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# Evaluation of Combined Management Options for Managing Pests of Lycopersicon esculentum Mill

Nirupama Goudia<sup>1</sup>, Rohit Raj Singh<sup>1</sup> and Manoj Kumar Jena<sup>2\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>PG Research Scholar, Department of Entomology, Bidhan Chandra Krishi Viswavidyalaya, Mohanpur, Nadia, (West Bengal), India. <sup>2</sup>Ph.D. Research Scholar, Section of Applied Entomology, Department of Plant Protection, Institute of Horticulture Sciences, Warsaw University of Life Sciences, Nowoursynowska Warsaw, Poland.

(Corresponding author: Manoj Kumar Jena\*)

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ABSTRACT: The tomato, Lycopersicon esculentum Mill is susceptible to a wide range of insect pests that affect fruit quality and quantity. Continuous use of insecticides affects human health and have a negative impact on the environment. There is the need to find good agricultural pest management practices to combat the pests. Therefore, the present investigation was conducted to evaluate an effective combined management option for managing pests of L. esculentum Mill, at K.V.K. Instructional Farm located near College of Agriculture, Odisha University of Agriculture and Technology, Bhawanipatna, Kalahandi, Odisha during the cropping season 2020–21 from November, 2020 to May, 2021. All the treatments,  $T_1$  – Neem oil (Multi Neem) @ 5ml/litre at an interval of 7 days, T<sub>2</sub> - Neem oil (Multi Neem) @ 5ml/litre + chlorphenapyr 10 EC (Ustad) @ 100g a.i./ha (4 gm or ml/litre) and emamectin benzoate 5% SG (Dhanuka EM-1) @ 12g a.i./ha (0.5g/litre) at an interval of 14 days in alternate sprays, T<sub>3</sub> - Neem oil (Multi Neem) @ 5ml/litre + chlorphenapyr 10 EC (Ustad) @ 100g a.i./ha (4 gm or ml/litre) and emamectin benzoate 5% SG (Dhanuka EM-1) @ 12g a.i./ha (0.5g/litre) at an interval of 14 days in alternate sprays + Bacillus thuringiensis kurstaki (Green Larvicide) @ 4g/litre once in every 14 days, were superior to the untreated check (T<sub>4</sub>) and effective in managing the pests of tomato. Moreover, the Incremental Cost Benefit Ratio (ICBR) was superior in T<sub>3</sub> (1: 2.60) followed by T<sub>2</sub> (1: 1.66) and T<sub>1</sub> (1: 1.18) subsequently. The T<sub>3</sub> was the most dominant and cost-effective in managing pests of L. esculentum. However, natural enemies, spiders and coccinellids and pollinators, carpenter bee and honey bee were less in the T<sub>3</sub> treatment as compared to others.

Keywords: IPM, Lycopersicon esculentum, natural enemies, pests, pollinators.

# INTRODUCTION

India is the second largest producer of vegetables in the world (Horticultural Statistics at a Glance, 2017). Tomatoes, L. esculentum, are one of the most important vegetables in the world and belong to the Solanaceae family. Historically, tomatoes originated from the Americas, particularly, Central and South, from Mexico to Peru, and Southern North America (Warnock, 1991). Due to its high nutritional value in the human diet, the tomato is widely used as the major vegetable in many countries (Alam et al., 2019). Tomatoes are rich in several vitamins and minerals and beta-carotene (Huda et al., 2020; Bugti, 2016; Alam et al., 2019). Globally, in 2020, the tomato was found to be the second largest vegetable crop after the potato with 5,051,983 hectares of cultivable land allocated for tomato growing, and the total yield was estimated at 186,821,216 metric tons (FAOSTAT, 2022). Next to China, India is the world's second-largest tomato producer, which accounts nearly 11 per cent of global production. The total area under tomato cultivation in India is 7.89 million hectares, with an annual production of 19.76 million tonnes and a productivity of 25 MT/ha (Horticultural Statistics at a Glance, 2017). The insect pests infesting tomato include the fruit borer, Helicoverpa armigera (Hubner), whitefly, Bemisia tabaci (Genn.), jassids, Amrasca *biguttulla biguttula* (Ishida), thrips *Thrips tabaci* (Lind) and serpentine leaf miner. Liriomvza trifolii (Burgess) (Reddy and Kumar 2004). Many species of ladybird cardinalis. Cryptolaemus beetles, Rodolia montrouzieri, Hippodamia variegata, Coccinella septempunctata and Propylea japonica are the dominant predators of sucking pests in tomato (Suresh, 2006; Bikash, 2013; Singh, 2017). Tomato flowers are self-fertile, but pollinators are required for the increase in fruit setting. Among pollinators, carpenter bees and honey bees are the most dominant pollinators. Though carpenter bees do not efficiently vibrate greenhouse tomato flowers, some benefit from honey bee pollination has been reported (Banda and Paxton 1991; Sabara and Winston 2003; Higo et al., 2004). Pesticides are the quick method for the elimination of the pest population. Excessive use of hazardous pesticides by

