

**FIELD PERFORMANCE OF DIFFERENT MANAGEMENT APPROACHES
AGAINST THRIPS (*Scirtothrips dorsalis* Hood.) FOR IMPROVED GROWTH AND
YIELD OF CAPSICUM (*Capsicum annuum* L.)**

A THESIS

BY

SADIA ALAM

STUDENT ID.: MS-200811



A Thesis (Course No. HRT-6104) Submitted to the Agrotechnology Discipline in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Science

**AGROTECHNOLOGY DISCIPLINE
LIFE SCIENCE SCHOOL
KHULNA UNIVERSITY
KHULNA-9208**

JUNE, 2022

**FIELD PERFORMANCE OF DIFFERENT MANAGEMENT APPROACHES
AGAINST THRIPS (*Scirtothrips dorsalis* Hood.) FOR IMPROVED GROWTH AND
YIELD OF CAPSICUM (*Capsicum annuum* L.)**

A THESIS

BY

SADIA ALAM

STUDENT ID.: MS-200811

Approved as to Style and Contents

By



Shimul Das
31-07-22

Dr. Shimul Das
Professor
(Supervisor)

Prosanta Kumar Dash

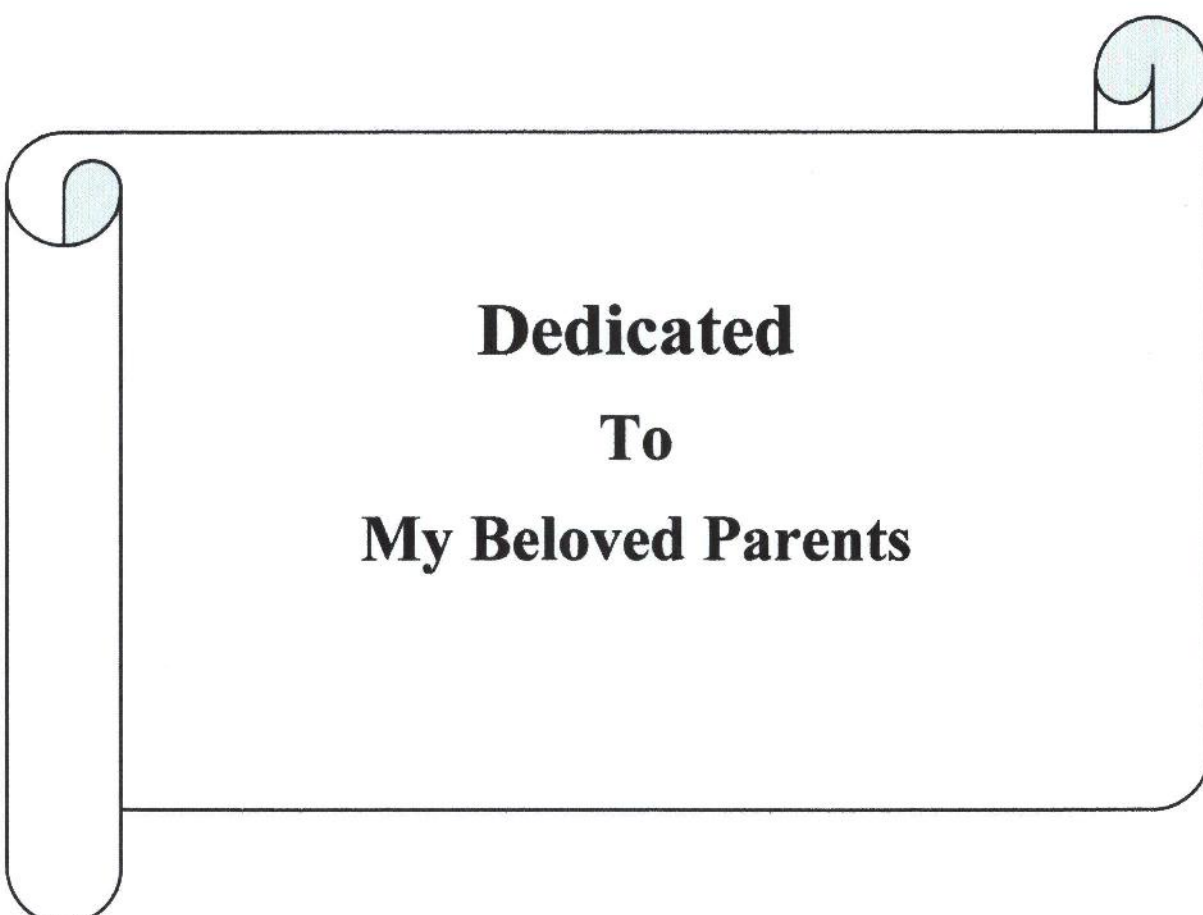
Dr. Prosanta Kumar Dash
Associate Professor
(Co-supervisor)

Sarder Safiqul Islam

Professor Dr. Sarder Safiqul Islam
(Chairman, Examination Committee and Head, Agrotechnology Discipline)

AGROTECHNOLOGY DISCIPLINE
LIFE SCIENCE SCHOOL
KHULNA UNIVERSITY
KHULNA-9208

JUNE, 2022



**Dedicated
To
My Beloved Parents**

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The author would like to express with utmost humble gratitude and endless praises to Almighty Allah, who enabled the author to complete the study and writing up the thesis successfully.

The author have much pleasure to express her heartfelt respect, deep sense of gratitude, immense indebtedness and deep appreciation to honorable teacher and supervisor Dr. Shimul Das, Professor, Agrotechnology Discipline, Khulna University, Khulna, for his kind help for preparation of the thesis including worthy guidance, valuable suggestions, constructive criticism, encouragement and continuous supervision throughout the study work and preparation of the thesis.

The author also expresses heartiest gratefulness and thanks to thesis co-supervisor Dr. Prosanta Kumar Dash, Professor, Associate Agrotechnology Discipline, Khulna University, Khulna, for his special cooperation.

The author explicit her heartiest thankfulness and indebtedness to the Ministry of Science and Technology, Project number, BS 274(2020-2021) for their financial support.

The author likes to express her boundless gratitude to her parents and other members of her family whose sacrifices, inspiration, and continuous blessings opened the gate and paved the way for higher studies.

Lastly, the author wants to give special thanks to both Suvongkor and all the farmers who assisted her in the field of Professor Dr. Purnendu Gain field laboratory of Khulna University to complete the study successfully.

June 2022

The Author

ABSTRACT

Thrips infestations is the main impediment for capsicum production in open field condition. Thrips is considered as one of the major harmful and production threatening pests in capsicum throughout the cultivation period. Keep in mind public concern about over pesticides use to control pests in vegetables, the present management approaches were undertaken to minimize thrips infestation in capsicum production. A field experiment was carried out at Professor Dr. Purnendu Gain field laboratory, Khulna University to assess the efficacy of different management methods on different colors producing capsicum plants to reduce thrips infestation during cultivation and to analyze the profitability under field condition. The factorial experiment consisted of twelve treatments [Factor A (3): capsicum colors (green, yellow, purple), Factor B (4): applications [kaolin, neem oil, chemical (Bildor), control] using Randomized Complete Block Design with three replications. It was found that growth, yield components, yield of capsicum and profitability were significantly influenced by different capsicum colors and treatments. Overall, the purple color and kaolin treated plants resulted in better vigor, plant height, leaf number and chlorophyll content than control plants. The results revealed that the highest fruit yield (44.86 t ha^{-1}) was recorded in purple color with kaolin application combination in compared to green color plus untreated plants (control) (16.12 t ha^{-1}). Moreover, flowering occurred earlier by more than 4 days in plants that treated with kaolin compared to the untreated plants (control). In addition, kaolin application was lowered thrips infestation by 73.76 % than control plants. The cost-saving plus higher yields contributed to net profitability of Tk. 27,07,828 ha^{-1} . Therefore, if the farmers want to boost up the current capsicum production following ecofriendly management approaches in Bangladesh as well as to support the country's demand, the purple color with kaolin application system may be one of the best possible options.

Keywords: purple capsicum, thrips, ecofriendly, kaolin, profitability.

CONTENTS

CHAPTER	TITLE	PAGE NO.
	ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	I
	ABSTRACT	II
	CONTENTS	III-IV
	LIST OF TABLES	V
	LIST OF FIGURES	VI
I	INTRODUCTION	1-4
II	REVIEW OF LITERATURE	5-10
	2.1 Effect of capsicum genotype against thrips	
	2.2 Effect of biological control against thrips	
	2.3 Effect of chemical control against thrips	
III	MATERIALS AND METHODS	11-16
	3.1 Experimental site	
	3.2 Climatic and soil condition	
	3.3 Experimental design and treatments	
	3.4 Crop management	
	3.5 Data collection	
	3.5.1 Plant survival	

- 3.5.2 Plant vigor
- 3.5.3 Plant height
- 3.5.4 Leaf number
- 3.5.5 Days required to first and 50% flower
- 3.5.6 SPAD value
- 3.5.7 Chlorophyll concentrations
- 3.5.8 Thrips number and incidence
- 3.5.9 Canopy Temperature
- 3.5. 10Fruit number and yield
- 3.5.11 Statistical analysis

IV	RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	17-30
	4.1 Growth and development parameters	
	4.2 Economic evaluation of capsicum production by partial budgeting	
	4.3 Discussion	
V	SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION	31
VI	REFERENCES	32-40
VII	APPENDIX	41-43

