

## Biological Control of Insects, Pests and Diseases

E Venkatesh\* and Pradeep dalavi<sup>1</sup>

B.Sc (Hons.) Agriculture, Lovely professional university, Jalandhar, Punjab, India

ARTICLE ID: 08

### Introduction

Through the usage of herbal enemies, biological control is a safe and green manner to reduce the impact of pests and their repercussions on the environment. Predation, parasitism, herbivory, or different natural mechanisms are used, although often energetic human control is likewise gift (J. Brodeur et al. 2013). organic manipulate, as defined via S. H. D reistadt in 2007, is the powerful control of pests and the harm they motive via predators, parasites, pathogens, and competitors.

The biocontrol provided by those residing creatures, additionally referred to as herbal enemies, is crucial for reducing the superiority of nuisance mites and insects. essentially, there are three varieties of biological control techniques carried out in pests control applications. these are Importation (now and again referred to as classical organic control), Augmentation and Conservation. Classical bio control is described because the intentional creation of a distinctive (nonnative), generally co-developed biological manipulate agent for everlasting established order and lengthy-term pest control.

### Organic control agents

organic manage sellers or natural enemies are organisms such as insects or vegetation ailment which are used to manipulate pest species. herbal enemies of insect pests, also referred to as biological manage retailers, consist of predators, parasitoids, and pathogens. Biological manage marketers of plant sicknesses are most customarily known as antagonists. Biological manipulate dealers of weeds include herbivores and plant pathogens.

### Mechanism of organic control

Because interactions between organisms can take many one of a kind forms and bring about biological control, researchers have targeting describing the mechanisms at work in various experimental settings. Pathogens are usually repelled by means of the existence and movements of different species they stumble upon. here, we declare that many processes of there are various tiers of animosity relying on the quantity of interspecies touch. The



interactions' specificity and phone (desk 1). physical warfare effects in direct hostility. interplay with the pathogen and/or a robust desire for it the usage of the mechanism(s) defined by using a BCA (s). Hyperparasitism by way of obligatory parasites of a plant pathogen might arise underneath this sort of situation. Be appeared as the maximum direct form of conflict due to the fact no different species are involved in it.

Would want to have a suppressive effect. Conversely, oblique conflicts are brought about by moves that do not include the BCA sensing or aiming toward a pathogen (s). Stimulus to flowers. The most covert form of host defence pathways by way of non-pathogenic BCAs is antagonism. but within the setting of the natural surroundings, most people of reported pathogen mechanisms the relative presence of other organisms will have an impact on suppression further to the pathogen. While numerous research has sought to prove the significance of specific the mechanisms indexed underneath are all bio control mechanisms for specific path systems. Likely to be gift, both in unmanaged and managed environments, to a few diploma. And the best effective BCAs appear to combat infections through a ramification of techniques, according to research thus far. as an instance, the antibiotic 2,4-diacetylphloroglucinol (DAPG), that's produced through pseudomonads, might also probably trigger host defences (Iavicoli et al. 2003). Moreover, DAPG-producers can aggressively invade roots, which might also help them of their potential to compete for natural assets to reduce pathogen pastime inside the wheat rhizosphere.

### **Hyperparasitism**

In hyper parasitism, a particular BCA directly targets the pathogen and destroys it or its propagules. Obligate bacterial pathogens, hypoviruses, facultative parasites, and predators are the four main groups of hyperparasites. A BCA has been utilised with *Pasteuria penetrans*, an obligatory bacterial pathogen of root-knot nematodes. Hyperparasites are hypoviruses. The virus that infects *Cryphonectriaparasitica*, the fungus that causes chestnut blight, results in hypovirulence, or a decrease in the pathogen's ability to cause disease. In many locations, the phenomenon has prevented the chestnut blight (Milgroom and Cortesi 2004). However, the success or failure of hypovirulence depends on how the virus, fungus, tree, and environment interact. *Coniothyriumminitans* is one example of a fungus that preys on sclerotia, while other fungal parasites of plant diseases target live hyphae (e.g., *Pythium oligandrum*). Additionally, several hyperparasites can all attack a single fungal pathogen. For

instance, a few fungi that can parasitize the pathogens that cause powdery mildew include *Acremonium alternatum*, *Acrodontium crateriforme*, *Ampelomyces quisqualis*, *Cladosporium oxysporum*, and *Gliocladium virens* (Kiss 2003). Other hyperparasites, such as *Paecilomyces lilacinus* and *Dactylella oviparasitica*, prey on plant-pathogenic nematodes at various stages of their life cycles. Microbial predation, as opposed to hyperparasitism, is more generic and pathogen-neutral and typically offers less consistent levels of disease management. Some BCAs engage in predatory behaviour when nutrients are scarce. However, in typical growth circumstances, such activity typically does not manifest itself. For instance, several *Trichoderma* species release a variety of enzymes that are intended to attack the cell walls of fungi. *Trichoderma* species, however, do not actively combat the plant disease *Rhizoctonia solani* when new bark is added to composts. However, the amount of readily available cellulose drops in disintegrating bark, which activates *Trichoderma* spp. chitinase genes, which in turn manufacture chitinase to parasitize *R. solani* (Benhamou and Chet 1997).