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Smallholder farmers, has negative consequences for human health and the environment, as well as increasing pest resistance and destroying beneficial insects. Moreover, over use of insecticides has several drawbacks, including negative effects on human health, soil, and water resources, as well as the development of resistance in most pests after repeated use (Mathews, 2008). Excess usage of synthetic pesticides have several unintended consequences, including contamination and health risks, pest resistance, resurgence, and replacement, bioaccumulation and biomagnification, killing of natural enemies and pollinators, disruption of homeostasis, etc. (Reddy and Kumar 2004). Because of large array of problems associated with the wide use of synthetic pesticides, it is necessary for finding the safer ways of managing the pests which are cost-effective, safer and ecofriendly in nature. Keeping this rationale in mind, some safer pest management modules were designed and evaluated against the pests of tomato in the present investigation.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

The experiment was carried out at K.V.K Instructional Farm located near College of Agriculture, Odisha Agriculture University of and Technology, Bhawanipatna, Kalahandi, during the cropping season from November, 2020 to May, 2021. The field was cross ploughed with a tractor drawn cultivator. It was followed by harrowing and planking to obtain a well pulverised experimental field. The weeds and crop residues, left out from the previous sown crop, were removed. Tomato seeds of the variety, Pusa Hybrid-4, Pusa-120  $\times$  Chikoo, were sown in a plugged chamber in the green house on December 03, 2020, and after 21 days, seedlings were transplanted in the experimental field with a row to row and plant to plant spacing of 60 cm  $\times$  45 cm. The crop was fertilized with the recommended dose of 100:50:60 kg N, P, and K per hectare. N, P, and K were applied as a basal dose in furrows at the time of transplanting using Urea, Single Super Phosphate (SSP), and Muriate of Potash (MOP), respectively. Glyphosate (All Clear), a total weed killer, was used as a non-selective herbicide and one manual hand weeding was done at 25 days after transplanting (DAT). Need based manual weeding was done, when weeds were observed. The insecticides were applied with the help of knapsack sprayer at the economic threshold level of the pest. Harvesting was done manually 70 days after transplanting starting from 04/03/2021 to 23/04/2021. The total yield from each plot in each picking was also recorded.

The experimental set-up consisted of single tomato cropping units. A good tilth field was divided into four blocks. Each block was divided into four sub plots, each measuring about 2.5 m  $\times$  2 m with a 0.3 m border. The sub plot size was 5 square metre. The experiment

was conducted in randomized block design (RBD) with four treatments including untreated check and each with four replicates. The treatments were:

**T1:** Neem oil (Multi Neem) @ 5ml/litre at an interval of 7 days

**T<sub>2</sub>:** Neem oil (Multi Neem) @ 5ml/litre +chlorphenapyr 10 EC (Ustad) @ 100g *a.i.*/ha (4 gm or ml/litre) and emamectin benzoate 5% SG (Dhanuka EM-1) @ 12g *a.i.*/ha (0.5g/litre) at an interval of 14 days in alternate sprays

**T<sub>3</sub>:** Neem oil (Multi Neem) @ 5ml/litre + chlorphenapyr 10 EC (Ustad) @ 100g *a.i.*/ha (4 gm or ml/litre) and emamectin benzoate 5% SG (Dhanuka EM-1) @ 12g *a.i.*/ha (0.5g/litre) at an interval of 14 days in alternate sprays + *Bacillus thuringiensis kurstaki* (Green Larvicide) @ 4g /litre once in every 14 days.

T4: untreated check.

