

Biological Interactions and Management Strategies for the Cotton Bollworm, *Helicoverpa armigera* (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae): A Review

Abstract

Helicoverpa armigera, a polyphagous and highly adaptable pest, poses a significant threat to global agriculture, particularly in cotton, maize, chickpea, and tomato crops. Its extensive host range, high fecundity, and rapid development of resistance to insecticides necessitate an integrated approach for effective management. The current knowledge on the biological interactions and management strategies for *H. armigera*, emphasizing the importance of Integrated Pest Management (IPM). IPM combines biological control agents, such as predators, parasitoids, and microbial biocontrols like *Bacillus thuringiensis* (Bt) and *Beauveria bassiana*, with cultural practices, including crop rotation and intercropping, to disrupt the pest's life cycle. The adoption of genetically modified Bt cotton has revolutionized pest control by providing season-long protection, though its sustainability depends on resistance management strategies like refuge planting and gene stacking. Advances in precision agriculture, including remote sensing and AI-driven decision support systems, enhance pest monitoring and timely interventions. The use of drones and autonomous systems for targeted pesticide application minimizes environmental impact while ensuring effective control. Biopesticides and entomopathogenic nematodes offer sustainable alternatives to chemical insecticides, addressing the growing concern of resistance and environmental safety. The review highlights the critical role of community and farmer involvement in IPM adoption, supported by education, field demonstrations, and policy frameworks that promote sustainable practices. Future includes the use of gene-editing technologies like CRISPR for developing resistant crops and further integration of digital tools for real-time pest management. Addressing the challenge of *H. armigera* requires a collaborative effort between researchers, policymakers, and farmers to implement scientifically sound, economically viable, and environmentally friendly solutions. This holistic approach not only ensures the long-term control of *H. armigera* but also contributes to the resilience and productivity of agro-ecosystems in the face of evolving agricultural challenges.

Keywords: *Helicoverpa armigera*, Integrated Pest Management, Bt Cotton, Biological Control

I. Introduction

A. *Helicoverpa armigera*: Importance in Agriculture

Helicoverpa armigera, commonly known as the cotton bollworm or American bollworm, is one of the most notorious pests in global agriculture, particularly for its impact on a wide variety of crops [1]. Belonging to the Noctuidae family, this polyphagous pest is highly adaptive, feeding on over 180 plant species, including vital economic crops like cotton, maize, soybean, tomato, and pigeon pea. Its ability to thrive in diverse agro-ecological zones, coupled with high reproductive rates and significant mobility, has rendered it a challenging pest to manage effectively. The larvae cause extensive damage by feeding on reproductive parts of plants such as flowers, buds, and pods, which leads to direct yield losses and affects the quality of the produce. The pest's remarkable adaptability to different environmental conditions and its capacity to develop resistance to various control methods, including synthetic insecticides and genetically modified crops like Bt cotton, underscore its agricultural importance [2].

B. Economic Impact on Cotton Production and Other Crops

The economic impact of *H. armigera* on global agriculture is profound, particularly in cotton production, where it is a primary pest. In India, for instance, cotton is a major cash crop, and *H. armigera* infestations have led to significant yield losses, with estimates of damage ranging from 15% to 60%, depending on the severity of the outbreak and management practices employed. In addition to cotton, this pest severely affects crops such as chickpea, pigeon pea, and tomato, which are critical for

food security and income for smallholder farmers. The financial burden is not limited to yield losses but extends to increased costs of pest management, including chemical control measures and the adoption of pest-resistant crop varieties. The economic impact is estimated in billions of dollars annually, considering both direct losses and control expenditures [3]. The indirect costs include environmental degradation due to heavy pesticide use and the potential impact on non-target organisms, which further exacerbates the economic challenges posed by this pest.

C. Global Distribution and Adaptability

Helicoverpa armigera exhibits a broad geographical distribution, being present in Asia, Africa, Australasia, and parts of Europe (Table 1 and Fig. 1). This wide distribution is a testament to its remarkable adaptability to diverse climatic conditions and host plants. The pest's lifecycle and developmental rates are influenced by temperature and humidity, enabling it to establish and proliferate in both temperate and tropical regions. Its migratory behavior further enhances its distribution, allowing it to colonize new areas rapidly. Recent expansions of *H. armigera* into previously uninfested regions such as South America highlight its capacity for long-distance dispersal and adaptation to novel environments [4]. This adaptability is partly attributed to genetic variability within populations, which facilitates rapid evolution in response to environmental changes and management pressures. The ability of *H. armigera* to develop resistance to various control measures, including chemical insecticides and Bt toxins, poses significant challenges for pest management across its global distribution.

TABLE 1: Geographical Distribution of *Helicoverpa armigera* Adapted from the EPPO Global Database (2020)

Continent	Country	Present?	Current Status
Africa	Algeria	Yes	Widespread
Africa	Angola	Yes	Widespread but level of damage not well known
Africa	Benin	Yes	No information available
Africa	Botswana	Yes	No information available
Africa	Burkina Faso	Yes	No information available
Africa	Burundi	Yes	No information available
Africa	Cameroon	Yes	No information available
Africa	Cape Verde	Yes	Established
Africa	Central African Republic	Yes	Present but no further information available
Africa	Chad	Yes	No information available
Africa	Comoros	Probable	Likely to be present based on reports of the parasitoid <i>Trichogramma bournieri</i>
Africa	Congo	Yes	No information available
Africa	DR Congo	Yes	No information available
Africa	Côte d'Ivoire	Yes	Significant pest

Africa	Djibouti	Probable	Likely present due to the presence of its parasitoid <i>Palexoristaimberbis</i> and neighboring countries
Africa	Egypt	Yes	Widespread
Africa	Ethiopia	Yes	Present; not well controlled
Africa	Kenya	Yes	No information available
Africa	South Africa	Yes	Widespread
America	Argentina	Yes	First recorded in Aug-Oct 2013
America	Brazil	Yes	Widespread; first reported in Jan-Feb 2013
America	United States	Not established	Intercepted at ports, particularly in Florida
Asia	India	Yes	Widespread
Asia	Pakistan	Yes	Widespread
Asia	China	Yes	Restricted distribution
Europe	Greece	Yes	Widespread
Europe	Portugal	Yes	Widespread
Oceania	Australia	Yes	Widespread
Oceania	New Zealand	Yes	Widespread

