

Review Article

## A review on new horizons in biopesticide development highlighting microbial advances for Climate-smart agriculture

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### Abstract

Sustainable plant protection is vital for continuing improved agricultural productivity and safeguarding global food security. Reliance on synthetic pesticides to mitigate pest outbreaks has led to unintended environmental and health-related concerns, including soil degradation, water pollution, and bioaccumulation within ecosystems. These challenges have accelerated the push for eco-friendly, sustainable pest management alternatives. Biopesticides derived from natural sources offer a promising solution due to their target specificity, environmental safety, and high compatibility with integrated pest management principles. Biopesticides include viruses, bacteria, fungi, parasites, predators, and pheromones, each with distinct mechanisms of action. Despite these advantages, limitations exist in registration, regulation and social acceptance of biopesticides. This review provides a comprehensive overview of biopesticide categories -microbial, phytochemical, and nanobiopesticides and their mechanisms of action, advantages, and limitations. Moreover, the emphasis is placed on microbial pesticides, which differ from their chemical counterparts in their ability to multiply in situ and exhibit long-lasting effects. This review further underscores the significance of biopesticides in fostering climate-smart agriculture, advancing public health, and achieving Sustainable Development Goal targets. This review also underscores the need for ongoing research, innovation, and public involvement to promote the acceptance and commercial success of biopesticide-based solutions in global agriculture.

**Keywords:** Climate smart agriculture, Formulations, Integrated pest management, Microbial biopesticide, Sustainable agriculture

### INTRODUCTION

Since ancient times, synthetic pesticides have been used to manage crop pests and improve agricultural yields (Anani *et al.*, 2020; Reddy *et al.*, 2024). These pesticides are manufactured by combining chemical

compounds with carriers, such as polymers (Rakhimol *et al.*, 2020), and are specifically formulated to target specific pests. Although these pesticides enhance crop productivity, their prolonged use poses significant environmental and biological consequences (Farooq *et al.*, 2019; Kariyanna *et al.*, 2024). In animals, exposure to

synthetic pesticides can adversely impact offspring development, immune competence, vitality, and reproductive performance (Syromyatnikov *et al.*, 2020; Wan *et al.*, 2025). Pesticides also degrade soil quality by increasing soil brittleness, reducing microbial and hampering the activity of beneficial soil organisms. (Pertile *et al.*, 2020; Pelosi *et al.*, 2021). Furthermore, pesticides adversely impact soil microbes (Steiner *et al.*, 2024), by hindering their ability to perform crucial functions, such as siderophore production, nitrogen fixation, and indole-3-acetic acid synthesis (Kumar and Kumar, 2019).

Pesticides are introduced into the environment through multiple pathways, such as improper disposal, drift, vaporization, runoff (Chen *et al.*, 2023), erosion, or leaching, causing damage to all environmental components, soil, air, water, and non-target organisms (Boateng *et al.*, 2023), and humans also (Hashimi *et al.*, 2020). This reduces crop efficiency and productivity and harms soil and water health. Contaminated water drains into nearby water bodies, leading to pollution of reservoirs, bioaccumulation of pesticides, and their eventual entry into the food chain (Zanchi *et al.*, 2023). This bioaccumulation affects aquatic organisms, terrestrial animals, and humans, resulting in health complications such as kidney problems, skin disorders, cancer, and diabetes (Sabarwal *et al.*, 2018; Manfo *et al.*, 2020). In view of these challenges, biopesticides have come up as a valuable alternative for pest control, offering numerous environmental and health benefits (Lykogianni *et al.*, 2021).

To mitigate the adverse effects of chemical pesticides, biopesticide derived from natural sources or their components have emerged as environmental friendly alternative with reduced risk to non-target organisms (EPA, 2023). Biopesticides include microbial forms like *Bacillus thuringiensis* (Bt), Plant-Incorporated Protectants (PIPs), produced by genetically modified plants and other biochemical pesticides. These also include semiochemicals, insect pheromones that disrupt mating behaviour or plant extracts that repel pests, allowing for the management of infestations without toxic effects (Kumar *et al.*, 2021).

Biopesticides involve the use of naturally sourced pest control compounds, providing a comparatively safer and target-specific alternative to traditional chemical pesticides (Wattimena and Latumahina, 2021; Huang *et al.*, 2021). Of all the microbial biopesticides, bacterial biopesticides have a share of about 74% of the market; 10% is taken up by the fungal biopesticides, viral biopesticides constitute for about 5%; predator biopesticides, 8%; and "other" biopesticides take around 3% share of the total biopesticide market (Thakore, 2006; Tomar *et al.*, 2024). They play a vital role in encouraging climate-smart agriculture by enhancing crop quality and yield, minimizing pest resistance, and reducing

adverse impacts on human health and the environment (Szcwzyk *et al.*, 2006; Satish *et al.*, 2017; Kumari *et al.*, 2022).

The decline in conventional pesticide use, drives the increasing demand for biopesticides, as farmers shift towards climate-smart practices. The shift to biopesticides is driven by their eco-friendly nature, pest-target specificity, resistance management, synergy with chemicals, and compatibility with the Integrated Pest Management (IPM) practices (Kalpana, 2021). Regardless, the effectiveness of biopesticides can differ among pests, as their success depends largely on the target species.

Microbiological biopesticides encompass a wide range of agents that control insects or pathogens, primarily originating from microorganisms such as fungi, bacteria, viruses, protozoa, and nematodes, or their naturally derived products (Adeleke *et al.*, 2022). Many of these biopesticides are economically comparable to traditional pesticides (Ruiu, 2018).

Microbial biopesticides generally have a shorter shelf life than synthetic pesticides and are sensitive to environmental conditions such as ultraviolet radiation, temperature changes, and humidity (Matos *et al.*, 2020; Wattimena and Latumahina, 2021). They can retain their effectiveness for about 3 to 6 months when stored at recommended conditions specified on the label (Akutse *et al.*, 2020). They can be readily integrated into IPM programs and can substantially boost crop productivity by improving yield (Arora *et al.*, 2020). Despite the advantages of biopesticides, their widespread adoption remains a challenge. High production costs, environmental sensitivity, regulatory challenges, market demand constraints, dosage inconsistencies, a lack of standardization, and stability issues are among the challenges (Bharti and Ibrahim, 2020). Although considerable detailed research is required to overcome these limitations, farmers in rural areas can utilize microbial solutions for crop protection to enhance crop quality and farm profitability (Stevenson *et al.*, 2017).

