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#### EL NIÑO/SOUTHERN OSCILLATION (ENSO) DIAGNOSTIC DISCUSSION

#### issued by

### CLIMATE PREDICTION CENTER/NCEP/NWS and the International Research Institute for Climate and Society 12 July 2018

#### ENSO Alert System Status: El Niño Watch

<u>Synopsis:</u> ENSO-neutral is favored through Northern Hemisphere summer 2018, with the chance for El Niño increasing to about 65% during fall, and to about 70% during winter 2018-19.

ENSO-neutral continued during June, as indicated by slightly above-average sea surface temperatures (SSTs) across the central and eastern equatorial Pacific (Fig. 1). The latest weekly Niño indices were between +0.3°C and +0.6°C, except for the Niño-1+2 index, which was -0.2°C (Fig. 2). Positive subsurface temperature anomalies (averaged across 180°-100°W) continued over the past month (Fig. 3), and the volume of anomalous warmth now extends to the surface in the eastern part of the basin (Fig. 4). Convection remained suppressed near the Date Line and was near-average over Indonesia (Fig. 5). Low-level wind anomalies were near average across the equatorial Pacific Ocean, except in the east-central Pacific, where anomalies were westerly. At upper-levels, winds were easterly over the east-central Pacific and near the International Date Line. Overall, the oceanic and atmospheric conditions reflected ENSO-neutral.

The majority of models in the IRI/CPC plume predict ENSO-neutral to continue through the Northern Hemisphere summer 2018, with El Niño most likely thereafter (Fig. 6). The forecaster consensus favors the onset of El Niño during the Northern Hemisphere fall, which would then continue through winter. These forecasts are supported by the anomalous subsurface warmth across the eastern half of the tropical Pacific Ocean. In summary, ENSO-neutral is favored through Northern Hemisphere summer 2018, with the chance for El Niño increasing to about 65% during fall, and to about 70% during winter 2018-19 (click <u>CPC/IRI</u> <u>consensus forecast</u> for the chance of each outcome for each 3-month period).

This discussion is a consolidated effort of the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA), NOAA's National Weather Service, and their funded institutions. Oceanic and atmospheric conditions are updated weekly on the Climate Prediction Center web site (<u>El Niño/La Niña Current Conditions and Expert Discussions</u>). Forecasts are also updated monthly in the <u>Forecast Forum</u> of CPC's Climate Diagnostics Bulletin. Additional perspectives and analysis are also available in an <u>ENSO blog</u>. The next ENSO Diagnostics Discussion is scheduled for 9 August 2018. To receive an e-mail notification when the monthly ENSO Diagnostic Discussions are released, please send an e-mail message to: <u>ncep.list.enso-update@noaa.gov</u>.

Climate Prediction Center National Centers for Environmental Prediction NOAA/National Weather Service College Park, MD 20740

## Flooding Injury and Importance of Drainage

## **UF IFAS Extension** UNIVERSITY of FLORIDA

Almost all citrus trees grown in the Indian River and Southwest Florida production areas are located on high water tables and poorly drained soils. Water management on these soils is difficult and expensive. During heavy rains in the summer, excess water must be removed from the root zone while periods of limited rainfall require irrigation. On these soils, drainage is as important as or sometimes even more important than irrigation. The concept of total water management must be practiced. If either system—irrigation or drainage—is not designed, operated, and maintained properly, then the maximum profit potential of a grove cannot be achieved.

Roots, like the rest of the tree, require oxygen for respiration and growth. Wellaerated soils in Florida typically contain around 20-21% oxygen. When flooding occurs, the soil oxygen is replaced by water. This condition causes tremendous changes in the types of organisms present in the soil and in the soil chemistry.

Flooding injury is highly probable if the root zone is saturated for 3 or more days during the summer when soil temperatures (86-95°F) are relatively high. Flooding during the cooler December-March period can be tolerated for several weeks at low soil temperatures (< 60° F). The rate of oxygen loss from the soil is much greater at higher than at lower temperatures. The potential for damage to roots is less obvious, but equally serious, when the water table is just below the surface. Flooding stress is much less when water is moving than when water is stagnant. The use of observation wells is an easy and a quick method for evaluating water-saturated zones in sites subject to chronic flooding injury (See "Water Table Measurement and Monitoring in Citrus Groves", Citrus Industry magazine, May 2015 issue).



Flooded citrus grove after a heavy summer rain event.