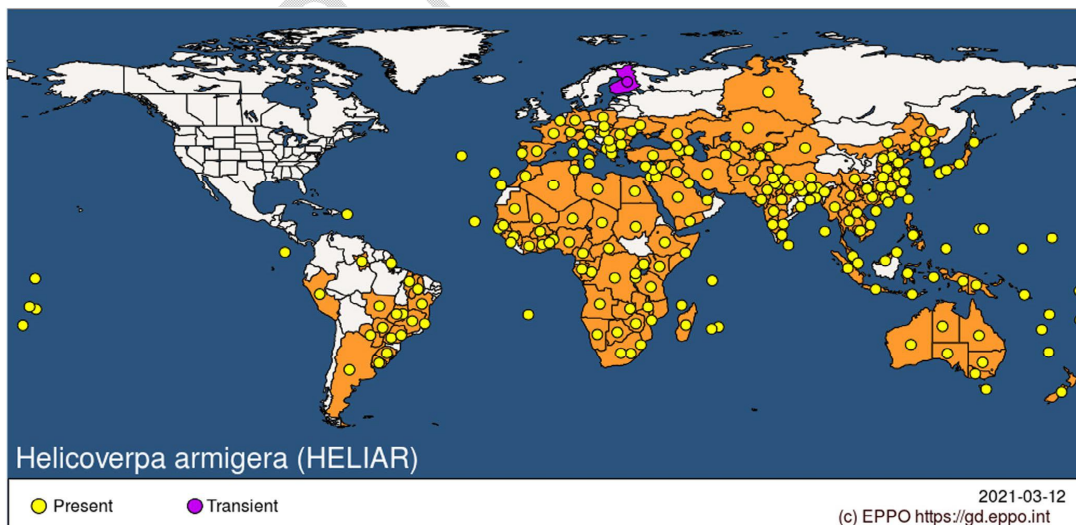


Fig.1: The distribution of *Helicoverpaarmigera*. From EPPO Global Database (2020)

D. Objectives of the Review: Biological Interactions and Management Strategies

The primary objective of this review is to synthesize current knowledge on the biological interactions of *Helicoverpaarmigera* with its environment, including its interactions with host plants, natural

enemies, and microbial communities. These interactions are crucial for developing sustainable pest management strategies. This review aims to explore the complexities of *H. armigera*'s life cycle, feeding behavior, and adaptability, which contribute to its status as a major agricultural pest. Additionally, it will provide an in-depth analysis of current management strategies, including chemical, biological, cultural, and genetic control methods. Emphasis will be placed on integrated pest management (IPM) approaches that combine these strategies to achieve effective and sustainable control of *H. armigera*. By identifying gaps in current knowledge and practice, this review seeks to contribute to the development of innovative and environmentally friendly pest management solutions, ensuring long-term agricultural productivity and sustainability.

II. Biology and Life Cycle of *Helicoverpa armigera*

A. Morphological Characteristics

Helicoverpa armigera undergoes a complete metamorphosis with four distinct stages: egg, larva, pupa, and adult (Fig 2) [5]. The eggs are tiny, spherical, and creamy-white, turning brownish as they mature. They are laid singly on the upper surfaces of leaves, buds, or flowers, with hatching occurring within 2-5 days, depending on environmental conditions. The larval stage is the most destructive, lasting 15-20 days and consisting of five to six instars. The larvae have a robust body that varies in color from green to brown and are characterized by distinctive longitudinal stripes. The final instar larvae can reach 35-40 mm in length. Pupation occurs in the soil, where larvae create a pupal chamber, turning into brown pupae measuring 15-20 mm. This stage lasts about 10-14 days, although adverse conditions can induce diapause, prolonging this stage. The adult moths, with a wingspan of 30-40 mm, have brownish forewings with dark patterns and lighter hindwings with a dark margin. They are nocturnal, with a lifespan of 7-12 days, focusing on reproduction.

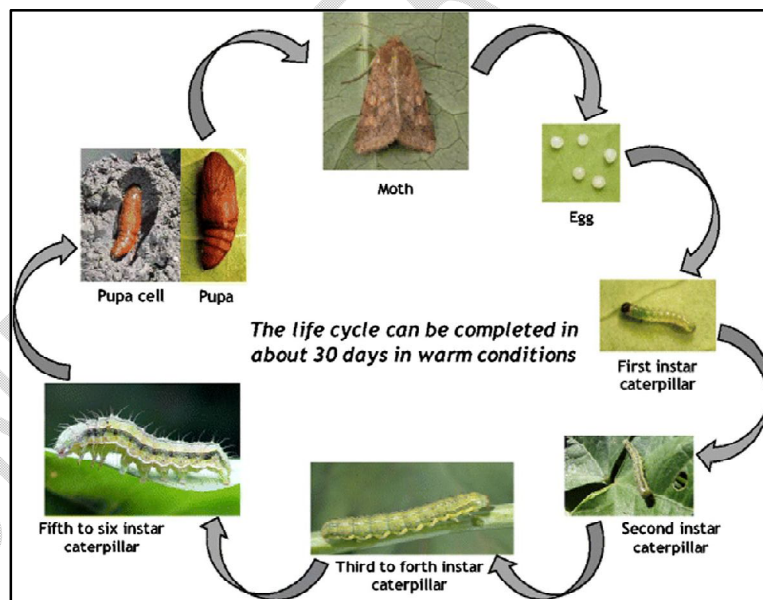


Fig. 2: The life cycle of *Helicoverpa armigera* (<https://helicoverpaaspests.weebly.com/life-cycles.html>)

B. Developmental Stages and Environmental Influences

The development of *H. armigera* is significantly influenced by temperature, humidity, and photoperiod. Optimal development occurs between 25-30°C, where the life cycle from egg to adult completes within 30-40 days. Temperatures below 15°C or above 35°C slow down development or cause mortality. High humidity levels (70-90%) are favorable for the viability of eggs, larval survival,

and pupal development, while low humidity leads to desiccation, particularly in eggs and early larvae [6]. Photoperiod also plays a crucial role; shorter day lengths induce diapause in the pupal stage, enabling survival during unfavorable winter conditions. Conversely, longer daylight periods encourage continuous development, allowing multiple generations within a year.

C. Feeding Behavior and Host Range

Helicoverpa armigera is highly polyphagous, with larvae capable of feeding on more than 180 plant species, including major crops like cotton, maize, chickpea, and tomato. This broad host range is a key factor in its pest status, as it can readily shift between crops depending on availability. The larvae exhibit a preference for the reproductive parts of plants—such as flowers, buds, and pods—where they cause significant damage. This preference is driven by the high nutritional content of these plant parts, which supports rapid larval growth. The pest's adaptability to various crops across different regions highlights its ability to exploit diverse agro-ecosystems.

D. Reproductive Biology and Fecundity Patterns

The reproductive capacity of *H. armigera* is another factor contributing to its pest status [7]. Female moths are highly fecund, laying up to 1,000 eggs over their lifespan, with peak oviposition occurring within the first few days after mating. The high fecundity ensures rapid population buildup, particularly under favorable environmental conditions. Mating and oviposition behavior are influenced by temperature, humidity, and the availability of suitable host plants. This reproductive strategy, coupled with its adaptability, allows *H. armigera* to maintain high population levels and exert continuous pressure on agricultural crops.