## METHODOLOGY

The present study followed a structured and systematic research approach to obtain comprehensive information on biopesticides. The existing literature was extensively explored using electronic databases, including PubMed, Google Scholar, Web of Science, Scopus, Academia, Semantic Scholar, and other reliable platforms. The study analyzed more than 150 scientific publications and compiled a detailed collection of relevant studies. The review paper emphasizes the development and utilization of biopesticides for sustainable pest management. The reviewed literature covers classification of biopesticides, formulations of biopesticides, factors affecting efficacy of biopesticides, role of

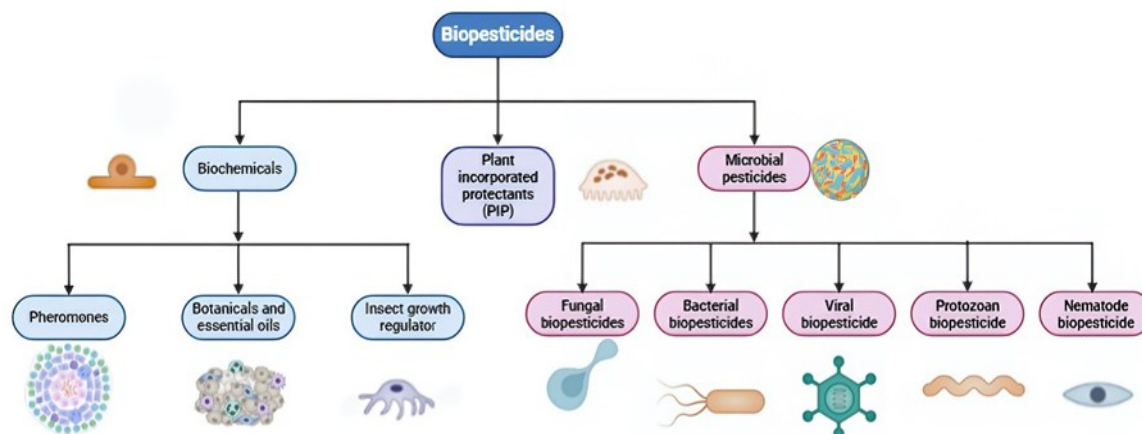


Fig. 1. Categories of biopesticides (Chakraborty *et al.*, 2023)

biopesticides in sustainable development and future prospective of biopesticides.

### CATEGORIES OF BIOPESTICIDES

The term "biopesticide" broadly refers to substances derived from natural sources, which are typically formulated and applied in a similar manner to traditional pesticides, primarily for short-term pest management (Tadesse *et al.*, 2024). There are three major categories of biopesticides, as defined by the US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA, 2023) including: biochemicals, Microbial biopesticides, and Plant-incorporated protectants (Figure 1).

#### Biochemical biopesticides

Biochemical pesticides are natural substances that manage pests using non-toxic methods, unlike chemical pesticides, which rely on synthetic compounds to eliminate pests directly. These chemicals work by modifying insect's physiology (Magierowicz *et al.*, 2020). These pesticides are categorized by their mode of action, such as using pheromones (also known as semiochemicals), plant extracts/botanicals, or insect growth regulators to control pest infestations. Biochemical biopesticides also includes plant growth regulators that inhibit breeding and pheromones that attract or repel pests (Chakraborty *et al.*, 2013).

Pheromones are chemicals produced by insects, animals, or plants that are mimicked for use in managing insect populations in IPM programs (Desneux *et al.*, 2021). Pheromones interfere with insect mating, ultimately reducing progeny (Singh *et al.*, 2023). The target insects become confused by semiochemical flumes diffused in the surrounding area. These chemicals do not kill the insects but has significant effects on the olfactory pathways of insects. The mechanism of pheromone action include their adsorption by insects, transportation via pheromone-binding proteins (PBPs) to chemosensory membranes, and then interaction with receptor proteins to convert chemical signals into am-

plified electrical signals through a second messenger system (Gurr *et al.*, 1999; Ujvary *et al.*, 2001; Kumar *et al.*, 2021).

Over the past few years, essential oils and plant extracts have been recognized as sustainable option to synthetic insecticides for achieving effective pest control (Shamsuddeen *et al.*, 2024). They contain a wide variety of bioactive chemicals and may behave as attractants, repellents, or antifeedants, impeding host identification by the insect, hindering oviposition, etc. (Tripathi *et al.*, 2009; Halder *et al.*, 2013; Ali *et al.*, 2017). Neem oil, derived from the neem tree, is a widely used botanical insecticide. Its bioactive compounds, solanine and azadirachtin, disrupts insect growth and feeding (Abbey *et al.*, 2022). Combining neem oil with the fungal bioagent *Beauveria bassiana* demonstrated significant control of sucking pests on vegetables (Halder *et al.*, 2013). The azadirachtin concentration in neem oil must be optimum to avoid harming non-target pests (Mordue *et al.*, 2005). Meanwhile, the bioactive compound pyrethrin, extracted from chrysanthemum flower heads, deters herbivores from feeding on them (Tripathi *et al.*, 2009; Kojima *et al.*, 2022).

Insect growth regulators (IGRs) disrupt essential biological processes required for sustenance, ultimately leading to insect mortality. These have low toxicity towards non-target organisms (Kumar, 2012). Based on the mechanism of action, these are categorized into insect hormone disruptors and chitin synthesis inhibitors (CSIs) (Chetan *et al.*, 2019). IGRs regulate various insects, such as fleas, cockroaches, and mosquitoes, by disrupting reproduction, egg hatching, and moulting, although they are less lethal to adults. When combined with other insecticides, they can enhance adult insect control (Gwinn, 2018).

#### Plant-incorporated protectants

Plant-incorporated protectants (PIPs) are the compounds produced by the plants from the genetic material introduced into the plant (Parker and Sander 2017).