Short-term estimates of flooding stress can be obtained by digging into the soil and smelling soil and root samples. Sour odors indicate an oxygen deficient environment. The presence of hydrogen sulfide (a disagreeable rotten egg odor) and sloughing roots indicate that feeder roots are dying. In flooded conditions, root death is not exclusively associated with oxygen deficiency. Anaerobic bacteria (the kind that can grow only in the absence of oxygen) develop rapidly in flooded soils and contribute to the destruction of citrus roots. Toxic sulfides and nitrites formed by anaerobic sulfate- and nitrate-reducing bacteria are found in poorly drained groves. Sulfate-reducing bacteria require both energy and sulfates to change sulfates to sulfides. The best sources of energy have been found to be certain organic acids contained in citrus roots, grass roots, and buried pieces of palmetto. Thus, citrus roots can contribute to their own destruction by being an energy source for these bacteria.

Symptoms of flooding injury may occur within a few days or weeks, but usually show up after the water table has dropped and the soil dries. Leaf wilting appears since the damaged roots cannot take up enough water to meet tree demand. This wilting is followed by leaf drop and twig dieback. Chlorosis patterns may develop and tree death may occur. Trees subjected to chronic flooding damage are stunted with sparse canopies and dull colored small leaves. Trees produce low yields of small fruit. New flushes of growth will have small, pale leaves due to poor nitrogen uptake by restricted root systems. Usually, the entire grove is not affected, but most likely smaller more defined areas will exhibit the symptoms. Striking differences in tree condition can appear within short distances associated with only slight changes in rooting depths. Water damage may also be recognized by a marked absence of feeder roots and root bark that is soft and sloughs easily.

With acute water damage, foliage wilts and sudden heavy leaf drop follows. Trees may totally defoliate and actually die. More frequently, partial defoliation is followed by some recovery. However, affected trees remain in a state of decline and are susceptible to drought when the dry season arrives because of the shallow, restricted, root systems. Moreover, waterlogged soil conditions, besides debilitating the tree, are conducive to the proliferation of soil-borne fungi such as Phytophthora root and foot rot. These organisms cause extensive tree death especially in poorly drained soils.



Flooding damage causing severe leaf wilt.

Water damage may usually be distinguished from other types of decline by a study of the history of soil water conditions in the affected areas. Areas showing water damage are usually localized and do not increase in size progressively as do areas of spreading decline. Foot or root rot symptoms include a pronounced chlorosis of the leaf veins caused by root damage and girdling of the trunk. Lesions also appear on the trunk usually near the soil level (foot rot) or roots die and slough-off (root rot). Flood damage does not produce lesions. Trees with blight or citrus tristeza virus are usually randomly distributed within the grove and diagnostic tests are available to distinguish them from water-damaged trees.

Citrus trees respond physiologically to flooding long before morphological symptoms or yield reductions appear. Photosynthesis and transpiration decrease within 24 hours of flooding and remain low as flooding persists. Water uptake is also reduced. These effects eventually translate to decreased shoot growth and yields.

It is both difficult and costly to improve drainage in existing groves, so drainage problems should be eliminated when the grove area is prepared for planting by including a system of ditches, beds, and/or tiling. Growers should not depend on the slight and often unpredictable differences in rootstock tolerance to waterlogging to enable trees to perform satisfactorily in soil-saturated conditions. Trees, irrespective of scion and rootstock cultivars, should be planted using the best drainage conditions possible.

Do not disk a grove when trees were injured by flooding. Irrigation amounts should be reduced, but frequencies should be increased to adequately provide water to the depleted, shallow root systems. Soil and root conditions should be evaluated after the flooding has subsided. Potential for fungal invasion should be determined through soil sampling and propagule counts. If there is a Phytophthora problem, the use of certain fungicides can improve the situation.

Both surface and subsoil drainage is necessary for citrus trees grown in flatwoods areas to obtain adequate root systems. Drainage systems consist of canals, retention/detention areas, open ditches, subsurface drains, beds, water furrows, swales, and the pumps required to move the drainage water. These systems require continued good maintenance to minimize the chances of root damage from prolonged exposure to waterlogged soils following high intensity rains. Rutting in the water furrows that prevents water from efficiently moving into ditches is often a precursor to waterlogging and root damage.

Water furrows and drainage ditches should be kept free of obstruction through a good maintenance program including chemical weed control. Drainage systems should generally be designed to allow water table drawdown of 4 to 6 inches per day, which should be adequate to prevent root damage. Good drainage allows air to move into the soil and prevents oxygen-deprived conditions. Tree recovery from temporary flooding is more likely to occur with good drainage structure maintenance conditions.

Recent research work has shown that citrus greening (HLB-) infected trees are much more affected by extremes in soil moisture than trees without HLB. This stress intolerance was found to be due to a significant loss of fibrous roots. This finding makes attention to good drainage even more important because flooding could cause additional damage to root systems already weakened by HLB.