III. Biological Interactions of *Helicoverpa armigera*

A. Plant–Pest Interactions

i. Host Plant Resistance Mechanisms

Host plant resistance plays a crucial role in mitigating the damage caused by *Helicoverpa armigera*. Plants have evolved various structural and biochemical defense mechanisms to deter feeding and reduce pest populations. Structural defenses include trichomes, waxy cuticles, and toughened cell walls, which provide physical barriers to larval feeding. Additionally, some plants exhibit antixenosis or non-preference, where certain morphological traits discourage egg-laying or feeding by *H. armigera* [8]. Biochemical defenses involve the production of toxic compounds and proteins that negatively affect the pest's development. For instance, protease inhibitors (PIs) interfere with the larval digestive enzymes, reducing the efficiency of protein digestion and slowing growth rates. Similarly, lectins bind to carbohydrate moieties in the insect gut, disrupting nutrient absorption. The deployment of genetically engineered crops, such as Bt cotton, which expresses the *Bacillus thuringiensis* toxin, exemplifies the use of host plant resistance to manage *H. armigera*. Bt toxins specifically target the pest's midgut, causing mortality by disrupting gut epithelial cells.

ii. Role of Secondary Metabolites in Defense

Secondary metabolites are critical in plant defense against *H. armigera*. These include alkaloids, flavonoids, tannins, terpenoids, and phenolic compounds. Alkaloids, such as nicotine in tobacco, are toxic to many insects, disrupting their nervous systems. Flavonoids and tannins can deter feeding by causing bitterness or toxicity, thus reducing larval survival and fecundity [9]. Terpenoids, like those found in cotton, serve as repellents or antifeedants. Phenolics can induce oxidative stress in the larvae, leading to reduced growth and increased mortality. The levels of these metabolites often increase upon herbivory, demonstrating an inducible defense response.

B. Predatory and Parasitic Interactions

i. Natural Predators of *H. armigera*

Natural predators are integral to the biological control of *H. armigera*. Predatory arthropods such as spiders, ladybird beetles (*Coccinellidae*), green lacewings (*Chrysopidae*), and predatory bugs like *Geocoris spp.* and *Orius spp.* prey on the eggs and early larval stages of *H. armigera*. These predators help suppress the pest population by targeting vulnerable life stages, reducing the number of larvae that reach maturity [10]. Birds and small mammals also contribute to natural predation, especially in open field conditions, further lowering *H. armigera* numbers.

ii. Parasitoids in Biological Control

Parasitoids, particularly from the Hymenoptera and Diptera orders, play a pivotal role in controlling *H. armigera* populations. *Trichogramma spp.*, small wasps, parasitize *H. armigera* eggs, preventing larval development. Other notable parasitoids include *Braconhebetor*, which targets larvae, and tachinid flies, which lay their eggs on or near *H. armigera* larvae, leading to internal parasitism. The use of parasitoids in biological control programs has shown promise in reducing pest outbreaks sustainably [11]. Their efficiency is enhanced in integrated pest management (IPM) systems that minimize chemical pesticide usage, thereby preserving parasitoid populations.

C. Symbiotic Relationships and Microbial Associations

i. Gut Microbiota and Digestive Processes

The gut microbiota of *H. armigera* is an essential component of its physiology, influencing digestion, nutrient assimilation, and immune function. The midgut, rich in various bacterial species, aids in breaking down complex plant materials and detoxifying secondary metabolites ingested during feeding. Gut bacteria such as *Enterobacter spp.* and *Bacillus spp.* produce enzymes that assist in cellulose and lignin degradation, which are crucial for herbivorous insects like *H. armigera*. These microbial communities also help the pest cope with plant defenses by metabolizing toxic compounds, thereby enhancing survival and adaptability.

ii. Microbial Influence on Resistance and Survival

Microbial associations not only facilitate digestion but also contribute to *H. armigera*'s resistance against pathogens and insecticides. Symbiotic bacteria can produce antimicrobial compounds that protect the pest from entomopathogenic fungi and other microbial pathogens. Additionally, some gut microbes have been implicated in the detoxification of chemical insecticides, contributing to the development of resistance in *H. armigera* populations [12]. Understanding these microbial interactions provides insights into potential targets for disrupting the pest's survival mechanisms through microbiome manipulation or biopesticide development.

D. Intra- and Inter-species Competition

i. Competition with Other Lepidopteran Species

Helicoverpa armigera often competes with other lepidopteran pests for resources. This intra-guild competition can influence population dynamics, with competitive exclusion or resource partitioning occurring based on ecological conditions. For example, *Spodopteralitura* and *H. armigera* may compete for the same host plants, leading to variations in pest prevalence depending on the availability of resources and environmental factors [13]. Competitive interactions can affect feeding behavior, larval development, and reproductive success, shaping the pest community structure in agroecosystems.

ii. Implications for Population Dynamics

The competition among *H. armigera* and other species influences overall pest population dynamics. In environments where *H. armigera* outcompetes other pests, it may dominate the ecosystem, leading to severe crop damage. Conversely, strong competition can suppress *H. armigera* populations, potentially reducing its impact on crops. These dynamics are crucial for developing pest management

strategies, as understanding the interplay between different species can inform the timing and methods of control measures to target multiple pests effectively.

IV. Molecular Mechanisms and Genetic Basis of Adaptation

A. Genetic Variability and Adaptive Traits

Helicoverpa armigera exhibits significant genetic variability, which is a critical factor underlying its adaptability to diverse environments and management practices. This genetic variability enables rapid evolution in response to selection pressures such as insecticides, host plant defenses, and climatic conditions. Population genetic studies using molecular markers like microsatellites and single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) have revealed high levels of genetic diversity in *H. armigera* populations across its geographic range [14]. This diversity allows the pest to maintain a broad host range and adapt to various environmental conditions, including fluctuating temperatures and humidity. Adaptive traits such as polyphagy, high fecundity, and facultative diapause are encoded by the pest's genetic makeup, contributing to its success as a major agricultural pest. The ability to feed on over 180 plant species is supported by genetic mechanisms that enable detoxification of plant secondary metabolites and the utilization of various nutritional resources. Furthermore, *H. armigera* populations have shown rapid adaptation to novel hosts and geographic expansion, highlighting their evolutionary plasticity.

B. Molecular Mechanisms of Insecticide Resistance

i. Detoxification Enzymes and Mutation Mechanisms

Insecticide resistance in *H. armigera* is primarily mediated through the enhanced activity of detoxification enzymes and mutations in target site proteins. The three major classes of detoxification enzymes involved are cytochrome P450 monooxygenases (P450s), glutathione S-transferases (GSTs), and esterases. These enzymes metabolize or sequester insecticides, reducing their toxicity. P450s are particularly important in conferring resistance to pyrethroids, organophosphates, and carbamates by oxidizing the insecticide molecules, rendering them less toxic [15]. GSTs detoxify insecticides by conjugating them with glutathione, facilitating their excretion. Esterases hydrolyze ester bonds in insecticides like pyrethroids, diminishing their effectiveness. Point mutations in the target sites of insecticides also contribute to resistance. For instance, mutations in the voltage-gated sodium channel gene (*vgs*), commonly referred to as the knockdown resistance (*kdr*) mutations, confer resistance to pyrethroids by altering the binding site, preventing the insecticide from disrupting nerve function. Similarly, mutations in the acetylcholinesterase (AChE) gene confer resistance to organophosphates and carbamates.

ii. Cross-resistance

The molecular mechanisms underlying insecticide resistance often result in cross-resistance, where resistance to one class of insecticide confers resistance to others, even those with different modes of action. For example, upregulation of P450s can lead to cross-resistance between pyrethroids and organophosphates, as these enzymes can metabolize multiple insecticides [16]. Cross-resistance complicates pest management strategies, as the effectiveness of alternate insecticides is reduced. This necessitates the implementation of resistance management strategies, such as rotating insecticides with different modes of action and integrating non-chemical control methods.

