchers have developed traps that lure pests for detection, monitoring, or direct suppression. Hence, pheromone traps serve as valuable tools in both research and field-level pest management programs.

Types of Pheromone Traps

Different trap designs are used depending on the target pest species and the cropping system. The most common types include:

- 1. Delta Traps:** Triangular traps used primarily for monitoring moth populations.
- 2. Funnel Traps:** Equipped with a pheromone lure and a funnel-shaped entrance, effective for capturing large numbers of insects.
- 3. Water Traps:** Attract pests which then drown in a water container.
- 4. Sticky Traps:** Surfaces coated with adhesive substances that immobilize insects upon contact.
- 5. Mass Trapping Devices:** Larger traps used for reducing pest populations rather than just monitoring.



Mechanism of Action

Pheromone traps release synthetic pheromones from a lure placed inside the trap. Male insects are attracted to the source, mistaking it for a female emitting natural pheromones. Upon entry, they are captured or killed depending on the trap design. This disruption of mating reduces the reproductive success of the pest population, lowering infestation levels in the field.

Applications in Pest Management

Pheromone traps serve multiple functions within IPM programs:

1. **Monitoring:** Detection of pest presence and seasonal population dynamics for timely interventions.
2. **Mass Trapping:** High-density deployment reduces overall pest populations.
3. **Mating Disruption:** High pheromone release interferes with natural mating communication.
4. **Early Warning Systems:** Provide advance notice of pest outbreaks, enabling informed pesticide application decisions.
5. **Resistance Management:** Reduce dependence on chemical pesticides, minimizing resistance development.

Advantages of Pheromone Traps

- Eco-friendly and non-toxic to humans, animals, and beneficial insects.
- Highly species-specific, avoiding harm to non-target organisms.
- Provide early detection crucial for effective IPM implementation.
- Cost-effective and easy to use on a large scale.

- Reduce the need for frequent chemical pesticide applications.

Limitations of Pheromone Traps

- Effective mainly for specific insect groups, especially Lepidopterans.
- Require proper technical knowledge for correct placement and density.
- Environmental factors (wind, temperature, humidity) affect pheromone dispersion.
- Not effective as a standalone method—best used in integration with other management practices.

Case Studies

1. **Pink Bollworm in Cotton (*Pectinophora gossypiella*):** Widely managed using pheromone traps, significantly reducing pesticide use and protecting yields.
2. **Brinjal Fruit and Shoot Borer (*Leucinodes orbonalis*):** Successful pheromone-based control in South Asian brinjal fields.
3. **Rice Stem Borer (*Scirpophaga incertulas*):** Used for pest monitoring and spray scheduling in rice ecosystems.

Future Prospects

Advancements in synthetic chemistry and trap design are expanding the potential of pheromone-based pest control. Integration with digital monitoring tools, remote sensing, and artificial intelligence offers promising prospects for precision agriculture. Moreover, combining pheromone traps with biological control agents and habitat management can enhance the efficiency of IPM programs.

Conclusion

Pheromone traps represent a powerful and eco-friendly innovation in pest management. Although not a complete solution, they play a crucial role in monitoring, mass trapping, and mating disruption

strategies. By reducing dependency on harmful pesticides, pheromone traps contribute to sustainable agriculture, environmental protection, and global food security.

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Pests of Cardamom and Clove

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Cardamom (*Elettaria cardamomum*) and clove (*Syzygium aromaticum*) are valuable spice crops widely cultivated in India and other tropical regions. They play a vital role in the agricultural economy due to their extensive use in culinary, pharmaceutical, and cosmetic industries. However, their productivity is frequently constrained by insect pests that attack the plants at various growth stages, leading to significant yield losses.

Therefore, effective pest management is essential to maintain both quality and productivity.

Major Pests of Cardamom

1. Shoot and Capsule Borer (*Conogethes punctiferalis*)

Nature of Damage: Larvae bore into unopened panicles, flower buds, and tender capsules, causing drying and shedding.

Symptoms: Presence of holes on capsules and frass inside the boreholes.

Management

- Maintain field sanitation.
- Install pheromone traps.
- Spray Emamectin benzoate 5 SG @ 0.4 g/litre or Neem oil 3%.



2. Cardamom Thrips (*Sciothrips cardamomi*)

Nature of Damage: Nymphs and adults suck sap from tender leaves, panicles, and capsules, leading to scarring and malformation.

Symptoms: Silvery streaks on leaves and roughened capsule

surfaces.

Management

- Regulate shade and ensure proper irrigation.
- Spray Lambda-cyhalothrin 0.005% or Neem seed kernel extract (5%).

3. Root Grubs (*Basistrocheilus spp.* and *Leucopholis spp.*)

Nature of Damage: Grubs feed on roots, causing wilting and stunted growth.

Management

- Apply Chlorpyrifos 0.04% to the root zone.

- Use *Metarhizium anisopliae* as a biological control agent.

Major Pests of Clove

1. Stem Borer (*Sahyadrassus malabaricus*)

Nature of Damage: Larvae bore into the main stem and branches, weakening plant structure.

Symptoms: Holes on the trunk, extrusion of frass, and wilting of branches.

Management

- Clean and remove infested bark.
- Apply Chlorpyrifos 0.1% into boreholes and seal with mud.

2. Leaf Miner (*Acrocercops syngamma*)

Nature of Damage: Larvae mine leaf tissues, forming irregular patches.

Symptoms: Yellowish blotches and curling of leaves, reducing photosynthetic activity.

Management

- Prune infested leaves.
- Spray Azadirachtin-based (Neem) formulations.

3. Scale Insects (*Coccus viridis*, *Aspidiotus destructor*)

Nature of Damage: Nymphs and adults suck sap from leaves and twigs, leading to yellowing and sooty mold formation.

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Management

- Apply horticultural oil 1%.
- Release biological predators such as *Cryptolaemus montrouzieri*.

Integrated Pest Management (IPM) Strategies

- Regular monitoring and early detection of pest infestations.
- Maintenance of adequate shade and soil moisture.
- Use of pest-resistant varieties where available.
- Adoption of biological control agents and botanical pesticides.
- Avoid indiscriminate use of chemical pesticides to prevent resistance and environmental hazards.

Conclusion

Pest management in cardamom and clove cultivation is crucial for ensuring sustainable production and maintaining export quality. Integrated Pest Management (IPM) practices, which combine cultural, biological, and chemical control measures, offer an environmentally safe and economically viable approach. Enhancing farmer awareness and training on pest identification and timely control measures can significantly reduce yield losses and improve spice productivity.

Carbon Sequestration in Floriculture: Blooming Solutions for a Greener India

ARTICLE ID: 0283

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Floriculture is the science and art of growing flowering and ornamental plants that adds beauty and fragrance to our lives. From vibrant gardens and festive garlands to indoor greenery and global flower exports, it enriches both human life and the economy. Yet, there's more to floriculture than just colors and fragrance, it's also a quiet warrior against climate change.

Through carbon sequestration, plants absorb carbon dioxide (CO₂) from the atmosphere during photosynthesis and store it in their tissues and surrounding soil. This helps reduce greenhouse gases responsible for global warming. With sustainable practices and thoughtful integration into cities and farms, floriculture can play a crucial role in India's green future.

Floriculture: India's Green Carbon Sink

India is among Asia's leading producers of flowers, with major cultivation areas in Karnataka, Tamil Nadu, Maharashtra, Andhra Pradesh and West Bengal. The country's diverse climate supports the growth of both

tropical and temperate flowers that naturally act as carbon sinks.

Popular flowers such as rose, chrysanthemum, marigold, gerbera, gladiolus, anthurium and tuberose capture CO₂ efficiently through their rapid growth and high photosynthetic rate. Perennial ornamentals like *Bougainvillea*, *Hibiscus* and *Ixora* store carbon for longer periods, becoming living reservoirs of captured carbon.



The export-oriented flower industry can also benefit from quantifying its carbon sequestration potential, creating "green label" flowers that appeal to eco-conscious global markets and linking beauty with sustainability.

Ornamental Foliage and Indoor Plants: Natural Air Purifiers

Indoor ornamental plants are more than decorative, they are natural air filters and carbon absorbers. Species like Areca palm, Money plant, Snake plant, Spider plant and *Ficus benjamina* continuously absorb CO₂, even under low-light conditions.

NASA's 1989 study ranked these plants among the best for removing indoor pollutants such as formaldehyde and benzene. In offices, schools and homes, they reduce CO₂ buildup, improve oxygen levels and enhance mental well-being.

Modern cities are also embracing vertical gardens and living walls, which not only beautify spaces but also act as micro carbon sinks, regulating indoor temperatures and improving air quality.

Urban Landscapes and Green Infrastructure

Urbanization has brought challenges like air pollution, heat islands and the loss of green cover. Integrating floriculture into urban landscapes offers a natural solution.

Green belts, rooftop gardens and roadside plantations help offset emissions and cool urban microclimates. Research from the Indian Institute of Horticultural Research (IIHR, 2022) found that ornamental landscapes can sequester 2–5 kg of CO₂ per square meter per year, depending on plant type and density.

Grasses such as *Cynodon dactylon* (doob grass) and *Zoysia japonica* also contribute through extensive root systems that enrich soil carbon. By blending floral design with city planning, floriculture can transform cities into “breathing ecosystems” that balance beauty and environmental health.

Protected Cultivation and Carbon Utilization Efficiency

Modern floriculture increasingly uses protected cultivation systems, like greenhouses and polyhouses, that allow precise control of temperature, light and CO₂ levels. By maintaining CO₂ concentrations around

800–1,000 ppm, plants can grow faster and store 20–40% more carbon than those grown in open fields.

Sustainable soil amendments such as biochar, compost, and vermicompost—enhance soil organic carbon and nutrient availability. Additionally, solar-powered irrigation, rainwater harvesting and biodegradable pots are reducing the carbon footprint of greenhouse operations.

These technologies align floriculture with India's National Mission for Sustainable Agriculture, making it both eco-friendly and economically viable.

Carbon-Smart Floriculture for Climate Resilience

A carbon-smart approach to floriculture focuses on sustainability across every stage of production:

- **Smart Species Selection:** Grow high-biomass and perennial ornamentals that store more carbon.
- **Waste Recycling:** Reuse floral residues from temples and markets as compost or eco-products.
- **Healthy Soils:** Add organic matter and cover crops to boost soil carbon and microbial activity.
- **Efficient Resource Use:** Adopt drip irrigation, fertigation, and LED lighting to cut energy waste.
- **Urban Integration:** Include floriculture in city projects for carbon capture and beautification.

Together, these measures make floriculture a climate-resilient, low-emission sector that supports India's journey toward a carbon-neutral economy.

Socio-Economic and Policy Perspectives

Floriculture supports thousands of small and marginal farmers, many of whom are women, in rural and peri-urban areas. By adopting carbon-conscious practices, these farmers can participate in carbon credit markets, earning income while conserving the environment.

Conclusion

Floriculture is no longer just about creating beauty, it is about cultivating sustainability. Every flowering plant, from a rose in the garden to a palm in an office, plays a small yet significant role in cleaning the air and combating climate change. By integrating sustainable

practices, carbon-smart technologies, and inclusive policies, India's floriculture sector can blossom into a climate-positive industry that nurtures both livelihoods and the planet. Indeed, every bloom that opens is not just a symbol of beauty—but a breath for the Earth.

