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Flatwoods Citrus



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Multi-County Citrus Agent, SW Florida



Table of Contents

Important Events and Important Websites	2
Newsletter Sponsors	3-6
Aerial Application of Pesticides	7-8
Flooding Injury	9-10
Water Table Measurement and Monitoring	11-12
How to Reduce Drift?	13
Weed Management in Citrus Groves	14-15
Leaf and Soil Sampling and Analyses to Adjust Fertilizer Programs	16-18
Honeybee Decline Linked to Killer Virus	19-20
Florida Gulf Citrus Growers Association	21
Gulf Citrus Growers Association Scholarship	22-24

Previous issues of the Flatwoods Citrus newsletter can be found at:
<http://citrusagents.ifas.ufl.edu/agents/zekri/index.htm>
<http://irrec.ifas.ufl.edu/flcitrus/>

IMPORTANT EVENTS

--June Seminar

Date: Thursday, June 28, 2012, Time: 10:00 AM – 12:00 Noon

Location: Southwest Florida REC (Immokalee)

1. Citrus genome sequence and its implications– **Dr. Fred Gmitter**, Lake Alfred CREC, UF-IFAS
2. Economics of citrus advanced production systems– **Dr. Fritz Roka**, Southwest Florida REC, UF-IFAS
3. Developing HLB-resistant citrus – **Dr. Ed Stover**, USDA-ARS-Fort Pierce
4. New released citrus varieties for Florida citrus growers – **Mr. Peter Chaires**, New Varieties Development & Management Corporation

2 CEUs for Certified Crop Advisors (CCAs)

No registration fee and lunch is free, but **pre-registration is required.**

To reserve your seat, call 863 674 4092 or send an e-mail to: maz@ufl.edu

CITRUS EXPO

IN FORT MYERS

**Wednesday, August 15 &
Thursday, August 16, 2012**

[Preregister for Citrus Expo online](#)

www.CitrusExpo.net



IMPORTANT WEBSITES

Citrus Extension: <http://www.crec.ifas.ufl.edu/extension/>

Citrus Health Management Areas (CHMAs):

http://www.crec.ifas.ufl.edu/extension/chmas/chma_overview.shtml

Florida Citrus Extension Agents:

http://citrusagents.ifas.ufl.edu/Citrus_Agents_Home_Page/Citrus_Agents_Home.html

Florida Citrus Resources: <http://irrec.ifas.ufl.edu/flcitrus/>

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AERIAL APPLICATION OF PESTICIDES

Aerial application of pesticides can be done using various types of fixed wing aircraft or helicopters. The selection of aircraft depends on the size of the application area, application window, budgets and terrain. The objective is to use aircraft that apply the insecticide in the safest and most efficient manner.



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Fixed wing aircraft are used when there are large, continuous areas that may be sprayed with the minimum number of turns. Helicopters are useful for treating discrete or isolated patches of host material. Fixed wing treatment is less costly than by helicopter. Monitoring of the spray operation will be done by project team members from both the ground and the air. Airborne observers will be using small twin-engine aircraft or helicopters. These personnel relay on-site information back to the project team leaders and the pilots to ensure that the spray is carried out as planned.

Weather Monitoring

The weather is the most crucial factor in determining if a spray will occur on a particular day. Successful control of pests requires at least 1 hour without precipitation to allow the insecticide to adequately dry and stick to foliage and pest.

Wind speed is also a critical factor to the actual delivery of the spray from aircraft. The morning is usually the calmest period of the day; however, spraying can be done with some wind. Application is halted when sustained wind speeds exceed 10 km/hr to prevent unnecessary drift of the pesticide. Specific weather conditions are required to allow the delivery of the insecticide at the desired concentration.

Because of the uncertainty of weather, planned aerial spraying for any particular day may be cancelled at the last minute.

Determining the Aircraft Flight Paths

Aircraft apply insecticides in a series of parallel swaths over a spray zone. Well before spraying actually occurs, the route and pattern taken by the spray aircraft will be determined to ensure that the shortest time is spent over the spray zones. Optimal patterns will be designed to minimize the number of times the aircraft has to turn. Each turn wastes time in re-orienting the aircraft as it lines up for its run through the zone.