Additional information on drainage systems for citrus can be found at: <u>http://edis.ifas.ufl.edu/ch165</u>

## GREASY SPOT FUNGAL DISEASE

Management of greasy spot must be considered in groves intended for processing and fresh market fruit. Greasy spot is usually more severe on leaves of grapefruit, pineapples, Hamlins, and tangelos than on Valencias, Temples, Murcotts, and most tangerines and their hybrids.

Greasy spot spores germinate on the underside of the leaves and the fungus penetrates through the stomates (natural openings on lower leaf surface). Warm humid nights and high rainfall, typical of Florida summers, favor infection and disease development.





On processing Valencias, a single spray of oil (5-10 gal/acre) or copper + oil (5 gal/acre) should provide acceptable control when applied from mid-May to June. With average quality copper products, 2 lb of metallic copper per acre usually provide adequate control. The strobilurin fungicides (Abound, Gem, Headline or Quadris), as well as Enable 2F, are also suitable with or without petroleum oil. On early and midseason oranges and grapefruit for processing, two sprays may be needed especially in the southern part of the state where summer flushes constitute a large portion of the foliage. Two applications also may be needed where severe defoliation from greasy spot occurred in the previous year. In those cases, the first spray should be applied from mid-May to June and the second soon after the major summer flush has expanded. Copper fungicides provide a high degree of control more consistently than oil sprays. Control of greasy spot on late summer flushes is less important than on the spring and early summer growth flushes since the disease develops slowly and defoliation will not occur until after the next year's spring flush. Thorough coverage of the underside of leaves is necessary for maximum control of greasy spot, and higher spray volumes and slower tractor speeds may be needed than for control of other pests and diseases.



The program is essentially the same for fresh fruit. That is, a fungicide application in May-June and a second in July should provide control of rind blotch.

A third application in August may be needed if rind blotch has been severe in the grove. Petroleum oil alone is less effective than other fungicides for control of greasy spot rind blotch (GSRB). Heavier oils (455 or 470) are more effective for rind blotch control than are lighter oils (435).

Copper fungicides are effective for control of GSRB, but may result in fruit spotting especially if applied at high rates in hot, dry weather or if applied with petroleum oil. If copper fungicides are applied in summer, they should be applied when temperatures are moderate, at rates no more than 2 lb of metallic copper per acre, without petroleum oil or other additives, and using spray volumes of at least 125 gal/acre. Enable 2F can be applied for greasy spot control at any time but is especially indicated in mid to late summer for rind blotch control.

The strobilurin fungicides (Abound, Gem, Headline, Pristine or Quadris Top) or Enable 2F can be applied at any time to all citrus and provide effective control of the disease on leaves or fruit. Use of a strobilurin (Abound, Gem, Headline, Pristine or Quadris Top) is especially indicated in late May and early June since it will control both melanose and greasy spot and avoids potential fruit damage from the copper fungicides at that time of year. A strobilurin fungicide should not be applied more than once a year for greasy spot control. Addition of petroleum oil increases the efficacy of these products.

### •Processed fruit

### July-August

- Petroleum oil (455, 470) 5-10 gal
- Cu fungicides 2-4 lb metal
- Abound, Gem, Headline + 5 gal oil
- Pristine
- Quadris Top
- Enable

### •Fresh fruit

### July-August

- Petroleum oil (455, 470) 10 gal
- Cu fungicides < 2 lb metal
- Abound, Gem, Headline + 5 gal oil
- Pristine
- Quadris Top
- Enable 8 oz

For more information on greasy spot, go to: http://www.crec.ifas.ufl.edu/extension/pest/PDF/2017/Greasy%20 Spot.pdf

## LEAF AND SOIL SAMPLING AND ANALYSES TO ADJUST FERTILIZER PROGRAMS

Optimum growth and yield of high quality fruit cannot be obtained without adequate nutrition. The most successful fertilizer program should be based on tissue analysis, knowledge of soil nutrient status through soil analysis combined with university recommendations. The deficiency or excess of an element will cause disturbance in plant metabolism and lead to poor performance.



### <u>Plant analysis</u>

Used in conjunction with other data and observations, tissue analysis aids in evaluating the nutrient elements of the soil-plant system. It has proven useful in confirming nutritional deficiencies, toxicities or imbalances, identifying "hidden" toxicities and deficiencies where visible symptoms are not manifested, and evaluating the effectiveness of fertilizer programs.

### Leaf Sampling

For reliable results and useful interpretation of lab analysis reports, citrus growers, production managers, and consultants must follow the proper procedures for leaf sampling and sample handling because improperly collected leaf samples will provide misleading information about the nutritional status of the trees and the fertilizer programs.

Considerable care is needed in taking samples. Chemical analysis values

can only be useful if the samples obtained are representative of the blocks they were taken from. The proper sampling, preparation and handling would affect the reliability of the chemical analysis, data interpretation, nutritional recommendations, and adjustment of fertilizer programs.