For instance, scientists can insert a gene responsible for a specific Bt pesticidal protein into a plant's DNA. As a result, the plant produces a protein that kills pests after they ingest that protein. The EPA regulates both the pesticidal protein and the gene that enables its production, but not the plant as a whole (Ghumar *et al.*, 2014). PIPs are treated as pesticides and are regulated by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. Before a PIP can be approved for use, the EPA evaluates its potential risks to ensure it does not harm human health or the environment. This assessment includes potential impacts on people, non-target plants, animals, and other organisms, as well as strategies to address "insect resistance"—when pests evolve to survive the plant-produced pesticide and the likelihood that PIP genes could transfer to other plants (USEPA, 2024).

In 2023, the EPA revised its regulations. Under the new rules, some PIPs may not require registration or food residue tolerance limits, although they remain under EPA oversight. These exemptions apply to PIPs that pose no greater risk than previously approved ones and that could also be developed through traditional breeding methods (USEPA, 2024).

### Microbial biopesticides

Microbial pesticides are the most extensively studied and widely applied group of biopesticides, offering enhanced sustainability compared to chemical pesticides while posing similar levels of risk under approved use guidelines (Shafi *et al.*, 2017; Damalas and Koutroubas, 2018). Microbial pesticides employ a range of mechanisms to antagonise plant pests. Important mechanisms include secretion of volatile compounds and enzymes, production of toxins, colonisation or consumption of the host, competition for nutrients and space, and induction of resistance in crop plants (Freimoser *et al.*, 2019). The major difference between microbial and synthetic pesticides is the ability of microbes to persist on crop plants and in the environment after use. This characteristic of microbial pesticides is assumed to be both advantageous and risky. The beneficial aspect of this is that the persistence of microbes enables prolonged pest suppression, as observed in inoculative release strategies, wherein a small microbial population is periodically introduced, allowed to reproduce, and built into a permanent population for long-term pest control. In contrast, favourable conditions may lead to their redundant multiplication and produce toxic metabolites in the environment (Wend *et al.*, 2024). However, most microbial species used in biopesticide formulations naturally occur in the environment (Strauch *et al.*, 2011). Microbial pesticides account for more than 55% of biopesticides sold worldwide (Wend *et al.*, 2024). Their significance is evident and highlights the need to address the challenges and future prospects in evaluating the potential risks associ-

ated with these microbial pesticides.

### Fungal biopesticides

Fungi were the first type of microorganisms considered for use as biopesticides (Wend *et al.*, 2024). The commercially available mycoinsecticides are often derived from species such as *Metarhizium anisopliae*, *Beauveria bassiana*, *Phytophthora palmivora*, *Isaria fumosorosea*, *Hirsutella thompsonii*, *Alternaria cassia*, and *Lecanicillium* spp. (Table 1). Unlike bacterial pesticides, which functions primarily via ingestion, fungal pesticides operate through direct contact (Irsad *et al.*, 2023). *Beauveria bassiana* and *Metarhizium anisopliae* act against a wide range of pests by penetrating the exoskeleton and growing internally thereafter (Litwin *et al.*, 2020). After entering the insect's body, these fungi disrupt physiological functions, which ultimately leads to the insect's death (Bhattacharyya *et al.*, 2024).

Entomopathogenic fungi (EPF) are soil-inhabiting microorganisms that infect and kill insects and other arthropods by penetrating their cuticles, making them potent biocontrol agents for managing insect pests (Mantzoukas *et al.*, 2022). Several studies have confirmed that EPF, when acting as endophytes, can promote plant growth, suppress plant diseases, and improve rhizosphere health through successful colonization (Jaber and Ownley, 2018; Nelly *et al.*, 2019; Bamisile *et al.*, 2021; Chang *et al.*, 2021). Fungal biopesticides are key elements IPM strategies and ongoing research aims to improve their efficacy through advanced formulations and optimized application methods (Bamisile *et al.*, 2021).

Fungal biopesticides plays vital role in endorsing climate-smart agriculture by providing environmentally safe options for pest control. These pesticides are highly selective, and do not harm other beneficial organisms (Tadesse *et al.*, 2024). This makes them the perfect candidates for IPM and sustainable agricultural practices, fostering ecological diversity and conserving the environment (Kim and Goettel 2011; Koike *et al.* 2011; Tadesse *et al.*, 2024).

Fungal biocontrol agents secrete a number of secondary metabolites that are directly toxic to the pest (Jahan Shaili *et al.*, 2025). The fungal bioagent *Trichoderma harzianum* is widely used to manage soil-borne fungi that cause root rot and damping-off diseases in plants (Yao *et al.*, 2023). This rhizospheric fungus suppress the growth of pathogenic fungi by secreting antifungal chemicals and competing more effectively for space and nutrients (Harman *et al.*, 2004). The oomycete fungus *Pythium oligandrum* exhibits strong mycoparasitic behaviour and can eliminate more than 50 species of fungi and oomycetes (Gabrielová *et al.*, 2018). *Gliocladium* species are soil-inhabiting endophytic fungi with strong antagonistic against pathogens and have proven effective in managing potato early blight caused

