Integrated Pest Management (IPM) guidelines for Australian cotton

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These guidelines are a brief version of the *Integrated Pest Management Guidelines for Australian Cotton II*. For more details on any of the following pages please contact the Australian Cotton Research Institute for a copy of the *IPM Guidelines II*.

What is IPM?

IPM involves using all means of managing pest populations with the aim of reducing insecticide use whilst maintaining profitability (yield, fibre quality and crop maturity). IPM is a whole year approach to managing pests. This includes management of pests through the cotton growing season, and through the remainder of the year as well. For instance, decisions made in the autumn and winter can have a lasting impact on pest management throughout the year.

Why do we need to develop IPM programs?

Over-reliance on synthetic insecticides creates problems, such as insecticide resistance of the major pests (particularly *H. armigera*), disruption of natural enemies of the pests leading to outbreaks of secondary pests such as mites, aphids or whitefly and other environmental consequences. These problems have cast doubt over the long-term viability of the traditional insecticide dominated approach to pest management.

A major goal for the cotton industry is to reduce dependence on foliar and soil applied insecticides. This can be achieved by developing an IPM program that integrates a range of pro-active management tactics, especially the conservation and use of natural enemies (predators and parasites) to control pests.

How do we implement IPM?

IPM involves integrating a range of tools and strategies for managing pests. These can be conveniently grouped in seven main objectives:

1. Growing a healthy crop
2. Keeping track of insects and damage
3. Preserving beneficial insects
4. Preventing insecticide resistance
5. Managing crop and weed hosts
6. Using trap crops effectively
7. Communication and training

These objectives are explained below and there is a Seasonal activity plan for IPM in Table 20 on page 60.

Objective 1
Growing a healthy crop

This objective covers the key issues for good crop agronomy and highlights how they interact with IPM.

Crop management can affect IPM. Growing a healthy cotton crop optimises both its yield potential and capacity to compensate for pest damage. In irrigated cotton, a healthy crop begins with good field preparation, soil moisture and plant establishment. Poor fertiliser or irrigation management can delay crop maturity and increase the length of time that the crop requires protection from pests, which can potentially increase insecticide resistance selection.

Field selection

When selecting fields for planting cotton consider proximity to sensitive areas such as watercourses, pastures, buildings, and the prevailing wind direction. Bollgard II varieties may be appropriate for fields near sensitive areas. Another consideration would be the proximity of these cotton fields to other crops or orchards which can potentially act as a source for secondary pests such as mites, aphids or whitefly. Pest resistant varieties should be kept together, such as Bollgard II or okra leaf types, rather than mixing them with other varieties. This reduces the chance of sprays applied to conventional fields disrupting fields that do not need spraying at that time.

Seed bed preparation

A tactic often mentioned by cotton growers in achieving an early crop is a good seed-bed, typified by friable, non-cloddy soil and firm, high, well-shaped beds. This helps achieve vigorous, healthy, early growth that tolerates seedling disease better and achieves early crop maturity and high yield potential. High beds also reduce the risk of waterlogging by encouraging good drainage. Planting cotton into standing stubble (wheat, sorghum) may offer some benefit in terms of soil condition, insect management and water infiltration. For more information see the publication *Planting cotton in standing wheat stubble*, available from the Cotton CRC web site www.cottoncrc.org.au

Selecting a variety

The cotton varieties planted should be matched to the region and likely pests and diseases (see seed company variety guides or websites). Select a variety that suits the growing region in terms of length of season. This will benefit the maturity timing of the crop which in turn will benefit fibre quality and defoliation as well as reducing the exposure to late season pest attack. Shorter season varieties may also be considered as the shorter growing period reduces the time the crop needs to be protected from pest damage. Okra-leaf varieties have a degree of resistance to *Helicoverpa* spp., spider mites and silverleaf whitefly, which can potentially reduce the control needed for each pest by about one spray per season. Penetration of insecticides into the crop canopy is better with okra leaf cultivars, which can contribute to better control.

In areas following a wet winter or in fields with poor weed control, the risk of early season aphids increases. It may be advantageous to plant a Cotton Bunchy Top (CBT) resistant variety. This would reduce the need to control aphids at low densities to prevent the spread of CBT therefore also reducing the risk of selecting for insecticide resistant aphids.

Bollgard II cotton is ideally suited to IPM as the level of control of *Helicoverpa* spp. provided by the plant is usually sufficient to dramatically reduce the need to spray for this pest or other lepidopteran pests such as tipworm, especially early season.

Planting window

In each cotton region there is a period when soil temperatures become suitable for cotton germination, 14°C minimum at planting depth. Planting at this time usually maximises plant establishment and avoids the risk of cold shock (night temperature < 12°C). Cold shock slows early growth and reduces tolerance to herbicides, seedling diseases and early pests, especially thrips. Very late planted cotton has less yield potential and is more susceptible to pests such as whitefly and late season infestations of *H. armigera* both of which are difficult and expensive to control.

Coordinating planting in a region to a specified window avoids a wide spread of crop maturation, especially very late crops that require pest control over a prolonged period. Avoiding prolonged insecticide use helps manage insecticide resistance as it reduces the number of generations of the pest that are exposed to insecticides, therefore reducing the selection pressure for resistant pests.

Planting windows are critical to the success of area-wide management strategies. In areas susceptible to whitefly, coordinated planting windows can provide a period free from host crops to reduce population build up as well as preventing late crops. The 42 day planting window for Bollgard II cotton is a critical component of the Resistance Management Plan. In specific circumstances growers in a region can apply to the TIMS Committee for a variation in the nominated start/finish dates of their 42 day window. Details of this process can be found on page 76.

Optimising earliness

Although managing a crop for earliness is a good strategy, it does not always maximise yield. For more information on managing for early maturity, (Refer to Chapter 10 in FIBREpak or pages 8-9 in the IPM guidelines.)

Optimising water and nitrogen

Adequate water and nutrition will ensure healthy growth of plants that are more tolerant of pests and diseases. Too much nitrogen creates excessive cotton growth toward the end of the season and perhaps even the need for an extra irrigation. This makes the crop more attractive to pests, requiring additional inputs of insecticides (and mixtures of insecticides) for control, and application of high rates of growth regulators to retard growth. Too much nitrogen also undermines the effectiveness of the last generation trap crop by maintaining the attractiveness of cotton relative to the trap crop. Defoliation can also be more difficult and regrowth may harbour aphids.

Growth regulators

Excessive vegetative growth is a problem because it reduces the retention of fruit and delays maturity. Rank growth of plants also results in reduced efficacy of insecticides due to poor penetration of the canopy.

Optimal irrigation scheduling and nitrogen rates will generally prevent excessive vegetative growth, apart from during hot growing conditions. Appropriate use of growth regulators can help to reduce the likelihood of a rank crop that will not cut-out. Consult the guidelines published by the cotton seed companies to see if growth regulators are required.

Growth regulators are also used at or near cut-out, to reduce the amount of fresh regrowth and the attractiveness of the crop. This strategy is used to lessen the likelihood of late pest infestations and reduce the number of late season sprays.

See Cotton Seed Distributors (*www.csd.net.au*) calculating vegetative growth rates to determine crop needs.

Final irrigation

The timing of the last irrigation aims to ensure that boll maturity is completed without water stress, and at the same time prevent the occurrence of lush vegetative growth in crops late in the season to avoid the crop being attractive to the *Helicoverpa spp.* and other pests such as aphids and whitefly. Regular assessment of crop maturity will allow the dates of last irrigation and defoliation to be predicted.

Defoliation

The timing of defoliation can be an important IPM tool, as late pest infestation problems can sometimes be overcome by a successful defoliation. The safe timing of defoliation is when the youngest boll expected to reach harvest is physiologically mature. This usually occurs when 60–65% of bolls are open. The other method of assessing physiological maturity is when there are 3–4 nodes of first position bolls above the highest cracked first position boll (last harvestable boll), known as nodes above cracked boll (NACB).

Objective 2
Keeping track of insects and damage

The purpose of crop monitoring is to determine:

- The pest(s) present;
- The level of infestation;
- The damage they are causing;
- The level of beneficial insects;
- Expected response to control options;
- Environmental conditions; and,
- The growth stage of the crop.

This information provides the basis on which pest management decisions are made.

Check frequently

Crops should be checked frequently for pests, beneficials and for damage and fruit retention. Regular and frequent checking provides an overview of what is happening in a field in relation to pest and beneficials abundance and development. For more detailed information on checking frequency see *'Key insect and mite pests of Australian cotton'* on pages 5–35.

It is generally not possible to make a decision about whether control is needed based on just one check. The decision making system needs to be flexible to allow for the action of beneficials and natural mortality to occur between checks, without the pest population developing to a stage where control is impractical or too expensive.

Insect numbers should be recorded either as numbers per metre or as a percentage of plants infested to easily compare numbers with the appropriate industry threshold and to allow a predator to prey or pest ratio to be determined.

Monitoring pests and beneficials

Types of sampling techniques

Visual sampling: This involves looking at the entire plant, including under leaves, along stems, in squares and around bolls.