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE NO.	TITLE	PAGE NO.
4.1.	Effect of capsicum colors and applications on plant survival and vigor.	17
4.2.	Effect of capsicum colors and applications on days required to first and 50% flowering, SPAD value and chlorophyll content.	20
4.3.	Effect of capsicum colors and applications on thrips incidence.	21
4.4.	Effect of capsicum colors and applications on thrips number.	22
4.5.	capsicum colors and applications on fruit number and total yield.	23
4.6.	The Pearson correlation matrix of canopy temperature and thrips incidence.	24
4.7	Total yield, and price variation of following pink color with kaolin clay system (PK) relative to traditional capsicum production system (TS) at Khulna.	25
4.8	Cost comparison between capsicum following traditional system (TS) and pink color with kaolin system (PK).	26
4.9	Changes in return in cultivating pink color capsicum with kaolin clay relative to Traditional system.	27

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE NO.	FIGURE	PAGE NO.
3.5.3	Length measurement of the plants	13
3.5.6	SPAD value measurement to check greenness of capsicum leaf.	14
3.5.9	Canopy temperature measurement	15
4.1.2	Effect of capsicum colors and applications on plant height.	18
4.1.3	Effect of capsicum colors and applications on leaf number	19



CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Capsicum (*Capsicum annuum* L.) is one of the most important high-value horticultural crops grown extensively throughout the world, especially for its' taste and nutritional enrichment. The vegetable is also famous for its attractive colors especially purple, yellow and red. It is nutritionally rich fruits especially Vitamin A and C (Kaur and Singh, 2013). Reports suggested that the crop shows tremendous growth performance in the temperate climate even though efforts are on the motion for growing sweet pepper in tropical and subtropical countries since last few decades (Bhatt et al., 1999). In Bangladesh, some adventurous or amateurish farmers sporadically cultivate this crop on small scale to fulfill the local demand of urban areas (Saha and Salam, 2004). Predicting an ample scope of capsicum as vegetable BARI developed two cultivars of it through several years research, which is now commercially cultivated in northern parts of Bangladesh along with BARI ambient regions. While the southwestern region of Bangladesh (SWRB) which is little to moderate saline is entirely devoid of the adaptability check for the cultivation of capsicum. Several global research findings denote that capsicum has the potential to tolerate salinity to low extent with maintaining a standard economic yield (Morales-Garcia et al., 2011). Consequently, a new avenue has been opened for the cultivation of capsicum in SWRB ensuring higher crop intensity and diversity.

One of the major problems of capsicum cultivation is thrips (*Scirtothrips dorsalis* Hood.) infestation throughout the cultivation period. It has been reported that over thirty-five (35) species of insects and pests are devastating for pepper (Sorensen, 2005). Previous research indicated that thrips is one of the harmful and production threatening insects in sweet pepper

cultivation in India (Vasicek et al., 2001; Reddy and Kumar, 2006). Reddy (2005) stated that sweet pepper was mostly infected by thrips which is considered as one of the major pests of pepper both under protected and field conditions. The incidence of aphids, thrips and mites was so acute in capsicum and the severe infestation could incur 100% crop loss. The typical symptoms of thrips infestation consist of upward rolling of leaf, squeeze of leaf size, distorted and twisted leaves, discoloration and scarring of developing fruits due to sucking of cell sap from leaves and emerging flowers by adults and nymphs (Sanap and Nawale, 1987). Indirectly thrips can damage pepper plants by transmitting tomato spotted wilt virus (TSWV) which is one of the major viral diseases of pepper (German et al., 1992). It is always problematic to control thrips due to their high multiplication rate, cryptic behavior, and short life cycle (Cloyd, 2009). It is so important to monitor thrips population and restraining its growth to prevent the epidemic. The control measures can be accomplished by several approaches viz. cultural, mechanical, physical, and biological (Mouden et al., 2017).

Crops raised under protected structures are always safer in comparison to open fields. Crops grown under protected structures are so common in developed countries to control unfavorable environments and exclude arthropod insects and pests (Berlinger et al., 1999). However, previous research revealed that crops grown under photo-selective shading nets result in higher physiological response with less risk of pests (Rajapakse and Shahak, 2007). However, kaolin, an organic mineral compound rich in kaolinite, has widespread use in mitigating heat, drought stress, and reduce insect infestation in various crops. The white kaolin (Surround® WP) forms a particle film on the leaf surface, which increases the reflection of incoming solar radiation, changing the radiation and heat balance and reducing the risk of heat stress from high temperatures and solar injury. Also, the white layers adhering

to the leaf surface causing irritation for insects and helps to eliminate their scavenging activity on the leaves and fruits of crops. This clay suspension helps to repel different type of insects like thrips. Mites, beetles, leaf roller etc. (Glenn, 2012).

Chemical methods are always dominated over botanicals to control any insects and pests of crops. Patel and Kumar (2017) reported that among three botanicals neem oil sprayed at 2.5 mL^{-1} showed better performance and control 53.22% thrips population on chili cultivation in Allahabad (U.P.), India. Although the chemicals Spinosad at 0.2 mL^{-1} was recorded highest control of thrips (79.79%). Similarly, neem soap at 1% showed better results over other botanicals to control thrips on capsicum under net house reported by Kaur and Sing (2013). Mandi and Senapati (2009) stated that ultineem at 1% showed better performance and control 54.2% thrips population. But chemicals dominated over botanicals and acetamiprid at 0.004% reduced 93.3% thrips population on chili. One of the common methods to control thrips is chemical method. But the control of insects and pests by using chemicals is not desired approach as it can ruin beneficial insects too and consequently insects become resistant against insecticides.

Partial budgeting is an effective tool used to evaluate the costs and benefits related to a precise change in a farm. This tool explicitly focuses on the consequences of the projected change in a farming system. This budgeting style is named partial because it does not comprise all costs, but only those which are altered from the farmer's present production practices to the projected one(s) (Cornelisse, 2017; Roy, 2018).

Keep in mind public concern about pesticides used in vegetables, the present eco-friendly approaches would be the potential to minimize thrips infestation in capsicum production. Now-a-days the whole universe is looking for integrated pest management (IPM) approach

and trying to minimize the use of chemicals and produce safe foods for people. The work on an eco-friendly management approach to control the thrips population on capsicum production in Bangladesh is meager. Also, as a comparatively new high-value crop in the southwestern region of Bangladesh, capsicum has no recommended eco-friendly management approaches to minimize the thrips population on capsicum. So, it is hypothesized that capsicum could be cultivated in the Southwestern region with fewer thrips infestation ensuring higher yield and economic return than the traditional capsicum production system.

The present study was undertaken with the following objectives:

1. To assess the efficacy of different management methods to reduce thrips infestation in capsicum production under field conditions in Southwestern Bangladesh.
2. To analyze the profitability of using different management approaches to minimize thrips infestation in capsicum by partial budgeting.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Capsicum is an attractive, tasty, luscious and nutritious fruit that belonging to the Solanaceae family. About 35 species of insect and mite pest were reported in capsicum (Kaur and Singh, 2013). Among them, thrips are considered the major insect in capsicum. To ensure the improved growth and yield of capsicum, proper management approaches are needed. The present study was undertaken to investigate the field performance of different management approaches against thrips for successful capsicum production. Available research findings at home and abroad related to the present study are reviewed here.

2.1 Effect of capsicum genotype against thrips

Capsicum is available in diverse colors, such as green, red, black, orange, purple, etc. (Kumar et al., 2015). It is grown worldwide for cooked vegetables, salad pickles, and processing purposes. The reason behind its worldwide admiration is its delicate taste, pleasant flavor, and varied colors with nutritious qualities. Its beautifully shaped form and vivid diverse color entitled it "The Christmas ornaments of the vegetable world" (Sharma et al., 2019). However, work on the evaluation of chilli genotypes against thrips, *S. dorsalis* has been reported by several workers (Kaur et al., 2010; Singh and Singh, 2009; Roopa, 2013). The variation in damage may be due to the differential load of the thrips population on different genotypes based on the morphological and biochemical variations in plants. The genotypes which are highly susceptible may be more preferred by the thrips due to thin leaf, low chlorophyll and phenol content might have favored more thrips population and thrips feeding damages the leaves, reducing the photosynthetic capacity, resulting in reduced fruit production (Shipp et

al., 1998). Any leaf character that interferes with the thrips life cycle is a potential resistance factor which may contribute to the mechanism of defense against thrips and mites. It is known that both morphological and chemical characters of leaves can play a role in defense against insects (Rosenthal and Kotanen, 1994). Rameash et al. (2016) reported that chlorophyll and total phenol content showed negative significant association with thrips incidence in chilli. Phenols have long been reported to provide resistance in plants during host plant interactions by several workers like Mondal et al. (2013) and Subhash et al. (2013) as it increases the unpalatability of the food materials which may be the possible reason for receiving low incidence of thrips. Simultaneously, higher total chlorophyll content resulted in dark colour may not attract thrips (Shaw et al., 1991). There is no single factor that responsible in thrips population fluctuation, but all the factors work in compliment with each other for the development of resistance in plants against thrips reaction. So, these morphological and biochemical factors play a vital role in fluctuating the thrips population.

2.2 Effect of biological control against thrips

Hoffmann et al. (1996) reported that beneficial organisms like ground beetles, lady bird beetles, minute pirate bugs, big-eyed bugs, lacewings, hover flies, predatory mites and spiders are helpful to suppress thrips population. A tiny wasp (*Megaphragma mymaripenne*) killed almost 50% of the eggs of greenhouse thrips in Southern California (Broughton and De Lima, 2002). Bara and Laing (2020) reported that entomopathogenic fungi specially *Beauveria bassiana* has potential to control the thrips biologically on avocado in South Africa. They mentioned that entomopathogenic fungi may be a substitute to synthetic chemicals for thrips control in avocado. Bennison et al. (2002) stated that the predatory mites *Gaeolaelaps aculeifer* (Hypoaspis) and *Aculeifer stratiolaelaps* (Hypoaspis) miles potential for controlling

ground welling thrips. Avoiding the use of persistent pesticides along with dust help to conserve the beneficial insects which are helpful to control the thrips. Some of them are minute pirate bugs, predatory thrips like six spotted thrips, black hunter thrips, banded wing thrips, parasitic wasps, green lacewings etc. (Braley, 2021).

