

Impact of pesticides on beneficial insects in various agroecosystem: A review

ABSTRACT:

Beneficial insects play a vital role in natural pest control and pollination in agricultural crops. The use of synthetic pesticides in agricultural areas is harmful to both natural enemies and pollinators. Pesticides impair the survival of a variety of life cycle stages, limit reproductive capability, alter host fitness for parasitising or predation, reduce parasitoids' emergence from sprayed host eggs, and cause direct death. When natural enemies are decreased, pest population dynamics, such as resurgence and secondary pest eruption, may suffer even more devastating repercussions. Pollinator decline decreases agricultural yield. This study intends to investigate the side effects of synthetic and botanical pesticides on beneficial insects in order to provide a foundation for future research into the detrimental effects of synthetic and botanical pesticides on these insects. This information will aid in optimising pesticide use in integrated pest management programmes by implementing more sustainable and environmentally friendly methods such as the use of correct doses and selective insecticides in agricultural areas.

Keywords: Beneficial insects, pollinators, predators, parasitoids, agroecosystem, pesticides, harmful effects

INTRODUCTION:

In an agricultural or ecological environment, insects might be categorized as either beneficial or harmful (pests). Pollinators, pest insect predators, and parasites are among the agriculturally useful insects (parasitoids). They provide ecological services like agricultural pollination and biological control of crop pests. Due to the occurrence of pests and diseases, modern agriculture has recently introduced the use of herbicides and pesticides. Although pesticide toxicity to non-target organisms was known earlier, it really took off when Rachel Carson's 1962 book "Silent Spring" became widely read and raised awareness of environmental issues. Pesticide toxicity was eventually linked to numerous instances of non-target mortality and large-scale damage. Pesticide usage in agricultural fields has the possibility of hampering beneficial insect activity because it alters the species composition and quantity of these insects (Ndakidemi *et al.*, 2016). The majority of commercially available synthetic field agricultural pesticides have a broad-spectrum activity that kills both pests and beneficial insects. Carbamates, pyrethroids, organochlorines, and organophosphates are examples of broad-spectrum synthetic insecticides. Since their introduction in the 1940s and 1950s, these have been extensively employed (Gyawali, 2018). Organophosphates, along with carbamates and pyrethroids, are some of the most insect-toxic insecticides. Whereas pyrethroids specifically are sodium channel modulators that overexcite neurons, organophosphates, and carbamates are cholinesterase inhibitors that specifically inhibit cholinesterase (Visalatchi and Jeyabalan, 2019). Acephate, chlorpyrifos, malathion, and phosmet are examples of organophosphates, whereas cyfluthrin, fenvalerate, -cyhalothrin, and permethrin are pyrethroids (Pathak *et al.*, 2019). Aldicarb and carbaryl are examples of carbamates that have detrimental effects on an insect's ability to survive, grow, develop, reproduce (sexual ratio, fecundity, lifespan, and fertility), and behave (motility, orientation, eating, oviposition, and learning (Mitra *et al.*, 2011).

47 Certain insecticides, both natural and manmade, harm pollinators and natural enemies. According to,
48 natural enemies and pollinators who are not the intended targets of pesticidal plants may be
49 adversely affected because these plants' active components are identical to those found in synthetic
50 pesticides. For instance, there has been evidence of a drop in the number of wild pollinators in
51 several parts of the world (Giunti *et al.*, 2022). Pesticide use, which has negative direct and indirect
52 effects on populations of beneficial insects, is one of the reasons for the drop. Several plants are
53 poisonous and non-specific. For instance, nicotine derived from tobacco plant extract is categorised
54 as WHO Class, which indicates highly harmful. Class II rotenone is found in species of Derris and
55 Tephrosia. Rotenone and chrysanthemum-derived natural pyrethrum are extremely poisonous. When
56 used, synthetic pesticides can kill unintended creatures, such as bugs' natural predators, parasites,
57 and organisms that are good for the ecosystem's balance and health. Pesticide poisoning can result
58 in population decreases and, as a result, pose a hazard to rare species by altering their behaviour
59 (Aktar, 2009).