The per cent increase in fruit yield over control and the benefit cost ratios were also calculated as per the procedure laid down by Kumar *et al.* (2017). The data recorded on different parameters were calculated using the following formula:

% **plant/shoot/fruit infestation** = (Number of infested plant/shoot/fruit ÷Total number of plant/shoot/fruit) × 100

% increase or decrease over control = [(Mean of treated plot–Mean of untreated plot)  $\div$  Mean of untreated plot]  $\times 100$ 

**ICBR** (Incremental Cost Benefits Ratio) = Net profit gain ÷ Total cost.

#### **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

#### Insect Pests

Whitefly. The untreated check, T<sub>4</sub>, had a very high whitefly, Bemisia sp., incidence (24.20/ 6 leaf) and damage (28.77% infested plant), indicating that it was an important pest on the tomato crop. T<sub>3</sub> recorded the mean 12.04 whitefly/6 leaf and 13.64% infested plant and was the most effective treatment in controlling the pest. T<sub>2</sub> was also equally effective as T<sub>3</sub> against whitefly recording low damage (13.71% infested plant) and incidence (14.49 white fly/6 leaf). The infestation in  $T_2$  was statistically at par with  $T_3$  but significantly inferior to T<sub>3</sub>. Another safer treatment, T<sub>1</sub> [Neem oil (Multi neem) @ 5ml/litre], also performed well (17.68% infested plant, 15.48 whitefly/6 leaf) but significantly inferior to T<sub>3</sub> and T<sub>2</sub> in terms of performance damage though incidence (Table 1 and Fig. 1). Dimetry et al. (1996) showed that various formulations of neem seed extracts had bioactivity against B. tabaci. Sabillon and Bastamante (1995) noted that extracts of tobacco, Nicotiana tabacum, castor, Ricinus communis and neem, Melia azadirachta indica derived commercial product were efficacious against B. tabaci adults as well as the nymphal stages.

Table 1: Effect of the treatments on the incidence and damage of the pests in tomato during the cropping
season 2020-21.

Treat.	Mean whitefly /6 leaf	Mean % whitefly infested plants	Mean leaf miner population /Plant	Mean leaf miner infestation (%)	Mean flea beetle/ Plant	Mean no. of <i>H. armigera</i> larvae/Plant	Mean % <i>Helicoverpa</i> infested plants
$T_1$	15.48	17.68	14.09	27.34	1.48	2.07	9.77
11	(4.0) **	(24.86) *	(3.82)	(31.53)	(1.41)	(3.20)	(18.21)
т	14.49	13.71	12.47	24.91	1.35	0.67	6.81
T <sub>2</sub>	(3.87)	(21.73)	(3.60)	(29.94)	(1.36)	(2.70)	(15.13)
т	12.04	13.64	10.73	21.48	0.81	0.25	5.45
T <sub>3</sub>	(3.54)	(21.67)	(3.35)	(27.61)	(1.14)	(2.44)	(13.50)
<b>T</b> 4	24.20	28.77	16.20	31.70	2.70	6.38	15.03
	(4.97)	(32.44)	(4.09)	(34.27)	(1.79)	(3.94)	(22.81)
SEm ((±)	0.29	0.34	0.26	0.62	0.04	0.08	0.33
CD at 5%	0.84	1.02	0.76	1.83	0.12	0.23	0.83

\*Figures in parentheses are arcsine vp transformations

\*\*Figures in parentheses are square root transformed *i. e.*  $\sqrt{(x + 0.5)}$  values

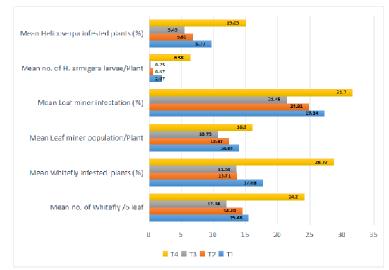


Fig. 1. Effect of the treatments on the incidence and damage of the pests in tomato.