Beat sheet sampling: A sheet of yellow canvas 1.5 m × 2 m in size is placed in the furrow and extended up and over the adjacent row of cotton. A metre stick is used to beat the plants 10 times against the beat sheet, moving from the base to the tops of the plants. Insects are dislodged from the plants onto the canvas and are quickly recorded. This method is difficult to use when the field and plants are wet.

D-vac sampling can be used as an alternative to visual checking to sample beneficial insects and spiders.

Sweep net sampling: This method can be used as an alternative to the beat sheet when the field is wet. Sweep netting is an effective method for sampling flighty insects such as mirids, and each sample consists of 20 sweeps along a single row of cotton using a standard (380 mm) sweep net.

Comparison of methods: A recent study has shown that *Helicoverpa* spp., whitefly, mites, aphids, thrips and apple dimpling bug nymphs were best sampled visually, while the beat sheets were superior for the majority of other insects and spiders and the sweep net is particularly useful for sampling flighty insects such as mirid adults. Once the crop reaches 9–10 nodes, beat sheets can detect about 3 times the number of insects compared to visual sampling. Sweep nets can detect about 3 times the number of mirid adults as visual sampling, although only 1.6 times the number of mirid nymphs. These differences must be kept in mind when using the predator to pest ratio or pest threshold, as they are based on visual counts.

Refuge crops

Sampling of lucerne strips or other refugia crops to assess predator abundance should use a similar method but d-vac sampling is the most appropriate and fastest method to assess beneficial insect populations in lucerne.

How much to check

Fields are rarely uniform in crop growth and attractiveness to insects. Lush areas, such as near the head ditch, are more attractive to insects. Awareness of such areas and their size helps you to determine how many sample points are required in a crop.

Visual sampling: Check at least 30 plants or 3 to 4 separate metres of cotton per 50 ha.

Beat sheet sampling: Preliminary studies indicate that you need to beat at least 8–10 metres per field.

Sweep net sampling: Preliminary studies indicate that you need to take at least 6 sweep net samples per field.

Note: Increasing the number of samples usually increases the level of accuracy. For some pest species there are specific recommendations, see pages 5–33.

Monitoring levels of egg parasitism

It is also important to consider natural levels of *Helicoverpa* spp. parasitism caused by parasitoids such as *Trichogramma* spp. and *Telenomus* spp.

The *Trichogramma* spp. wasps are egg parasitoids capable of causing high mortality of *Helicoverpa* spp. in crops. The wasp kills its host by laying an egg inside a *Helicoverpa* spp. egg. The resulting wasp larva then feeds on the developing *Helicoverpa* spp. larva killing it before it hatches.

The most accurate way to monitor egg parasitism by *Trichogramma* spp. is to collect brown eggs and keep them at room temperature (about 25°C) until they hatch (healthy) or turn black (parasitised). Collecting white eggs gives an under-estimate of parasitism because they may have just been laid and not had sufficient time to be found by *Trichogramma* spp.

Monitoring levels of larval parasitism

There are no obvious external signs on larvae parasitised by *Microplitis* spp., but medium larvae (13–15 mm in length) can be split to reveal if the internal parasitoid larva is present. This is a simple procedure and can provide useful information about the potential survival of medium larvae.

Bollgard II sampling and management

Bollgard II cotton must be monitored regularly for pests and fruit retention, similar to conventional cotton. Consecutive checks are essential for making decisions about managing *Helicoverpa* spp. in Bollgard II crops, as the Bt toxin needs to be ingested before the larvae is controlled. Hence if the larvae population is over the threshold on a given check, then chances are that a large proportion of these will ingest the toxin and die before the next check. Bollgard II does not control a range of pests, especially green mirids which must be monitored to assess if the population will cause yield loss.

Monitoring Plant Damage

It is important to include an assessment of plant damage when making pest management decisions because insect numbers alone may not give an accurate indication of the need for control. Cotton plants can recover from a degree of damage, especially early season damage with no reduction in yield or delay in maturity. A vigorous, healthy crop can tolerate more damage from pests, without yield or maturity being affected, than a crop with poor vigour (as a result of herbicide damage or water stress for example).

Plant monitoring in conjunction with regular insect monitoring allows an assessment of the effects of mirids or other pests that might be difficult to detect in regular sampling. Plant monitoring can assist in decision making where pest levels are just below threshold or where there are combinations of pests present. Acceptable damage levels will vary depending on yield expectations and climatic conditions.

Fruit load, yield and maturity

Fruit load is a key aspect in determining crop yield and maturity. The loss of fruit during squaring and early flowering is less critical to yield than fruit loss later in the season. It is well documented that excessive early fruit loss can delay final maturity. However, it is also known that holding too much fruit can reduce crop growth, as the plants use their resources to fill the bolls they have set rather than continuing to grow and set more fruit. This is referred to as premature cut-out which results in reduced yield potential.

Dynamic thresholds

Decisions about pest control should take into account both pest numbers and plant fruit load. If retention data indicates that fruit load is too low then it may be necessary to lower the pest threshold. There are several causes of low fruit retention and it is important to identify the problem before action is taken. Low retention could be caused by cool weather, waterlogging, water stress or pests. The combined damage of several pests, each below threshold, may also cause low retention.

Reduce pest thresholds to half the standard level and control those pests exceeding the reduced threshold using the most selective option available. As retention recovers, return to standard pest thresholds. Alternatively, if retention is too high then it may be necessary to raise the pest threshold. This will allow some pest damage and help balance the vegetative and fruit development. This will also avoid yield loss due to premature cut-out. Such an approach treats the pest threshold as dynamic, that is, it varies according to how the plant fruit load is developing.

Check regularly

From the first week of squaring, monitor plant damage at least every 7 days and/or before spray decisions. It is important to monitor the level of fruit loss regularly so that measures can be taken before insect damage becomes excessive.

What to check

Count a metre of plants (not random plants) in 3 to 4 locations per field. If the crop is uneven increase the number of checks. Do not use the same metre of plants for insect checks.

Damage monitoring includes:

1. Leaf loss (up to the 6 true leaf growth stage).
2. Tip damage.
3. Fruit retention or fruiting factor.
4. Boll damage.

Crop Development Tool (CDT)

The CDT (formerly the Early Season Diagnostic tool) is a web based calculator that helps to determine whether the rate of crop development is meeting its potential. Using the CDT, the development of squaring nodes, vegetative growth rate, fruit development and nodes above white flower can each be tracked to assist with crop management decisions. The user enters real crop data as the season progresses. The tool displays this in graphical and tabular formats alongside theoretical potential or optimum. Decisions relating to insect thresholds, growth regulation, nutrition and irrigation scheduling can all be aided by a clear understanding of how crop development is progressing.

The CDT incorporates a data storage function that allows multiple crops to be set up by each user and accessed by an individual logon and password. To use the CDT tool go to the Cotton CRC website; www.cottoncrc.org.au

Development of squaring nodes

For most Australian cotton varieties it is expected that the first fruiting branch will develop on about the seventh mainstem node. This becomes the first squaring node. On a well grown crop, by the time of first flower (~750 DD) there will be about 8 squaring nodes. Fewer than 8 will often reduce yield potential. Measuring squaring nodes can provide early indication of stress in time for remedial action. Once flowering commences it may be too late to recover.

Figure 1 shows the accumulation of squaring nodes from the CDT between ~500 and ~800 DD. A real crop to the left of the theoretical line is generally ahead in development. This could be due to low fruit retention, in which case pest thresholds should be reconsidered and the vegetative growth rate measured. Measurements below the line indicate development has been delayed, perhaps by factors such as seedling disease or herbicide damage. Resources such as nutrition and water should be monitored closely.

Fruit development

It is important to ensure that crop growth translates into fruit production at a rate that will help to attain a profitable yield. The CDT's fruit development graph displays the number of observed squares or bolls (/m) plotted against a potential rate of fruit development based on the day degree accumulation after sowing. An example is shown in Figure 2. Potential square development commences at 500 DD and boll development at 750 DD (first flower). The slopes of the boll and square development lines are not parallel as the tool assumes that there is some loss of fruit due to carbon stress, normal in crop growth (not pest, nutritional or water stress).

In Figure 2 the real crop is tracking ahead of schedule. This can occur under optimum growing conditions. Nutrition and water should be monitored closely as this crop is likely to experience high, early demands that could rapidly induce cut-out.

Nodes above white flower (NAWF)

At the time of first flower, there should be about 8 squaring nodes above the flower, or 8 NAWF. The bolls produced on these fruiting branches will contribute a large proportion of final yield. Once boll set commences and the crop is allocating resources to the developing fruit, the rate at which the crop can produce more squaring nodes is in decline.

In Figure 1 the rate of decline in NAWF for the real crop is consistent with the optimum. Very high early retention can cause the number of NAWF to decline more quickly. For crops tracking below the line, consider increasing pest thresholds. Crops above the line may have experienced physiological shedding or early boll loss due to pests, in which case thresholds may need to be reduced. Once there are 4 or fewer NAWF, the crop is said to be 'cut-out'. This signifies that the crop has ceased putting resources into further vegetative growth and that yield potential is dependent on the retention of fruit already produced.

