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Insect and Other Animal Pests of Millets



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Sorghum and Millets Information Center

INTERNATIONAL CROPS RESEARCH INSTITUTE FOR THE SEMI-ARID TROPICS

Insect and Other Animal Pests of Millets

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ICRISAT

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FOREWORD

Pearl millet is a staple cereal best suited to the harsh climate of the seasonally hot, frequently drought prone semi-arid regions of Africa and the Indian subcontinent. It is grown on an estimated 26m ha in these two regions and constitutes the major staple crop in the Sahelian region of West Africa.

Considerable advances have been made in grain yields on other crops such as rice, wheat and corn - crops that are extensively cultivated in areas with favorable soil and climatic conditions and high technological inputs. Pearl millet and sorghum are usually cultivated in poor soils with little or no inputs by poor farmers. However, pearl millet is highly adaptable, providing sustainable yields under extreme environmental and biotic stress conditions. This crop has the potential to feed several millions of the poorest people of the semi-arid tropics and thus reduce the economic imbalance in those countries that are today highly dependent on food imports.

The importance which ICRISAT attaches to this crop is evidenced by the establishment of the regional ICRISAT Sahelian Center at Sadore, near Niamey, NIGER. Among the major constraints to millet production, insect pests, diseases, birds and rodents cause severe yield losses to a crop that provides considerable calories and protein in human diets.

By providing a comprehensive overview of the major pests of pearl millet, this book will meet the requirements of several scientists, technicians and extension agents actively involved in the improvement of this crop especially in countries where it is the major staple crop.

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J.M.J. de Wet
Director, Cereals Program

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1. INTRODUCTION

Millets are one of the most important cereal crops in the semi-arid tropics of the world, and form the staple diet of millions of people in Asia and Africa. Rachie and Majmudar (1980) reported that the average world production of millets for the five year period 1967-1971 was nearly 44 million metric tons produced on 68.8 million hectares. This accounted for 10.6% of the worlds' cultivated land and about 4% of the total grain production. Among the different millet species, pearl millet (Pennisetum americanum Leeke) occupies 46% of this area and accounts for nearly 40% of the total millet production. Foxtail millet (Setaria italica Beauv.) (grown mostly in China and Manchuria) comprise about 24.2% of total millets produced. Proso millet (Panicum miliaceum Linn.) occupies 14% area and 15% of the production (mainly in China and USSR). Finger millet (Eleusine coracana Geartn.) accounts for 8 and 11% of the area and production respectively. Fonio (Digitaria spp) and teff (Eragrostis teff Trott.) are grown on a small scale in West Africa and Ethiopia respectively. A number of other minor millets and their wild relatives are also grown on a small scale or occur under wild conditions in different parts of the world, and may be used either as human food or animal fodder. The different species of millets and their closely related wild species reported as potential hosts of insect pests are listed in Table 1.

Pearl millet is most important in the developing countries of the semi-arid tropics of Asia and Africa where annually an estimated 28 million ha is planted to this crop. It also occupies an important place as fodder for animals, both in the developing and the developed world, (e.g. it is grown as a forage crop on about 40,0000 hectares on the coastal plains of USA). The crop is grown in areas with an annual rainfall of 300-800 mm where the soils have poor fertility or are sandy and is usually raised on small farms, with a very low level of inputs in the form of fertilizers, labour, cultural operations, and management. It is commonly regarded as a poor mans' crop.

In India, the crop is grown in Rajasthan, Gujarat, Tamil Nadu, Haryana, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Uttar Pradesh, Punjab, Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka. Rajasthan, having light sandy soils and low rainfall, is the principal millet growing state and accounts for over 40 percent of the total acreage under millets. In India, the crop comes fourth after rice, wheat, and sorghum and covers 10.7 million ha. In Africa the major areas of pearl millet production lie between 10 N to 17 N, while in Asia, more than 80% of the pearl millet is produced north of the 18 N parallel.

Efforts to improve upon this crop were initiated in the early sixties in India. One of the major constraints to increase crop yields is the susceptibility of high yielding genotypes to diseases such as ergot and downy mildew, which only became important after the first phase of the crop improvement program.

The average national grain yield is about 560 kg/ha in India and 600 kg ha in the African countries with a low of 275 kg/ha in Mauritiana (FAO 1978). Grain yields of 2.0 to 3.5 metric tonnes/ha

can be obtained on research farms, and there is a yield gap of 4-10 times between what can be produced under optimal conditions with presently available potential genotypes, and that produced on farmers' fields in the semi-arid tropics. Factors such as drought, low soil fertility, suboptimal management, diseases, parasitic weeds, birds and insect pests reduce the crop yields substantially. There is considerable malnutrition and undernutrition in most of the countries in the semi-arid tropics (SAT), which necessitates a doubling of the agricultural production in these areas over the next 1-2 decades. However, the available resources such as irrigation and agrochemical inputs are unlikely to change substantially. These constraints must be overcome by developing cultivars with greater ability to tolerate abiotic and biotic yield reducing factors, and by improving crop husbandry practices.

Millets are reputed to be relatively free of insect pests when compared with other cereals such as sorghum, rice, and maize. However, this is not true in many areas in Africa, where the millets are attacked by a wide range of pests which may damage the crop at all stages of development. Although the need to control pests on millets is less frequent than on other crops, the production may be significantly reduced in certain areas.

Insect pest problems on pearl millet are generally considered to be more important in Africa than in India where the crop is often said to have no serious pest problems. While insect pests of millets have seldom reached epidemic proportions, serious outbreaks and locally important endemic pests have been reported from time-to-time. In India, the outbreaks of Holotrichia fissa (Verma 1975), Schistocerca gregaria (Maxwell-Darling 1936; Haroon Khan 1945), Oedaleus senegalensis (Bhatia and Ahluwalia 1966), and Balclutha sp. (Khurana and Ramakrishnan 1974) have been reported. In Africa Oedaleus senegalensis (Mallamaire 1948) and Raghuva albipunctella (Vercambre 1978; Ndoye 1979) have been recorded in outbreak proportions. Pearl millet diseases were considered to be unimportant before 1970. But these now cause colossal losses year after year. Taking a clue from the sister crops such as sorghum, where insects of minor importance have become major and key pests, it is high time to take a critical look at the insect pest problems on millets.

Whereas there is little specific information on the insect pests of millets in the literature, a number of preliminary reports list the various insect species found feeding upon millets. In some cases, information on the life histories and behaviour of these insects and their control is also included. Pest problems in pearl millet have been discussed by Kassam (1976), Jotwani (1976; 1978), Jotwani and Butani (1978), Rachie and Majmudar (1980), Gahukar and Jotwani (1980), Gahukar (1984), Verma (1980), and Ndoye et al. (1986). However, there is no comprehensive account of the pest problems on millets in Asia, Africa and America.

Many insect and mite species also attack the stored grain, which cause both quantitative and qualitative losses. Fourteen species have been reported to attack stored millet grain, however, it is most likely that the insects damaging other cereals and their processed

products damage the millets as well. The exact yield loss estimates are not available, though, the storage losses can be very high.

Grain eating birds, by far are the most important pests of millets, and the losses are very high in the sub-Saharan Africa. A large number of species feed on the grain in the field.

Rats and mice also damage millets substantially, both in the field and in the stores. Serious outbreaks are often observed periodically, that result in heavy damage.

2. INSECT AND MITE PESTS

The insect and mite pests reported feeding on millets in different parts of the world are listed in Table 2. The pest problems of millets are generally underestimated. However, a careful appraisal of the literature shows that there are many important pests but not much attention had been paid to pest problems on millets until recently.

There is very little information on the nature of damage, biology, seasonal activity, incidence, and extent of losses due to insect pests feeding on millets. Most of the reported work deals with the occurrence, nature of damage and unusual outbreaks.

2.1. ECONOMIC IMPORTANCE

Information on pest incidence and associated crop losses is scanty and reported in case of a few insect pests only. This information is summarized in table 3. The number of pests damaging millets and their role will become more clear in future when necessary emphasis is placed on insect pest management in millet production, and incidence levels and subsequent yield losses encountered are worked out in different parts of the semi-arid tropics (SAT). From the preliminary reports it is evident that insects such as shoot flies, stem borers, and earhead caterpillars may account for more than 50 percent of the crop yield loss (Table 3). Based on the information on pest outbreaks, their geographical distribution, the plant parts attacked and the potential to cause damage, a number of highly injurious insect pests can be singled out. With the change in cultivated genotypes (land races being replaced by new cultivars), cultural practices, and farming systems, these insect pests might become a limiting factor in millet production in future.

2.2 NATURE OF DAMAGE, BIOLOGY, AND SEASONAL ACTIVITY

Most of the work reported on insects feeding on pearl millet contains very little or no information on the nature of damage, biology or seasonal activity. Adequate knowledge of the insect biology and population dynamics is of prime importance to the development of successful pest management strategies. In this section, the available information on the biology, pest status, and nature of damage of important pests has been summarized.

2.2.1. ROOT FEEDERS

2.2.1.1. White Grubs

The white grubs, Holotrichia spp are the most important pests of pearl millet in North-West India. The grubs feed on roots and live inside the soil at a depth of 2 to 25 cm (Plates 1 and 2). There may be two to three grubs attacking a single plant. The damage leads to the withering and death of seedlings, and such seedlings can be easily pulled out. The mature plants remain stunted in growth and become

pale yellow in color and are prone to lodging. The biology of H. consanguinea and H. (insularis) reynaudi, the most destructive species, has been studied by Krishnaswamy et al. (1963), Srivastava and Khan (1963), Bindra and Singh (1971), and Srivastava et al. (1971b); and that of H. serrata by Majumdar and Teotia (1965). The females lay eggs about 10 cm deep in the soil. The eggs hatch in 1-3 weeks. A large number of grubs are present in the soil in June. The grubs feed on roots and other available organic matter and complete their development within 8-22 weeks. The last instar larvae are most damaging. During September, the grubs descend to greater depths for pupation. The pupal period lasts for 1-6 weeks. The insect completes one generation per year and the peak period of attack is from August to September.

The adults may emerge by November-December if the climatic conditions are favourable, but generally remain in the soil until the monsoons and emerge mostly during June-July and defoliate the preferred host trees and shrubs. The activity declines with heavy showers of rain. At dusk, the beetles make nuptial flights and feed on the leaves of trees and shrubs. At dawn, they hide in the soil (Jotwani and Butani 1978). Adults of H. consanguinea and H. reynaudi are attracted to light (Khan and Ghai 1974).

2.2.1.2 False Wireworms

The false wireworm, Arthrodes sp larvae live in the soil and feed upon the roots, leading to withering of plants (David and Kumaraswami 1975). The larval damage increases with crop age and roots may be completely eaten away by the time the plant reaches the earhead stage. The plants dry up and produce chaffy heads. Damaged plants are pulled up very easily. A severe infestation may result in loss of the entire crop (Rangarajan 1965). The larvae remain at a depth of 2-30 cm, and 2-3 larvae may be found below one plant. Peak activity occurs between December-January in South India. The larvae are unable to withstand excess moisture in the soil, with the result that crops are less severely damaged in years of high rainfall. The round black adult beetles appear in large numbers during September-October. Gonocephalum spp are also important pests of pearl millet and sorghum (Sharma and Davies 1982). The larvae damage the seedlings (Plate 3) which fail to establish and later they damage the roots. The damaged plants can be easily pulled out. The adults (Plate 4) feed on the leaves of sorghum, pearl millet and pigeonpea.

2.2.1.3. Root Bug

The root bug, Stibaropus minor occurs on pearl millet in the states of Maharashtra, Rajasthan, and Uttar Pradesh (Srivastava and Siddiqui 1967; Kadam and Patel 1960). The pest thrives in extremely sandy soils. A large number of insects suck sap from the rootlets below ground level and as a result, the plant loses its vitality, the roots begin to decay and the plant dies (Jotwani and Butani 1978). The soil surface at the base of infested plants shows a number of holes made by the adults. Severe infestation may necessitate resowing (Nair 1975). Peak activity occurs during August and then declines gradually

(Srivastava and Siddiqui 1967).

2.2.1.4. Finger Millet Root Aphid

Finger millet root aphid, Tetraneura (hirsuta) nigriabdominalis is found in colonies on the roots, and is usually accompanied by ants at the collar zone. Commonly known as the white plant louse, this pest infests the roots of finger millet in South India. Infested plants become yellow, stunted and produce shrivelled grains. This pest also infests rice (Nair 1975; Chandrasekaran et al. 1975).

2.2.2. SEEDLING PESTS

2.2.2.1. Shoot fly

The pearl millet shoot fly, Atherigona approximata has been reported to be a serious pest in Tamil Nadu (Natarajan et al. 1973), Gujarat (Gupta and Pareek 1976), Rajasthan (Sharma and Bhagirath Singh 1974), Delhi (Jotwani and Singh 1971), and Andhra Pradesh (Reddy and Davies 1977). Although, other species of the genus Atherigona have been reared on pearl millet (Reddy and Davies 1977), A. approximata has been found to be the most destructive (Singh and Jotwani 1973). Regupathy and Balasubramanian (1978) reported that yield reduction may be significant when infestation occurs within the first 21 days after crop emergence. The eggs are laid singly on the under surface of the leaves. Upon hatching, the larvae move to the growing point and cut the central leaf, resulting in the production of a dead heart. In many instances, the larvae are not able to reach the growing point, and as a result, the dead heart is thrown off and the growing point develops normally (Plate 5). Sometimes the larvae feed on the tender leaf blades in the shoot and the damaged margins become deep brown in color. The biology of this insect has been studied by Ballard and Rao (1924). The egg, larval and pupal periods last for 1-2, 7-9, and 6 days respectively. Unlike sorghum shoot fly, maggots of this fly also damage the earheads severely (Plate 6). A number of other shoot fly species have been recorded on various millets. Their relative importance as yield reducing factors is largely unknown.

2.2.2.2. Stem Borers

Twenty two species of Noctuids and Pyralids have been reported feeding inside the stems of pearl millet and other minor millets. Information concerning the pest status of these insects is not yet available. The stem borers are of considerable importance both in India and Africa (Harris 1962; Sandhu et al. 1976). Chilo partellus and Sesamia spp are the most important species in Asia and Africa, whereas Acigona ignefusalis is the major species in West Africa. Sesamia spp are more serious on late maturing cultivars in high rainfall regions, whereas A. ignefusalis is predominant in relatively dry areas in West Africa (Ndoye et al. 1986).

Acigona ignefusalis is the most important millet stem borer in Africa. Notes on the biology of this insect have been published by Risbec (1946, 1950), Appert (1957), and Harris (1962). The adults

have golden brown forewings, and emerge between 19.00 to 23.30 h. Normally, there are more females than males. The oviposition period lasts for 1-6 days and eggs are laid between the leaf sheath and stem in batches of 2-50. A female can lay up to 211 eggs. The eggs hatch in 8-11 days. In contrast to the larvae of Busseola fusca, the larvae of A. ignefusalis rarely leave the protection of the leaf sheath. Small plants may become thoroughly riddled by larvae, with the subsequent collapse of the plant (Plate 7). Larval survival is higher in this species than in B. fusca because the larvae do not leave the leaf sheath. There are 6-7 instars and development is completed in 30-40 days during the wet season. With the onset of dry season larvae enter diapause which lasts for 6 months but may continue for up to one year. Larvae in diapause can be distinguished by the loss of dark pigments and becoming an uniform pale-yellow to creamy white in color (Plate 8). The larvae pupate inside the stems (Plate 9). Pupal period lasts for 7-13 days. There are three generations per year (Harris 1962).

Chilo partellus is a predominant stem borer species damaging millets in India. It is distributed both in Africa (Nye 1960; Ingram 1958), and India (Issac 1946; Ahmed and Young 1969; Sandhu et al. 1976). Larval feeding leads first to leaf scarification and then to shot holes, followed by dead heart formation (Plate 10). The larvae riddle the stem from the inside (Plate 11) and there may be up to 20 larvae in one plant. The stems of attacked plants break easily. While accounts of its biology are not available from Africa, the following is based on the studies carried out in India (Nair 1975). The adults of C. partellus are nocturnal in habit. The pre-oviposition period lasts for 1-3 days and adults survive for 2-12 days. The eggs are flat and oval, and laid in overlapping clusters on the undersides of leaves near the midrib. A female lays on an average 225 eggs and a maximum of 722 eggs. The egg incubation period lasts for 2-5 days. The full grown larvae are light pink in color with dark spines all over the body and with a brown-black head (Plate 12). Larval development is completed in 28-50 days in summer and in about 190 days during the winter. The larvae hibernate during winter and aestivate during summer in stems and stubbles. The larvae pupate in the stem. The pupal period lasts for 12-15 days. The adults are light brown-grey in color and have characteristically long palpi projecting in front of the head when the moth is at rest (Plate 13).

Eldana saccharina occurs throughout Africa. The young larvae feed on leaves and usually bore into the midrib. Full grown larvae feed on stem and produce a deadheart. A female lays 400-600 eggs in batches of 2-200. Eggs hatch in 5-7 days and larvae complete development in 20-60 days. Pupation occurs inside the stem and adults emerge in 8-13 days.

Sesamia calamistis is widely distributed in Africa. Early instar larvae feed inside leaf sheaths, while the later instar larvae tunnel inside the stem through the internodes. Eggs are laid between the leaf sheaths and the stalk in groups of up to 400. Eggs hatch in 4-6

days and the larval development is completed in 2 weeks. Pupation takes place inside the stem and lasts for nearly 10 days. Unlike other borer species, there is no larval diapause.

Sesamia inferens is another stem borer damaging millets in India and Africa (Gahan 1928; Tams and Bowden 1953; Krishnamurthy and Usman 1952). Larval feeding first leads to leaf scarification and then to the production of shot holes. The 3rd instar larvae migrate to the base of the plant and bore inside leading to the production of a typical stem borer deadheart. In mature plants, the larvae bore the stems and make tunnels while feeding on the internal tissues. S. inferens is a serious pest of finger millet in southern India. Maize and sorghum are also attacked. The life cycle has been described in detail by Nair (1975). The life cycle is completed in 45-75 days and there are 4-6 generations per year. A female lays more than 400 eggs in batches of up to 160. The eggs are deposited between the leaf sheath and the stem in rows of 2-3, but may also be laid on the soil surface near the base of the plant. Under laboratory conditions, the females prefer leaves of E. coracana for oviposition than vertical sticks (Lingappa and Channabasavanna 1981). The eggs are round, creamy white, changing to brown before hatching. The egg stage lasts for 4-9 days in summer and 9-25 days in winter. After hatching the young larvae disperse to neighbouring plants but more than one larva may be found per plant. Larvae establish satisfactorily when placed in plastic boxes between the leaf sheath and the culm in E. coracana (Lingappa and Channabasavanna 1983). There are 5-7 larval instars, and larval development is completed in 3-4 weeks. The larvae also move from plant to plant, and may thus damage many plants during the course of their life. The full grown larva is pink in color with a dark brown head. Pupation takes place inside the larval tunnel or outside under the leaf sheath. The pupal period lasts for 5-12 days in summer and 12-36 days in winter.

2.2.3. FOLIAGE AND GENERAL FEEDERS

2.2.3.1. Grey Weevils and Leaf Beetles

Grey weevils, Myloccerus spp occasionally become serious on millets and have a wide distribution all over India. Among these, M. undecimpustulatus maculosus is a general feeder with an extensive range of host plants (Pande 1971). When the adult numbers reach outbreak proportions, the entire crop may be skeletonized. Light yellow colored eggs are laid in the soil. The grubs feed on the roots and remain in the soil. The damaged plants dry up or remain stunted (Plate 14). Larvae are stout, fleshy, yellow colored and about 7-9 mm long. Pupation occurs in earthen cells in the soil. Egg, larval and pupal periods last for 3-11, 32-42, and 5-7 days respectively. Total development is completed in 42-54 days. Adults are small weevils with whitish grey elytra (Plate 15). Leaf beetles (Lema spp and Chaetocnema spp) also result in severe damage occasionally during seedling stage in India and Africa (Nayar 1975; Ndoye et al. 1986).

2.2.3.2. Corn Leaf Aphid

Corn leaf aphid, Rhopalosiphum maidis is widely distributed in tropical and subtropical climates. It transmits maize streak virus disease, which may cause substantial yield losses (Brandes and Klapaak 1923). Colonies of dark green to blue green aphids (Plate 16) cluster in the whorl leaves. Both adults and the nymphs imbibe the plant sap and under severe infestation, the leaves become distorted and plant growth is arrested (Nair 1975). The aphids also secrete honey dew which attracts ants and on which moulds grow. Population build up is rapid by parthenogenetic reproduction. Adults may be winged or wingless and are blue green in color.

2.2.3.3. Greenbug

Greenbug, Schizaphis graminum is a destructive pest of small grains (Dahms 1951). It is distributed between Canada to the Gulf States and the Atlantic to Pacific. It feeds on a number of graminaceous plants. The infested fields show deadened areas during late winter or early summer. Plants are infested with colonies of tiny green aphids, which while feeding, inject toxic saliva causing discoloration and tissue necrosis. Nymphs are pale green, and when fully grown, have a dorsal dark green stripe. In the warmer southern states of USA the winter is passed as active nymphal and adult stages while in the north, as the egg stage. The eggs hatch during early spring and females begin to produce nymphs 7-18 days after emergence. During the summer, nymphs may develop into winged or wingless adults each of which can give rise to 50-60 nymphs. With the approach of cold weather, winged males and females are produced, which after mating lay overwintering eggs (Davidson and Peairs 1966).

2.2.3.4. Spittle Bug

Spittle bug, Poophilus costalis is an occasional pest in Africa and certain parts of Asia. Adults and nymphs feed on leaves resulting in chlorotic spots. The plants become stunted in growth and produce smaller panicles. Adults are brown-grey in color. The nymphs remain inside a foamy spittle mass (Plate 17). Nymphs leave the spittle after last moult and become active (Bonzi 1981).

2.2.3.5. Chinch Bug

Chinch bug, Blissus leucopterus causes severe damage to millets and other cereals in Central and North America (Reis et al. 1976; Davidson and Peairs 1966). The young bugs are bright red but become darker as they approach the adult stage. Females lay an average of 250 yellow-white eggs behind the leaf sheaths but sometimes in the soil at the base of the stem, and hatch in 1-3 weeks. The nymphs moult five times. There are two generations per year in USA. It is migratory in habit. The adults hibernate among the grasses in hedgerows, and along the edges of woodland (Davidson and Peairs 1966).

2.2.3.6. Shoot Bug

Shoot bug, Peregrinus maidis is pantropical in its distribution (Hill 1975) and is a vector of stripe disease of pearl millet and other graminaceous crops (Cherian and Kylasam 1936). The insect imbibes sap

from leaves confining itself in the leaf whorls or on the inner side of leaf sheaths (Plate 18). The sucking of sap leads to leaf chlorosis, stunted growth, and ultimately, reduced plant population or shrivelled and chaffy grains. Its biology has been studied by Chelliah and Basheer (1965). The female makes a slit in the leaf midrib and inserts 1-4 eggs. A female lays about 100 eggs in 6-8 days. The nymphs are light brown in colour with prominent legs and wing pads. Adults are found in macropterous and brachypterous forms. Males are dark brown and females a yellowish brown. Egg, nymphal, and total life cycle last for 7-10, 16-18, and 18-31 days respectively. Adult longevity of macropterous forms is 16 and 43 days for males and females respectively. Brachypterous males and females live for 14 and 44 days respectively.

2.2.3.7. Sugarcane Leaf Hopper

Sugarcane leaf hopper, Pyrilla perpusilla (Plate 19) feeds on a number of graminaceous plants. Its main host is sugarcane, but high populations have also been recorded on pearl millet (Jotwani et al. 1969b). The insect sucks sap from the lower surface of the leaves leading to withering, which can adversely affect the grain yields (Kushwaha et al. 1980). Eggs are laid in batches of 30-50 in the leaf sheaths or on the lower surface of the leaf along the midrib. The egg clusters are covered with fine whitish hairs produced from the anal pads of the female. A female can lay 600-800 eggs in its life time. Adults are straw colored with a prominent snout. Egg incubation lasts for 7-10 days. Nymphal development is completed in 34-52 days, and the total life cycle takes 40-55 days. There are 3-5 overlapping generations in a year. The winter is passed in the nymphal stage in North India. The pest prefers broad leaved and succulent varieties (Jotwani and Butani 1978).

2.2.3.8. Grasshoppers and Locusts

Grasshoppers and locusts are occasionally serious pests of millets in India and Africa. The hoppers destroy seedlings and feed on leaves, and when the infestations are heavy, resowing may be necessary. The important species are Colemania sphenarioides, Hieroglyphus nigrorepletus, H. daganensis, Oedaleus senegalensis, O. nigeriensis, Schistocerca gregaria, Locusta migratoria, and Chrotogonus spp.

Colemania sphenarioides is a serious pest in South India (Subramanyam 1941). The insect feeds on the foliage and may also devour the florets and ripening earheads (Plate 20). Under a severe infestation, the crop may be completely destroyed, and need to be resown. Adults are wingless, yellow-green in color with a lateral purple band. There is only one generation per year. Eggs are laid during September-October in batches of 30-60 below the soil surface. A female may lay from 60 to 100 eggs during its life time. The eggs hatch with the onset of monsoon during June-July. The nymphs undergo 5-6 moults and become adults in 10-12 weeks (Nair 1975).

Chrotogonus trachypterus is the common surface grasshopper in India (Kevan 1954), and is a serious pest in some years. The eggs, which are laid in the soil, hatch in 15-days in the summer and 150 days in the winter. There are 5-7 nymphal instars which complete the development in 40-170 days. There are 2-6 generations per year depending on the region and climate. They become sexually mature in 2-7 days and can live for long periods.

Hieroglyphus nigrorepletus is a serious pest in North India (Roonwal 1945; Peshwani 1960). Heavy incidence has been reported from Rajasthan (Jotwani and Butani 1978). The adults and nymphs feed on leaves, leaving the midribs intact, and may also feed on the earheads. A female may lay 3-6 egg pods, each containing 25-50 eggs which are yellow-pink in color. Normally eggs are laid in September-October and hatch during the following June-July, but they may remain viable for upto three years. The nymphs mature in 3-5 months. Adults hibernate among grasses or other wild hosts (Roonwal 1945).

Oedaleus senegalensis becomes occasionally important in Africa (Mallamaire 1948) and India (Bhatia and Ahluwalia 1962 and 1966). All stages of the crop may be damaged, but most loss occurs during seedling stage. Adults are green-brown in color. It is a migrant species. Nymphal development is completed in nearly 2 months. It diapauses in egg stage, which may last up to one year. Breeding occurs during rainy season.

Zonocerus variegatus is a common grasshopper in Africa. Nymphs and adults are observed in groups on various crops. It has only one generation per year. Eggs are laid in September-October at the end of rainy season. Eggs hatch at the beginning of next rainy season in March-May. Adults and nymphs live for nearly 6 months. .p

The desert locust, Schistocerca gregaria adults in solitarious phase are light yellowish-grey while those of gregarious phase are lemon yellow. It is widely distributed in semi-desert regions of Africa and Asia (Schmutterer 1969). It is a highly polyphagous insect during gregarious phase and feed on a number of plant species except Azadirachta indica A Juss Hopper bands do considerable damage during their development, but most severe losses are caused by young adults when they leave the breeding sites and the swarms invade new areas. Heavy damage to crops occur during outbreaks, which occur at regular intervals. Regional and international campaigns have put a break on the regular occurrence of locust outbreaks. The females lay eggs in damp sandy soils at a depth of 6-8 cm. Eggs are laid in masses of 20-100, and a female lays 60-160 eggs. Egg incubation takes 10-15 days, but varies according to temperature. Nymphal development is completed in 6-7 weeks. Hoppers are able to fly two days after the final moult. During night the hoppers roost on shrubs, trees, and grasses. The hoppers take to wings after sunrise at 17-23 deg C and the swarms fly along the wind. Rain showers and a fall in temperature (<23 deg C) causes the swarms to settle on the ground.

The African migratory locust, Locusta migratoria is widely distributed in tropical Africa south of Sahara. Adults of solitary phase are greenish brown while those of gregarious phase are yellowish-brown. It is polyphagous but distinctly prefers wild and cultivated Gramineae and doughstage grain of pearl millet and other grain crops. Its swarms coincide with those of S. gregaria in these areas. The females lay eggs at the beginning of rainy season in the soil. A female lays 100-200 eggs. Eggs hatch in 4 to 21 days. Young hoppers of the gregarious phase congregate and begin to march. When soil temperature exceeds 27-28 deg C. The nymphal development is completed in a few weeks. The adult swarms begin to fly at 26-27 deg C and may fly distances of more than 1500 km. Its bionomics and behaviour during the gregarious phase is quite similar to that of S. gregaria. Biology and general migratory behaviour of locusts has been studied by Rao (1925) and Uvarov (1966, 1977).

2.2.3.9. Hairy Caterpillars

Bstigmene lactinea, Prothesia xanthorrhoea, Amsacta moorei, and A. meloneyi are the major hairy caterpillars which damage millets.

The red hairy caterpillar, Amsacta moorei is a polyphagous pest and causes considerable damage to pearl millet occasionally (Yadva et al. 1966). The caterpillars are voracious feeders on leaves and the entire crop may be destroyed if a severe infestation occurs during an early growth stage (Parihar 1979)(Plate 21). The moth has white wings with red margins. A female lays up to 1500 yellow white eggs in clusters of 97-880. The egg incubation period lasts for 2-4 days. On hatching, the young caterpillars remain congregated at one place and disperse after 12-days. Larval development is completed in about 2 weeks. The caterpillars are highly active and may move from field to field in large numbers. The fully grown caterpillars are deep orange in colour with a dense covering of long hairs all over the body. The insect pupates in the soil in a cocoon incorporating larval hairs. The adults emerge during the following June-July at the onset of the monsoon. There is only one generation per year. This pest is most active in the field during July-August (Nair 1975; Jotwani and Butani 1978; Verma 1980). Amsacta meloneyi is widely distributed in West Africa. The moth is silvery white with a yellow abdomen, and dark stripes along the veins of fore wings. Hairy larvae feed on weeds and a number of cultivated crops. It has only one generation per year. Its damage is severe occasionally.