Safety considerations also play a large role in determining the aircraft's flight pattern.

Identifying the Spray Boundaries

Spray aircraft use sophisticated Global Positioning System-based navigational aids to pin-point their precise location. The GPS system also provides a record of the exact time and location the aircraft were over the spray area and also records the precise moment when the spray equipment was on or off.

Monitoring the Spray Pattern

Even though spray equipment onboard the aircraft are calibrated well before the time of spraying, ground monitoring of spray pattern and deposits are done to ensure that the pesticide was delivered to the target foliage at the desired concentration and distribution. Deposit monitoring is also done to insure that the application does not drift beyond the spray boundaries. Even application is critical to the performance of most herbicides and insecticides. Uneven application results in under-dosing and poor control of the target pest in some areas and over-dosing and wasted pesticide in other areas.

Some pesticide labels say the pesticide can be applied by either fixed-wing aircraft or by helicopters. The main advantage of aerial spraying is that it can be carried out quickly and at times when ground equipment cannot operate. The main disadvantage is the increased possibility of pesticide drift onto neighboring areas and decreased spray coverage. Even when properly calibrated and operated, aircraft sprayers are often not as thorough in applying material as ground rigs, especially to the lower surfaces of the leaves and to the lower portions of the trees.

Aerial applications should not be used for small acreages or in residential areas, and should be done only by properly trained individuals who hold a valid pesticide applicator's certificate and have licenses.

FLOODING INJURY

Almost all citrus trees grown in southwest Florida are located on high water table, poorly drained soils. Water management on poorly drained soils is difficult and expensive because during heavy rains in the summer, excess water must be removed from the rootzone and in periods of limited rainfall, irrigation is needed. On these soils, drainage is as important as 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. Both surface and subsoil drainage is necessary to obtain adequate root systems for the trees.

Roots, like the rest of the tree, require oxygen for respiration and growth. Soils in Florida typically contain 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 would be expected if the root zone were saturated for 3 days or more during extended summer rains at relatively high soil temperatures (86-95° F). 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 high than at low 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 a very reliable method for evaluating water-saturated zones in sites subject to chronic flooding injury.



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. Under 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 in order 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 roots become stranded in dry soils. Leaf wilting, leaf drop, dieback, and chlorosis patterns may develop and tree death may occur. Trees subjected to chronic flooding damage are stunted with sparse canopies, dull colored, small leaves and 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, which is soft and easily sloughed.

With acute water damage, foliage wilts suddenly followed by heavy leaf drop. Trees may totally defoliate and actually die, but more frequently partial defoliation is followed by some recovery. However, such trees remain in a state of decline and are very 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.

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 CTV 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 which eventually translates 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 under such conditions. Trees, irrespective of scion and rootstock cultivars, should be planted under the best drainage conditions possible. Drainage ditches should be kept free of obstruction through a good maintenance program including chemical weed control. Tree recovery from temporary flooding is more likely to occur under good drainage structure maintenance conditions.

Do not disk a grove if 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.

WATER TABLE MEASUREMENT AND MONITORING



Most flatwoods citrus soils have a restrictive layer that can perch the water table and significantly affect tree water relations. To optimize production and tree health, the level of this water table should be monitored and maintained within an optimal zone. Simple and practical observation wells can normally produce adequate information.

Water Table Behavior. The water table under flatwoods citrus may rise rapidly in response to either rainfall or irrigation because sandy soils are highly conductive to water flow. A general rule of thumb is that 1 inch of rain will cause the water table to rise about 10 inches in fine textured soils, 6 inches in most of the flatwoods sandy soils, and 4 inches in coarse sands. It may take 4 to 6 days for the water table to return to its desired levels following rains of 1 inch or more.