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Classification of Arthropod Pests Based on Feeding Habits

ARTICLE ID: 0284

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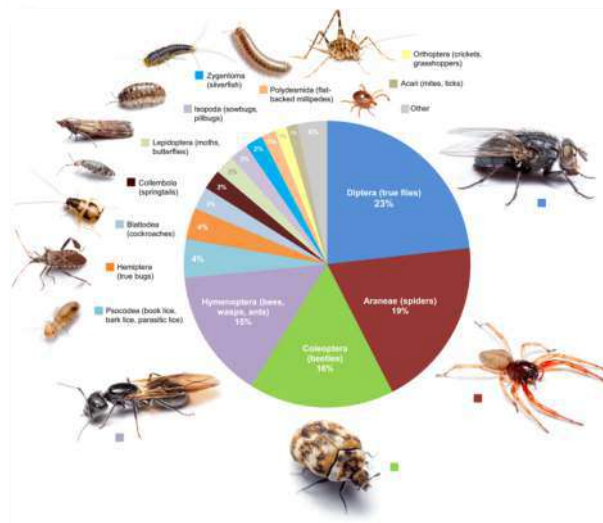
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Arthropods are the largest group of pests that damage agricultural crops and other plants. They feed on various plant parts such as leaves, stems, roots, flowers, and fruits, causing economic losses and reducing crop productivity.

determines the type of injury caused to plants and the control measures required.

Based on their feeding mechanism and mouthpart structure, arthropod pests are broadly classified into five categories:

Classifying these pests based on their feeding habits helps in understanding their behavior, nature of damage, and in developing effective management strategies. This paper explains the main types of arthropod



1. Chewing pests
2. Piercing and sucking pests
3. Boring pests
4. Mining or scraping pests
5. Root feeders

Each group has unique characteristics, feeding patterns, and damage symptoms, which are discussed in detail below.

pests according to their feeding habits, along with common examples and suitable management practices.

1. Introduction

Arthropod pests occur in nearly all types of crops and environments. They include insects, mites, and other small organisms that damage plants by feeding on their tissues or transmitting diseases. Understanding the feeding behavior of these pests is crucial, as it

Feeding Habits

2.1 Chewing Pests

Chewing pests possess strong, well-developed mandibles and maxillae that allow them to bite and chew solid plant tissues. They feed on leaves, stems, flowers, or fruits, often leaving visible holes, irregular cuts, or defoliated portions. The extent of damage depends on the pest population and the crop stage.

Common examples: Caterpillars (*Spodoptera litura*, *Helicoverpa armigera*), grasshoppers, beetles, and weevils.

Damage symptoms

- Holes or irregular notches on leaves.
- Skeletonized leaves (only veins remain).
- Cut stems and defoliation in severe infestations.

Management Strategies

- Handpicking of larvae and egg masses.
- Application of neem-based or botanical insecticides.
- Spraying biological insecticides such as *Bacillus thuringiensis* (Bt).
- Encouraging natural enemies such as birds and predatory insects.
- Avoiding overuse of chemical insecticides to maintain ecological balance.

2.2 Piercing and Sucking Pests

These pests have needle-like mouthparts (stylets) that pierce plant tissues and suck out sap. This results in curling, yellowing, and stunted growth due to nutrient loss. They also serve as important vectors of viral and bacterial diseases.

Common examples: Aphids, whiteflies, jassids, leafhoppers, and mealybugs.

Damage Symptoms

- Yellowing and curling of leaves.
- Sticky honeydew secretion leading to sooty mold growth.
- Transmission of viral diseases such as leaf curl and mosaic.

Management Strategies

- Regular monitoring of pest population.

- Spraying neem oil or insecticidal soap.
- Introducing predators such as ladybird beetles and lacewings.
- Use of reflective mulches to repel whiteflies.
- Avoiding excessive nitrogen fertilizers which favor sap-sucking pests.

2.3 Boring Pests

Boring pests live and feed inside plant tissues by creating tunnels or galleries in stems, shoots, or fruits. As they feed internally, the damage is often hidden and difficult to detect until severe symptoms appear.

Common examples: Stem borers (in rice and maize), shoot borers (in brinjal and sugarcane), and fruit borers (in pomegranate and guava).

Damage symptoms

- Holes on stems, shoots, or fruits.
- Frass or sawdust-like material near entry holes.
- Wilting, drying, or breakage of shoots and branches.

Management Strategies

- Removal and destruction of infested plant parts.
- Installation of pheromone traps to attract and kill adults.
- Application of systemic insecticides at early crop stages.
- Field sanitation and crop rotation.
- Use of resistant crop varieties where available.

2.4 Mining and Scraping Pests

These pests feed on the internal or surface layers of leaves, creating characteristic mines, tunnels, or scraped patches. Leaf miners feed between the epidermal layers, while scraping pests remove the green chlorophyll layer, reducing photosynthetic efficiency.

Common examples: Leaf miners (*Liriomyza trifolii*), citrus leaf miners, and black-headed caterpillars.

Damage Symptoms

- Zigzag or serpentine mines visible on leaves.
- Brown or dry patches on leaf surfaces.
- Premature leaf fall and reduced photosynthesis.

Management Strategies

- Collection and destruction of affected leaves.
- Use of light or sticky traps to attract adult moths.
- Application of neem oil or spinosad formulations.
- Encouraging parasitoids like *Diglyphus isaea* for natural control.
- Avoiding excessive pesticide use that harms beneficial insects.

2.5 Root Feeders

Root feeders attack underground plant parts such as roots and rootlets, leading to poor nutrient uptake and stunted growth. The damage is often noticed only when plants show wilting or yellowing despite adequate irrigation and nutrition.

Common examples: White grubs, termites, and root aphids.

Damage symptoms

- Yellowing and wilting of plants.
- Easy uprooting due to damaged roots.
- Uneven plant growth and patchy field appearance.

Management Strategies

- Deep ploughing during summer to expose and kill larvae.

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- Application of neem cake or *Trichoderma* in soil.
- Maintaining field hygiene and avoiding excess organic matter that attracts pests.
- Flooding fields where appropriate to control soil-dwelling stages.
- Using entomopathogenic nematodes and fungi as biological control agents.

3. Importance of Classification

Classifying arthropod pests based on feeding habits provides valuable insight into their biology, ecology, and mode of attack. It helps farmers, researchers, and extension workers identify pest damage accurately and choose effective management strategies. Furthermore, this classification serves as the foundation for Integrated Pest Management (IPM) programs, promoting sustainable and eco-friendly pest control.

4. Conclusion

Arthropod pests represent a major challenge in modern agriculture due to their diversity and adaptability. By understanding their feeding habits, farmers can predict the nature of damage and select appropriate control measures. Each pest category—chewing, sucking, boring, mining, or root feeding—requires specific management strategies. Integrating cultural, biological, and mechanical methods under the IPM framework minimizes pest losses while maintaining environmental safety.

Scientific Classification, Biology, and Management of White Grubs (*Scarabaeidae*)

ARTICLE ID: 0285

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White grubs (larvae of *Scarabaeidae* beetles) are among the most destructive soil-dwelling pests affecting a wide range of agricultural and plantation crops such as sugarcane, maize, arecanut, and groundnut. Their root-feeding behavior leads to severe yield losses and plant mortality. This review compiles scientific information on their classification, life cycle, economic importance, damage symptoms, and management strategies. Emphasis is placed on integrated pest management (IPM) approaches that combine cultural, biological, and chemical methods for sustainable control.

1. Introduction

White grubs, the larval stage of scarab beetles (Family: *Scarabaeidae*), are serious root-feeding pests found across tropical and subtropical agricultural systems. The adult beetles, commonly known as “chafer beetles” or “May–June beetles,” lay eggs in the soil near crop roots. The larvae feed on underground plant parts, causing significant crop damage. In India, annual

crop losses due to white grub infestations are estimated to reach several million rupees. Therefore, understanding their biology and effective control measures is essential for sustainable pest management in agriculture.

2. Scientific Classification



Taxonomic Rank	Classification
Kingdom	Animalia
Phylum	Arthropoda
Class	Insecta
Order	Coleoptera
Family	Scarabaeidae
Subfamily	Melolonthinae
Common Name	White Grub
Representative Species	<i>Leucopholis burmeisteri</i> , <i>Holotrichia serrata</i> , <i>Anomala bengalensis</i>

3. Life Cycle of White Grubs

White grubs undergo complete metamorphosis consisting of four stages: egg, larva, pupa, and adult. Adults emerge after the onset of summer rains and lay

eggs in moist soil near host plants. The eggs hatch into grubs that feed on plant roots and remain underground for several months. The larval stage is the most damaging. After feeding, the grubs pupate in the soil, and adults emerge to start the next generation. The duration of the life cycle varies with species and environmental conditions, typically ranging from 1 to 2 years.

4. Economic Importance and Host Range

White grubs attack several economically important crops such as sugarcane, maize, potato, arecanut, and groundnut. Infested fields exhibit patchy crop stands, wilting, and plant death. Yield losses may range from 10% to over 80%, depending on the infestation level. Their polyphagous nature and ability to survive on multiple hosts make management difficult, especially under continuous cropping systems.

5. Nature and Symptoms of Damage

- Wilting and yellowing of leaves due to impaired root function.
- Stunted plant growth and poor crop stand.
- Drying or sudden death of plants in patches.
- Easy uprooting of affected plants because of root pruning.
- Presence of C-shaped white larvae in soil around damaged roots.

6. Management Strategies

Effective management of white grubs requires an integrated approach that combines cultural, biological, and chemical methods.

6.1 Cultural Control

- Deep summer ploughing exposes larvae and pupae to heat and predators.

- Installation of light traps at night helps collect adult beetles.
- Crop rotation and clean cultivation minimize pest carry-over.

6.2 Biological Control

- Application of neem cake (250–500 kg/ha) helps suppress grub populations.
- Entomopathogenic fungi such as *Beauveria bassiana* and *Metarhizium anisopliae* are effective against larvae.
- Entomopathogenic nematodes (*Steinernema* spp., *Heterorhabditis* spp.) can be applied in moist soil to infect and kill grubs.

6.3 Chemical Control

- In severe infestations, soil application of chlorpyrifos (5% dust) or imidacloprid (0.05%) at planting protects young roots.
- Chemical control should be used judiciously under expert supervision to prevent resistance and minimize harm to beneficial soil organisms.

6.4 Integrated Pest Management (IPM)

- Combining monitoring, cultural practices, biological agents, and need-based chemical use provides long-term sustainable control.
- Farmer awareness and timely field monitoring are critical for successful implementation.

7. Discussion

Among available methods, biological control using entomopathogenic fungi and nematodes offers an environmentally friendly alternative to chemical insecticides. Although chemical control yields rapid results, its overuse disrupts soil ecosystems and promotes pest resistance. Hence, integrating eco-

friendly biological agents with cultural management practices is the most sustainable approach. Continued research on locally adapted biocontrol strains and farmer-oriented formulations will enhance the efficacy of IPM programs.

8. Conclusion

White grubs are major soil pests posing significant threats to agricultural productivity. Understanding

their life cycle, damage mechanisms, and host preferences is essential for effective management. Integrated Pest Management—combining cultural, biological, and limited chemical interventions—provides a sustainable and environmentally sound solution for long-term control and soil health preservation.