Vanisree et al. (2013) reported that Spinosad was found most effective in reducing the population of *Scirtothrips dorsalis* as well as in increasing yield. Similar results were also reported by Seal et al. (2006) with spinosad and most effective in reducing the density of *Scirtothrips dorsalis* up to (0.015%). Kumar et al. (2016) reported that Spinosad was found most effective in reducing the population of *Scirtothrips dorsalis* up to 81.77%. Vanisree et al. (2013) reported that Spinosad was found most effective in reducing the population of *Scirtothrips dorsalis* as well as in increasing yield. This result supported by Patel et al., (2009). Recorded among the treatments Spinosad the highest yield of (8.9 t ha⁻¹) with an increase of 219.37% yield over the untreated check and was found significantly superior to all the other treatments. Kumar et al. (2016) reported that application of Spinosad 45 SC @ 0.01 percent recorded the highest yield (3.0 t ha⁻¹). Spinosad is generally more effective than other botanicals against thrips (Jones et al., 2005).

Glenn (2012) reported that the white kaolin (Surround® WP) forms a particle film on the leaf surface, and the white layers adhering to the leaf surface causing irritation for insects and helps to eliminate their scavenging activity on the leaves and fruits of crops. This clay suspension helps to repel different type of insects like thrips, mites, beetles, leaf roller etc. Particle film of kaolin dramatically reduced the oviposition of *T. tabaci*. (Larentzaki et al., 2008). Around 50% flower thrips (*Frankliniella* spp.) within the canopy of rabbiteye blueberry plants was reduced by the efficiency of kaolin (Spiers et al., 2004). Thrips showed a



distinct avoidance of kaolin-treated leaf discs in onion within the first 60 min of plant contact informed by Abd El-Aziz (2013). Kaolin particle film has several modes of activity, acts as a physical barrier, prevents insects from reaching vulnerable plant tissue, and it acts as a repellent by creating an unsuitable surface for feeding or egg laying. The uniform white film may also disrupt the insect's host-finding capability by masking the color of the plant tissue. Furthermore, particles of kaolin act as an irritant to the insect. After landing on a treated surface, particles of kaolin break off and attach to the insect's body, triggering an excessive grooming response that distracts the pest. It has been shown to be effective against several orchard pests, including thrips, apple maggot, white apple leafhopper and pear psylla (Puterka et al., 2000; Larentzaki et al., 2008). Although kaolin-based products are reportedly efficient against thrips (Puterka et al., 2000); the mechanisms of their action have not been demonstrated. Onion thrips numbers were significantly reduced after kaolin applications. As such, it may prove to be an important component of an integrated pest management program against *T. tabaci* in onions, limiting insecticide applications and reducing the risk of insecticide resistance, and offering an alternative control method for organic or small-scale growers. Kaolin-based products have been approved for organic use in fruit and vegetables crops (OMRI, 2007). However, because of the importance of a continuous coverage of plant material with kaolin particle film, multiple applications and better coverage than we experienced in the field will be required to cover newly expanding foliage. Furthermore, its use may be limited in areas where the film may be washed off by frequent rainfall or overhead irrigation.

2.3 Effect of chemicals control against thrips

Seal et al. (2006) reported that imidacloprid most effective in reducing the density of *Scirtothrips dorsalis* up to (0.015%). Sathyan et al. (2017) revealed Dimethoate 30 EC @ 0.15% was the effective treatment in percentage reduction of in the result Dimethoate @0.03% was the effective treatment in percentage reduction of chilli thrips were (63.24%) reduction over control. Kumar et al. (2016) reported that Dimethoate was found effective in reducing the population of *Scirtothrips dorsalis* up to (75.32%). Kaur and Singh (2013) conducted an experiment in Punjab Agricultural University, Ludhiana on capsicum under net house conditions. They obtained highest yield (0.215-0.239) kg plant⁻¹ in capsicum with the use of Asataf 75 SP (Acephate)@ 0.05%, Confidor 17.8 SL (imidacloprid)@ 0.025% followed by Neem Soap (*Azadirachta indica*)@ 1.0% and other treatments. Kandasamy et al. (1990) found that monocrotophos at 0.08% was the most effective in capsicum to reduce *Scirtothrips dorsalis*. They also found that the greatest cost: benefit ratio was obtained with methyl-0-demeton [demeton-0-methyl] at 0.025%.

Patil et al. (2018) resulted that, the treatment of fipronil 0.005 per cent found significantly superior in controlling the chilli thrips with significantly higher fruit yield. Hosamani et al. (2015) the results revealed that the Imidacloprid 17.8% SL recorded highest per cent reduction of thrips over untreated control. Samota et al. (2017) on the basis of mean per cent reduction in thrips population in all the three sprays the treatment of acetamiprid was found to be the most effective. Sandeep et al. (2017) reported that among insecticides, imidacloprid 17.8 SL reduced maximum thrips population (82.46%) as well as in increasing yield. Mandi et al. (2009) reported that acetamipride was found most effective in reducing the population of

Scirtothrips dorsalis as well as in increasing yield. Maity et al. (2015) Fipronil proved most promising in keeping the thrips population much lower as compared to control and producing the highest yield. Tripti and Ashwani (2018) Fipronil 5SC (1.02) was the most effective treatment indicating recorded lowest population of thrips (*Scirtothrips dorsalis* Hood) and producing the highest yield.

Rakesh (2017) results revealed that among the different treatments Imidacloprid proved to be the effective treatments followed by Pongamia oil, Neem oil. Imidacloprid 0.005% was the most effective treatment in percentage reduction of chilli with 67.58 % reduction over control. Also reported by Patel et al. (2009) and Seal et al. (2006). Patel et al. (2009) reported that Imidacloprid (0.01%) was most effective as it reduced the maximum larval population at each observational interval during first and second spray with highest marketable yield (27.93 tha⁻¹). Samota et al. (2017) reported that Imidacloprid 17.8%SL maximum yield of chilli. Among all the treatments Imidacloprid @ 0.2ml/L proved to be the best treatment followed by Neem oil + imidacloprid @ 2.5ml/L+0.1ml/L, NSKE + imidacloprid @ 50 g/L+0.1ml/L, Karanj oil + imidacloprid @ 10ml/L+0.1ml/L, Pongamia oil + imidacloprid @ 3ml/L+0.1ml/L, Garlic sap extract + imidacloprid 10g/L + 0.1ml/L, Tobacco oil + imidacloprid @ 3ml/L+0.1ml/L also effective in managing (*Scirtothrips dorsalis* H.) reduction.

It is revealed from the above review of literature that the work on the effect of different management approaches to reduce thrips in capsicum is meager as reported by different authors. Therefore, the present study was undertaken.

CHAPTER III

MATERIALS AND METHODS

This chapter describes the materials and methods that were used in carrying out the field experiment. The details of the materials used, and methods adopted in this experiment are presented in this section.

3.1 Experimental site

The experiments were conducted at Professor Dr. Purnendu Gain field laboratory of Agrotechnology Discipline, Khulna University, Bangladesh (22°47' N; 89°34' E) during winter season of 2020-2021 (November-May).

3.2 Climatic and soil condition

The experimental area was under the sub-tropical climatic zone characterized by relatively scanty rainfall, high humidity, high temperature and long day period during the Kharif season (April to September) and scanty rainfall associated with moderate low temperature and short-day period during the Rabi season (October to March). The temperature in the experimental field ranged from 22 to 34 °C, while relative humidity ranged 70-86% throughout the growing period. The soil was collected from the research farm of Khulna University to analysis the soil properties that consisting of 16% sand, 36% silt, 51% clay and 2.4% organic matter. It was reported that soil is slightly acidic (pH of 6.2) with an inherent exchangeable P, K, Ca, and Mg content were 2.1 Cmol kg⁻¹, 0.5 Cmol kg⁻¹, 15.5 Cmol kg⁻¹, and 10.5 Cmol kg⁻¹ soil, respectively (SRDI, 2009). Field capacity of the soil was calculated according to Datta et al. (2009) where 44.8% soil moisture content was determined at 100% field capacity also corresponded 0 kPa soil water potential.

3.5.10 Fruit number and yield

Data on fruit number and yield were recorded during each harvesting and total yield was calculated.

Partial budget analysis for eco-friendly management approaches to minimize thrips infestation in capsicum production

The cost of plastic mulch, kaolin, pesticides and intercultural operations (land preparation, weeding, harvesting) according to market price were included for partial budgeting. A partial budget analysis was conducted summarizing the changes in revenue and expenses using different management approaches to crop thrips with untreated control plants.

3.9.11 Statistical analysis

The field data were subjected to a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and were analyzed using the analytical software SAS following the GLM procedure and means with significant treatments effects were identified by F test and separated by Tukey's HSD test at $p < 0.05$. The Pearson Correlation analyses were performed to judge the pattern and strength of the relationship between canopy temperature and thrips incidence at different WAT. The partial budget analysis was computed by Excel 2016.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Growth and development parameters

4.1.1 Plant survival and vigor

Capsicum plants (purple, yellow, green) survives properly in open filed condition. There were no significant effect of different capsicum colors and applications on plant survival observed (Table 4.1). In case of plant vigor, at early stage [2 week after transplanting (WAT)] a significant effect of capsicum colors on plant vigor was documented and purple and yellow color producing capsicum plants grown more vigorously than green color capsicum plant, but applications had no significant effect on plant vigor. However, gradually the effect of capsicum colors and applications were maximized and the similar tread of plant vigor in respect of capsicum color was noticed at 4 WAT, and also application had significant effect on plant vigor, generally all types of applications (Kaolin. Neem oil, Bildor) performed better in respect of plant vigor than untreated plants (control).