Leaf miner. The invasive pest from U.S.A, serpentine leaf miner, Liriomyza sp. was observed to be a significant pest, as evidenced by a high infestation rate (31.70%) and active mines (16.2/plant) in T<sub>4</sub>. T<sub>3</sub> recorded the low infestation of 10.73 active mine/plant and 21.48% infested plant and was the most superior treatment in controlling the pest. T<sub>2</sub> was also equally effective against leaf miner recording low damage 12.47 active mine/plant and 24.91% infested plant, but significantly inferior to T<sub>3</sub>. T<sub>1</sub> performed well that had 14.09 active mine/plant and 27.34% infested plant but significantly inferior to T3 and T2 in terms of performance damage though mining (Table 1 and Fig. 1). Vikraktamath et al. (1993) reported that a 4 per cent neem seed kernel extract could significantly control the devastating L. trifolii on tomato crop. Jayakumar and Uthamasamy (1997) observed that neem oil (3%) caused 93.3 per cent mortality of L. trifolii larvae, neem seed kernel extract (5%) and mahua oil (3%) (Madhuca longifolia) caused 90% and 90% mortality of L. trifolii larvae, respectively.

**Flea beetle.** The leaf-damaging flea beetle, *Phyllotreta* sp., was also observed, though there was not a large population (Table 1).  $T_4$  had an elevated infestation rate of 2.70 beetles/plant. The lowest population of 0.81 per plant was observed in  $T_3$ .  $T_2$  (1.35 beetle/plant) and  $T_1$ *Goudia et al. Biological Forum – An International Journal* **15(3): 364-369(2023)** 

(1.48 beetle/plant) closely followed the  $T_3$ . Safer treatments T<sub>2</sub> and T<sub>1</sub> were inferior to T<sub>3</sub> in suppressing the population build up of the coleopteran and the difference was statistically significant (Table 1 and Fig. 1). Flea beetles were effectively repellent to the horticultural oils and some neem-based insecticide groups which could be useful in avoiding field infestations and helped in pest management programmes (Cranshaw, 2013). Neem, and mostly botanical pesticides were recommended for controlling the population of flea beetles (Ellis and Marshall 1992). Fruit borer. Fruit borer of tomato or tomato fruit worm, Helicoverpa armigera, was also found to cause significant damage to green fruits and had a quite high infestation rate (15.03% fruit damage, 6.38 larva/plant) in T<sub>4</sub>. The least damage of 5.45% fruit infestation and 0.25 larva/plant was found in T<sub>3</sub>. T<sub>3</sub> was the most effective treatment in contolling the population build up and damage by the fruit borer. It was very closely followed by T<sub>2</sub> with 6.81% fruit damage and population density of 0.67 larva/plant. T<sub>1</sub> was also guite effective against the borer (9.77% fruit damage, 2.07 larva/plant) but was inferior to both  $T_3$  and  $T_2$  (Table 1 and Fig. 1). Kumar and Prasad (2002) found that applying B. thuringiensis subsp. kurstaki (Dipel @ 1.0 liter ha<sup>-1</sup>) in bengal gram resulted in H. armigera larval reductions 366

ranging between 51.01 to 92 per cent. Ravi *et al.* (2008) found that nucleo polyhedron virus of *H. armigera* (Ha NPV at  $1.5 \times 10^{12}$  POB ha<sup>-1</sup>), *Bacillus thuringiensis var. kurstaki* (Delfin 25 WG @ 1 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>), spinosad 45 SC (@ 75g *a.i.* ha<sup>-1</sup>), endosulfan 35 EC (@ 350 g *a.i.* ha<sup>-1</sup>), quinolphos 25 EC (@ 250 g *a.i.* ha<sup>-1</sup>) and indoxacarb 14.5 SC (@ 75 g *a.i.* ha<sup>-1</sup>) were found to be equally efficacious in supressing *H. armigera* population. Kumar and Ravi (2013) investigated the efficacy of chemical insecticides such as emamectin benzoate 5 SG @ 11 g *a.i.* ha<sup>-1</sup>, emamectin benzoate 5 SG @ 22 g *a.i.* ha<sup>-1</sup> and *Bacillus thuringiensis* @ 25 g *a.i.* ha<sup>-1</sup> for

controlling *H. armigera*. Murugraj *et al.* (2006) observed that application of emamectin benzoate (proclaim 05 SG) @ 11g *a.i.* ha<sup>-1</sup> was successful in reducing the population of *H. armigera* larvae and also the fruit damage, and thereby greatly increased yield. **Natural enemies.** Natural enemies, coccinellids *C. transversalis, Cheilomenes sexmaculata* (Fab.), *C. septempunctata,* spiders, lynx *Oxyopes* sp., jumping *Phiddipus* sp. and wolf *Marpissa* sp., and rove beetle *Paederus* sp., red ant *Solenopsis* sp. and damselfly was observed in the experimental plots (Table 2 and Fig. 2).