Leaf samples must also be taken at the proper time because nutrient levels within leaves are continually changing. However, leaf mineral concentrations of most nutrients are relatively stable within 4 to 6 months after emergence of the spring flush. Therefore, for mature tree blocks, the best time would be in **July and August** to collect four- to six-month-old spring flush leaves. If taken later in the season, the summer flush would probably be confused with the spring flush.

Each leaf sample should consist of about 100 leaves taken from non-fruiting twigs of 15- 20 uniform trees of the same variety and rootstock, and under the same fertilizer program. Clean brown paper bag should be used. Information sheets from the testing lab should be completed for each sample as this information helps when interpreting the results. The sample bag and the corresponding information sheet should each be carefully labeled with the same identity so that samples and sheets can be matched in the laboratory.

### Sampling techniques for leaves

• Immature leaves should be avoided because of their rapidly changing composition.

• Abnormal-appearing trees, trees at the edge of the block and trees at the end of rows should not be sampled because they may be coated with soil particles and dust or have other problems.

• Do not include diseased, insect damaged, or dead leaves in a sample. Use good judgment. • Select only one leaf from a shoot and remove it with its petiole (leaf stem).

### **Diagnosing growth disorders**

• Collect samples from both affected trees as well as normal trees.

• Trees selected for sampling should be at similar stage of development and age.

• Whenever possible, confine the sampling area to trees in close proximity to each other.

### Handling of leaf samples

• Samples should be collected in clean paper bags and clearly identified.

• They should be protected from heat and kept dry and cool (stored in portable ice chests), and placed in a refrigerator for overnight storage if they cannot be washed and oven dried the same day of collection.

• For macronutrient analysis, leaves usually do not need to be washed.

◆ Leaves should be dried in a ventilated oven at 60-70°C.

### **Preparation for analysis**

• Leaves that have been recently sprayed with micronutrients for fungicidal (Cu) or nutritional (Mn, Zn) purposes should not be analyzed for those micronutrients because it is unlikely to remove all surface contamination from sprayed leaves.

♦ For accurate Fe and B or other micronutrient determination, samples would require hand washing, which is best done when leaves are still in a fresh condition.

### <u>Soil analysis</u>

Soil analysis is an important method for gaining basic information regarding the chemical status of the soil. Soil analysis is particularly useful when conducted over several years so that trends can be seen.

Unlike leaf analysis, there are various methods and analytical procedures of soil analysis used by laboratories. In

Florida, soil tests for the relatively mobile and readily leached elements such as N and K are of no value. Soil tests are mainly important for pH, P, Mg, Ca, and Cu. For Florida sandy soils, using the Mehlich-1 or double acid (hydrochloric acid + sulfuric acid) extraction procedure adopted by the University of Florida analytical lab, 40-60 lbs/acre (20-30 ppm) of P, 70-120 lbs/acre (35-60 ppm) of Mg, 500-800 lbs/acre (250-400 ppm) of Ca, and 5-10 lbs/acre (2.5-5 ppm) of Cu are considered adequate for citrus. A Ca:Mg ratio of 7:1 seems desirable and ratios of higher than 10 may induce Mg deficiency problems. Copper levels higher than 50 lbs/acre may be toxic to citrus trees if the soil pH is below 6.

### Soil sampling

The accuracy of a fertilizer recommendation depends or how well the soil sample on which the recommendation was based represents the area of the grove. In Florida, if soil samples were to be collected once a year, the best time would be at the end of the summer rainy season and prior to fall fertilization, usually during September and October. However, soil sampling may be conducted at the same time as leaf sampling to save time and reduce cost.

Standard procedures for proper sampling, preparation and analysis have to be followed for meaningful interpretations of the test results and accurate recommendations. Each soil sample should consist of 15-20 soil cores taken at the dripline of 15-20 trees within the area wetted by the irrigation system to a depth of 6 inches. The area sampled should be uniform in terms of soil and tree characteristics and correspond to the area from which the leaf sample was taken. Individual cores should be mixed thoroughly in a plastic bucket to form a composite sample. Subsample of appropriate size should be taken from the composite mixture and put into labeled paper bags supplied by the lab. Soil samples should be air-dried but not oven-dried before shipping to the testing laboratory for analysis.

### **Conclusion**

Tissue and soil analyses are a powerful tool for confirming nutrient deficiencies, toxicities and imbalances, identifying "hidden hunger," evaluating fertilizer programs, studying nutrient interactions. However, if initial plant and soil sampling, handling, and analysis of the sample were faulty, the results would be misleading.