Table 4.1. Effect of capsicum colors and applications on plant survival and vigor.

Treatments	Plant survival (%)		Plant vigor	
	2 WAT	4 WAT	2 WAT	4 WAT
Capsicum colors (A)				
Green	100.0	100.0	6.67 b	7.50 b
Yellow	100.0	99.0	8.00 ab	8.33 ab
Purple	100.0	99.0	8.25 a	9.17 a
Applications (B)				
Control	100.0	98.6	6.67	6.79 b
Kaolin	100.0	100.0	8.33	8.55 a
Neem oil	100.0	98.6	7.89	8.10 a
Bildor	100.0	100.0	7.67	7.80 a
Significance level (p- value)				
A	0.21	0.61	0.04	0.04
B	0.31	0.58	0.15	0.03
A × B	0.83	0.36	0.43	0.44

Means of same letters within each column do not differ significantly and Tukey's HSD test at $p < 0.05$ for multiple comparison, p-value indicates level of significance, WAT-Week after transplanting, kaolin was applied at 56 kg ha^{-1} as foliar sprays, neem oil was applied at 2 ml L^{-1} , and chemical (Bildor) was applied 2.5 ml L^{-1} .

4.1.2 Plant height

Capsicum colors and applications had significant effect on plant height except 2, 10, 12 WAT, respectively where no significant effect was noticed (Table 4.2). At 4 WAT, the maximum plant height (22.57 cm) was recorded from purple color producing capsicum plants followed by green color capsicum (18.94 cm) while in least in yellow color making capsicum plants (16.69 cm). In case of applications, kaolin clay showed better results for plant height than either chemical or neem oil and untreated plants (control) at 4 WAT. All applications contributed better for increasing plant height than control plants at 6 WAT. In 8 WAT, kaolin clay and chemical applications exhibited better results for plant height than neem oil and control plants.

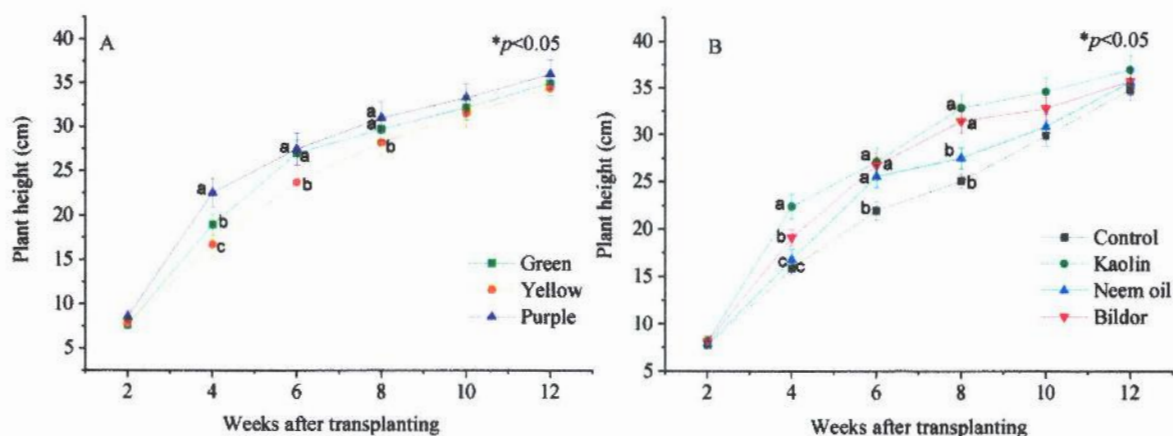


Fig.4.1.2. Effect of capsicum colors and applications on leaf number.

Means of same letters within each column do not differ significantly and Tukey's HSD test at $p < 0.05$ for multiple comparison, p-value indicates level of significance, WAT-Week after transplanting, kaolin was applied at 56 kg ha^{-1} as foliar sprays, neem oil was applied at 2 ml L^{-1} , and chemical (Bildor) was applied 2.5 ml L^{-1} .

4.1.3 number of leaves

There was highly significant variation of leaf number per plant observed due to variation of capsicum colors and applications (Table 4.3). Purple color capsicum plants were produced more leaf per plant compared to yellow and green color producing capsicum plants throughout the growing period. Generally, kaolin and chemical treated plants produced more leaves compared to control and neem oil treated plants. Applications had no significant effect at 2 and 12 WAT.

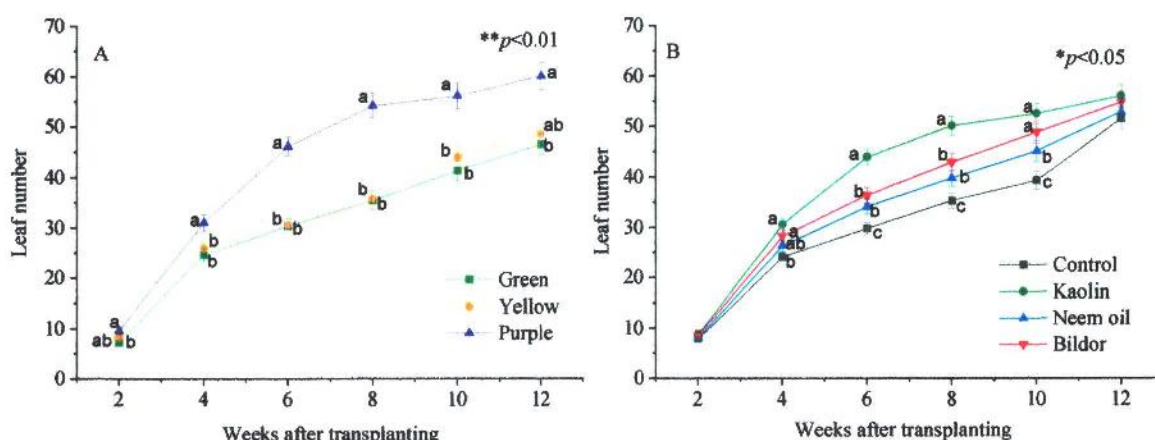


Fig.4.1.3. Effect of capsicum colors and applications on leaf number

Means of same letters within each column do not differ significantly and Tukey's HSD test at $p < 0.05$ for multiple comparison, p-value indicates level of significance, WAT-Week after transplanting, kaolin was applied at 56 kg ha^{-1} as foliar sprays, neem oil was applied at 2 ml L^{-1} , and chemical (Bildor) was applied 2.5 ml L^{-1} .

4.1.4 Days required to first and 50% flowering

Different capsicum colors had significant effect on duration of flower formation as described in Table 4.4. The response of applications to days required to first and fifty percentage flowers were significant. Purple color producing capsicum plants took less time for first and fifty percent flowering compared to yellow and green color capsicum producing plants.

Kaolin treated plants took less time (≥ 4 days) for flowering than control plants. Similarly, kaolin treated plants took less time for flowering than chemical, neem oil and control plants

4.1.5 SPAD

However, a significant variation on SPAD value and chlorophyll content were documented due to capsicum color differences. Green and yellow color capsicum producing plants were more greenish in appearance than purple color producing plants that was reflected in SPAD value and chlorophyll content of leaf. Also, applications had a significant effect on SPAD value and chlorophyll content. In general, treated plants exhibited better chlorophyll contentment than untreated plants (control).

Table 4.2. Effect of capsicum colors and applications on days required to first and 50% flowering, SPAD value and chlorophyll content.

Treatments	Days required to first flower	Days required to 50% flower	SPAD value		Chlorophyll content (mg/g)	
			4 WAT	6 WAT	4 WAT	6 WAT
Capsicum colors (A)						
Green	26.16 a	32.00 a	52.41 a	57.40 a	6.89 a	7.23 a
Yellow	25.17 a	31.50 a	48.77 a	52.94 a	5.10 a	5.82 a
Purple	22.25 b	26.17 b	39.80 b	44.57 b	4.02 b	4.76 b
Applications (B)						
Control	27.03 a	32.02 a	37.97 b	40.20 b	3.67 b	3.93 b
Kaolin	21.87 b	28.19 b	46.64 a	50.73 a	5.60 a	6.07 a
Neem oil	26.12 a	31.68 a	50.70 a	56.57 a	6.50 a	7.03 a
Bildor	25.66 a	31.34 a	45.66 a	50.04 a	4.81 a	5.69 a
Significance level (p-value)						
A	0.03	0.0004	0.0003	0.002	0.03	0.02
B	0.02	0.01	0.04	0.02	0.04	0.05
A × B	0.65	0.15	0.30	0.50	0.61	0.32

Means of same letters within each column do not differ significantly and Tukey's HSD test at $p < 0.05$ for multiple comparison, p-value indicates level of significance, WAT-Week after transplanting, kaolin was applied at 56 kg ha^{-1} as foliar sprays, neem oil was applied at 2 ml L^{-1} , and chemical (Bildor) was applied 2.5 ml L^{-1} .

4.1.6 Incidence of thrips

The studied factor capsicum colors had no statistically stringent impact on thrips incidence and thrips count while a statistically significant variation was noticed among the applications (Tables 4.5 and 4.6). Kaolin application showed better results for controlling thrips in capsicum production. Kaolin application was reduced significantly thrips infestation by 73.76% compared to control plants. Chemical control was performed better to control thrips too at 6 and 8 WAT. The highest incidence was noticed in untreated plants (control) followed by neem oil treated plants. The applications had no significant effect on thrips incidence and thrips count at 10 and 12 WAT.

