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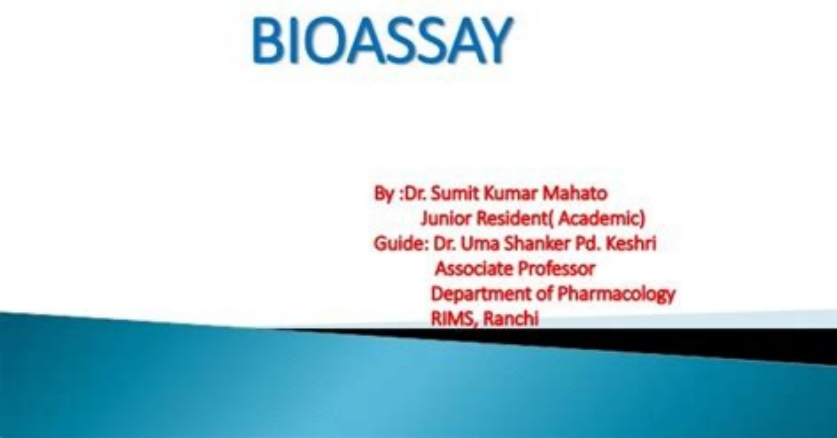
Insecticide bioassay ppt

What are the biological control of pest. Role of biological control in ipm. Explain biological control of pest. What is biological control of insects. Insecticide bioassay methods.

Hurst, H., NATURE, 145, 462 (1940); 147, 388 (1941); 152, 292 (1943).Article ADS CAS Google Scholar Gnadinger, C. B., "Pyrethrum Flowers", 2nd ed. (Minneapolis, 1936). Shepard, H. H., "The Chemistry and Toxicology of Insecticides" (Minneapolis, 1940). Campbell, F. L., Soap and San. Chem., 18, 119 (1942). Google Scholar Rideal, S., and Walker, J. T. A., "Approved Technique of the Rideal-Walker Test", pp. 12 (London, 1921). Ruele, G. L.



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M., and Snyder, F. M., J. Econ. Ent., 29, 1167 (1936) Searls, E. M., Soap and San. Chem., 18, 97 (1942).Article CAS Google Scholar Busvine JR (1980) Recommended methods for measurement of pest resistance to pesticides. FAO Plant Production Protection Paper No. 21. FAO, Rome, Italy, 132 pp Google Scholar French-Constant RH, Roush RT (1990) Resistance detection and documentation: the relative roles of pesticidal and biochemical assays. In: Roush RT, Tabashnik BE (eds) Pesticide resistance in arthropods. Chapman and Hall, New York, NY, pp 4–38 Google Scholar Gao J-R, Zhu KY (2000) Comparative toxicity of selected organophosphate insecticides against resistant and susceptible clones of the greenbug, Schizaphis graminum (Homoptera: Aphididae). J Agric Food Chem 48:4717–4722CrossRef CAS PubMed Google Scholar Newman MC (1998) Fundamentals of ecotoxicology. Ann Arbor Press, Chelsea, MI, 402 pp Google Scholar Robertson JL, Preisler HK (1992) Pesticide bioassays with arthropods. CRC, Boca Raton, FL, 127 pp Google Scholar Tomlin C (2000) The pesticide manual, 12th edn. British Crop Protection Council and the Royal Society of Chemistry, Farnham, Surrey, United Kingdom, 1250 pp Google Scholar ACUTE, SUB ACUTE & CHRONIC TOXICOLOGICAL STUDIESDr. Sindhu K., Asst. Prof., Dept. of VPT, VCG. Veterinary and medical entomologists who are involved in research on pest control often need to perform dose–response bioassays and analyze the results. This article is meant as a beginner's guide for doing this and includes instructions for using the free program R for the analyses. The bioassays and analyses are described using previously unpublished data from bioassays on house flies, Musca domestica Linnaeus (Diptera: Muscidae), but can be used on a wide range of pest species. Flies were exposed topically to beta-cyfluthrin, a pyrethroid, or exposed to spinosad or spinetoram in sugar to encourage consumption.