C. Evolutionary Adaptations to Host Plants

The evolutionary adaptation of *H. armigera* to a wide range of host plants is facilitated by genetic changes that enhance its ability to detoxify plant secondary metabolites and exploit diverse nutritional resources. Host plant adaptation involves alterations in gene expression, particularly in genes encoding detoxification enzymes and digestive proteins. Transcriptomic studies have shown that larvae feeding on different host plants exhibit differential expression of P450s, GSTs, and esterases,

which are involved in metabolizing plant toxins [17]. The pest's chemosensory system, which governs host plant recognition and selection, has evolved to accommodate a broad host range. Genes encoding olfactory and gustatory receptors are highly diverse and allow *H. armigera* to detect and respond to a variety of plant volatiles and secondary metabolites, facilitating host plant adaptation. This evolutionary flexibility enables the pest to colonize and exploit new host plants, contributing to its widespread distribution and persistence in agricultural landscapes.

D. Role of RNA Interference (RNAi) in Gene Regulation

RNA interference (RNAi) is an essential molecular mechanism in *H. armigera* that regulates gene expression and provides a tool for developing novel pest management strategies. RNAi involves the silencing of specific genes through the action of small interfering RNAs (siRNAs) or microRNAs (miRNAs), which guide the degradation or translational repression of target messenger RNAs (Fire et al., 1998). In *H. armigera*, RNAi has been used to study the functions of genes involved in development, detoxification, and resistance mechanisms [18]. RNAi technology is being explored as a pest management tool by targeting genes critical for pest survival or reproduction. For example, silencing genes involved in detoxification or chitin synthesis can impair larval development and increase susceptibility to insecticides. RNAi-based approaches can be designed to target genes specific to *H. armigera*, minimizing the impact on non-target organisms and beneficial insects. The successful application of RNAi in *H. armigera* faces challenges such as efficient delivery of RNA molecules and overcoming the pest's RNAi machinery's variability. Advances in nanotechnology and genetic engineering are being utilized to enhance RNAi efficacy, offering a promising avenue for sustainable pest management [19].

V. Impact of *Helicoverpa armigera* on Agro-ecosystems

A. Crop Yield Loss and Economic Ramifications

Helicoverpa armigera is a notorious pest responsible for substantial yield losses across a wide array of economically significant crops, including cotton, maize, chickpea, pigeon pea, and tomato. The larvae feed voraciously on the reproductive parts of plants—flowers, buds, pods, and fruits—leading to direct yield reduction and quality deterioration. In India, one of the most severely affected countries, yield losses in cotton alone have been reported to range from 15% to 60%, depending on the intensity of infestation and management practices. Globally, the economic burden is immense, with annual losses and management costs estimated in billions of dollars. The indirect costs include increased expenditure on synthetic insecticides, which further strains the financial resources of farmers, especially smallholders. The ripple effects of such economic losses extend to reduced income, food insecurity, and decreased export earnings in regions heavily reliant on affected crops [20].

B. Impact on Non-target Organisms and Biodiversity

The control measures employed against *H. armigera*, particularly broad-spectrum insecticides, have far-reaching effects on non-target organisms and biodiversity. Predatory insects, parasitoids, and pollinators, which play crucial roles in maintaining ecological balance and enhancing crop productivity, are often adversely affected by these chemical controls. For instance, the decline in populations of beneficial arthropods such as *Coccinellidae* (ladybird beetles) and *Chrysopidae* (green lacewings) has been documented in agro-ecosystems heavily treated with insecticides. This decline disrupts the natural pest control provided by these organisms, leading to an imbalance that may favor secondary pest outbreaks. Biodiversity loss extends beyond insect communities to include soil microfauna and avian species, which are integral to nutrient cycling and pest regulation [21]. Continuous pesticide usage leads to bioaccumulation and biomagnification, threatening the survival of higher trophic level organisms. The ecological integrity of affected agro-ecosystems is compromised, reducing their resilience and productivity.

C. Ecological Disruptions Caused by Infestation

The infestation of *H. armigera* causes significant ecological disruptions in agro-ecosystems. High population densities of the pest result in defoliation and damage to crops, altering the microclimate of the fields and affecting soil health. The removal of reproductive parts reduces the plant's ability to complete its life cycle, which not only impacts yield but also affects the soil's nutrient dynamics due to reduced biomass return. Additionally, heavy infestations can lead to shifts in plant community composition, favoring weed growth over crop plants, thereby reducing biodiversity and altering ecosystem services [22].

D. Synergistic Interactions with Other Pests and Pathogens

Helicoverpa armigera often interacts synergistically with other pests and pathogens, exacerbating its impact on crops. The presence of *H. armigera* can weaken plant defenses, making them more susceptible to secondary infestations by other pests such as *Spodopteralitura* and *Bemisiatabaci*. This can result in complex pest dynamics that are harder to manage. Moreover, the damage caused by *H. armigera* provides entry points for fungal and bacterial pathogens, increasing the incidence of diseases like boll rot in cotton and fruit rot in tomato. These synergistic interactions complicate pest management and can lead to significant economic losses and reduced crop quality.

VI. Traditional and Chemical Control Methods

A. Synthetic Insecticides: Usage and Efficacy

Synthetic insecticides have been the cornerstone of *H. armigera* management for decades [23]. Organophosphates, carbamates, pyrethroids, and neonicotinoids are commonly used to control this pest. These insecticides target the nervous system, leading to rapid knockdown and mortality. While initially effective, their over-reliance has led to diminishing returns as resistance develops. Pyrethroids, in particular, were widely adopted due to their broad-spectrum activity and low mammalian toxicity; however, their efficacy has declined in many regions due to resistance.

B. Development of Resistance to Conventional Pesticides

The development of resistance in *H. armigera* is a significant challenge. Resistance to multiple classes of insecticides has been documented globally, driven by genetic variability and strong selection pressure from continuous chemical use. Mechanisms of resistance include enhanced metabolic detoxification via cytochrome P450 enzymes, glutathione S-transferases (GSTs), and esterases, as well as target-site mutations in the voltage-gated sodium channels and acetylcholinesterase (AChE) genes [24]. This resistance not only reduces the efficacy of insecticides but also complicates pest management, as cross-resistance often renders multiple chemical options ineffective.

C. Environmental and Health Risks of Chemical Controls

The widespread use of synthetic insecticides poses significant environmental and health risks. Residual insecticides contaminate soil, water bodies, and air, leading to pollution and affecting non-target organisms. Bioaccumulation of these chemicals in the food chain can have long-term ecological consequences, including the decline of beneficial insect populations and the disruption of aquatic ecosystems. Human health risks include acute poisoning among farm workers, chronic exposure-related health issues, and contamination of food products. The persistent use of certain insecticides has led to their regulation or ban in several countries, highlighting the need for safer alternatives [25].