Black hairy caterpillar, Estigmene lactinea occasionally becomes a serious pest of pearl millet in South India (Fletcher 1914). Among the millets, finger millet is particularly susceptible to damage (Nair 1975). The adult is a large white moth with crimson markings on the head, body and wings. The eggs are laid on the plants. The caterpillars, 48-52 mm long, are black with reddish brown hairs arising from the urats. They pupate in an earthen cell in the soil. Caterpillars feed on the leaves and may kill the seedlings.

Tent hairy caterpillar, Prothesia xanthorhoea (Euproctis virguncula) has been noted as a pest of pearl millet by Vaish and Sharma (1971) and Sandhu et al. (1974c). The female moth lays 100-150 creamy white eggs which are covered with yellow hairs, and hatch in 3-4 days. The larva moults 5 times. The larval and pupal stages are completed in 31-39 and 9-11 days respectively. There are three generations a year. Peak larval activity occurs during August and September (Vaish and Sharma 1971).

2.2.3.10. Armyworms

Mythimna separata, M. loreyi, Spodoptera exempta, S. exigua, S. littoralis, and S. frugiperda become occasionally serious on pearl millet in India, Africa, and Northern America. During periods of heavy out breaks, the entire crop is skeletonized.

Oriental armyworm, Mythimna separata is an important millet defoliator in Asia (Plate 22). A female lays about 900 eggs, to a maximum of 1940 (Hamblin 1959; Hsia et al. 1963). The egg incubation period lasts 2-7 days (Avasthy and Chaudhary 1965). Larval development is completed in 14-22 days (Puttarudriah and Usman 1957; Avasthy and Chaudhary 1965; Cadapan and Sanchez 1972; Dwijendra Singh and Rai 1977), and the pupal stage lasts for 8-9 days (Avasthy and Chaudhary 1965; Dwijendra Singh and Rai 1977). Total development takes 26-38 days (Avasthy and Chaudhary 1965; Cadapan and Sanchez 1972; Dwijendra Singh and Rai 1977). The adults emerge between 20.00-23.00 hr (Anon. 1976) and survive for 4-5 days (Avasthy and Chaudhary 1965). Mating occurs on the 3rd and oviposition on the 4th day after emergence (Kanda and Naito 1979). The full grown larvae prefer high humidity (Bindra and Singh 1973). Survival is higher on heavily manured crops (Koyama 1966). Tanaka (1976) and Patel (1979) have studied the feeding rhythm of the larvae. Feeding normally occurs during the night. The larvae hide in cracks during the day.

Adult populations can be monitored with light traps (Spitzer 1970; Persson 1977) or molasses-baited traps (Koyama 1968). The rate of oviposition can be determined by using dry leaves of sorghum (Tanaka et al. 1971). Spitzer (1970) observed moth activity during winter in New Zealand and concluded that there is no winter diapause in the life cycle of this insect. The larvae were present in the field throughout the year in Punjab (Bindra and Singh 1973; Anon. 1974). However, Atwal (1976) reported that the larval period was as much as 88-100 days in Punjab during winter. Heavy rains followed by a prolonged period of drought result in heavy outbreaks (Sharma et al 1982; Morey et al 1983).

The African armyworm, S. exempta is an occasional pest of millets in Africa. Its outbreaks occur periodically and results in extensive damage to cereals and pasture grasses. The larvae are gregarious during the outbreaks. The eggs are laid in batches on the under surface of leaves, which hatch in 3-4 days. The larval period lasts for 10-20 days. Pupation takes place in soil, and the adults emerge in a weeks time. Adults migrate at night for long distances.

Outbreaks are associated with rainy season, and in eastern Africa, there is a northward progression from Tanzania to Ethiopia (Schmutterer 1969).

The fall armyworm, Spodoptera frugiperda defoliates millets in the American continent (Escalante 1974; Piedra 1974). The outbreaks are severe in Southern and Central America and Mexico and may become abundant in late summer and fall in the Southern United States. It has a wide host range. Eggs are laid in masses during the night on grasses and graminaceous crops. The egg incubation period lasts for 2-10 days. Six larval instars complete their development in about 20 days. Pupation takes place in the soil, the pupal stage lasting about 10 days. Female moths may migrate several km before they lay eggs. There are several generations in the southern United States and in South America. Under conditions of scarce food supply and high densities of larvae, the insect behaves as an armyworm and assumes a much darker coloration. Larvae have an inverted Y-shaped suture on front of the head, and the body has long hairs arising from black tubercles. Males have dark grey brown forewings mottled with light and dark spots and greyish white hind wings. The forewings of female are uniform grey (Davidson and Peairs 1966).

Cotton leafworm, Spodoptera littoralis feeds on pearl millet in Africa (Hill 1975). The forewings are dark brown, marked with light colored lines and stripes, and the hind wings are whitish with dark brown margins and brown venation. The Larvae are light green, but later turn blue-green. Later instar larvae are dark-grey. The larvae pupate in an earthen cell. A female lays about 1000 eggs with a maximum of 3700. Young larvae are sensitive to high temperatures and low humidity. Larvae feed during the night on the leaves of a wide range of host plants (Avidov and Harpaz 1969).

2.2.3.11. Leaf Roller

Leaf roller, Marasmia trapezalis is a sporadic pest of sorghum in India but also feeds upon pearl millet. The adult moths are slender, brown with waxy brown markings on the forewings (Jotwani and Butani 1978). The eggs are laid on the upper surface of leaves and the larvae feed on the inside surface of a folded leaf (Plate 23). The larva is slender, pale yellowish green in colour, and about 20 mm in length, it has small oval spiny patches scattered over the body, from which stout bristly hairs arise. The larvae are fully grown in 11-20 days. Pupation occurs within a leaf fold, and is completed in 6-8 days. As a result of larval feeding, the leaves start drying up from the tips. Broad leaved and succulent varieties are highly susceptible (Nair 1975; Srivastava et al. 1970)

2.2.4. EARHEAD PESTS

2.2.4.1. Pearl Millet Midge

Pearl millet midge, Geromyia penniseti is an important pest of pearl millet (Plate 24). It is widely distributed in South India, Sudan,

Uganda, Nigeria, Niger, Upper Volta, Ghana, Senegal, and Madagascar (Coutin and Harris 1968; Santharam et al. 1976). Its detailed biology has been studied by Coutin and Harris (1968). Felt (1920) described it from India and named it Itonida penniseti. The midges emerge after sunset and are most active for 3 hrs before and 1 hr after midnight; by 04.00 h, all activity ceases. The eggs are inserted either into the space between spikelets and the involucre of bristles or, more usually, between two spikelets. The eggs are elongate and slightly curved and stuck to the glumes or to the strong bristles. The female midges show a marked preference for millet heads in which the female flowers are fully open and the stigmas have not yet emerged. Eggs hatch in 3 days and the larvae crawl over the spikelets to the ovary, on which they feed. Sometimes the glumes may separate, revealing the larva inside. Larva pupates within the flower. The pupal stage lasts for about 2 days and adults emerge at 18.00 h with the peak emergence at 19.30 h. By looking at infested heads against the light, the pupae may be seen emerging from the floral cavity by twisting movements of the abdomen. Males generally emerge before females and wait for them on the heads.

G. penniseti is strictly nocturnal and thus easily overlooked. Development from egg to adult takes about 13 days at a mean temperature of 29 deg C. Four to five overlapping generations develop during the wet season. Towards the season end, the population levels decline due to larval parasitization. The proportion of diapausing larvae varies from 0.7 percent at the beginning of the season to about 10 percent at the end of the season. These proportions are much lower than those observed for C. sorghicola Coq. (Coutin and Harris 1968).

2.2.4.2. Blister Beetles

Species of the genera Mylabris, Cyaneolytta, Cylindrothorax (Plate 25), and Psalydolytta feed on millet blossoms in India and Africa. Commonest among them is Mylabris pustulata (Ramamurthy et al. 1970)(Plate 26) in India. The adults are conspicuously bright metallic blue, green, black and red-yellow or brown. The insect numbers are higher in the later half of the monsoon season. The detailed biology of these insects has not yet been worked out. The adults feed on inflorescences and results in poor seed set. The damaged florets become light brown in color. When disturbed, the beetles produce an irritant fluid called cantharidine. Eggs are laid in large numbers in the soil. The triungulin larvae feed on eggs of other insects and undergo hypermetamorphosis. The adults are general feeders on flowers of many plant species.

2.2.4.3. Chafer Beetles

Chafer beetle, Chiloloba acuta is primarily a pest of cotton, but has become a potential pest of pearl millet in Uttar Pradesh. It feeds on the inflorescences. The insect is elongate, green and with yellow hairs (Srivastava et al. 1971a)(Plate 27). Oxycetonia versicolor (Plate 28) is another important pest feeding on pearl millet inflorescences (Verma 1980). The adults feed on the pollen and stigma and result in poor seed set. Adults of the genera Pachnoda, Anomala,

and Rhinyptia also feed on the developing grain in large numbers (Verma 1980; Gahukar 1984; Ndoye et al. 1986). Pachnoda fairmairei feeds on developing grain (Plate 29). Pronotum in yellow in color except for two large oblong black areas and two small dark submarginal spots. Elytra are yellow with a number of dark spots. P. interrupta is blackish in color. Pronotum and elytra bear yellow-brown or reddish brown margins and a number of spots and strips of same color. Adults feed on ripening grain. Rhinyptia reflexa has been reported to feed in large numbers on inflorescence and ripening grain in West Africa.

2.2.4.4. Dusky Cotton Bug

Dusky cotton bug, Oxycarenus leatus is a potential pest of pearl millet in India. The adults are dusky colored and the nymphs reddish brown. Both the adults and nymphs suck sap from the grains. The egg incubation period lasts for 6-10 days and nymphal development is completed in 15-20 days (Nair 1975). Spilostethus, (Plate 30) and Aphanus also become serious on developing grain.

2.2.4.5. Earhead Bugs

Earhead bug, Calocoris angustatus is primarily a serious pest of sorghum, but it also feeds on millets in India (Plate 31). Both the adults and the nymphs imbibe the sap from tender portions of the plant as well as from un-ripened earheads when the grains are in the milky stage. During heavy infestations, a large number of bugs cluster around the earheads and the affected earheads become chaffy and do not contain normal healthy grains. In about 14 days, a female deposits 150-200 eggs under the glumes or in young florets. The eggs are pale green in colour, cigar shaped and hatch in 5-7 days. Nymphal development is completed in 15-17 days. There are usually two generations during the crop season (Ballard 1916). Other mirid bugs reported to be feeding on pearl millet panicle are Creontiades pallidus, Eurystylus bellevoeyi and Campylomma sp. (Sharma and Davies 1982).

2.2.4.6. Stink Bugs

Stink bug, Bagrada cruciferarum is a major pest of cruciferous plants, but recently, serious infestations have also been reported on pearl millet (Sandhu et al. 1974b; Tayade et al. 1976). It is widely distributed in Asia and Africa. The adults and nymphs suck sap from the leaves and developing grains. The adults are black in colour and painted beautifully with yellow red spots on the back. The eggs are laid in clusters on the soil, on leaves or earhead. A female lays 15-20 eggs/day and about 250 eggs during its life. The eggs hatch in 5-7 days. Young nymphs are bright orange in colour. (Plate 32) There are five nymphal instars, and development is completed in three weeks, the entire life cycle taking 4-5 weeks. There are about 9 generations per year (Atwal 1976).

Green stink bug, Nezara viridula (Plates 33) feeds on the leaves and the developing grains (Reddy and Davies, 1979). It is green colored. The anterior part of head and pronotum is yellowish white.

It is widely distributed in tropical and sub-tropical regions. It is polyphagous. Nymphs and adults suck sap from the developing grain or other tender parts of the plant. A female lays 100-200 eggs in groups on leaves or the panicle. Eggs hatch in 4-5 days and nymphs become adults in 4-5 weeks. There are several generations in a year. Adults spend the dry season in protected places.

Shield bug, Agonoscelis pubescens (Plate 34) is yellowish brown with numerous dark spots. It is widely distributed in Africa. It feeds on developing grain which become shrivelled or atrophied. Nearly 20 bugs can destroy the entire panicle. During dry season, the adults shelter in clusters on stems and branches of trees and bushes. Eggs are laid in clusters on leaves or inflorescences. Eggs hatch in 3-4 days and nymphs complete development in 3-4 weeks. At the end of season, the bugs move in search of shelter in trees, bushes, and weeds (Schmutterer 1969).

2.2.4.7. Gundhi Bug

Gundhi bug, Leptocorisa acuta occasionally feeds on pearl millet, but it is best known as a major pest of rice and has wide distribution in Asia and Australia. Infested grains become yellowish brown and ultimately dry up. The presence of a foul smell in the field indicates the presence of this insect. The insect lays about 100 dark red eggs near the midribs of the leaves. The nymphs are yellow green whilst the adults are brown dorsally and green ventrally and have slender legs. Egg and nymphal development is completed in 5-8 and 15-20 days respectively. The insect hibernates in the adult stage (Jotwani and Butani 1978).

2.2.4.8. Spotted Stainer Bug

The spotted stainer bug, Dysdercus supersticiosus (Plate 35) occasionally becomes serious on pearl millet panicles in Africa. Color of nymph changes from yellow to orange and red as it grows. It has a wide host range. Adults and nymphs feed on developing grain. Grains show distinct feeding punctures and remain shrivelled. It migrates between different host plants. Eggs are laid in batches in the soil mainly near the stems. A female lays 300-400 eggs. Eggs hatch in 4-14 days. Nymphal development is completed in about 25 days. Two or more generations may develop on one crop in a season (Schmutterer 1969).

2.2.4.9. Earhead Worm

Earhead Worm, Eublema (Autoba) silicula has been observed to be a serious pest on some pearl millet varieties in India (Jotwani et al. 1966)(Plate 36). The caterpillars feed on the maturing grains, remaining hidden under a small dome-shaped or elongated gallery formed from silk and anthers (Nair 1975). The greenish white eggs are elongate and oval. The caterpillars are hairy and brownish yellow in color. The forewings of the adult moths are reddish-buff colored with 3 dark spots on the anterior margin. The egg, larval and pupal periods last for 4, 12-13, and 12 days respectively (Taley et al. 1974). Adult longevity is 4-5 days for males and 14-15 days for

females. E. gayneri and Pyroderces simplex also become serious pests on pearl millet panicle in India and West Africa (Ndoye et al. 1986).

2.2.4.10. Earhead Caterpillars

Gram pod borer, Heliothis armigera is a well known, very serious and polyphagous pest of a number of crops. Its biology and seasonal activity has been studied in detail on pulses, tomato and other crops. This pest is widely distributed in old world and Australia. Recently, its high incidence has been reported on pearl millet (Vishakantaiah 1972). High damage has also been recorded at the ICRISAT farm during the rainy season (Sharma and Davies 1982). The eggs are laid singly all over the head. A female lays 200-300 eggs, which are creamy white in colour and hatch in 4-6 days. There is a large amount of color polymorphism among the larvae. The larvae feed on developing grains (Plates 37 and 38), and complete development within four weeks. The larvae pupate in the soil and the adults emerge after 2-4 weeks.

The earhead webworm, Cryptoblabes gnidiella, has also been reported as a serious pest of hybrids and high yielding varieties of millets. The eggs are creamy white, ovoid, flat, and laid on the spikelets and tender grains. Caterpillars are dark brown in color. The adults have dark grey forewings and the hindwings are fringed with hairs on the anterior margin, and are bigger than the forewings (Jotwani and Butani 1978). Egg and larval periods last for 3-4 and 9-10 days respectively. Longevity of males is 3 days and that of the females 5-6 days. The entire life cycle lasts for 22-24 days (Taley et al. 1974; Srivastava and Singh 1973).

C. angustipennella is a serious pest of finger millet in South India. The eggs are laid on newly opened flowers or other parts of the inflorescence. A female lays about 14 eggs in 3 days. Egg, larval and pupal periods last for 3, 19-22, and 7-20 days respectively. The life cycle is completed in 31-43 days (Nair 1975).

The pearl millet head caterpillars, Masalia spp and Raghuva spp are the most important panicle feeding insect pests in Africa. In addition, other insects such as Eublemma gayneri, Heliothis armigera, and Pyroderces sp. have also been recorded (Anon. 1982; Schmutterer 1969). They cause 25-50 percent loss of grain every year (Vercambre 1978). However, the relative importance of Raghuva and Masalia is not very clear from the available literature. According to Ndoye (1979), R. albipunctella is the most destructive species on pearl millet (Plate 39). He states that no species of Masalia found in Senegal have been recorded as a pest of cultivated plants. However, references to the genus Masalia have been made since 1973, when the borer became a problem after a period of drought. Vercambre (1976, 1977 and 1978) has referred to these head borers of pearl millet as Raghuva spp and Masalia spp.

The first adults of Raghuva sp appear a month after the first rains, and emergence continues over 5 weeks. The eggs are usually located on the involucral bristles of the millet flower. Sometimes, the eggs are also laid directly on the rachis. The young caterpillars perforate the glumes of flowers and feed in the interior portion. Presence of the insect at an early stage can be detected by the excreta seen around the damaged flowers. In the later instars, the caterpillars cut the floral peduncle with their mandibles, preventing grain formation. They shelter between the rachis and flowers, and the head is damaged in a spiral manner (Vercambre 1976). The caterpillar is quite squat, yellow to dark green in color with two light bands on each side extending from the head to the last segment. Before pupation, the larva becomes light red in color. In the case of Masalia sp, the egg and larval periods last for 4 and 28 days respectively under natural conditions (Vercambre 1976; 1978). The pupal period varies greatly depending upon whether the insect enters diapause or not. Adults emerge in 12-24 days from the non-diapausing pupae, whilst the diapausing ones may take nearly 11-12 months (Vercambre 1978). There is one generation per year. The insect pupates in the soil during the dry season. Females start ovipositing on the flowers one month after the first rains (Vercambre 1977) and each female is capable of laying 400 eggs. The moth is greenish in color with five white longitudinal stripes.

2.2.4.11. Blossom Thrips

Blossom thrip, Thrips florum is the most common species infesting the inflorescences of pearl millet. The insect has an extensive host range. Other species infesting pearl millet are Haplothrips ganglbaueri and H. gowdeyi (Black thrips). High densities of thrips have been observed at ICRISAT Center, causing a large number of florets to remain undeveloped and giving rise to erratic seed set in some genotypes (Plate 40). Genotypes with compact heads suffer less damage (Sharma and Davies 1982).

2.3. CONTROL MEASURES

Little effort has been made in the past to develop proper management practices for insect pests of millets, and much remains to be done. The relative pest free status of millets in India should not lead to complacency over the possibility of future pest problems. With the introduction of high yielding cultivars and improved crop husbandry practices, the role of insects in millet production may change dramatically. It is therefore, essential to clearly examine present knowledge of existing and potential pests and begin thinking in terms of developing economic and realistic pest management strategies.

Currently, the control of millet insect pests involves the occasional use of insecticides and some cultural operations to reduce insect damage. Very little attention has been paid to the possibility of host-plant resistance and other methods of insect control. Unfortunately, millet growing farmers cannot afford recommended insecticides for insect control and that their use is uneconomical under existing levels of production. However, under experimental

conditions, or under very high levels of infestation on farmers' fields, the chemical control may become necessary to avoid serious crop losses. The SAT farmers' capacity to sustain crop loss is very low and they cannot afford to lose even a small portion of their produce. The socio-economic realities must be borne in mind when developing insect pest control strategies for millets in the SAT, and special attention must be given to low cost control measures. This can be achieved by the integration of cultural and natural control, and host plant resistance, with lower emphasis on chemical control, which the farmers can least afford.

The effectiveness of integrated control lies in its widespread application over large areas, and therefore, cooperation among the farmers in a village or a geographical unit is most important. However this, at times is difficult to achieve. Timely sowing of crops, deep ploughing of fields after harvest, crop rotation, and crop combinations unfavourable to certain insect pests, and planting of pest resistant cultivars can go a long way in reducing insect damage. However, during heavy outbreaks, these control measures may not be effective in controlling insect pests. Under high population pressure, even resistant genotypes may suffer heavy damage. Continuous and widespread planting of a single resistant genotype may also lead to the evolution of an insect biotype capable of feeding and multiplying on it. Efforts to breed resistant varieties must therefore place adequate emphasis on studying the mechanisms of resistance and breeding for multigene horizontal resistance. Insecticides may be used as a last resort to control pest outbreaks. A rational combination of cultural methods, natural enemies, and resistant genotypes (which are compatible with each other) to a large extent can maintain pest populations below economic thresholds.

2.3.1. CULTURAL CONTROL

Cultural methods of pest control involving crop husbandry practices such as crop rotation, intercropping, sanitation and crop refuse destruction, planting and harvesting dates, trap crop planting, soil tillage, fertilizer use, water management, thinning, and planting geometry are the most important and effective pest control components in integrated pest management. Any modifications in the prevailing crop production practices to create plant and environmental changes inhospitable to the insects is an important component of pest control. Cultural practices are one of the oldest pest control practices, and are relevant to the subsistence farming systems of the SAT. The most important advantages of these practices is their low cost and there are no adverse effects on the environment.

However, despite their relevance and importance to the SAT, very little has been done to make them appreciable for pest control in pearl millet. This aspect of pest control should receive more attention than some of the more sophisticated high cost pest control technology such as pheromones, hormones, chemosterilants, and the newer synthetic insecticides.

The following crop husbandry practices have been found to be useful in reducing insect numbers and hence insect damage in pearl millet.

2.3.1.1. Intercropping

Intercropping pearl millet with pigeonpea or sunflower has been shown to reduce the white grub damage (AICMIP 1975-76). Intercropping pearl millet with sorghum reduces the damage by B. fusca in sorghum. However, intercropping pearl millet with sorghum or maize does not reduce the damage by A. ignefusalis in pearl millet (Adesiyun 1985).

2.3.1.2. Crop Rotation and Sanitation

Field sanitation, and uprooting and burning of stubbles helps to reduce the carryover of stem borers. Stalks kept as animal fodder should be fed before the onset of monsoon rains (Jotwani and Butani 1978). Partial burning of pearl millet stalks immediately after harvesting destroys 61-84% of larvae and 98-100% pupae of A. ignefusalis (Ndoye et al. 1986). Piling and burning of the trash at dusk in the fields attracts and kills white grub adults leading to reduction in oviposition (Yadava et al. 1973). Making fire around pearl millet fields to attract and destroy blister beetles is a common practice in the Sahel (Ndoye et al. 1986).

2.3.1.3. Tillage

Field tillage before planting and after the crop harvest helps to expose the hibernating/aestivating/hiding larvae and pupae of many insect species. Deep ploughing is particularly helpful in reducing the populations of grasshoppers, and hairy caterpillars (Jotwani and Butani 1978), and millet head caterpillars, Raghuva spp (Vercambre 1978).

2.3.1.4. Planting Date

Early and timely planted crops escape the damage by many insect pests. The early planted crop is less damaged by the millet shoot fly (Sharma and Davies 1982). Planting of photosensitive cultivars or delayed planting of short duration varieties has been reported to reduce the damage by head caterpillars (Vercambre 1978; Ndoye et al. 1986).

2.3.1.5. Mechanical Collection and Destruction

Egg masses of hairy caterpillars and other lepidopteran pests can be hand collected and destroyed. Aphid infestations can also be reduced by uprooting and destruction of the infested plants. Blister beetles can be collected by hand and destroyed (Jotwani and Butani 1978). Head bugs and other external feeders on the earhead can be dislodged into a bucket containing water to which kerosene has been added (Nair 1975).

2.3.1.6. Weed Control

Proper and timely weeding of the crop reduces the damage by Mythimna

separata (Sharma and Davies 1982) and Spodoptera spp (Ndoye et al. 1986). A clean crop is often less hospitable to insects as the weeds can provide hiding and oviposition sites for some insects. However, in certain situations, plowed fields have been reported to suffer higher damage than the no-tillage systems (Shenk and Saunders 1981). Weeds (Digitaria sp and E. indica) tend to harbour larvae of S. frugiperda and increase crop damage (Huis 1981).

2.3.1.7. Fertilization

Nitrogen fertilization improves plant vigour and reduces damage by the head caterpillars (Gahukar 1985). However, in some cases (e.g. stem borer damage) the fertilizer application may increase insect damage.

2.3.2. NATURAL CONTROL

Natural control as defined by Huffaker et al. (1971) is the maintenance of population numbers within certain upper and lower limits by the action of the whole environment, including an element which is dependent on pest density. It is the combined action of both the biotic and abiotic environment that maintains the population of many species at a characteristic, yet fluctuating level. Abiotic factors act independently of density whereas most biotic factors are density dependent.

Present knowledge and the scope for biological control of millet insects has been reviewed in this section. The term 'Biological Control' is used in the context of the conservation and enhancement of existing parasitoids and predators already available by manipulation of their environment in a favourable way. At the moment, the applied or the classical biological control through importation, colonization, mass culture, and release of exotic natural enemies is not relevant because of the nature of the crop environment, crop duration, and the existing knowledge of the host parasite interactions.

Knowledge of the biological control agents of millet insects is very limited and scanty and this is probably due to the lack of efforts made in the past, the localized nature of pest problems, and the subsistence nature of millet farming. However, a number of parasites and predators have been recorded from millet pests, which are also pests of other cereals. A list of the parasites/predators recorded only from the millets has been made, since the natural enemy complex varies in different crops and crop combinations (Bhatnagar and Davies 1979b; Ashley et al. 1980; Sharma et al. 1982). The available information on the beneficial organisms on millets is summarized in Table 4. The reports from Harris (1962), Nair (1975), and Reddy and Davies (1979) also include the collections made from other cereals.

2.3.3. HOST-PLANT RESISTANCE

Plants that are inherently less damaged or less infested by phytophagous insects under comparable environments in the field are

termed resistant (Painter 1951). Resistance as expressed in the field is usually complicated involving in most instances, all the three components of resistance viz. antixenosis (non-preference), antibiosis, and tolerance. In addition, there are many interactions between the plants, the insects, and the environment. The insect is dependent upon the plant for much more than the basic nutritional requirements. To be acceptable as a host, the plant must provide the necessary visual, chemical, and physical stimuli, and a favourable micro-environment for development and reproduction in addition to the basic nutritional requirements. It is in this context that we shall look at millets as host plants to the insects feeding upon them.

2.3.3.1. Interspecific Resistance/Preference

Pearl millet is grown as a short duration crop in most of the semi arid regions, although long duration photosensitive cultivars are also grown on a large scale in many of the drier regions of West Africa. Thus, the susceptibility periods of different developmental stages of the plant are relatively shorter than those of the most other cereals. The millets characteristically have the C₄-dicarboxylic acid pathway of carbon fixation, which as a general rule, makes the crop a poorer food source for insects and other herbivores, as compared to the C₃-Calvin cycle pathway. The C₄ species have two to three times higher rate of photosynthesis, particularly at high temperatures (30-40 deg C) and high light intensities (3000-5000 Candles), and require half as much water as C₃ species to produce one unit of dry matter (Price 1975). There is a general tendency for insects to avoid C₄ species as they are a poorer food source for survival and reproduction (Casewell et al. 1973). In C₄ species, the starch is stored around the vascular bundles, the veins are overlaid with silica, the nitrogen content is lower, and lignin content is higher. It is for these reasons that millets do not have serious pest problems, although nearly 500 pests have been reported to feed on them, only a few species (<25) are known to have attained the status of a pest. Moreover, a large part of the acreage under millets is still covered by local landraces, which might have become less susceptible due to natural selection over a long time.

Kroh and Beaver (1978) observed 13 insect species feeding on monocultures of Amaranthus retroflexus, Chenopodium album, Panicum milliare, and Setaria viridis. Their observations indicated that insects (especially Hemiptera) tended to avoid plant species with the C₄ photosynthetic carbon-fixation pathway. Among the different millet species, Brachiaria decumbens was found to be less susceptible to insect pests than Digitaria decumbens (Loch 1978). Echinochloa crusgalli var. oryzicola is resistant to Nilaparvata lugens because of the presence of trans aconitic acid (Koh et al. 1977).

Different species of shoot flies show marked preference towards different millets (Jotwani 1977). Pearl millet exhibits antixenotic resistance towards shoot fly (Atherigona sp) (Jotwani et al. 1969c). The sorghum shoot fly, Atherigona soccata shows preference to Sorghum vulgare compared with Digitaria scolorum, Setaria verticillata, and

Panicum maximum (Ogwaro 1978). Pearl millet is less favourable for the development of Chilo partellus whereas sorghum and maize are suitable (Pant et al. 1961; Kalode and Pant 1967; Ahmed and Young 1969; Singh and Tiwari 1979). Under field conditions, Ahmed and Young (1969) and Fletcher and Ghosh (1920) have shown that pearl millet is resistant to larvae of C. partellus during the early growth stages, but in the later stages, it is as vulnerable to internodal tunnelling and injury as sorghum. Some antibiotic factors in the leaves of pearl millet are suspected of being responsible for larval mortality in the early growth stages (Ahmed and Young 1969). In monocultures of sorghum, maize, and pearl millet, the African sorghum stem borer, B. fusca laid maximum eggs on sorghum, followed by maize, and pearl millet. The inability of B. fusca to lay eggs on pearl millet reduced the stem borer damage in sorghum when intercropped with sorghum. However, intercropping pearl millet with sorghum or maize did not reduce the damage by millet stem borer, A. ignefusalis (Adesiyun 1983).