Vegetative Growth Rate (VGR)

The plant growth regulator mepiquat chloride provides growers with a method to help avoid excessive vegetative growth. The VGR tracks the rate of change in plant height relative to the rate of node development. Measurements should start as the crop approaches first flower and continue whilst squaring nodes are being produced. In Figure 3 the upper and lower boundaries represent the zone of desired vegetative growth rates across various regions and systems in Australia. Warmer regions and very fertile soils will have higher VGRs. The real crop is tracking below the lower boundary indicating that growth regulation is not required to maximise yield potential.

First position fruit retention

Monitoring first position fruit retention is a technique that is best used from squaring to early flowering. It is a quick way to estimate early signs of insect damage.

- Count the first position fruit on either the top five or all the fruiting branches. The first fruiting branch is the top most branch where the first position leaf is unfolded.
- Monitor both tipped and non-tipped plants.

FIGURE 1: An example of tracking a crop's accumulation of squaring nodes and then the decline in nodes above white flower from the CDT.

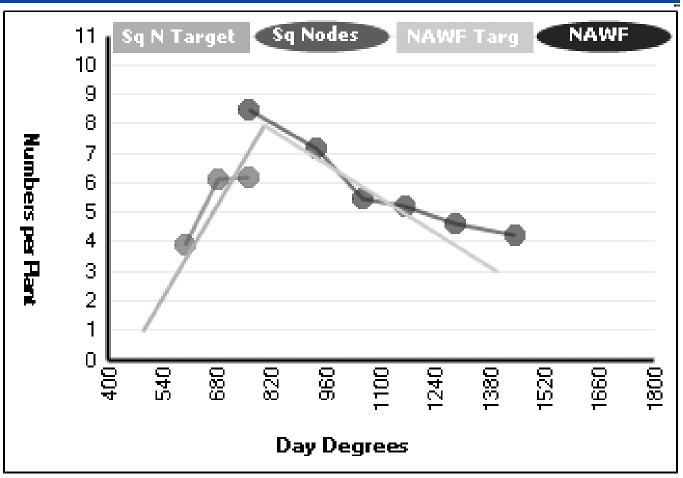
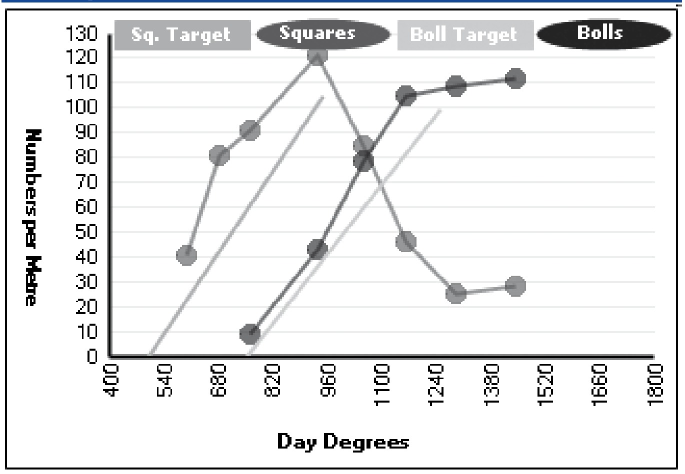


FIGURE 2: An example of tracking a crop's fruit development from the CDT.



- Monitor only the dominant stem, not vegetative branches (see Figure 4).
- The percentage of first position fruit present should be calculated dividing the number of first position fruit present by the number of fruiting branches.

Aim to have first position fruit retention of 50–60% by first flower. Low retention (< 50%) increases the risk that yield or crop maturity will be affected. However, very high fruit retention, in excess of 80% may also be associated with a yield penalty.

For the first five fruiting branches on the plant, first position fruit retention can be as low as 30% without affecting yield or maturity, however such levels should trigger close monitoring and a reduction in thresholds.

Final retention at maturity

Boll numbers will vary according to variety, stage of growth and yield potential. At the end of the season a crop will hold less than 50% of all possible fruiting sites. First position retention will vary from 50–70%. Variety and boll size will also affect final yield.

Fruiting factor

Fruiting factors can be used throughout the season. They allow total fruit load to be monitored. Fruiting factors should be used when first position retention falls below recommended levels (i.e. 50–60%), to ensure excessive fruit loss has not occurred or in situations where a crop is heavily tipped out and retention is difficult to determine.

From 10–14 days after flowering, the monitoring of first position fruit retention may be less relevant than fruit counts. The fruiting factor technique allows a rapid interpretation of the fruit counts. The technique considers both fruit present and the number of fruiting branches (potential fruit development).

To save time in monitoring the fruiting factor, only count first and second position fruit (squares and bolls), from the main stem and the first dominant vegetative branch. In irrigated crops this should account for 90% of the fruit that will be picked.

To determine the fruiting factor for a crop, simply divide the fruit count by the number of fruiting branches.

$$\text{Fruiting factor} = \frac{\text{Total fruit /m}}{\text{Total number of fruiting branches/m}}$$

The ideal fruiting factor changes throughout the growing season. The fruiting factor will increase throughout flowering as the plants produce a large number of squares. As the crop matures there is a natural reduction in fruit numbers and the fruiting factor declines.

FIGURE 3: An example of tracking a crop's vegetative growth rate from the CDT.

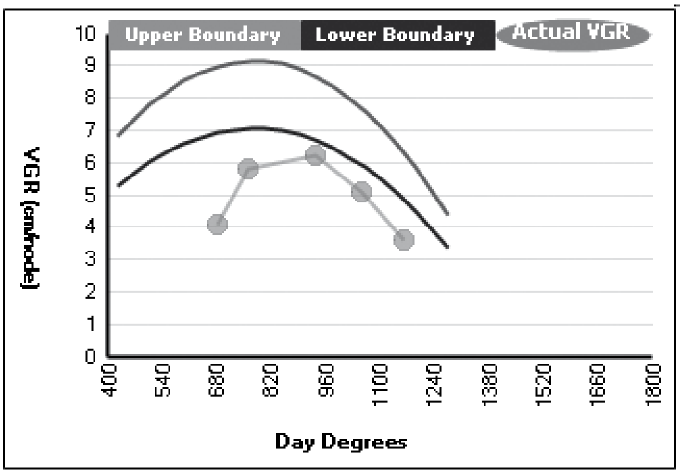
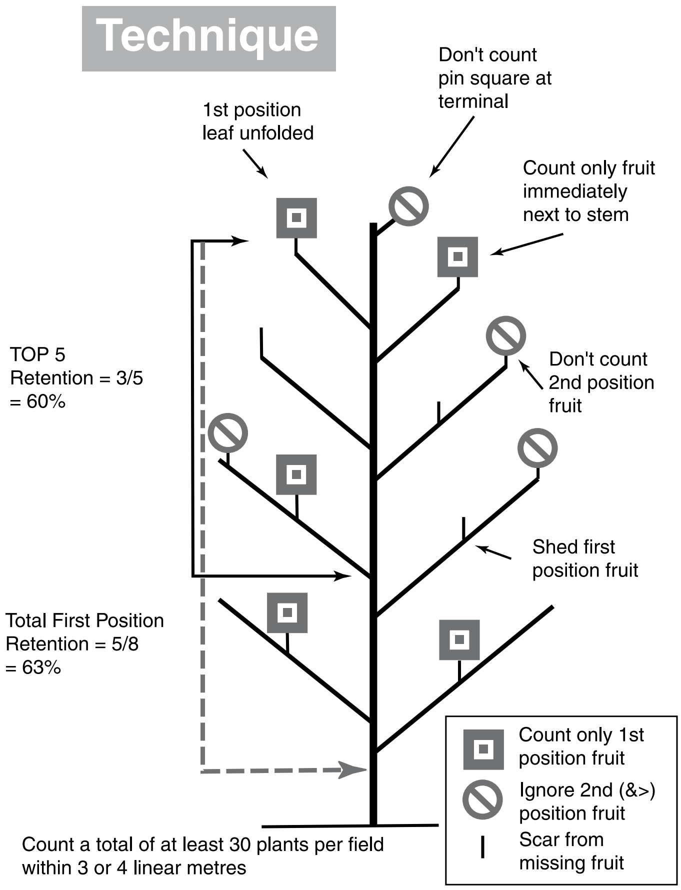


FIGURE 4: A technique for checking fruit retention



Eventually, at maturity the fruiting factor approaches 1.0, which represents the natural maximum fruiting load that plants can carry through to yield.

A key period for measuring fruiting factors is at around early flowering. Values between 1.1 and 1.3 will provide optimum yield potential. Values less than 0.8 or greater than 1.5 can reduce yield.