60 **Aim of this Paper: To know about the importance of beneficial insects including, predators,**
61 **parasitoids, pollinators and their role in the various agroecosystem and know the toxicity of pesticides**
62 **on environment as well as impact of pesticides on the beneficial insects in various agroecosystem.**

63 **IMPORTANCE OF BENEFICIAL INSECTS IN VARIOUS AGROECOSYSTEM:**

64 Insect pollinators are insects that visit flowers and feed on the nectar and pollen produced by
65 flowering plants. During feeding, insects that visit flowers have the ability to transmit male gametes
66 (found in pollen) to the female gametes, resulting in pollination
67 (Serrão *et al.*, 2022). The majority of blooming plants in the globe, including many cultivated plant
68 species like sunflower, cucurbitaceous vegetables, alfalfa, coriander, cardamom, ginseng, and apple,
69 depend on insect pollination for reproduction (Singh, 2017). Many crops rely on pollination for fruit set
70 and seed generation in order to provide a decent yield. According to estimates, insect pollination
71 accounts for 35% of the world's agricultural production (Omar *et al.*, 2021). *Apis mellifera* L.
72 (European honey bee) is in charge of pollinating the bulk of crops. Non-*Apis* bees are also significant
73 agricultural pollinators, particularly for crops where honey bees are ineffective pollinators (e.g. alfalfa,
74 squash). Crop pollination is controlled by a few non-*Apis* species (Getanjaly *et al.*, 2015).

75 Non-*Apis* species handled for pollination include bumble bees, *Bombus impatiens* Cresson
76 (Hymenoptera: Apidae), which are used to pollinate cranberries (*Vaccinium spp.*) and greenhouse
77 tomatoes (*Solanum lycopersicum* L.). Although bees are the most effective insect pollinators for the
78 majority of plant species, other insects have been identified for their pollination efforts (Khalifa *et al.*,
79 2021).

80 Natural enemies are insect predators and parasitoids that attack and feed on other insects, notably
81 insect pests of plants. Natural enemies contribute to a sort of pest regulation known as natural
82 biological control by eating in this manner (Driesche *et al.*, 2009). Natural enemies account for 33% of
83 natural pest control in farmed settings. Predaceous natural enemies are insects that are free-living,
84 mobile, bigger than their insect prey, and capable of consuming many preys during their life cycle
85 (Karp *et al.*, 2018). Nonetheless, parasitoids mostly belong to the orders Hymenoptera and Diptera,
86 and their host ranges are thought to be more specialised than predators. Adult parasitoids that are
87 free-living seek for a host and, depending on the parasitoid species, parasitize different life stages of
88 their host (egg, larva, pupa, adult). Parasitoids can deposit a single egg (solitary) or several eggs
89 (gregarious) on or within its host, after which the juvenile parasitoid(s) feed on their host to complete
90 development, kill their host, and emerge as a free-living adult. Natural enemies in agricultural settings
91 have the ability to keep crop pests from reaching economically destructive levels (Fei *et al.*, 2023).