Observation Wells. A water table observation well is made with a porous casing buried vertically in the ground. It permits the groundwater level to rise and fall inside it as the water level in the adjacent soils. Observation wells with a simple float indicator can provide rapid evaluation of shallow water table depths. The float and indicator level move with the water table, allowing an above-ground indication of the water level. Water table

observation wells installed in flatwoods soils usually penetrate only to the depth of the restrictive (argillic or spodic) layer. Typically this layer is within 30 to 48 inches of the soil surface.

Well Construction. The basic components of the well itself include a short section of 3-inch perforated PVC pipe (3-5 ft long), 3-inch PVC cap, screening material, a float, indicator rod, and small stopper.

The indicator rod can be a dowel, ½-inch PVC pipe (thin wall) or microsprinkler extension stake. Dowels are a poor choice since they require painting and will rot out near the float within a few years. The float is typically a 2½-inch fishing net float or a 500 ml (approximately 2½ in. diameter x 6 in. high) polyethylene bottle with a 28-mm (1.1 in.) screw cap size. The float assembly can be constructed by inserting the microsprinkler extension stake into the fishing float or ½-inch pipe into the polyethylene bottle.

The bottle neck provides a snug fit for the stake and no sealant is required. The hole in the cap should be drilled slightly larger than the indicator stake to serve as a guide for the float assembly. Fittings should not be glued so that components can be easily disassembled for cleaning or replacement. Observation well casings are constructed from 3-in. diameter PVC pipe (Class 160). A circular saw or drill can be used to perforate the pipe prior to installation. Perforations should be staggered in rows around the pipe to allow flow into the well from the sides in addition to the bottom. Perforations totaling about 5% of the well's surface area are adequate for sandy soils encountered in the flatwoods. No perforations should be made within 12 inches of the surface in order to minimize the chances of ponded water from high

intensity storms creating flow channels into perforations near the soil surface. The pipe should be wrapped (sides and bottom) with a screening material to prevent soil particles from moving into the well. Materials such as cheesecloth, polyester drain fabric, and fiberglass screen have been used successfully as filters. The filter material should be taped in place with duct tape. A 3-inch soil auger can be used to bore holes for the wells. When possible, the observation wells should be installed when no water table is present in order to minimize chances of the well sides sloughing into the bore as it is dug.

When a water table is present, it is easiest to install the well by starting off with a larger diameter pipe. For a 3-inch observation well, a 4-inch installation pipe (Sch 40 preferred) will be needed. The installation pipe should be cut at least 6 inches longer than the intended depth of well. Holes (½-inch diameter) should be drilled in the sides of the pipe opposite each other about 1½ inches from the top of the pipe. These will be used to aid in removing the pipe from the soil after the observation well is installed. Auger a hole in the soil until it begins to slough in (when the water table is reached). The 4-inch pipe should then be forced into the hole. A 3-inch auger can then be used to remove soil from within the 4-inch casing. As soil is removed, the casing needs to be forced downward to keep the hole from sloughing. Continue to remove soil from inside the casing until the appropriate depth is achieved (typically when hardpan material begins to be excavated).

The well casing pipe should be cut to length and installed in the hole so that it extends 2 to 6 inches above the soil surface. Care should be taken to ensure that the casing is installed plumb to

minimize binding of the float assembly. If a 4-inch installation pipe was used to excavate the hole, it needs to be removed. A ½-inch rod can be inserted through the holes that were drilled in the top of the 4-inch pipe. If the pipe cannot be removed easily by hand, a chain can be attached to the rod and attached to a high-lift jack. Usually, after jacking the installation pipe up about a foot, the pipe can be easily removed by hand. The soil should be backfilled around the observation well casing and tamped to compact the soil and get a tight fit between the soil and the sides of the pipe.

A measurement should be taken of the distance from the bottom of the well to the soil surface. The float assembly can then be lowered into the well. Make sure that the indicator rod and float do not bind against the sides of the observation well. The well is now ready for calibration.