GUIDE TO USING FRUITING FACTORS THROUGHOUT THE SEASON

Stage of growth	Fruiting factor
Pre flowering	0.8–1.0
Flowering	1.1–1.3
Peak Flowering	1.3–1.4
Boll maturity	1.0

GUIDE TO USING FRUITING FACTORS AT FIRST FLOWER

Fruiting factor at first flower	Impact on yield and maturity
< 0.8	High risk of yield decline and maturity delay (particularly in cooler regions)
1.1–1.3	Optimum for yield
> 1.5	Risk of premature cut out and yield decline.

Objective 3
Preserving beneficial insects

Predatory insects, spiders and parasitic insects (beneficials) consume pests and other insects in order to develop and/or produce offspring. They can considerably reduce pest numbers thereby reducing the need to control pests using chemical insecticides. The abundance of beneficial insects is affected by food resources, mating partners, over wintering sites, shelter, climatic conditions and insecticide sprays. For an IPM system to work, the conservation of beneficial insects is critical. This can be achieved through the use or provision of natural or crop refuges (e.g. trees, pastures or lucerne strips).

In an IPM system which focuses on managing beneficials the following tools can be used:

- Predator/Pest ratio.
- Incorporating parasitoids into spray decisions.
- Beneficial releases.
- Food sprays.
- Lucerne strips.
- Appropriate use of pesticides.
- Beneficial Disruption Index.
- Petroleum spray oils (PSO) mixed with a selective or biological pesticide.

Guidelines for the predator to pest ratio

The most common predators found in cotton farms feed on a wide range of pests and are therefore classified as general predators. The guidelines described here make use of a predator to pest ratio to incorporate the activity of the predators into the pest management decisions.

Calculation of the predator to pest ratio:

The predator to pest ratio is calculated as –

$$\text{Ratio} = \frac{\text{predators}}{\text{(Helicoverpa spp. eggs + VS + S)}}$$

where VS = very small and S = small larvae. The calculation does not include Helicoverpa medium (M) and large (L) larvae since many of the common predatory insects are not effective on these life stages.

Total predators per metre (visual check) should be used in calculating the predator to pest ratio. However, to be confident in the ratio, at least three insects of the most common predators (ladybird beetle, red and blue beetle, damsel bug, big eye bug, assassin bug, brown shield bug and lacewings) should be present.

Decision making protocol in conventional cotton and Bollgard II crops

Conventional crops

Ratio	*Helicoverpa* spp.	Action
> 0.5	< 2	Do nothing
0.4–0.5	< threshold (mostly eggs)	Yeast based food spray might be applied.
0.4–0.5	< threshold (mostly larvae)	Sugar based food spray and biological insecticide or Petroleum spray oil (see section on lucerne on the following page)
< 0.4	> threshold	Selective insecticide

Bollgard II crops

The predator to pest threshold is essentially the same as above with a slight addition. If in the next check after a food, PSO or biological spray, Helicoverpa neonate numbers are above threshold:

Ratio	Helicoverpa spp.	Action
Increasing	≥ threshold	Repeat food /biological spray mixture
No change or 0.42–0.45	≥ threshold	Selective pesticide (possibly mix with PSO)
0.4	> threshold	Selective pesticide (possibly mix with PSO)

For more information on the use of PSOs see the Research Review 'Use of Petroleum Spray Oils to Manage Cotton Pests in IPM Programs' available from the Cotton CRC.

Incorporating parasitoids into spray decisions

Parasitoids are important beneficials in Australian cotton farming systems. There are a range of parasitic wasps and flies that attack *Helicoverpa spp.*, green vegetable bugs, aphids and whiteflies. These useful insects are easily overlooked because they are often small or secretive. The predator to prey ratio calculation does not incorporate parasitoids particularly *Trichogramma spp.* (egg parasitoid). For determining parasitism see page 46.

Beneficial insect to pest ratio:

$$\frac{\text{predators}}{\text{(eggs – (\% parasitised) + VS + S)}}$$

The same decision making protocol above is used.

Conserving and enhancing parasitoids

Maintaining habitat diversity. Can be achieved by growing a mixture of crops. Sorghum, maize and sunflowers are all good nursery crops for parasitoids. The capacity of sorghum and maize to act as parasitoid nurseries can be extended by staggered plantings. Some crops, such as chickpea, are not good nursery crops because the acidic chickpea leaves are toxic to the adult wasps.

Restricting insecticide use. Natural populations of *Trichogramma spp.*, *Microplitis spp.* and other parasitoids that may be in the crop can be encouraged to build up by restricting the use of insecticides that may reduce their population. This applies to nursery crops such as sorghum as well as in cotton.

Releasing *Trichogramma* spp.

Trichogramma spp. can be purchased and released into crops. Two or more releases one week apart are suggested. If possible, the best method is to release the *Trichogramma* spp. into a nearby flowering sorghum or maize crop rather than into cotton. This will provide the *Trichogramma* spp. with enough *Helicoverpa* spp. eggs to carry over the population, given their very short life cycle.

Guidelines for use of food sprays

Food sprays cannot manage cotton pests on their own but combined with other IPM compatible tools they can help manage cotton pests and minimise synthetic insecticide use without sacrificing yield. Commercially, there are two food spray products;

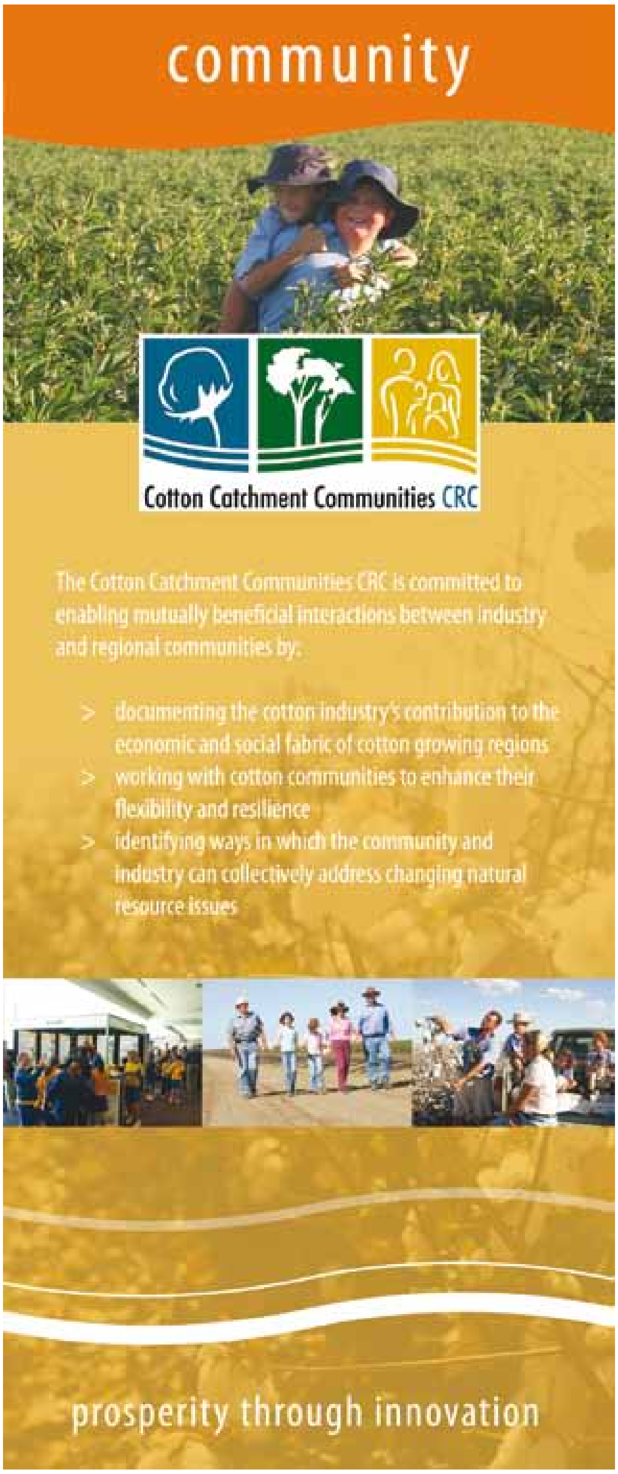
1. Yeast based food spray (Predfeed) attracts beneficial insects and should be applied when a cotton field does not have enough beneficial insects.
2. Sugar based food spray (Mobait) retains beneficials that are already present.

Managing predators and mirids in lucerne

If there are lucerne strips or a centrally located lucerne crop on the farm, then before applying a food spray / biological insecticide spray to the cotton, check the lucerne strip or crop to determine numbers of predators and adult green mirids.

If beneficial insect numbers are high in the lucerne strips compared to cotton and numbers of adult mirids in the lucerne strips are low (< 5 per 20 metre d-vac sample), then slash half of each of the individual lucerne strips after applying the food spray/biological insecticide mixture sprays to the cotton. This action will enhance the movement of a large number of predators from the lucerne strips into the cotton, but will retain the mirids in the lucerne.

In contrast, if both predator and adult mirid numbers in the lucerne strips are high (> 5 mirids per 20 metres), do not slash or mow the lucerne strips or blocks when a sugar based food spray/biological insecticide mixture spray has been applied to the cotton since this will force too many mirids into the cotton where they may cause damage.