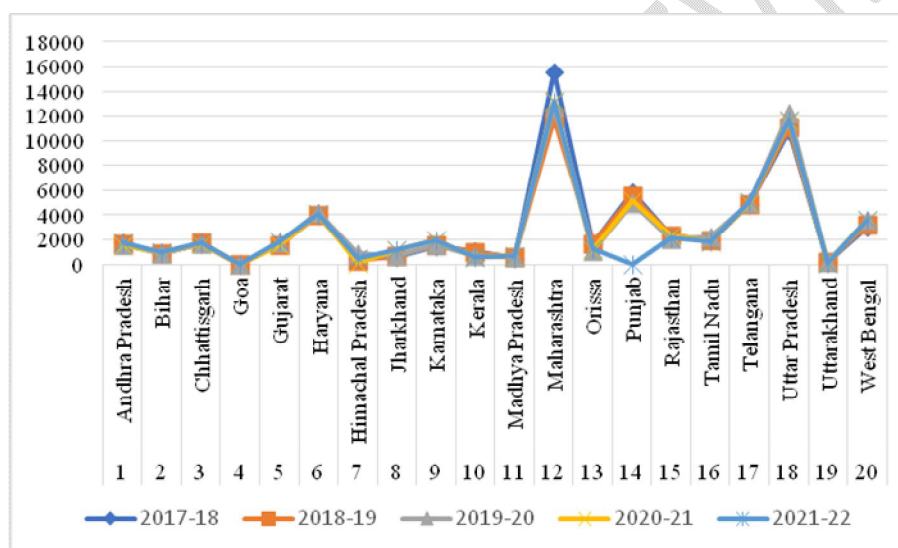
92 **WEED KILLERS AND SOIL BUILDERS:**

93 Many insects feed on undesired weeds in the same way as they do on cultivated crops. In several
94 situations, the presence of these insects has greatly aided in the elimination of weeds (Nicholls *et al.*,
95 2013). Insects that dwell in soil build tunnels that allow smaller creatures, water, air, and roots to
96 pass through. Earthworm activity can increase soil nutrient cycle, soil physical qualities such as soil
97 structure and tilth, and the activity of other beneficial soil organisms. Tiny dung beetles construct dung

98 tunnel walls and dung balls, which aid in soil quality maintenance. Insect excreta also enriches the
99 soil (MacMahon, 1981). Examples including beetles, ants, cutworms, fly larvae, crickets, termites, and
100 wasps

101 TOXIC EFFECT OF PESTICIDES ON AGRO-ECOSYSTEM:

102 Plants or crops, soil, and water make up the majority of an agroecosystem. The ecosystem is active
103 and sustainable due to dynamic interactions of the components' (Van der werf, 1996). Pesticides are
104 used to reduce each organism to economic threshold levels or equilibrium positions when
105 sustainability breaks due to a significant outbreak of pests or diseases. In this respect, pesticides
106 function as a tool to maintain the viability of an ecosystem, but only when they are selective and only
107 affect their intended targets. Sometimes, pesticides have an impact on non-target people in addition
108 to the target species, undermining the sustainability of the ecosystem (Hassan *et al.*, 1985). Target
109 and non-target subjects are not constant and universal in pesticide toxicity research. When
110 weedicides are used, the biological control agent, beneficial organisms, detritivores, and organisms
111 that depend on the plants for food and shelter become non-targets and the plants themselves become
112 the target (Desneux *et al.*, 2007). Fig.1 shown that state wise consumption of pesticides increasing
113 day day so the health of the agroecosystem also decreasing, so therefore decreasing the natural
114 enemies in agroecosystem.



126 Fig. 1. State wise chemical pesticide consumptions

127 **Source:** States/Zonal Conferences on Inputs (Plant Protection) for Rabi & Kharif Seasons

128 TOXIC EFFECT OF HERBICIDES

129 Herbicides' effects on insects and other arthropods are frequently caused by the destruction of both
130 target and non-target host plants (Mahmood *et al.*, 2016). Although agriculture has a detrimental
131 impact on many soil organisms for the same reasons, conservation tillage to prevent soil erosion has
132 led to an increase in herbicide use in several countries. Because the half-life of herbicides in the
133 environment generally exceeds a month, and for certain compounds surpasses a year, insects inside
134 fields and nearby borders exposed to drift are most likely to be exposed to herbicides in soil (Ustuner,
135 2020). Most herbicide impact reports reveal changes in insect survival or egg production as an
136 indirect effect of an increase or decrease in host plant population. The loss of predatory arthropods
137 and pollinators is often caused by the elimination of plant hosts, pollen, and nectar. Herbicides
138 destroy nectar, shelter, nesting, and overwintering habitats (Sánchez-Bayo, 2021). In contrast to
139 insecticides and fungicides, some herbicides, such as 2,4-D, may be compatible with biological weed
140 control agents. Pest species have increased as a result of herbicide treatments that reduce natural