### **Biological control of insects**

Over 80 nuisance bug species have been entirely or largely eliminated from the planet by newly introduced natural enemies. Comparatively, the celebrated auto sterilization technique has only yielded one notable result, and control through the breeding of pest-resistant host plants and animals has only been effective in a few number of instances. There hasn't been a single success with the use of pheromones, physical and electronic phenomena, antifeedants, antimetabolites, and third-generation chemical insecticides. Chemical repellents, physical deterrents (such as barriers, screens, netting, etc.), and microbial management have all had varying degrees of success.

The traditional method of biological control for pest insects involves using exotic natural enemies. Its foundation is the fact that insects—or, for that matter, some other sorts of organisms—frequently leave their adapted natural enemies behind when they unintentionally enter new settings (such as the US from Europe). Once liberated from them, they may erupt into vast abundance. Therefore, the goal of traditional biological management is to locate a pest's native habitat, capture there its adapted adversaries, transship them to the region that has been invaded, and colonise it in the hopes that they would establish themselves, thrive, and dominate their host. It is important to note that natural enemy importation primarily



concerns exotic pests. There has been speculation and perhaps considerable effort regarding the use of imported foes against native pests. However, such efforts are typically fruitless since native species are frequently preyed upon by their own parasites and predators and because imported natural enemies, even if they are biologically adapted to the host pests, have little chance of outcompeting their native counterparts.

### **Biological control of weeds**

The term "biological control" is used to describe how parasites, predators, and pathogens keep the density of other organisms at a lower average than it would be otherwise. Three distinct methods of practical biocontrol are listed in this definition: A biocontrol agent's population can be protected or maintained through "conservation"; it can be regularly increased through "augmentation," which involves periodic releases or environmental manipulation; or it can be imported and released through "classical biocontrol," which involves the hope that the agent will become established, and no further releases will be required. The mainstay of weed biological management is classical biocontrol; conservation is virtually never applied. For controlling weeds, augmentation is used in conjunction with mycoherbicides, certain insects, and purposeful grazing animals.

### **Augmentation Using Pathogens**

Although there is a large body of study on prospective bioherbicides, practically all of it focusing on fungi, there is little actual usage of these as commercial or useful techniques in the field (125). Weed scientists frequently refer to biocontrol as just referring to the use of pathogens as mycoherbicides, particularly in the United States, while neglecting the existence of classical biocontrol (7, 145). Only three mycoherbicides, however, have ever been authorised for use in commercial Collego (*Colletotrichum gloeosporioides* f. sp. *aeschynomeneae*), DeVine (*Phytophthora palmivora*), and BioMal (*Colletotrichum gloeosporioides* f. sp. *malvae*). All were later withdrawn for business purposes. A Japanese company is introducing three new mycoherbicides for use on golf course turf and rice weeds [Biocontrol News Inf. 17(4):62N, unpublished data]; it is unclear if these will be profitable. Numerous possible bio herbicides are still being researched, but issues with mass production, formulation, and marketing keep these products from being used (4, 125). Bio herbicides are still unproven as practical, economically viable weed control alternatives to chemical or mechanical weed control.

### **Augmentation using insects**

There aren't many instances of native insects being artificially boosted or otherwise altered to manage native weeds (86, 94, 142). When the bio control agent's potential for dissemination is low and the weed grows in isolated, scattered regions, manipulation of introduced bio control agents is more frequently used. In Australia and South Africa, cacti are managed by routinely releasing mealy bugs into solitary infestations (87, 123). In Australia, the weevil *Cyrtobagoussalviniae* is released in bags of infected salvinia to control the floating fern salvinia (*Salvinia molesta*) in ponds and other water bodies (R Wood, personal communication). The manipulation of bio control agents is a key component of managing water weeds in the United States, and operational staff has received specialised training in the techniques.

### **Conclusions:**

There are several pests in the area that classical biological control provides excellent opportunities for controlling successfully. The braconid parasite of the Asian stem borers *Chilo* spp., *Cotesia flavipes* Cameron, was introduced in Texas and used to control the New World sugarcane borer *Diatraea saccharalis* (Fabr). (Chapter 11). The South American pyralid *Cactoblastis cactorum* Berg, which was derived from other species of *Opuntia*, similarly reduced the *Opuntia* spp. native to North America in dramatic fashion in Australia. Therefore, in addition to looking for natural enemies of the target pest, the search for natural enemies should continue to include new host relationships. Pathogens may be an underutilised resource for classical medicine, according to *Solenopsis invicta* Buren and other pests. In this review, parasites and predators make up most of the introductions, with only a few cursory mention of the diseases' potential; notable exceptions include using *Bacillus popilliae* Dutky to control the Japanese beetle (Chapter 19) and Using plant diseases to control weeds. The initial findings in the search for fire ant pathogens *Invicta Solenopsis* Pathogens may be an issue, as Buren and other pests suggest and are encouraging. Resource for conventional biological control that is underutilised.

### **References**

1. Phim-Pal, K. K., & Gardener, B. M. (2006). Biological control of plant pathogens.
2. Bci Den- Van Den Bosch, R. (1971). Biological control of insects. *Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics*, 45-66.



3. Bci Weeds Arizona - McFadyen, R. E. C. (1998). Biological control of weeds. *Annual review of entomology*, 43(1), 369-393.