The desert locust, S. gregaria is one of the insect species reported to show preference for pearl millet (Rao 1938; Bhatia 1940); on which the hoppers develop rapidly. Jackson et al. (1978) reported that pearl millet and some weed species (Dipterygium glaucum, Tribulue longipetalus, and Chrozophora oblongifolia) supported rapid hopper growth. Pearl millet and sorghum tended to enhance the gregarious habits while D. glaucum accentuated solitary ones. In the gregarious phase, adults exhibit a preference for seeds (Haroon Khan 1945). The painted bug, (B. cruciferarum), primarily a pest of cruciferous and leguminous crops, has been reported to exhibit a preference for pearl millet (Gupta and Gupta 1970; Sandhu 1975; Sandhu et al. 1974b).

Pearl millet also shows antixenosis towards C. trachypterus (Gupta 1972). Boys (1978) studied the food selection behaviour of O. senegalensis in grassland and millet fields and found that the grasshoppers were feeding opportunistically on pearl millet. Conditioning was apparently important to the acceptability of various grass species. In the millet fields, the majority (80.9%) of grasshoppers fed only on millet. The adults were graminivorous and generally monospecific feeders. At first, most damage occurred on leaves and later, both leaves and heads were damaged. From field and laboratory observations, it was concluded that pre-milky and post-milky heads were rejected after palpation and only the milky heads and leaves were eaten. The males preferred leaves to seeds and females showed preference for milky seeds, this difference is probably due to the higher protein requirement of females for producing eggs. H. banian shows preference for sorghum followed by pearl millet. D. sanguinalis is less preferred (Vyas et al. 1983).

In oviposition and feeding tests, Murdoch and Tashiro (1976) found that H. licarisalis did not show oviposition preference when a number of grass species were offered to it. However, lower numbers of moths emerged on P. clandestinum (Kikuyu grass).

Hackerott and Harvey (1970) studied the resistance of different millet species (P. americanum, S. italica, and P. miliaceum) to green bug, S. graminum. Millets were less suitable for survival and development than sorghum, and pearl millet seedlings were more resistant than mature plants. Among all the millets, P. americanum supported most green bugs and P. miliaceum the least, however, Pearl millet is more resistant than sorghum (Stegmeier and Harvey 1976). Under laboratory conditions, S. glauca and E. indica were found to be tolerant to chinch bug, B. leucopterus leucopterus and S. faberii was highly susceptible (Ahmad et al. 1984).

Pearl millet has been shown to exhibit antixenotic resistance to red hairy caterpillar, A. moorei (Pandey et al. 1970). A resistant genotype of pearl millet (No.240) has been found to reduce adult emergence and the size of adults of S. frugiperda (Leuck 1970). The effects of resistant pearl millet inbreds on the development of S. frugiperda larvae could probably present factors important to its natural control. The 'tr' gene (trichomelessness) significantly reduced foliar feeding by first and second instar larvae of S. frugiperda (Burton et al. 1977). Burton et al. (1977) also observed that fewer eggs were laid by Heliothis zea on trichomeless (near isogenic) lines than on trichomed ones.

2.3.3.2. Induced Resistance

The nature of soil fertility may affect the suitability of the host plant to insect development. Leuck (1972) found that when fall armyworm larvae were given a choice, the NP and NPK treated plants were preferred to those treated with N, K, NK, PK, and P. Weight gains were lower of larvae reared on N, P, K, NK, and PK fertilized plants; but larvae reared on N and NK treated plants died before pupation. On the N treated plants, the larvae died after 23 days. Rapid development was observed on NPK, NP, and unfertilized plants. Adult emergence was significantly less on P,K, and PK treated foliage. The increased duration of post-embryonic development resulting from some fertilizer treatments has been suggested as a means of reducing the number of generations and increasing the chances of parasitism.

2.3.3.3. Intraspecific Resistance in Pearl Millet

Screening for resistance against the insect pests feeding on pearl millet has not been taken up on a large scale, although some work has been reported by Pradhan (1971), Jotwani (1978), Breniere (1980), and Sharma and Davies (1982), Sharma (1986), and Ndoye et al. (1986). Screening work has also been carried out under the All India Coordinated Millet Improvement Project, and some of the lines identified as resistant/promising/less susceptible are listed in Table 5.

2.3.4. CHEMICAL CONTROL

Insecticides are one of the most powerful tools available in pest management. When intelligently used, they are highly effective, rapid in action, adaptable to most agricultural situations and are flexible

in meeting changing agronomic, ecological, and economic requirements. For some pest problems, the use of insecticides is the only acceptable solution. However, the use of insecticides can lead to adverse effects, such as insect resistance to insecticides, pest resurgence due to destruction of natural enemies, toxicity to non-target organisms, insecticide residues, and direct hazards to the user.

Very little emphasis has been placed on developing insecticide spray schedules to control millet pests. The main reason for this is that pest problems are less severe, cost/benefit ratios are low, and socio-economic conditions associated with the subsistence nature of millet production. Most of the work on chemical control has been confined to comparing the relative toxicities of insecticides to certain pests. Some of these data are summarized in the following pages.

2.3.4.1. Soil Insects

White grubs (Holotrichia spp) and false wireworms (Gonocephalum spp and Arthrodus sp) are the most important soil insects damaging millets. White grubs are the most injurious and difficult to control, although farm yard manure (FYM) mixed with BHC (10%) dust @100 kgha has been found to give effective control (AICMIP 1975). The FYM acts as an attractant to the larvae while BHC controls them. Phorate granules (@ 7.5 kg a/ha) or BHC (10%) dust has also been recommended for white grub control by various workers (Kalra and Kulshreshtha 1961; Desai and Patel 1965; Patel and Patel 1953; Patel et al. 1967; Joshi et al. 1969; Rai et al., 1969; Yadva and Yadva 1973). Of these, phorate is a costly and highly toxic insecticide while higher doses of BHC may prove to be phytotoxic, especially to the germinating seedlings. Rangarajan (1966) did not observe any differences in the efficacy of BHC, DDT, chlordane, lindane, dieldrin, parathion, heptachlor, and aldrin in a trial conducted on finger millet. Some studies have also been conducted against the adults. Spraying the bush or tree hosts of the adults with fenitrothion, carbaryl, BHC and endosulfan has been suggested by some workers (Bindra and Singh 1971; Jotwani and Butani 1978). Sevidol (R) (Carbaryl:BHC:4:4) applied @ 20 kgha has been reported to be effective against H. reynaudi (Sachan and Pal 1976). Soil drenching or spreading aldrin soaked FYM has been found to suppress the damage by false wireworms, Gonocephalum spp at ICRISAT Center (Sharma and Davies 1982). Dieldrin (1.5%) or BHC (10%) dust have been reported to give effective control of Arthrodus sp (Rangarajan 1965). S. minor, which is a serious pest on pearl millet roots, can be suppressed with aldrin, chlordane, heptachlor or BHC (Nair 1975; Jotwani and Butani 1978).

2.3.4.2. Seedling Pests

Shoot flies and stem borers are the most important seedling pests. Seed treatment with carbofuran helps to reduce shoot fly damage (Anon. 1973 ab). However, seed treatment is effective only for two weeks. Soil application of phorate, disulfoton, aldicarb, and arprocarb @ 3 kg a/ha have been found to give effective control (Singh and Jotwani 1973). Phorate may, however, affect seed germination (AICMIP 1974).

Talati and Upadhaya (1978) have recommended sprays of endosulfan (0.05%) and demeton-methyl (0.025%). Carbofuran (@ 1 kg ai/ha) or quinalphos (@ 2 kg ai/ha) give effective and economic control of shoot fly damage in Kodo millet (Raghuwanshi and Rawat 1985). On P. miliaceum, sprays of demeton-S-methyl (0.03%) and endosulfan (0.03%) were found to be effective for shoot fly control (Singh et al. 1983).

The use of insecticides has not been very successful against stem borers. However, repeated applications of endrin, carbaryl, BHC, and parathion have been shown to reduce the incidence of C. partellus and S. inferens (Nair 1975). Endrin has also been reported to give effective control of A. ignefusalis, B. fusca, and E. saccharina in Africa. To be effective, the insecticidal application should, however, coincide with the hatching of first instar larvae or before they enter the stem (Harris 1962).

2.3.4.3. Leaf Defoliators

Grashoppers and locusts quite often defoliate the crop severely. Dusting with BHC (10%) gave fairly good control of the grasshoppers C. sphenarioides, H. nigrorepletus, and O. simulans (Jotwani and Butani 1978). In laboratory tests, Verma et al. (1968) found dieldrin, aldrin, lindane, trichlorfon, malathion, parathion, telodrin, DDVP, and formothion to be more toxic than BHC to the adults of C. trachypterus.

Leaf feeding caterpillars form another important group of defoliators. A large number of insecticides have been tested against the oriental armyworm, M. separata (Sharma and Davies 1983). DDT, BHC, aldrin, phosphamidon, chlorpyrifos, malathion, parathion, trichlorfon, endosulfan, quinalphos, dichlorvos, and carbaryl have been reported to give effective control (Butani 1955; Hamblyn 1959; Purohit et al. 1971; Kalode et al. 1972; Gargav and Katiyar 1972; Singh and Mavi 1972; Hitchcock 1974; Patel et al. 1979; Singh et al. 1980). For red hairy caterpillars (A. albistriga and A. moorei), sprays of isobenzan (0.05%) have been suggested (Patel et al. 1966). Insecticide applications are most effective against the early instar larvae. The black hairy caterpillar (E. lactinea) can be controlled by dusting BHC (Jotwani and Butani 1978). Methyl-parathion and hinosan have been reported to be effective against the larvae of the noctuid caterpillar P. signata (Rangarajan et al. 1974).

The grey weevil (Myloccerus sp) is another important leaf feeder. Shinde et al. (1970) reported that mevinphos, dicrotophos, and fenitrothion were more effective against it than DDT. In laboratory tests, Verma et al. (1969) found ethyl-parathion, malathion, endrin, mevinphos, telodrin, and formothion to be more toxic than DDT.

2.3.4.4. Sucking Insects

A number of sucking pests feed on millets. The rusty plum aphid (H. setariae) feeding on finger millet can be controlled with endosulfan

(Saroja et al. 1972) or (2-chloro-ethyl) trimethyl ammonium chloride (Dasan and Kolandaswamy 1974). The maize aphid (R. maidis) can be controlled with phosphamidan, dimethoate, diazinon or demeton-methyl (Jotwani and Butani 1978). The greenbug, S. graminum was reported to be controlled by parathion (Dahms 1951) or disulfoton (Daniels 1961). Wood (1971) also found that most of the organophosphates gave good control of aphids; whereas Peters et al. (1975) reported that the greenbug could not be controlled even with very high doses of some organophosphates, indicating the development of resistance. Carbofuran has been found to reduce the populations of the jassid, C. bipunctella bipunctella, and this treatment also led to early flowering and increased plant height (AICMIP 1972). Jotwani and Bhutani (1978) recommended carbaryl, dimethoate or BHC for the control of shootbug, P. maidis, and malathion and fenitrothion for the sugarcane leaf hopper, P. perpusilla. Fenitrothion and monocrotophos have been found to be effective and persistent against the milkweed bug, S. pandurus (Sandhu et al. 1974a). The stink bugs (N. viridula, D. indicus and B. cruciferarum) can be controlled with malathion, dichlorvos or lindane. Sandhu et al. (1974b) have reported a number of insecticides to be effective against B. cruciferarum. The thrips, A. sudanensis and H. traegardhi can be controlled with dimethoate, demeton-methyl or phosphamidan. Sulphur dusting is effective against the spider mite, O. indicus (Nair 1975).

2.3.4.5. Earhead Pests

Vercambre (1977 and 1978) suggested 1 - 2 applications of endosulfan for the control of earhead borers, Masalia spp and Raghuva spp. The first treatment should be given at the head elongation stage and the second 5-7 days later. Other insecticides such as chlordimeform, dimethoate + deltamethrin, trichlorfon, and diflubenzuron (dimilin) have also been reported to be effective for the control of head caterpillars in Africa (Ndoye et al. 1986). The earhead worms, C. gnidiella and E. silicula can be controlled by applying monocrotophos or endosulfan (Srivastava and Singh 1973).

Severe infestations of blister beetles (M. pustulata, C. ruficollis, and P. rouxi) can be controlled with spraying carbaryl and endosulfan. Yadava et al. (1973) reported that dusting with BHC gave effective control of the chafer beetle, R. laeviceps. Dust formulations of parathion, fenitrothion, lindane, carbaryl, and BHC gave over 90% kill of the beetles (Mishra et al. 1979). Fentin has also been found to afford protection against Rhinyptia spp (Verma 1979). Carbaryl and BHC sprays or dusts give effective control of the head bug species, C. angustatus and L. acuta (Nayar et al. 1976; David and Kumraswamy 1975). Blossom thrips (T. florum, H. ganglbaueri, and H. gowdeyi) can be controlled by spraying flowering heads with lindane, malathion or carbaryl (Jotwani and Butani 1978). Anathakrishnan (1971) has suggested the use of dimethoate, phosphomidan, thiometon, and endosulfan for the control of thrips. Santharam et al. (1976) recommended methyl-parathion + DDT for the control of pearl millet midge, G. penniseti. Phosalone has also been reported to be effective for the control of pearl millet midge (Ndoye et al. 1986).

3. STORED GRAIN PESTS

Many insect and mite species attack the stored grain. The damage leads to both quantitative and qualitative losses. The grain stores provide an un-disturbed shelter, favorable environment and abundant food supply. All pests of stored grains have a remarkably high rate of multiplication, destroy large quantities of grain in a short span of time, and contaminate the rest with excreta and undesirable odours (Atwal 1976). Fourteen species have been reported to damage millets in different parts of the world (Table 6). However, it is most likely that the insects damaging other cereals and their products are also injurious to millets. Various aspects of the pest problems in storage have been discussed by Mehta and Verma (1968), Pradhan (1969), Pringle (1964, 1976), Rachie and Majmudar (1980), and Freeman (1980).

3.1. ECONOMIC IMPORTANCE

Storage losses can be exceptionally high, and have been estimated to vary from 10 to 60% (Rachie and Majmudar 1980).

3.2. BIOLOGY AND BEHAVIOUR

3.2.1. Lesser Grain Borer (Rhizopertha dominica)

Lesser grain borer, Rhizopertha dominica adults have a polished dark brown appearance, with the head turned down below the thorax. Adults and larvae destroy large amounts of grain producing considerable frass and flour. Their damage leads to the development of heat pockets in the granary (Pringle 1976). Each female lays upto 250 eggs. Early stage larvae (upto 3rd instar) are free living outside the grain. Thereafter, they enter the grain where they complete their development. The life cycle is completed in about 25 days. This species can tolerate a lower moisture content of more than 7 percent.

3.2.2. Khapra Beetle (Trogoderma granarium)

The khapra beetle, Trogoderma granarium is brownish black and oval in shape. The larvae are covered with long brown hairs, and have yellow intersegmental rings. The grubs feed on the grain. This insect can damage grain dried to a moisture content of 2%. The grubs can live without food for years, and can resist adverse environmental conditions. A female lays upto 120 eggs in 10-15 days, and the life cycle is completed in about 4 weeks under favourable conditions (Pradhan 1969).

3.2.3. Rusty Flour Beetle (Cryptolestes ferrugineus)

The rusty flour beetle, Cryptolestes ferrugineus is a cosmopolitan insect and is tolerant to a wide range of temperatures and humidities. Larvae feed inside the grains. Infestation is favoured by high humidity. A female can lay upto 200 eggs, and lives for 6-9 months. There are four larval instars. Life cycle is completed in about three weeks (Pringle 1976).

3.2.4. Rice Weevil (Sitophilus oryzae)

The rice weevil, Sitophilus oryzae is the most destructive pest of stored grain in the world. Both the adults and the grubs damage the grain. The adult is an elongate, reddish brown beetle, about 3 mm in length, and lives for 4-5 months. The eggs are laid on the grain in a cavity made by the female with the help of powerful jaws. A female lays 300-400 eggs. The grubs bore into the grain and complete their life cycle inside the grain in about 3-4 weeks. Winter may be passed in either the adult or larval stage. It cannot breed in grain with a moisture content less than 9.5% (Pradhan 1969).

3.2.5. Maize Weevil (Sitophilus zeamais)

The maize weevil, Sitophilus zeamais adults are slightly larger than the rice weevil. Females can fly readily and are known to attack standing crops, particularly maize cobs, already damaged by other insects and birds. Its biology is similar to S. oryzae.

3.2.6. Merchant Beetle (Oryzaephilus mercator)

The merchant beetle, Oryzaephilus mercator is common in tropical climates. It is less tolerant to lower temperatures and humidity.

3.2.7. Saw-toothed Grain Beetle (Oryzaephilus surinamensis)

The saw toothed grain beetle, Oryzaephilus surinamensis is a small brown beetle, with serrated lateral edges to the thorax. A female may lay upto 375 eggs. The life cycle is completed in about 3 weeks. At lower temperatures, the adults can survive for more than a year.

3.2.8. Rust-red Flour Beetle (Tribolium castaneum)

The rust-red flour beetle, Tribolium castaneum is a small reddish brown beetle which generally prefers to feed on damaged grain. Both the adults and the grubs damage the cracked grain. A female lays upto 10 eggs/day and oviposition continues for several months. A female may lay upto 1000 eggs. Under favourable conditions, the life cycle is completed in 3-4 weeks (Pringle 1976).

3.2.9. Confused Flour Beetle (Tribolium confusum)

The confused flour beetle, Tribolium confusum is common in temperate climates. Cannibalism is common under crowded conditions. Under favorable conditions, this pest competes successfully with other primary pests (Pringle, 1976).

3.2.10. Angomois Grain Moth (Sitotroga cereallela)

The Angomois grain moth, Sitotroga cereallela is cosmopolitan, and the damage is confined to the upper layers of the grain. The damaged grain gives an unpleasant smell. The adult is a small yellowish brown moth with prominent fringes along the wing margins. A female lays upto 400 eggs. The eggs are small and white when freshly laid. The egg incubation period is 4-5 days in summer. The larvae enter the grain and complete their development inside the grain. The larval period lasts for about 3 weeks, and the life cycle is completed in 4-5

weeks. It overwinters as a larva. It is unable to breed in grains with low moisture content, so that most of the damage occurs during the rainy season when the humidity is high (Pradhan 1969).

3.2.11. Rice Moth (Corcyra cephalonica)

The rice moth, Corcyra cephalonica is a pale buff-brown moth. The larvae produce a dense webbing, which tends to bind the grain into lumps. The eggs are laid singly or in groups of 3-5 on the grains. A female lays upto 150 eggs in 2-4 days. The eggs hatch in 4-7 days and the larvae complete development in 21-41 days. The pupal period lasts for 9-14 days. It overwinters in the larval stage and there are several generations in a year (Atwal 1976).

3.2.12. Almond Moth (Ephestia cautella)

The almond moth, Ephestia cautella is a small grey moth, which can develop rapidly in stores during the rainy season. The damage is usually confined to the upper 50 cm layer of grain. The germ of the grain is damaged preferentially. A female lays about 250 eggs and the life cycle is completed in 4-6 weeks. Pupation occurs inside the grains. Moths are attracted to water and moist surfaces and reproduction is less under dry conditions. The larvae, which hibernate during the winter months may be collected by placing an empty gunny bag on a heap of grain (Atwal 1976).

3.2.13. Indian Meal Moth (Plodia interpunctella)

The Indian meal moth, Plodia interpunctella is red-brown with the underside creamy white. Its larvae cover the grain surface with a webbing of silken threads. Damage is normally confined to the germ. A female lays upto 200 eggs and the life cycle is completed in 4-6 weeks (Pringle 1976).

3.2.14. Mite (Acarus siro)

The grain mite, Acarus siro is the most common grain mite. The mites are whitish to pale yellow, and breed very rapidly under damp conditions. Damage is mostly of the seed germ, and the grain acquires a peculiar taste which persists in the final product (Pringle 1976).

3.3. CONTROL MEASURES

The extent of grain damage in storage largely depends upon the moisture content of the grain, availability of oxygen, and the development of a temperature gradient within the stored grain (Pradhan 1969). To ensure grain safety from insects and other organisms, the above factors should be suitably manipulated through the proper construction of buildings and appropriate storage practices. In some cases physical and/or chemical control of infestations may become necessary. Insect damage may be minimised through: 1) appropriate storage facilities, ii) storage hygiene, iii) control of moisture content of grain, iv) physical methods, v) chemical methods, vi) biological methods, and vii) grain resistance to insect damage (Pringle 1976).

3.3.1. STORAGE FACILITIES

The storage facility should be airtight and free of cracks, crevices and dampness. Storage structures can be made of steel or concrete. For safe storage of small quantities of grains, the Pusa bin has been found to be very useful (Pradhan 1969). The storage facility should be properly constructed from the point of view of warehouse management and the prevention and control of insects.

3.3.2. STORAGE HYGIENE

The storage facility should be completely clean, and regularly inspected. Spillage of grain on the floor should be minimum, and cleaned regularly.

3.3.3. CONTROL OF MOISTURE CONTENT

Grains with a moisture content lower than 10% are relatively less damaged. Maintenance of adequate free space between sacks and allowing natural aeration on dry days helps to reduce the humidity.

3.3.4. PHYSICAL METHODS

Turning and disturbance, screening, aeration, use of heat and cold, impact through centrifugal force, mixing of inert dusts, use of insect proof and polyethylene lined sacks, ultrasonic sounds (20,000 Hz and above), radio waves, light and X and r rays, and infra red radiation have been used for insect control in storage with varying degrees of success (Pringle 1976).

3.3.4. CHEMICAL METHODS

Synthetic insecticides are used for insect control as a last resort. The choice of insecticide depends upon the mode of application and residues on the grain. Insecticides can be used for protective treatment of storage structures, warehouses, or the surfaces of storage bags. Jute or cloth bags may be treated with lindane, DDVP, malathion or pyrethrins (Pringle 1976). Insecticides such as malathion are also mixed with grains directly. However, direct mixing is prohibited in many countries because of the contamination of grain used as food by insecticide residues.

Fumigants can be successfully used in airtight storage structures. The commonly used fumigants are carbon tetrachloride with ethylene dichloride (25:75), ethylene dibromide, methyl bromide, ethylene dichloride, ethylene oxide, hydrogen cyanide, and phosphine. Further information on the use of fumigants on stored grains is given by Pringle (1976).

3.3.5. BIOLOGICAL CONTROL

Many organisms are the natural parasites of the immature stages of beetles and moths. Important natural enemies include protozoa (Schizogregarinos, Cocciidis, and Microsporidia), bacteria (Bacillus

thuringiensis Berliner), nuclear polyhedrosis and granulosus viruses etc. Biological control measures have not so far been used successfully and more work is required on their development as economic alternatives.

3.3.6. GRAIN RESISTANCE

Certain varieties are less damaged than others. A systematic screening of different cultivars may be carried out to identify cultivars that are damaged less by the storage insects.

4. GRAIN EATING BIRDS

Grain eating birds are the most serious pests of millets, both in India and Africa. However, crop losses due to birds are much more serious in sub-Saharan Africa than in the Indian Sub-continent. Among the grain eating birds, the small passerine species present the greatest threat in most of the millet producing countries. Most of the pearl millet grown in the semi-arid Sahel is within the range of the most notorious bird pest - the Red-billed Quelea (Quelea quelea). It is the most serious and numerous avian pest in the world. Other important grain eating birds include various species of weavers (Ploceus spp), sparrows (Passer spp), parakeets (Psitacula spp), pigeons (Columba spp), crows (Corvus spp), and doves (Streptopelia spp). A large number of bird species have been reported to cause substantial damage to millets and are listed in Table 7.

4.1. ECONOMIC IMPORTANCE

The impact of birds on agricultural production has led to the formation of several regional and international bird control organisations in Africa (Bruggers and Jaeger 1982). Although the impact of bird pests on grain production is generally recognized, until very recently, only a little quantitative information on crop losses was available. In Senegal, annual cereal losses due to birds were valued at \$4-5 million, with sorghum and millet suffering more than 78% of these losses (Bruggers and Ruelle 1981). In the Sudan, bird damage has been estimated to cause a loss of \$6.3 million annually (Anon. 1981b). Birds are also very serious pests of millets in India (Jain and Ishwar Prakash 1974; Bhatnagar 1976a and b; Fitzawater and Prakash 1974; Mehrotra and Bhatnagar 1979; Agarwal and Bhatnagar 1982). In India, nearly 10% of the grain is estimated to be destroyed by birds (Jain and Ishwar Prakash 1974). Pigeons have been found to destroy 10-100% of pearl millet at sowing, while sparrows account for upto 29% of grain loss in Punjab (Toor 1982). The extent of bird damage in pearl millet is so high, that the farmers prefer to cultivate them for fodder purposes only (Jotwani et al. 1969a). At Delhi, some pearl millet varieties were damaged upto 90% (Bhatnagar et al. 1974). Birds damage 10-20% of the grain between the time of crop harvest to granary (Sharma 1982). The extent of losses have been estimated to range between Rs.600 to 1800 per hectare (Bhatnagar et al. 1982b). Yield loss estimates from other millet growing countries are not available. Even a conservative estimate of 5% grain loss due to bird damage of a total of 44 million metric tons of millets produced annually (Rachie and Majumdar 1980), would exceed 2.2 million metric tons, valued at \$272.8 million.

4.2. BIOLOGY AND BEHAVIOUR

The biology, movements and crop losses have been more intensively studied for the red billed quelea than for any other bird species. General information is also available on weavers, sparrows, pigeons and the doves. For more details, the readers should consult more detailed works on birds (Schmutterer 1969; Mehrotra and Bhatnagar; 1979; Agarwal and Bhatnagar 1982; Salim Ali and Laeeq Fute Hally 1982; Manikowski, 1984).

4.2.1. Blue Rock Pigeon (Columba livia)

The blue rock pigeon is slaty-grey with a glistening metallic green sheen on the neck and the upper breast, two dark bars on the wings and a broader one across the end of the tail. It is common in India and may be found associated with old wells, hill forts, and ledges and fissures of rocks. They fly back and forth to newly sown or harvested cereal fields. The nest is a sparse bed of twigs and straw, and two unmarked white eggs comprise a brood. This bird is equally adapted to wild, rural, and urban habitats.

4.2.2. Red Bishop (Euplectes orix)

The red bishop is widely distributed in the Sahelian and Sudanian regions. The red bishop is a striking bird because of the bright colors of the male during the breeding season. The crown, face, lower breast, and belly are black. The neck, throat, breast, rump, and the tail are brown. It constructs a globular grass nest among low bushes or tall grasses. It feeds on grass and cereal seeds, and the damage may be considerable locally. It forms medium sized flocks in areas of cultivated land.

4.2.3. Blue-tailed Starling (Lamprolornis chalybaeus)

The blue-tailed starling is a metallic glossy-green colored with a bronze colored belly and rump and a bluish-green tail. It is widely distributed in Africa. Small grain cereals may be severely damaged locally. It makes use of the abandoned nests of other birds in trees for breeding.

4.2.4. House Sparrow (Passer domesticus)

The house sparrow is almost cosmopolitan. Large flocks of birds may congregate and feed in and around cultivated areas on insects, ripening grain, and seed found on the ground. They destroy large numbers of insect-pests, particularly when they feed the young. Large congregations of the sparrows roost on the favourite leafy trees or houses. Its nest is a large collection of straw and rubbish, stuffed into a hole in a wall or ceiling. It lays 3-5 pale greenish-white eggs marked with various shades of brown.

4.2.5. Grey Sparrow (Passer griseus)

The grey sparrow is a minor pest of cereals in Africa. The head is grey-brown, the back brown with a rufous wash. The wings and tail are brown. The birds live in towns, villages and in the bushland, and cause damage to small grain cereals grown nearby. Nests are built in tree trunks during the rainy season.

4.2.6. Golden Sparrow (Passer luteus)

The golden sparrow is widely distributed throughout the Arid Semi-desert-Sahel. It congregates near water during the dry season. Each pair makes 2-3 nests of small branches in a tree or thorny bushes in the desert.

4.2.7. Village Weaver (Ploceus cucullatus)

The village weaver is one of the most serious pests throughout tropical Africa. It lives near human inhabitations. The under parts of the breeding male are golden yellow, except for a black throat. The hind neck is deep cinnamon yellow. The birds gather in small to medium sized flocks and cause substantial damage to cereals during breeding time. The bag shaped nest is built of strongly woven grass and is firmly fixed on the top branches of trees including palms.

4.2.8. Little Weaver (Ploceus luteus)

The little weaver is common in Africa. In the breeding male, the front half of the crown, cheeks, throat, and the bib are black. The posterior half of the crown, sides of the neck, breast, and belly are yellow. The wings and tail are dusky with yellowish edges. It mostly damages grain during the milky stage of development.

4.2.9. Baya Weaver (Ploceus philippinus)

The baya weaver is widely distributed in India. It is known for its remarkable woven retort-shaped nests hanging from trees in the neighbourhood of the cultivated fields. During the non-breeding season, the male and female look like house sparrows and are indistinguishable from each other. During the breeding season, the male assumes a yellow plumage and builds a number of successive nests in the same colony, which are taken over by females one by one when half ready, and if so accepted. This way, each cock may have 4-5 families, all more or less at the same time. The birds form large flocks in the open country around cultivated areas moving locally, and the movements largely depend on monsoons and cropping pattern.

4.2.10. Rose-ringed Parakeet (Psittacula krameri)

The rose ringed parakeet is widespread in India and Sahelian and Sudanian regions. It is grass-green colored with a typically short, stout, deeply hooked red bill, and a black and rose-pink collar. It forms large flocks and may congregate in the cultivated areas where food is abundant. Large flocks can cause considerable damage. The nature of feeding is such that the parakeets tend to waste far more than they actually consume. Parakeets have common roosts in groves of trees and lay 4-6 round whitish eggs.