141 adversaries. Some decreases are due to the chemicals' harmful effects on predatory and parasitic
142 organisms (Lo *et al.*, 2010). For instance, consider the total parasitism rate by specialisation. *Aphidius*
143 *rhopalosiphi* (Hymenoptera: Braconidae) wasps were reduced in plants treated with 0.1% DCBN, with
144 the herbicide also producing a sex ratio bias [37]. Although most herbicides have little direct effect on
145 arthropod populations, 2,4-D weed control treatments indirectly increased the density of sugarcane
146 borer pests, which was attributed to reductions in the parasitoid *Trichogramma minutum*
147 (Hymenoptera: Trichogrammatidae) caused by herbicide toxicity. Predatory mites are more vulnerable
148 to herbicides like as paraquat, 2,4-D, terbacil, and glyphosate (Sánchez-Bayo, 2021).

149 **IMPACT OF INSECTICIDE**

150 Since the extensive usage of pesticides began in the 1940s, four major indirect impacts have been
151 identified in the literature. Two of them relate pest control activities, which frequently fail due to a
152 failure to consider the underlying ecology of agroecosystems. Another is tied to food chain poisoning,
153 and a third indirect consequence is related to the stress that hazardous substances cause in
154 organisms.

155 When insecticides are sprayed to a crop, target pests and other non-target insects are typically
156 destroyed, but individual insects do not die instantly: the period to death can range from a few
157 minutes to a few days, depending on the exposure dose each insect gets (Mitra and Raghu, 1998).
158 Meanwhile, natural adversaries eating on the afflicted species may get poisoned and lose their
159 predatory skills, or even die. Predation of the spined soldier bug, *Podisus maculiventris* (Hemiptera:
160 Pentatomidae), for example, was impaired and weight gain was reduced as the bugs fed on diamond
161 moths, *Plutella xylostella* (Lepidoptera: Plutellidae), in cabbage plots treated with imidacloprid;
162 interestingly, despite being applied at the recommended rates, the insecticide did not significantly
163 reduce moth (Peterson, 2012). Survival of the ladybird *Cycloneda sanguinea* (Coleoptera:
164 Coccinellidae) fed on aphids treated with thiamethoxam and imidacloprid was also significantly
165 reduced in both laboratory and field settings while residues of dimethoate in preys aphids that had
166 been treated at field exposure rates caused significant mortality levels in three carabid predators:
167 *Pterostichus madidus*, *P. melanarius* and *Nebria brevicollis* (Coleoptera: Carabidae). This suggests
168 that carabids eating in treated fields and field borders might be poisoned by the indirect method of
169 devouring contaminated prey (Santos *et al.*, 2017).

170 Another indirect impact of predation is the augmentation of insecticidal actions. In microcosms, for
171 example, the pesticide chlorpyrifos at 1 g/L directly decreased the biomass of herbivorous plankton (4
172 waterflea species) by 7-12% (Takacs *et al.*, 2002). When every species was present. The introduction
173 of a predatory glassworm, *Chaoborus obscuripes* (Diptera: Chaoboridae), improved the insecticide's
174 overall impact on water fleas. Apart from the direct effects of imidacloprid on benthic
175 macroinvertebrate assemblages, sublethal levels of this insecticide on the caddisfly *Sericostoma*
176 *vittatum* (Trichoptera: Sericostomatidae) and the midge *Chironomus riparius* (Diptera: Chironomidae)
177 also compromised antipredator behavioural responses in both insect species. Although
178 chlorantraniliprole inhibited the breakdown of leaves by the shredder caddisfly *S. vittatum*, Another
179 indirect impact of predation is the augmentation of insecticidal actions. Sublethal pesticide doses, for
180 example, might have severe repercussions in terms of mortality from predation in benthic insect
181 populations, as well as create maladaptive responses in zooplankton species, which may limit their
182 long-term survival in the field (Bhat *et al.*, 2022).