 Table 2: Effect of treatments on the population of the pollinators and the natural enemies found in tomato during the cropping season 2020-21.

	Mean number									
Treatments	Coccinellids /Plant	Spider/ Plant	Red ant/ Plant	Damselfly /Plot	Rove beetle/Plot	Carpenter bee/Plot	Honey bee/Plot			
$T_1$	1.68	2.08	1.31	0.26	0.43	0.48	0.80			
-	(1.48) *	(1.61)	(1.35)	(0.87)	(0.96)	(0.99)	(1.14)			
$T_2$	1.45 (1.40)	2.05 (1.60)	1.2 (1.30)	0.20 (0.84)	0.34 (0.92)	0.44 (0.97)	0.77 (1.13)			
<b>T</b> 3	1.38 (1.37)	2.05 (1.60)	1.12 (1.27)	0.17 (0.82)	0.23 (0.85)	0.40 (0.95)	0.60 (1.05)			
<b>T</b> 4	1.74 (1.50)	2.14 (1.62)	1.41 (1.38)	0.29 (0.89)	0.49 (0.99)	0.50 (1.00)	0.84 (1.16)			
SEm ((±)	0.05	0.02	0.05	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.01			
CD at 5%	0.16	0.07	0.14	0.03	0.06	0.05	0.04			

\*Figures in parentheses are square root transformed *i. e.*  $\sqrt{(x + 0.5)}$  value

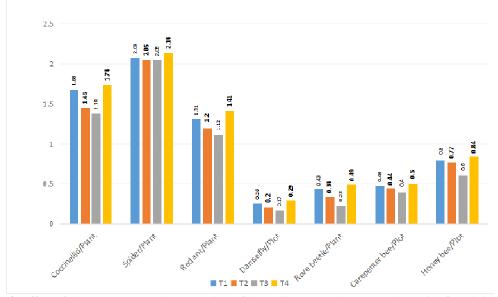


Fig. 2. Effect of the treatments on the population of the pollinators and the natural enemies found in tomato.

**Coccinellid.**  $T_4$  had the highest population of coccin beetle/plant).  $T_4$  and  $T_1$  were statistically at par with each other. Coccinellids, 1.45 per plant were recorded in  $T_2$ .  $T_3$  (1.38 beetle/plant) was inferior to  $T_2$ , but was statistically at par with  $T_2$ .  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$ , and  $T_3$  had the most beetles, followed by the  $T_4$ . However, there was no statistically much difference among different treatments (Table 2 and Fig. 2).

**Spider.** The  $T_4$  showed the highest population of spiders (2.14 Spiders/plant).  $T_1$  had 2.08 Spiders/plant.  $T_2$  and  $T_3$  had the same number of spiders, 2.05 Spiders/plant.  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$  and  $T_3$  were statistically at par

**Coccinellid.**  $T_4$  had the highest population of coccinellid beetles (1.74 beetle/plant), followed by  $T_1$  (1.68 beetle/plant).  $T_4$  and  $T_1$  were statistically at par with each other. The  $T_4$  was the superior among all treatments (Table 2 and Fig. 2).

**Red ant.** The  $T_4$  recorded the highest population of red ants (1.41 ants/plant) and closely followed by  $T_1$  (1.31 ants/plant).  $T_4$  and  $T_1$  were statistically at par with each other.  $T_2$  (1.2 ants/plant) and  $T_3$  (1.12 ants/plant) were statistically at par with  $T_2$ . There was no statistical differences among treatments were recorded (Table 2 and Fig. 2).