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Nature and Types of Damage Caused by Arthropod Pests in Crops

ARTICLE ID: 0286

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Arthropod pests are among the most significant biological threats to global agriculture. They damage crops directly by feeding on plant tissues and indirectly by transmitting diseases. This paper discusses the nature and types of damage caused by arthropod pests, their impact on crop yield and quality, and management practices adopted to control them. It also examines the advantages and disadvantages of pest control strategies and concludes with the need for integrated pest management (IPM) approaches for sustainable crop production.

Introduction

Agriculture is a fundamental sector for human survival, yet it faces continuous threats from various biotic and abiotic factors. Among the biotic stresses, arthropod pests—comprising insects, mites, and related organisms—play a crucial role in reducing crop productivity. Arthropods form one of the largest and most diverse animal groups, including several species that feed on crops either by chewing, sucking, or

boring. Their feeding activities result in severe yield losses, economic damage, and reduced food quality. Understanding the nature and types of damage caused



by arthropods is vital for developing efficient pest management strategies.

Nature of Damage Caused by Arthropod Pests

The damage caused by arthropods can be broadly categorized into direct and

indirect damage.

1. Direct Damage

This occurs when pests feed directly on plant parts, causing visible injuries. Examples include:

- **Chewing Damage:** Caused by beetles, caterpillars, and grasshoppers that consume leaves, stems, and fruits, reducing the photosynthetic area and weakening the plant.
- **Boring Damage:** Stem borers and fruit borers create tunnels inside plant tissues, leading to wilting, fruit drop, or stunted growth.
- **Sucking Damage:** Aphids, whiteflies, and leafhoppers suck plant sap using their piercing-

sucking mouthparts, resulting in yellowing, curling of leaves, and stunted growth.

2. Indirect Damage

Some arthropods act as vectors of plant pathogens, spreading viruses, bacteria, and fungi. For instance,

whiteflies transmit the *Tomato yellow leaf curl virus*, while aphids transmit *Potato virus Y*. Additionally, excretions such as honeydew attract sooty molds, reducing photosynthesis and overall plant vigor.

Types of Arthropod Pests and Crop Examples

Type of Pest	Examples	Nature of Damage
Chewing Insects	<i>Helicoverpa armigera</i> (cotton, pulses, tomato)	Leaf defoliation, fruit boring, and reduced photosynthetic efficiency
Sucking Insects	Aphids, whiteflies, jassids	Sap removal leading to chlorosis, leaf curling, and viral disease transmission
Boring and Mining Pests	Stem borers (<i>Scirpophaga incertulas</i> in rice), fruit borers (in brinjal)	Tunneling within stems and fruits, causing lodging or fruit drop
Gall Formers and Mite Pests	Gall midges (in rice, mango), spider mites (in vegetables)	Gall formation, discoloration, and reduction in yield quality

Management Practices

Effective pest management requires a combination of preventive, cultural, mechanical, biological, and chemical control methods.

1. Cultural Practices

- Crop rotation, timely sowing, proper spacing, and destruction of crop residues help reduce pest populations.
- Use of resistant crop varieties also prevents heavy infestations.

2. Mechanical and Physical Control

- Hand-picking of larvae, use of light traps, sticky traps, and pheromone traps.
- Tillage and water management can disrupt pest life cycles.

3. Biological Control

- Use of natural enemies such as ladybird beetles (predators of aphids) and parasitoids like *Trichogramma* spp.
- Fungal pathogens such as *Beauveria bassiana* can also be effective against insect pests.

4. Chemical Control

- Application of insecticides and miticides when pest populations exceed the economic threshold level.
- Care should be taken to prevent overuse to avoid pesticide resistance and environmental contamination.

5. Integrated Pest Management (IPM)

- Combines multiple control strategies to minimize environmental impact and maintain ecological balance.

- Encourages sustainable pest control through biological and cultural methods complemented by safe chemical use.

Advantages of Arthropod Pest Management Practices

- Increases crop yield and quality.
- Prevents economic losses and ensures food security.
- Encourages sustainable farming through IPM.
- Promotes biodiversity by using biological control agents.

Disadvantages

- Overuse of pesticides can lead to resistance, pest resurgence, and environmental pollution.
- Some biological control agents may take longer to show results.

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- High cost and technical expertise are required for integrated approaches.
- Misidentification of pests can lead to ineffective control measures.

Conclusion

Arthropod pests continue to challenge global agriculture by damaging crops both directly and indirectly. Understanding their nature, behavior, and damage patterns is essential for effective management. Although chemical control provides quick results, it must be balanced with ecological approaches such as biological and cultural control. Integrated Pest Management (IPM) remains the most effective, sustainable, and eco-friendly strategy to minimize pest damage while protecting crop productivity and environmental health.

Comparison of Chewing and Boring Insect Pests

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Insect pests are one of the major biotic stresses affecting agricultural crops, horticulture, and forestry. Among them, chewing and boring insect pests are highly destructive and cause significant yield losses. Although both types damage plants, their nature of damage, feeding behavior, and management strategies differ. This article provides a detailed comparison between chewing and boring insect pests.

Chewing Insect Pests

Chewing insects feed on external plant parts by biting and cutting tissues. They possess strong mandibles that allow them to consume leaves, stems, flowers, and fruits. The damage is usually visible in the form of holes, skeletonization, defoliation, or notching of leaves.

Feeding Behavior

Chewing insects possess strong mandibles that enable them to bite and cut external plant tissues. They feed on leaves, stems, flowers, and fruits, leading to visible damage such as holes, notching, or defoliation.

Examples

- **Caterpillars:** Larvae of moths and butterflies, such as *Spodoptera litura* and *Helicoverpa armigera*, are notorious for defoliating crops.

- **Grasshoppers:** Members of the family Acrididae, known for their voracious feeding habits.

- **Beetles:** Species like *Leptinotarsa decemlineata* (Colorado potato beetle) and *Epilachna* spp. (vegetable ladybird beetles) feed on various plant parts.

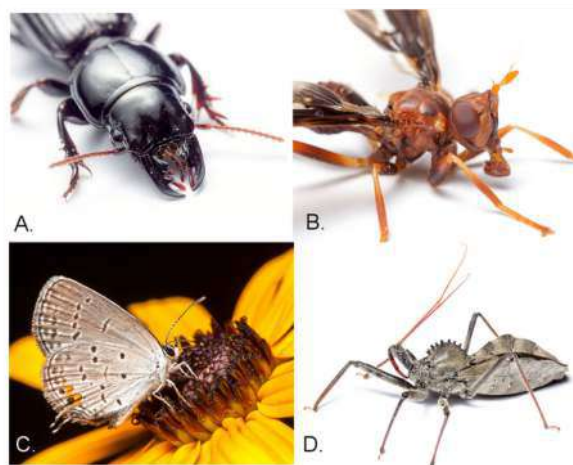
Damage Indicators:

Visible holes, notching, and defoliation are common signs of chewing insect activity.

Management Strategies: Control measures include handpicking, application of insecticides, and encouraging natural predators.

Boring Insect Pests

Boring insects feed internally by tunneling into plant tissues such as stems, shoots, trunks, or fruits. They cause hidden damage, which makes early detection difficult. Their feeding interferes with nutrient and water transport, leading to wilting, breakage, or rotting of plant parts.



Feeding Behavior: Boring insects tunnel into internal plant tissues, disrupting the transport of nutrients and water. This internal feeding results in wilting, dieback, or rotting of affected plant parts.

Examples

- **Stem Borers:** *Scirpophaga incertulas* in rice and *Chilo partellus* in maize.
- **Shoot Borers:** *Earias vittella* in okra attacks young shoots.
- **Fruit Borers:** *Cydia pomonella* (codling moth) in apples and *Leucinodes orbonalis* (brinjal fruit and shoot borer) in brinjal.

- **Bark Borers:** *Indarbela quadrinotata* affects trees by boring into the bark.

Damage Indicators: Damage is mostly hidden and internal. Symptoms include wilting, dieback, and the presence of frass (sawdust-like excrement) at entry or exit holes.

Management Strategies: Regular monitoring is crucial for early detection. Control methods include the use of systemic insecticides, pheromone traps, and biological control agents.

Comparison between Chewing and Boring Insect Pests

Feature	Chewing Insect Pests	Boring Insect Pests
Feeding habit	Feed externally by chewing plant parts	Feed internally by boring into tissues
Damage visibility	Damage easily visible (holes, cuts, defoliation)	Damage mostly hidden and internal
Affected plant parts	Leaves, flowers, fruits, and shoots	Stems, shoots, trunks, and fruits (internal)
Detection	Easy to identify by visible feeding marks	Difficult to detect until severe damage occurs
Examples	Caterpillars, grasshoppers, beetles	Stem borers, shoot borers, fruit borers, bark borers
Management	Handpicking, insecticides, natural predators	Monitoring, systemic insecticides, pheromone traps, biological control

Conclusion

Both chewing and boring insect pests pose a significant threat to agricultural productivity. Chewing insects cause visible external damage, while boring insects cause hidden internal damage that weakens plants from

within. Integrated Pest Management (IPM) strategies combining cultural, mechanical, biological, and chemical methods should be adopted for effective control of both types of pests.

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Distribution and Control of Shoot and Fruit Borer (*Leucinodes orbonalis*)

ARTICLE ID: 0288

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The shoot and fruit borer (*Leucinodes orbonalis*) is one of the most devastating insect pests affecting brinjal (eggplant), a staple vegetable crop in many parts of Asia and Africa. Known for its aggressive larval feeding behavior, *L. orbonalis* causes extensive damage to both vegetative and reproductive parts of the plant, leading to significant yield losses and economic hardship for farmers. Despite decades of research and control efforts, this pest remains a persistent challenge due to its rapid life cycle, high reproductive capacity, and adaptability to various agro-climatic conditions.

II. Taxonomy and Morphology

- **Scientific Name:** *Leucinodes orbonalis* Guenée
- **Order:** Lepidoptera
- **Family:** Crambidae
- **Common Name:** Brinjal shoot and fruit borer

Morphological Features

- **Adult Moth:** Small, white moth with pinkish-brown markings on the wings. Wingspan ranges from 20–30 mm.
- **Eggs:** Oval, creamy-white, laid singly or in small groups on tender shoots, leaves, or fruits.
- **Larvae:** Creamy-white caterpillars with a pinkish tinge and dark head capsule; grow up to 20 mm in length.
- **Pupae:** Brown, cylindrical, found in plant debris or soil.



III. Geographic Distribution

Global Distribution

Leucinodes orbonalis occurs primarily in tropical and subtropical regions. Its presence has been confirmed in:

- **South Asia:** India, Bangladesh, Nepal, Sri Lanka, Pakistan
- **Southeast Asia:** Myanmar, Thailand, Malaysia, Indonesia, Philippines

- **Africa:** Democratic Republic of Congo, South Africa, Kenya
- **Middle East:** Sporadic reports from Iran and Saudi Arabia

Distribution in India

India is one of the worst-affected countries, with *L. orbonalis* prevalent in nearly all brinjal-growing states. Major hotspots include:

- **Northern India:** Uttar Pradesh, Punjab, Haryana
- **Eastern India:** Bihar, West Bengal, Odisha
- **Western India:** Maharashtra, Gujarat
- **Southern India:** Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka

The pest thrives in warm, humid climates and is active throughout the year in tropical zones, with peak infestations during the flowering and fruiting stages.