Appropriate use of insecticides

Tolerate non-economic early season damage

Minimising early season sprays helps to conserve the beneficial insect population. The cotton plant has the ability to tolerate a level of damage without affecting yield or crop maturity.

Site specific pest management

Many beneficial species frequently move in and out of cotton, other crops and non-crop habitats. It is important to manage pests on a field by field basis or by a small management unit, not an entire farm.

Pests such as aphids or mites often infest the edge of a field, not the entire field area. It is possible to manage this type of infestation by only spraying the field borders. This enables the beneficial population to re-establish or re-build much faster.

Choose insecticides carefully

Some insecticides have very little impact on beneficial insects including parasitoids.

The Beneficial Disruption Index (BDI)

The BDI provides a basis to measure or benchmark the 'softness' or 'hardness' of an individual field's insecticide spray regime at the end of the season. The BDI score for each insecticide is based on the overall impact of the insecticide on beneficial insect populations, as listed in Tables 18 and 19, on pages 57 and 58. The impact is expressed as a percentage reduction in beneficials after application of the chemical. A chemical that is more disruptive has a higher score or rank. The overall BDI for a cotton field is calculated by summing all the BDI scores for each insecticide used over the whole season. Note that scores for each component of spray mixtures are added together. The lower the overall rank for the season the less disruptive the spray regime is to beneficials.

Objective 4
Preventing insecticide resistance

Resistance occurs when application of insecticides removes susceptible insects from a population leaving those individuals that are resistant. Mating between these resistant individuals gradually increases the proportion of resistance in the pest population as a whole. Eventually this can render an insecticide ineffective, leading to field control failures. Resistance can be due to a trait that is already present in a small portion of the pest population or due to a mutation that provides resistance.

Management of resistance is essential to ensure that valuable insecticides remain effective, the Australian cotton industry has developed the Insecticide Resistance Management Strategy (IRMS). The IRMS is designed to prevent resistance development, while managing existing resistance. Some core principles used in the IRMS include;

- Rotation between chemical groups with different modes of action.
- Limiting the time period during which an insecticide can be used. This restricts the number of generations of a pest that can be selected in each season.
- Limiting the number of applications, thereby restricting the number of selection events.

The IRMS 2009/10 appears on pages 66-70, with explanation and answers to many frequently asked questions on pages 61–65.

Resistance monitoring

Resistance monitoring for *Helicoverpa* spp., two-spotted spider mites, aphids and silverleaf whitefly, is conducted each year by the cotton industry and provides the foundation for annual review and updating of the IRMS. **All growers and consultants have access to this industry service to investigate suspected cases of resistance.** For the contact details of the researchers running the resistance monitoring projects, refer to the advertisement on page 42.

Pupae busting

In NSW and southern Queensland, *Helicoverpa* spp. spend the winter in the soil as pupae and emerge as moths in spring to mate and lay eggs. Known as diapause, this resting pupal state is induced by decreasing daylength and temperature in late summer. Most of the pupae which over-winter in cotton fields are *H. armigera*. They are likely to have a high survival rate because of the low numbers of parasites. They have the potential to carry insecticide resistance, including Bt resistance, through to the next season. Therefore, it is important to pupae bust for their control.

Pupae are likely to be found in the top 10 cm of the soil surface. Cultivate to achieve disturbance of the soil sufficiently to destroy pupae or their emergence tunnels. The tillage required for;

- 1 m hills – till the whole hill;
- 2 m beds – till across the whole bed and almost down to furrow level;
- skip-row – till right across the soil surface.

Pupae busting Bollgard II cotton fields is mandatory between picking and the end of July. Prior to the 2007–08 season the IRMS guidelines for pupae busting in sprayed conventional cotton were amended. Details of the amendments are presented in the IRMS section starting on page 61.

Web tool to assist pupae busting decisions

The proportion of pupae entering diapause increases from low levels in March to high levels, almost 100%, by late April. However the rate of diapause induction varies from season to season and region to region. Knowing when diapause is induced is useful for identifying 'high risk' fields, i.e. those fields most likely to have diapausing pupae that should be targeted for pupae busting. On the Cotton CRC website, a web tool is available to help calculate the likely rate of diapause induction for your area, based on local climate data. An example of the web tool output is provided in Figure 5. The tool is also able to compare the results for the current season with the long term average and hotter than average or cooler than average seasons.

The web tool can also be used to predict the rate of moth emergence from diapause in spring. This can assist in timing pupae busting operations to maximise their effectiveness. The breaking of diapause is influenced by temperature. The tool calculates the emergence percentage from the day after the threshold temperature of 18°C is reached. To use the tool go to; http://cottassist.cottoncrc.org.au/DIET/DIETTool.aspx

FIGURE 5: Estimated rate of *Helicoverpa* entering diapause at Dalby from May 5, 2010.

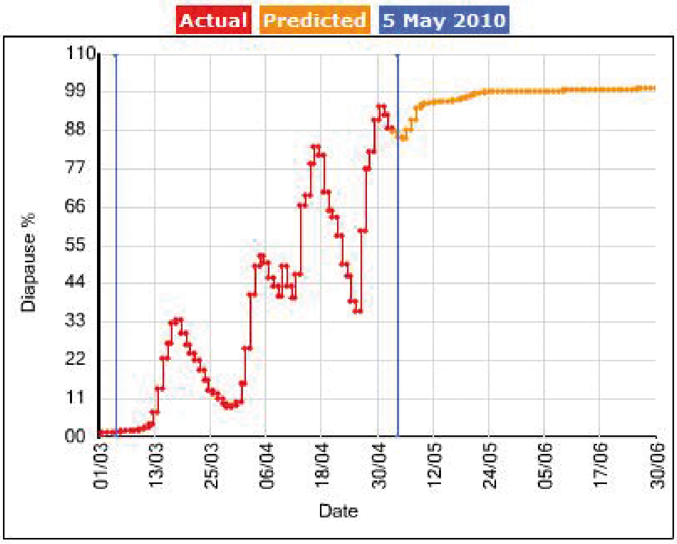
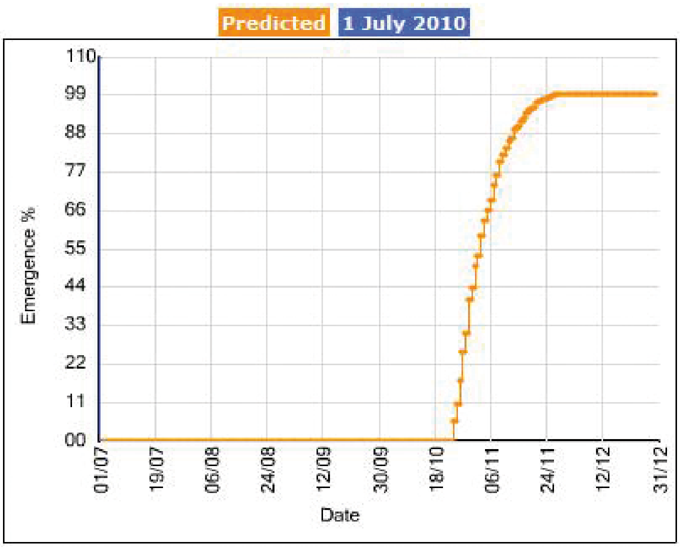


FIGURE 6: *Helicoverpa* moth emergence from diapause at Dalby run on July 1, 2010.



Trap crops and weed control

Trap cropping and weed control assists resistance management, as well as IPM, by reducing the size of the overall pest population which reduces the need to apply insecticides and reduces the selection pressure for the pest to develop resistance.

Resistance management for Bollgard II cotton

Resistance management for Bollgard II cotton is critical due to the season long selection of *Helicoverpa spp*. to the Bt toxins produced by Bollgard II. A proactive Resistance Management Plan (RMP) has been developed to preserve the effective life of Bollgard II. This plan is provided in full on pages 77–81 and many frequently asked questions about the RMP are answered on pages 71–76.

Resistance management guidelines for all crops

Several other strategies that are relevant to cotton and other spring and summer crops can also help in managing resistance. These include:

1. Avoid cross selection for resistance. Spraying for one pest can be simultaneously selecting resistance in another pest that is present, even though that pest is at sub-threshold levels and not specifically being targeted. For example, if a neonicotinoid is used to control mirids, do not follow up with another neonicotinoid for aphid control as the first spray may have already selected for resistant aphids. This applies to all insecticides which target multiple pest species.
2. Selective insecticide use is preferable, consistent with the IRMS, as this helps conserve beneficial insects. Beneficials eat or parasitise resistant as well as susceptible pests. Beneficials can lower overall populations of insect pests.
3. Ensure spray applications are accurate, timely and triggered by pest thresholds. Using plant compensation allows for the plant's capacity to recover from a degree of damage without loss, thereby avoiding insecticide applications to prevent non-economic damage.