183 **THE IMPACT OF SYNTHETIC PESTICIDES ON BENEFICIAL INSECTS:**

184 **DIRECT EFFECT:**

185 Synthetic pesticides can be deadly to beneficial insects, with direct death being the most common.
186 Predators and parasitoids are more vulnerable to pesticides than plant-feeding insects because plant-
187 feeding insects may have detoxifying systems. Pesticides destroy natural enemies, both those that
188 are resistant at the time of treatment and those that migrate into the sprayed region. There is also the
189 possibility of pesticide build up to fatal levels if the pesticides do not kill the exposed natural enemies
190 immediately after application. If the pesticide kills the host, the parasite larva that dwells within it will
191 not develop. Cartap, imidacloprid, malathion, metamidophos, acephate, acetamiprid, and abamectin

192 were shown to be fatal. These chemicals were responsible for more than 61% of the parasitoid
193 *Encarsia* sp. mortality. It is found that the insecticides cartap, imidacloprid, malathion, metamidophos,
194 acephate, acetamiprid, and abamectin enhanced the mortality of the emerging parasites (Kannan *et*
195 *al.*, 2020).

196 **INDIRECT EFFECT:**

197 Decreased Capability to Acquire Prey discovered that cypermethrin dosages lowered predators' ability
198 to find and capture prey. The study also found that parasitoids exposed to pesticides
199 lambda-cyhalothrin and carbamates lowered. Aphids have the ability to guide themselves to host
200 plants when attacked. Females of *Microplitis croceipes* (Braconidae), a parasitoid of *Heliothis* sp.
201 (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae), decreased flying activity 20 hours after treatment with fenvalerate and
202 methomyl. Mechanisms by which synthetic pesticides impair predators' capacity to capture prey must
203 be investigated in order to optimise the future usage of selective synthetic pesticides (Fernandes *et*
204 *al.*, 2010).

205 **DECREASING FOOD SUPPLIES FOR PREDATORS, PARASITIDS, AND** 206 **POLLINATORS:**

207 Pesticides can have an indirect effect by reducing the number of plants and insects that provide food
208 for other beneficial insects. Herbicides can modify ecosystems by changing vegetation structure,
209 resulting in a drop in beneficial insect populations. They have the ability to reduce plants that offer
210 nectar, pollen, and honeydew to natural enemies, as well as eradicate non-pest species that serve as
211 an alternate source of food for natural enemies and create favourable conditions for their survival. The
212 eradication of hosts or prey, for example, via pesticidal effects, would result in a shortage of food
213 supplies for natural enemies, forcing these natural enemies to flee in search of alternative prey or
214 host. As a result, there will be no natural enemies to restrict insect activity (Kluser and Peduzzi, 2007).

215 **FORAGING ACTIVITY OF POLLINATORS DECREASING:**

216 Researchers researched the foraging behaviour of honey bees (*Apis mellifera*) and observed
217 anomalous foraging when the honey bees were exposed to the pesticide imidacloprid and could not
218 return to the feeding spot in the same day in the same way as untreated bees did. Krischik, (2014)
219 discovered that when bees were exposed to sublethal amounts of neonicotinyl pesticide, they lost
220 their navigation and foraging abilities. found that when honey bees were exposed to imidacloprid
221 levels more than 30 ppb, foraging rates dropped and handling time increased. Further study on the
222 diminished foraging abilities of both pollinators and natural foes of pests caused by synthetic
223 pesticides is the way ahead for protecting bees and thus encouraging biological control and
224 pollination in agriculture (Mahfouz *et al.*, 2012).

225 **RISK OF PESTICIDES TO BEES:**

226 After explaining the different routes of pesticide exposure and their effects on bees, an assessment of
227 the real hazards that current pest control agents and acaricides used for treating hives provide to
228 honey bees is required. The greatest danger is from the chemicals' acute toxicity to bees, which
229 results in their death in the short or medium term. As previously stated, further hazards include sub
230 lethal effects that may affect hive function and the long-term survivability of colonies.