Calibration. A mark on the indicator stake or rod should be made at the top of the well when the float is at the bottom of the well. This level is the reference mark for the well depth. The indicator stake or rod can then be marked with major divisions (feet) and minor divisions (inches) for easy reading of the water table depth. These rings can be painted at appropriate intervals using different colors for major and minor divisions. Marks painted at 2-inch increments provide enough accuracy for most users.

The mark at the upper level is dependent on the depth of the water furrow and root depth. The upper depth should be selected so that water does not pond in water furrows and it should be at least 6 inches below the bottom of the root zone to prevent root pruning. Observations over time will help to determine the water table level depth that will prevent root damage or excessive wetness in the root zone.

HOW TO REDUCE DRIFT?



- Avoid high spray pressure, which create finer droplets. Use as coarse a spray as possible and still obtain good coverage and control.
- Don't apply pesticides under windy or gusty conditions; don't apply at wind speeds over 10 mph. Read the label for specific instructions.
- Maintain adequate buffer zones to insure that drift does not occur off the target area.
- Be careful with all pesticides. Insecticides and fungicides usually require smaller droplet sizes for good coverage and control than herbicides; however, herbicides have a greater potential for nontarget crop damage.
- Choose an application method and a formulation that is less likely to cause drift.
- Use drift reduction nozzles.
- Use wide-angle nozzles, lower spray boom heights, and keep spray boom stable.
- Use drift control/drift reduction

agents. These materials are designed to minimize the formation of droplets smaller than 150 microns. They help produce a more consistent spray pattern and aid in deposition. Drift control additives do not eliminate drift. Therefore, common sense is still required.

- Apply pesticides early in the morning or late in the evening; the air is often more still than during the rest of the day.
- Don't spray during thermal inversions, when air closest to the ground is warmer than the air above it. When possible, avoid spraying at temperatures above 90°-95° F.
- Know your surroundings! You must determine the location of sensitive areas near the application site. Some crops are particularly sensitive to herbicides, which move off-site.
- Be sure you are getting the spray deposition pattern you think you are; service and calibrate your equipment regularly.
- Whenever possible, cut off the spray for missing trees in the row. Spray that does not enter the tree canopy is wasted and contributes significantly to drift problems.
- Keep good records and evaluate pesticide spray results.

**Remember,
ALWAYS read and follow
label directions.**

WEED MANAGEMENT

Weeds can reduce the growth, health and survival of young trees, or the time to come into bearing and ultimately fruit production. The more competitive the weeds, the more adversely they alter tree physiology, growth, fruit yield and quality. The attainment of early crop production requires controlling the growth of weeds. Weeds alter economic status by competing with trees, particularly young trees, for water, nutrients and even light in the case of climbing vines, which can easily cover trees if left uncontrolled.



Weeds also have various effects on tree performance including reduced efficacy of low volume irrigation systems, and interception of soil-applied pesticides.

Management Methods

Cultural & mechanical

Cultural methods include off-target irrigation and fertilizer applications. Mechanical methods include cultivation in row middles. However, **constant cultivation results in the destruction of citrus fibrous roots, which normally would grow in the undisturbed portion of the soil.**



Mowing is practiced between the tree rows and away from the trees in combination with herbicide applications in the tree row over the major root zone of trees. It is appropriate where a cover crop is desired in bedded groves to prevent soil erosion. Weeds can also be spread by seed and vegetatively during mowing operations, reinfesting tree rows where herbicides have been applied. **Mowing before seedhead formation is necessary to reduce seed dissemination and reinfestation.**

Chemical mowing

Chemical mowing, utilizing Low Rate Technology (LRT) postemergence herbicide spray applications and wiping in combination with mechanical mowing, is used for the suppression of vegetation in row middles. With the high frequency and cost of mechanical mowing required to maintain vegetation control in row middles, chemical mowing and wiping with low rates of glyphosate has increased. Weed management in Middles by chemical applications results in the elimination of tall growing species and establishment of more manageable sod type species such as Bermuda and Bahia grasses.

Chemical

Generally speaking, all weed species listed as susceptible on the herbicide product label will be controlled by that herbicide at the appropriate rate, time of application and stage of growth. Environmental and plant conditions before, during and following the application are also important including moisture in the form of rainfall and/or irrigation.