If properly done, tissue and soil analyses can point the way toward more economical and efficient use of fertilizer materials, avoiding excessive or inadequate application rates.

## For more details, consult UF-IFAS publication SL 253, "Nutrition of Florida Citrus Trees," at <u>http://edis.ifas.ufl.edu/pdffiles/SS/SS47800.pdf</u>

## Standard Table for Assessing Nutritional Status and Adjusting Fertilizer Programs for Citrus

Leaf analysis standard for assessing current nutrient status of citrus trees based on concentration of mineral elements in 4- to 6-month-old-spring-cycle leaves from non-fruiting terminals.

| Element               | Deficient<br>less than | Low       | Satisfactory  | High      | Excess<br>more than |
|-----------------------|------------------------|-----------|---------------|-----------|---------------------|
| Nitrogen (N) (%)      | 2.2                    | 2.2-2.4   | 2.5-2.8       | 2.9-3.2   | 3.3                 |
| Phosphorus (P) (%)    | 0.09                   | 0.09-0.11 | 0.12-0.17     | 0.18-0.29 | 0.30                |
| Potassium (K) (%)     | 0.7                    | 0.7-1.1   | 1.2-1.7       | 1.8-2.3   | 2.4                 |
| Calcium (Ca) (%)      | 1.5                    | 1.5-2.9   | 3.0-5.0       | 5.1-6.9   | 7.0                 |
| Magnesium (Mg) (%)    | 0.20                   | 0.20-0.29 | 0.30-0.50     | 0.51-0.70 | 0.80                |
| Sulfur (S) (%)        | 0.14                   | 0.14-0.19 | 0.20-0.40     | 0.41-0.60 | 0.60                |
| Chlorine (Cl) (%)     |                        |           | less than 0.5 | 0.5-0.7   | 0.7                 |
| Sodium (Na) (%)       |                        |           | less than 0.2 | 0.2-0.5   | 0.5                 |
| Iron (Fe) (ppm)       | 35                     | 35-59     | 60-120        | 121-200   | 250                 |
| Boron (B) (ppm)       | 20                     | 20-35     | 36-100        | 101-200   | 250                 |
| Manganese (Mn) (ppm)  | 18                     | 18-24     | 25-100        | 101-300   | 500                 |
| Zinc (Zn) (ppm)       | 18                     | 18-24     | 25-100        | 101-300   | 300                 |
| Copper (Cu) (ppm)     | 4                      | 4-5       | 6-16          | 17-20     | 20                  |
| Molybdenum (Mo) (ppm) | 0.06                   | 0.06-0.09 | 0.1-1.0       | 2-50      | 50                  |

### EFFECT OF WATER pH ON EFFICACY OF PESTICIDES



Successful citrus growers should check the soil pH of their groves yearly and do their best to adjust it for better fertilizer efficiency, tree growth, and fruit production. Soil pH is usually increased by liming and decreased by applying sulfur or acid-forming fertilizers. The pH indicates whether the solution or media is acidic or basic (alkaline). The pH scales goes from 0 to 14, where 7 indicates neutrality. Values less than 7 indicate acidic solutions and values greater than 7 indicate a basic condition. Most of Florida fresh waters have pH values between 7 and 8. Although the pH is the most common measured property or characteristic of a solution or a media, some growers and production managers still ignore to adjust the pH of their water when used for pesticide mixing. For better efficacy, anyone involved in pesticide mixing should use a pH meter. The pH affects the rate at which some herbicides are absorbed by plants. Adjusting the pH of the water allows the user to reduce the rates of herbicides without reducing their efficacy. The effectiveness of spray mixture in the spray tank can be affected by a number of variables. A significant impact on the efficacy of many spray materials is the pH

of the water used in the tank. In general, it is desirable to have the pH of the water below 7. Although several chemicals used today are effective at a wide range of pH conditions, many others can be subject to breakdown of the active ingredient at relatively high pH values. With extremely sensitive chemicals, this breakdown can begin between mixing and application. Sevin is among the common pesticides that lose their effectiveness quickly in alkaline (pH values greater than 7) solution. Therefore, it is recommended to reduce the pH of the water in the tank to increase the efficacy of some chemicals. Acidifying agents such as phosphoric acid and citric acid will lower the pH, but can drop it too low. Buffering agents, available from most distributors, will lower the pH to the desired range and help maintain it at that level. It is important to add the buffer to the spray tank water before pesticides are added. Glyphosate works better when ammonium sulfate is added to the spray tank at rates of 8.5 to 17 pounds for every 100 gallons of spray solution. Be careful when buffering tank mixes containing copper fungicides. Copper is more soluble in acidic water, and the resulting high concentrations will cause leaf and fruit burn. Aliette makes acid spray. Therefore, do not mix Aliette with copper. Always read the label of the buffering material as well as the label of the pesticide. It is also recommended to ask your chemical supplier for up-to-date information on the susceptibility of a material to hydrolysis. A good rule of thumb is to spray pesticide mixtures as soon after mixing as possible, mix only enough to treat the crop and do not allow the mixture to stand for a long period of time or overnight.