Table 4.3. Effect of capsicum colors and applications on thrips incidence.

Treatments	Thrips incidence (%)					
	2 WAT	4 WAT	6 WAT	8 WAT	10 WAT	12 WAT
Capsicum colors (A)						
Green	8.33	8.12	7.29	4.17	4.16	4.13
Yellow	7.29	7.15	6.25	4.17	3.08	4.02
Purple	6.25	6.17	5.94	3.13	2.67	3.11
Applications (B)						
Control	9.72 a	11.11 a	8.33 a	5.56 a	4.16	4.69
Kaolin	4.05 c	2.38 c	1.29 b	1.39 b	2.89	2.95
Neem oil	6.94 b	8.33 ab	6.94 a	5.45 a	4.16	4.19
Bildor	6.83 b	7.16 ab	2.78 b	2.17 b	3.02	3.56
Significance level (p-value)						
A	0.83	0.31	0.08	0.92	0.43	0.20
B	0.03	0.02	0.05	0.02	0.36	0.74
A × B	0.10	0.23	0.70	0.45	0.52	0.68

Means of same letters within each column do not differ significantly and Tukey's HSD test at $p < 0.05$ for multiple comparison, p-value indicates level of significance, WAT-Week after transplanting, kaolin was applied at 56 kg ha^{-1} as foliar sprays, neem oil was applied at 2 ml L^{-1} , and chemical (Bildor) was applied 2.5 ml L^{-1} .

Table 4.4. Effect of capsicum colors and applications on thrips number.

Treatments	Thrips number					
	2 WAT	4 WAT	6 WAT	8 WAT	10 WAT	12 WAT
Capsicum colors (A)						
Green	0.66	0.67	0.58	0.33	0.33	0.28
Yellow	0.58	0.50	0.50	0.33	0.26	0.25
Purple	0.50	0.46	0.41	0.25	0.18	0.16
Applications (B)						
Control	0.78 a	0.88 a	0.66 a	0.44 a	0.41	0.44
Kaolin	0.32 c	0.11 c	0.10 a	0.13 b	0.15	0.17
Neem oil	0.56 b	0.66 ab	0.55 a	0.42 a	0.39	0.40
Bildor	0.52 b	0.45 ab	0.22 b	0.22 b	0.24	0.27
Significance level (p- value)						
A	0.83	0.31	0.08	0.92	0.43	0.20
B	0.03	0.02	0.05	0.02	0.36	0.74
A × B	0.10	0.23	0.70	0.45	0.52	0.68

Means of same letters within each column do not differ significantly and Tukey's HSD test at $p < 0.05$ for multiple comparison, p-value indicates level of significance, WAT-Week after transplanting, kaolin was applied at 56 kg ha^{-1} as foliar sprays, neem oil was applied at 2 ml L^{-1} , and chemical (Bildor) was applied 2.5 ml L^{-1} .

4.1.7 Number of thrips and yield

There was a significant difference on total number of marketable fruits of capsicum was observed due to different colors (Table 4.7). Purple color gave better number of marketable fruits compared to yellow and green color. However, interaction effect of capsicum color and applications were significant in respect to total yield. The combination of purple color and kaolin application exhibited better results compared to other combination. The green color producing untreated plants (control) showed least results.

Table 4.5. Effect of capsicum colors and applications on fruit number and total yield.

Treatments	Total number of fruits (ha ⁻¹)	Total yield (t ha ⁻¹)		
Capsicum colors (A)				
Green	2,91,146 b	-		
Yellow	3,36,979 b	-		
Purple	5,56,771 a	-		
Applications (B)		Green	Yellow	Purple
Control	319444	16.12 d	22.12 c	29.27 b
Kaolin	430556	26.04 b	32.91 b	44.86 a
Neem oil	411111	23.77 bc	29.72 b	29.98 b
Bildor	418750	24.84 bc	29.80 b	31.23 b
Significance level (p-value)				
A	0.001		0.08	
B	0.42		0.13	
A × B	0.32		0.04	

Means of same letters within each column do not differ significantly and Tukey's HSD test at $p < 0.05$ for multiple comparison, p-value indicates level of significance, WAT-Week after transplanting, kaolin was applied at 56 kg ha⁻¹ as foliar sprays, neem oil was applied at 2 ml L⁻¹, and chemical (Bildor) was applied 2.5 ml L⁻¹.

4.1.8 Correlation

The Pearson correlation matrix revealed that between canopy temperature and thrips incidence had a close relationship with one another (Table 4.8). The correlation was non-significant for all the cases except at 8 and 10 WAT. At 8 WAT, a positive significant association of temperature and thrips incidence were noticed. Although at 10 WAT, the correlation was negative. At later stage of the experiment, the thrips incidence was lower compared to initial incidence.

Table 4.6. The Pearson correlation matrix of canopy temperature and thrips incidence.

	Tm1	Tm2	Tm3	Tm4	Tm5	Tm6	Ic1	Ic2	Ic3	Ic4	Ic5	Ic6
Tm1	1											
Tm2	0.202	1										
Tm3	0.117	0.099	1									
Tm4	0.013	0.015	-0.022	1								
Tm5	0.122	0.142	-0.082	-0.156	1							
Tm6	0.226	-0.005	0.151	0.121	-0.118	1						
Ic1	0.015	-0.119	-0.168	-0.158	0.137	0.003	1					
Ic2	0.212	0.184	0.153	0.424**	-0.327*	0.103	-0.033	1				
Ic3	0.299	0.160	-0.103	-0.123	0.217	-0.075	0.138	-0.085	1			
Ic4	0.057	0.214	0.195	-0.084	-0.142	-0.044	0.257	0.203	-0.205	1		
Ic5	-0.076	-0.027	-0.104	-0.079	0.259	-0.089	0.169	-0.151	-0.303*	0.091	1	
Ic6	0.136	0.107	0.134	-0.127	-0.076	-0.071	0.246	0.145	-0.448**	-0.098	-0.163	1

Tm1= canopy temperature at 2 WAT, Tm2= canopy temperature at 4 WAT, Tm3= canopy temperature at 6 WAT, Tm4= canopy temperature at 8 WAT, Tm5= canopy temperature at 10 WAT, Tm6= canopy temperature at 12 WAT, Ic1= Thrips incidence at 2 WAT, Ic2= Thrips incidence at 4 WAT, Ic3= Thrips incidence at 6 WAT, Ic4= Thrips incidence at 8 WAT, Ic5= Thrips incidence at 10 WAT, Ic6= Thrips incidence at 12 WAT, **, * Significant at $p < 0.01$ and $p < 0.05$.

4.2 Economic evaluation of capsicum production by partial budgeting

4.2.1 Total yield and gross yield

Total marketable yield and price value were higher in pink color plus kaolin combination compared to the pink color plus chemical (Table 4.9). The pink color plus kaolin application system (PK) reduced significant operating cost required for pesticides, labors for spraying and weeding etc. (Table 4.9). The cost of production of PK system required about 39.3 % of less operating cost (81,828 Tk. ha⁻¹) than that of traditional capsicum production system (TS) (Table 4.10). However, the cost increases in PK system were 24000, 3000, 5,400 and 6000 Tk. ha⁻¹ for plastic mulch, kaolin, labor for mulching set up and harvesting, respectively.

Table 4.7. Total yield, and price variation of following purple color with kaolin clay system (PK) relative to traditional capsicum production system (TS) at Khulna.

Treatments	Total yield (kg ha ⁻¹)	Value ^a (BDT ha ⁻¹)
Pink + kaolin	44,860	1,13,72,000
Pink + Chemical	31,230	87,46,000
Changes	13,630	26,26,000

^aThe growers selling price of capsicum were varied from 200-300 Tk. kg⁻¹ during the harvesting period.

Table 4.8. Cost comparison between capsicum following traditional system (TS) and purple color with kaolin system (PK).

Cost category	Cost items (BDT/ac)	Total cost of cultivate capsicum in TS (Tk. ha ⁻¹)	Total cost of cultivation for PK (Tk. ha ⁻¹)	Total changes in cost due to cultivation of PK (Tk. ha ⁻¹)
Operating	Plastic mulch ^a	-	24,000	24,000
	Kaolin ^b	-	3,000	3,000
	Pesticide and fungicide cost ^c	5,928	-	-5,928
	Labor cost for mulching set up above beds ^d	-	5,400	5,400
	Labor cost for spraying kaolin, fungicides and pesticides ^e	27,000	16,200	-10,800
	Labor cost for weeding ^f	1,21,500	18,000	-1,03,500
Total operating		1,54,428	66,600	-87,828
Harvesting	Labor for harvesting ^g	54,000	60,000	6,000
Total		2,08,428	1,26,600	-81,828

Cost details (ha⁻¹)

^aPlastic mulch cost 24,000 Tk. (1 roll 8,000 Tk.)

^bKaolin cost: 3000 Tk. for PK system (1 bags (11.5 kg) Kaolin 4500 Tk.), ^cPesticides and fungicides cost: 5928 Tk. for traditional system (TS),

^dLabor cost for mulching set up at 450 Tk. labor⁻¹ (12 labors)

^eLabor cost for spraying: 20 times for TS and 12 times for PK system at 450 Tk. spray⁻¹, 3 labors spray⁻¹

^fLabor cost for weeding: at 450 Tk. labor⁻¹ - 6 times for TS (45 labors each time) and 4 times for L02 (10 labors each time),

^gLabor cost for harvesting: at 200 Tk. person⁻¹, 10 times harvesting (30 labors each time) for PK system and 9 times harvesting (30 labor each time) for TS system.