4.2.11. Red-billed Quelea (Quelea quelea)

The red-billed quelea is the most studied and serious pest of small grains in the African continent. In the breeding season, the male is yellowish white, rarely with a pink crown. The sides of the head, and the throat are black, the wings and the tail yellow. The beak is rose-red and the legs pink. It is very gregarious in all seasons, and prefers open territory in the vicinity of rivers and other suitable water. Its great flight activity enables it to rapidly cover long distances. Very large flocks of birds feed on cereals especially during the breeding season and often in fields far away from the nesting sites. The whole crop may be destroyed within a few days or

even in a few hours. A bird consumes 3-4 grams of grain everyday, but more is wasted when it falls to the ground. Insects are also consumed at the beginning of the rainy season and during nest building. Cereal production within the main nesting areas and along migration routes has been an important factor contributing to its increased importance over recent years. Breeding takes place in the Savannahs, and the nesting sites often occupy many square kilometers. A bag like nest is constructed by the male from woven grass and fixed firmly to the branches of thick bushes or in tall grasses. Several hundred nests may sometimes be found in one bush. At the end of the rainy season (August-October), 2-3 blue colored eggs are laid. The fledglings are fed mainly with insects during early days, and later on, the diet is entirely of plant origin. The young birds leave the nests 10-12 days after hatching from the eggs, and remain near the breeding site until they fly away. There are several broods during migrations, which follow the rains and maturing crops.

4.2.12. Mourning Dove (Streptopelia decipiens decipiens)

The mourning dove is widely distributed in the Sahelian Sudanian regions. The head is grey, with a black half collar, upper portion brown, and the end of tail white. The underside is pale lilac, the eyes yellow, the feet grey-red, and the bill black. It often does more damage along field margins and moves about in small flocks.

4.2.13. Turtle Dove (Streptopelia turtur turtur)

The turtle dove is distributed throughout Sudanian region and is normally seen in the grain fields only at harvest time. The sexes are similar in color. Black and white patches on the sides of the neck enable the species to be easily identified.

4.2.14. Pink-headed Dove (Streptopelia decaocto roseogrisea)

The pink headed dove is smaller than the mourning dove and is commonly seen in grain fields in the Sudan. The head is a pale pinkish grey. The neck shows a broad half collar of black, bordered with white.

4.2.15. Laughing Dove (Streptopelia senegalensis senegalensis)

Laughing dove is common in the Sahelian and Sudanian regions, and has pink head, throat, and breast with blue-grey shoulders and wing tips. It constructs a flat nest of twigs in trees. Small flocks visit the grain fields in the vicinity of settlements.

4.3. CONTROL MEASURES

Efforts to reduce grain losses due to bird damage seem to be far from satisfactory. Many traditional and newly developed techniques are in use to combat the menace of grain eating birds. Extensive population reduction techniques are estimated to have killed nearly 109 billion birds annually (Ward 1979). However, this does not seem to have reduced the damage caused by the red billed quelea to tolerable limits (Funmilayo and Akande 1979), except in the Senegal river valley (Bruggers and Ruelle 1981). The various techniques employed for bird

control and their usefulness have been discussed by Schaffer (1978), Ndiaye (1979), Agarwal and Bhatnagar (1982), Bruggers and Jaeger (1982), Ruelle and Bruggers (1982), and Bruggers et al. (1984). The various bird control methods used in the traditional farming and those being newly developed are briefly described in the following pages.

4.3.1. TRADITIONAL METHODS

Among the traditional methods, bird scaring is an important component in subsistence farming (Dogget 1957). Most of the farm families protect their millet crop with the same traditional methods used since the beginning of cultivation. The most common methods include; i) frightening the birds by shouting, ii) beating empty tin cans, iii) throwing stones or mud pellets at the bird flocks, iv) covering the crop heads with leaves or cloth, v) hanging dead birds (such as a crow) over the crop canopy, vi) cutting or burning the nest bearing trees, and vii) using acetylene gun or other bird scaring devices. However, these methods are only useful on small areas which can be easily managed by the farm family and in actual practice, it only tends to distribute the damage more uniformly. As agricultural practices are upgraded and farm size is increased, these methods become impractical. Moreover traditional methods are effective only at moderate levels of damage. Under heavy levels of bird attack such as those of quelea, these control operations cease to be effective. Bird control constitutes 15-80% of the production costs on government farms (Bruggers 1980).

4.3.2. PHYSICAL BARRIERS

Physical barriers such as fish nets or nylon nets are also used to protect the ripening cereals from the birds. Nets are now being more regularly used on research farms. These are particularly useful for isolation blocks and off-season nurseries. The high cost of the nets limits their use in commercial and traditional farming. However, the cost of using nylon nets compares favourably with that of hiring bird scarers for the entire maturation period of the crops (Bruggers and Jaeger 1982).

4.3.3. PLANT PHENOLOGY

Long or short duration varieties can be planted depending upon the length of time the grain eating birds are present in an area. The varieties planted should mature during a period of low bird activity. However, this is complicated by the length of the crop growing period and by inconsistencies in the amount of rainfall received. The extent of damage varies with maturity, plant height, and availability of the grains at the tip of the earhead. Compact earheads with small grains were less damaged as also the earheads with awns (Bhatnagar et al. 1982a). Plant characters such as bristles and anther covering of the grain have also been reported to be associated with resistance to birds (Beri et al. 1969). However, plant resistance is a relative term and it is highly improbable to develop varieties which will not be eaten by birds when no alternatives are available. Bhatnagar et al. (1974) and Singh (1980) have suggested the cultivation of awned varieties. Cultivars MBH 110, MH 88, MH 38 and PHB 14 have been found

to be less damaged by birds (Kishore and Bhatnagar 1982; Kishore and Gupta 1982).

4.3.4. BIOACOUSTICS

Distress alarm or warning calls have also been exploited for bird control. These calls can be recorded and replayed at regular intervals. These calls can be very effective in scaring some bird species such as parakeets. Some bird species do not produce distress calls and this method cannot be employed against them.

4.3.4. CHEMICAL CONTROL

Use of synthetic repellents is one method of reducing damage by grain eating birds, and it is receiving considerable attention from research workers throughout the world. Metzger and Royal (1961) reported thiram to be an effective bird repellent. Malathion also acts as a feeding deterrent to birds (Mehrotra et al. 1967). Tetramethyl thirum disulphide has been found to be effective in reducing bird damage (Bhatnagar et al. 1982b). Methiocarb has given encouraging results as a bird repellent and is effective against the red billed quelea at a level of 0.015% (Shumake et al. 1976), and protects pearl millet effectively (Bruggers and Jaeger 1982). It can be safely applied to the ripening grain at repellent levels without harmful residues (Gras et al. 1981). The techniques of using methiocarb are also changing from those of covering the whole fields to spraying only the field edges or the spots in the field that are being damaged. Other compounds showing bird repellent properties are anthraquinone, naphthalene, DRC 3324, and 4 aminopyridine (Toor 1982).

One of the common methods of bird control includes the spreading of grains treated with insecticides (methyl parathion, monocrotophos and endrin) in spots easily accessible to the birds or spraying the roosting sites with highly toxic insecticides such as parathion or fenthion. Insecticides such as carbaryl and methiocarb have also been reported to reduce bird damage by controlling the insect larvae that are attractive to the birds (Woronecki and Dolbeer 1980). The present situation on the registration and usefulness of bird damage control chemicals has been discussed by Schaffer (1979). Bird stupefying chemicals such as Avitrol 100 (R) (4-nitropyridine N-oxide) and Avitrol 200 (R)(4-aminopyridine) are effective against sparrows and black birds, while alphachloralose has been used against pigeons, sparrows and starlings. The stupefied birds can be collected and killed (Toor 1982)

5. RATS AND MICE

Rodents constitute a large group of mammals, and are small to medium sized animals. Many rodent species are very fertile and breed the whole year round. Serious outbreaks are often observed periodically that result in heavy damage to various crops and stored products. Many species have been reported to damage cereals (including millets) in various parts of the world (Table 8). Cricetids, Gerbillus nanus indus, Meriones hurrianae, and Tatera indica are important in South Asia, while Gerbillus pyramidum, Tatera quineae, and Tatera kempfi are common in Senegal (West Africa). Among the murids; Bandicoota indica, Mus musculus, and Nesokia indica are distributed in South Asia, while Arvicanthus niloticus, Mastomys natalensis, and Mus minutoides are more common in Africa. Rattus norvegicus and Rattus rattus are found both in Asia and Africa.

5.1. ECONOMIC IMPORTANCE

Rodents cause considerable damage both in the field and stores. Exact yield loss estimates due to rodents in millets are not available. In a survey carried out through a questionnaire by Hopf et al. (1976), grain losses of up to 20% have been reported. In addition to grain losses, rats and mice also spread a number of diseases such as plague, murine typhus, leptospirosis, rat-bite fever, trichinosis, rickettsial pox, and food poisoning.

5.2. BIOLOGY AND BEHAVIOUR

5.2.1. Egyptian Gerbil (Gerbillus pyramidum)

The Egyptian gerbil, Gerbillus pyramidum is nocturnal and crepuscular. Its burrows are generally among dense growth of bushes. The gerbils usually stay within a few yards of their burrows and when chased, they soon disappear down a hole. Foot prints and tail drags are especially noticeable in the morning around burrows. Its body weight is 33-51 g. Males are heavier than females. They breed throughout the year except at the end of the dry season. They tend to remain in colonies. Each female produces 2-7 young per litter (Happold 1976).

5.2.2. Indian Gerbil (Tatera indica)

The Indian gerbil, Tatera indica is brownish red with a white belly, and is 11-20 cm long, with a tail longer than the body. It is a very sensitive and fast moving rat. A female produces 5-10 young per litter. It makes burrows in sandy areas, and the burrow opening is located under the cover of a thorny bush or other vegetation. The burrows are deeper and short in length. Generally, there is one rat in a burrow (Atwal 1976).

5.2.3. Nile Rat (Arvicanthus niloticus)

The Nile rat, Arvicanthus niloticus is 15-18 cm long with 10-13 cm long tail. Hair on the dorsal side are buff to black colored, while underside hair are greyish-white. It breeds all the year round whenever the food supply is sufficient. Five or more generations may

occur per year. Most breeding takes place during the cropping period, when they store large quantities of food in the burrows (Schmutterer 1969).

5.2.4. Multimammate Rat (Mastomys natalensis)

The multimammate rat, Mastomys natalensis is about 12-14 cm long, and the tail is 10 to 12 cm. Hair yellowish to dark brown. It dwells in or near human settlements. Its binomics is similar to that of Nile rat (Schmutterer 1969).

5.2.5. House Mouse (Mus musculus)

The house mouse, Mus musculus is 7-10 cm long with a tail 7-8 cm long. The eyes and ears are small, and the tail is scantily haired. The back is uniformly brown and under parts pale brown to whitish. It climbs readily. It does most damage in stores and around human inhabitations. Each female delivers 5 to 6 young per litter, which begin to move in about 21 days. It is short lived and most individuals do not live for more than a year. At times, the population increases very rapidly (Atwal 1976).

5.2.6. Indian Field Mouse (Mus booduga)

The Indian field mouse, Mus booduga is found both in dry and wet lands. The back is brown and the belly a dull grey. It makes small burrows without branches, and lives in pairs. A female produces 6-13 young per litter (Atwal 1976).

5.2.7. Norway Rat (Rattus norvegicus)

The Norway rat, Rattus norvegicus is about 40 cm in length including the tail. The nose is blunt and ears of moderate size. The tail is scaly, naked, blunt ended, and shorter than the body. The hair is generally brown, interspersed with black, and underparts are yellowish-white. It normally stays at ground level. Tunnels are 5 to 7.5 cm in diameter, with more than one opening. A female produces 8-9 young per litter. It is large in size and bold in nature, and has replaced the black rat in many places (Mehta and Verma 1968).

5.2.8. Common Rat (Rattus rattus)

The common rat, Rattus rattus has a sharp slender nose, large ears, and the tail is longer than the rest of the body. The back and sides are black. The young ones move about after 21 days. It moves with tail raised from the ground. It normally prefers darkness. It is most active upto 18 months. It is color blind and is dazzled by light, and has an acute sense of smell, touch, hearing, and taste (Mehta and Verma 1968).

5.3. CONTROL MEASURES

Various aspects of rodent control have been discussed by Chitty and Southern (1954), Deoras (1964), Mehta and Verma (1968), Davies (1970), and Prakash and Gosh (1975).

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5.3. CONTROL MEASURES

Various aspects of rodent control have been discussed by Chitty and Southern (1954), Deoras (1964), Mehta and Verma (1968), Davies (1970), and Prakash and Gosh (1975).

The presence of rats and mice can be detected by their damage, sounds, runways, droppings, holes, smears, nests, urine stains, and actual sighting.

Principal methods of rat control include: 1) exclusion, ii) traps, iii) poison baiting, iv) fumigation, and v) others.

5.3.1. EXCLUSION

Openings more than one centimeter in width should not be left in stores. The floor and exterior of walls should be made of concrete. Screens may be provided around all openings. Doors and windows should be tight fitting. The surroundings should be kept clean.

5.3.2. TRAPS

Trapping is a preferred method of rat and mice control. Many types of traps are in use in different parts of the world. The most popular traps are wooden/steel breakback or guillotine traps, steel jaw traps, cage traps, and automatic traps. It is important to keep traps in good working condition in places generally frequented by rats and mice.

5.3.3. POISONED BAITS

Control through poisoned baits is the routine operation in stores and fields. Red squill, zinc phosphide, antu, warfarin, arsenic, barium carbonate, phosphorus, strychnine, and insecticides (endosulfan, endrin, malathion, parathion, etc.) are generally used for rodent control. Cereal grains, bread, and flour pellets are generally used as a carrier. Addition of vegetable oils and molasses increases the attractiveness of the baits. Pre-baiting with unpoisoned baits for 2-3 days in areas frequently visited by the rats may be done to remove the fear and suspicion to new objects, followed by poisoned baits for 3-4 days.

5.3.4. FUMIGATION

Many rats and mice hide in burrows and can be killed by poisonous gases. Calcium cyanide, sulfur dioxide, methyl bromide, carbon monoxide, aluminium phosphide etc. are generally used to fumigate the burrows of rats and mice. Redenticide or some insecticide dusts can also be applied into the burrows.

5.3.5. OTHERS

Destruction, flooding, and blocking of the burrows can also be effective in rat control. Rat populations are also controlled by cats, dogs, owls, eagles, and snakes.

6. STATE OF THE ART AND THE FUTURE NEEDS

Millet entomology is still in an exploratory stage with major emphasis on identifying the pest fauna associated with these crops. To date, 497 pests have been reported to feed on millets (Tables 2,6,7, and 8) in various parts of the world, and there may be many more, as yet un-accounted. Of these, 401 insect and mite species damage the crops under field conditions, 16 in storage, and 55 species of birds and 25 species of rats and mice result in substantial crop losses either in the field and storage or both. The insects feeding on seedlings and the earhead are particularly important. As the plant is most vulnerable to pests during the seedling stage, white grubs Holotrichia spp, shoot flies (Atheriogna spp), and stem borers (A. ignefusalis, C. partellus and Sesamia spp) are probably the most destructive pests. Although a large number (206) of insect species feed on the leaves, only a few (such as M. separata, Mylocerus spp, S. graminum, P. maidis, R. maidis, and various species of grasshoppers) occasionally cause serious damage. Insects feeding on the earheads directly compete with man for grain and can substantially reduce the grain yield. Of the 91 insect species feeding on the earhead; millet midge (G. penniseti), head caterpillars (Heliothis spp, Raghuva albipunctella, Eublemma spp, and Cryptoblabes spp), head bugs (various species), and thrips are the most important.

A logical follow up of present knowledge of the important insect species damaging millets is to conduct pest surveys in the principal millet growing areas to examine the incidence pattern, seasonal abundance, severity of damage, and the extent of crop loss caused by important pests. Much of the experience gained on the pest problems on these crops has been obtained on research stations which are not necessarily comparable to the farmers' fields. There is a need to know more about the distribution and the extent of losses caused by important pest species and to identify priorities for research relevant to farmers' fields.

A considerable amount of information exists on the biology of a few pests. Although, in many cases, these studies relate to them as pests of other important crops. It is also necessary to study their biology and population dynamics on millets. While populations of some species may be monitored with light and other traps, and by direct counting, appropriate trapping and sampling techniques have still to be worked out for others.

At present, pest control schedules on millets are poorly developed, and little practiced or necessary. However, as yields increase and stabilize, pest control will become increasingly necessary and economically viable. Also pest situation may change considerably under the improved or changed crop husbandry practices and with the introduction of high yielding cultivars.

Certain cultural operations, such as timely planting and harvesting, deep ploughing before and after the cropping season, using mixed crop combinations, and field sanitation, have been used to reduce damage caused by some insect species. However, emphasis should be placed on making use of such cultural practices as a means of reducing pest damage in subsistence farming systems of millet producing areas. In fact, many of these practices are currently in widespread use. However, there is need to collect more data on the effectiveness of such operations and to educate the farmers in making optimal use of them. Natural enemies are an integral component of agro-ecosystems. However, the scope for success using a classical biological control against millet pests is limited largely because of the short duration of the cropping period and unfavourable crop environment. Attention needs to be focussed on the identification, conservation and encouragement of existing biological control agents. Special attention should be paid for using crop cultivars and mixed crop combinations that are relatively more hospitable to the natural enemies than the pests. Host-plant resistance can be an important component of the pest-management systems in millets. Emphasis should be placed on the development of repeatable resistance screening techniques. It is important that the new cultivars being released to the farmers are evaluated for susceptibility to the prevalent pest species of a region, and any cultivar tending to support higher insect populations than those currently grown should not be released for cultivation on a large scale. Newer cultivars should rather be selected under natural un-sprayed conditions. This would discourage the selection and release of cultivars susceptible to insect pests. Screening and selecting for pest resistance should therefore be an integral component of crop improvement programs. Chemical control should preferably be used only to control outbreaks of pests. However, at present, information is only available on the relative toxicity of some insecticides against some insect species under laboratory or field conditions, most of which is confined to conditions in the Indian sub-continent. There is a need to have adequate data on the relative efficacy and economics of the insecticides currently available in a region. Attention should also be paid to the environmental hazards and the problem of insecticide residues in the fodder or grain. Efforts should be made to explore the use of locally available natural products for pest control. Neem, (*Azadirachta indica*) which is widely distributed both in Asia and Africa, can be usefully exploited for this purpose. This will not only ensure the proper use of natural resources, but reduce environmental and toxicity hazards.

There is also a need to gather more data on the storage pests. Pest species highly injurious to millets should be identified as also the extent of losses caused by them. Emphasis should be placed on developing and popularising small storage structures in rural areas that help reduce the damage by storage pests. Efforts should also be made to identify cultivars that are less damaged by storage pests, and in fact, screening and selecting for insect resistance to storage pests should form one of the important components of crop improvement programs.

Among the vertebrate pests, birds, are by far the most damaging to millets. Studies of their biology, behaviour and migration should be taken up regionally and internationally. However, bird control operations should not focus on the mass scale killing, which may disturb the natural balance to the disadvantage of man, since we know that some birds consume millions of insects that are highly destructive on a number of crops. Efforts to minimize bird damage should be focussed on uniform planting, development of cultivars less preferred by the birds, efficient bird scaring devices, discouraging the roosting near the cultivated fields, and the use of bird repellent chemicals. Systematic data on rodents damaging millets should be collected and extent of losses quantified. Various methods of rat control as have been developed by various organizations may be utilized. Efforts may be made to make such control operations relevant to the agro-ecosystems of millet growing areas.

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Table 1. Cultivated millets and closely related wild species of gramineae recorded as hosts of different pest species feeding on millets

S.No.	Common name	Scientific name	No. of pests recorded
1		<u>Brachiaria decumbens</u> Stapf.	2
2		<u>Brachiaria purpurascens</u> (Raddi) Henrard	2
3		<u>Bothriochloa bladhii</u> (Retz.) Blake	1
4	Black kolukattai grass	<u>Cerchrus biflorus</u> Roxb.	1
5	Kolukattai grass	<u>Cerchrus ciliaris</u> Linn.	1
6	Finger grass	<u>Chloris barbata</u> Sw.	1
7	Pangola grass	<u>Digitaria decumbens</u> Stent.	9
8	Crab grass	<u>Digitaria sanguinalis</u> Scop.	4
9		<u>Digitaria scalarum</u> Chiov.	1
10		<u>Digitaria</u> sp.	1
11	Jungle rice	<u>Echinochloa colona</u> Linn.	1
12		<u>Echinochloa colonum</u> Linn.	3
13	Japanese millet	<u>Echinochloa crusagalli</u> Beauv.	9
14	Barnyard millet	<u>Echinochloa frumentacea</u> Link.	8
15	Finger millet	<u>Eleusine coracana</u> Gaertn.	57
16		<u>Eleusine indica</u> Gaertn.	2
17	Teff grass	<u>Eragrostis brownei</u> Nees.	1
18		<u>Eragrostis (abyssinica) teff</u> Trotter	1
19		<u>Hemarthria altissima</u> Stapf and Hubb.	1
20		<u>Hemarthria uncinata</u> Reg.	1
21	Witch grass	<u>Panicum anabaptistum</u> Steud.	1
22		<u>Panicum capillare</u> Linn.	Un-specified
23	Pall panicum	<u>Panicum dichotomiflorum</u> Michx.	3
24	Guinea grass	<u>Panicum maximum</u> Jacq.	2
25	Proso millet	<u>Panicum miliaceum</u> Linn.	12
26	Little millet	<u>Panicum miliare</u> Lam.	14
27	Torpedo grass	<u>Panicum repens</u> Linn.	1
28	Switch grass	<u>Panicum virgatum</u> Linn.	1
29		<u>Panicum</u> sp.	5
30		<u>Oplismenus</u> sp.	1
31	Dallis grass	<u>Paspalum dilatatum</u> Poir.	2
32	Knot grass	<u>Paspalum distichum</u> Linn.	3
33	Bahia grass	<u>Paspalum notatum</u> Fluegge	2
34		<u>Paspalum orbiculare</u> Forst.	1
35	Kodo millet	<u>Paspalum scrobiculatum</u> Linn.	11
36		<u>Paspalum scribnerianum</u> Steud.	1
37		<u>Paspalum</u> sp.	3
38		<u>Pennisetum alopecuroides</u> Sprang.	1
39	Pearl millet	<u>Pennisetum americanum</u> (Linn.) Leeke	403
40	KiKuya grass	<u>Pennisetum clandestinum</u> Bochst.	1
41	Napier grass	<u>Pennisetum purpureum</u> Sch.	1
42		<u>Pennisetum</u> sp.	1
43		<u>Rottboellia exaltata</u> Linn.	1
44		<u>Setaria faberii</u> Herrm.	1
45	Foxtail millet	<u>Setaria italica</u> Beauv.	12
46		<u>Setaria splendida</u> Stapf.	2
47		<u>Setaria tomentosa</u> Kunth.	1
48	Bur Bristle grass	<u>Setaria verticillata</u> Beauv.	1
49	Green Bristle grass	<u>Setaria viridis</u> Beauv.	4
50		<u>Setaria</u> spp.	2

Table 2. Insect and mite pests feeding on millets

S.No.	Common name	Scientific name	Nature of damage	Distribution	Reference
<u>1. ROOT FEEDING INSECTS</u>					
Coleoptera: Scarabaeidae (Melolonthinae)					
1.	White grub	<u>Holotrichia consanguinea</u> Blanch.	Grubs damage the roots resulting in drying and lodging of the plants. The adults feed on the leaves of many host plants.	India	Patel and Patel 1953; Jotwani et al. 1971; Patel et al. 1977; Verma 1975; Srivastava et al. 1971b; Bindra and Singh 1971; Roshanlal et al. 1976; FAO 1972
2.	"	<u>H. (insularis) reynaudi</u> Bren.	"	India	Jotwani and Butani 1978
3.	"	<u>H. serrata</u> Blanch.	"	India	Jotwani and Butani 1978; Krishnaswamy et al. 1963; Majumdar and Teotia 1965
4.	"	<u>H. trichophora</u> Fairm.	"	China	Anonymous 1982
5.	"	<u>Lachnosterna fissa</u> Bren.	(Recorded on <u>S. italica</u>)	India	FAO 1972
6.	"	<u>L. longipennis</u> Blanch.	(Recorded on <u>E. coracana</u>)	India	FAO 1972
7.	"	<u>Holotrichia</u> spp	(Also recorded on <u>E. coracana</u>)	India	Rangarajan 1966; Shah and Garg 1982
8.	"	<u>Anomala dimidiata</u> Hope	(Recorded on <u>E. coracana</u> and <u>E. frumantacea</u>)	India	Shah and Garg 1982
9.	"	<u>Anomala</u> sp	"	India	FAO 1972
10.	"	<u>Apogonia</u> sp	"	India	Sharma and Davies 1982
11.	Black beetle	<u>Heteronychus arator</u> Fab.	(Recorded on <u>P. clandestinum</u>)	New Zealand	Blank et al. 1978; Blank and Olson 1979
Coleoptera: Tenebrionidae					
12.	False wireworm	<u>Arthodes</u> sp	Grubs damage the roots (Also recorded on <u>E. coracana</u>)	Southern India	Rangarajan 1965; David and Kumaraswami 1975

13. " Gonocephalum dorsigranosum Frm. The grubs feed on germinating seeds and seedlings. The adults nibble the leaves of pearl millet, sorghum, and pigeonpea. India Sharma and Davies 1982
14. " G. hoffmannseggi Stev. (Also recorded on E. coracana) India Coleman 1920; Nair 1975
15. " G. vagum Stev. " India Sharma and Davies 1982
16. " Hemiptera:Aphididae Adults and nymphs suck sap from roots resulting in withering and yellowing of the plants India Nair 1975
17. Sugarcane root aphid Forda orientalis George " India Jasmine and Ananthanarayana 1975; Jotwani and Butani 1978
18. Root aphid Geocia sp " India Nair 1975
19. Root aphid Rhopalosiphum rufiabdominalis Sas. " India Reddy and Davies 1979
20. Ragi root aphid Tetraneura kalimpongensis sp n. (Recorded on Pennisetum sp) India Raychaudhari et al. 1978
21. " T. (hirsuta) nigriabdominalis Sas. (Recorded on E. coracana) India Gadiyappanavar and Channabasavanna 1973; Chandrasekaran et al. 1975
22. Root bug Hemiptera:Cydnidae Adults and nymphs suck sap from roots in sandy soils India Jotwani and Butani 1978; Srivastava and Siddiqui 1967; Kadam and Patel 1960
23. Black ant Hymenoptera:Formicidae Monomorium indicum Forel Remove seeds from the seedbed and store them in the nest leading to low plant stand India Jotwani and Butani 1978
24. " Sima sp nr. longiceps Forel (Recorded on S. italica) India Paul 1982
25. Termite Isoptera:Termitidae Feed on roots and burrow through shoot. Affected plants dry up and lodge. India Jotwani and Butani 1978; Ratnaswamy 1961

26.	"	<u>Microtermes obesi</u> Holmgr.	"	(Also recorded on <u>P. miliaceum</u>)	India	Kushwaha et al. 1980; Yazdani 1982
27.	"	<u>Microtermes</u> sp	"	"	West Africa	Gahukar 1984
28.	"	<u>Odontotermes obesus</u> Ramb.	"	(Also recorded on <u>P. miliaceum</u>)	India	Yazdani 1982
29.	"	<u>O. wallonensis</u> Wasn.	"	(Recorded on <u>E. coracana</u>)	India	Rajagopal and Veeresh 1983
30.	Sugarcane root borer	Lepidoptera:Pyralidae <u>Emmalocera depressella</u> Swin.	Larvae feed on stem below soil surface.		India	Jotwani and Butani 1978
2.2. SEEDLING AND SHOOT PESTS						
31.		Oiptera:Anthomyiidae <u>Hylemyia arambourgi</u> Seguy.	Larvae feed inside the seedlings and produce a dead heart.		Africa	Hill 1975
32.		<u>Hylemyia</u> sp Diptera:Cecidomyiidae	"		Japan	Kobayashi 1946
33.	Rice gall midge	<u>Orseolia oryzae</u> Wood-Mason	Larvae feed on the seedlings and produce a silver shoot (Recorded on <u>Paspalum</u> sp)		Thailand	Hidaka et al. 1979
34.	Gall midge	<u>Orseolia</u> sp Diptera:Chloropidae	(Recorded on <u>P. miliare</u> and <u>P. scrobiculatum</u>)		India	Katiyar 1982; Maiti 1982
35.	"	<u>Aprometopsis flavofacies</u> Bek.	"		Nigeria	Deeming 1971
36.	"	<u>Elachiptereicus abyssynicus</u> Beck.	Larvae feed inside the seedlings		Africa	Vercombe 1976; Deeming 1971
37.	"	<u>Polyodaspis</u> sp	"		Nigeria	Deeming 1971
38.	"	<u>Oscinella</u> sp Diptera:Diopsidae	(Recorded on <u>D. sanguinalis</u> and <u>Panicum dichotomiflorum</u>)		America	Beisler et al. 1977

39. Shoot fly Diopsis macropthalma Dalm. Nigeria Alghali 1979
(Recorded on Paspalum orbiculare)
40. " D. collaris West. Nigeria Deeming 1982
41. " Inopus rubriceps Macq. New Zealand Gerard and Parr 1977
(Recorded on Paspalum dilatatum)
42. Pearl millet shoot fly Atherigona approximata Malloch India Malloch 1925; Jotwani et al. 1969c; Africa Jotwani and Singh 1971; Natarajan et al. 1973; Singh and Jotwani 1973; Anon. 1973 ab; Sharma and Bhagikath Singh 1974; Talati and Upadhyay 1978; Regupathy and Balasubramanian 1978; Hill 1975
The maggots feed on apical meristem and produce a dead heart. Attack also continues upto heading stage which affects the seed set
43. Shoot fly A. biseta Karl. China Cheng et al. 1983
(Recorded on S. italica)
44. " A. bituberculata Malloch India AICMIP 1969; Jotwani et al. 1969c; Katiyar 1982
(Recorded on P. miliaceum and P. scrobiculatum)
45. " A. destructor Malloch India Rao 1925; Sinha 1962; Natarajan et al. 1974; Selvaraj et al. 1974
(Recorded on P. miliaceum, E. coracana and P. miliare)
46. " A. falcata Thom India Reddy and Davies 1977
(Recorded on P. miliare and E. frumantacea)
47. " A. lineata Adam Senegal Gahukar 1985
48. " A. miliaceae Malloch India AICMIP, 1969; Jotwani et al. 1969c; China Wenm 1981
(Recorded on P. miliare, P. miliaceum, and E. coracana)
49. " A. nudiseta Malloch India AICMIP 1969; Jotwani et al. 1969c; Kundu and Prem Kishore 1971
(Recorded on E. frumantacea and E. colona)
50. " A. orientalis Sch. Senegal Gahukar 1985
51. " A. oryzae Malloch India Reddy and Davies 1977
(Recorded on E. frumantacea)