IV. Host Range

While brinjal is the primary host, *L. orbonalis* can infest other solanaceous crops and wild relatives:

- **Primary Host:** Brinjal (*Solanum melongena*)
- **Secondary Hosts**
 - Tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum*)
 - Potato (*Solanum tuberosum*)
 - *Solanum nigrum* (Black nightshade)
 - *Solanum torvum* (Turkey berry)

However, the pest shows a strong preference for brinjal due to its tender shoots and fleshy fruits.

V. Life Cycle and Biology

Leucinodes orbonalis undergoes complete metamorphosis with four distinct stages: egg, larva, pupa, and adult.

1. Egg Stage

- **Duration:** 3–5 days

- Eggs are laid on the lower surface of leaves, flower buds, and young fruits.
- A single female can lay 200–250 eggs during her lifespan.

2. Larval Stage

- **Duration:** 12–20 days
- Newly hatched larvae bore into shoots or fruits and feed internally.
- Larvae pass through 5–6 instars before pupation.
- This stage causes the most severe crop damage.

3. Pupal Stage

- **Duration:** 7–10 days
- Pupation occurs in plant debris, soil, or within damaged plant parts.
- Pupae are brown and cylindrical.

4. Adult Stage

- **Lifespan:** 5–10 days
- Adults are nocturnal and mate soon after emergence.
- Females begin laying eggs within 24 hours of mating.

Generations

- *L. orbonalis* completes 5–8 generations per year depending on climate.
- In tropical regions, overlapping generations occur year-round.

VI. Symptoms of Damage

1. Shoot Damage

- Wilting of young shoots (“dead hearts”)
- Drooping and drying of terminal shoots
- Reduced plant vigor and branching

2. Fruit Damage

- Entry holes on the fruit surface with visible frass (excreta)
- Internal feeding leads to rotting and premature fruit drop
- Fruits become unmarketable due to structural and cosmetic damage

3. Yield Loss

- Infestation can lead to 30–70% yield loss under moderate conditions
- In severe cases, losses may reach up to 100% if left unmanaged

VII. Economic Impact

Brinjal is a high-value crop grown by small and marginal farmers across Asia. The economic implications of *L. orbonalis* infestation include:

- **Reduced Market Value:** Damaged fruits are rejected by consumers and traders.
- **Increased Production Costs:** Frequent pesticide applications raise input costs.
- **Loss of Export Potential:** Infested produce fails to meet phytosanitary standards.
- **Farmer Distress:** Crop failure leads to financial instability and indebtedness.

VIII. Control Measures

A. Cultural Control

1. Field Sanitation

- Remove and destroy infested shoots and fruits regularly.
- Uproot and burn crop residues after harvest.

2. Crop Rotation

- Avoid continuous brinjal cultivation in the same field.

- Rotate with non-host crops like legumes or cereals.

3. Intercropping

- Plant brinjal with trap crops such as marigold to divert adult moths.

4. Timely Sowing

- Adjust planting time to avoid peak pest activity.

B. Mechanical Control

1. **Hand Picking:** Manual removal of infested parts during early infestation.

2. **Pheromone Traps**

- Use sex pheromone traps (e.g., *L. orbonalis* lure) to monitor and mass trap adults.
- Recommended density: 12–15 traps per hectare.

3. **Light Traps**

- Install solar or electric light traps to attract and kill nocturnal moths.

C. Biological Control

1. **Parasitoids**

- *Trichogramma chilonis*: egg parasitoid
- *Bracon hebetor*: larval parasitoid
- *Chelonus blackburni*: egg-larval parasitoid

2. **Predators**

- Ladybird beetles (*Coccinellidae*)
- Lacewings (*Chrysoperla* spp.)

3. **Microbial Agents**

- *Bacillus thuringiensis* (Bt): effective against early instar larvae
- Nuclear Polyhedrosis Virus (NPV) – specific to lepidopteran pests

4. **Entomopathogenic Fungi**

- *Beauveria bassiana* and *Metarhizium anisopliae* infect larvae and pupae

D. Chemical Control

1. Insecticides

- Carbaryl (0.1%)
- Chlorpyrifos (0.05%)
- Spinosad (0.015%)
- Emamectin benzoate (0.0025%)
- Lambda-cyhalothrin (0.005%)

2. Application Guidelines

- Begin spraying at flowering stage and repeat every 10–15 days.
- Rotate chemicals to prevent resistance development.
- Follow recommended pre-harvest intervals to ensure food safety.

3. Safety Measures:

- Use protective gear during spraying.
- Avoid spraying during pollination to protect bees.

E. Biotechnological Control

1. Bt Brinjal

- Genetically modified brinjal expressing *CryIAc* protein from *Bacillus thuringiensis*.
- Provides resistance against *L. orbonalis* larvae.
- Approved for commercial cultivation in Bangladesh since 2013.
- Under regulatory review in India.

2. Advantages

- Reduces pesticide use by up to 80%.
- Improves yield and farmer income.
- Environmentally safe with targeted action.

3. Challenges

- Regulatory hurdles and public perception.

- Need for stewardship and resistance management.

IX. Integrated Pest Management (IPM)

An effective IPM strategy combines multiple control methods to sustainably reduce pest pressure.

Key IPM Components

- **Monitoring:** Use pheromone traps and field scouting.
- **Threshold-Based Action:** Initiate control when infestation exceeds 10% of fruits.
- **Biological Agents:** Release parasitoids and apply microbial pesticides.
- **Selective Chemicals:** Use eco-friendly insecticides judiciously.
- **Farmer Training:** Promote awareness of IPM practices and safe pesticide use.

Conclusion

The shoot and fruit borer (*Leucinodes orbonalis*) is a major pest that severely affects brinjal productivity across tropical and subtropical regions. Its continuous infestation from the seedling to fruiting stage causes substantial yield and quality losses. Effective management requires an integrated approach combining cultural, mechanical, biological, and chemical control strategies. Regular monitoring, the use of pheromone traps, resistant varieties, and the adoption of integrated pest management (IPM) practices can significantly reduce pest incidence while maintaining environmental safety. Sustainable control of *L. orbonalis* ultimately depends on farmer awareness, timely interventions, and region-specific management practices.

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Armyworms: Taxonomy, Biology, and Agricultural Significance

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Armyworms are among the most destructive agricultural pests worldwide. Known for their voracious feeding habits and migratory behavior, these caterpillars can devastate crops, pastures, and turfgrass in a matter of days. Despite their common name, “armyworm” refers not to a single species but to several moth larvae that exhibit similar behaviors. Understanding their scientific classification—particularly their Order (*Lepidoptera*) and Family (*Noctuidae*)—is essential for effective pest management and ecological study.

II. Taxonomic Classification

Armyworms belong to the following scientific hierarchy:

Taxonomic Rank	Classification
Kingdom	Animalia
Phylum	Arthropoda
Class	Insecta
Order	Lepidoptera
Family	Noctuidae
Genus	<i>Spodoptera</i> , <i>Mythimna</i> , <i>Pseudaletia</i> , etc.

Species	<i>Spodoptera frugiperda</i> (Fall Armyworm), <i>Mythimna unipuncta</i> (True Armyworm), etc.
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1. Order: Lepidoptera

The order *Lepidoptera* includes all moths and butterflies. It is one of the most diverse insect orders, with over 180,000 species described globally. Lepidopterans are characterized by:

- Scaled wings
- Complete metamorphosis (egg, larva, pupa, adult)
- Coiled proboscis in adults
- Larvae known as caterpillars

Armyworms represent the larval stage of moths within this order. Their destructive feeding behavior is typical of many Lepidopteran larvae, which consume plant material to fuel growth before pupation.

2. Family: Noctuidae

Armyworms belong to the family *Noctuidae*, commonly known as “owlet moths.” This family is among the largest in *Lepidoptera*, comprising over 35,000 species worldwide. Noctuids are typically nocturnal and include many agriculturally significant pests.

Key characteristics of Noctuidae

- Medium to large-sized moths
- Dull-colored forewings, often with cryptic patterns
- Brighter hindwings in some species
- Larvae are smooth-bodied and often striped
- Many species are polyphagous (feed on multiple plant types)

Armyworms are notable members of this family due to their economic impact and migratory behavior.

III. Common Armyworm Species

Several species are referred to as “armyworms,” each with unique traits and host preferences. The most prominent include:

1. Fall Armyworm (*Spodoptera frugiperda*)

- Native to the Americas but now invasive in Africa and Asia
- Feeds on maize, rice, sorghum, and over 80 other crops
- Highly migratory and capable of long-distance flight
- Larvae are dark with inverted Y-shaped markings on the head

2. True Armyworm (*Mythimna unipuncta*)

- Found in North America and parts of Europe
- Prefers grasses, wheat, barley, and oats
- Larvae are greenish-brown with longitudinal stripes
- Adults are called “white-speck moths” due to a white spot on each forewing

3. Southern Armyworm (*Spodoptera eridania*)

- Found in the southern United States and Central America
- Feeds on legumes, vegetables, and ornamental plants

4. African Armyworm (*Spodoptera exempta*)

- Native to sub-Saharan Africa
- Causes outbreaks in cereal crops like maize and millet

IV. Life Cycle and Development

Armyworms undergo complete metamorphosis, including four distinct stages:

1. Egg Stage

- Eggs are laid in clusters on leaves or stems
- A single female can lay hundreds to thousands of eggs
- Eggs hatch in 2–10 days depending on temperature and humidity

2. Larval Stage (Caterpillar)

- The most destructive stage
- Larvae feed voraciously on foliage, often in groups
- Undergo 5–6 molts (instars), growing from 1 cm to 5 cm
- Typically striped, varying in color from green to brown or black

3. Pupal Stage

- Mature larvae burrow into soil or plant debris to pupate
- Pupae are smooth, brown, and immobile
- Stage lasts 7–14 days depending on climate

4. Adult Moth Stage

- Adults emerge and begin mating and egg-laying
- Moths are nocturnal and can fly up to 100 km in a single night
- Lifespan of adults: 10–21 days

V. Behavior and Ecology

1. Feeding Habits

Armyworms are nocturnal feeders. They hide under debris or soil during the day and emerge at night to feed. Their name comes from their tendency to move in large groups—resembling an “army” marching across fields.

2. Migration

Species such as *S. frugiperda* are known for long-distance migration. In temperate regions, they cannot overwinter and migrate from warmer areas each season.

3. Habitat

Armyworms thrive in warm, humid environments and are found in:

- Agricultural fields
- Grasslands
- Turfgrass and lawns
- Forest edges

VI. Agricultural Impact

Armyworms are among the most economically damaging pests in agriculture.

1. Crop Damage

- Defoliation of crops such as maize, rice, wheat, and sugarcane
- Reduced photosynthesis and stunted growth
- Damage to reproductive parts (ears, panicles)

2. Turfgrass and Pasture Damage

- Feeding on grasses in lawns, golf courses, and pastures
- Causes aesthetic damage and reduces forage quality

3. Economic Losses

- Yield losses from 20% to 70% depending on infestation severity
- Increased pest control and recovery costs
- Trade restrictions due to quarantine pests

VII. Pest Management Strategies

Effective management requires an Integrated Pest Management (IPM) approach.