4.2.2 Marketable yield and cost of production

The marketable fruit yield of PK system was 44,860 kg ha⁻¹, and similarly marketable yield of TS was 31,230 kg ha⁻¹. Purple plus kaolin application system yield was increased by 13,630 kg ha⁻¹ over TS (Table 4.9). During growing period capsicum growers having prices for capsicum were varied from 200 to 300 Tk. (DNCRP, 2021). The expected net profit from the cultivation of

purple capsicum plus kaolin application was 27,07,828 Tk. ha⁻¹ would be greater than cultivating capsicum in traditional way, signifying increased effectiveness potential under this specific set of assumptions (Table 4.11).

Table 4.9. Changes in return in cultivating purple color capsicum with kaolin clay relative to Traditional system.

Budget variable	Total fruit yield changes (kg ha ⁻¹)	Value changes (Tk.)
Yield (kg)	13,630	26,26,000
Cost (Tk.)	-	81,828
Total return (Tk.)	-	27,07,828

4.3 Discussion

Improved plant vigor of kaolin-treated strawberry transplants is consistent with previous reports that kaolin can protect plants against heat stress. Application of a kaolin clay suspension was reported to have resulted in a white coating that reflected light and maintained cooler temperatures on treated as opposed to untreated leaves on tomato plants (Cantore et al. 2009). According to Cantore et al. (2009), kaolin aids in reducing the loss of water from the plant from transpiration and increases the drought tolerance of the plant. Boari et al. (2015) observed that the antitranspirant effect of kaolin promotes transplant establishment under adverse conditions. In the present study, kaolin created a white layer on the foliage and the surface of the black plastic mulch. As a result, the leaves and mulch would have reflected the incoming solar radiation and kept the plants cool. It is likely that transpiration was reduced with the kaolin applications, allowing the plants to resist dehydration. The microenvironment around the plants may have also been cooler with the kaolin treatments, which may explain the improvement in

plant vigor. Also, the white layers adhering to the leaf surface causing irritation for insects and helps to eliminate their scavenging activity on the leaves and fruits of crops. This clay suspension helps to repel different type of insects like thrips, mites, beetles, leaf roller etc. and supports plants to grow more vigorously (Glenn, 2012). Application kaolin to crops of all sorts has been shown to be an effective way to decrease negative environmental influences, prevent disease and deter many kinds of insect pests (Anonymous, 2018.). Kaolin treated pepper plants showed better efficacy against western flower thrips (*Frankliniella occidentalis*), Florida flower thrips (*F. bispinosa*), and eastern flower thrips (*F. tritici*) in a field trial in Florida reported by Funderburk (2014). Both the preventive and curative kaolin applications caused a significant decrease in the populations of thrips (*E. vitis* and *Z. rhamni*) nymphs (Tacoli, et al., 2017). Chemicals dominated over botanicals and acetamiprid at 0.004% reduced 93.3% thrips population on chili reported by Mandi and Senapati (2009). Additionally, ultimeem at 1% (Botanical) showed better performance and control 54.2% thrips population. Similar types of findings were stated by Patel and Kumar (2017). They mentioned that the chemicals Spinosad at 0.2 ml/l was recorded highest control of thrips (79.79%).

The chlorophyll content of leaves infested by thrips lower than non-infected leaves. To get the nutrients thrips stick into the leaf tissue and suck the liquid epidermis, palisade containing chlorophyll and mesophyll cells (Kirk, 1997). Kolb et al. (1991) rereporting five adult thrips per bud in confinement will cause chlorosis. Damage caused by feeding thrips cause high loss water rate. Leaves infested by thrips tend to experience water stress and reduce the rate of photosynthesis in conditions of low water availability. The kaolin treated plants took less time for flowering because those plants grow vigorously with less thrips infestation causing early flowering. However, the purple color performed better than other colors in respect of growth and

development parameters may be a genetic cause. High densities of thrips cause retarded plant growth (Kawai, 1986).

Weather variables including temperature, relative humidity and rainfall have been reported as important factors that significantly affect the thrips population (Waiganjo et al., 2008). In addition to their effect on thrips activity, temperature and relative humidity further influence the intrinsic rate of natural increase of thrips (Murai, 2000). Our results are in partial agreement with Fathi et al. (2011) who reported that there was 40 to 90 % survival of nymphs on different canola cultivars at 25°C. Murai (2000) reported 67.5 % survival both at 25 and 30°C on pollen and honey solution cultivars. Our findings are not in line with Kumar (2013) who revealed that at an average temperature of 34.17°C, there was 75 % survival and at an average temperature of 31.43°C, the survival of nymphs was 89 % in the cotton plant. Environmental conditions such as temperature and light are known to modulate plant–insect interactions (Escobar-Bravo, et al., 2018, Wang, et al., 2009; Zavala, et al., 2015). The difference in observations may be due to differences in environmental conditions.

The efficacy of insecticides studied in the present experiment is reported by many authors in green chilli and capsicum and the present results are in agreement with the reports by Roopa (2013) who reported that lowest populations, highest per cent reduction of thrips was recorded with the treatment Spinosad 45 SC @ 0.01% in capsicum and it also resulted in maximum fruit yield (30.05 tha⁻¹). Similarly, Vanisree et al. (2017) reported that Spinosad 0.015% was found most effective in reducing the population of thrips as well as in increasing yields in chilli and it attains highest cost benefit ratio. Consistent with our results, kaolin-treated tomato plants had larger fruit and higher total crop yield (Cantore et al., 2009) and total yield was increased in kaolin-treated pepper plants (Makus 2005). Kaolin also does not appear to have any recorded

negative effects on horticultural crops. Kaolin-treated grape vines exhibited no negative impacts from kaolin with respect to cluster size and weight of clusters (Shellie and Glenn, 2010). Williams et al. (2011) reported that extreme damaged by thrips can result in yield loss in capsicum. Several thrips' species contributed to yield losses in capsicum (Cannon, et al., 2007; Ssemwogerere, et al., 2013; Walsh, et al., 2012; Weintraub, 2007). Similar yield loss trend was noticed in the present experiment where untreated plants were more thrips infestation led to yield loss. However, the profits incentive was offered by price premiums from more capsicum yield. The savings in inputs costs would increase more to this cost-efficacy.

Though insecticides are found be the most promising tools of insect pest management, there is a need to integrate other safe methods of pest management to overcome the negative effects of insecticides. Now-a-days kaolin clay is the most widely used organic clay particles for the agricultural insect pests and have been particularly important in surveillance and monitoring of the seasonal appearance of many species.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Capsicum is one of the high value horticultural crops grown extensively throughout the world, especially for its taste, nutritional enrichment and attractive color. One of the major problems of capsicum cultivation is thrips infestation throughout the cultivation period. Kaolin is an organic mineral compound rich in kaolinite was widespread use to reduce insect infestation in various crops. From the study, it is found that growth, yield components of capsicum yield and net profitability were highly influenced by different capsicum colors and applications. It was found that higher marketable total yield (44.86 tha^{-1}) resulted from purple color plus kaolin application combination than green color with no application (control) (16.12 tha^{-1}). Flowering occurred earlier by more than 4 days in plants on treated with kaolin compared to the untreated plants (control). In addition, kaolin application was lowered thrips infestation by 73.76% than control plants. The total effectiveness of capsicum production was raised by Tk. 27,07,828 ha^{-1} . Therefore, pink color genotype with kaolin application for controlling thrips in field condition came up with a new hope for vegetable growers in Bangladesh that would ensure maximum economic returns.

CHAPTER VII

REFERENCES

- Abd El-Aziz, S.E.2013. Laboratory and field Evaluation of Kaolin and Bentonite particle films against onion thrips, *Thrips tabaci* (Lind.)(Thysanoptera: Thripidae) on onion plants. Journal of Applied Science Research, 9:3141-3145.
- Anonymous, 2018.Kaolin clay for plants: organic garden insect pests control. <https://plantcaretoday.com/kaolin-clay.html>. Accessed 8 May, 2021.
- Azad, A.K, B.K. Goshwami, M.L. Rahaman, P.K. Malakar, M.S. Hasan and M.H.H. Rahaman. 2019. Krishi projukti handbook. 7th ed. Bangladesh Agricultural Research Institute Gazipur 1701 Bangladesh. pp. 293-294.
- Bara, G.T. and M.D. Laing. 2020. Entomopathogens: potential to control thrips in avocado, with special reference to *Beauveria bassiana*. Horticultural Reviews, 47: 325-368.
- Bennison, J., K. Maulden and H. Maher. 2002. Choice of predatory mites for biological control of ground-dwelling stages of western flower thrips within a push-pull strategy on pot chrysanthemum. IOBC WPRS Bulletin, 25(1): 9-12.
- Berlinger, J.M., W.R. Jarvis, J.T. Jewett and S. Lebiush-Mordechai. 1999. Managing the greenhouse crop and crop environment. p.97-123. In: R. Albajes, M.L. Gullino, J.C. van Lenteren and Y. Elad (eds.), Integrated Pest and Disease Management in Greenhouse Crops. Kluwer Academic Publishers, Dordrecht.
- Bhatt, R.M, N.K.S. Rao and N. Anand. 1992. Response of bell pepper to irradiance photosynthesis, reproductive attributes and yield. Indian Journal of Horticulture, 56:62-66.
- Boari, F., A. Donadio, M.I. Schiattone, and V. Cantore. 2015. Particle film technology: A supplemental tool to save water. Agricultural Water Management, 147:154-162.
- Braley, C.R. 2021. The Impact of Beneficial Organisms in Corn *Agroecosystems* (Doctoral dissertation, The University of Nebraska-Lincoln).
- Broughton, S. and F. De Lima. 2002. Monitoring and control of thrips in citrus. Department of Agriculture Farmnote, 7: 1-4.