Poor control can sometimes be expected from postemergence applications to weeds under stress conditions due to poor uptake and translocation of applied herbicides.

Assuming that the appropriate herbicide or herbicide mixtures are selected for the weed species present, failures in the program will usually be due to one of the above factors or to the actual application including calibration and/or equipment design and operation.

Herbicides may be classified as foliar or soil-applied. Foliar applied materials may

have systemic or contact activity. Soil applied preemergence herbicides are absorbed through weed root systems, being most effective during germination and early seedling growth stages. Systemic herbicides are those that are absorbed by either roots or aboveground plant parts and are translocated throughout the plant. Contact herbicides act as desiccants, damaging or killing all plant parts actually sprayed with little if any translocation.

For the control of well-established perennial weeds, a postemergence herbicide with systemic metabolic activity should be used with preemergence soil residual products.

Timing and frequency of application are the keys to good vegetation management. **Increased application frequency of lower rates of soil residual herbicides is more effective in young groves where vegetation presence is greater due to more exposure of the grove floor to sunlight and where a greater herbicide safety factor is required.**

Application Technology

Rapid advances in herbicide application technology have resulted in the development of sophisticated equipment. Application equipment is now capable of selective delivery of multiple herbicide products, each directly injected into booms. In a single application, tree rows and row middles may be treated with soil residual and postemergence products with selectivity for tree age, soil type and vegetation species.



Well-maintained, accurately calibrated equipment with good filtration and agitation systems capable of uniform distribution of prescribed spray volumes and droplet size is

essential for efficiency, cost-effective vegetation management. Worn nozzle tips result in increased spray delivery rates and distortion of distribution patterns and should be checked regularly. Improved herbicide boom design to reduce tree skirt contact, spray drift and interference of heavy weed cover with nozzle output will reduce tree damage and fruit drop while improving control of target vegetation. Tree skirt pruning and timing of postemergence applications will also reduce boom and spray contact with low hanging limbs and fruit.



Environmental Considerations

In determining management options, herbicide selection should be based not only on species and stage of vegetation development, but product solubility and leaching potential, soil type and rainfall distribution. Objectives are to reduce weed competition and interference through measured vegetation control/suppression with inputs having reduced potential for leaching through over-irrigation, runoff and erosion, chemical drift, or other off-target impacts.

CAUTION: Herbicides may move through the soil to groundwater. Several factors influence the rate of this movement. Lower rates applied more frequently combined with sound irrigation management practices will reduce herbicide movement. **The use of bromacil-containing herbicides is prohibited on deep, sandy Ridge-type soils.**

For more information and for the list of herbicides registered for citrus in Florida, go to: <http://edis.ifas.ufl.edu/CG013>
2012 Florida Citrus Pest Management Guide--Weeds.

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.



Plant analysis

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.

Soil analysis

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 on 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 <http://edis.ifas.ufl.edu/pdf/SL/SL253.pdf>

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 less than	Low	Satisfactory	High	Excess 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

HONEYBEE DECLINE LINKED TO KILLER VIRUS

Parasitic mites wiping out bee colonies by transmitting deadly virus directly into the bloodstream of the bees, research reveals

By [Damian Carrington](#)



Varroa destructor is a bloodsucking parasite that feeds on honeybees and has spread globally, destroying colonies worldwide.

The deadly link between the worldwide collapse of honeybee colonies and a bloodsucking parasite has been revealed by scientists. They have discovered that the mite has massively and permanently increased the global prevalence of a fatal bee virus.

The varroa mite's role means the virus is now one of the "most widely distributed and contagious insect viruses on the planet", the researchers warned. Furthermore, the new dominance of the killer virus poses an ongoing threat to colonies even after beekeepers have eradicated the mites from hives.