1. Monitoring

- Use pheromone traps for adult detection
- Scout fields regularly for larvae and feeding signs

2. Cultural Control

- Crop rotation and intercropping
- Removal of residues and weeds
- Timely planting to avoid peak infestations

3. Biological Control

- Natural predators: birds, beetles, parasitic wasps
- Pathogens: *Bacillus thuringiensis* (Bt), Nuclear Polyhedrosis Virus (NPV)

4. Chemical Control

- Use insecticides like chlorantraniliprole, spinosad, or lambda-cyhalothrin
- Target early larval stages for best results
- Avoid overuse to prevent resistance

5. Genetic Control

- Adoption of Bt maize and other resistant crops
- Resistance management via refuge planting

VIII. Global Spread and Invasive Status

The fall armyworm (*S. frugiperda*) is a major global invasive pest:

- First detected in Africa in 2016
- Spread to Asia, including India, China, and Southeast Asia

- Causes severe damage to maize and other staples
- Ongoing international collaboration for management

IX. Role in Ecosystems

While armyworms are agricultural pests, they also serve ecological functions:

- Prey for birds, bats, and other insectivores
- Contribute to nutrient cycling through plant consumption
- Act as indicator species for environmental monitoring

However, outbreaks can disturb ecological balance and reduce biodiversity in affected ecosystems.

Conclusion

Armyworms are among the most economically significant pests affecting global agriculture due to their wide host range, high reproductive potential, and migratory nature. Their biology and behavior make them highly adaptable to diverse agro-ecological zones. Understanding their taxonomy and life cycle is crucial for accurate identification and effective management. Integrated Pest Management (IPM) strategies combining cultural, biological, and chemical control methods remain the most sustainable approach to mitigate their impact. Continued research on resistant crop varieties, pheromone-based monitoring, and environmentally safe biocontrol agents is essential to reduce crop losses and ensure food security.

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Insect Pests of Coconut and Arecanut: Biology, Damage and Management

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Coconut (*Cocos nucifera* L.) and arecanut (*Areca catechu* L.) are vital plantation crops cultivated widely in tropical regions of India.

Both crops are highly prone to attacks by various insect pests, which cause substantial yield losses and affect economic returns. Major pests include the rhinoceros beetle, red palm weevil, black-headed caterpillar, and eriophyid mite in coconut,

and the spindle bug, root grub, and inflorescence caterpillars in arecanut. The damage inflicted varies from defoliation, boring into stems and nuts, to sap-sucking, which leads to reduced photosynthesis, poor nut development, and, in severe cases, death of palms. Understanding the biology and seasonal incidence of these pests is critical for adopting sustainable management practices. Integrated Pest Management (IPM) strategies, including cultural, mechanical, biological, and chemical methods, provide effective and eco-friendly solutions to mitigate pest damage.

Coconut and arecanut palms form the backbone of smallholder farming systems in many tropical regions of India, particularly in Kerala, Karnataka, Assam, and



coastal belts. Both crops not only provide food and raw materials but also support rural livelihoods through employment and trade. However, the productivity of these palms is severely threatened by a range of insect pests that attack

different plant parts. Continuous pest infestations lead to significant losses in nut yield, quality, and longevity of palms. Hence, scientific knowledge of the biology, ecology, and control measures of key pests is essential for sustainable cultivation.

Major Insect Pests of Coconut

1. Rhinoceros Beetle (*Oryctes rhinoceros*)

- **Biology:** Adults are large, dark brown beetles that bore into unopened fronds and spathes. The life cycle takes about 3–4 months, with larvae developing in decaying organic matter.

- **Nature of Damage:** Adults bore into the crown region, cutting emerging fronds into characteristic “V-shaped” notches. Severe infestations hinder photosynthesis and nut production.
- **Management:** Removal of breeding sites, application of *Oryctes rhinoceros* virus (ORV), release of predators (*Chelisoches morio*), and mechanical extraction of beetles.

2. Red Palm Weevil (*Rhynchophorus ferrugineus*)

- **Biology:** Females lay eggs in wounds and cracks on trunks. Larvae are legless grubs that bore into the trunk, causing internal tissue destruction.
- **Nature of Damage:** Infested palms show yellowing, crown wilting, and sometimes topple due to hollowing of the trunk.
- **Management:** Early detection, use of pheromone traps, removal of infested palms, and prophylactic application of insecticides to wounds.

3. Black-Headed Caterpillar (*Opisina arenosella*)

- **Biology:** Larvae feed on the undersurface of leaves, forming galleries of silk and frass. They pass through 5–6 instars.
- **Nature of Damage:** Heavy defoliation leads to reduced photosynthesis and poor nut set.
- **Management:** Biological control using parasitoids (*Goniozus nephantidis*), release of predators (*Chrysoperla* spp.), and removal of heavily infested leaves.

4. Eriophyid Mite (*Aceria guerreronis*)

- **Biology:** Microscopic mites infest under the perianth of developing nuts. They reproduce rapidly under hot and dry conditions.

- **Nature of Damage:** Nuts show brown patches, distortion, and reduced copra yield.
- **Management:** Spraying neem oil-garlic emulsion, application of acaricides, and use of biocontrol agents such as *Amblyseius* spp.

Major Insect Pests of Arecanut

1. Spindle Bug (*Carvalhoia arecae*)

- **Biology:** Adults and nymphs suck sap from the tender spindle leaves.
- **Nature of Damage:** Infested spindles show necrotic lesions, resulting in leaf drying and reduced photosynthetic capacity.
- **Management:** Spraying systemic insecticides, maintaining field sanitation, and pruning affected parts.

2. Root Grubs (*Leucopholis* spp.)

- **Biology:** Adult beetles emerge with the first rains, while larvae feed on roots in the soil for several months.
- **Nature of Damage:** Infested palms show yellowing, wilting, and stunted growth due to root damage.
- **Management:** Flooding the garden, soil application of neem cake, and use of entomopathogenic fungi (*Metarhizium anisopliae*).

3. Inflorescence Caterpillars (*Tirathaba mundella* and *Conogethes punctiferalis*)

- **Biology:** Caterpillars feed on developing inflorescences and tender nuts.
- **Nature of Damage:** Inflorescences show webbing, drying, and failure of fruit set.

- **Management:** Spraying insecticides during the flowering stage and collecting and destroying infested spathes.
- **Botanical Extracts:** Use of neem oil, neem seed kernel extract, and other eco-friendly formulations.

Integrated Pest Management (IPM) Approaches

- **Cultural Practices:** Sanitation, pruning, destruction of infested parts, and removal of breeding sites.
- **Mechanical Methods:** Use of pheromone and light traps, manual removal of pests.
- **Biological Control:** Introduction of natural enemies such as parasitoids, predators, and entomopathogens.
- **Chemical Control:** Judicious application of insecticides, trunk injection, and soil treatment only when necessary.

Conclusion

Coconut and arecanut palms, though highly valuable plantation crops, are vulnerable to multiple insect pests that directly affect their productivity. Understanding the bionomics of key pests such as the rhinoceros beetle, red palm weevil, spindle bug, and root grubs is essential for effective management. Adoption of integrated pest management strategies combining cultural, biological, and chemical approaches offers sustainable and eco-friendly solutions to minimize pest-induced crop losses and ensure profitability for farmers.

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Pest Complex in Chillies and Their Management

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Chilli (*Capsicum annum* L.) is an important spice and vegetable crop cultivated widely across India. The crop is affected by several insect pests that cause significant yield losses and deteriorate fruit quality. This article reviews the major insect pests of chillies, their symptoms of damage, and effective integrated pest management (IPM) strategies using simple and practical approaches.

1. Introduction

Chilli is one of the major commercial crops in India, used both as a spice and a vegetable. From nursery to harvest, several insect pests attack the crop, causing damage to leaves, flowers, and fruits, and in some cases transmitting viral diseases. Understanding the pest complex and adopting integrated pest management practices help farmers achieve higher and more sustainable yields.

2. Major Pests of Chillies

a) Aphids (*Aphis gossypii*)

Aphids are small, soft-bodied insects that suck sap from young leaves and shoots. Their feeding results in

leaf curling, yellowing, and stunted growth. They also secrete honeydew that promotes sooty mold and transmit the Chilli Leaf Curl Virus.

b) Thrips (*Scirtothrips dorsalis*)

Thrips feed on the lower surface of tender leaves and flower buds, leading to silvery, curling, and deformation. They are known vectors of leaf curl and bud necrosis viruses, with infestation peaking in hot and dry weather.

c) Whitefly (*Bemisia*

tabaci)

Whiteflies suck plant sap, causing leaf yellowing, wilting, and premature drying. They also excrete honeydew and transmit viral diseases such as the leaf curl complex.

d) Fruit Borer (*Helicoverpa armigera*)

The larvae bore into green fruits and feed internally, causing holes and fruit drop. Damaged fruits become unfit for marketing, leading to yield losses of up to 50%.

e) Mites (*Polyphagotarsonemus latus*)



Mites attack tender leaves and buds, causing downward curling and crinkling. Their population builds up rapidly in hot and dry conditions.

f) Cutworm (*Spodoptera litura*)

Cutworms are nocturnal caterpillars that cut young seedlings at the base and feed on foliage. They are particularly destructive in nurseries and young chilli fields.

3. Integrated Pest Management (IPM)

A. Cultural Control

- Remove and destroy infested and diseased plants.
- Practice crop rotation with non-solanaceous crops.
- Maintain proper spacing to improve air circulation.
- Grow barrier crops like maize or sorghum to reduce pest entry.

B. Mechanical and Physical Control

- Use yellow sticky traps to monitor aphid and whitefly populations.
- Install light traps to attract adult fruit borer moths.
- Handpick and destroy infested fruits and larvae.

C. Biological Control

- Release *Chrysoperla carnea* for the control of aphids and thrips.
- Release *Trichogramma chilonis* to parasitize fruit borer eggs.

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- Apply entomopathogenic fungi such as *Beauveria bassiana* or *Metarhizium anisopliae* to manage sucking pests.

D. Botanical Control

- Spray neem oil (3%) or Azadirachtin (1500 ppm) for effective control of sucking pests.
- Use garlic–chilli extract as a natural pest repellent.

E. Chemical Control (Use only under expert supervision)

- Imidacloprid 17.8 SL @ 0.3 ml/L for aphids and whiteflies.
- Spinosad 45 SC @ 0.3 ml/L or Emamectin benzoate 5 SG @ 0.4 g/L for fruit borer.
- Fenazaquin 10 EC @ 1 ml/L for mite control.

4. Conclusion

Chilli crops are attacked by a wide range of insect pests at various growth stages. Adopting an integrated pest management approach—combining cultural, mechanical, biological, and botanical methods—is the most sustainable strategy to manage pest populations effectively. Minimizing chemical pesticide use not only reduces production costs but also maintains environmental balance and ensures safer, high-quality chilli production.

Pests of Cotton: Nature of Damage and Control

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Cotton (*Gossypium* spp.) is a vital fiber and cash crop that supports the livelihood of millions of farmers in India and across the world. However, its productivity is often reduced due to heavy pest infestations. A wide variety of insect pests attack cotton during its vegetative and reproductive stages, causing severe yield losses and quality degradation. This article highlights the major pests of cotton, their nature of damage, and suitable control measures, with special reference to the Armyworm (*Spodoptera litura*)—its taxonomy and management strategies.