D. Integrated Chemical Approaches and Safety Protocols

Integrated chemical approaches emphasize the judicious use of insecticides within the framework of Integrated Pest Management (IPM). This involves combining chemical controls with biological,

cultural, and mechanical methods to reduce reliance on pesticides and delay the development of resistance. Strategies include rotating insecticides with different modes of action, using pheromone traps to monitor pest populations, and applying insecticides at economic threshold levels to minimize environmental impact. Safety protocols such as the use of personal protective equipment (PPE), proper storage and disposal of chemicals, and adherence to pre-harvest intervals are essential to mitigate health risks and environmental contamination [26].

VII. Biological Control Strategies

A. Use of Natural Predators and Parasitoids

Biological control strategies against *Helicoverpa armigera* often employ natural predators and parasitoids, which are effective in reducing pest populations without the adverse effects associated with chemical pesticides. Predatory insects such as ladybird beetles (*Coccinellidae*), green lacewings (*Chrysopidae*), and predatory bugs like *Geocoris* and *Orius* species play significant roles by preying on eggs and early larval stages of *H. armigera*. Birds and spiders are also important predators in the natural regulation of this pest. Parasitoids, particularly from the families Braconidae and Ichneumonidae (Hymenoptera), target *H. armigera* at various developmental stages. The egg parasitoid *Trichogramma* species is widely used, laying its eggs inside the host eggs, thereby preventing larval development. Larval parasitoids such as *Bracon hebetor* attack later stages, leading to substantial larval mortality. These biological agents are integral components of Integrated Pest Management (IPM) programs, enhancing the sustainability of pest control by reducing reliance on chemical pesticides [27].

B. Bacterial and Fungal Biocontrol Agents

i. *Bacillus thuringiensis* and *Beauveria bassiana* Applications

Bacillus thuringiensis (Bt) is a widely used microbial biopesticide that produces crystal proteins (Cry toxins) toxic to *H. armigera*. When ingested by larvae, these toxins bind to receptors in the gut epithelium, causing cell lysis and larval death. Bt has been effectively deployed through genetically modified crops like Bt cotton, which express these toxins, providing season-long protection against *H. armigera*. This technology has significantly reduced chemical pesticide usage and has contributed to improved pest management outcomes. *Beauveria bassiana*, an entomopathogenic fungus, infects *H. armigera* through spore attachment to the insect cuticle. The fungus penetrates the cuticle, proliferates within the host body, and releases toxins that ultimately kill the insect. *B. bassiana* is highly effective under humid conditions and can significantly reduce *H. armigera* populations. Its integration into IPM programs provides a complementary approach to managing this pest, particularly in regions where chemical resistance is prevalent [28].

C. Viral Pathogens: Nuclear Polyhedrosis Virus (NPV)

The *Helicoverpa armigera* Nuclear Polyhedrosis Virus (HaNPV) is a naturally occurring viral pathogen that infects and kills larvae. When larvae ingest viral occlusion bodies, the virus invades the midgut cells, causing systemic infection and eventual larval death within 5-7 days. HaNPV is highly specific to *H. armigera* and does not affect non-target organisms, making it an environmentally safe biocontrol agent. It has been successfully used in IPM programs, particularly in cotton and legume crops, where it provides effective control of *H. armigera* populations [29]. The use of HaNPV is especially valuable in organic farming systems and in areas where chemical pesticide resistance is a concern.

D. Entomopathogenic Nematodes in Pest Management

Entomopathogenic nematodes, such as *Steinernema* and *Heterorhabditis* species, are microscopic worms that parasitize *H. armigera* larvae. These nematodes enter the host body through natural

openings or cuticle penetration, releasing symbiotic bacteria that kill the insect within 48 hours. They are effective against soil-dwelling stages of *H. armigera*, particularly pupae. Their use in pest management is gaining traction due to their safety for non-target organisms and compatibility with other biocontrol agents. Entomopathogenic nematodes are especially useful in cropping systems where the pest overwinters in the soil, providing a sustainable option for managing *H. armigera* populations.

Table 1: Biological Control Strategies for *Helicoverpa armigera*

Biological Control Agent	Type	Target Life Stage	Mode of Action
<i>Trichogramma chilonis</i>	Parasitoid wasp	Eggs	Parasitism of eggs
<i>Habrobracon hebetor</i>	Parasitoid wasp	Larvae	Parasitism of larvae
<i>Bacillus thuringiensis</i>	Bacterial biopesticide	Larvae	Production of insecticidal toxins
<i>Metarhizium anisopliae</i>	Entomopathogenic fungus	Larvae, Pupae	Infection leading to mortality
<i>Steinernemacarpocapsae</i>	Entomopathogenic nematode	Larvae	Parasitism and toxin release
<i>Nuclear Polyhedrosis Virus (NPV)</i>	Viral pathogen	Larvae	Ingestion leading to viral infection
<i>Beauveria bassiana</i>	Entomopathogenic fungus	Larvae, Pupae	Fungal infection
<i>Chrysoperla carnea</i>	Predator (Green lacewing)	Eggs, Larvae	Predation
<i>Orius insidiosus</i>	Predator (Minute pirate bug)	Eggs, Early instars	Predation

VIII. Cultural and Mechanical Control Methods

A. Crop Rotation and Intercropping to Disrupt Life Cycles

Crop rotation and intercropping are cultural practices that disrupt the life cycle of *H. armigera* by altering the availability of suitable host plants. Rotating susceptible crops like cotton or chickpea with non-host crops such as cereals or legumes reduces the continuity of food sources for the pest, thereby lowering its population. Intercropping involves growing two or more crops together, which can confuse or repel pests and reduce their impact on any single crop. These practices not only suppress *H. armigera* populations but also enhance soil fertility and biodiversity, contributing to sustainable agriculture [30].

B. Trap Cropping and Border Management Techniques

Trap cropping involves planting a more attractive host plant around the main crop to lure *H. armigera* away from economically important crops. For example, planting sunflower or pigeon pea as a trap crop around cotton fields can effectively divert the pest, reducing damage to the main crop. Border management techniques, such as planting hedgerows or strips of non-host plants, act as physical

barriers, preventing pest migration into the main crop area. These methods are particularly effective in reducing the initial pest infestation and minimizing the need for chemical interventions.

C. Use of Light Traps and Pheromone Traps

Light traps and pheromone traps are mechanical tools used for monitoring and controlling *H. armigera* populations. Light traps attract and capture adult moths, particularly during peak flight periods, helping to reduce the breeding population. Pheromone traps utilize synthetic sex pheromones to lure male moths, disrupting mating and reducing the subsequent generation's population. These traps are integral to IPM programs, providing early warning of pest outbreaks and aiding in timely intervention [31].

D. Mechanical Methods: Manual Removal and Netting

Manual removal of *H. armigera* egg masses and larvae from crops is a labor-intensive but effective control method, particularly in smallholder farming systems. This method is environmentally friendly and can significantly reduce pest populations when combined with other control measures. Netting involves the physical exclusion of pests from crops using fine mesh nets, which prevent moths from laying eggs on the plants. While more commonly used in horticultural crops, netting can be adapted for field crops to protect against *H. armigera* infestations, particularly during vulnerable growth stages [32].