**Table 1.** Overview of fungal biopesticides and their mode of action/ use against pests

Fungal-based biopesti-	Mechanism of action /use	References
<i>Beauveria bassiana</i>	The fungus enters the host body through natural openings or wounds, spreading its mycelium throughout the host's body and producing several toxins detrimental to the insect, which eventually cause death. Efficient against a wide variety of pests.	Naqqash <i>et al.</i> (2016); Baldiviezo <i>et al.</i> (2020)
<i>Metarhizium anisopliae</i>	Targets wide range of insects and is appropriate for use in non-consumable agricultural environments like the nurseries, ornamental greenhouses, residential and institutional areas. It should not be used in areas where water contamination is a significant	Montalva <i>et al.</i> (2016); Vivekanandhan <i>et al.</i> (2022)
<i>Verticillium lecanii</i> ( <i>Lecanicillium lecanii</i> )	The spores of this fungus, upon contact with the insect, can germinate its mycelium, infiltrate the cuticle, and spread throughout the host body, ultimately leading to the fatal demise of the insect. It is effective against	Feng <i>et al.</i> , (2000); Lee <i>et al.</i> , (2006); Ruiiu, (2018)
<i>Paecilomyces lilacinus</i>	Effective against plant parasitic nematodes.	Akutse <i>et al.</i> (2020)
<i>Isaria fumosorosea</i>	Can control soft-bodied insects like mealy bugs and whiteflies.	Akutse <i>et al.</i> (2020)
<i>Trichoderma</i> sp.	Have antagonistic interactions with numerous phytopathogens, including fungi, bacteria, and nematodes. Effective against soil-borne phytopathogens.	Ghayur (2000)
<i>Phyttophthora palmivora</i>	The liquid bioherbicide formulation is used	Kachhawa (2017)
<i>Colletotrichum gloeosporoides</i>	A dry powder bioherbicide, used to control Northern joint vetch.	Kachhawa (2017)
<i>Colletotrichum acutatum</i>	A liquid bioherbicide formulation, effective to manage <i>Hakea sericea</i> and <i>H. gibbosa</i> .	Muir (2023)

by *Alternaria grandis* (da Silva *et al.*, 2021). Miastkowska *et al.* (2020) showed that ultrasonically produced nano-emulsions of essential oils—such as cinnamon, thyme, manuka, and tea tree oils—have strong antifungal activity and are inexpensive, safe, and eco-friendly as compared to pure essential oils and traditional macroemulsions. Recent advances have enhanced understanding of host–pathogen interactions and plant defense mechanisms, supporting the development of more targeted and effective fungal applications in agriculture. One such example is integrating EPF with nanotechnology (Nassary, 2015).

### Bacterial biopesticides

The use of bacteria against insect pests began with Felix d'Herelle's discovery of entomopathogenic bacteria (F, d'Herelle, 1911). Among the bacterial biopesticides, Bt is the most prevalent, representing 90% of all bacterial biopesticide products (Hubbard *et al.*, 2014). Bt produces insecticidal toxins that kill insects either through crystalline inclusions or toxic secretions (Chakroun *et al.*, 2016). The first known application of Bt occurred in France during the 1920s, and the first commercial Bt product, Sporeine, was launched in

1938. Large-scale production followed in the U.S. in the 1950s.

In India, only 12 biopesticides are officially registered under the Insecticide Act of 1968, with Bt being the most significant (Sinha and Biswas, 2009). Other notable EPBs include *Pseudomonas*, *Chromobacterium*, and *Yersinia* species. Various Bt subspecies are effective against different insect larvae, including Lepidoptera, mosquitoes, and Coleoptera. *Lysinibacillus sphaericus* is specifically used for mosquito control through the production of Bin toxin (Silva *et al.*, 2014). Secondary metabolites produced by *Streptomyces* species are effectively used to control fungal diseases, such as potato scab and rust (Khan *et al.*, 2023). Other biocontrol bacteria include *Saccharopolyspora spinosa*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, and *B. popilliae*. *Photobacterium* and *Xenorhabdus* species also exhibit insecticidal activity and form mutualistic relationships with entomopathogenic nematodes (Vedamurthy *et al.*, 2022). *Brevibacillus laterosporus*, first identified in 1912, and *Chromobacterium subtsugae*, tested in the U.S., are additional biocontrol agents. Lastly, the phylum Proteobacteria, classified by Carl Woese in 1980, includes many insecticidal bacteria across its subgroups. Table

**Table 2.** Overview of bacterial biopesticides and their mode of action/ use against pests

Bacterial-based pesticide	Mechanism of action/use	References
<i>Bacillus thuringiensis</i> (Bt)	Bt primarily targets lepidopteran pests. It secretes toxins inside the gut of the insect, which on mixing with the hemolymph, damages the epithelial cells, causing starvation and death. Effectively used against American bollworm in cotton and rice stem borer.	Ghayur (2000)
<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	The bacterium produces antibiotics, lipopeptides, and cyclic peptides which prevents the growth of pests. It is shown be effective against <i>Fusarium</i> , <i>Aspergillus</i> , <i>Pythium</i> , and <i>Rhizoctonia</i> .	Djaenuddin <i>et al.</i> , (2020)
<i>Bt israelensis</i>	Acts as a bioinsecticide, used to control gnat flies.	Ruiu (2018)
<i>Bt tenebrionis</i>	Shows antimicrobial activity against Coleopteran adults and larvae	Rajaput <i>et al.</i> , (2019)
<i>Pseudomonas fluorescens</i>	It invades the rhizosphere and synthesize secondary compounds that inhibit soil-borne diseases. They contribute to phytoremediation and are a key component of microbiome in many plants.	Adesemoye and Kloepper, (2009); Germaine <i>et al.</i> , (2009); Glick, (2012); Daniel, (2020)
<i>Streptomyces</i> species	This bacterium synthesize antifungal metabolites, which targets different phytopathogens. It is effective in managing <i>Fusarium</i> and <i>Phytophthora</i> species.	Gonzalez-Franco and Robles-Hernandez (2009); Ara <i>et al.</i> (2014); Law <i>et al.</i> (2017)

2 presents different bacterial biopesticides, their mechanisms of action, and their applications.

### Virus based biopesticides

Virus-based biopesticides offers an environmentally sustainable approach to target pests without harming beneficial organisms, plants, and humans (Harish *et al.*, 2021). These biopesticides are sourced from naturally occurring viruses, such as baculoviruses, entomopoxviruses, and ascoviruses, which have naturally adapted to infect and kill specific insect species (Sarwar and Aslam, 2021). The virion particles enter the target pest when ingested during feeding, particularly sap-sucking insect pests. As soon as they enter the insect body, they start replicating and utilizing the pest's machinery to produce multiple copies, which eventually cause the death of the insect within a few days (Kachhawa, 2017). Viral pesticides are highly host-specific, thus being safe for non-target pests and the surrounding environment (Jukes and Merwe, 2020). Since, they take time to degrade, they leave no residue and thus cause no environmental pollution. However, limiting factors, such as a slow mode of action, susceptibility to UV radiation, temperature, and very high specificity, which narrows their host range, pose a significant challenge to using viruses as bioinsecticides. Table 3 presents a list of virus-based biopesticides, their modes of action, and their applications.