Varroa destructor has spread from Asia across the entire world over the past 50 years. It arrived in the UK in 1990 and has been implicated in the halving of bee numbers since then, alongside other factors including the destruction of flowery habitats in which [bees](#) feed and the [widespread use of pesticides on crops](#). Bees and other pollinators are vital in the production in up to a third of all the food we eat, but the role the mites played was unclear, as bacteria and fungi are also found in colonies along with the viruses.

But the mite's arrival in Hawaii in 2007 gave scientists a unique opportunity to track its deadly spread. "We were able to watch the emergence of the disease for the first time ever," said Stephen Martin, at the University of Sheffield, who led the new research [published in the journal Science](#). Within a year of varroa arrival, 274 of 419 colonies on Oahu island (65%) were wiped out, with the mites going on to wreak destruction across Big Island the following year.

A particular virus, called deformed wing virus (DWV), was present in low and apparently harmless levels in colonies before the mites arrived, the scientists found. Even when the mites first invaded hives, the virus levels remained low. "But the following year the virus

levels had gone through the roof." said Martin. "It was a millionfold increase – it was staggering."

The other key finding was that one DWV strain had gone from making up 10% of the virus population to making up 100%. "The viral landscape had changed and to one that happened to be deadly to bees," Martin said, noting the DWV strain was the same one found around the world. "There is a very strong correlation between where you get this DWV strain and where you get huge amounts of colony losses. We are almost certain this study seals the link between the two."

Even if a colony is cleared of varroa mite infestation, the deadly DWV strain remains dominant. "That means the colonies will collapse very fast, so beekeepers must keep the varroa levels down: it's even more critical than we knew before," said Martin. [Other research by members of the team](#), conducted in Devon, showed that even when the varroa mites are kept under control, the presence of the fatal DWV strain kills about 10% of colonies each year.

The varroa mite magnifies the impact of DWV for three reasons. First, it transmits the virus directly into the bee's bloodstream as the parasite feeds. This means it bypasses all the bee's natural immune defences which are deployed when the virus is transmitted via food or sexual contact. Second, the virus can massively multiply in the mite. And third, the DWV strain best suited to transmission via the mite rapidly comes to dominate and is a strain that is particularly harmful to bees.

"This work provides clear evidence that, of all the suggested mechanisms of honeybee loss, virus infection brought in by mite infestation is a major player in the decline," said Ian Jones, at the University of Reading, who was not involved in the work. But Martin noted that the weakening of colonies through lack of food or the presence of damaging pesticides would make them more vulnerable to infestation.

Hawaii is a particularly significant bee-keeping location as almost all the queen bees used in the US are bred on the islands. The islands also have a significant macadamia nut industry, which is entirely dependent on bees for pollination. "The bees are dropping like flies in Hawaii: macadamia nuts may be about to get very expensive," Martin said.



Florida Gulf Citrus Growers Association



Florida Gulf Citrus Growers are good neighbors and good stewards of the land. They are keenly aware that they must carefully balance the needs of the environment and the needs of citrus growing. This delicate balance starts in the basic design

of the groves, and then to the use of the latest technology and the most progressive management practices. All these factors enable Florida Citrus Growers to be sustainable in this region. Growers carefully manage the water resources through state-of-the-art low volume computerized irrigation systems, spraying water directly to the root zone. There are many other positive impacts that citrus groves have on the environment. Go to <http://www.gulfcitrus.org/> and become a member or an associate member.

GULF CITRUS GROWERS ASSOCIATION SCHOLARSHIP FOUNDATION, INC.



Membership:

Membership in the Scholarship Foundation is open to all Gulf Citrus Growers Association (GCGA) members for just \$25 per year. Members are able to vote for and serve on the Board of Directors for the Foundation.

Donations:

Donations are a crucial source of funding for scholarship awards and may be made to the Foundation at any time during the year in any denomination, **regardless of membership status**. Checks should be made payable to the Foundation. For more details, please call the GCGA office at **(239) 690-0281**.

The GCGA Scholarship Foundation is a non-profit corporation operating under Section 501 © (3) of the Internal Revenue Code. Contributions are tax deductible as allowed by law.