IX. Host Plant Resistance and Genetic Engineering Approaches

A. Development of Resistant Cotton Varieties

The development of resistant cotton varieties has been a key strategy in managing *Helicoverpa armigera* infestations. Traditional breeding techniques have focused on enhancing inherent plant defenses, such as the production of secondary metabolites like gossypol and tannins, which deter feeding and reduce pest survival. Resistance breeding also involves selecting for morphological traits such as hairiness (trichomes) on leaves and fruiting bodies, which physically impede larval feeding and oviposition. Conventional breeding, however, has limitations due to the genetic complexity of resistance traits and the pest's ability to adapt to these defenses, prompting the integration of biotechnological approaches [33].

B. Genetically Modified (GM) Crops: Bt Cotton

i. Mechanisms and Efficacy of Bt Toxins

Bt cotton, genetically engineered to express *Bacillus thuringiensis* (Bt) toxins, represents a breakthrough in the control of *H. armigera*. The primary Bt toxins used in cotton are Cry1Ac and Cry2Ab, which target the larval stage of the pest. Upon ingestion, these toxins bind to specific receptors in the insect's midgut, causing pore formation, gut cell lysis, and eventual larval death. Bt cotton has shown remarkable efficacy in reducing *H. armigera* populations and associated crop damage, significantly lowering the need for chemical insecticides. This has led to economic benefits for farmers, including higher yields and reduced pesticide costs [34].

ii. Sustainability and Resistance Management

While Bt cotton has been highly effective, the sustainability of this technology depends on managing resistance development in *H. armigera* populations. Resistance management strategies include the use of refuge crops-non-Bt cotton areas where susceptible pest populations can survive and mate with resistant individuals, diluting resistance genes in the population. Additionally, stacking multiple Bt genes with different modes of action (pyramiding) enhances durability by making it harder for pests to develop resistance simultaneously to all expressed toxins. Monitoring pest populations for early signs of resistance and adopting integrated pest management (IPM) practices are crucial for maintaining the long-term efficacy of Bt cotton.

C. Breeding for Natural Resistance Traits

Breeding for natural resistance traits involves selecting and enhancing genetic traits in cotton that confer resistance to *H. armigera*. This approach utilizes conventional and molecular breeding techniques to introduce traits such as increased production of defensive proteins (e.g., protease inhibitors and lectins), enhanced production of secondary metabolites, and improved structural defenses. Marker-assisted selection (MAS) accelerates the identification and incorporation of resistance genes into commercial varieties, making the breeding process more efficient and precise [35]. Combining natural resistance with biotechnological innovations can provide a robust and sustainable solution to pest management.

D. Future Prospects for Genetic Engineering in Resistance

Future prospects for genetic engineering in pest resistance include advancements in gene-editing technologies like CRISPR/Cas9, which enable precise modifications of the plant genome to enhance resistance traits. Gene stacking, where multiple resistance genes are combined, can create plants with broad-spectrum resistance to multiple pests. Additionally, synthetic biology approaches may lead to the development of novel resistance traits that are not present in nature. These innovations have the potential to reduce dependency on chemical pesticides, enhance crop resilience, and contribute to sustainable agriculture [36].

X. Chemical and Biochemical Resistance Management

A. Rotation of Insecticide Classes to Delay Resistance

Rotating insecticide classes with different modes of action is a critical strategy to delay the development of resistance in *H. armigera*. This practice prevents the continuous selection pressure exerted by a single class of insecticides, thereby reducing the likelihood of resistance buildup. For example, alternating between pyrethroids, organophosphates, and neonicotinoids can help manage resistance more effectively. By disrupting the selection process, pest populations remain susceptible to various chemical controls, extending the useful life of available insecticides.

B. Mixture Strategies for Effective Pest Control

Using insecticide mixtures, where two or more active ingredients with different modes of action are combined, can enhance pest control efficacy and delay resistance development. Mixtures target multiple physiological pathways in the pest, reducing the probability of simultaneous resistance development to all components. For instance, combining a pyrethroid with a neonicotinoid has shown synergistic effects, leading to higher mortality rates in *H. armigera* [37]. This strategy is particularly effective when each component has a comparable persistence and non-overlapping resistance profiles.

C. Use of Biopesticides as Sustainable Alternatives

Biopesticides, derived from natural sources such as bacteria, fungi, viruses, and plant extracts, offer a sustainable alternative to chemical insecticides. Products like *Bacillus thuringiensis* (Bt), *Beauveria bassiana*, and neem-based formulations (azadirachtin) target *H. armigera* with minimal environmental impact. These biopesticides are generally safer for non-target organisms and have lower resistance development potential due to their complex modes of action. Integrating biopesticides into IPM programs enhances sustainability and reduces the ecological footprint of pest management.

D. Regulatory and Policy Implications in Resistance Management

Effective resistance management requires robust regulatory frameworks and policies that promote the responsible use of insecticides and biotechnological products. Regulatory bodies need to enforce guidelines for insecticide use, including rotation schedules, refuge requirements for Bt crops, and monitoring of resistance development. Policies should also encourage research and development of

new pest control technologies and promote farmer education on sustainable pest management practices. International collaboration is essential to address resistance management on a global scale, ensuring food security and agricultural sustainability [38].

XI. Integrated Pest Management (IPM) Strategies for *Helicoverpa armigera*

A. Importance of IPM for Sustainable Control

Integrated Pest Management (IPM) is a holistic approach to pest control that combines biological, cultural, mechanical, and chemical methods to manage pest populations below economically damaging levels. The importance of IPM for *Helicoverpa armigera* lies in its ability to reduce the reliance on chemical pesticides, thereby minimizing environmental impact, preserving natural enemies, and delaying the development of resistance. *H. armigera* is a highly adaptable pest with a broad host range and a significant capacity for developing resistance to insecticides. Hence, IPM provides a sustainable framework for managing this pest by integrating multiple control strategies that are economically viable, environmentally safe, and socially acceptable [39].

B. Key Components of an IPM Program for Cotton

i. Monitoring and Economic Thresholds

Monitoring pest populations is a critical component of an IPM program for cotton. Regular field scouting and the use of pheromone traps or light traps help in tracking *H. armigera* population dynamics and identifying the timing and intensity of infestations. The establishment of economic thresholds—defined as the pest density at which the cost of pest control equals the revenue loss caused by the pest—guides the timing of control measures. For *H. armigera*, economic thresholds vary depending on the crop stage and environmental conditions but generally involve intervention when larvae per plant exceed a certain number, typically 1-2 larvae per meter of row [40].

ii. Decision-Making Tools for Timely Interventions

Decision-making tools such as predictive models, degree-day calculators, and weather-based forecasting systems are employed to determine the optimal timing for interventions. These tools integrate pest monitoring data with environmental parameters to predict pest emergence, peak activity periods, and potential damage. Decision support systems (DSS) can enhance the efficiency and effectiveness of IPM programs by providing farmers with timely recommendations on when and how to implement control measures.