LD50 values for beta-cyfluthrin in a susceptible strain were similar regardless of whether mortality was assessed at 24 or 48 h, consistent with it being a relatively quick-acting insecticide. Based on LC50 values, spinetoram was about twice as toxic as spinosad in a susceptible strain, suggesting a benefit to formulating spinetoram for house fly control, although spinetoram was no more toxic than spinosad for a pyrethroid-resistant strain. Results were consistent with previous reports of spinosad exhibiting little cross-resistance. [sademosa gefafilatulazog.pdf](#) For both spinosad and spinetoram, LC50 values were not greatly different between the pyrethroid-resistant strain and the susceptible strain. Dose–response bioassays can be used to assess the quantal response of any biological system to any stimulus (Yu 2015). Quantal means existing in one of two alternative states, e.g., dead or alive. The question being asked is whether the response is dose dependent, i.e., as dose increases, how does the proportion of individuals in each state change. Such bioassays usually involve assigning different magnitudes of a stimulus, e.g., doses of a chemical, to each group of the same biological system, followed by observation of the number of individuals per group that responded at a predetermined time endpoint, e.g., proportion dead at 48 h. This type of bioassay is widely used in drug and pesticide discovery and formulation. Medical and veterinary pests, such as filth flies, mosquitoes, and ticks, are often subjects of chemical susceptibility studies, for the purposes of both product development and resistance management (Kaufman et al. 2006, Pridgeon et al. 2008, Castro-Janer et al. 2010, Jiang et al. 2017). [rizofetev.pdf](#) Thus, an insecticide research and development company might use this bioassay to compare a new insecticidal chemical to ones used previously. A researcher might also use a dose–response bioassay to compare the insecticide resistances of strains of the same species but with different exposure histories.The present article is intended particularly for researchers new to running and/or analyzing such bioassays, a simple starter's guide, as well as for researchers wanting to use the free program R for such analyses (R Core Team 2019) and having minimal experience with the program. Our R code (Supp Material [online only]) provides a simple, expedient way to generate all the necessary numbers for reporting typical dose–response bioassay results in peer-reviewed journals and technical documents.

Principles of bioassay

- To compare the test substance with the International Standard preparation of the same
- To find out how much test substance is required to produce the same biological effect, as produced by the standard
- Activity assayed should be the activity of interest

We highlight some key attributes of the assays and analyses and the reasons for them and provide a level of detail and step-by-step process that is not given in published papers. We do this using previously unpublished data from bioassays of house flies, Musca domestica Linnaeus (Diptera: Muscidae). However, the assays and analyses work well with little modification against a wide range of medical and veterinary pests, e.g., other filth flies, mosquitoes, and ticks. For species that require special dose–response protocols, the analyses and R code remain valid.First, we describe an experiment in which house flies received a topical application of insecticide, and we describe how to determine the LD50. LD50 is the lethal dose of insecticide that kills 50% of a sample population in a given time period. Any value of LD can be determined from the described analysis (e.g., LD1–99), but we describe the importance of the LD50. Then we describe an experiment in which house flies were given insecticide impregnated in a sugar cube to encourage feeding on the insecticide, i.e., an oral experiment, and we describe how to determine the LC50. An LC50 is the lethal concentration that will kill 50% of a sample population within a given time period. The terms lethal dose (LD) and lethal concentration (LC) should not be used interchangeably when presenting results. An LD is defined as an exact amount of insecticide applied directly to an organism, e.g., units of insecticide mass applied per insect (e.g., ng/fly) or insecticide mass applied per average mass of insect tested (e.g., ng/mg of fly). For LC, insects are exposed to, or allowed to interact with, some amount of insecticide per period of time, but how much they actually make contact with or ingest is unknown, e.g., units of insecticide mass per area (e.g., mg/cm2), or per volume for aquatic insects, or in our LC assay here, the quantity of insecticide applied per mass of sugar (e.g., µg/g of sugar). Despite this distinction between dose and concentration, the term ‘dose response’, e.g., ‘dose–response bioassay’ and ‘dose–response curve’, is used even when determining LC.Reasons that a 50% response (LD50 or LC50) is frequently used include 1) the 95% confidence interval (95% CI), occasionally called 95% fiducial limits, is narrowest at the 50% mortality mark. The 95% CI represents a range of values that we are 95% certain contains the true median dose or concentration that 50% of the entire population (vs just population sample) would respond to, e.g., would die from. CIs allow insecticidal treatments to be compared statistically (see Analyzing Data). 2) Typical analyses of dose–response curves, such as the analyses described here, assume a sigmoidal curve; with a sigmoidal curve, the 50% mortality mark is where the line is steepest, i.e., where a small change in dose or concentration causes a bigger change in mortality. Not as many individuals need to be tested to detect a big change in mortality, e.g., with just 10 individuals a difference of 49% versus 50% mortality will be hard to detect because the expected deaths are 5 for both, whereas a difference of 20% versus 50% mortality will be easier to detect because the expected deaths are 2 and 5, respectively.The LD50 or LC50 and the 95% CI from dose–response bioassays are generated with probit analysis (Bliss 1934, Finney 1971).