## ALGAE UNIVERSITY of FLORIDA IFAS Extension

## Algae are in the plant kingdom, but maybe they're not really plants!

In Florida's freshwaters, algae are what make the water green, or even "slimy". However, green water is not necessarily undesirable, and neither are algae. In fact, algae are essential to the ecosystem and to life as we know it, and must be treated with respect.

### Algae are a diverse group of organisms,

which survive in all different types of habitats. They range in size from microscopic to meters in length and in complexity from single-celled to complex organisms that would rival even large plants. Though these organisms may look like the true, "higher", plants, they are anything but, since they do not have roots or true stems and leaves.

#### Algae are one of the first steps of the food

web. There are microscopic algae, like phytoplankton, and there are macroalgae, algae that can be seen by the naked eye. Algae occur naturally in all types of systems and may be considered indicators of ecosystem condition. Even the mere presence of a species can give an indication of the amount and type of nutrients that run through the system. Algae provide food for all types of animals, including fish, insects, mollusks, zooplankton (microscopic animals), and humans.

### What causes an algae bloom?

At times algae can grow so quickly and densely that they form a "bloom". Many people don't like the "look" of a bloom, though blooms can be a natural occurrence. Blooms are not necessarily green, though that is the most common color. They can be blue-green, brown, red, and even violet.



Some blooms turn the water a certain color; this is usually a bloom associated with phytoplankton (microscopic algae). Other blooms form clumps or mats that float on top of the water, or that grow attached to the bottom or to plants. Still others can form dense mats that cover the water surface. Algae need nutrients, such as nitrogen and phosphorous, and light to grow. The level of growth or productivity is often dependent on the amount of nutrients in a system. There is a classification for productivity of a system; it ranges from oligotrophic (low productivity and nutrients) to hypereutrophic (very high nutrients). Also, since algae need light to photosynthesize, how far light penetrates the water is also another limiting factor.

Blooms can have far reaching effects on the environment. Some can become so dense they can ultimately cause a problem with <u>low oxygen</u> levels. A decrease in oxygen causes hypoxia (low oxygen) or anoxia (no oxygen) and the other organisms in the water that need oxygen to survive, such as fish, become stressed and may die. Other blooms may release toxins that can be harmful to animals.

There is a general consensus that rapidly growing human development, and increased human use and disposal of nutrients over the past few centuries, has increased the frequency and intensity of algal blooms in many regions of the world. This has created a global effort to control harmful blooms.

### **Controlling blooms**

### The most direct way to control

**blooms** is to reduce the availability of nutrients. Most water management organizations throughout the world are actively pursuing a variety of nutrient control strategies. However, for some aquatic ecosystems nutrient control is impractical, ineffective or simply too costly. For some cases chemical or biological treatments can be helpful alternatives.

### **Chemical Treatments**

**Copper sulfate** (bluestone) and **chelated copper compounds** such as Cutrine-Plus, Algae Pro, and K-TEA, as well as Endothall are common chemical treatments used to kill algae. Chemical compounds that shade out the light for algae growth, e.g. Aquashade, are also used to control blooms. Each chemical has its own restrictions and toxicity to animals. Read the directions carefully before application.

### **Biological Treatments**

The main biological treatment that is employed today is the use of various carp fish species to control submersed and floating algae. **Grass carp** 

(*Ctenopharyngodon idella*) is mainly used for aquatic weeds and attached submersed algae, such as *Nitella* sp., and *Chara* sp. Where they do not prefer filamentous algae to eat, grass carp will eat *Lyngbya*. The **silver carp** (*Hypophthalmichthys molitrix*) has been shown to be an effective treatment for controlling filamentous algae, including blue-green algae.

Both species are non-native species and there are many restrictions to employing them as a means of weed control; some states prohibit their use altogether. When they are allowed, the use is restricted to **triploid carp**. Triploid carp have an extra set of chromosomes that render the fish sterile, therefore prohibiting a population explosion if the fish escapes into an uncontrolled area.

### **Physical Treatments**

Physical treatments for algae in ponds include <u>aeration and airlifts</u>. While aeration does not kill or remove algae from the water, it oxygenates and stirs the water column, and can create conditions to shift from toxic and smelly blue-green algae to preferred green algae species. The resultant algal population is usually not as dense or as toxic to other organisms in the ponds.