Cotton, often referred to as the “white gold” of India, plays a crucial role in the textile industry and rural economy. Despite its economic importance, cotton is highly vulnerable to pest attacks due to its long growing season and the abundance of tender plant parts. These pests cause substantial economic losses to farmers every year. Over-dependence on chemical pesticides has led to pest resistance, resurgence, and ecological imbalance. Therefore, the adoption of

Integrated Pest Management (IPM) practices has become essential for sustainable cotton cultivation.

Major Pests of Cotton and Their Nature of Damage

1. Bollworm Complex (*Helicoverpa armigera*, *Earias*

vittella, *Pectinophora gossypiella*)

• Nature of Damage:

Larvae bore into squares, flowers, and bolls, feeding on developing seeds and lint. This leads to shedding, boll rot, and poor-quality fiber.

• Symptoms:

Holes in bolls with excreta and shedding of fruiting bodies.

2. Aphids (*Aphis gossypii*)

• **Nature of Damage:** Aphids suck sap from tender leaves and shoots, causing leaf curling, yellowing, and stunted growth.

• **Indirect Damage:** Secretion of honeydew promotes sooty mold development, reducing photosynthetic efficiency.

3. Jassids (*Amrasca biguttula biguttula*)

• **Nature of Damage:** Both nymphs and adults suck sap from the undersides of leaves, resulting in yellowing, curling, and “hopper burn.”



- **Symptoms:** Brown leaf margins, reduced plant vigor, and decreased yield.

4. Whiteflies (*Bemisia tabaci*)

- **Nature of Damage:** Whiteflies suck sap from the lower leaf surfaces, causing leaf curling and premature defoliation.
- **Indirect Damage:** Transmit Cotton Leaf Curl Virus (CLCuV), resulting in heavy yield losses.
- **Symptoms:** Sticky leaves covered with black sooty mold.

5. Armyworms (*Spodoptera litura*)

- **Order:** Lepidoptera
- **Family:** Noctuidae
- **Nature of Damage:** The larvae feed gregariously on foliage, leading to severe defoliation under heavy infestations.
- **Symptoms:** Skeletonized leaves, heavy defoliation, and reduced photosynthetic activity causing yield reduction.

Control Measures

A. Cultural Control

- Deep summer ploughing to expose and destroy pupae.
- Crop rotation with non-host crops to break pest life cycles.
- Timely sowing to avoid peak pest infestation periods.
- Destruction of crop residues and weeds that serve as pest reservoirs.

B. Mechanical Control

- Regular field monitoring and handpicking of larvae and egg masses.

- Use of pheromone traps (5–10 per hectare) for pest monitoring.
- Installation of light traps to attract and kill adult moths.

C. Biological Control

- Release of egg parasitoids such as *Trichogramma chilonis* to control bollworms.
- Use of predators like *Chrysoperla carnea* (green lacewing) and ladybird beetles.
- Application of bio-pesticides like *Bacillus thuringiensis* (Bt) and neem-based formulations (*Azadirachta indica* extracts).
- Conservation of natural enemies through judicious pesticide use.

D. Chemical Control

- Application of selective insecticides such as quinalphos, chlorpyrifos, emamectin benzoate, or indoxacarb at recommended doses.
- Rotation of insecticides with different modes of action to prevent resistance development.
- Avoid indiscriminate spraying; follow Economic Threshold Levels (ETL).

E. Integrated Pest Management (IPM)

- Integration of cultural, biological, and chemical control methods for sustainable pest suppression.
- Regular pest monitoring and threshold-based interventions.
- Adoption of Bt cotton varieties for bollworm resistance, maintaining refugia to delay resistance development.
- Farmer training in pest identification and safe pesticide handling.

Conclusion

Cotton pests pose a major challenge to sustainable cotton production. The adoption of eco-friendly pest management strategies—especially biological control and IPM—is crucial to maintain soil health, crop yield, and environmental quality. Reducing dependency on

chemical pesticides helps preserve biodiversity and ensures long-term agricultural sustainability. Effective control of key pests such as the Armyworm (*Spodoptera litura*) can significantly enhance the productivity and fiber quality of cotton in India.

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Greenhouses: Its Types and Impact on Crop Production

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India's agricultural production has advanced significantly since the Green Revolution. However, climatic change and the modification of traditional cultivation practices have resulted in low productivity. To meet global food demand by 2050, food production must increase by about 70%.

Technological advancements now allow crops to be cultivated year-round. Greenhouse technology offers a viable solution by enabling environmental control to enhance both the quantity and quality of crop production — something not possible in open-field cultivation. Consequently, greenhouse farming has gained popularity among progressive farmers for commercial production of high-quality flowers and vegetables.

A greenhouse is a structure covered with transparent or translucent materials such as glass or plastic film. Depending on design and control systems, greenhouses can be fully controlled or partially controlled

environments. They are particularly important in regions with excessive rainfall, extreme heat, or cold conditions.



Various types of greenhouse structures are available for crop production, each with specific advantages and limitations based on design, material, and purpose. Therefore, no single design suits all situations. Researchers continue to explore efficient

greenhouse management systems focusing on cost reduction, energy efficiency, geometry, temperature control, and climate optimization for sustainable productivity.

Types of Greenhouses Based on Cost

1. Low-Tech Greenhouses

Low-tech greenhouses are simple, cost-effective structures with a total height of less than three meters. The most common type, *tunnel houses*, have curved roofs and limited ventilation. Mechanization is minimal, making them inexpensive to construct. Despite their simplicity, these structures significantly

improve crop productivity compared to open-field farming.

2. Medium-Tech Greenhouses

Medium-tech greenhouses typically have vertical side walls and heights between 2 and 5.5 meters. They feature improved ventilation through side walls or roof openings and use single or double layers of glass or plastic film. These structures offer moderate automation and provide better environmental control than low-tech designs.

3. High-Tech Greenhouses

High-tech greenhouses have wall heights of at least 4 meters, with roof apexes reaching up to 8 meters. They are equipped with automated systems for temperature, humidity, and irrigation control. Cladding materials include glass, polycarbonate, or multilayer plastic films. These greenhouses are highly efficient, environmentally sustainable, and capable of drastically reducing pesticide use. Although their installation cost is high, they offer superior productivity and are well-suited for commercial agribusiness ventures.

Types of Greenhouses Based on Shape

1. Lean-To Type

This design is attached to one side of an existing structure, extending its roof to enclose the area. It is best oriented southward for maximum sunlight exposure. The width ranges from 7 to 12 feet, accommodating single or double rows of benches. Lean-to greenhouses are cost-effective and benefit from proximity to utilities like electricity and water.

2. Even-Span Type

Even-span greenhouses are freestanding structures with two roof slopes of equal width and pitch. They

offer greater flexibility and can accommodate more plants than lean-to types. Though costlier, their design allows efficient air circulation and better environmental control.

3. Uneven-Span Type

Designed for hilly or uneven terrain, uneven-span greenhouses have roof slopes of different widths to adjust to land gradients. However, due to their complex design and limited automation capability, they are rarely used today.

4. Ridge and Furrow Type

This design connects two or more A-frame greenhouses at the eaves, forming a large continuous interior space. The common gutter between them collects rainwater and snow. This layout improves energy efficiency, reduces heating costs, and simplifies internal management.

5. Saw-Tooth Type

Similar to ridge and furrow designs, saw-tooth greenhouses feature roof openings that facilitate natural ventilation. These vents can be opened or closed to regulate internal temperature, providing an effective passive cooling system.



Types of Greenhouses Based on Covering Materials

1. Glass Greenhouses

Glass is the traditional covering material, offering high light transmission, lower humidity, and reduced disease incidence. Common designs include ridge and furrow, lean-to, and even-span types. However, glass greenhouses are expensive to construct and maintain.

2. Plastic Film Greenhouses

Flexible plastic films such as polyethylene, polyester, or PVC are widely used due to their affordability and low heating requirements. These materials make plastic greenhouses more popular among small and medium-scale farmers.

3. Rigid Panel Greenhouses

Rigid panels made from polycarbonate, acrylic, fiberglass-reinforced plastic, or PVC are durable and provide uniform light diffusion. They are more resistant to breakage than glass and can last up to 20 years, making them ideal for commercial applications.

Advantages of Greenhouse Cultivation

- **Increased Productivity:** Enables multiple cropping cycles and enhances yield by 2–10 times compared to open-field conditions.
- **Better Quality Produce:** Ensures uniform size, color, and texture through controlled environments.
- **Efficient Resource Use:** Saves up to 70% water and 50% fertilizers using drip irrigation and fertigation.
- **Reduced Pest and Disease Pressure:** Physical barriers minimize pest entry and disease spread.
- **Off-Season Production:** Allows production of high-value crops even under adverse climatic conditions, fetching premium prices.

- **Employment Generation:** Promotes skill development and participation of rural youth and women in high-tech horticulture.

Impact on Crop Production

A. Vegetable Crops

Crops such as tomato, cucumber, capsicum, lettuce, and leafy greens show significant yield and quality improvement. For instance, greenhouse-grown tomatoes can produce 250–300 tonnes/ha/year compared to 60–80 tonnes/ha in open fields. Controlled fertigation and pollination also enhance fruit uniformity and shelf life.

B. Flower Crops

Greenhouse floriculture supports year-round cultivation of roses, gerbera, chrysanthemum, and orchids. The flowers meet export-quality standards and ensure consistent supply to markets.

C. Fruit Crops

High-value fruits such as strawberries, melons, and grapes can be successfully cultivated under greenhouse conditions, resulting in uniform ripening, better quality, and reduced disease incidence.

D. Nursery Raising

Greenhouses provide ideal conditions for raising vegetable seedlings, tissue culture plants, and ornamental saplings, ensuring high germination rates and strong seedling growth.

Conclusion

Greenhouses play a crucial role in ensuring the year-round supply of vegetables, fruits, and ornamental crops across the world. The type and design of a greenhouse depend on local climatic conditions, available materials, and crop requirements. Among the

various designs, ridge and furrow structures are considered highly efficient, while aluminum frames offer durability. Multi-layer polyethylene films remain the most economical and practical covering material.

Efficiently designed and managed greenhouses represent a key step toward sustainable and profitable modern agriculture.

Management Strategies Of Brown Planthopper (BPH)

ARTICLE ID: 0294

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Rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) is a staple food for more than half of the world's population, and its productivity is severely threatened by the Brown Planthopper (BPH), *Nilaparvata lugens* (Stål). This pest causes direct damage through phloem feeding and indirect losses by transmitting viral diseases such as grassy stunt and ragged stunt. Outbreaks often result in severe yield losses, with hopper burn leading to complete crop failure in extreme cases.

This review highlights the biology, occurrence, and nature of BPH damage while emphasizing sustainable management strategies. Integrated Pest Management (IPM), combining resistant varieties, balanced nutrient management, cultural practices, biological control, and judicious insecticide use, provides an effective and eco-friendly solution. The article also discusses environmental concerns, challenges in BPH management such as resistance development and climate change, and future prospects including molecular breeding, digital pest

monitoring, and farmer training. Strengthening research and extension systems for IPM adoption remains critical for sustainable rice production.

Introduction

Rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) is one of the most important food crops worldwide, providing nearly 20% of the



total global calorie intake. India alone accounts for more than 43 million hectares of rice cultivation, producing about 130 million tonnes annually (FAO, 2022). However, rice productivity is

threatened by a range of insect pests, among which the Brown Planthopper (BPH), *Nilaparvata lugens* (Stål), is considered the most destructive.