52.	"	<u>A. penti</u> spn.	and <u>P. scrobiculatum</u>	Nigeria	Deeming 1971
53.	"	<u>A. pulla</u> Wied.	"	India	Reddy and Davies 1977
54.	"	<u>A. simplex</u> Thom.	(Recorded on <u>E. frumatacea</u> and <u>P. scrobiculatum</u>)	India	Patel and Rawat 1982
55.	Sorghum	<u>A. siccata</u> Rond.	(Also recorded on <u>D. scalarum</u> , <u>E. Coracana</u> , <u>E. frumatacea</u> , <u>P. scrobiculatum</u> , <u>Panicum maximum</u> , <u>P. miliaceum</u> , <u>S. verticillata</u> , and <u>Rotboellia exaltata</u>)	India Africa	Moiz and Naqvi 1969; Srivastava et al. 1976; Jotwani et al. 1969C; Hill 1975; Ogwaro 1978; Sharma et al. 1980
56.	"	<u>A. Yorki</u> sp n.	"	Nigeria	Deeming 1971
57.	"	<u>Atherigona</u> sp	(Recorded on <u>P. miliaceum</u> , <u>E. frumatacea</u> and <u>S. italica</u>)	India Africa Japan	Ballard and Rao 1924; Young 1971; AICMIP 1968; Vercambre 1976; Jotwani et al. 1969C; Anon. 1973a; Shah and Garg 1982; Yazdani 1982
58.	Maize	Lepidoptera:Noctuidae	Larvae feed on leaves and shoot producing a deadheart. Feeding during the later stages of plant growth leads to stem tunnelling and chaffy heads.	Africa	Lefervse 1935; Ingram 1958; Harris 1962; Appert 1964; Rachie and Peters 1977
59.	Stem borer	<u>Busseola fusca</u> Fuller	(Also recorded on <u>E. Coracana</u>)	Africa	Bowden 1956
60.	"	<u>Manga basilinea</u> Bowden	(Recorded on <u>P. purpureum</u>)	Ghana	Bowden 1956
61.	"	<u>Poecopa mediopuncta</u> sp n. <u>Sesamia calamistis</u> Hmps.	(Also recorded on <u>E. Coracana</u>)	West Africa	Harris 1962; Ndoye et al. 1986
62.	"	<u>S. cretica</u> Led.	"	Africa	Gahan 1928; Bedford 1936a; Tams and Bowden 1953; Nepveu 1950; Abul- Nasr et al. 1968

63. Pink stem borer
S. inferens Wlk.
 (Also recorded on P. sciobiculatum, E. frumantacea, and E. coracana)
 Asia and Africa
 Gahan 1928; Bedford 1936a; Tams and Bowden 1953; Krishnamurthy and Usman 1952; Katiyar 1982; Shah and Garg 1982; Garg and Tandon 1983
64. " "
S. nonagrioides
botanophaga T. & B.
 Africa
 Gahukar 1984
65. Stem borer
S. penniseti T. & B.
 Africa
 Appert 1964
66. " "
S. poephaga T. & B.
 Africa
 Appert 1964
67. " "
Sesamia sp.
 Africa
 Breniere 1971
- Lepidoptera: Pyralidae
68. Pearl millet stem borer
Acigona ignefusalis Hmps.
 Africa
 Harris 1962; Appert 1964; Breniete 1971; Vercambre 1976
69. " "
Chilo diffusilineus de Joannis
 Senegal
 Bonzi 1982
70. " "
Chilo indicus Kapur
 India
 Nagarkatti and Nair 1973
71. " "
C. orichalcociliellus Strand
 Africa
 Hill 1975; Rachle and Peters 1977
72. " "
C. panic Wang and Sung
 China
 Gu and Li 1983
73. Spotted stem borer
C. partellus Swin.
 (Also recorded on E. coracana)
 India
 Fletcher and Ghosh 1920; Issac 1946; Ahmed and Young 1969; Sandhu et al. 1976; Pant Nye 1960; Fletcher 1914; Pant and Kalode 1964; Sharma and Chaudhary 1974; Rachle and Peters 1977; Pant et al. 1961; Singh and Tiwary 1979; Srivastava et al. 1976.
74. " "
C. (simplex) btlr.
suppressalis Wlk.
 (Also recorded on E. crusgalli)
 Uganda
 Ingram 1958; Rezwany and Iran Schahosseini 1977
75. " "
Chilotrea argyrolepia Hmps.
 Nigeria
 Harris 1962
76. Sugar cane borer
Diatraea saccharalis Eguchi
 Japan
 Eguchi 1933
77. " "
D. grandiosella Dyar
 USA
 Burton et al. 1982; Starks et al. 1982a
78. Sugar cane stem borer
Eldana saccharina Wlk.
 Africa
 Harris 1962

79.	Stem borer	<u>Saluria inficita</u> Wlk.		India	Nair 1975
1.3. GENERAL DEFOLIATORS					
80.	Leaf beetle	Coleoptera: Buprestidae <u>Sternocera laevigata</u> Oliv.	General leaf feeder and defoliator.	India	Sharma and Davies 1982
81.	"	<u>Acanthotrachelus</u> sp		India	Sharma and Davies 1982
82.	"	<u>Altica caerulea</u> Oliv.		India	Sharma and Davies 1982
83.	"	<u>Anisostena ariadne</u> Newsm.	(Recorded on <u>P. virgatum</u>)	USA	Ford and Cavey 1982
84.	Red pumpkin beetle	<u>Aulacophora foveicollis</u> Lucas.		India	AICMIP 1966
85.	"	<u>A. intermedia</u> Jac.		India	Reddy and Davies 1979; Verma 1980
86.	"	<u>A. nilgiriensis</u> Jac.		India	Reddy and Davies 1979; Verma 1980
87.	Leaf beetle	<u>Chaetocnema basalis</u> Baly	(Recorded on <u>P. miliare</u>)	India	Maiti 1982
88.	"	<u>C. concinnipennis</u> Baly		India	Sharma and Davies 1982
89.	"	<u>C. denticulata</u> Ill.	(Recorded on <u>P. dichotomiflorum</u>)	America	Beisler et al. 1977
90.	"	<u>C. minuta</u> Jac.		India	Sharma and Davies 1982
91.	"	<u>C. pulicaria</u> Nell.	(Recorded on <u>P. dichotomiflorum</u>)	America	Beisler et al. 1977
92.	"	<u>C. tibialis</u> Illig.		West Africa	Gahukar 1984
93.	"	<u>Chaetocnema</u> sp	(Recorded on <u>E. coracana</u>)	India	Rachie and Peters 1977
94.	"	<u>Dactylispa nigriflora</u> Guen.		Africa	Demaux 1961
95.	Rice hispa	<u>Diadisa armigera</u> Oliv.	(Also recorded on <u>Echinochloa crusgalli</u> , <u>Echinochloa colonum</u> , and <u>Paspalum distichum</u>)	India	Reddy and Davies 1979; Dhaliwal 1979

96. Leaf beetle Lema planifrons Wis. West Africa Nwanze 1985
97. " Lema sp. West Africa Gahukar 1984
98. " Leptispa pygamaea Baly India Khanvilkar et al. 1983
(Recorded on P. scrobiculatum)
99. Flea beetle Longitarsus belgaumensis Fab. India Kapoor et al. 1981
100. Leaf beetle Monolepta signata Oliv. India Dhaliwal 1979; Verma 1980;
Reddy and Davies 1979
(Also recorded on Paspalum distichum)
101. " Monolepta sp. India Sharma and Davies 1982;
Africa Gahukar 1984
102. " Oulema (Lema) downsei Baly India David and Kumarswami 1975;
Usman 1967
(Also recorded on E. coracana)
103. " O. rufotincta Clark Australia Broadley and Rogers 1978
(Recorded on D. decumbens)
104. " Podagris sp. West Africa Gahukar 1984
105. Coccinellid beetle Coleoptera:Coccinellidae
Epilachna similis Thunb. Africa Hill 1975; Rachie and Peters 1977;
Schmutterer 1969
(Also recorded on E. coracana)
106. Leaf beetle Coleoptera:Curculionidae
Alcidodes fasbricii Fab. India Nair 1975
107. " Astychus lateralis Fab. India Nair 1975
108. " Centrinaspis picumnus Hbst. America Beisler et al. 1977
(Recorded on D. sanguinalis)
109. " Episomus lacerata Fab. India Nair 1975
(Recorded on S. italica)
110. " Madurasia sp. India Paul 1982
111. Grey weevil Myliocerus blendus Faust. India Nair 1975
Adults feed on leaves and grubs on roots in the soil.
112. " M. cardoni Marsh. India Pal 1971;
Kushwaha et al. 1980;
Sachan 1980
(Also recorded on P. purpureum)
113. " M. dentifer Fab. India Batra et al. 1969;

114. " M. discolor Fab. Kushwaha et al. 1980
India Batra et al. 1969; Kushwaha et al. 1980; Chillar and Verma 1981
115. " M. granulosis Desb. India FAO 1972
116. " M. lactivirens Mschl. India Verma 1980
117. " M. undecimpustulatus Faust. India Batra et al. 1969; Kushwaha et al. 1980
118. Cotton grey weevil M. undecimpustulatus maculosus Desb. India Pande 1971; Singh and Singh 1977; Verma et al. 1969; Shinde et al. 1970; Kapoor et al. 1981; Sachan 1980
(Also recorded on P. purpureum)
119. Grey weevil M. viridanus Fab. India Batra et al. 1969
120. " Mylocerus spp. India Yadav and Singh 1975
(Recorded on E. coracana)
121. Leaf beetle Nematocerus sp. Africa Hill 1975; Rachie and Peters 1977
(Also recorded on E. coracana)
122. " Neocleonus sennio Hbst. India Nair 1975
123. " Pettotrachelus juvenous Faust. India Sharma and Davies 1982
124. " Phyllobius sp. India Sharma and Davies 1982
125. " Phytoscaphus triangularis Oliv. India Nair 1975
126. " Ptochus lapsus Mshl. India Nair 1975
127. Gujhia weevil Tanymeus abyssinicus Hust. Africa Jannone 1947
128. " T. circumdatus Faust. India Nair 1975
129. " T. hispidus Faust. India Nair 1975
130. " T. indicus Faust. India Bindra and Harcharan Singh 1970
Coleoptera: Erotylidae
131. " Anadastus fucosus Lewis Korea Nakayama and Tabashi 1933
(Recorded on S. italica)
132. " A. filiformis Fab. Japan Hirose 1935
(Recorded on S. italica)
133. " A. parvulus W. India Nair 1975
(Also recorded on S. italica)
- Coleoptera: Phalacridae

134. " Phalacris politus Melsh. America Beisler et al. 1977
135. " Stilbus apicalis Melsh. America Beisler et al. 1977
136. " Ora picta Fab. India Sharma and Davies 1982
137. Leaf miner Agromyza sp. India Reddy and Puttaswamy 1981
Larvae feed inside the leaves.
138. Aphid Aphis adsuta Zeh. India Nair 1975
Adults and nymphs suck sap from the whorl leaves and occasionally in the panicle resulting in stunting and yellowing of the plants.
139. " A. saccharina Zahnt. India FAO 1972
Polynesia
140. Rusty plum aphid Hysteronera setarise Thom. India Saroja et al. 1972; Dasan and Kollandaiswamy 1974; Ramaudiere 1977; Lee and Hsu 1979; Shah and Garg 1982
(Recorded on S. italica,
Setaria spp.,
E. frumentacea,
C. dactylon,
Digitaria sp.,
Oplismenus sp.,
E. indica,
E. coracana, and Peach)
141. Ragi aphid Macrosiphum eleusines Theo. India Nair 1975
142. " M. (Sitobion) miscanthi Tak. Polynesia Ramaudiere 1977
(Recorded on Graminae)
143. " M. leelamanise David West
Africa
144. Corn leaf aphid Rhopalosiphum maidis Fitch. India Nair 1975; Kankaraj 1958
(Also recorded on
E. coracana
D. decumbens, and
P. scrobiculatum)
Polynesia Brandes and Klaphaak 1923; Mandal et al. 1978; Broadley and Rogers 1978; Ramaudiere 1977; Ndoye et al. 1986
Australia
145. Aphid R. padi Linn. Bhutan Agatwala 1983
(Recorded on
P. scrobiculatum)
146. Green bug Schizaphis graminum Rond. America Dahms 1951; Daniels 1961; Teitzel
India and Wilson 1974; Cherian 1933
(Also recorded on
D. decumbens,

147. Aphid S. hypersiphonata Basu
 B. decumbens,
 P. maximum, and
 S. splendida
 (Recorded on D. decumbens)
 Australia Broadley and Rogers 1978;
 Franzmann 1973a
148. Sugarcane aphid Sipha flava Forbes
 (Recorded on D. decumbens,
Hemarthria,
altissima, and
Hemarthria uncinata)
 America Oakes 1978; Starkes and
 Mirkes 1979
149. Aphid Sitobion avenae Fab.
 (Recorded on Paspalum sp)
 Egypt Elnagar et al. 1980
150. " Sitobion sp
 (Recorded on Setaria sp)
 Angola Stary et al. 1977
151. Spotted whitefly
 Hemiptera:Aleyrodidae
Neomaskellia bergii Sign.
 (Also recorded on S. italica)
 India David and Raghunath 1977
152. Spittle bug
 Hemiptera:Aphrophoridae
Clovio puncta Wlk.
 India Verma 1980
153. " Poophilus costalis Wlk.
 (Also recorded on sorghum)
 West Reddy and Davies 1979;
 Africa Bonzi 1981; Ndoye et al. 1986
 India
154. Spittle bug
 Hemiptera:Cercopidae
Aeneolamia varia Fab.
 Columbia Jimenez 1978
155. Cercopid
Aeneolamia sp
 (Also recorded on
Cenchrus ciliaris)
 Mexico Morales and Enkerlin 1976;
 Ramirez Choza 1978
156. " Prosapia bicincta Say.
 America McWilliams and Cook 1975
157. Frog hopper
Prosapia simulans Wlk.
 Mexico Enkerlin and Schwartz 1977-78
158. " Prosapia sp
 Hemiptera:Cicadellidae
 Mexico McWilliams and Cook 1975
159. Cicadellid
Apogonalia grossa Sign.
 Brazil Menzes 1978
160. " Atracta sp
 (Recorded on P. purpureum)
 India Sachan 1980

161. " Balclutha sp India Khurana and Ramakrishnan 1974
162. " Cicadella spectra Dist. India Sharma and Davies 1982; Maiti 1982
163. Leaf hopper Cicadulina bipunctella Mats. India AICMIP 1971
164. " C. mbila Naude South Rensburg 1982
Africa
165. " Cicadulina sp India Verma 1980; Sachan 1980
(Also recorded on P. purpureum)
166. " Empoasca punjabensis Pruthi India Pruthi 1940
167. " Kella mimica Dist. India Maiti 1982
(Recorded on P. miliare)
168. " Nephotettix nigropictus Stal India Dhawan and Sajjan 1977
(Recorded on Echinochloa crugalli and Paspalum distichum)
169. " Nephotettix spp India Mukhopadhaya et al. 1978
(Recorded on E. colonum)
170. " Nesoclutha pallida Evans Australia Greber 1979a
(Recorded on E. coracana and E. indica)
171. " Nisia atrovenosa Leth. India Maiti 1982
(Recorded on P. miliare)
172. " Recilia mica Kramer Ivory Chenon 1979
(Also recorded on Paspalum sp)
173. " Thaia subrufa Motsch. India Gowda et al. 1983
(Recorded on E. coracana)
174. " Zygina sp India AICMIP 1967
175. Maize leaf hopper Zyginidia guyumi Ahmed India Brar and Singh 1981
(Also recorded on D. sanguinalis, E. indica, and S. italica)
176. " Hemiptera:Cixiidae America Reinert 1977, 1980; Tsai and Kirsch 1978
Myndus (Haplaxius) crudus van D.
(Recorded on Paspalum notatum and Panicum purpurascens)
177. " Hemiptera:Coreidae Sudan Schautterer 1969
178. " Anoplocnemis curvipes Fab. Japan Ito 1982
Cletus punctiger Dallas

179. " C. signatus Walk. (Recorded on E. crusgalli) India Reddy and Davies 1979
180. " Cletus sp. " India Reddy and Davies 1979
181. " Mirperus jaculus Thnb. " Sudan Schutterer 1969
182. " Hemiptera: Cydnidae
Laodelphax striatella Fall. " Africa Hill 1975; Conti 1980
(Also recorded on S. italica) Italy
183. Rice brown Nilaparvata lugens Stal. " Philippines Saxena and Pathak 1979
plant hopper (Recorded on E. crusgalli)
184. Shoot bug Peregrinus " India Cherian and Kylasam 1936;
(=Dicranotropis= Chelliah and Basheer 1965;
Pundalouya) Rao 1923
maidis Asha.
185. Leaf hopper Sogatella furcifera Horvth. " India Meiti 1982; Vaidya and Kalode 1981
(Recorded on P. miliare and E. colonum)
186. " S. kolophon Kirk. " Australia Greber 1979b
(Recorded on D. decumbens)
187. Hemiptera: Fulgoridae
Protista moesta West. " India Nair 1975
188. Sugarcane Pyrrilla perpusilla Wik. " India Jotvani et al. 1969b;
leaf hopper Kushwaha et al. 1980
189. Chinch bug Blissus leucopterus Say " America Reis et al. 1976;
Adults and nymphs suck sap from Lamp and Holtzer 1980; Starke
tender leaves. et al. 1982b; Wilson and
(Also recorded on P. virgatum) Burton 1980
190. Hemiptera: Pseudococcidae
Brevinnia rebi Ldgr. " America USDA 1977
191. Heterococcus nigeriensis " Nigeria Harris 1960
Williams
192. Helicococcus sumervillei " Australia Brookes 1978
sp n. (Recorded on P. dilatatum)
Hymenoptera: Formicidae

193. Leaf cutting Atta laevigata Forel. ant
Ants cut off the leaves
(Recorded on Paspalum notatum)
Guyana Cherrett et al. 1974
194. " Acromyrmex landolti
Fracticornis Forel.
(Recorded on P. maximum and
D. smutsi)
Venezuela
Paraguay
Fowler and Robinson 1977;
Cherrett et al. 1974;
Labrador et al. 1972
- Orthoptera:Acrididae
195. Grasshopper Acrida exaltata Wik.
The hoppers feed on emerging
seedlings and leaves. In case of
severe damage, the crop may have
to be resown.
India Sharma and Davies 1982;
Maiti 1982; Shah and garg 1982
196. " Acrotylus humbertianus
Sauss.
(Also recorded on P. miliare
and E. frumantacea)
India Reddy and Davies 1979
197. " Acrotylus sp
(Recorded on E. coracana)
Uganda Darling 1946
198. " Aiolopus simulatrix
simulatrix Walk.
(Recorded on P. miliare)
India Reddy and Davies 1979;
Maiti 1982
199. " A. tamulus Fab.
India Nair 1975
200. " Atractomorpha crenulata
Fab.
(Also recorded on E. frumantacea)
India AICMIP 1966; Shah and Garg 1982
201. " Cataloipus sp
Sudan Popov 1959
202. " Cantantops axillaris
axillaris Thnb.
Sudan Schmutterer 1969
203. " C. erubescens Walk.
India Reddy and Davies 1979
204. " C. metanostictus Sch.
(Recorded on E. coracana)
Uganda Darling 1946
205. " Cantantops sp
Nigeria Dorow 1978
206. Surface grasshopper Chrotogonus oxypterus
Blanch.
India Kevan 1954
207. " C. trachypterus Blanch.
(Also recorded on E. coracana)
India Coleman 1920; Kevan 1954;
Gupta 1972; Verma et al. 1968
208. Grasshopper C. senegalensis abyssinicus
Boliv.
(Recorded on E. coracana)
Uganda Kevan 1954
209. " Chrotogonus spp
West Africa
Ndoye et al. 1986

210. Deccan wingless grasshopper
Colemania sphenarioides Boliv.
(Also recorded on E. coracana)
India Subramanyam 1941; Iyer 1932
211. Grasshopper
Cyrtacanthacris ranacea Stoll.
India Nair 1975
212. "
C. tatarica Linn.
India Reddy and Davies 1979
213. "
Epactomia tamulus Fab.
India Nair 1975
214. "
E. dorsalis Fab.
India Nair 1975
215. "
Eyrepocnemis alacris alacris Serv.
India Reddy and Davies 1979; Muraligrangan 1978
216. "
Gastrimargus africanus Sauss
India Reddy and Davies 1979
217. Paddy grass hopper
Hieroglyphus banian Fab.
(Also recorded on E. frumantacea)
India Nair 1975; Shah and Garg 1982; Bose et al. 1975
218. Grasshopper
H. daganensis Kraus.
Sudan Popov 1959; Dorow 1978; West Schmutterer 1969; Ndoye et al. 1986
Africa
219. Paddy grasshopper
H. nigrorepletus Boliv.
India Rao and Cherian 1940; Roonwal 1945; Rizvi et al. 1975; Joshi et al. 1976; Peshwani 1960
220. Grasshopper
Humbe tenuicornis Sch.
Uganda Darling 1946
221. "
Kraussaria angulifera Kraus.
Nigeria Dorow 1978; Oyidi 1975; Popov 1959; Sudan Bindra and Amatobi 1981
222. Migratory locust
Locusta migratoria migratorioides R. and F.
(Also recorded on Echinochloa stagnina, Cenchrus diflorus, and Panicum anabaptistum)
Mali Hargreaves 1939; Ba-Angood 1977; Uganda Chabuike 1979; Descamps 1961; Sudan Schmutterer 1969
223. Grasshopper
Oedaleus nigeriensis Uv.
(Also recorded on E. coracana)
Africa Mallamaire 1948; Dorow 1978; Ndoye et al. 1986
224. "
O. senegalensis Kraus.
Africa Mallamaire 1948; Bhatia and Ahluwalia 1962, 1966; Schmutterer 1969; Boys 1978; Ndoye et al. 1986
225. "
Oedaleus sp
(Recorded on E. coracana)
Uganda Darling 1946
226. "
Orthacris simulans Boliv.
India Jotwani and Butani 1978
227. "
Orthacris sp
India Fletcher 1914
228. "
Oxya chinensis Thunb.
India Nair 1975

229. " O. fuscovitata Marsch. (Also recorded on E. frumantacea) India Sharma and Davies 1982; Shah and Garg 1982
230. " O. nitidula Walk. India Reddy and Davies 1979
231. " Oxyina bidentata Willem. India Verma 1980
232. " Paracomacris sp (Recorded on E. coracana) Uganda Darling 1946
233. " Patanga succincta Linn. India Reddy and Davies 1979
234. " Pyrgomorpha bispinosa Wlk. India Reddy and Davies 1979
235. " Roduniella sp (Recorded on E. coracana) Uganda Darling 1946
236. Desert locust Schistocerca gregaria Forsk. Polyphagous. India Maxwell-Darling 1936; Rao 1938; Bhatia 1940; Haroon Khan 1945; Kennedy 1939; Ba-Angood 1977; Jannone 1953; Jackson et al. 1978
237. Grasshopper Spathosternum prasiniferum Wlk. Nymphs and adults defoliate the crop. India Iqbal and Aziz 1975
238. " Sumba sp (Recorded on E. coracana) Uganda Darling 1946
239. " Teratodus monticollis Cam. India Sharma and Davies 1982
240. " Zonocerus elegans Thunb. Uganda Dunbar 1969
241. " Z. variegatus Linn. West Africa Gahukar 1984
- Orthoptera:Gryllotalpidae
242. Cricket Brachytrypes protentosis Licht. India Yazdani 1982
243. " Scapsipedus marginatus Afzel and Brann. (Recorded on P. milliaceum) West Africa Gahukar 1984
244. " Scapteriscus acletus Rehn & Hebard America Beck and Skinner 1967
245. " S. vicinus Sud. (Recorded on P. notatum) America Walker and Deng 1982
- Orthoptera:Tettigonidae
246. Decticoidas brevipennis sp n. (Recorded on Eragrostis) Ethiopia Ragge 1977

abyssinica)

247. Grasshopper Homorocoryphus nitidulus vicinus Wik. " Tanganyika Swaine 1969; Harris 1943
- Lepidoptera:Arctiidae
248. Hairy caterpillar Asacta lineola Fab. India Mair 1975
Feeds on leaves resulting in defoliation.
249. " A. albihiriga Walk. (Recorded on P. scrobiculatum) India Racbie and Peters 1977
(Recorded on E. coracana)
250. " A. meloneyi Druca " Africa Vercambre 1976
251. Red hairy caterpillar A. morrei Butl. " India Bindra and Kittur 1956; Patel et al. 1966; Yadava et al. 1966; Pandey et al. 1970; Parihar 1979
252. Hairy caterpillar Cretonotus gangis Linn. " India Raghunath et al. 1978
(Recorded on E. coracana)
253. Bihar hairy caterpillar Diacrisia obliqua Walk. " India Jotwani and Butani 1978
(Also recorded on E. coracana)
254. Black hairy caterpillar Estigmene lactinea Cram. " India Mair 1975
(Recorded on E. coracana)
255. Leaf feeding caterpillar Eupterote translata Swin. " India Reddy and Davies 1979
(Recorded on D. decumbens)
256. " Encopera mitocera Turn. " Australia Quinlan et al. 1981
- Lepidoptera:Hapialidae
257. Rice skipper Pelopidas (Parnara) mathias Fab. " India Reddy and Davies 1979
258. Leaf feeding caterpillar Telicota colon-colon Fab. " India Reddy and Davies 1979
- Lepidoptera:Limacodidae
259. " Thoesa aperiens Wik. " India Mair 1975
(Recorded on E. coracana)
- Lepidoptera:Lymantriidae
260. " Dasychira mendosa Hb. " India Reddy and Davies 1979

261. " Psalis pennatula Hb. " " India Fletcher 1914; Reddy and Davies 1979
- Lepidoptera: Noctuidae
262. Cutworm Agrotis flammata Schiff. Damage young seedlings by cutting them at base and feed on leaves. India FAO 1972
263. " A. ypsilon Hufn. " " India Hushing and Turppin 1977; America Reddy and Davies 1979
264. " A. segetum D. & S. " " India Nair 1975
265. " Anticarsia irrotata Fab. Feed on leaves. India Nair 1975
266. " Hyposidra talaca Hufn. " " India Nair 1975
267. Mocis latipes Gue. " " Brazil Lourencao et al. 1982; Silva and Neves, 1984
(Recorded on P. maximum,
P. notatum and
P. purpoureum)
268. Oriental armyworm Mythimna separata Wlk. Larvae feed on leaves. Asia Ueno, 1930; Anon, 1976, 1977a; During outbreaks there may be Rai 1971; Bindra and Singh 1973; complete defoliation of the Australia Balasubramanian et al. 1975; Sharma and Davies 1982, 1983; Sharma et al. 1982; Paul 1982; Shah and Garg 1982.
269. Armyworm M. (Viettenia) compta Moore India Kalode et al. 1971
270. " M. convectora Wlk. " " Australia Franzmann 1973b
271. " M. loreyi Dup. " " West Ndoye et al. 1986; Africa Sharma et al. 1982; Jhaveri 1920 India
272. Leaf caterpillar Naranga acnescens Moore " " Philippines Pantua 1984
(Recorded on E. indica)
273. " Plusia signata Fab. " " India Rangarajan et al. 1974; Godse and Patil 1979; Mahanasundram 1972
(Also recorded on E. coracana)
274. " Pseudaletia sequax Fran. (Recorded on P. clandestinum) Brazil Pereira 1980
275. " Remigia frugalis Fab. " " India Nair 1975
276. African armyworm Spodoptera exempta Wlk. (Also recorded on E. coracana) Africa Rachie and Peters 1977; Ndoye et al. 1986
277. " S. exigua Hb. " " India Phadke et al. 1978; Jotwani and Africa Butani 1978; Ndoye et al. 1986
278. Fall armyworm S. frugiperda Smith (Also recorded on E. indica and America Leuck 1970, 1972; Leuck et al. 1968; Leuck et al. 1977; Escalante 1974;

279. Egyptian cotton leaf worm
S. littoralis Boisd.
D. sanguinalis)
Africa Hill 1975
Piedra 1974; Ashley et al. 1980; Wiseman and Davies 1979; Pencee and Martin 1981, 1982.
280. Tobacco caterpillar
S. litura Fab.
(Also recorded on P. miliaceum)
India Nair 1975; Singh and Vyas 1973; Rao and Sreenivasulu 1984
281. "
282. Rice Swarming Caterpillar
S. mauritia Boisd.
(Also recorded on D. decumbens)
India Nair 1975; Broadley and Rogers 1978
Australia
- Lepidoptera:Pyralidae
283. Rice leaf folder
Cnaphalocrocis medinalis Guen.
(Recorded on E. coracana, P. miliaceum and P. scrobiculatum)
" "
284. Lesser corn stalk borer
Elasmopalpus lignosellus Zeller
(Recorded on D. sanguinalis; also attacks sorghum)
" "
285. Grass webworm
Herpetogramma licarsialis Wlk.
" "
286. Leaf roller
Marasmia suspicalis Wlk.
(Also recorded on D. decumbens)
India Reddy and Davies 1979
287. "
M. trapezalis Guen.
(Also recorded on S. italica, E. coracana and P. scrobiculatum)
India Jotwani and Butani 1978; Srivastava et al. 1970; Paul 1982; Shah and Garg 1982; Mohanasundaram 1972; Ayguipa and Sirlopu 1975
288. "
Lamoria adaptella Wlk.
" "
289. "
Loxostege (Pyrausta) massalis Wlk.
(Also recorded on D. decumbens)
India Verma 1980
India Verma 1980
Australia Broadley and Rogers 1978
290. "
Pyrausta machaeralis Wlk.
" "
291. European borer
Ostrinia nubilalis Hb.
(Recorded on P. miliaceum, S. viridis and S. faberii)
Europe Judenko, 1938; Kokot; 1962; Darozeri et al. 1977; Showers et al. 1980; Manojlovic 1984ab
- Lepidoptera:Saturniidae