Viral formulations utilize viruses, most preferably baculoviruses, which are highly specific to the target pests

and safe for the environment. These are incorporated into the IPM, as they serve as a good alternative to chemical pesticides. Baculoviruses have proven to be highly effective due to their ability to infect and kill insect pests without harming non-target pests, making them an ideal candidate for sustainable agriculture (Natra *et al.*, 2019; Thapa *et al.*, 2020).

The choice of viral formulation depends on the target pest, application method, and environmental factors that can either limit or promote the reduction or persistence of the virus in the field (Quiroga-Cubides *et al.*, 2022). Among different types of viral formulations, aqueous suspensions are the most commonly used, wherein virus particles are suspended in water and applied as a foliar spray in the field. Foliar sprays are effective as it causes direct ingestion of viral particles, leading to infection and eventual pest mortality (Monroy-Borrego and Steinmetz, 2022). Also, these can be stored easily for longer duration of time. To control soil- or root-inhabiting pests, granular formulations are applied directly to the soil, ensuring direct exposure to the viral biopesticide (Kergunteuil *et al.*, 2016). Bait formulations, often combined with attractants, can be used to target specific insect species while minimizing non-target effects (Behle and BIRTHSEL, 2023).

Baculovirus was first introduced as a pesticide, though it failed to achieve commercial success. However, the successful use of NPV to control the tussock moth in 1984 (Williams, 2023) sparked significant interest in baculoviruses as pest control agents. These viruses

are used in biomedical research to better understand virus-host interactions. Additionally, genetic engineering techniques are being used to develop recombinant baculoviruses for insect control (Chambers *et al.*, 2018). Most baculovirus-based products are produced in suspension concentrate (SC) form, representing about 88% of the market, whereas solid formulations such as water-dispersible granules (WG) and wettable powders (WP) make up the remaining 12%. Liquid formulations dominate due to their easier handling, higher efficiency, and compatibility with standard spraying systems, for large-scale farming (Martínez-Balardi *et al.*, 2025).

Two commercial *Spodoptera* NPV formulations, Spodopterin™ and SPOD-X™, have been found beneficial for controlling pests of vegetable crops. In Brazil, *S. frugiperda* NPV was once applied to about 20,000 hectares of maize annually (Geisler *et al.*, 2024), but its use was discontinued due to technological challenges in producing the virus in the laboratory. Recent studies suggest *S. littoralis*'s gut microbiota may affect its resistance to NPV. Alterations in gut bacteria can boost NPV replication, suggesting that disrupting the microbiome may enhance NPV-based pest control (Li *et al.*, 2025).

### Nematode biopesticides

Growing efforts to reduce synthetic pesticides have highlighted entomopathogenic nematodes (EPN) as important agents in pest management (Ramakuwela *et al.*, 2025). Nematodes, such as *Heterorhabditis* and *Steinernema*, have been successfully employed in managing insect pests (Tarasco *et al.*, 2023). These nematodes can exhibit facultative, obligate, necromenic, or phoretic associations with insects. They are cosmopolitan, with their presence observed on all continents except Antarctica (Askary *et al.*, 2018). They exhibit a wide range of host preferences and therefore serve as effective biocontrol agents for harmful agricultural pests. Additionally, they are safe for the beneficial insects and are eco-friendly. Twenty-three nematode families are known to be parasites of insects; however, seven families are more effective at controlling pest populations. EPNs are divided into two categories based on their host-searching behaviour: some are cruisers, while others are ambushers. *H. bacteriophora* and *S. glaseri* are subterranean cruisers and can more actively find suitable host, whereas ambushers like *S. carpocapsae* are upper surface dwellers and usually wait to attack their suitable host in the soil (Mohan, 2015). EPN formulations, such as gels and alginate beads, protect nematodes from environmental stress, enhance their survival, and improve their field efficacy (Fatimah *et al.*, 2025). EPNs serve as effective biological control agents against pests because they can be used for augmentative, conservation, and classical bio-

logical control. Similarly, there are nematodes, such as *Steinernema* nematodes, which have a symbiotic association with entomopathogenic bacteria *Xenorhabdus* and *Photorhabdus*, exhibiting significant antimicrobial properties against phytopathogens. Table 4 lists different viral-based biopesticides, their modes of action, and applications.

### Protozoa as biopesticides

Protozoans are intracellular parasites that depend on living within host cells for survival. They are widespread in nature and can infect specific insect groups such as lepidopterans and orthopterans, making them valuable agents in IPM programs (Tadesse *et al.*, 2024). Their adaptability and diversity make them crucial to many biological processes. Certain protozoans are also effective biopesticides, particularly against grasshopper species. However, in the past decade, *Nosema* spp. has been the only protozoan insecticide registered with the US Environmental Protection Agency (Federici, 1999). *N. pyrausta* infects various insects, including the European corn borer, and can act as a natural control. The infection spreads through contaminated frass and movement of infected larvae between plants (Grushevaya *et al.*, 2020). The microsporidium *Nosema locustae* is a commercially available species sold under various brand names for managing grasshopper and cricket populations (Yasin *et al.*, 2024). Protozoa infections typically leads to low to moderate mortality in the insects (Sarwar *et al.*, 2021). The pathogen penetrates the insect through the gut wall, disseminates to different tissues and organs, and reproduces, occasionally leading to tissue damage and septicemia. Infected insects often become lethargic and smaller than usual, with decreased feeding, reduced reproductive capacity, and difficulties in molting. High levels of infection can result in death. A key advantage of this infection type is that the weakened insects become more vulnerable to environmental stresses and other mortality factors (Han and Weiss, 2017). Despite their pest-specific nature and slow-acting characteristics, protozoa are less effective as biopesticides than other microbial biopesticides. Although they can induce chronic and draining effects on their targets, their efficacy is comparatively lower, which limits their use (Meenatchi and Aditi, 2021). Table 5 represents the different entomopathogenic protozoan and their hosts.