- Cannon, R.J.C., L. Matthews and D.W. Collins. 2007. A review of the pest status and control options for *Thripspalmi*. Crop Protection, 26: 1089-1098.
- Cantore, V., P. Bernardo, and R. Albrizio. 2009. Kaolin-based particle film technology affects tomato physiology, yield and quality. Environmental and Experimental Botany, 66:279-288.
- Cloyd, R.A. 2009. Western flower thrips (*Frankliniella occidentalis*) management on ornamental crops grown in greenhouses: have we reached an impasse. Pest Technol, 3:1-9.
- Cornelisse, S. 2017. Partial budgeting for agricultural business. Penn State Extension, College of Agricultural Sciences, The Pennsylvania State University, PA 16802. <https://extension.psu.edu/partial-budgeting-for-agricultural-businesses>. Accessed June 15, 2020.
- Dash, P. K., C. A. Chase, S. Agehara and L. Zotarelli. 2021. Alleviating heat stress during early-season establishment of containerized strawberry transplants. Journal of Berry Research, 11(4): 1-22.
- Dash, P.K., C.A. Chase, S. Agehara and L. Zotarelli. 2020. Heat stress mitigation effects of kaolin and s-abscisic acid during the establishment of strawberry plug transplants. Scientia Horticulturae, 267:1-10.
- Datta, A., B.M.Sindel, P. Kristiansen, R.S. Jessop and W.L. Felton. 2009. The effects of temperature and soil moisture on chickpea (*Cicer arietinum* L.) genotype sensitivity to isoxaflutole. Journal of Agronomy and Crop Science, 195: 178-185.
- Escobar-Bravo, R., G. Cheng, K.H. Kyong, K. Grosser, N. M. van Dam, K.A. Leiss, and P.G.L. Klinkhamer. 2018. Ultraviolet radiation exposure time and intensity modulate tomato resistance against herbivory through activation of the jasmonic acid signaling. Journal of Experimental Botany. 70(1): 315-327.
- Fathi, S.A.A., F. Gholami, G.N. Ganbalani and A. Mohiseni. 2011. Life history parameters of *Thripstabaci* (Thysanoptera: Thripidae) on six commercial cultivars of canola. Applied Entomology and Zoology, 46: 505-10.
- Funderburk, J. 2014. Evaluating kaolin as natural vegetable pesticides. <https://nwdistrict.ifas.ufl.edu/phag/2014/09/26/evaluating-kaolin-as-a-pesticide/#:~:text=Kaolin%20has%20been%20shown%20to,incidence%20of%20insect%>

2Dvectored%20disease.&text=Minute%20pirate%20bugs%20are%20the,of%20thrips%20by%20early%20April. Accessed May 8, 2021.

- German, T.L., D.E. Ullman and J.W. Moyer. 1992. Tospoviruses: diagnosis, molecular biology, phylogeny, and vector relationships. *Annual Review of Phytopathology*, 30: 315-348.
- Glenn, D.M. 2012. The mechanisms of plant stress mitigation by kaolin-based particle films and applications in horticultural and agricultural crops. *HortScience* 47(6):710-711.
- Hoffmann, M.P., C.H. Petzoldt and A. Frodsham. 1996. Integrated pest management for onions. pp.102-113.
- Hosamani, A.C., R. Naveena, J. Krishna and M. Bheemanna. 2015. Bioefficacy of Imidacloprid 17.8% SL on Sucking Pests in Chilli (*Capsicum annuum* L.) Ecosystem. *Environment and Ecology*, 34(3A):1028-1031.
- Jones, T., C. Scott-Dupree, R. Harris, L. Shipp and B. Harris. 2005. The efficacy of spinosad against the western flower thrips, *Frankliniella occidentalis*, and its impact on associated biological control agents on greenhouse cucumbers in southern Ontario. *Pest Management Science: formerly Pesticide Science*, 61(2): 179-185.
- Kandasamy, C., M. Mohanasundaram and P. Karuppuchamy. 1990. Evaluation of insecticides for the control of the thrips *Scirtothrips dorsalis* Hood on chillies (*Capsicum annuum* L.). *Madras Agricultural Journal*, 77(3-4): 169-172.
- Kaur, S. and S. Singh. 2013. Efficacy of some insecticides and botanicals against sucking pests on capsicum under net house. *Agriculture for sustainable development*. 1: 39-44.
- Kaur, S., M.S. Dhaliwal, D.S. Cheema and A. Sharama. 2010. Screening of chilli germplasm for resistance against chilli thrips and yellow mite. *Journal of Research Punjab Agriculture University*, 47(3, 4):143-144.
- Kawai, A. 1986. Studies on population ecology of *Thrips palmi* Karny. XI. Analysis of damage to cucumber. *Japanese Journal of Applied Entomology and Zoology*. 30(1); 12-16.
- Kirk, W.D.J. 1997. Feeding. In: *Thrips as Crops Pest*, Lewis, T. (Ed.), CAB International, Wallingford, ISBN-10: 0851991785, pp: 119-162. Kolb, T.E., L.H. McCormick and D.L.
- Kumar, A. 2013. Biology of cotton thrips, *Thrips tabaci* Lindeman (Thysanoptera: Thripidae) on cotton (*Gossypium* spp.). M. Sc. Thesis, Punjab Agricultural University, Ludhiana, India.

- Kumar, R.A., Cinniah, C. and S. Manisegran. 2016. Effect of biorational against the thrips, *Scirtothrips dorsalis* Hood infesting chilli. International Journal of Plant Protection, 9:158-161.
- Kumar, V., N. K. Pathania and N. Kumar. 2015. Evaluation of bell pepper (*Capsicum annuum* L. Var. *GrossumSendt.*) genotypes for quality traits in modified naturally ventilated polyhouse. Asian Journal of Plant Science and Research, 5(4): 35-37.
- Larentzaki, E., A.M. Shelton and J. Plate. 2008. Effect of kaolin particle film on *Thrips tabaci* (Thysanoptera: Thripidae), oviposition, feeding and development on onions: a lab and field case study. Crop Protection, 27(3-5): 727-734.
- Maity, C., A. Santra, L. Mandal and P. Mondal. 2015. Management of Chilli Thrips with Some Newer Molecules of Chemichals. International Journal of Bio-Resource, Environment and Agricultural Sciences (IJBEAS), 1(3): 119-125.
- Makus, D.J. 2005. Effect of kaolin (Surround™) on pepper fruit and seed mineral nutrients. Subtropical Plant Sci. 57: 5-9.
- Mandi, N. and A. K. Senapati. 2009. Integration of chemical botanical and microbial insecticides for control of thrips, *Scirtothrips dorsalis* Hood infesting chilli. The Journal of Plant Protection Sciences, 1(1): 92-95.
- Mondal, C.K., P. Acharyya and P.Hazra. 2013. Biochemical basis of plant defense for leaf curl virus of chilli (*Capsicum annuum* L). Proceedings of the XV Eucarpia meeting on genetics and breeding of capsicum and eggplant. pp. 2- 4.
- Morales-Garcia, D., K.A. Stewart, P. Seguin and C. Madramootoo. 2011. Supplemental saline drip irrigation applied at different growth stages of two bell pepper cultivars grown with or without mulch in non-saline soil. Agricultural Water Management, 98:893-898.
- Mouden, S., K.F. Sarmiento, P.G. Klinkhamer and K.A. Leiss. 2017. Integrated pest management in western flower thrips: past, present and future. Pest Management Science, <https://doi.org/10.1002/ps.4531>
- Murai, T. 2000. Effect of temperature on development and reproduction of the onion thrips, *Thripstabaci* Lindeman (Thysanoptera: Thripidae), on pollen and honey solution. Applied and Entomology and Zoology, 35: 499-504.

- OMRI (Organic Materials Review Institute. 2007. Products list, web edition.
http://www.omri.org/complete_company.pdf. (Accessed March 19, 2022).
- Patel, B.H., D.J. Koshiya, D.M. Korat and P.R. Vaishnav. 2009. Evaluation of some insecticides against chilli thrips *Scirtothrips dorsalis* Hood. Karnataka Journal of Agricultural Science, 22(2):327-330.
- Patel, V.D. and A. Kumar. 2017. Field efficacy of certain botanical and chemical insecticides against chilli thrips [*Scirtothrips dorsalis* (Hood)] on Chilli (*Capsicum annuum* L.). Journal of Pharmacognosy and Phytochemistry, 6(4): 497-499.
- Patil, V.M., Z.P. Patel, S.S. Gurav, R.K. Patel and S.S. Thorat. 2018. Bioefficacy of various insecticides against chilli thrips (*Scirtothrips dorsalis* Hood). International Journal of Chemical Studies, 6(1):313-316.
- Puterka, G.J., D.M. Glenn, D.G. Sekutowski, T.R. Unruh and S.K. Jones. 2000. Progress toward liquid formulations of particle films for insect and disease control in pear. Environmental Entomology, 29: 329-339.
- Rajapakse, N.C. and Y. Shahak. 2007. Light quality manipulation by horticulture industry. p.290-312. In: G. Whitelam and K. Halliday (eds.), Light and Plant Development. Blackwell Publishing, UK.
- Rakesh, M. 2017. Field efficacy of certain bio-pesticides against chilli thrips *Scirtothrips dorsalis* (hood) on chilli (*Capsicum annuum* L.). International Journal of Current Microbiology and Applied Sciences, 6(6): 2188-2192.
- Rameash, K., S.R. Pandravada, N. Sivaraj, B.B. Sarath and S.K. Chakrabarty. 2016. Diversity and distribution of *Capsicum annuum* L. genotypes resistant to *Scirtothrips dorsalis* in India: An analysis through geographical information system. Journal of Food, Agriculture and Environment, 14(1): 51-64.
- Reddy, E.S.G. 2005. Comparison of pest incidence and management strategy on capsicum and tomato grown under protected and open field cultivation. Ph. D. Thesis University of Agricultural Sciences. Bangalore (India).