231 Hazards are often evaluated as damage probability based on acute toxicity and the frequency with
232 which a chemical may impact bees. There are three scenarios to consider: pesticide spraying over
233 agricultural fields ingestion of agrochemical residues found in pollen, honey, and water, which are
234 collected and ingested by forager bees and transported to the hive, where they are processed into
235 honey and beebread and fed to the other bees, the larvae, and the queen; and exposure to combs
236 treated with acaricide products (Tosi *et al.*, 2022).

237 **RISKS BY CONTACT EXPOSURE:**

238 Apart from oral exposure, bee larvae may come into touch with residues deposited on the walls of
239 comb cells, namely acaricides used to control *Varroa*. While the wax contains the largest

240 concentrations of pesticide residues in a hive, the availability of such chemicals is assumed to be
241 modest, with the exception of fumigated acaricides. The danger of the latter items to bee larvae
242 should be evaluated by contact exposure rather than oral ingestion, as some writers do. In this
243 example, the maximum residual dosage is calculated to be 5 mg of active chemical per cell for a
244 single larva, and the contact LD50 is employed instead of the oral LD50 (Gyawali, 2018).

245 **DECLINE OF REPRODUCTIVE ACTIVITY OF PREDATOR AND PARASITIDS:**

246 Sub-lethal effects of the pesticide Spinosad accumulated in the ovaries of the parasitoid, *Hyposoter*
247 *didymator*, were documented in Reproductive Impairment of Predators and Parasitoids. It also
248 decreased the insect's fertility and size. Males of *Thrichogramma brassicae* did not react to female
249 signals when exposed to modest concentrations of the pesticide deltamethrin, whereas treated
250 females diminished their ability to attract untreated males.

251 **MANAGEMENT IN ORDER TO AVOID PESTICIDE IMPACTS:**

252 The various hazards indicated above provide some insight into the sort of exposure most detrimental
253 to the various bee castes in the hives. The most common cause of occurrences is spray drift involves
254 forager worker bee mortality, but intake of tainted pollen, nectar, and water is at the foundation of the
255 colony collapses disorder illness that affects many apiaries throughout the world, mostly impacting
256 nursing workers and the queen (Sanchez-Bayo and Goka, 2016). Moreover, the acaricides employed
257 in Varroa treatment represent a major risk, mostly to bee larvae, and hence to the long-term viability
258 of the colonies. Being aware of these hazards can assist beekeepers and farmers in developing
259 specialised management plans to prevent them. Being aware of these hazards can assist beekeepers
260 and farmers in developing particular pesticide control programmes (Gill and Garg, 2014). Beekeepers
261 should be aware of the landscape environment in which their managed bees graze, keeping in mind
262 that a considerable part of land in both developed and developing nations is utilised for agricultural
263 production, which uses pesticides of various types on a regular basis. While the use of these plant
264 protection compounds cannot be halted because they are required for agricultural output, a sensible
265 strategy must be taken to reduce the hazards of such agrochemicals to bees (Kuan *et al.*, 2018)
266 Notwithstanding all measures, if an area where the crop or weeds were in blossom was mistakenly
267 sprayed, the farmer should tell the affected beekeepers so that they may take necessary action. This
268 should keep managed bees out of the sprayed area for the time being.

269

270 **CONCLUSION:**

271 So as far above study, the impact of pesticides are deadly to beneficial insects, we needed to protect
272 the natural enemies and use of optimum dose of pesticides for pest management and maintain the
273 agroecosystem. Further study is needed to identify the impacts of pesticides, both botanical and
274 synthetic, on predators, parasitoids, and pollinators. Most of the negative effects, particularly of
275 botanicals, are dose-related, indicating that additional study on the proper dosage is needed. It is also
276 critical to study beneficial insects in a certain field setting before investing in a specific pesticide
277 application to allow for safeguards as to the precise chemical and dosage to employ. For a while.
278 Pesticides may cause harm to neighbouring flora foraged by bees, including hedges, roadside weeds,
279 and trees such as fruit trees, eucalypts, and others, in addition to farming areas.

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