### FACTORS AFFECTING EFFICACY OF BIOPESTICIDES

An eco-friendly alternative to synthetic pesticides, biopesticides are formulated from biological materials such as microbes, plants, and other organisms. They tend to be environmental friendly, safer for non-target organisms, and suitable for human consumption. Still, their performance relies on a set of factors that must be

**Table 3.** Overview of viral biopesticides and their mode of action/ use against pests

Viral biopesti-	Mechanism of action /use	References
Baculoviruses (Nucleopolyhedrovirus (NPV), Granulovirus (GV))	Upon ingestion, the virus infects gut cells, replicates inside the insect, and kills within 4-10 days. They are commercially formulated as biopesticides such as Helicovex and Cryptex. Its target pests are Caterpillars (e.g., armyworms, cutworms, diamondback moths).	Gelaye and Negash (2023; Martínez-Balardi <i>et al.</i> , 2025)
Cytoplasmic polyhedrosis viruses (CPVs)	CPVs primarily target Lepidopteran pests and are widely used in tropical agriculture. The ingested virus disrupts gut cells, causing reduced feeding, digestive issues, and eventual death. Spray application to foliage or crop fields.	Abd-Alla <i>et al.</i> (2020)
Iridovirus (IIVs)	IIVs are useful for aquatic pest control and are known for their striking iridescent effect on infected insects. A virus infects tissue cells, leading to lethargy, reduced activity, and ultimately, death. These viruses are effective against mosquito populations in standing water.	Prasad and Srivastava, (2016; Vladimirova <i>et al.</i> , 2025)
Ascoviruses	Ascoviruses are dsDNA viruses that infect lepidopteran larvae, reducing feeding and causing death. They are well-suited for use in biopesticide formulations due to their host and safety for beneficial insects and humans.	Yu <i>et al.</i> , (2021)
Densoviruses	Densoviruses, particularly <i>Aedes aegypti</i> densovirus (AeDENV), controls mosquito larvae by infecting their gut and organs after ingestion disrupting development and causing death.	Erlandson (2020)
Entomopoxviruses	Entomopoxviruses infect insect's fat bodies, epithelial cells, and hemolymph. The virus particles are ingested when the insect feeds on foliage that has been treated with the virus. The infected insect exhibits impaired feeding, stunted growth, and lethargy, ultimately leading to death, typically within 4 to 10 days after infection. Its target pests are beetles and caterpillars (e.g., cotton pests). The virus infects epithelial and adipose tissues, disrupting metabolism and leading to cell death. Can be applied as a spray or a bait formulation.	Raj <i>et al.</i> , (2022)
Reoviruses ((Rice ragged stunt virus (RRSV))	These viruses are double-stranded RNA viruses known for their environmental stability and ability to infect a wide range of insect pests. The virus replicates in insect tissues, reducing mobility, feeding, and reproductive rates. Applied as a spray or vector-mediated delivery, used against rice pests (e.g., brown planthopper).	Ruiu (2018)
Polydnaviruses ( <i>Cotesia congregata</i> polydnavirus (CcPDV))	These viruses are symbiotic with parasitoid wasps, allowing indirect pest control by ensuring the survival of parasitoid offspring. Its target pests are pests parasitized by specific wasps (e.g., caterpillars). Delivered by parasitoid wasps, weakens the pest's immune system, ensuring wasp larval survival.	Prasad and Srivastava (2016)
Luteoviruses ((Barley yellow dwarf virus (BYDV))	Luteoviruses, unlike direct viral biopesticides (e.g., baculoviruses), do not cause pest mortality through direct infection. Instead, they work indirectly by affecting the interaction between the pest and its host plant. Luteoviruses do not directly kill pests but instead alter the pest's behavior, physiology, and reproduction. Its target pests are aphids and related sap-feeding insects. Alters pest behaviour or physiology, thereby indirectly reducing crop damage.	Wagemans <i>et al.</i> (2022)
Hytrosaviruses (( <i>Musca domestica</i> hytrosavirus (MdHV))	Hytrosaviruses are particularly effective for fly management in urban or agricultural settings. By disrupting reproduction, they provide long-term suppression of fly populations. Its target pests are houseflies ( <i>M. domestica</i> ). Its mode of action involves disrupting reproduction by impairing ovarian development, thereby reducing population size.	Petersen <i>et al.</i> , (2022)
<i>Cydia pomonella</i> granulovirus (CpGV)	A naturally occurring baculovirus called <i>C. pomonella</i> granulovirus (CpGV) is employed as a biological control agent against the codling moth ( <i>C. pomonella</i> ). Its target pests is Codling moth larvae, a major pest in apple, pear, and walnut orchards. The virus infects the midgut cells, replicates, and spreads through the insect's body. Applied as a foliar spray to orchard crops.	Olivares <i>et al.</i> (2023)

strictly regulated to conduct effective pest management (Tadesse *et al.*, 2024).

### Nature of the biopesticides

Microorganisms, including bacteria (e.g., *Bacillus*, *Pseudomonas*), fungi (e.g., *Metarrhizium*, *Beauveria*), viruses (e.g., baculoviruses, nucleopolyhedroviruses), and protozoa, exhibit distinct modes of action and varied reactions to environmental conditions, making them examples of biopesticides (Thakur *et al.*, 2020); Vermelho *et al.*, 2024). Efficiency of Bt, against lepidopteran pests decreases below 15°C (Glare *et al.*, 2012). The efficacy of *Bacillus thuringiensis* (Bt) formulations is often compromised by their physicochemical instability and by the photodegradation of pesticidal proteins under ultraviolet (UV) exposure. Furthermore, environmental variability contributes to fluctuations in bioactivity, thereby hindering consistent field performance and complicating large-scale application strategies (Aswathi *et al.*, 2024). Certain insect species are targeted by the distinct poisons produced by various *Bt* strains (Santos *et al.*, 2022). Few strains of *B. thuringiensis kurstaki* are more suitable for beetles or flies, while others are more powerful against caterpillars (Vimala *et al.*, 2020). Formulations such as emulsifiable concentrates, granules, wettable powders, and liquid suspensions have certain applications (Hernandez *et al.*, 2022). Encapsulation techniques, including microcapsules or alginate beads, can enhance efficacy and microbial survival under extreme conditions (Singh and Paithankar, 2023).