- Reddy, E.S.G. and K. Kumar. 2006. A comparison of management of thrips *Scirtothrips dorsalis* Hood on sweet pepper grown under protected and open field cultivation. *Pest Management in Horticulture Ecosystem*, 12: 45-54.
- Roopa, M. 2013. Pest complex, screening of cultivars and evaluation of new insecticide molecules against major insect pests of *Capsicum annum* L. M.Sc. Thesis, University of Agriculture Sciences Bangalore, Karnataka (India). p. 109.
- Rosenthal, J.P. and P.M. Kotanen. 1994. Terrestrial plant tolerance to herbivory. *Trends in Ecology and Evolution*, 9: 145-148.
- Roy, A.K. 2018. Partial budgeting analysis of an intervention of 'Land Shaping Technology' at South 24 Parganas, West Bengal, India. *Open Access Journal of Environmental and Soil Science* 1(4): 101-109.
- Saha, S.R., and M.A. Salam. 2004. Modern techniques of sweet pepper cultivation. A booklet published by plant physiology section, HRC, BARI, Gazipur.
- Samota, R.G., B.L. Jat and D.C. Mamta. 2017. Efficacy of newer insecticides and biopesticides against thrips, *Scirtothrips dorsalis* Hood in chilli. *Journal of Pharmacognosy and Phytochemistry*, 6(4): 1458-1462.
- Sanap, M.M. and R.N. Nawale. 1987. Chemical control of chillithrips, *Scirtothrips dorsalis*. *Vegetable Science*, 14:195-99.
- Sandeep, K.S., M.S. Sai Reddy, S. Arjun and R.N. Singh. 2017. Bioefficacy of various insecticides and botanicals against chillithrips (*S. dorsalis* Hood) and their comparative cost: Benefit analysis in chilli crop. *Journal of Entomology and Zoology Studies*, 5(2): 130-134.
- Sathyan, T., M.K. Dhanya, T.T. Preethy, T.S. Aswathy and M. Murugan. 2017. Relative efficacy of some newer molecules against thrips, *Scirtothrips dorsalis* (Hood) (Thysanoptera: Thripidae) on rose. 5(3):703-706.
- Seal, D.R., M. Ciomperlik, M.L. Richards and W. Klassen. 2006. Comparative effectiveness of chemical insecticides against the chilli thrips, *Scirtothrips dorsalis* (Hood) (Thysanoptera: Thripidae), on pepper and their compatibility with natural enemies. *Crop Protection*, 25:949-955.

- Sharma, A., M. Kumar, R.K.Dogra, N. Kumar, R. Kumari and S.Kansal. 2019. Estimation of genetic variability in bell pepper (*Capsicum annuum* L. var. *grossum*). International Journal of Chemical Studies, 7(3): 10-13.
- Shaw, S.S., R.R. Ratwat and S.S. Jamola. 1991. Studies on the mechanism of susceptibility in different pea varieties against *Caliothrips indicus* (Bagnall). Indian Journal of Agriculture Research, 3(1): 122-127.
- Shellie, K. and D.M. Glenn. 2010. Wine grape response to kaolin particle film under deficit and well-watered conditions. Acta Horticulturae, 792: 587-591.
- Shipp, J.L., X. Hao, A.P. Papadopoulos and M.R. Binns. 1998. Impact of western flower thrips (Thysanoptera: Thripidae) on growth, photosynthesis and productivity of greenhouse sweet pepper. Scientia Horticulturae, 72: 87-102.
- Shumway, 1991. Physiological responses of pear thrips-damaged sugar maples to light and water stress. Tree Physiology, 9: 401-413.
- Singh, D.K. and K.S. Singh. 2009. Susceptibility of chilli cultivars to thrips, *Scirtothrips dorsalis* Hood. Annals Horticulture, 2(1): 126-127.
- Soil Resource Development Institute (SRDI). 2009. Saline Soils of Bangladesh. Ministry of Agriculture, Dhaka, Bangladesh: p.45.
- Sorensen K. A. 2005. Vegetable insect pest management.
www.ces.ncsu.edu/deptes/ent/notes/vegetables/veg37.htm 1-11k, 2005. (Accessed March 19, 2022).
- Spiers, J.D., F.B. Matta, D.A. Marshall and B.J. Sampson. 2004. Effects of kaolin clay application on flower bud development, fruit quality and yield, and flower thrips [*Frankliniella* spp. (Thysanoptera: Thripidae)] populations of blueberry plants. Small Fruits Review, 3(3-4): 361-373.
- Ssemwogerere, C., M.K.N. Ochwo-Ssemakula, J. Kovach, S. Kyamanywa and J. Karungi. 2013. Species composition and occurrence of thrips on tomato and pepper as influenced by farmers' management practices in Uganda. Journal of Plant Protection Research, 53: 158-164.

- Subhash, B.K., K.H. Khader, A.K. Chahravathi, C.T. Ashok Kumar and P. Venkataravana. 2013. Biochemical constituents influencing thrips resistance in groundnut germplasm. *Journal of Environmental Biology*, 35:675-681.
- Tacoli, F., F. Pavan, E. Cargnus, E. Tilatti, A. Pozzebon, and P. Zandigiacomo. 2017. Efficacy and mode of action of kaolin in the control of *Empoasca vitis* and *Zygina rhamni* (Hemiptera: Cicadellidae) in vineyards. *Journal of Economic Entomology*, 110(3):1164–1178.
- Tripti, S. and K. Ashwani. 2018. Field efficacy of some insecticides against chilli thrips (*Scirtothrips dorsalis* (Hood)) in Allahabad (U.P.). *Journal of Entomology and Zoology Studies*, 6(5):192-195.
- Vanisree K, S. Upendhar, P. Rajasekhar and G. Ramachandra Rao. 2017. Effect of newer insecticides against chilli thrips, *Scirtothrips dorsalis* (Hood). *Journal of Entomology and Zoology Studies*, 5(2):277-284.
- Vanisree, K., S. Upendhar, P. Rajasekhar, G. Rao and S.R. Ramachandra. 2013 Field Evaluation of Certain Newer Insecticides against Chilli Thrips, *Scirtothrips dorsalis* (Hood). *Park Research Journal*, 1(20):01-13.
- Vasicek, A.; Rossa, F-De-La and A. Paglioni. 2001. Biological and populational aspects of *Aulacorthumsolani* (Kalt), *Myzus persicae* (Sulz) and *Macrosiphum euphorbiae* (Thomas) (Homoptera: Aphidoidea) on pepper under laboratory conditions. *Boletin de Sanidad Vegetal Plagas*, 27: 439-446.
- Walsh, B., J.E. Maltby, B. Nolan and I. Kay. 2012. Seasonal abundance of thrips (Thysanoptera) in Capsicum and chilli crops in south-east Queensland Australia. *Plant Protection Quarterly*. 27: 19-22.
- Wang, Y., Z. Bao, Y. Zhu and J. Hua. 2009. Analysis of temperature modulation of plant defense against biotrophic microbes. *Molecular Plant-Microbe Interactions*, 22(5): 498-506.
- Weintraub, P. G. 200. Integrated control of pests in tropical and subtropical sweet pepper production. *Pest Management Science*. 63: 753–760.
- Williams, S., L. Wilson and S. Vogel, 2011. Pests and beneficial in Australian cotton land scapes. pp. 111-113.

Zavala, J., C. Mazza, F. Dillon, H. Chludil and C. Ballare. 2015. Soybean resistance to stink bugs (*Nezaraviridula* and *Piezodorus guildinii*) increases with exposure to solar UV-B radiation and correlates with isoflavonoid content in pods under field conditions. *Plant, Cell and Environment*, 38(5): 920–928.

Appendix I

Research activities at Khulna University at a Glance (2020-2021)

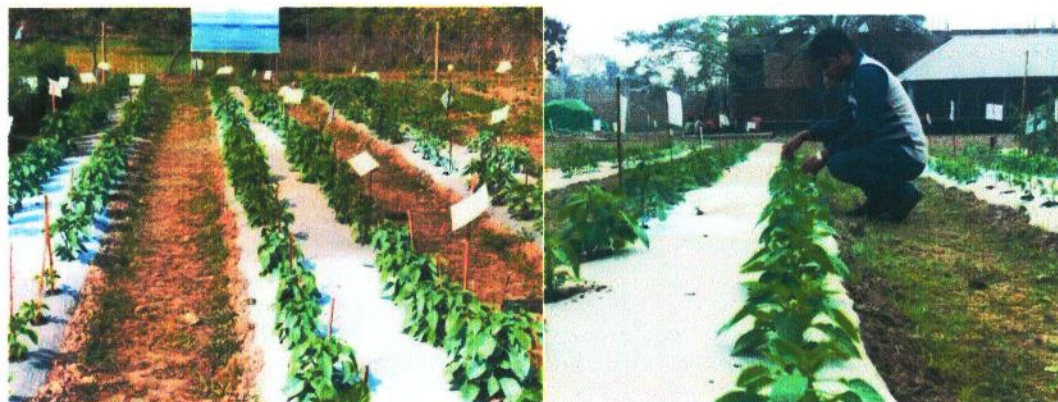


Fig. 1. The capsicum field initially treated with treated with Kaolin clay and visited by the PI of the project.



Fig. 2. SPAD value measurement to check greenness of capsicum leaf.



Fig. 3. Canopy temperature measurement



Fig. 4. Capsicum fruiting was started in the field.



Fig. 5. Weighing of capsicum in the field after harvest.



Fig. 6. Colorful capsicum after harvest.