BPH causes damage directly by feeding on plant sap and indirectly by transmitting viral diseases such as grassy stunt and ragged stunt. Historically, severe BPH outbreaks in Asia have led to crop losses of 60–100%, particularly in high-yielding, irrigated rice ecosystems. Uncontrolled infestation leads to “hopper burn,” characterized by the drying of entire patches of rice

fields. This article reviews the biology of BPH, the nature of its damage, and effective management strategies, with emphasis on sustainable and integrated approaches.

Biology and Occurrence

Classification

- **Order:** Hemiptera
- **Family:** Delphacidae
- **Species:** *Nilaparvata lugens* (Stål)

Life Cycle

Females insert eggs in leaf sheaths, which hatch in 7–10 days. Nymphs pass through five instars and become adults within 15–20 days under optimal conditions. Adults exist in two forms—macropterous (long-winged, migratory) and brachypterous (short-winged, sedentary). A single female may lay 200–300 eggs, enabling exponential population growth.

Favorable Conditions

High humidity (above 70%), warm temperature (25–30°C), excess nitrogen fertilization, dense planting, and continuous rice cropping favor BPH multiplication.

Distribution

BPH is endemic to South and Southeast Asia, with frequent outbreaks in India, China, Vietnam, Thailand, and the Philippines, particularly in irrigated rice ecosystems.

Symptoms and Nature of Damage

1. Early Infestation: Yellowing and stunted growth due to continuous sap sucking from the base of tillers.

2. Severe Attack: Circular patches of dried plants (“hopper burn”) that can spread rapidly across the field.

3. Yield Loss: Reduction in tiller number, poor panicle emergence, and empty grains.

4. Disease Vector: BPH transmits viral diseases such as Rice Grass Stunt Virus (RGSV) and Rice Ragged Stunt Virus (RRSV).

Unchecked infestations can reduce yields by 60–80%, and in outbreak years, entire crops may be lost (IRRI, 2021).

Management Strategies of Brown Planthopper

1. Cultural Practices

- **Resistant Varieties:** Use varieties with resistance genes (e.g., *Bph1*, *Bph3*, *Bph14*, *Bph17*) such as Pusa Basmati 1718, Swarna Sub1, and IR64.
- **Balanced Nutrient Management:** Avoid excessive nitrogen; apply adequate potassium.
- **Synchronous Planting:** Planting within a short window to break pest life cycles.
- **Crop Rotation:** Rotate rice with pulses or oilseeds to disrupt pest buildup.
- **Water Management:** Alternate wetting and drying discourages hopper multiplication.

2. Mechanical and Physical Control

- Use light traps for monitoring adult activity.
- Remove heavily infested clumps.
- Maintain wider spacing to reduce humidity and pest buildup.

3. Biological Control

- **Predators:** *Cyrtorhinus lividipennis* (mirid bug), *Lycosa* spp. (spiders), dragonflies.
- **Parasitoids:** Egg parasitoids such as *Anagrus* spp.

- **Entomopathogens:** *Beauveria bassiana* and *Metarhizium anisopliae*.
- Conserve natural enemies by avoiding broad-spectrum insecticides.

4. Chemical Control

Apply insecticides only when the **Economic Threshold Level (ETL)** is exceeded (10 hoppers per tiller at booting stage).

- Imidacloprid 17.8 SL – 40 ml/acre
- Buprofezin 25 SC – 200 ml/acre
- Thiamethoxam 25 WG – 40 g/acre

Spray at the base of the plants and avoid overuse to prevent resistance development.

5. Integrated Pest Management (IPM)

- Combine resistant varieties with balanced fertilization.
- Use light traps and field surveillance.
- Conserve natural enemies.
- Apply need-based insecticide sprays only after ETL is reached.

Community-based IPM programs in India and the Philippines have reduced insecticide use by 40–50% while maintaining yields (Jena & Kim, 2010).

Environmental Significance

Effective BPH management protects both crop yield and environmental health. Overuse of insecticides leads to soil and water contamination, secondary pest outbreaks, and loss of biodiversity. IPM adoption minimizes chemical dependence, enhances natural pest regulation, and supports sustainable rice production systems.

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Challenges in BPH Management

- Development of insecticide resistance in BPH populations.
- Climate change favoring pest outbreaks.
- Overuse of nitrogen and insecticides by farmers.
- Breakdown of resistance in rice varieties due to new BPH biotypes.

Future Prospects

- Molecular breeding for durable resistance through gene pyramiding.
- Nano-formulated biopesticides and microbial consortia for enhanced biocontrol.
- Digital tools such as drones, apps, and remote sensing for real-time pest monitoring.
- Farmer training and community-based IPM adoption.
- Policy support promoting eco-friendly pest management practices.

Conclusion

The Brown Planthopper is among the most serious pests of rice. Reliance solely on chemical control is unsustainable due to resistance and ecological impacts. Integrated Pest Management, combining host resistance, ecological and cultural practices, biological control, and judicious insecticide use, offers the best long-term solution. Strengthening farmer education, research in molecular breeding, and adoption of eco-friendly technologies are vital for sustainable rice production.

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Hydroponics in Vegetable Crops

ARTICLE ID: 0295

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Hydroponics is a method of growing plants without soil, using nutrient-rich water solutions. This technique allows for controlled cultivation of vegetables in various environments, including greenhouses, vertical farms, and urban spaces.

Definition: Cultivation of plants in water-based nutrient solutions.

Origin: Derived from the Greek words “hydro” (water) and “ponos” (labor).

Importance: Offers sustainable, space-efficient, and high-yield alternatives to traditional farming.

Principles of Hydroponic Systems

Hydroponics relies on delivering essential nutrients directly to plant roots via water. Key components include:

- **Growing Medium:** Inert materials such as cocopeat, perlite, vermiculite, or rockwool.
- **Nutrient Solution:** A balanced mix of macro- and micronutrients (N, P, K, Ca, Mg, Fe, etc.).

- **Water Management:** pH (5.5–6.5) and EC (Electrical Conductivity) must be regularly monitored.

- **Environmental Control:** Temperature, humidity, and light are regulated for optimal plant growth.



Advantages of Hydroponics in Vegetable Production

Hydroponics offers several advantages over conventional soil-based agriculture:

- **No Soil Requirement:** Eliminates soil-borne diseases and pests.
- **Water Efficiency:** Uses up to 90% less water than traditional farming.
- **Faster Growth:** Direct nutrient access accelerates plant development.
- **Space-Saving:** Vertical and stacked systems maximize space utilization.
- **Controlled Environment:** Enables year-round production with consistent quality.

- **Cleaner Produce:** Reduces exposure to soil contaminants and pesticides.

Systems of Soilless Culture

Hydroponic culture is classified according to the type of substrate, container, nutrient delivery system, and drainage method.

1. Solution Culture or Liquid Hydroponics

a. Circulating (Closed) Systems

Plants are grown in a liquid medium inside pipes or other containers, with the nutrient solution continuously recirculated.

i. Nutrient Film Technique (NFT)

In this system, plant roots are in direct contact with a thin film (0.5 mm) of nutrient solution flowing through the channels. Seedlings are placed in custom-made pots and secured in PVC or plastic channels.

ii. Deep Flow Technique (DFT)

This system uses PVC pipes filled with a 2–3 cm deep layer of nutrient solution. Plants are placed in pots fitted into holes along the pipes, allowing roots to remain partially submerged.

b. Non-Circulating (Open) Systems

In these systems, the nutrient solution is applied once and not recirculated. The pH and EC of the solution are maintained throughout the growing period.

i. Root Dipping Technique

Plants are grown in small pots containing a growing medium. The lower part of the roots is submerged in nutrient solution, allowing both aeration and nutrient absorption.

ii. Floating Technique

Plants are placed in small pots fixed to Styrofoam sheets floating on the nutrient solution. The solution is

aerated using air pumps to ensure adequate oxygen supply.

iii. Capillary Action Technique

Pots filled with sand, gravel, or porous material such as coir dust absorb the nutrient solution through capillary action. This system is simple and suitable for small-scale or household cultivation.

2. Solid Media Culture (Aggregate Systems)

In this method, sterile solid media with high porosity, good aeration, high water-holding capacity, and efficient drainage are used. Common media include sawdust, peat moss, cocopeat, perlite, vermiculite, vermicompost, gravel, and rockwool.

a. Hanging Bag Technique

Plants are grown in thick UV-stabilized polyethylene bags (about 1 m tall) filled with cocopeat or coconut fiber. The bags are suspended with support, and the excess nutrient solution is collected below.

b. Grow Bag Technique

Plants are cultivated in UV-stabilized polyethylene grow bags (1 m × 15–20 cm × 8–10 cm). Depending on the crop, single or double rows are planted at 30–60 cm spacing. Fertigation is provided through stake drippers and lateral pipes.

c. Trench or Trough Technique

Plants are grown in troughs or trenches made of bricks, concrete, or UV-stabilized PVC/HDPE sheets. The trenches are filled with inert organic or inorganic media such as cocopeat, sand, perlite, or vermiculite.

d. Pot Technique

Plants are grown in plastic pots (4–12 inches in diameter) filled with sand, cocopeat, perlite, or vermiculite, either singly or in combination.

Aeroponics Technique

In aeroponics, plants are grown with their roots suspended in air within a dark chamber and periodically misted with nutrient solution. Styrofoam panels support the plants, allowing roots to absorb nutrients efficiently. This technique offers excellent aeration and nutrient uptake.

Common Hydroponically Grown Vegetables

Many vegetables with short growth cycles perform well under hydroponic conditions:

- **Leafy Greens:** Lettuce, spinach, kale
- **Herbs:** Basil, mint, parsley

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- **Fruiting Vegetables:** Tomato, cucumber, capsicum, chilli
- **Others:** Strawberries, beans

Conclusion

In conclusion, hydroponics has revolutionized vegetable cultivation by offering an efficient and sustainable alternative to soil-based agriculture. Continuous advancements in technology, research, and development in olericulture will further enhance the success and adoption of hydroponic systems. These techniques provide a long-term, eco-friendly solution for future food production.

Black Gold from Organic Waste: The Magic of Vermicompost

ARTICLE ID: 0296

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Vermicomposting is an eco-friendly biological process that utilizes earthworms to convert organic waste into nutrient-rich manure known as vermicompost. This natural fertilizer is highly beneficial for improving soil health, plant growth, and sustainable agriculture. Earthworm species such as *Eisenia fetida*, *Eudrilus eugeniae*, and *Perionyx excavatus* play a key role in decomposing biodegradable waste materials into fine, humus-like castings rich in nitrogen, phosphorus, potassium, calcium, and beneficial microorganisms. Vermicompost enhances soil aeration, water retention, and nutrient availability while suppressing plant diseases. The process is simple, cost-effective, and adaptable for both small-scale and commercial production. As a sustainable alternative to chemical fertilizers, vermicomposting not only boosts crop productivity but also contributes

to effective waste management and environmental conservation.

1. Introduction

Vermicompost is a nutrient-rich organic fertilizer produced by the breakdown of organic waste materials



through the natural digestive process of earthworms, especially species like red wigglers. This process, known as vermicomposting, involves earthworms

consuming biodegradable materials such as kitchen scraps, dried leaves, and plant residues, then excreting castings or worm manure that is rich in essential plant nutrients and beneficial microorganisms.