292. Range caterpillar Hemileura oliviae Ckll. (Recorded on S. italica) America Capinera 1978
293. Thrips Thysanoptera:Thripidae
Baliothrips biformis Bagn. Lacerate the leaf tissue and feed on the excluding cell sap. The damaged areas dry up. (Recorded on P. repens and rice)
294. " Florithrips traegardhi Tryb. India Ananthakrishnan 1971
295. " Heliothrips indicus Bagn. (Also recorded on S. coracana) India Nair 1975
296. Mite Acarina:Cunaxidae
Rubroscirus atricanus sp n. Mites suck sap from the under surface of leaves. Ethiopia Meyer 1979
297. " Acarinia:Tetranychidae
Aceria cyanodeniensis Syed (Recorded on P. clandestinum) South Africa Meyer 1981
298. " A. milli sp n. (Recorded on P. miliaceum) China Xin and Deng 1982
299. " A. paratulpae sp n. (Recorded on P. miliaceum) China Xin and Deng 1982
300. " Eriophyes ladakhensis sp n. (Recorded on S. italica) India Rishi and Rather 1981
301. Acarina:Tarsonemidae
Stenotarsonemus biformis Bagn. (Recorded on E. crusgalli) India Sensapaty and Satpathy 1982
302. " S. panici sp n. (Recorded on P. repens) India Mohanasuddram 1984
303. Acarina:Tetranychidae
Oligonychus indicus Hirst. (Also recorded on Setaria viridis) India Sandhu et al. 1975; China Ma and Yuan 1980
304. " O. digitatus Davis (Recorded on P. dandestinum) Australia Schida 1981
305. Banks grass mite O. pratensis Banks (Recorded on S. viridis and P. alopecuroides) China Ma and Yuan 1980

1.4. EARHEAD PESTS

	Coleoptera:Carabidae				
306.	Beetle <u>Harpalus pensylvanicus</u> Deg.	Adults feed on the earhead (Recorded on <u>S. viridis</u>)	America	Lund and Turpin 1977	
	Coleoptera:Lycidae		India	Sharma and Davies 1982	
307.	<u>Lycostomus praestus</u> Fab.	"			
	Coleoptera:Meloidae				
308.	Blister beetle <u>Cylindrothorax (Lytta)</u> <u>audouini</u> Haag.	Adults feed on inflorescence	India	Reddy and Davies 1979	
309.	<u>C. tenuicollis</u> Pic.	"	India	Reddy and Davies 1979	
310.	<u>C. westermanni</u> Mkl.	"	West Africa	Gahukar 1984; Nwanze 1985	
311.	<u>Cyaneolytta actaeon</u> Lap.	"	India	Dhalival et al. 1974	
312.	<u>Cyaneolytta</u> spp	"	West Africa	Ndoye et al. 1986	
313.	<u>Decapotoma (Mylabris)</u> <u>affinis</u> Billp.	"	West Africa	Nwanze 1985	
314.	<u>Epicauta albovittata</u> Ges.	"	Africa	Hill 1975	
315.	<u>E. tenuicollis</u> Pall.	"	India	Singh 1967	
316.	<u>Lytta actaeon</u> Cast.	"	India	Nair 1975	
317.	<u>L. picta</u> Cast.	"	India	Nair 1975	
318.	<u>L. ruficollis</u> Oliv.	"	India	Nair 1975	
319.	<u>Mylabris holosericea</u> Klug.	"	West Africa.	Gahukar 1984	
320.	<u>M. ligata</u> Mars.	"	Sudan	Schmutterer 1969	
321.	<u>M. (Zonabris) pustulata</u> Thunb.	"	India	Ramamurty et al. 1970	
322.	<u>Mylabris</u> spp	"	Sudan	Schmutterer 1969	
323.	<u>Psalydolytta flavicornis</u> Mkl.	"	Africa	Nwanze 1985	
324.	<u>P. atricollis</u> Pic.	"	India	Reddy and Davies 1979	

347. " "R. laeviceps Arrow. India Yadava et al. 1973; Singh and Harjai 1970; Mishra et al. 1979
348. " "R. meriodionalis v. puncticolis Arrow. India Pal and Sharma 1973; Pal 1976, 1977
349. " "Spilophorus sp. India Verma 1980
- Diptera:Cecidomyiidae
350. Midge Contarinia bothrichloae sp n. Australia Harris 1979
Larvae feed on the developing grain.
(Recorded on Bothrichloa biadhii)
351. " "C. brevipalpis sp n. Australia Harris 1979
(Recorded on Eragrostis brownnei)
352. Pearl millet midge Geromyia penniseti Felt. India Felt 1920, 1921; Bedford 1936b; Coutin and Harris 1968; Pradhan 1971; Young 1971; Bhamburkar and Kaushikkar 1972; Thontadarya and Gowda 1974; Santharam et al. 1976; Harris 1984
Africa
353. Midge Diacraeus pennisetivora sp n. Senegal Deeming 1979
354. " "Hyperdiplosis sp (Recorded on D. sanguinalis)
America Beisler et al. 1977
355. " "Lasioptera sp (Also recorded on S. tomentosa)
Africa Coutin and Harris 1968; Gajare et al. 1977
India Gajare et al. 1977
356. " "Lestodiplosis sp (Also recorded on D. decumbens)
Africa Coutin and Harris 1968; Gajare et al. 1977
India
357. " "Stenodiplosis panici Rond. (Recorded on Panicum sp)
USSR Selivanova 1948; Skorokhodov 1947; Kamishnyyi 1935; Ostrovskii 1945, 1946
358. " "S. sorghiiHarris Senegal Coutin and Harris 1974
359. " "Stenodiplosis sp West Ndoye et al. 1986
Africa
- Hemiptera:Coreidae
360. Rice bug Leptocorisa (varicorinis) acuta Thunb. India Jotwani and Butani 1978; Kapoor et al. 1981
Adults and nymphs suck sap from the developing grain.
361. " "L. costalis H. & S. India Corbett 1923
Malasia

362.	"	<u>Leptocoris</u> sp	(Also recorded on <u>E. Colonom)</u>	India Pupae and Guinea	Jotwani and Butani 1978; Sands 1977
		Hemiptera:Lygaeidae			
363.		Lygaeid bug		India	Singh and Rai 1967b; Sharma and Davies 1982
		<u>Elasmolomus (Aphanus)</u> <u>sordidus</u> Fab.	"		
364.	"	<u>Graptostethus servus</u> Fab.	"	India	Reddy and Davies 1979
365.	"	<u>Lygaeus mimus</u> Stal.	"	Sudan	Schmutterer 1969
366.	Dusky cotton bug	<u>Oxycarenus laetus</u> Kir.	"	India	Singh and Jotwani 1971; Visakantaiah et al. 1972
367.	"	<u>Oxycarenus</u> sp	"	India	Reddy and Davies 1979
368.	"	<u>Peritrechus fraternus</u> Uml.	(Recorded on <u>Panicum</u> sp)	America	USDA 1978
369.	Milkweed bug	<u>Spilostethus pandurus</u> Scop.	"	Punjab	Sandhu et al. 1974a; Visakantaiah and Gowda 1973
370.	"	<u>Sbilostethus</u> spp	"	India West Africa	Sharma and Davies 1982; Gahukar 1984; Ndoye et al. 1986
		Hemiptera:Miridae			
371.	Head bug	<u>Calocoris angustatus</u> Leth.	"	India	Ballard 1916; Sharma and Davies 1982
372.	"	<u>Campylomma livida</u> Reut.	"	India	Sundaran 1983
373.	"	<u>Campylomma</u> sp.	"	India	Sharma and Davies 1982
374.	"	<u>Creontiades pallidus</u> Ramb.	"	India Sudan	Sharma and Davies 1982; Schmutterer 1969; Sundaran 1983
375.	"	<u>Eurystylus bellevoeyi</u> Put. and Reut.	"	India	Sharma and Davies 1982
376.	Mirid bug	<u>Lygus militarius</u> Fab.	"	India	Kapoor et al. 1981
377.	"	<u>L. simonyi</u> Reut.	(Mainly a pest on young seedling of (<u>E. coracana</u>)	Uganda	Rachie and Peters 1977
378.	"	<u>Megacoelum stramineum</u> Wlk.	"	India	Verma 1980
379.	"	<u>M. esmedorae</u> Ballard	"	India	Sundaran 1983
380.	"	<u>Taylorilygus vosseleeri</u> Popp.	"	Africa	Hill 1975

Hemiptera: Pentatomidae

381. Stink bug Agonoscelis nubila Fab. (Adults and nymphs suck sap from India Nair 1975
the developing grain. Also feed
on other tender parts of the plant.)
383. " A. (versicolor) pubescens Thn. (Also recorded on P. miliare West Africa
and E. frumantacea) Gahukar 1984; Ndoye et al. 1986
385. " A. rubrofasciatus Fab. India Nair 1975;
West Gahukar 1984
Africa
386. " Aspavia armigera Fab. West Gahukar 1984; Ndoye et al. 1986
Africa
387. " Aspongopus janus Wlk. India Verma 1980
388. Painted bug Bagrada cruciferarum Kirk. India Visakantaiah et al. 1972
389. " B. hilaris Burm. India Tayade et al. 1976; Sandhu 1975;
Sandhu et al. 1974; Gupta and
Gupta 1970
390. " Calidea spp. West Gahukar 1984
Africa
391. " Diploxys spp. "
392. Stink bug Dolycoris indicus Stal. India Reddy and Davies 1979; Maiti 1982;
Shah and Garg 1982
(Also recorded on P. miliare
and E. rumantacea)
393. " Eridema pulchrurus West. India Nair 1975
394. " Eusarcocoris guttifer Th. India Nair 1975
395. " Menida histrio Fab. India Nair 1975
396. " Menida sp. India Reddy and Davies 1979
397. Green bug Nezara graminea Fab. India Nair 1975
398. " N. viridula Linn. India Reddy and Davies 1979
West Ndoye et al. 1986
Africa
399. " Nezara sp. India Maiti 1982; Shah and Garg 1982
(Also recorded on P. miliare and
E. frumantacea)

400.	Stink bug	<u>Piezodorus bybneri</u> Gmel.	"	India	Reddy and Davies 1979
401.	"	<u>P. rubrofasciatus</u> Fab.	"	India	Nair 1975
402.	"	<u>Tessaratomia</u> sp	"	India	Reddy and Davies 1979
		Hemiptera:Pyrrhocoridae			
403.	Red cotton bug	<u>Dysdercus cingulatus</u> Fab.	"	India	Ahmed 1979
404.	"	<u>D. koenigi</u> Fab.	"	India	Reddy and Davies 1979
405.	"	<u>D. supersticiosus</u> Fab.	"	Nigeria Sudan	Geering 1952; Schmutterer 1969
406.	"	<u>D. voelkeri</u> Sch.	"	West Africa	Nwanze 1985
407.	"	<u>Dysdercus</u> sp	"	Africa	Golding 1928
		Hymenoptera:Formicidae			
408.	Ant	<u>Messor barbarus</u> Linn.	"	Sudan	Schmutterer 1969
409.	"	<u>M. galla</u> Emery	"	Ivory Coast	Levieux and Diomande 1978
410.	"	<u>M. regalis</u> Emery	"	"	"
411.	"	<u>Pheidole bicarinata</u> <u>longula</u> Emery	"	America	Ballard and Pruess 1979
		Lepidoptera:Arctiidae			
412.	Head Caterpillar	<u>Celama analis</u> Willeman & West	"	India	Reddy and Davies 1979
413.	"	<u>C. internella</u> Fab.	"	India	Nair 1975
414.	"	<u>Celama</u> spp	"	West Africa	Gahukar 1984; Ndoye et al. 1986
		Lepidoptera:Cosmopterygidae			
415.	"	<u>Pyroderces (Sathrobrota)</u> <u>simplex</u> Wilm.	"	India West Africa	Munshi and Mecci 1971; Sandhu et al. 1977; Anon. 1982; Ndoye et al. 1986
		Lepidoptera:Gelechiidae			
416.	"	<u>Anarsia</u> sp	"	India	David et al. 1962; Sharma and Davies 1982

Cut off seeds and carry them.

(Recorded on P. seribnerianum)

Feed on developing grain on the earhead.

417. " Lepidoptera: Heliodinidae
Stathmopoda theoris Meyr. (Also recorded on E. coracana) India Nair 1975
418. Tent hairy caterpillar Lepidoptera: Lymantriidae
Euproctis scintillans Wlk. India Nair 1975
419. " E. subnotata Wlk. India Jotwani and Butani 1978
421. " Euproctis sp. India Reddy and Davies 1979
422. " Prothesia (Euproctis) (virguncula Wlk.) (Also recorded on E. coracana)
xanthathoea Coll. India David et al. 1962; Vaish and Sharma 1971; Sandhu et al. 1974c; Reddy and Davies 1979
423. Head caterpillar Lepidoptera: Noctuidae
Azazia rubricans Boisd. India Guruswamy Raja and Natarajan 1974
424. " Eublemma sillicula Swin. (Recorded on P. scrobiculatum) India David et al. 1962; Jotwani et al. 1966
425. " E. gayneri Roths. Africa Anon. 1982; Schmutterer 1969; India Ndoye et al. 1986
426. Bollworm Heliothis armigera Hb. (Also recorded on E. coracana) India David et al. 1962; Vishakantiah 1972; Nagesh Chandra 1982; Africa Schmutterer 1969; Singh et al. 1982; Ndoye et al. 1986
427. American bollworm H. zea Boddie America Burton et al. 1977; Leuck et al. 1977
428. Head Caterpillar Masalia bimaculata pluritelifora Berio. Larvae feed on inflorescence and grains in a spiral manner. Senegal Ndoye 1979
429. " M. cheesmanae Cheesmanae Sey. Senegal Ndoye 1979
430. " M. decorata albiseriata Druce. Africa Seymour 1972
431. " M. decorata metarhoda Druce. Africa Seymour 1972
432. " M. galathae galathae Wall. Africa Seymour 1972
433. " M. rubristria rubristria Hmps. Africa Seymour 1972
434. " M. terracottoides Roth. Africa Seymour 1972

435.	"	Masalia sp	"	Africa	Vercambre 1978; Seymour 1972
436.	"	<u>Raghuva albipunctella</u> De Joannis	"	Africa	Ndoye 1979
437.	"	<u>R. bordati</u> sp n.	"	Africa	Laporte 1977
438.	"	<u>R. brenierei</u> Lap.	"	Africa	Laporte 1977
439.	"	<u>R. graminivora</u> Lap.	"	Africa	Laporte 1977; Ajay 1984
440.	"	<u>R. stigmata</u> Hmps.	"	Senegal	Ndoye 1979
441.	"	<u>R. vercamberci</u> sp n.	"	Senegal	Laporte 1977
442.	"	<u>Raghuva</u> sp	"	Africa	Vercambre 1978
443.	"	<u>Simplicia robustalis</u> Gm.	"	India	AICMIP 1967
444.	"	<u>Lepidoptera:Pyralidae</u> <u>Cryptoblabe angustipennella</u> Hmps.	"	India	Nair 1975
445.	"	<u>C. gnidiella</u> Mill.	"	India	Reddy and Davies 1979; Srivastava and Singh 1973; Patel et al. 1981
446.	"	<u>Cryptoblabe</u> sp	"	India	David et al. 1962
447.	"	<u>Stenochroia elongella</u> Hmps.	"	India	David et al. 1962; Nair 1975
448.	"	<u>Lepidoptera:Tortricidae</u> <u>Cacoesia epicyrta</u> Meyr.	"	India	Nageshchandra 1982; David et al. 1962
449.	"	<u>Thysanoptera:Thripidae</u> <u>Anaphothrips (flavinctus)</u> <u>soudanensis</u> Tryb.	"	India	Ananthkrishnan and Jagdish 1968; Kumar and Ananthkrishnan 1984
450.	"	<u>A. ramakrishna</u> Karny	"	India	Karny 1926
451.	"	<u>Chaetanaphothrips orchidii</u> Moulton	"	French West Indies	Delattre and Torregrossa 1978
452.	"	<u>Caliothrips indicus</u> Bagn.	"	India	Muraleedharan and Ananthkrishnan 1978
453.	"	<u>C. graminicola</u> Bagn. and Cam.	"	India	Kumar and Ananthkrishnan 1984

Feed on earheads in the stacks. India
(Recorded on E. coracana)

Feed on developing grain in the India
earhead.

(Also recorded on E. coracana)

(Recorded on E. coracana)

(Also recorded on E. coracana)

(Recorded on E. coracana)

Scrap the panicle/leaf tissue
and feed on exuding cell sap.

(Also recorded on P. maximum)

(Recorded on Brachiaria
purpurascens)

(Recorded on P. maximum)

454.	"	<u>Chirothrips maxicanus</u> Crawford	"	(Also recorded on <u>Chloris barbata</u>)	India	Ananthakrishnan and Tirumalai 1977
455.	"	<u>Haplothrips ganglbaueri</u> Sch.	"	(Also recorded on <u>Echinochloa crusgalli</u>)	India	Ananthakrishnan and Thangavelu 1976; Jotwani and Butani 1978
456.	"	<u>H. gowdeyi</u> Frank.	"		India	Jotwani and Butani 1978
457.	"	<u>Thrips (Hawaiiensis Morg.) florum</u> Sch.	"		India	Jotwani and Butani 1978
458.	"		"		India	Verma 1980

Table 3. Extent of losses and incidence reported on some pests of millets

Insect	Crop	Avoidable		Country	Reference
		losses (%)	Incidence (%)		
A. ROOT PESTS					
<i>Arthrodes</i> sp.	<i>E. coracana</i>	-	25.0-100.0	India	Rangarajan, 1965
<i>Holotrichia</i> spp.	<i>P. americanum</i>	-	30.0-53.0	India	Rangarajan, 1966 Pradhan, 1971 Jotwani, 1978
B. SEEDLING AND SHOOT PESTS					
<i>Atherigona approximata</i>	<i>P. americanum</i>	9.2-39.0	-	India	Selvaraj <u>et al.</u> , 1974
		23.3-59.3	29.9-66.8	India	Natarajan <u>et al.</u> , 1973, 1974
		35.3	60.3	India	Singh and Jotwani, 1973
<i>Acigona ignefusalis</i>	<i>P. americanum</i>	-	7.44 larvae per 100 stems	Nigeria	Harris, 1962
		-	20.0	Senegal	Vercambre, 1976
C. FOLIAGE FEEDERS					
<i>Amsacta meloneyi</i>	<i>P. americanum</i>	-	30.0	Senegal	Vercambre, 1976
<i>Bagrada cruciferarum</i>	<i>P. americanum</i>	-	60 bugs/heed	India	Gupta and Gupta, 1970
<i>Euprctis virguncula</i>	<i>P. americanum</i>	-	19.0-32.0	India	Vaish and Sharma, 1971
<i>Lygeas civilis</i>	<i>P. americanum</i>	-	7-24 bugs/5 heads	India	Sandhu <u>et al.</u> , 1974a
<i>Marasmia trapezalis</i>	<i>P. americanum</i>	-	0.0-24.0	India	Pradhan, 1971
<i>Mythimna separata</i>	<i>E. Coracana</i>	-	47.0-53.0	India	Balasubramanian <u>et al.</u> , 1975
B. EARHEAD PESTS					
<i>Chiloloba acuta</i>	<i>P. americanum</i>	-	0-25 beetles/head	India	Srivastava <u>et al.</u> , 1971a
<i>Chirothrips maxicanus</i>	<i>P. americanum</i>	5.0-10.0	30-48 adults/head	India	Ananthakrishnan and Tirumalai, 1977
<i>Geromyia penniseti</i>	<i>P. americanum</i>	-	23-219 midges/head	India	Thontadarya and Gowda, 1974
<i>Heliothis armigera</i>	<i>P. americanum</i>	-	25.0-28.1	India	Vishakantalaiah, 1972
<i>Masalia</i> spp. and <i>Raghuva</i> spp.	<i>P. americanum</i>	25.0-50.0	-	Senegal	Vercambre, 1978
<i>Mylabris pustulata</i>	<i>P. americanum</i>	6.8	25.0-45.0	India	Ramamurty <u>et al.</u> , 1970
<i>Rhinyptia</i> spp. Storage pests	<i>P. americanum</i>	5.0-50.0	-	India	Singh and Harjai, 1970
		-	14.8	India	Verma, 1979
		10-60	-	India, Africa	Rachie and Majmudar, 1980
E. VERTEBRATE PESTS					
Birds	<i>P. americanum</i>	10.0	-	India	Jain and Ishwar Prakash, 1974
		\$ 4.5 million	-	Senegal	Bruggers and Ruelle, 1981
		\$ 6.3 million	-	Sudan	Anon. 1981
Rodents	Cereals	20	-	Asia, Africa	Hopf <u>et al.</u> , 1976

Table 4. Natural enemies of insect pests feeding on millets

Insect	Natural enemy	Remarks	Reference
<u>Acigona ignefusalis</u>	Diptera:Chloropidae <u>Ceratopogon risbeci</u> Sequy	Larval parasite	Ndoye et al. 1986
	<u>Epimadiza</u> sp	Larval-pupal parasite	Ndoye et al. 1986
	Diptera:Phoridae <u>Aphiochaeta</u> sp	Larval parasite	Ndoye et al. 1986
	Diptera:Tachinidae <u>Sturmiopsis parasitica</u> Tns.	Larval-pupal parasite	Harris 1962; Ndoye et al. 1986
	Hymenoptera:Bethylidae		
	<u>Goriozus procerae</u> Risb.	Larval parasite	Gahukar 1984; Ndoye et al. 1986
	<u>Goniozus</u> sp	Diapausing larvae	Harris 1962
	Hymenoptera:Braconidae <u>Apanteles sesamiae</u> Cam.	Larval parasite	Ndoye et al. 1986
	<u>Euvipio rufa</u> SzepI.	"	Ndoye et al. 1986
	<u>E. fascialis</u> SzepI.	"	Ndoye et al. 1986
	<u>Glyptomorpha</u> sp	Pupal parasite	Ndoye et al. 1986
	<u>Rhaconotus soudanensis</u> Wlkn.	Larval parasite	Ndoye et al. 1986
	Hymenoptera:Chalcididae <u>Hyperchalcidia soudanensis</u> Stef.	Pupal parasite	Harris 1962; Ndoye et al. 1986
	Hymenoptera:Encyrtidae <u>Euzkadia</u> sp (? <u>integralis</u> Merc.)	Larval parasite	Ndoye et al. 1986
	Hymenoptera:Eulophidae <u>Pediobus furvus</u> Gah.	Pupal parasite	Ndoye et al. 1986
	<u>Tetrastichus atriclavus</u> Wstn.	"	Harris 1962; Ndoye et al. 1986
	Hymenoptera:Ichneumonidae <u>Chasmias</u> sp	Pupal parasite	Ndoye et al. 1986
	<u>Denticiasmias busseolae</u> Hein	"	Ndoye et al. 1986
	<u>Glyptomorpha</u> sp	Larval parasite	Harris 1962
	<u>Syzeuctus</u> spp	"	Ndoye et al. 1986
	Hymenoptera:Scelionidae		

<u>Platylenomus hylas</u> Nixon	Egg parasite	Ndoye et al. 1986
Acarina:Pyemotidae		
Pyremotes ventricosus Newfs.	External parasite of diapausing larvae	Harris 1962; Ndoye et al. 1986
Fungus		
Metarrhizium anisopliae (Met.) Sorokia	Infects larvae	Harris 1962; Ndoye et al. 1986
Hymenoptera: Braconidae		
Bracon sp	Recorded on pupae	Reddy and Puttaswamy 1981
Nematode		
Mermis sp	Recorded on larvae	Bindra and Kittur 1956
Coleoptera: Coccinellidae		
Brumoides suturalis F.	Feeds on nymphs and adults	Reddy and Davies 1979
Illeis indica Timb.	"	Reddy and Davies 1979
Menochilus sexmaculatus Fab.	"	Reddy and Davies 1979
Diptera: Agromyzidae		
Leucopis sp	"	Cherian 1933
Hymenoptera: Eulophidae		
Tetrastichus ayvari Roh.	Larval parasite	Reddy and Davies 1979
Phanerotoma sp	Larval parasite	Anon. 1981a
Hymenoptera: Bethyridae		
Goniozus sp	"	Bonzi 1982
Hymenoptera: Braconidae		
Apanteles sesamiae Cam.	"	Bonzi 1982
Hymenoptera: Bethyridae		
Brachymeria sp	"	Bonzi 1982
Diptera: Tachinidae		
Carcellia sp	"	Reddy and Davies 1979
Pseudaisomyia sp	Larval or pupal parasite	Reddy and Davies 1979
Halidaya luteicornis Wlk.	Larval parasite	Reddy and Davies 1979
Sturmiopsis inferens Tns.	"	Nair 1975
<u>Agromyza</u> sp		
<u>Amsacta moorei</u>		
<u>Aphids</u>		
<u>Celama analis</u>		
<u>Chilo diffusilineus</u>		
<u>Chilo partellus</u>		

<u>Thelaira</u> sp	"	Nair 1975
Hymenoptera: Bethyilidae		
<u>Goniozus indicus</u> Msb.	"	Nair 1975
Hymenoptera: Braconide		
<u>Apanteles colemani</u> Vier.	"	Nair 1975
<u>Apanteles flavipes</u> Cam.	"	Anon. 1981a
<u>Bracon albolineatus</u> Cam.	"	Anon. 1981a
<u>Bracon chinensis</u> Szel.	"	Bhatnagar and Davies 1979a
<u>Chelonus narayani</u> S. Rao	"	Reddy and Davies 1979
<u>Glyptomorpha deesae</u> Cam.	"	Nair 1975
<u>Iphiaulax spilocephalus</u> Cam.	"	Reddy and Davies 1979
<u>Iphiaulax</u> sp	"	Nair 1975
<u>Rhaconotus roslinensis</u> Lal	"	Nair 1975
<u>Stenobracon deesae</u> Cam.	"	Nair 1975
<u>Stenobracon nicevilles</u> Bing.	"	Nair 1975
Hymenoptera: Chalcididae		
<u>Hyperchalcidia soudanensis</u> Steff.	Pupal parasite	Reddy and Davies 1979
<u>Invreia</u> sp	"	Reddy and Davies 1979
Hymenoptera: Eulophidae		
<u>Tetrastichus ayari</u> Roh.	Pupal parasite	Reddy and Davies 1979
Hymenoptera: Ichneumonide		
<u>Centeterus alterneco-loratus</u> Cush.	"	Nair 1975
<u>Trathala flavo-orbitalis</u> Cam.	Larval parasite	Reddy and Davies 1979
<u>Xanthopimpla punctata</u> Fab.	Pupal parasite	Nair 1975
<u>Xanthopimpla punctator</u> Linn.	"	Nair 1975
<u>Xanthopimpla stemmator</u> Thunb.	"	Nair 1975
Hymenoptera: Scelionide		
<u>Telenomus</u> sp	Egg parasite	Bhatnagar and Davies 1979a

<u>Hymenoptera:Trichogrammatidae</u>				
<u>Trichogramma chilonis</u> Ishii	Egg parasite			Bhatnagar and Davies 1979a
<u>Trichogramma evanescens minutum</u> Riley	"			Nair 1975
<u>Trichogramma</u> sp	"			Nair 1975
<u>Coleoptera:Coccinellide</u>				
<u>Menochilus sexmasculatus</u> Fab.	Preys upon young larvae			Pradhan 1971
<u>Diptera:Bombylidae</u>				
<u>Systoechus</u> sp	Egg parasite			Nair 1975
<u>Coleoptera:Meloidae</u>				
<u>Zonabris</u> sp	"			Nair 1975
<u>Hymenoptera:Braconidae</u>				
<u>Apanteles creatonoti</u> Vier.	"			Reddy and Davies 1979
<u>Diptera:Tachinidae</u>				
<u>Carcelia</u> sp	Larval parasite			Sandhu et al. 1974
<u>Hymenoptera:Ichneumonidae</u>				
<u>Xanthopimpla</u> sp	Pupal parasite			Sandhu et al. 1974c
<u>Hemiptera:Anthocoridae</u>				
<u>Orius</u> sp	Predator			Coutin and Harris 1968
<u>Hymenoptera:Ceraphronidae</u>				
<u>Aphanogmus</u> sp	Endoparasite			Coutin and Harris 1968
<u>Hymenoptera:Eulophidae</u>				
<u>Tetrastichus diplosidis</u>	Larval pupal parasite			Ndoye et al. 1986
<u>Tetrastichus</u> sp				Coutin and Harris 1968
<u>Hymenoptera:Eupelmidae</u>				
<u>Eupelmus popa</u> Gir	"			Ndoye et al. 1986
<u>Eupelmus</u> sp	"			Coutin and Harris 1968
<u>Hymenoptera:Platygasteridae</u>				
<u>Estigmene lactinea</u>				
<u>Euproctis virguncula</u>				
<u>Geromyia penniseti</u>				