Objective 5
Managing crop and weed hosts

Weed management

The potential for pests to over-winter on weeds, and infest the subsequent cotton crop early in the season, is often greatest when a mild wet winter occurs. Abundant growth of weeds in these conditions creates difficulties with their control. Ideally, management of weeds, in fallow fields, cropped fields, and in the borders and headlands should be undertaken early in winter and continue through the winter and spring as necessary.

Weeds provide over winter hosts for a number of pests including mites, whitefly, mirids, aphids, tipworm, cutworm and armyworm. The control of weeds also has implications for managing cotton diseases, as some weed species are disease hosts. For example bladder ketmia (*Hibiscus trionum*) is an alternative host for Fusarium wilt (*Fusarium oxysporum var. vasinfectum*).

Weeds also harbour beneficials. However, the potential problems that on-farm weeds may cause, by providing over winter hosts for pests and some diseases, generally outweighs their value as a refuge for beneficials. Growing of refuge crops for beneficials, such as lucerne, is an option available to growers who want to enhance beneficial numbers.

Most insect pests that attack cotton utilise one or more weeds, native plants or alternative crops as hosts. For more information see the sub-section **Overwintering habitat** for each pest in the **Key insect and mite pests of Australian cotton** starting on page 5.

Managing cotton regrowth

Regrowth of cotton after harvest (also called ratoon cotton) provides refuge for *Helicoverpa* spp., spider mites, green mirids, apple dimpling bugs, aphids, SLW and solenopsis mealybug. Regrowth should be controlled by slashing, root pulling and/or mulching to prevent pests being carried between seasons.

Regrowth cotton is also a risk for carry-over of the disease Cotton Bunchy Top (CBT). Cotton aphids feeding on these plants could then pick up CBT and spread it to adjacent cotton crops in the following season. Cotton regrowth also has implications for managing soil-borne diseases (see the Integrated Disease Management guidelines).

Technology Users Agreements for GM cottons require the control of cotton regrowth. For more information on the requirements for managing Bollgard II volunteers, see pages 77–81, for Roundup Ready Flex volunteers see page 102 and for Liberty Link volunteers see page 99.

Rotation crops

Growing a range of crops can be seen as essential to providing a habitat for a variety of insects. Cotton in monoculture over a wide area provides a little opportunity for beneficials to thrive and persist.

The selection of a rotation crop has many implications for pest management. Rotation crops are hosts for a range of pests, such as mites (faba beans, safflower), aphids (faba beans, canola) or *H. punctigera* (chickpeas, canola). Some rotation crops may also affect carry over of disease or conversely provide a disease break as suggested in IDM guidelines.

Options for managing pests in rotation crops should also be considered. With no major initiative to structure insecticide resistance management in field crops other than cotton, follow the basic IPM principle to use as many methods as possible to manage pests.

For resistance management in rotation crops the guidelines in Objective 4 can be followed, see page 53.

Objective 6
Use trap crops effectively

Trap cropping is an IPM tactic that can be utilised on a farm level or area wide basis. Trap cropping aims to concentrate a pest population into a manageable area by providing the pest with an area of preferred host crop. When strategically planned and managed, trap crops can be utilised at different times throughout the year to help manage a range of pests. This assists resistance management as well as IPM, by reducing the size of the overall population which reduces the need to apply insecticides and reduces the selection pressure for the pest to develop resistance.

First generation or spring trap cropping

Spring trap crops are designed to attract *H. armigera* adults as they emerge from over wintering pupae in spring. Larvae arising from eggs laid in the crop are controlled using a biological insecticide or allowed to pupate and are controlled by cultivation. A trap crop, strategically timed to flower as pupae are emerging in spring combined with effective pupae busting in previous autumn can help to reduce the early season build-up of *H. armigera* in a district.

An ideal first generation trap crop is one that is; very attractive to *H. armigera*, is a good nursery for beneficials, does not host secondary pests or diseases, does not become a weed problem and is easy to establish and manage. Many winter crops have been trialled to measure their potential as a spring trap crop. Chickpea has consistently proven superior to all other crops in its ability to generate large numbers of *H. armigera*, however it is not a good nursery for beneficial insects. Chickpea has also proven to be agronomically robust, being suitable for both dryland and irrigated situations.

Growers must ensure trap crops do not become future nurseries of *Helicoverpa* spp., and so effectively controlling populations in the trap crop by timely destruction of the crop itself is required. Because the trap crop will not be harvested for yield, a fast knock-down insecticide is not required. Bio-pesticides like Bt and virus formulations may be well suited.

In Central Queensland there is minimal over wintering of *H. armigera* because temperatures are generally too warm to trigger diapause. Here spring trap crops are used to concentrate local *H. armigera* populations into areas where they can also be destroyed, at a time when there are few other hosts for the *H. armigera* to infest.

Summer trap cropping

Summer trap cropping has quite a different aim from that of spring trap cropping. A summer trap crop aims to draw *Helicoverpa* spp. away from a main crop such as cotton or mungbeans and concentrate them in a small area planted to another crop such as sorghum, pigeon pea or lab lab. Once concentrated into the trap crop, the larvae can be controlled.

Some summer trap crops may produce large numbers of beneficial insects that can then move into nearby crops, for example, the *Trichogramma* spp. in sorghum and maize.

The aim of a 'last generation' summer trap crop is to attract moths emerging from non-diapausing pupae under cotton. These pupae are likely to be more abundant under conventional cotton and will have had intense insecticide resistance selection on the cotton crop. Concentrating the eggs from these moths in the trap crop allows the resulting larvae to be controlled using biological insecticides such as a virus or by cultivation to kill the resulting pupae.

The trap crop would be planted mid season, to ensure that it was highly attractive to *H. armigera* late in the cotton season. The attractiveness of the cotton crop relative to the trap crop may significantly influence the potential effectiveness of this strategy.

In Central Queensland cotton growers are using summer trap crops of pigeon pea as part of the RMP for Bollgard II cotton. More information on trap cropping requirements in Bollgard II cotton is on page 79.

Objective 7
Communication and training

Communicate with neighbours

Communication with neighbouring primary producers is essential to develop a successful IPM program. It is just as important to communicate with non-cotton growing neighbours and if possible encourage your neighbours to reciprocate a level of communication.

Pesticide Application Management Plan

The core best management practice for safe and responsible pesticide use is to develop a pesticide application management plan (PAMP). The PAMP will help ensure that everyone involved in a pesticide application has a clear understanding of their responsibilities. It also helps identify the risks associated with pesticide applications so that controls to minimise those risks can be put in place.

A PAMP has two essential aims:

1. Establishing good communication with everybody involved and interested in the application of pesticides. This communication is required both pre-season and during the season. It should exist between the grower, the applicator, the consultant, farm workers and neighbours.
2. Ensuring appropriate application techniques and procedures are used.

Supporting these aims is good record keeping – of each aspect of the PAMP itself, and the details of pesticide application. This record keeping is important to check the effectiveness pesticide applications, to comply with regulatory requirements and to demonstrate due diligence.

For more information and assistance in developing a PAMP consult the myBMP website and contact your Cotton Australia Grower Services Manager.

Area Wide Management (AWM)

AWM groups or IPM groups acknowledge that pest and beneficial insects are mobile, and that the management regimes to control pests imposed on a given field are likely to alter the abundance of beneficial insects and levels of insecticide resistance in pest populations in the surrounding locality. By communicating and coordinating strategies, AWM groups have successfully implemented IPM.

AWM for population management

AWM in the true sense primarily strives to reduce pest pressure by co-ordinating the efforts of growers in an area. The strategy is based on reducing the survival of over wintering, insecticide-resistant *H. armigera* pupae, reducing the early season build-up of *H. armigera* on a regional/district scale, and to reduce the mid-season population pressure on Helicoverpa-susceptible crops.

The main tactics are spring trap crops, conservation of beneficial insects and cultivation of diapausing pupae. A critical component is to bring together farmers from a range of different enterprises, including cotton and other dryland crops. As H. armigera is a pest common to most of these crops it is vital to have all types of growers involved if AWM is to succeed.

AWM or IPM Groups

These groups focus on communication and co-ordination to achieve agreed IPM goals, These may include conserving beneficials, delaying use of disruptive insecticides, reducing the risk of drift between farms and the planting of trap crops. A key element of most groups that have worked well has been regular meetings before and during the season to share information, discuss strategies and build rapport.

For more information on getting a group started and/or maintaining momentum of a group see the IPM Guidelines II, or contact your regional cotton extension officer or district agronomist.

Meetings

Each winter, meetings are held in each major region to review resistance levels, IPM principles, computerised decision support programs, BMP procedures and other production issues. These meetings improve information exchange between growers, consultants, and research and extension personnel.

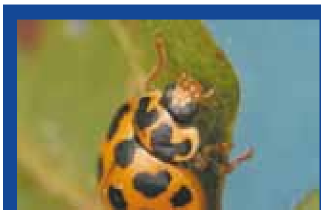
Training

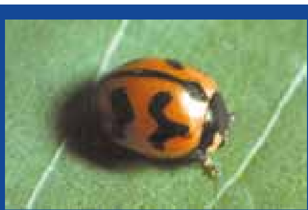
The Cotton Production Course is a university based course consisting of four units. The course is available for part time external students at both undergraduate and graduate level. Coordinator – John Stanley (02) 6773 3758.