**Damselfly.** The  $T_4$  recorded the highest population of damselfly (0.29/plot) and closely followed by  $T_1$  (0.26

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/plot). T<sub>4</sub> and T<sub>1</sub> were statistically at par with each other. T<sub>2</sub> (0.20/plot) and T<sub>3</sub> (0.17/plot) were statistically at par with T<sub>2</sub>. There was very less population of damselfly in the experimental field (Table 2 and Fig. 2). **Rove beetle.** The T<sub>4</sub> recorded the highest population of rove beetle (0.43 beetle/plant) closely followed by T<sub>1</sub> (0.39 beetle/plant) and T<sub>2</sub> (0.34 beetle/plant). T<sub>4</sub>, T<sub>1</sub> and T<sub>2</sub> were statistically at par with each other. T<sub>3</sub> had lowest number of population (0.23 beetle/plant) and it was inferior to all the other treatments (Table 2 and Fig. 2).

**Pollinators.** Data on pollinators (Table 2 and Fig. 2) found in tomato ecosystem showed that mostly common bees, three species of honey bees *A. mellifera*, *A. dorsata* and *A. cerena indica* and one species of carpenter bees and bumble bees *Bombus* sp. were visited. Generally, more number of bees were visited in  $T_4$  (0.84 honey bee/plot) and (0.5 carpenter bees/plot)

and other treatments had very low number of bees visiting in plot. The solanaceous crops are mainly self pollinated and having nectarless flower so pollinators population is generally low.

Economics and Yield of Different Treatments. The highest yield of 60.6 t/ha was registered by the  $T_3$  (25.6 t/ha or 73.14% higher yield over  $T_4$ ) followed by  $T_2$ . Another safer treatment,  $T_2$  also sponsored fairly good yield 52.5 t/ha or 50% higher yield (17.5 t/ha) over  $T_4$ . In  $T_1$ , yield was 42.5 t/ha or 21.4% higher yield (7.5 t/ha) over  $T_4$  (Table 3). Maximum net realization (519015 Rs/ ha) was found in  $T_3$  followed by  $T_2$  (455419 Rs/ha) and  $T_1$  (385816 Rs./ha). The incremental cost benefit was found to be the highest in  $T_3$  (1: 2.06) followed by  $T_2$  (1: 1.66). The ICBR of  $T_1$  was 1: 1.18 which was the lowest ratio among all (Table 3). Thus,  $T_3$  was found to be the most effective and superior to all treatment.

Table 3:	: Economics	of treatme	ents in tomato.

Treat.	Cost of insecticide (Rs/ha)	Total cost (Rs/ha)	Yield (t/ha)	Extra yield over control (t/ha)	% of yield increase over control	Gross realization (Rs)	Net realization (Rs)	Net gain (Rs)	ICBR
$T_1$	28800	39296	42.5	7.5	21.4	425112	385816	46177	1:1.18
T <sub>2</sub>	54000	69744	52.5	17.5	50.0	525163	455419	115780	1:1.66
T3	66600	86936	60.6	25.6	73.14	605951	519015	179376	1:2.06
$T_4$	-	10496	35.0	-	-	350135	339639	-	-

\*Labour charge - Rs 328/day

\*Neem oil – 100ml – Rs 60/-\*Emamectin benzoate – 100gm – Rs 900/- \*Chlorfenapyr – 100ml – Rs 150/-

\*Bt var. kurstaki - 1000ml - Rs 750/-

# CONCLUSIONS

All the treatments were significantly superior to untreated check but efficacy level varied between treatments.  $T_3$  produced the best impact, the lowest damage and the least number of insect pests/plant. It was followed by  $T_2$  and  $T_1$  in the order. However,  $T_3$ was significantly superior to  $T_2$  and  $T_1$ . The highest number of natural enemies were recorded in  $T_4$  and  $T_1$ was at par safe with it.  $T_2$  and  $T_3$  were also apparently safe to predatory coccinellids and spiders but both were inferior to  $T_1$  and  $T_4$  in terms of safety to natural enemies. The ICBR was superior in  $T_3$  (1: 2.60) followed by  $T_2$  (1: 1.66) and  $T_3$  (1: 1.18) subsequently. The population of natural enemies, mostly spiders and coccinellids and pollinators, bee species, was less variable in  $T_3$  treatment.

# FUTURE SCOPE

Extensive research on the biology and life table parameters of various natural enemies' and their predation efficacy is needed. Research on bio-ecology of major tomato insect pests in different climatic zones of Odisha is needed. Appropriate integrated pest management strategies for various pests in this region needed to be devised. To compare the efficacy of phyto-extract products with appropriate insecticides against major tomato insect pests, large-scale trials should be conducted.

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