<u>Platygaster</u> sp	"	Coutin and Harris 1968
Hemiptera:Anthocoridae		
<u>Orius</u> sp	Predator	Reddy and Davies 1979
Diptera:Tachinidae		
<u>Goniophthalmus halli</u> Mes.	Larval parasite	Anon. 1981c
Hymenoptera:Bethylidae		
<u>Goniozus</u> sp	"	Anon. 1981c
Hymenoptera:Braconidae		
<u>Microchelonus curvimaculatus</u> Cameron	"	Anon. 1981c
Hymenoptera:Ichneumonidae		
<u>Barichneumon</u> sp	"	Anon. 1981c
<u>Campoletis chlorideae</u> Uchida	"	Anon. 1981c
<u>Eriborus argenteopilosus</u> Cameron	"	Anon. 1981c
<u>Temelucha</u> sp	"	Anon. 1981c
Hymenoptera:Trichogrammatidae		
<u>Trichogramma</u> sp	Egg parasite	Bhatnagar 1983
Diptera:Sarcophagidae		
<u>Sarcophaga schoemani</u> Zumpt.	Adult parasite	Bindra and Amatobi 1981
Hymenoptera:Scelionidae		
<u>Scelio howardi</u> Gav.	"	Bindra and Amatobi 1981
Diptera:Tachinidae		
<u>Carcelia</u> sp	Larval/pupal parasite	Sharma et al. 1982
<u>Exorista xanthaspis</u> Wied.	"	Sharma et al. 1982
<u>Palearista solemnis</u> Wlk.	"	Sharma et al. 1982
<u>Palearista</u> sp	"	Sharma et al. 1982
Hymenoptera:Braconide		
<u>Apanteles ruficornis</u> Hal.	Larval parasite	Sharma et al. 1982
<u>Disophrys</u> sp	"	Sharma et al. 1982
<u>Haplothrips ganglbaueri</u>		
<u>Heliothis armigera</u>		
<u>Kraussaria angulifera</u>		
<u>Mythimna separata</u>		

<u>Hymenoptera:Ichneumonidae</u>			
<u>Metopius</u> sp	"		Sharma et al. 1982
<u>Hymenoptera:Bethylidae</u>			
<u>Goniozus marasmi</u> K.	"		Nair 1975
<u>Coleoptera:Coccinellidae</u>			
<u>Stethorus pauperculus</u> Wse.	Predator		Reddy and Davies 1979
<u>Acarina:Phytosoiidae</u>			
<u>Amblyseius benzamini</u> sp n	"		Schida 1981
<u>Diptera:Tachinidae</u>			
<u>Thecocarcelia</u> sp	Pupal parasite		Reddy and Davies
<u>Hymenoptera:Braconidae</u>			
<u>Apanteles</u> sp.	Larval parasite		Reddy and Davies 1979
'Glomeratus' group			
<u>Hymenoptera:Chalcididae</u>			
<u>Brachymeria</u> sp nr. (<u>eulopeae</u>) West.	"		Reddy and Davies 1979
<u>Hymenoptera:Eulophidae</u>			
<u>Ootetrastichus indicus</u> G.	Egg parasite		Nair 1975
<u>Hymenoptera:Mymaridae</u>			
<u>Anagrus</u> (=Paranagrus) <u>optabilis</u> Perk.	"		Nair 1975
<u>Diptera:Syrphidae</u>			
<u>Asarkina ericetorum</u> Fab.	Predator		Bonzi 1981
<u>Diptera:Tachinidae</u>			
<u>Carcellia</u> sp	Larval parasite		Reddy and Davies 1979
<u>Diptera:Bombyliidae</u>			
<u>Thyridanthrax</u> sp nr. <u>kappa</u> Bowden	Pupal parasite		Ndoye et al. 1986
<u>Diptera:Tachinidae</u>			
<u>Goniophthalmus halli</u> Mes.	Larval parasite		Gahukar 1985; Ndoye et al. 1986
<u>Hemiptera:Anthocosidae</u>			
<u>Marasmia trapezalis</u>			
<u>Oligonychus indicus</u>			
<u>Oligonychus digitatus</u>			
<u>Pelopidas mathias</u>			
<u>Peregrinus maidis</u>			
<u>Poophilus costalis</u>			
<u>Psalis pennatula</u>			
<u>Raghuva albipunctella</u>			

<u>Orius</u> sp	Predates on eggs and larvae	Ndoye et al
Hemiptera:Pentatomidae		
<u>Glypsus conspicuus</u> West.	Predates on larvae	Ndoye et al. 1986
Hemiptera:Reduviidae		
<u>Ectomocoris fenestratus</u> Flug.	Predates on larvae	Ndoye et al. 1986
Coleoptera:Carabidae		
<u>Chlaenius boisduvalli</u> Dejean	Predates on larvae	Ndoye et al. 1986
<u>C. dusaultii</u> Dufour	"	Ndoye et al. 1986
<u>Pheropsophus</u> sp nr. <u>lafertei</u> Arrow.	"	Ndoye et al. 1986
Hymenoptera:Bethylidae		
<u>Goniozus</u> sp	Larval parasite	Ndoye et al. 1986
Hymenoptera:Braconidae	"	"
<u>Apanteles</u> sp (ultor group)	"	Ndoye et al. 1986
<u>Bracon hebetor</u> Say	"	Gahukar 1985; Ndoye et al. 1986
<u>Cardiochiles</u> sp	"	Ndoye et al. 1986
Hymenoptera:Chalcididae		
Non-identified	"	Ndoye et al. 1986
Hymenoptera:Encyrtidae		
<u>Litomastix</u> sp	"	Ndoye et al. 1986
Hymenoptera:Eumenidae		
Non-identified	Predates on pupae	Ndoye et al. 1986
Hymenoptera:Formicidae		
Non-identified	"	Ndoye et al. 1986
Hymenoptera:Ichneumonidae		
<u>Hadromanus</u> sp	Pupal parasite	Ndoye et al. 1986
Hymenoptera:Trichogrammatidae		
<u>Trichogramma</u> sp	Egg parasite	Bhatnagar 1983

<u>Trichogrammatoidea</u> sp	"	Ndoye et al. 1986
Hymenoptera:Vespidae		
<u>Polistes</u> sp	Predates on larvae	Ndoye et al. 1986
Nematoda:Mermithidae		
<u>Hexameris</u> sp	Larval parasite	Ndoye et al. 1986
Fungus:		
<u>Aspergillus flavus</u> Link.	"	Ndoye et al. 1986
<u>Aspergillus</u> sp (ochraceous group)	"	Ndoye et al. 1986
Bacteria:		
<u>Bacillus thuringiensis</u>	"	Ndoye et al. 1986
Hymenoptera:Chalcididae		
<u>Brachymeria feae</u> Masi	Recorded from pupae	Harris 1962
Hymenoptera:Braconidae		
<u>Apanteles ruficrus</u> Haliday	Larval parasite	Gahan 1928
Diptera:Tachinidae		
<u>Sturmiopsis inferens</u> Tns.	Larval parasite	Bhatnagar and Davies 1979a; Anon. 1981a
Hymenoptera:Ichneumonidae		
<u>Xanthopimpla</u> sp	"	Nair 1975
Hymenoptera:Scelionidae		
<u>Telenomus</u> sp	Egg parasite	Nair 1975
Hymenoptera:Trichogrammatidae		
<u>Trichogramma minutum</u> Riley	"	Nair 1975
Hymenoptera:Eulophidae		
<u>Pediobius furvus</u> Gah.	Pupal parasite	Harris 1962
Hymenoptera:Eulophidae		
<u>Pediobius furvus</u> Gah.	"	Harris 1962
<u>Pediobius</u> sp near <u>hirtellus</u>	"	Harris 1962
<u>Sesamia calamistis</u>		
<u>Sesamias cretica</u>		
<u>Sesamia inferens</u>		
<u>Sesamia penniseti</u>		
<u>Sesamia poephaga</u>		

<u>Sesamia</u> sp			
Diptera: Tachinidae			
<u>Sturmiopsis parasitica</u> Tns.	"		Harris 1962
Hymenoptera: Braconidae			
<u>Apanteles flavipes</u> Cam.	Larval parasite		Nair 1975
<u>Apanteles sesamiae</u> Cam.	"		Harris 1962
<u>Bracon chinensis</u> Sze.	"		Nair 1975
Hymenoptera: Eulophidae			
<u>Pediobius furvus</u> Gah.	Pupal parasite		Harris 1962
<u>Tetrastichus atriclavus</u> Wstn.	"		Harris 1962
<u>Tetrastichus ayviri</u> Roh.	"		Harris 1962
Hymenoptera: Pteromalidae			
<u>Norbanus</u> sp	"		Harris 1962
Fungus			
<u>Nomuraea rileyi</u> (Farlow) Samson.			Phadke et al. 1978
<u>Spodoptera exigua</u>			

Table 5. Resistant/less susceptible lines of millets reported against various insect-pests

S.No.	Insect	Line	Remarks	Reference
1.	<u>A. ignefitalis</u>	Zongo INMB 106, INMB 218, INMB 155	Tolerant to stem borer	Gahukar 1984 Ndoye et al. 1986
2.	White grubs	IP Nos. 478, 476, 513, 256, 323, 213, 514, 253, 432, RSJ, 225, 467, HB-2, 375, 18A, J88, 23A, 205, 315, 427, 501, 242 2A and 314	Lines found highly promising under natural incidence of white grubs	Pradhan 1971
3.	<u>B. leucepterus</u>	Big red (<u>P. miliaceum</u>)	Tolerance	Wilson and Burton 1980
4.	<u>C. partellus</u>	A-10, A 21P1, A 63, A 66, A 163, A 280 and A 281 PES 172, KM 1, KM1 14, PR 202, LES 224, and IE 169 (<u>E. coracana</u>)	Least susceptible lines (<25% incidence) Less damaged	Sandhu et al. 1976 Kundu et al. 1980
5.	<u>S. inferens</u>	VR 94, C 180, PR 722 and S 81-10 PES 9, JNR 1008, KM 1, PES 224, HR 228, T 36B, PES 144, and KM 14 (<u>E. coracana</u>)	Less susceptible	Jotwani 1978 Kishore and Jotwani 1980
6.	<u>A. approximata</u>	23 D2A x H 403 suffered least and 628A x KS 75-7 highest incidence among 30 hybrids tested 5141A x PT 1939, IP 241, PT 1939, MS 6317, PT 1522, PT 1930, IP 863, PT 1836, and MS 6112 Tift 23 S	All hybrids were highly susceptible Less susceptible	Natarajan et al. 1973 Appadurai et al. 1981
7.	<u>S. frugiperda</u>	P 1176653 (<u>P. miliaceum</u>) Inbred 240 Gahi cultivar	Ovipositional non-preference related to the absence of foliage pubescence Resistant Resistant	Burton et al. 1977 Leuck et al. 1977 Wilson and Courteau 1984 Wiseman and Davies 1979
8.	<u>S. graminum</u>	Gahi 1	Moderately resistant	Leuck et al. 1968
9.	<u>M. separata</u>	Souga Local 4,700112, PIB 228, AND D 1051 I	Resistant	Stegmier and Harvey 1976
10.	<u>M. Maculosis</u>	NHB 5 HR 374, JAN 852, B7-43, PR 1044, PES 8, PES 176, Indaf 5, T20-1, PES 144, CO 10, and KM 14 (<u>E. coracana</u>)	Less damaged compared to the susceptible check SAR 57 Less damaged	Sharma and Davies 1982 Singh and Singh 1977 Kishore and Jotwani 1980
11.	<u>P. purpusilla</u>	IP Nos 22B, 36D, 44, 79, 214, 263, 1266,	Contained <1 egg mass/plant	Pradhan 1971

- 1301, 1345, 1395, and 1402
79, 1395, 263, 1307, J-98, 1301, 1402, 44
265, 23B and 1362
12. R. dominica
Chady
Considered promising
and contained
< 1 egg/mass plant
Jotwani 1978
Singhvi and Misra 1979
13. A. biseta
Nanshanghang
(*S. italica*)
Most resistant among
1585 lines tested
Cheng et al. 1983
14. A. approximata
JFB 801 AND JFB 812
Less susceptible
Pandey et al. 1985
15. A. millicaeae
PR 353, PR 356 AP, PR 359 AP, and PR 457
Less damaged
Shirole et al. 1982
16. S. simplex
A Nos 6, 10, 12, 21p, 22, 44, 48, 221,
227, 232, 278 Bulk, 291 and 296
No incidence
Sandhu et al. 1977
17. H. zea
Tif 23 S
Ovipositional
nonpreference due
absence of pubescence
of foliage
Burton et al. 1977
Leuck et al. 1977
18. Masalia sp
Ex-Bornu and Souna 3
Cereal type lines with
optimum floral density
are more susceptible
Vercambre 1976, 1978
19. Raghuva spp
Ex-Bornu and Souna 3
Resistant
Vercambre 1976, 1978
Ndoye et al. 1986
20. Thrips sp
Souna, 314 HK 78, ICMS 7819, ICMS 7838,
IBV 8001, H 24-38, Nigerian composite,
HKB Tif., CIVT, HXP, Zongo, Nieluvs,
Boudouma, IBMV 8302, INMG 52,
INMV 3001, SRM - Dori, P3 Kolo, ITV 8001,
Kassblaga, Yoiumee-Niai, Tars Yombo
< 10 Thrips/earhead
compared to >50 thrips/
head in SAR 116. Compact
headed genotypes were
generally less damaged
Sharma and Davies 1982
21. Birds
IP Nos 146, 88955, 207, 88964, 88974,
80990, 88991, 1658, 6161, RSK, and
23 D2 A x D 356
Suffered <30% damage
<10% damage
AICNIP 1972
Beri et al. 1969
22. O. indicus
SAR 849, P 285, P 1430, E 10, and
RSK
Hybrid bajra suffered
more damage
Jain and Ishwar Prakash
1974
Resistant
Sharma and Davies 1982

Table 6. Insect and mite pests of stored millets

S.no.	Common name	Scientific name	Nature of damage	Distribution	Reference
1.	Lesser grain borer	Coleoptera:Bostrichidae <u>Rhyzopertha dominica</u> Fab.	Destroys the whole grain	Cosmopolitan	Rachie and Majmudar 1980; Singhvi and Misra 1979; Gahukar 1984
2.	Rusty flour beetle	Coleoptera:Cucujidae <u>Cryptolestes ferrugineus</u> Step.	" (Recorded on <u>P. miliaceum</u>)	Canada	Singh 1972
3.	Rice weevil	Coleoptera:Curculionidae <u>Sitophilus oryzae</u> Lin.	Feed on the whole grain and reduce it to powder	Cosmopolitan	Oxley 1950; Kamal and Zewar 1973; Rachie and Majmudar 1980
4.	Maize weevil	<u>S. zeamais</u> Mots.	"	America	Meagher et al. 1982
5.	Khapra beetle	Coleoptera:Dermestidae <u>Trogoderma granarium</u> Evert.	"	India West Africa	Pringle 1976; Gahukar 1984
6.	Mercent beetle	Coleoptera:Silvanidae <u>Oryzaephilus mercator</u> Faust.	" (Also recorded on <u>P. miliaceum</u>)	Cosmopolitan	Sinha 1972; Reddy and Davies 1979
7.	Saw-toothed beetle	<u>O. surinamensis</u> Linn.	" (Also recorded on <u>P. miliaceum</u>)	"	Singh 1972; Reddy and Davies 1979; Gahukar 1984
8.	Red flour beetle	Coleoptera:Tenebrionidae <u>Tribolium castaneum</u> Herbst.	Feed on cracked and whole grain	"	Reddy and Davies 1979; Meagher et al. 1982; Gahukar 1984
9.	Confused flour beetle	<u>T. confusum</u> Sacc.	" (Also recorded on <u>P. miliaceum</u>)	"	Sinha 1972; Reddy and Davies 1979; Gahukar 1984
10.	Embiid	Embiopora:Embiidae <u>Oligotoma humbertiana</u> Saus.	Feed on whole grain	India	Asaf Ali and Subramaniam 1973
11.	Angoumois grain moth	Lepidoptera:Gelechiidae <u>Sitotroga cerealella</u> Oliv.	Feed on cracked and whole grain	Cosmopolitan	Nair 1975; Reddy and Davies 1979; Gahukar 1984
12.	Rice moth	Lepidoptera:Pyralidae <u>Corcyra cephalonica</u> Staint.	"	"	Reddy and Davies 1979; Gahukar, 1984
13.	Almond moth	<u>Ephestia cautella</u> Hb.	"	"	AICMIP 1967; Gahukar 1984

- | | | | |
|----------------------|--|-----------------------------------|-----------------------|
| 14. Indian meal moth | <u>Plodia interpunctella</u> Hb. | " | Reddy and Davies 1979 |
| 15. -- | <u>Pyralis manihotalis</u> Guen. | India | Govindan et al. 1977 |
| | | (Recorded on <u>E. coracana</u>) | |
| 16. Mite | Acarina: Tyroglyphidae
<u>Acarus siro</u> Linn. | India | Reddy and Davies 1979 |
-

Table 7. Bird pests of millets

S.No.	Common name	Scientific name	Nature of damage	Distribution	Reference
Columbiformes:Columbidae					
1.	Blue rock pigeon	<u>Columba livia</u> Gme.	Eat grain in the field and stacks	India	Toor and Ramzan 1974 Bhatnagar et al. 1982b
2.	Dove	<u>Streptopelia decaocto decaocto</u> Fr.	"	India	Mehrotra and Bhatnagar 1979
3	Dove	<u>Streptopelia decaocto arabica</u> Neum.	"	Sudan India	Schmutterer 1969; Bhatnagar et al. 1982b
4.	Dove	<u>Streptopelia decaocto roseogrisea</u> Sund.	"	Sudan	Schmutterer 1969
5.	Mourning dove	<u>Streptopelia decipiens decipiens</u> Fisch.	"	West Africa	Schmutterer 1969
6.	Dove	<u>Streptopelia roseogriseus</u>	"	Sudan	Schmutterer 1969
7.	Dove	<u>Streptopelia turtur isabellina</u> Bp.	"	Senegal	Bruggers and Ruelle 1981
8.	Dove	<u>Streptopelia turtur turtur</u> Linn.	"	Sudan	Schmutterer 1969
9.	Vinaceous dove	<u>Streptopelia vinacea</u> Gme.	"	Nigeria Burkina Faso	Anon. 1977b; Manikowski 1984
10.	Laughing dove	<u>Stigmatopelia senegalensis senegalensis</u> Linn.	"	Sudan Senegal	Anon. 1977b; Funmilayo and Akande 1979; Schmutterer 1969; Bruggers and Ruelle 1981; Funmilayo 1980
Passeriformes:Corvidae					
11.	Pied crow	<u>Corvus albus</u> Mull.	"	Sudan	Schmutterer 1969
12.	Crow	<u>Corvus splendens</u> Vieillot	"	India	Mehta and Verma 1968 Bhatnagar et al. 1982b
Passeriformes:Emberizidae					
13.	Black headed bunting	<u>Emberiza melanocephala</u> Scop.	"	India	Puttarudriah 1967
Passeriformes:Fringilidae					
14.	Yellow-fronted canary	<u>Serinus mozambicus</u> Muller	"	Nigeria Chad	Anon. 1977b; Das Camara-Smeets 1977; Manikowski 1984
Passeriformes:Estrildidae					

15. Cut throat finch Amadina fasciata fasciata Gmel. Sudan Bruggers and Ruelle 1981; Schmutterer 1969
16. Grey breated helmet guinea fowl Numida mileageis Linn. " Mali Manikowski 1984
17. Sparrow Auripasser luteus Litch. " Sudan Bruggers and Ruelle 1981; Schmutterer 1969
18. Bufallo weaver Bubalornis albirostris Vieillot " Senegal Bruggers 1979; Manikowski 1984
19. Napoleon bishop Euplectes afer Gme. " West Africa Morel 1962; Anon. 1977b; Bruggers and Ruelle 1981
20. Red bishop Euplectes orix franciscanus Is. Africa Schmutterer 1969; Anon. 1977b; Elliot 1979; Bruggers 1980; Bruggers and Ruelle 1981
21. Bronze Mannikin Lanchura cucullata Huegl. " Senegal Funmilayo and Akande 1979; Funmilayo 1980; Bruggers and Ruelle 1981
22. White throated myna Lonchura malabrica Linn. " India AICMIP 1971; Bruggers and Ruelle 1981; Manikowski 1984
23. Black throated myna Lonchura malacca Linn. " India AICMIP 1971
24. Spotted munia Lonchura punctulata Linn. " India AICMIP 1971; Bhatnagar et al. 1982b
25. House sparrow Passer domesticus Linn. " Cosmopolitan Beri et al. 1969; Toor and Ramzan 1974
26. House sparrow Passer domesticus arboreus Bp. " Sudan Schmutterer 1969
27. Grey headed sparrow Passer griseus Vieill. " Senegal Schmutterer 1969; Da Camara-Smeets 1977; Bruggers 1979; Bruggers and Ruelle 1981
28. Eastern spanish sparrow Passer hispaniolensis transcaspices Temm. " India Mehta and Verma 1968
29. Golden sparrow Passer luteus Licht. " West Africa Das Canara-Smeets 1977; Bruggers and Ruelle 1981; Manikowski 1984
30. Passer motitensis cardofanicus Heugl. " Sudan Schmutterer 1969

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|------|-------------------------|---|---|------------------|---|
| 31. | Yellow throated sparrow | <u>Petronia xanthocollis</u> Burton | " | India | AICMIP 1971 |
| 32. | Black headed weaver | <u>Ploceus capitalis dimidiatus</u> Salv. | " | Africa | Schmutterer 1969 |
| 33. | Village weaver | <u>Ploceus cucullatus</u> Muller | " | Africa | Bruggers 1980; Anon. 1977b; Da Camara-Smeets 1977; Bruggers and Ruelle 1981; Manikowski 1984, |
| 34. | Ruppell's weaver | <u>Ploceus galbula</u> Rupp. | " | Sudan
Somalia | Schmutterer 1969; Bruggers 1980 |
| 35. | -- | <u>Ploceus luteolus luteolus</u> Licht | " | Sudan | Schmutterer 1969 |
| 36 | Black headed weaver | <u>Ploceus melanocephalus</u> Linn. | " | West Africa | Morel 1962; Da Camara-Smeets 1977; Elliot 1979; Bruggers and Ruelle 1981; Manikowski 1984 |
| 37. | Baya | <u>Ploceus philippinus</u> Linn. | " | India | AICMIP 1971 |
| 38. | | <u>Ploceus taeniopterus furensis</u> Lin. | " | Sudan | Schmutterer 1969 |
| 39. | | <u>Ploceus vitellinus vitellinus</u> Licht. | " | Sudan | Schmutterer 1969 |
| 40. | Vitelline marked weaver | <u>Ploceus velatus</u> Vieillot | " | Senegal
Mali | Manikowski 1984 |
| 41. | Red headed quelea | <u>Quelea erythropes</u> Hart. | " | Africa | Pradat 1963; Elliot 1977; Funmilayo and Akande 1979; Funmilayo 1980; Rachie and Majmudar 1980; Bruggers 1979, 1980; Bruggers and Ruelle 1981; Manikowski 1984 |
| 42. | Red billed quelea | <u>Quelea quelea aethiopica</u> Sund. | " | Africa | Schmutterer 1969; Rachie and Majmudar 1980 |
| 43.. | Quelea | <u>Quelea quelea centralis</u> Van Someren | " | Somalia | Bruggers 1980 |
| 44. | Quelea | <u>Quelea quelea quelea</u> Linn. | " | Africa | Pradat 1963; Anon. 1977b; Da Camara-Smeets 1977; Elliot 1977; Funmilayo 1980 and Akande 1979; Funmilayo 1980; Manikowski 1984 |
| 45. | | <u>Sporopipes frontalis frontalis</u> Daud. | " | Sudan | Schmutterer 1969 |
| 46. | | <u>Sporopipes frontalis emini</u> Neum. | " | Sudan | Schmutterer 1969 |

	Passeriformes: Sturnidae				
47.	Myna	<u>Acridotheres tristis</u> Linn.	"	India	Toor and Ramzan 1974
48.	Blue eared glossy starling	<u>Lamprotornis chalybeus</u> Hem. and Ehr.	"	Africa	Schmutterer 1969; Anon. 1977b; Da Camara-Smeets 1977; Bruggers 1979; Manikowski 1984
49.	Chestnut-bellied starling	<u>Spreo pulcher</u> Muller	"	Somalia Senegal	Bruggers 1980 Manikowski 1984
50.	Rosy pastor	<u>Sturnus roseus</u> Linn.	"	India	Mehrotra and Bhatnagar 1979
51.	--	<u>Sturnus vulgaris</u> Linn.	"	India	Mehrotra and Bhatnagar 1979
52.	Yellow billed parrot	<u>Poicephalus senegalus</u> Linn.	"	Senegal	Bruggers and Ruelle 1981
53.	Parakeet	<u>Psittacula cyanocephala</u> Linn.	"	India	AICMIP 1971
54.	Long tailed parakeet	<u>Psittacula krameri</u> Scop.	"	West Africa India	Beri et al. 1969 Toor and Ramzan 1974; Bruggers 1979; Bruggers and Ruelle 1981
	Struthioniformes: Struthionidae				
55.	Ostrich	<u>Struthio camelus</u> Linn.		Sudan	Schmutterer 1969

Table 8. Rats and mice damaging millets in field and stores

S.No.	Common name	Scientific name	Nature of damage	Distribution	Reference
Rodentia:Cricetidae					
1.	Gerbil	<u>Gerbillus pyramidum</u> Geoff.	Feed on cereal grains in the field	Senegal	Hopf et al. 1976
2.	Indian Gerbil	<u>Gerbillus nanus</u> indus Thom.	"	India	Hopf et al. 1976
3.	Desert rat	<u>Meriones hurianae</u> Jerd.	"	South Asia	Prakash and Ghosh, 1975; Hopf et al. 1976
4.		<u>Tatera guineae</u> Thom.	"	Senegal	Hopf et al. 1976
5.		<u>Tatera indica</u> Hard.	" (Also feed on grain in the stores)	South Asia	Prakash and Ghosh 1975; Hopf et al. 1976
6.		<u>Tatera kemp</u> Wrg.	"	Senegal	Hopf et al. 1976
Rodentia:Muridae					
7.	Nile rat	<u>Arvicanthus niloticus</u> Desm.	" (Also feed on grain in the stores)	Ethiopia, Sudan Central Africa	Schmutterer 1969; Hopf et al. 1976
8.	Field rat	<u>Bandicota bengalensis</u> Gray	"	South Asia	Hopf et al. 1976
9.	Field rat	<u>Bandicota indica</u> Bech.	"	India	Mehta and Verma 1968
10.		<u>Golunda</u> spp	"	South Asia	Hopf et al. 1976
11.	Giant rat	<u>Cricetomys gambianus</u> Wat.	"	Africa	Rachie and Majmudar 1980
12.		<u>Lemniscomys</u> spp	" (Also feed on the grain in the stores)	East Africa	Hopf et al. 1976
13.		<u>Mastomys coucha</u> A. Smith	"	Senegal	Hopf et al. 1976
14.	Multimammate rat	<u>Mastomys natalensis</u> A. Smith	" (Also feed on grain in the stores)	Africa	Schmutterer 1969; Hopf et al. 1976
15.		<u>Mastomys</u> sp	" (Also feed on the grains in the stores)	Mauritania, Central Africa	Hopf et al. 1976
16.		<u>Mus booduga</u> Gray	"	South Asia	Hopf et al. 1976
17.	Pigmy mouse	<u>Mus minutooides</u> A. Smith	"	Central	Hopf et al. 1976;

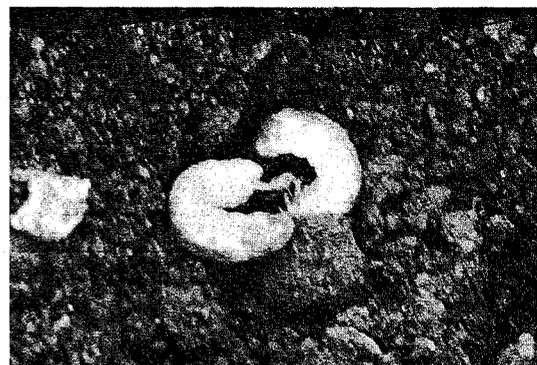
18.	Common mouse	<u>Mus musculus</u> Linn.	Feed on the grains in the stores	Africa	Rachie and Majmudar 1980
19.		<u>Mus</u> sp	"	India	Mehta and Verma 1968; Hopf et al. 1976
20.		<u>Otomys</u> sp	Feed on cereal grains in the field	Central Africa	Hopf et al. 1976
21.	Field rat	<u>Nesokia indica</u> Gray	"	East Africa	Hopf et al. 1976
22.		<u>Rattus melltada</u> <u>pallidior</u> Ryley	"	South Asia	Mehta and Verma 1968; Hopf et al. 1976
23.	Brown rat	<u>Rattus norvegicus</u> Berk	" (Also feed on grain in the stores)	India	Prakash and Ghosh 1975
24.	Common rat	<u>Rattus rattus</u> Linn.	" (Also feed on grain in the stores)	Africa Asia	Hopf et al. 1976
25.		<u>Rattus</u> spp	"	Africa South Asia	Puttaradriah 1967; Hopf et al. 1976
				South Asia	Hopf et al. 1976

LIST OF PLATES

1. *Plants showing stunting in the front row and dying due to white grub damage (Holotrichia sp).*



2. *White grub larvae in the soil.*



3. *Seedlings damaged by wireworm larva (Gonocephalum sp).*

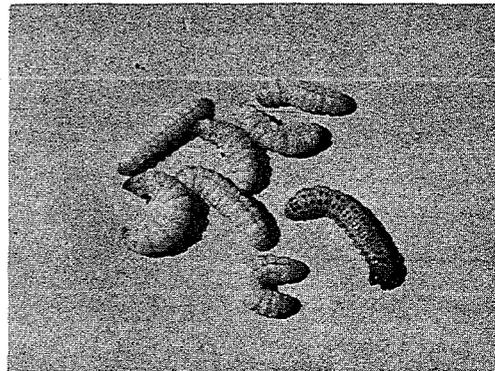
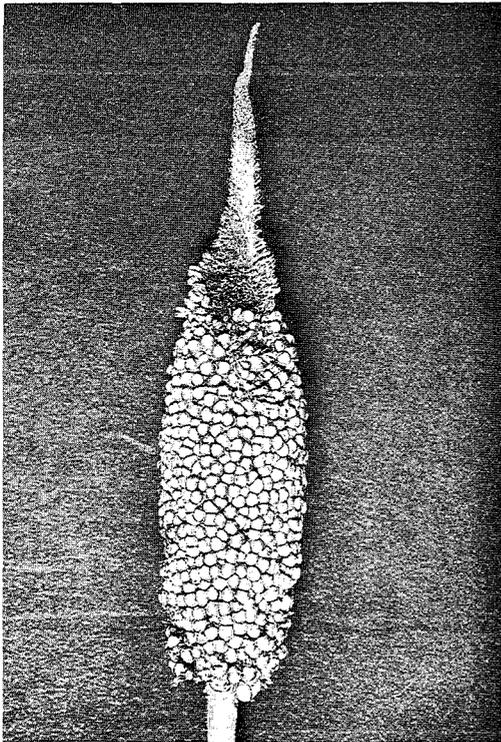


4. *Wireworm adult.*

5. Leaf damage by pearl millet shoot fly (*Atherigona approximata*).



7. Dead heart produced by African millet stem borer (*Acigona ignefusalis*).



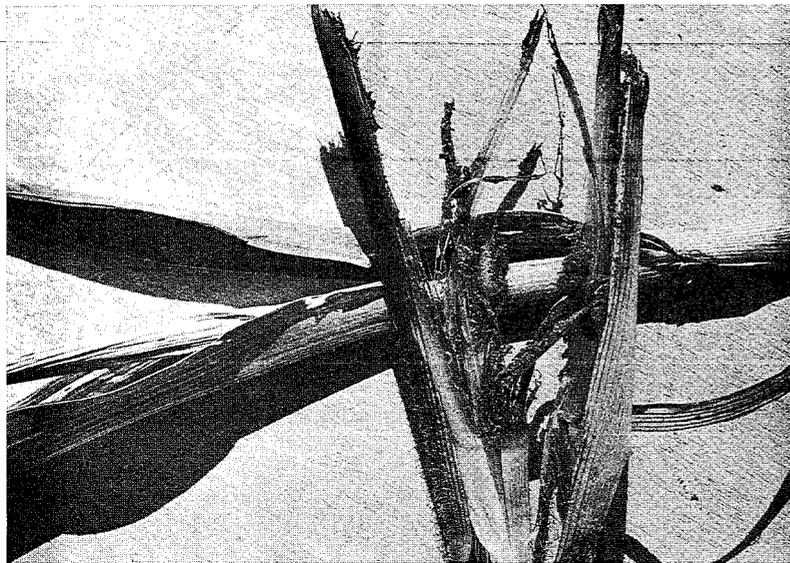
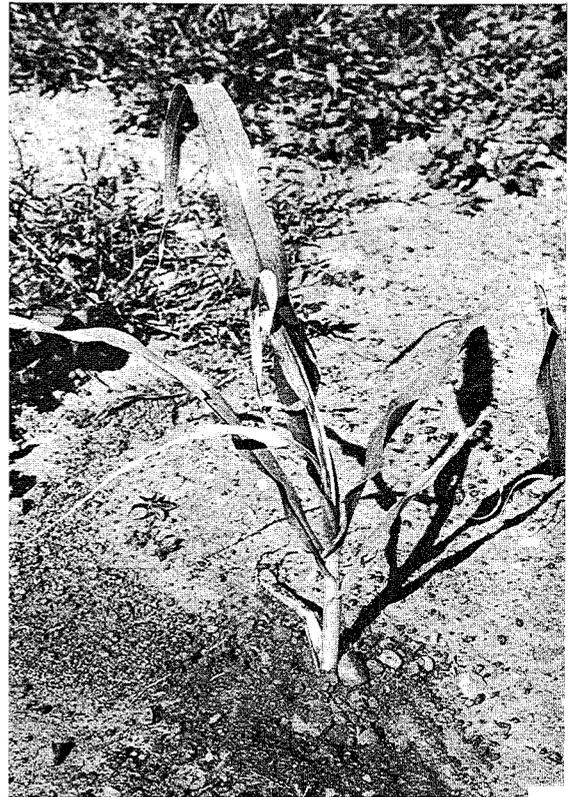
8. Diapausing (nonpigmented) and nondiapausing (pigmented) larvae of the African stem borer (*Acigona ignefusalis*).