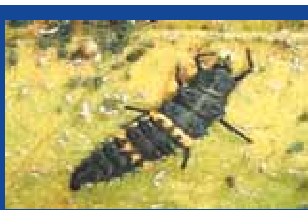
TABLE 18: Impact of insecticides at planting or as seed treatments on key beneficial groups in cotton

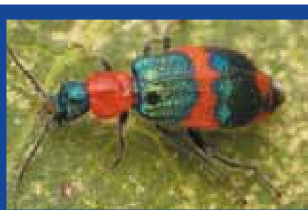
Insecticides	Rate (g ai/ha)	Main target pest(s)					Persistence[6]	Overall[7]	Beneficial group				
		WW	Mite	Mir.	Aph.	Th[5]			Predatory beetles[1]	Predatory bugs[2]	Spiders	Wasps and Ants	Thrips
At Planting													
Aldicarb	450		✓	✓	✓	✓	medium-long	very low[3]	v. low	v. low	v. low	v. low	v. high
Phorate	600	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	medium-long	very low[3,4]	No data	No data	No data	No data	v. high
Carbosulfan	750–1000	✓		✓		✓	medium-long	very low[3,4]	No data	No data	No data	No data	v. high
Chlorpyrifos	250–750	✓					medium	very low[4]	No data	No data	No data	No data	No data
Seed Treatments													
Thiodicarb	500 g ai/100 kg seed					✓	short	very low[3]	v. low	v. low	v. low	v. low	high
Thiodicarb + Fipronil	259 + 12 g ai/ 100 kg seed	✓				✓	short-medium	very low[3,4]	No data	No data	No data	No data	high
Imidacloprid	525 g ai/100 kg seed	✓			✓	✓	medium	very low[3]	v. low	v. low	v. low	v. low	v. high
Imidacloprid	700 g ai/100 kg seed	✓			✓	✓	medium	very low[3,4]	v. low	v. low	v. low	v. low	v. high
Thiomethoxam	280 g ai/100 kg seed	✓			✓	✓	medium	very low[3,4]	No data	No data	No data	No data	v. high

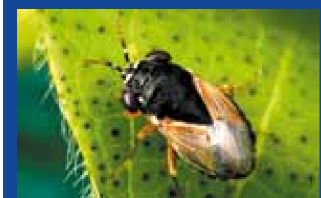
1. Predatory beetles – ladybeetles, red and blue beetles, other predatory beetles.
2. Predatory bugs – big-eyed bugs, minute pirate bugs, brown smudge bugs, glossy shield bug, predatory shield bug, damsel bug, assassin bug, apple dimpling bug.
3. Except for effects on thrips which are predators of mites. Note that aldicarb and phorate will also control mites.
4. Based on observations with other soil or seed applied insecticides.
5. WW, wireworm; Mir., mirids; Aph., aphids; Th, thrips.
6. Persistance; short, 2–3 weeks; medium, 3–4 weeks; long, 4–6 weeks.
7. Impact rating (% reduction in beneficials following application); very low, less than 10%; low, 10–20%; moderate, 20–40%; high, 40–60%; very high, > 60%

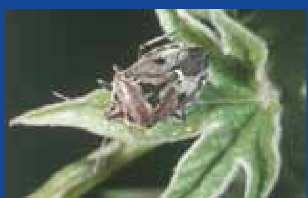

*Three banded ladybird**

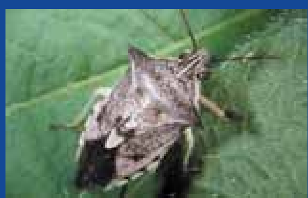

*Transerve ladybird**

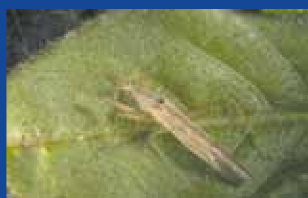

Ladybird larva


*Red and blue beetle**

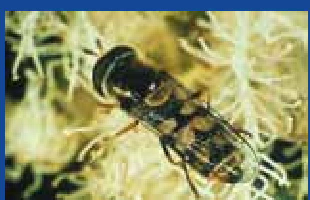

*Big-eyed bug**

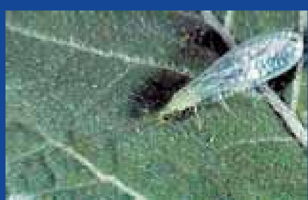

Glossy shield bug

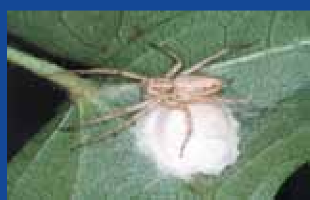

Predatory shield bug

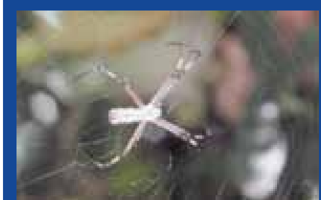

*Damsel bug**

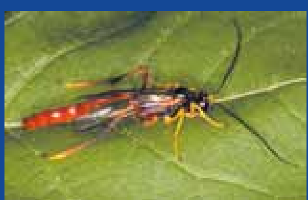

*Assassin bug**

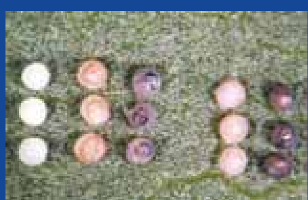

Hoverfly


*Green lacewing adult**


Lynx spider


Orbweaver spider


Orange caterpillar parasite


*Normal & Parasitised eggs**

*** Predators that can be used in calculating the predator to pest ratio.**

For more information about beneficials check out the pest and beneficials guide on the website or the COTTONpaks CD version 2.1.

TABLE 19: Impact of insecticides and miticides on predators, parasitoids and bees in cotton

Insecticides (in increasing rank order of impact on beneficials)	Rate (g ai/ha)	Target pest(s): Helicoverpa	Target pest(s): Mites	Target pest(s): Mirids	Target pest(s): Aphids	Target pest(s): Thrips	Target pest(s): Silverleaf whitefly	Persistence[8]	Overall Ranking[10]	Beneficials – Predatory beetles: Total[1]	Predatory beetles: Red & Blue beetle	Predatory beetles: Minute 2-spotted lady beetle	Predatory beetles: Other lady beetles	Predatory bugs: Total[2]	Predatory bugs: Damsel bugs	Predatory bugs: Big-eyed Bugs	Predatory bugs: Other Predatory bugs	Predatory bugs: Apple Dimpling	Lacewing adults	Spiders	Hymenoptera: Total (wasps)	Hymenoptera: Eretmocerus[19]	Hymenoptera: Trichogramma	Hymenoptera: Ants	Thrips	Pest resurgence[12]: Mite	Pest resurgence[12]: Aphid	Pest resurgence[12]: Helicoverpa	Toxicity to bees[14]
Bt[11]		√						very short	very low	VL	VL	VL	VL	VL	VL	VL	VL	VL	VL	VL	VL	VL	VL	VL	VL	—	—	—	VL
NP Virus		√						very short	very low	VL	VL	VL	VL	VL	VL	VL	VL	VL	VL	VL	VL	VL	VL	VL	VL	—	—	—	VL
Pirimicarb	250				√			short	very low	VL	VL	VL	VL	L	L	M	VL	VL	VL	VL	VL	M	M	VL	L	—	—	—	VL
PSO (Canopy)[16]	2%	√			√			short	very low	VL	L	L	VL	VL	VL	VL	VL	VL	VL	L	VL	—	VL	H	VL	—	—	—	VL
Methoxyfenozide	400	√						medium-long	very low	L	VL	VL	L	L	L	L	VL	VL	VL	VL	VL	—	VL	VL	VL	—	—	—	VL
Pyriproxyfen	50						√	long	very low	M	—	M	M	VL	—	—	—	—	L	VL	VL	L	VL	VL	VL	—	—	—	L
Etoxazole	38.5		√					short	low	VL	VL	—	L	VL	VL	VL	VL	VL	VL	M	L	—	VL	VL	L	—	—	—	VL
Indoxacarb (low)	60			√				medium	low	L	L	H	M	VL	L	—	L	H	M	VL	VL	—	VL	H	VL	—	+ve	—	—
Indoxacarb (low+salt)	60			√				medium	low	L	L	H	M	VL	L	—	L	H	M	VL	L	—	VL	H	VL	—	—	—	—
Indoxacarb (low+Canopy)	60			√				medium	low	L	L	H	M	VL	L	—	L	H	M	VL	L	—	VL	H	VL	—	+ve	—	—
Rynaxypyr	52.5	√						long	low	L	M	M	L	VL	VL	VL	L	VL	VH	VL	L	—	L	L	VL	—	+ve	—	—
Dicofol[3]	960		√					long	low	L	—	—	—	L	—	—	—	L	—	L	—	M	—	—	VL	—	—	—	VL
Amorphous silica[17]	2500	√						short	low	L	L	—	M	M	—	VL	—	L	L	L	L	—	—	M	VL	—	—	—	—
Spinosad	96	√						medium	low	VL	M	L	VL	M	L	H	VL	L	VL	VL	M	H	H	H	H	+ve	—	—	H[15]
Diafenthiuron	350		√		√		√	medium	low	M	H	VL	M	L	M	VL	L	H	VL	L	L	H	VL	H	L	—	—	+ve	M
Pymetrozine	150				√			short	low	M	M	M	M	L	L	L	VL	H	M	L	L	L	L	M	VL	—	—	—	VL
Fipronil (v. low)	8			√				medium	low	L	L	L	VL	L	M	—	L	M	L	M	L	—	—	VH	L	+ve	—	—	VH
Fipronil (v. low + salt)	8			√				medium	low	L	L	L	VL	L	M	—	L	M	L	M	L	—	—	VH	L	+ve	+ve	+ve	VH
Indoxacarb[13]	127.5	√		√				medium	low	H[14]	L	VH	VH	L	M	L	L	VH	M	VL	L	—	VL	VH	VL	—	+ve	—	H[15]
Spirotetramat	96				√		√	medium	moderate	M	L	H	H	VL	VL	VL	VL	M	VH	M	M	—	M	M	M	—	—	—	—
Abamectin	5.4	√[6]	√					medium	moderate	L	M	H	VL	M	L	M	M	H	VL	M	M	H	M	H	M	—	—	—	H
Emamectin	8.4	√						medium	moderate	L	VL	M	VL	H	H	H	H	H	L	M	M	—	M	VL	M	—	—	—	H
Dimethoate (low)	80		√[18]	√	√[18]	√		short	moderate	M	L	H	H	M	L	—	H	M	M	L	M	—	M	H	M	+ve	+ve	+ve	H
Dimethoate (low + salt)	80		√[18]	√	√[18]	√		short	moderate	M	L	H	H	M	L	—	H	M	M	L	M	—	M	H	M	+ve	+ve	+ve	H
Endosulfan (low)	367.5	√		√	√	√		medium	moderate	M	VL	VH	M	M	M	M	L	H	L	M	VL	—	—	VH	H	—	—	—	M[15]
Propargite	1500		√					medium	moderate	M	H	H	M	M	H	VL	VL	L	VL	M	M	L	H	H	M	—	+ve	+ve	L
Acetamiprid	22.5				√			medium	moderate	M	M	VH	H	M	M	H	M	VH	L	VL	L	VH	H	VH	VH	—	—	—	M[15]