C. Combining Biological, Cultural, and Chemical Methods

A successful IPM program for *H. armigera* relies on the integration of biological, cultural, and chemical control methods. Biological control involves the use of natural enemies such as parasitoids (e.g., *Trichogramma spp.*), predators (e.g., *Chrysoperla spp.*), and microbial agents (e.g., *Bacillus thuringiensis*). Cultural practices like crop rotation, intercropping, and the use of trap crops reduce the pest's breeding and feeding opportunities. Chemical controls are used judiciously and only when necessary, guided by economic thresholds and resistance management strategies. The combination of these methods ensures a balanced approach that reduces the risk of pest outbreaks and minimizes environmental impact [41].

D. Community and Farmer Involvement in IPM Adoption

The success of IPM programs depends significantly on the active involvement of the farming community. Farmer education and capacity building through extension services, field demonstrations, and farmer field schools are crucial for promoting IPM adoption. Community-based approaches, such as area-wide pest management, where all farmers in a region adopt IPM practices simultaneously, enhance the effectiveness of pest control efforts. Social networks and farmer cooperatives can

facilitate knowledge sharing and collective decision-making, ensuring widespread and sustained adoption of IPM practices.

XII. Advances in Technological Approaches for *H. armigera* Control

A. Precision Agriculture Tools and Remote Sensing

Precision agriculture tools and remote sensing technologies have revolutionized pest management by enabling site-specific monitoring and control of *H. armigera*. Remote sensing technologies, including satellite imagery and UAV-based sensors, provide real-time data on crop health, pest infestations, and environmental conditions. These tools help in early detection of pest hotspots, allowing for targeted interventions that reduce pesticide use and enhance control efficiency [42]. Precision agriculture technologies such as GPS-guided equipment and variable-rate application systems further optimize pesticide usage, ensuring that only affected areas are treated, thereby reducing costs and environmental impact.

B. Application of Artificial Intelligence and Machine Learning

Artificial Intelligence (AI) and Machine Learning (ML) are increasingly being applied in the field of pest management. AI algorithms can process large datasets from remote sensing, field scouting, and weather forecasts to predict *H. armigera* outbreaks and recommend timely interventions. Machine learning models are trained to recognize pest damage patterns, enabling automated identification and classification of *H. armigera* infestations. These technologies enhance decision-making accuracy, reduce human error, and enable predictive pest management strategies that improve crop protection outcomes [43].

C. Use of Drones and Autonomous Systems for Pesticide Application

Drones and autonomous systems are becoming essential tools in modern agriculture for precise pesticide application. Drones equipped with multispectral cameras and sprayers can identify and treat *H. armigera* infestations at an early stage, applying pesticides only where needed. This targeted approach reduces chemical usage, minimizes environmental impact, and enhances worker safety by reducing exposure to hazardous substances. Autonomous ground vehicles equipped with precision sprayers can also be programmed to navigate fields and apply treatments accurately, ensuring uniform application and effective pest control [44].

D. Digital Platforms for Real-time Pest Monitoring and Forecasting

Digital platforms that integrate real-time data from various sources such as remote sensors, field devices, and weather stations are transforming pest monitoring and forecasting. These platforms provide farmers with real-time insights into pest dynamics, enabling prompt and informed decision-making. Mobile applications and cloud-based systems allow for the collection and analysis of field data, offering pest alerts, risk assessments, and management recommendations. By leveraging digital tools, farmers can enhance their response to *H. armigera* infestations, improving the efficiency and effectiveness of pest management practices [45].

XIV. Conclusion

The management of *Helicoverpa armigera* requires a multifaceted approach integrating biological, cultural, chemical, and advanced technological strategies. The adoption of IPM practices, including the use of natural predators, genetically modified crops like Bt cotton, and precision agriculture tools, has proven effective in mitigating the pest's impact while promoting environmental sustainability. Advances in AI, remote sensing, and drone technologies enhance real-time monitoring and targeted interventions, reducing the reliance on broad-spectrum insecticides. Sustainable management also hinges on resistance management strategies, community involvement, and regulatory support to

ensure the long-term efficacy of control measures. As agriculture evolves, integrating innovative tools with traditional methods will be crucial for maintaining crop health and productivity while safeguarding ecological balance.

Disclaimer (Artificial intelligence)

Author(s) hereby declare that NO generative AI technologies such as Large Language Models (ChatGPT, COPILOT, etc.) and text-to-image generators have been used during the writing or editing of this manuscript.

References

1. Riaz, S., Johnson, J. B., Ahmad, M., Fitt, G. P., & Naiker, M. (2021). A review on biological interactions and management of the cotton bollworm, *Helicoverpa armigera* (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae). *Journal of Applied Entomology*, 145(6), 467-498.
2. Sharma, H. C., & Ortiz, R. (2002). Host plant resistance to insects: an eco-friendly approach for pest management and environment conservation. *Journal of Environmental Biology*, 23(2), 111-135.
3. Wolf, A. M., & Colditz, G. A. (1998). Current estimates of the economic cost of obesity in the United States. *Obesity research*, 6(2), 97-106.
4. Cook, S. M., Khan, Z. R., & Pickett, J. A. (2007). The use of push-pull strategies in integrated pest management. *Annu. Rev. Entomol.*, 52(1), 375-400.
5. Yao, S., Yang, Y., Xue, Y., Zhao, W., Liu, X., Du, M., ... & An, S. (2021). New insights on the effects of spinosad on the development of *Helicoverpa armigera*. *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety*, 221, 112452.
6. Bursell, E. (1974). Environmental aspects—humidity. In *The physiology of insecta* (pp. 43-84). Academic Press.
7. Pomari-Fernandes, A., de Freitas Bueno, A., & Sosa-Gómez, D. R. (2015). *Helicoverpa armigera*: current status and future perspectives in Brazil. *Current Agricultural Science and Technology*, 21(1).
8. Matre, Y. B., Zanwar, P. R., & Sonkamble, M. M. Host Plant Resistance Types and Its Mechanism.
9. Boate, U., & Abalis, O. (2020). Review on the bio-insecticidal properties of some plant secondary metabolites: types, formulations, modes of action, advantages and limitations. *Asian Journal of Research in Zoology*, 3(4), 27-60.
10. Rand, T. A., Richmond, C. E., & Dougherty, E. T. (2017). Using matrix population models to inform biological control management of the wheat stem sawfly, *Cephus cinctus*. *Biological Control*, 109, 27-36.
11. Bale, J. S., Van Lenteren, J. C., & Bigler, F. (2008). Biological control and sustainable food production. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 363(1492), 761-776.
12. Jaffar, S., Ahmad, S., & Lu, Y. (2022). Contribution of insect gut microbiota and their associated enzymes in insect physiology and biodegradation of pesticides. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, 13, 979383.
13. Reigada, C., Guimarães, K. F., & Parra, J. R. P. (2016). Relative fitness of *Helicoverpa armigera* (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) on seven host plants: a perspective for IPM in Brazil. *Journal of Insect Science*, 16(1), 3.
14. Fite, T., Tefera, T., Husemann, M., Getaneh, G., & Villinger, J. (2022). Genetic Variation and Population Structure of the Old World Bollworm *Helicoverpa armigera* (Hübner, 1808) (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae) in Ethiopia. *Environmental Entomology*, 51(4), 859-869.