### Environmental factors

Environmental factors are the major driving force behind the proper efficiency of a biopesticide (Jayaseelan, 2024). An optimal temperature range is required for the proper activity of microbial biopesticides, as extreme heat temperatures can kill or reduce their effectiveness (Salimi and Hamedi, 2021). The optimal temperature range for *Metarrhizium anisopliae* is 25–30°C (Faria *et al.*, 2022). High humidity and leaf wetness are required for fungal and bacterial biopesticides because they favor spore germination and infection (Pathma *et al.*, 2021). For fungal biocontrol agents such as *Beauveria bassiana* to be effective in controlling pests, a 10–12-hour dew period is needed (Ghodake *et al.*, 2018). Bt is most active at 25°C under both laboratory and field conditions, but toxic production and spore germination are hindered at temperatures below 15°C and above 35°C (Vero *et al.*, 2023). Most biopesticides are broken down by UV light, which reduces their persistence in the field (Thakur *et al.*, 2020). For example, exposure to UV light greatly diminishes the effectiveness of granulovirus against codling moth (Wilson *et al.*, 2020). Rain may wash biopesticides off plant surfaces, yet, it can also help disperse

spores and promote microbial infection (Bharti and Ibrahim, 2020). The effectiveness of biopesticides is influenced by soil properties such as microbial density, organic content, and pH, with soil texture and moisture particularly impacting nematodes such as *S. carpocapsae* (Matuska-Lyżwa *et al.*, 2024).

### Application factors

The success of pest control depends largely on the proper timing and application of biopesticides (Tadesse *et al.*, 2024). The distribution of pesticides and their interactions with pests are influenced by application methods such as spraying, dusting, or soil incorporation. Incorporating biopesticides into the soil is best for soil-dwelling pests, whereas spraying is more effective against foliar pests (García-Espinoza, 2024). Applications must be aligned with the pest's life cycle, the crop's growth stage, and prevailing environmental conditions (Khurshed *et al.*, 2022). Bt is most effective when applied to susceptible insects during their larval stage (Souza *et al.*, 2019). The biopesticide will effectively target pests if the spray volume is adequate and the coverage is uniform.

### Pest and host-related factors

Factors related to both the insect and the host are important in determining the effectiveness of biopesticides. Based on physiological and behavioural characteristics, pest species vary in their susceptibility; younger stages, such as early instar larvae, are more vulnerable due to their thinner cuticles and weakened immune systems (Kumar *et al.*, 2021). Due to their overpowering effect, large insect populations can reduce the efficiency of biopesticides (Arthurs *et al.*, 2019). Pest movements and feeding habits are also important; for example, pests that feed on plant surfaces are more likely to come into contact with sprayed biopesticides, whereas pests that burrow into or feed within plant tissues may require systemic treatments (Ramírez *et al.*, 2024).

In addition, host plant properties, such as leaf texture, waxy nature, and hairiness, affect the retention and adherence of biopesticides. Smooth leaves tend to have greater deposition than waxy or hairy leaves (Arcot *et al.*, 2024). Senescence and leaf exudation are processes that can shorten the persistence of biopesticides or further degrade them. The importance of resistance management practices, such as rotation among products with varying modes of action, is underscored by the emergence of pest resistance, often driven by repeated use of the same biopesticides (Pathma *et al.*, 2021).

### Compatibility with other inputs

The efficacy of biopesticides may be significantly influenced by their interactions with other agricultural in-

**Table 4.** Overview of nematodal biopesticides and their use against pests

Nematode based biopesticide	Uses	References
<i>Steinernema pakistanense</i>	Used against <i>Meloidogyne</i> spp. (Root-knot nematode)	Ahmed and Javed, (2024)
<i>Heterorhabditis amazonensis</i>	Used against <i>Agrotis ipsilon</i> (Black cut worm)	De Oliveira Giannasi <i>et al.</i> (2018)
<i>S. carpocapse</i> , <i>S. feltiae</i> , <i>S. riobrave</i>	Used against <i>Spodoptera frugiperda</i> (Army worm)	Gozel and Gozel (2021; Meethal Aparna <i>et al.</i> , 2025)
<i>Heterorhabditis bacteriophora</i>	Used against <i>Scirpophaga incertulas</i> (Rice stem borer)	Devi (2020)
<i>S. glaseri</i> , <i>S. carpocapse</i> , <i>S. feltiae</i>	Used against <i>Cosmopolites sordidus</i> (Banana root borer)	Prempeh (2019)
<i>H. beicherriana</i>	Used against <i>Holotrichia parallela</i> (Peanut grub)	Li <i>et al.</i> , (2021)
<i>H. indica</i>	Used against <i>Musca domestica</i> (Housefly)	Bream <i>et al.</i> , (2018)
<i>H. amazonensis</i>	Used against <i>Maconellicoccus hirsutus</i> (Mango mealybug)	Fuenmayor <i>et al.</i> , (2020)
<i>S. bicornutum</i>	Used against <i>Liriomyza</i> spp. (Leaf miner)	Abbas (2022)
<i>S. carpocapsae</i> , <i>H. bacteriophora</i>	Used against <i>Pieris rapae</i> (Larvae of cabbage white butterfly)	Aioub <i>et al.</i> (2021)
<i>H. taysarae</i>	Used against <i>Bactrocera dorsalis</i> (Oriental fruit fly)	Godjo <i>et al.</i> , (2018)

puts. These factors are responsible for producing effective solutions for biopesticides. Care must be taken when altering pH or introducing certain substances, as the combination of biopesticides with certain agrochemicals, such as copper-based fungicides, can compromise microbial viability (Santos *et al.*, 2021). This may cause phytotoxicity to plants. There should be consistency in the application, or else reduced pest control can occur due to issues such as clumping or precipitation during mixing (Fenibo *et al.*, 2022). Proper timing and a gap must be maintained before and after applying a biopesticide and a synthetic pesticide, as this may disrupt the biopesticide's mechanism of action. Some adjuvants alter formulations or degrade active ingredients, while others enhance the performance of biopesticides. Therefore, each element in a formulation must be carefully chosen as the biopesticides are highly sensitive in nature and the same formulation cannot be followed for every biopesticide (Salimi and Hamedi, 2021). Inappropriate timing or mixing can reduce efficacy by 20-30% (Santos *et al.*, 2021).