Vermicompost significantly improves soil quality by enhancing aeration, water retention, and nutrient content, leading to healthier plant growth, higher crop yields, and stronger resistance against diseases. It contains essential minerals like nitrogen, phosphorus,

potassium, calcium, and magnesium, as well as plant growth hormones and enzymes that promote robust root development. Besides enriching the soil, vermicomposting is an eco-friendly waste management practice that reduces landfill waste and greenhouse gas emissions.

It is widely used in gardening, agriculture, landscaping, and horticulture as a natural soil conditioner and biofertilizer, offering a sustainable alternative to chemical fertilizers. It improves soil structure, suppresses plant diseases, and provides a cost-effective, long-term solution for maintaining soil fertility. Vermicompost production can be scaled from small home-based bins to commercial setups, making it an adaptable and practical environmental solution.

1.1 What is Vermicompost?

Vermicompost is organic manure produced by earthworms through the process of vermicomposting. Specific species of earthworms, such as red wigglers (*Eisenia fetida*), consume organic waste materials like kitchen scraps, agricultural residues, and other biodegradable matter. As the earthworms digest this material, they excrete nutrient-rich castings called vermicompost or vermicast. This granular, peat-like material is rich in nitrogen, phosphorus, potassium, calcium, and magnesium, and also contains beneficial microbes that enhance soil fertility and plant growth.

1.2 Suitable Earthworm Species for Vermicomposting

- *Eisenia fetida* (Red Wiggler or Tiger Worm)
- *Eudrilus eugeniae* (African Nightcrawler)
- *Perionyx excavatus* (Indian Blue Worm)
- *Eisenia hortensis* (European Nightcrawler)

- *Lumbricus rubellus* (Redworm)

1.3 Preparation of Vermicompost

1. Selection of Compost Bin or Area

Choose a durable container with ventilation holes for airflow and drainage. It can be a plastic bin, box, or concrete tank.

2. Prepare the Bedding

Add 2–3 inches of moist bedding materials such as shredded newspaper, dry leaves, sawdust, or partially decomposed cow dung. These provide a comfortable habitat for worms.

3. Add Organic Waste

Regularly add kitchen scraps like vegetable peels, fruit waste, coffee grounds, and eggshells. Avoid oily, spicy, or meat products to prevent odor and pests.

4. Introduce Earthworms

Introduce composting earthworms (e.g., 250–500 *Eisenia fetida*) evenly over the bedding and waste mixture.

5. Maintain Conditions

Keep the compost moist (like a wrung-out sponge) and aerated by gently turning the contents weekly. Avoid direct sunlight and maintain a temperature between 15–25°C.

6. Cover and Position

Cover the bin with a breathable cloth or loose lid to retain moisture and prevent flies. Place the bin in a cool, shaded location.

7. Harvest Vermicompost

After 8–12 weeks, the compost will turn black and crumbly. Move the finished compost to one side, add fresh bedding and waste to the other, and allow worms to migrate. Collect the mature vermicompost for use.

1.4 Application and Usage

- **Dosage:** Use 2–3 tons/acre as basal dressing during planting.
- **Mixing:** Incorporate into topsoil (15–20 cm) for better nutrient access.
- **Top Dressing:** Apply during crop growth to boost yield.
- **Seedlings:** Add to nursery beds or potting mixes.
- **Combination:** Use with biofertilizers or to reduce chemical fertilizer dependency.
- **Irrigation:** Water after application to activate nutrients and microbes.
- **Crop Suitability:** Ideal for vegetables, fruits, cereals, and flowers.

1.5 Benefits of Vermicomposting

- **Improves Soil Structure:** Enhances aeration, texture, and porosity for better root growth.
- **Rich in Nutrients:** Supplies N, P, K, Ca, and micronutrients for higher yields.
- **Boosts Microbial Activity:** Encourages beneficial microbes for nutrient cycling and disease suppression.
- **Enhances Plant Growth:** Promotes germination, root strength, faster growth, and flowering.

- **Suppresses Diseases:** Reduces soil-borne pathogens through microbial antagonism.
- **Improves Water Retention:** Helps soil retain moisture, reducing irrigation needs.
- **Eco-Friendly:** Converts organic waste into compost, minimizing landfill use and pollution.
- **Cost-Effective:** Reduces fertilizer costs and builds long-term soil fertility.

2. Conclusion

Vermicomposting represents a sustainable, low-cost, and environmentally responsible method of recycling organic waste into a valuable soil amendment. The use of earthworms accelerates decomposition, producing nutrient-enriched compost that enhances soil fertility, microbial activity, and plant growth. Regular application of vermicompost improves soil structure, water-holding capacity, and disease resistance, leading to healthier and more productive crops. Moreover, it reduces dependency on synthetic fertilizers, lowers production costs, and mitigates environmental pollution. Thus, vermicomposting is an ideal practice for farmers, gardeners, and environmentalists seeking to promote sustainable agriculture and circular waste management, contributing significantly to soil health and ecological balance.

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Morphological Adaptations in Major Insect Pests

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Insect pests are among the most serious threats to global agriculture, causing substantial losses in crop yield and quality every year. According to FAO estimates, approximately 20–40% of global crop production is lost annually due to pests, including insects. In India alone, crop losses from insect pests amount to billions of rupees annually, adversely impacting food security and farmer income.

The remarkable success of insect pests in agricultural ecosystems is attributed to a wide range of morphological adaptations that enable them to feed efficiently, withstand adverse conditions, evade predators, and disperse effectively. These adaptations include modifications in mouthparts, cuticle, legs, wings, body coloration, and egg or larval structures.

Understanding these adaptations is essential for developing effective Integrated Pest Management (IPM) strategies, as they determine pest behavior, susceptibility to control measures, and interaction with

host plants. This article explores key morphological adaptations in major insect pests and highlights their significance in pest management.

Modified Mouthparts

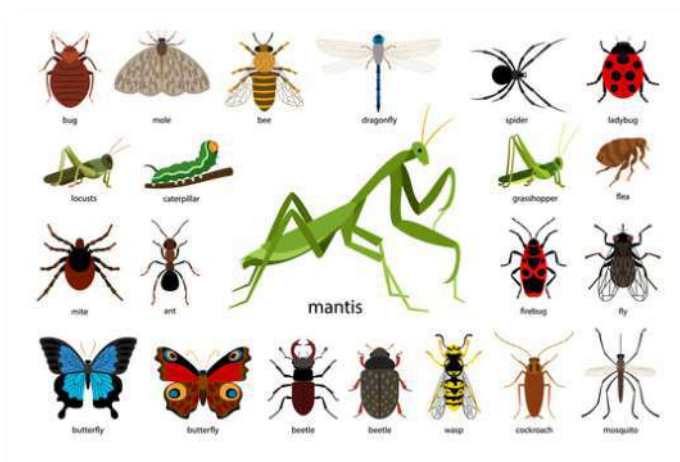
One of the most striking morphological adaptations among insect pests is the modification of mouthparts according to feeding habits.

• Chewing

mouthparts are found in pests such as the cotton bollworm (*Helicoverpa armigera*) and various

beetles. Their strong mandibles enable them to consume large quantities of plant tissue, causing severe defoliation and damage to reproductive structures.

- **Piercing-sucking mouthparts**, as seen in aphids (*Aphis* spp.) and whiteflies (*Bemisia tabaci*), consist of elongated stylets used to penetrate plant tissues and extract phloem sap. This not only weakens the host plant but also facilitates virus transmission, such as the *Tomato Leaf Curl Virus* by whiteflies.



Cuticular Modifications and Symbiotic Structures

The insect cuticle serves more than just a protective function. In many pests, it also houses symbiotic organisms or provides structural advantages.

Certain bark beetles and weevils possess specialized cuticular invaginations or crypts that harbor symbiotic bacteria and fungi. These microorganisms detoxify plant defensive chemicals and assist in digestion, enhancing pest survival and complicating chemical control strategies.

Leg Morphology

Leg morphology in insect pests often reflects their ecological niche and feeding habits.

- **Stem borers** such as *Scirpophaga incertulas* have robust legs and compact bodies that enable them to bore into rice stems. This adaptation provides both nutrient access and protection from predators and insecticides.
- **Thrips**, with their slender bodies, fringed wings, and agile legs, move efficiently within plant tissues and disperse rapidly among host plants.

Although raptorial forelegs are primarily associated with predatory insects, certain pest species also exhibit modifications that assist in grasping or clinging to host plants.

Wing Morphology and Dispersal Adaptations

Wings play a crucial role in dispersal and survival. Many insect pests exhibit wing polymorphism that allows seasonal migration.

For example, the brown planthopper (*Nilaparvata lugens*) develops long-winged (macropterous) forms under overcrowded or unfavorable conditions, enabling migration to new fields. Wing musculature and size directly influence flight range, colonization ability, and the potential for widespread pest outbreaks.

Coloration and Camouflage

Coloration in insect pests serves as a defense mechanism against predators.

- Leaf miners and certain caterpillars mimic leaf veins or stems, blending with their environment.
- Some pests exhibit aposematic coloration, signaling toxicity or unpalatability to predators.

These strategies reduce predation pressure and enhance survival, particularly in open agricultural fields.

Egg and Larval Adaptations

Eggs and larvae are the most vulnerable developmental stages, yet many insect pests possess morphological features that enhance their survival.

- Some pest eggs have waxy or resinous coatings, which protect them from desiccation and parasitoids.
- Borer larvae are cylindrical with strong mandibles, enabling them to tunnel through plant tissues.
- Leaf miner larvae have flattened bodies suited for feeding between leaf layers.

Such adaptations make early detection and control challenging, increasing the persistence of pest populations.

Table 1. Examples of Morphological Adaptations in Major Insect Pests

Insect Pest	Key Morphological Adaptation	Major Crop Host
<i>Helicoverpa armigera</i>	Chewing mouthparts	Cotton, Pulses
<i>Bemisia tabaci</i>	Piercing-sucking mouthparts	Tomato, Cotton

<i>Scirpophaga incertulas</i>	Boring legs, cylindrical larvae	Rice
<i>Aphis spp.</i>	Piercing-sucking mouthparts	Various field crops
<i>Nilaparvata lugens</i>	Long-winged dispersal forms	Rice
<i>Leaf miners</i>	Cryptic coloration	Vegetables, Ornamentals
<i>Thrips spp.</i>	Fringed wings, slender bodies	Vegetables, Flowers

Discussion

Morphological adaptations in insect pests represent complex evolutionary strategies that enhance survival and reproductive success. These traits—such as concealed larval feeding, cryptic coloration, and wing-mediated dispersal—often reduce the effectiveness of chemical control.

A thorough understanding of these adaptations is essential for:

- Developing resistant crop varieties.
- Designing targeted biological control measures.
- Timing interventions to coincide with vulnerable pest stages.

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Such insights form a critical component of sustainable pest management.

Conclusion

Morphological adaptations in insect pests are products of long-term evolution, enabling them to thrive in diverse agroecosystems. Recognizing these features aids in understanding pest ecology and improving control strategies. Integrating morphological knowledge into Integrated Pest Management (IPM) can help anticipate pest behavior, improve surveillance, and promote sustainable agricultural practices.