15. Nauen, R., Bass, C., Feyereisen, R., & Vontas, J. (2022). The role of cytochrome P450s in insect toxicology and resistance. *Annual Review of Entomology*, 67(1), 105-124.
16. Moyes, C. L., Lees, R. S., Yunta, C., Walker, K. J., Hemmings, K., Oladepo, F., ... & Ismail, H. M. (2021). Assessing cross-resistance within the pyrethroids in terms of their interactions with key cytochrome P450 enzymes and resistance in vector populations. *Parasites & Vectors*, 14, 1-13.
17. Vogel, H., Musser, R. O., & Paz Celorio-Mancera, M. D. L. (2014). Transcriptome responses in herbivorous insects towards host plant and toxin feeding. *Annual Plant Reviews: Insect-Plant Interactions*, 47, 197-233.
18. Chikate, Y. R., Dawkar, V. V., Barbole, R. S., Tilak, P. V., Gupta, V. S., & Giri, A. P. (2016). RNAi of selected candidate genes interrupts growth and development of *Helicoverpa armigera*. *Pesticide Biochemistry and Physiology*, 133, 44-51.
19. Mat Jalaluddin, N. S., Asem, M., Harikrishna, J. A., & Ahmad Fuaad, A. A. H. (2023). Recent Progress on Nanocarriers for Topical-Mediated RNAi Strategies for Crop Protection—A Review. *Molecules*, 28(6), 2700.
20. Naylor, R. L., Liska, A. J., Burke, M. B., Falcon, W. P., Gaskell, J. C., Rozelle, S. D., & Cassman, K. G. (2007). The ripple effect: biofuels, food security, and the environment. *Environment: Science and Policy for Sustainable Development*, 49(9), 30-43.
21. Menta, C. (2012). Soil fauna diversity-function, soil degradation, biological indices, soil restoration. *Biodiversity conservation and utilization in a diverse world*, 284.
22. Ciaccia, C., Armengot Martinez, L., Testani, E., Leteo, F., Campanelli, G., & Trincherà, A. (2020). Weed functional diversity as affected by agroecological service crops and no-till in a mediterranean Organic vegetable system. *Plants*, 9(6), 689.
23. Karim, S. (2000). Management of *Helicoverpa armigera*: a review and prospectus for Pakistan. *Pak. J. Biol. Sci*, 3(8), 1213-1222.
24. Samal, R. R., Panmei, K., Lanbiliu, P., & Kumar, S. (2022). Metabolic detoxification and ace-1 target site mutations associated with acetamiprid resistance in *Aedes aegypti* L. *Frontiers in Physiology*, 13, 988907.
25. Hillocks, R. J. (2012). Farming with fewer pesticides: EU pesticide review and resulting challenges for UK agriculture. *Crop Protection*, 31(1), 85-93.
26. Ncama, K., Magwaza, L. S., & Shezi, S. (2023). Integrated water management and its significance prior to, during, and after harvesting of fresh horticultural produce. *Postharvest Management of Fresh Produce*, 195-216.
27. Baker, B. P., Green, T. A., & Loker, A. J. (2020). Biological control and integrated pest management in organic and conventional systems. *Biological Control*, 140, 104095.
28. Way, M. J., & Van Emden, H. F. (2000). Integrated pest management in practice—pathways towards successful application. *Crop protection*, 19(2), 81-103.
29. Fathipour, Y., & Sedaratian, A. (2013). Integrated management of *Helicoverpa armigera* in soybean cropping systems. *Soybean-Pest Resistance. InTech, Rijeka, Croatia*, 231-280.
30. Shahid, M., Farooq, M. O., Razaq, M., Adnan, M., Zahid, S., Hussain, A., & Shah, F. M. (2023). Organic fertility management in cotton *Gossypium hirsutum* L. fosters arthropod biodiversity and complements pest suppression. *Journal of Applied Entomology*, 147(10), 1001-1013.
31. Schellhorn, N. A., & Jones, L. K. (2021). Real-time insect detection and monitoring: Breaking barriers to area-wide integrated management of insect pests. In *Area-Wide integrated pest management* (pp. 889-902). CRC Press.
32. Riaz, S., Johnson, J. B., Ahmad, M., Fitt, G. P., & Naiker, M. (2021). A review on biological interactions and management of the cotton bollworm, *Helicoverpa armigera* (Lepidoptera: Noctuidae). *Journal of Applied Entomology*, 145(6), 467-498.

33. Sharma, H. C. (2012). Conventional and biotechnological approaches for pest management: Potential and limitations.
34. Pimentel, D., Acquay, H., Biltonen, M., Rice, P., Silva, M., Nelson, J., ... & D'amore, M. (1992). Environmental and economic costs of pesticide use. *BioScience*, 42(10), 750-760.
35. Hasan, N., Choudhary, S., Naaz, N., Sharma, N., & Laskar, R. A. (2021). Recent advancements in molecular marker-assisted selection and applications in plant breeding programmes. *Journal of Genetic Engineering and Biotechnology*, 19(1), 128.
36. Pretty, J. (2018). Intensification for redesigned and sustainable agricultural systems. *Science*, 362(6417), eaav0294.
37. Ullah, S., Ejaz, M., & Ali Shad, S. (2017). Study of synergism, antagonism, and resistance mechanisms in insecticide-resistant *Oxycarenushyalinipennis* (Hemiptera: Lygaeidae). *Journal of economic entomology*, 110(2), 615-623.
38. Eruaga, M. A. (2024). Policy strategies for managing food safety risks associated with climate change and agriculture.
39. Deguine, J. P., Aubertot, J. N., Flor, R. J., Lescourret, F., Wyckhuys, K. A., & Ratnadass, A. (2021). Integrated pest management: good intentions, hard realities. A review. *Agronomy for Sustainable Development*, 41(3), 38.
40. El-Wakeil, N. E. (2010). Insect economic levels in relation to crop production. *Archives of Phytopathology and Plant Protection*, 43(17), 1710-1744.
41. E. Birch, A. N., Begg, G. S., & Squire, G. R. (2011). How agro-ecological research helps to address food security issues under new IPM and pesticide reduction policies for global crop production systems. *Journal of experimental botany*, 62(10), 3251-3261.
42. John, M. A., Bankole, I., Ajayi-Moses, O., Ijila, T., Jeje, O., & Lalit, P. (2023). Relevance of advanced plant disease detection techniques in disease and Pest Management for Ensuring Food Security and Their Implication: A review. *American Journal of Plant Sciences*, 14(11), 1260-1295.
43. Li, C., & Wang, M. (2024). Pest and disease management in agricultural production with artificial intelligence: Innovative applications and development trends. *Advances in Resources Research*, 4(3), 381-401.
44. Lochan, K., Khan, A., Elsayed, I., Suthar, B., Seneviratne, L., & Hussain, I. (2024). Advancements in Precision Spraying of Agricultural Robots: A Comprehensive Review. *IEEE Access*.
45. Kariyanna, B., & Sowjanya, M. (2024). Unravelling the use of artificial intelligence in management of insect pests. *Smart Agricultural Technology*, 100517.