Gulf Citrus Growers Association Scholarship Foundation, Inc.

11741 Palm Beach Blvd., #202, Fort Myers, FL 33905
Phone: (239) 690-0281 / Fax: (239) 690-0857 / Email: gulfcitrus@embarqmail.com

About the Gulf Citrus Growers Association

The citrus growers of southwest Florida are committed to supporting education as a long-term investment in the future of our industry. The first Gulf Citrus scholarship was awarded in 1992 through the Gulf Citrus Growers Association, a trade organization representing growers in Charlotte, Collier, Glades, Hendry and Lee Counties.

The Gulf Citrus Growers Association Scholarship Foundation was established in 2000 as a non-profit entity to oversee the distribution of these awards. Scholarship applications are accepted throughout the year and are reviewed semi-annually by a Scholarship Selection Committee comprised of academic and industry members. The number and amount of awards vary depending upon the number of applications received and available funds.

Applicants who are not selected may submit a new application for consideration in the next selection cycle. Previous award winners may also reapply.

Scholarship Criteria

Preferred requirements for scholarships are as follows:

AA, BS, MS and PhD Degrees:

- Completion of all placement testing and a **declared major** in agriculture or related major.
- Completion of **12 credit hours** towards agriculture or related degree.
- Minimum overall grade point average of **2.5** for AA and BS degrees; **3.0** for MS and PhD degrees.
- A demonstrated **commitment** to complete the degree at a state college, community college or university.

Applicants must send their transcripts including grades for the courses taken the previous semester and complete the attached application, which includes a statement of release giving the selection committee permission to verify information submitted.

*****APPLICATION DEADLINES ARE JULY 31 AND DECEMBER 31*****



Gulf Citrus Growers Association Scholarship Foundation, Inc.

11741 Palm Beach Blvd., #202, Fort Myers, FL 33905
Phone: (239) 690-0281 / Fax: (239) 690-0857 / Email: gulfcitrus@embarqmail.com

Scholarship Application

Personal Data

Name: _____ Date of Birth: _____

Home Address: _____

City/State: _____ Zip: _____ Phone: _____

Mailing Address: _____

City/State: _____ Zip: _____ Phone: _____

E-mail: _____

Employer: _____

Address: _____

City/State: _____ Zip: _____ Phone: _____

Does your employer reimburse you for tuition or other expenses incurred toward your degree? Yes ____ No ____

Educational Information

College or University in which you are enrolled: _____

Department / Degree Program: _____

I am working toward the following: AA ____ BS ____ MS ____ PhD ____ Other ____

Courses Taken in Major (completed):

Courses (in which you are currently enrolled):

Total Credit Hours Toward Degree: _____ Cumulative Grade Point Average (GPA): _____

Expected Date of Graduation: _____

Please answer the following questions in complete sentences with as much detail as possible.

What are your career goals? _____

What is the potential value of your education to the citrus industry *in southwest Florida*?

I authorize the release of this application and any relevant supporting information to persons involved in the selection of recipients for Gulf Citrus Growers Association scholarships.

Applicant's Signature

Date

*****APPLICATION DEADLINES ARE DECEMBER 31 AND JULY 31*****

Please return this application with your official transcripts to:

Gulf Citrus Growers Association Scholarship Foundation, Inc.
Dr. Mongi Zekri, Application Coordinator
Hendry County Extension Office
P. O. Box 68
LaBelle, FL 33975
Phone: (863) 674-4092 / Fax: (863) 674-4636
E-mail: maz@ufl.edu

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Please send: Dr. Mongi Zekri
Multi-County Citrus Agent
Hendry County Extension Office
P.O. Box 68
LaBelle, FL 33975

Subscriber's Name: _____

Company: _____

Address: _____

City: _____ State: _____ Zip: _____

Phone: _____

Fax: _____

E-mail: _____

Racial-Ethnic Background

__ American Indian or native Alaskan

__ Asian American

__ Hispanic

__ White, non-Hispanic

__ Black, non-Hispanic

Gender

__ Female

__ Male