Biopesticides play a crucial role in IPM, to control pests while ensuring environmental and economic sustainability. Therefore, thorough research is needed before applying any biopesticides, as their compatibility varies from organism to organism.

#### BIOPESTICIDES AND THEIR ROLE IN SUSTAINABLE AGRICULTURE

Climate-smart agriculture represents a sustainable strategy that integrates technological innovations, data-driven decision-making, and flexible farming practices to reduce the negative effects of climate change (Roy

*et al.*, 2025). Biopesticides are a key component of climate-smart agriculture, offering a sustainable approach for advancing farming (Han *et al.*, 2024). Biochemical biopesticides, such as plant extracts, pheromones, and essential oils, target pests broadly while sparing non-target organisms, making them suitable for sustainable pest management (Ody *et al.*, 2025). The microbial pesticides naturally curb pest populations, decreasing the reliance on chemical treatments (Sunjka and Mechora, 2022). Collectively, various biopesticide classes reduce the environmental impact of synthetic pesticides and provide a sustainable strategy to manage pest resistance and preserve ecosystem biodiversity (Ullah *et al.*, 2025). Combining biopesticides with biostimulants, such as plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria (PGPR) or seaweed extracts, enhances pest resistance, improves stress tolerance, and boosts crop health and yield (Sansinenea, 2021; Matthews *et al.*, 2024). The development of biopesticides has advanced significantly, addressing both pest management and environmental and health concerns. However, their broader adoption in sustainable agriculture remains limited due to factors such as inconsistent knowledge, varying national regulations, and inadequate distribution to farmers. To promote wider use, governments are encouraged to: (1) reduce dependence on chemical pesticides, (2) invest in future-oriented research such as crop system redesign and improved prophylactic measures, (3) support policies and private initiatives that facilitate the transition to pesticide-free agri-food systems, and (4) simplify biopesticide registration by easing requirements for toxicological, environmental, and residue testing (Soetopo and Alouw 2023).

**Table 5.** Entomopathogenic protozoa and their hosts

Entomopathogenic protozoa	Host	Reference
<i>Mattesia dispersa</i>	<i>Plodia interpunctella</i>	Kalen et al., (2022)
<i>Apicystis bombi</i>	Bumblebees ( <i>Bombus spp.</i> )	Votavova et al., (2022)
<i>Gregarina cochlearium</i>	<i>Phaedon cochleariae</i>	Barber et al., (2024)
<i>Malameba locustae</i>	<i>Schistocerca</i>	Bessette et al., (2022)
<i>Farinocystis tribolii</i>	<i>Tribolium castaneum</i>	Bessette et al., (2022)
<i>Vairimorpha plodiae</i>	<i>Plodia interpunctella</i>	Saglam et al., (2021)
<i>Nosema whitei</i>	<i>Tribolium castaneum</i>	Rauf et al., (2022)
<i>Mortierella oryzaephilus</i>	<i>Oryzaephilus surinamensis</i>	Lord (2007)
<i>Paranosema locustae</i>	<i>Locusta migratoria</i>	Zhang et al. (2023)

### Future prospectives

Biopesticides, which have the potential to fully replace synthetic chemicals in pest management, have recently garnered global interest for several positive reasons. In addition to being environmentally friendly, ongoing research continues to uncover more effective compounds, further enhancing their promise as innovative pest-control solutions. The use of nano-pesticides in agriculture has been shown to enhance controlled release, reduce dosage requirements, deliver genetic material into crops, and facilitate pathogen detection (Manchikanti, 2019). It has a promising future in pest control; however, concerns persist regarding the potential for pests to develop resistance, possible harmful effects on human health, and the risk of manipulating genetic material (Ganguli, 2019). Climate change amplifies the frequency and unpredictability of pest and disease outbreaks and can influence the performance and effectiveness of biopesticides; it is therefore crucial to develop climate-resilient strategies (Narandzic et al., 2025). Farmer's adoption of biopesticides is slow due to cost, lack of awareness and familiarity with chemical pesticides, underscoring the need to study their economic viability and role in sustainable farming (Jagadeesan et al., 2024). Collaboration among researchers, investors, venture capitalists, manufacturers, and farmers is essential for the widespread adoption of biopesticides (Rezaei et al., 2019; Ashaolu et al., 2022). Overcoming regulatory challenges is crucial to ensuring an adequate and affordable supply of biopesticides and advancing economic sustainability.

### Conclusion

Climate-smart agriculture involves adaptive farming practices designed to anticipate, mitigate, and manage the negative impact of climate change on farming system. Climatic changes expose plants to abiotic and

biotic stresses, increasing disease incidence and highlighting the need for effective management to sustain agriculture. In this scenario, biopesticides have emerged as the saviour, offering a more environmentally responsible solution by reducing pollution, preventing pest resistance, and supporting ecological balance by conserving beneficial organisms. This is a fast-growing area of study, with ongoing research expected to yield increasingly innovative microbial pesticides over microbial pesticides. High demand could amplify benefits like using waste for biopesticide production and restoring contaminated ecosystems. Similar to antimicrobial management, the strategic and judicious application of biopesticides is essential to maintain their efficacy, and minimize the development of pest resistance or unintended ecological impacts. Adopting agricultural practices that prioritise environmental care, economic feasibility, and social acceptance is fundamental to achieving sustainability in farming and should become the primary goal in agriculture. Such practices are closely associated with the United Nations' 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and the principles of Green Chemistry, highlighting a direct connection between sustainable agriculture and at least eight of these goals. IPM strategies based on biopesticides could lead to a future of pesticide-free agriculture, one that supports economic growth, societal well-being, and environmental preservation. The near future demands healthier, safer crop production that does not damage the ecosystem, while maintaining crop productivity and nutritional quality. Promoting education, public awareness, and collaboration among researchers, stakeholders, and regulators can enhance the acceptance and development of biopesticides, thereby supporting sustainable, eco-friendly pest management in agriculture.

### Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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