### **Mechanical Treatments**

Harvesters are sometimes used to skim dense mats of blue-green lyngbya alga from the surface of lakes and rivers. Lyngbya normally grows in dense mats at the bottoms of nutrient enriched lakes. These mats produce gasses during photosynthesis that often causes the mats to rise to the surface. At the surface, winds pile the algal mats against shorelines or in navigation channels: these mats can be several acres in size. Managers have developed a process called "grubbing" whereby harvesting machines lift the mats off of submersed plants such as native eelgrass, without cutting the eelgrass. By removing the blanket of lyngbya from the eelgrass, the plants grow and expand. Eelgrass is an important food source for manatees in the Crystal and Homossassa Rivers.

### IRRIGATION, NUTRITION AND FRUIT QUALITY

Florida has the highest citrus fruit quality standards in the world. Fruit quality factors include juice content, soluble solids and acid concentrations, soluble solids-acid ratio, fruit size, and color. Florida citrus growers know that quality factors differ for the fresh and processing markets. For example, fruit size, shape, color, and maturity date are most important for fresh fruit, but high juice content and soluble solids are desired for processing fruit. Fruit quality is affected by several factors including cultivar, rootstock, climate, soil, pests, irrigation, and nutrition.

The effects of irrigation and nutrition on fruit quality are very important and should be understood and taken into consideration by citrus growers and production managers to increase their profitability and enhance their sustainability and competitiveness on a worldwide basis. In general, excessive irrigation and nutrition reduce fruit quality. Therefore, balanced nutrition with sound irrigation scheduling based on **IFAS** recommendations should be a high priority management practice for every grower. Citrus trees require a properly designed, operated, and maintained water management system and a balanced nutrition program formulated to provide specific needs for maintenance and for expected yield and fruit quality performance. Irrigation contributes to the efficiency of fertilizer programs. Adequately watered and nourished trees grow stronger, have better tolerance to pests and stresses, yield more consistently, and produce good quality fruit. On the other hand, excessive or deficient levels of watering or fertilization will result in poor

fruit quality. The most important management practices influencing fruit quality are irrigation and nitrogen, phosphorus, potassium, and magnesium nutrition. However, when any nutrient element is severely deficient, fruit yield and fruit quality will be negatively altered. Trends in fruit quality response to high nutrition and irrigation are described and summarized below.

### Nitrogen (N)

- Increases juice content and color, total soluble solids (TSS), and acid content.
- Increases soluble solids per box and per acre. However, excessive N, particularly with inadequate irrigation, can result in lower yields with lower TSS per acre.
- Decreases fruit size and weight.
- Increases peel thickness and green fruit at harvest.
- Increases incidence of creasing and scab but decreases incidence of peel blemishes such as wind scar, mite russeting, and rind plugging.
- Reduces stem-end rot incidence and green mold of fruit in storage.

### Phosphorus (P)

- Reduces acid content, which increases soluble solids-acid ratio. Phosphorus rates have no effect on soluble solids per box but may increase soluble solids per acre due to increase in fruit production in soils that are low in P.
- Increases number of green fruit but reduces peel thickness.
- □ Increases expression of wind scar but reduces that of russeted fruit.

### Potassium (K)

 Potassium produces mostly negative effects on juice quality except soluble solids per acre.
 Potassium increases fruit production therefore producing more soluble solids per acre.

- Decreases juice content, soluble solids, ratio, and juice color.
- □ Increases acid content.
- □ Increases fruit size, weight, green fruit and peel thickness.
- Reduces incidence of creasing and fruit plugging. In storage, reduces stem-end rot.

### Magnesium (Mg)

- Slightly increases soluble solids, soluble solids-acid ratio, soluble solids per box and soluble solids per acre.
- Slightly increases fruit size and weight but decreases rind thickness.

### **Irrigation**

Increases juice content and soluble solids-acid ratio.

- Reduces soluble solids and acid contents. Soluble solids per box will decrease, but soluble solids per acre may increase due to yield increase.
- Increases fruit size and weight, increases green fruit at harvest, but decreases rind thickness.
- Increases incidence of blemish from wind scar, scab and *Alternaria* brown spot, but reduces rind plugging.
- Reduces stem-end rot incidence but increases incidence of green mold in storage.