6. Earhead damaged by pearl millet shoot fly.

9. Stem tunneling by the African millet stem borer (*Acigona ignefusalis*).



10. Deadheart produced by the spotted stem borer (*Chilo partellus*).



11. Stem damaged by the spotted stem borer.

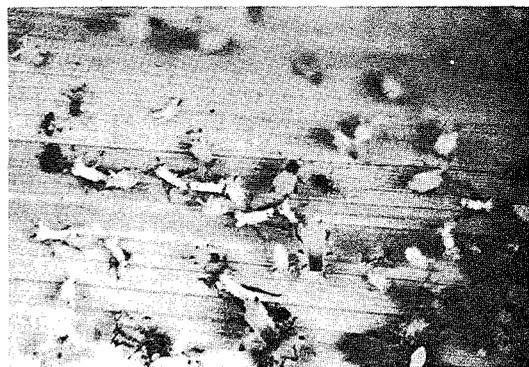
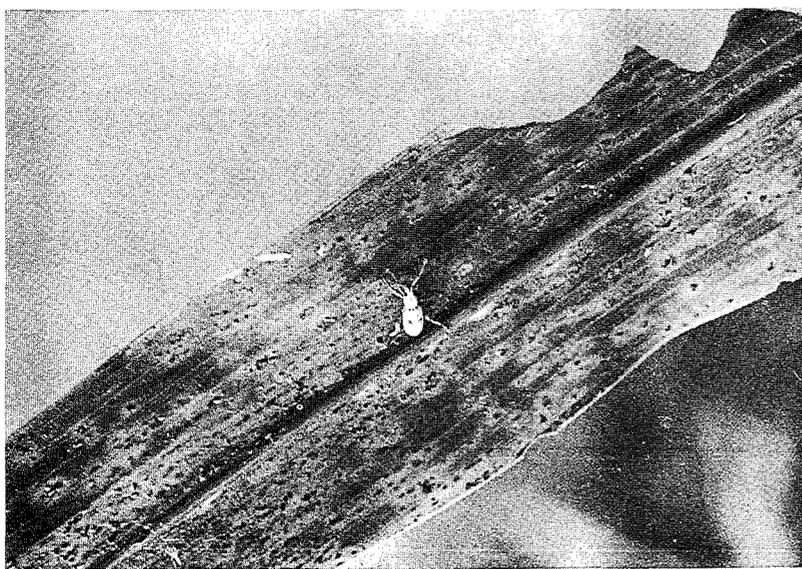
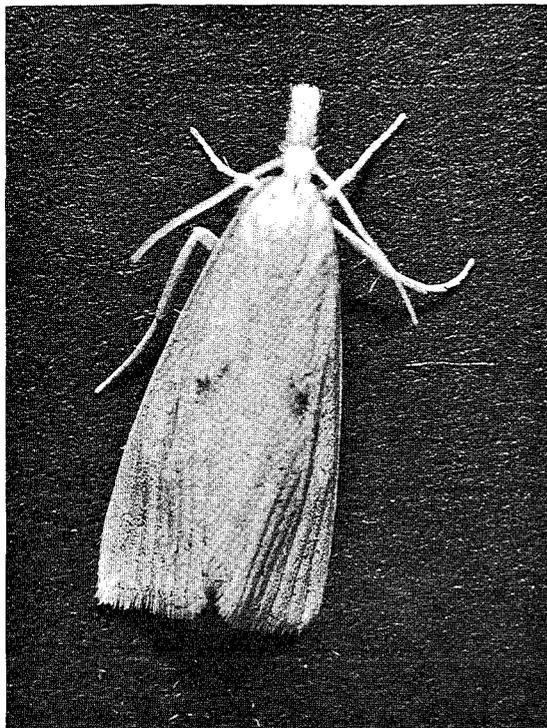


12. Spotted stem borer larva.

14. Seedlings damaged by grubs of the grey weevil (*Myilocerus* sp.).



13. Spotted stem borer adult.



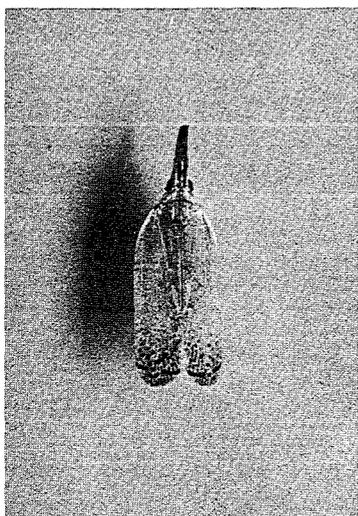
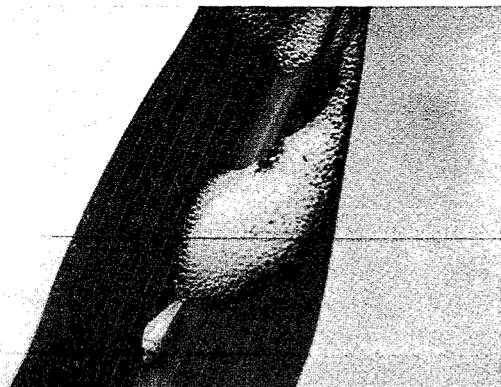
16. Corn leaf aphids (*Rhopalosiphum maidis*).

15. Leaf damaged by grey weevil adults.

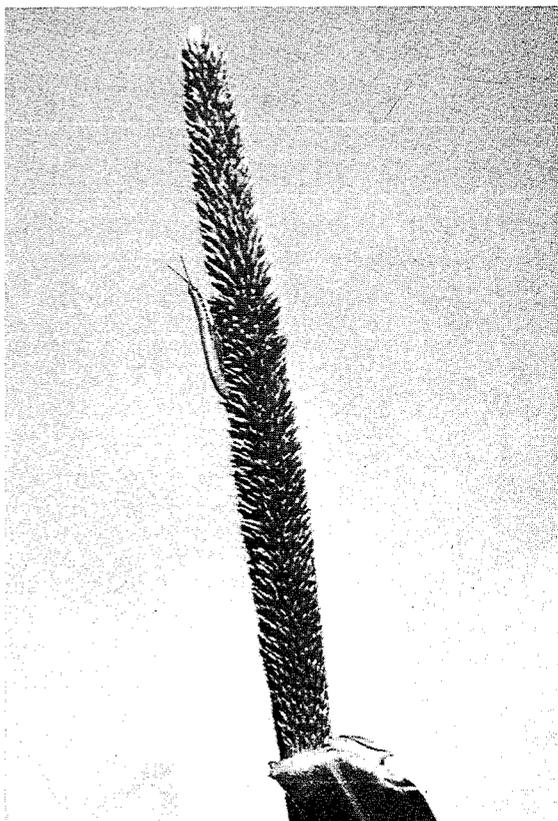
18. Leaves damaged by the shoot bug (*Peregrinus maidis*).



17. Spittle bug (*Poophilus costalis*) feeding on a leaf.



19. Sugarcane pyrilla (*Pyrilla perpusilla*).

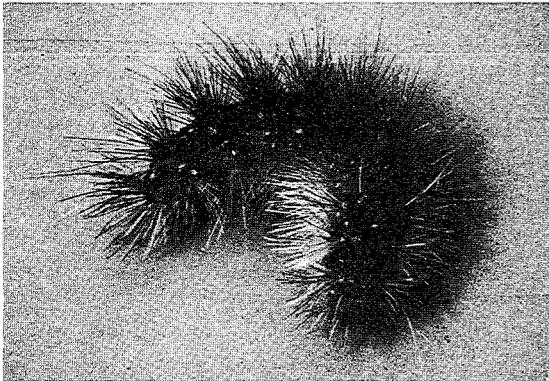


20. Deccan wingless grasshopper feeding on a pearl millet head (*Colemania sphenarioides*).

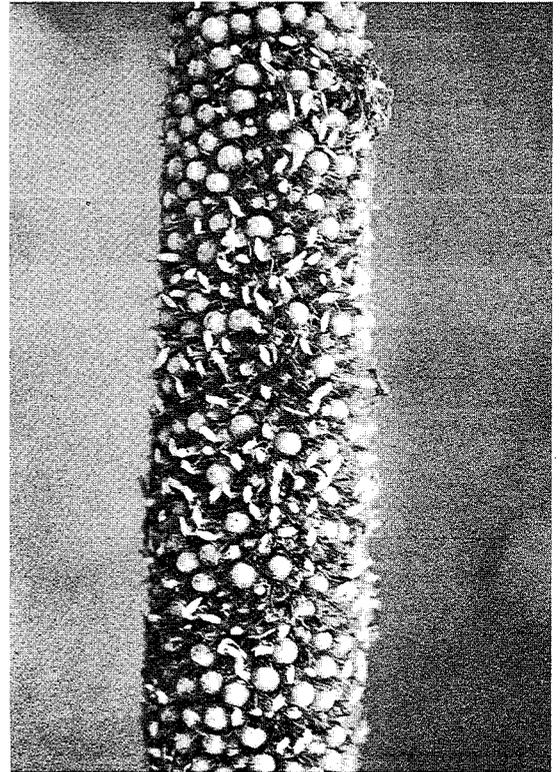
22. Armyworm larva feeding on a pearl millet leaf.



21. Red hairy caterpillar (*Amsacta moorei*).

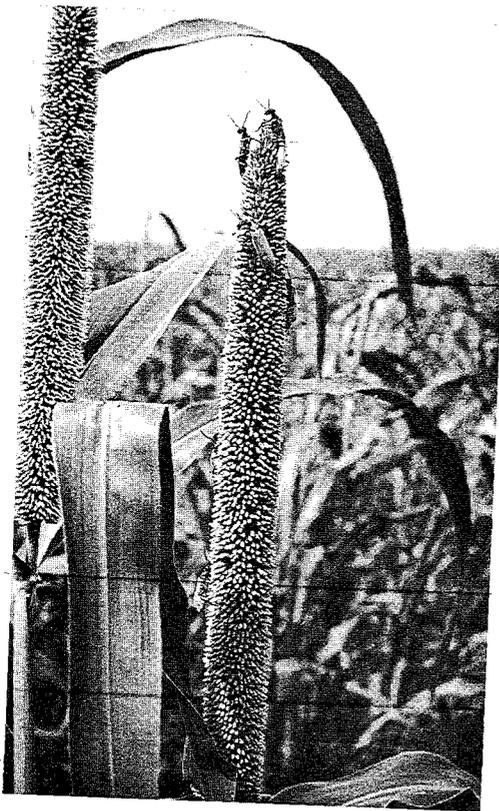


23. Leaf damaged by the leaf roller (*Marasmia trapezalis*).

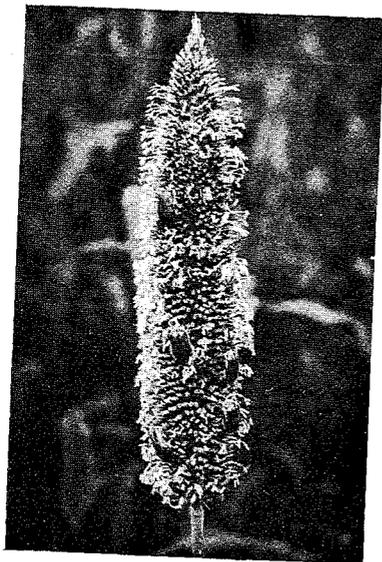


24. Earhead damaged by the millet midge (*Gonomyia penniseti*) (pupal cases are hanging from the glumes).

25. Blister beetles (*Cylindrothorax tenuicollis*) feeding on a pearl millet inflorescence.



26. Blister beetle (*Mylabris pustulata*).

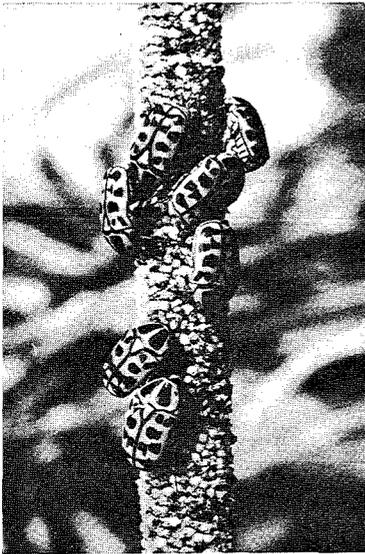


27. Chafer beetles (*Chiloloba acuta*) feeding on a pearl millet inflorescence.

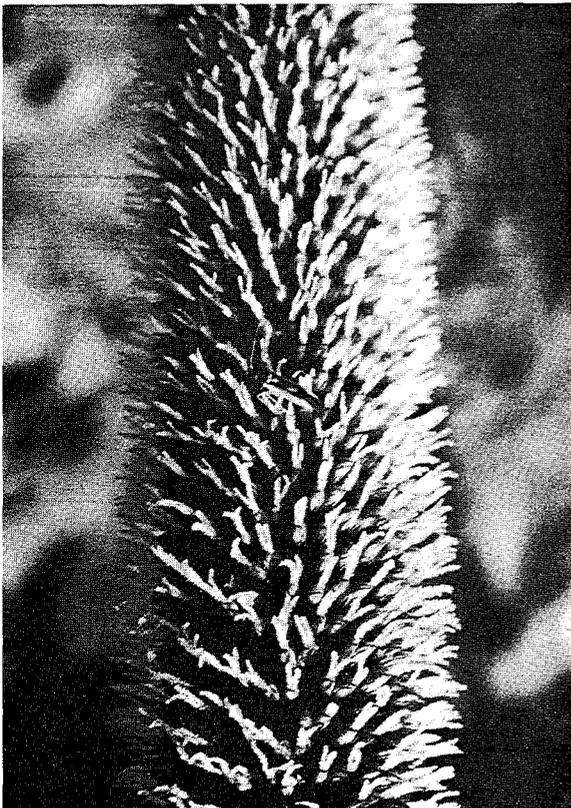
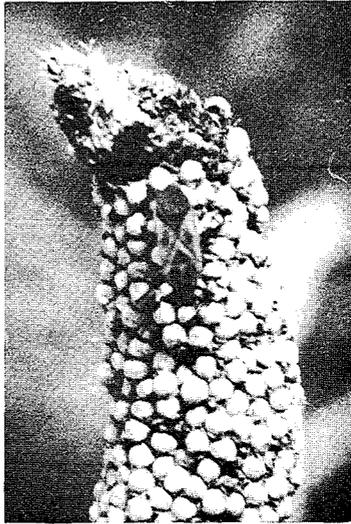


28. Scarabaeid beetle (*Oxycetonia versicolor*) feeding on pearl millet grain.

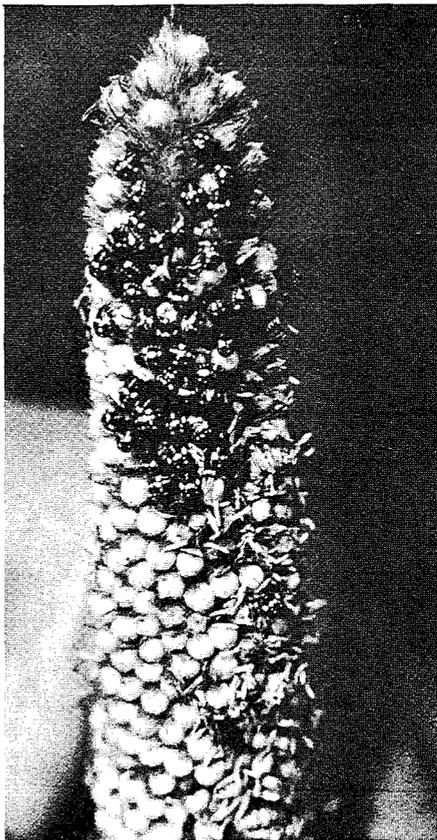
29. African chafer beetle (*Pachnoda* sp) adults feeding on a pearl millet panicle.



30. Milkweed bug (*Spilostethus* sp) feeding on pearl millet grain.

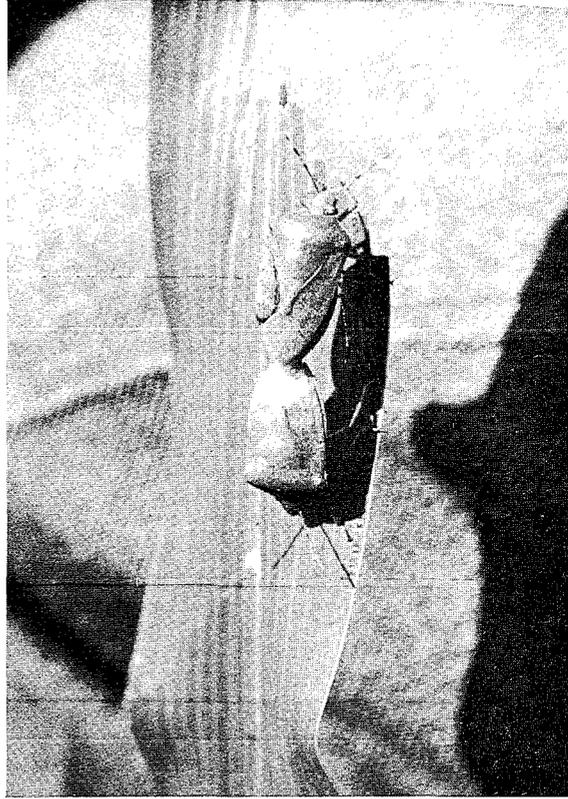


31. Sorghum head bug (*Calocoris angustatus*) feeding on a pearl millet panicle.

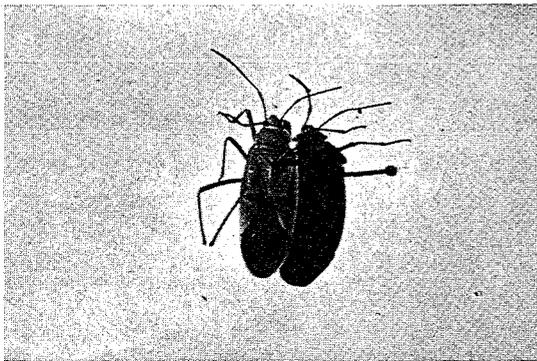
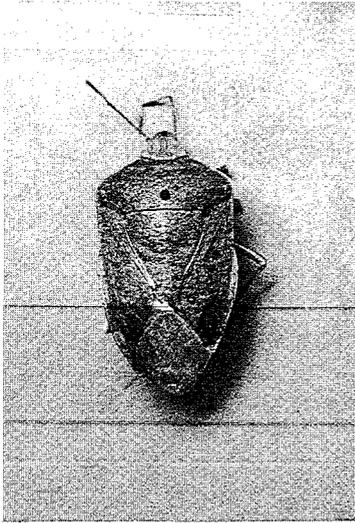


32. Painted bug (*Bagrada cruciferarum*) nymphs feeding on a pearl millet panicle.

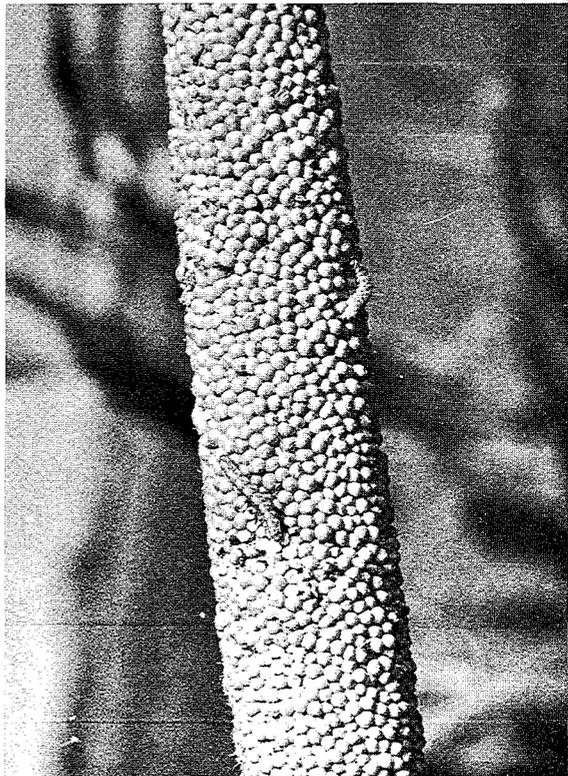
34. *Green stink bug* (*Nezara viridula*).



33. *Stink bug* (*Agonoscelis pubescens*).

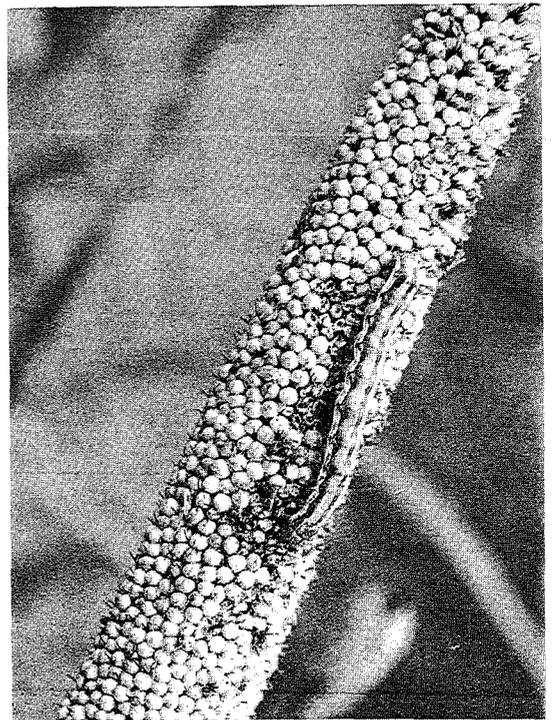


35. *Red cotton bug* (*Dysdercus superstiosus*).



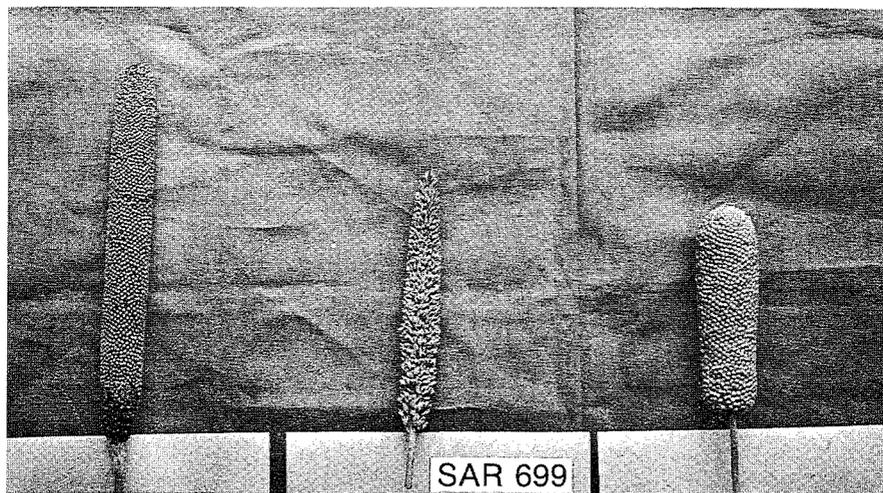
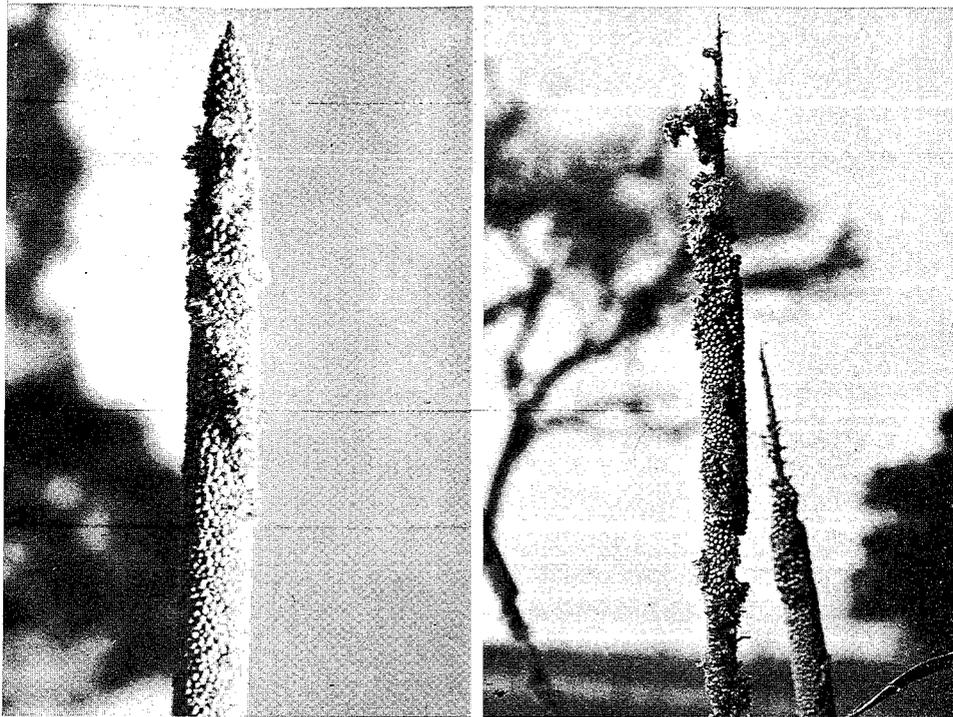
36. *Larva of the head caterpillar* (*Eublema silicula*) feeding on pearl millet grain.

37. Earhead damaged by the larvae of *Heliiothis armigera*.



38. Larva of *Heliiothis armigera* feeding on pearl millet grain.

39. Earheads damaged by the head caterpillar (*Raghuva albipunctella*).



40. Earhead of SAR 699 badly damaged by thrips (*Thrips sp.*).



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