Specific effects on juice and external fruit qualities are summarized in the Table below. This summary is based on numerous field experiments conducted over many years. Most of these effects were consistently observed, but some of them appear to depend on local conditions and growing regions.

| Variable               | Ν | Р | K | Mg | Irrigation |
|------------------------|---|---|---|----|------------|
| Juice Quality          |   |   |   |    |            |
| juice content          | + | 0 | - | 0  | +          |
| soluble solids (SS)    | + | 0 | - | +  | -          |
| acid (A)               | + | - | + | 0  | -          |
| SS/A ratio             | - | + | - | +  | +          |
| juice color            | + | 0 | - | ?  | 0          |
| solids/box             | + | 0 | - | +  | -          |
| solids/acre            | + | + | + | +  | +          |
| External Fruit Quality |   |   |   |    |            |
| size                   | - | 0 | + | +  | +          |
| weight                 | - | 0 | + | +  | +          |
| green fruit            | + | + | + | 0  | +          |
| peel thickness         | + | - | + | -  | -          |

### EFFECTS OF MINERAL NUTRITION AND IRRIGATION ON FRUIT QUALITY

Increase (+), Decrease (-), No change (0), No information (?).

## **BROWN ROT MANAGEMENT**



Management of brown rot, caused by *Phytophthora nicotianae* or *P. palmivora*, is needed on both processing and fresh market fruit. While the disease can affect all citrus types, it is usually most severe on Hamlin and other early maturing sweet orange cultivars. Phytophthora brown rot is a localized problem usually associated with restricted air and/or water drainage. It commonly appears from mid-August through October following periods of extended high rainfall. It can be confused with fruit drop due to other causes at that time of the year. If caused by *P. nicotianae*, brown rot is limited to the lower third of the canopy because the fungus is splashed onto fruit from the soil. *P. palmivora* produces airborne sporangia and can affect fruit throughout the canopy.

Early season inoculum production and spread of *Phytophthora* spp. are minimized with key modifications in cultural practices. Skirting of the trees reduces the opportunity for soilborne inoculum to contact fruit in the canopy. The edge of the herbicide strip should be maintained just inside of the dripline of the tree to minimize the exposure of bare soil to direct impact by rain. This will limit rain splash of soil onto the lower canopy. Boom application of herbicides and other operations dislodge low-hanging fruit. Fruit on the ground becomes infected and produces inoculum of *P. palmivora* that can result in brown rot infection in the canopy as early as July while fruit are still green. The beginning stages of the epidemic are very difficult to detect before the fruit are colored and showing typical symptoms. Application of residual herbicides earlier in the summer may reduce the need for post-emergence materials later and minimize fruit drop throughout this early stage of inoculum production from fallen fruit.

Usually a single application of Aliette, Phostrol or ProPhyt before the first signs of brown rot appear in late July is sufficient to protect fruit through most of the normal infection period. No more than 20 lb/acre/year of Aliette should be applied for the control of all Phytophthora diseases. Aliette, Phostrol and ProPhyt are systemic fungicides that protect against postharvest infection and provide 60-90 days control. Copper fungicides are primarily protective but are capable of killing sporangia on the fruit surface and thus reducing inoculum. They may be applied in August before or after brown rot appearance and provide protection for 45-60 days. If the rainy season is prolonged into the fall, a follow-up application of either systemic fungicides at one-half of the label rate, or copper in October may be warranted. With average quality copper products, usually 2-4 lb of metallic copper per acre are needed for control.

Precautions should be taken during harvesting not to include brown rot-affected fruit in the field containers as this could result in rejection at the processing or packing facility.



### **Recommended Chemical Controls for Brown Rot of Fruit**

| Pesticide        | FRAC<br>MOA <sup>2</sup> | Mature Trees<br>Rate/Acre <sup>1</sup> |  |
|------------------|--------------------------|--|--|
| Aliette WDG      | 33                       | 5 lb                                   |  |
| Phostrol         | 33                       | 4.5 pints                              |  |
| ProPhyt          | 33                       | 4 pints                                |  |
| copper fungicide | M1                       | Use label rate.                        |  |

<sup>1</sup>Lower rates may be used on smaller trees. Do not use less than minimum label rate. <sup>2</sup>Mode of action class for citrus pesticides from the Fungicide Resistance Action Committee (FRAC) 2013. Refer to ENY624, Pesticide Resistance and Resistance Management, in the 2014 Florida Citrus Pest Management Guide for more details.

Rates for pesticides are given as the maximum amount required to treat mature citrus trees unless otherwise noted. To treat smaller trees with commercial application equipment including handguns, mix the per acre rate for mature trees in 250 gallons of water. Calibrate and arrange nozzles to deliver thorough distribution and treat as many acres as this volume of spray allows.

For more information, go to Florida Citrus Pest Management Guide: Brown Rot of Fruit at: <u>http://www.crec.ifas.ufl.edu/extension/pest/PDF/2017/Brown%20Rot.pdf</u>

# Flatwoods Citrus

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### Racial-Ethnic Background

\_\_American Indian or native Alaskan
\_\_Asian American
\_\_Hispanic

White, non-Hispanic Black, non-Hispanic

### <u>Gender</u>

\_\_Female

\_\_\_Male