Clothianidin (low)	25			√				medium	moderate	M	VL	—	H	L	M	VL	VL	H	H	M	M	H	M	VH	VL	—	—	+ve	—
Amitraz	400	√	√[9]		√[9]			medium	moderate	H	M	VH	H	L	—	—	—	H	VL	M	M	H	L	H	M	—	—	—	L
Fipronil (low)	12.5			√		√		medium	moderate	L	L	H	L	L	H	L	L	VH	L	M	M	—	M	VH	VH	+ve	+ve	+ve	VH
Chlorfenapyr (low)	200	√	√					medium	moderate	M	L	VH	VL	M	VL	H	H	VH	L	L	M	—	VH	H	M	—	—	—	H
Thiamethoxam	100				√			medium	moderate	H	H	H	H	M	M	M	H	H	M	VL	M	—	H	VH	H	+ve	—	+ve	H
Endosulfan (high)	735	√		√	√	√		medium	moderate	M	VL	VH	M	M	M	M	M	H	L	M	L	H	VH	VH	H	—	—	—	M[15]
Fipronil (high)	25			√		√		medium	moderate	L	VL	H	L	M	H	H	L	VH	L	M	M	—	M	VH	VH	+ve	—	+ve	VH
Imidacloprid	49			√	√			medium	moderate	H	L	VH	H	H	M	H	L	VH	L	L	L	VH	M	H	H	+ve	—	+ve	M
Clothianidin (high)	50			√				medium	moderate	H	VL	—	VH	M	M	L	VL	H	H	M	M	VH	H	VH	VL	+ve	—	+ve	—
Methomyl	169	√						very short	high	H	L	VH	VH	M	L	VH	L	VH	M	M	M	VH	H	H	H	+ve	—	—	H[15]
Thiodicarb	750	√						long	high	VH	M	VH	VH	M	M	L	L	VH	VL	M	M	—	M	M	H	+ve	+ve	—	M[15]
Dimethoate (high)	200		√[18]	√	√[18]	√		short	high	M	M	H	H	M	H	—	H	H	VH	M	H	H	H	VH	M	+ve		+ve	H
Chlorfenapyr (high)	400	√	√					medium	high	H	M	VH	L	H	H	H	H	VH	L	M	M	—	VH	VH	M	—	+ve	—	H
OP's[5]		√	√	√	√	√		short-medium	high	H	M	H	H	H	M	H	H	VH	L	M	H	VH	H	VH	H	+ve	—	—	H
Carbaryl[3]								short	high	H	—	—	—	H	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		—	—	H	—	—	—	H
Pyrethroids[4]		√	√[7]	√[7]			√[7]	long	very high	VH	—	—	—	VH	—	—	—	VH	VH	VH	VH	VH	VH	VH	VH	+ve	+ve	+ve	H

1. Total predatory beetles – ladybeetles, red and blue beetles, other predatory beetles
2. Total predatory bugs – big-eyed bugs, minute pirate bugs, brown smudge bugs, glossy shield bug, predatory shield bug, damsel bug, assassin bug, apple dimpling bug
3. Information; Citrus pests and their natural enemies, edited by Dan Smith; University of California Statewide IPM project, Cotton, Selectivity and persistence of key cotton insecticides and miticides.
4. Pyrethroids; alpha-cypermethrin, cypermethrin,beta-cyfluthrin, cyfluthrin, bifenthrin, fenvalerate, esfenvalerate, deltamethrin, lambda-cyhalothrin,
5. Organophosphates; omethoate, monocrotophos, profenofos, chlorpyrifos, chlorpyrifos-methyl, azinophos ethyl, methidathion, parathion-methyl, thiometon
6. *Helicoverpa punctigera* only.
7. Bifenthrin is registered for mite and silverleaf whitefly control; alpha-cypermethrin, beta-cyfluthrin, bifenthrin, deltamethrin and lambda-cyhalothrin are registered for control of mirids
8. Persistence of pest control; short, less than 3 days; medium, 3-7 days, long, greater than 10 days.
9. Suppression of mites and aphids only.
10. Impact rating (% reduction in beneficials following application, based on scores for the major beneficial groups); VL (very low), less than 10%; L (low), 10-20%; M (moderate), 20-40%; H (high), 40-60%; VH (very high), > 60%. A '-' indicates no data available for specific local species.
11. *Bacillus thuringiensis*
12. Pest resurgence is +ve if repeated applications of a particular product are likely to increase the risk of pest outbreaks or resurgence. Similarly sequential applications of products with a high pest resurgence rating will increase the risk of outbreaks or resurgence of the particular pest species.
13. Very high impact on minute two-spotted ladybeetle and other ladybeetles for wet spray, moderate impact for dried spray.
14. Data Source: British Crop Protection Council. 2003. The Pesticide Manual: A World Compendium (Thirteenth Edition),. Where LD50 data is not available impacts are based on comments and descriptions. Where LD50 data is available impacts are based on the following scale: very low = LD50 (48h) > 100 ug/bee, low = LD50 (48h) < 100 ug/bee, moderate = LD50 (48h) < 10 ug/bee, high = LD50 (48h) < 1 ug/bee, very high = LD50 (48h) < 0.1 ug/bee. Refer to the Protecting Bees section in this booklet.
15. Wet residue of these products is toxic to bees, however, applying the products in the early evening when bees are not foraging will allow spray to dry, reducing risk to bees the following day.
16. May reduce survival of ladybeetle larvae – rating of moderate for this group.
17. May be detrimental to eggs and early stages of many insects, generally low toxicity to adults and later stages.
18. Will not control organophosphate resistant pests (e.g. mites, some cotton aphid (*Aphis gossypii*) populations
19. Rankings for *Eretmocerus* based on data for *E. mundus* (P. De Barro, CSIRO, unpublished) and for *E. eremicus* (Koppert B.V. , The Netherlands (http://side-effects.koppert.nl/#))

DISCLAIMER Information provided is based on the current best information available from research data. Users of these products should check the label for further details of rate, pest spectrum, safe handling and application. Further information on the products can be obtained from the manufacturer.

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TABLE 20: Seasonal activity plan for IPM

Objective	Phases				
	Post harvest	Pre-planting	Planting to 1 flower per metre	1st flower to 1 open boll per metre	1 open boll per metre to harvest
1. Growing a healthy crop	Consider the best rotation crop for your situation. Test soil nutrient status to determine fertiliser requirements for cotton crop. Consider potential disease risks.	Seed bed preparation. Field and cotton variety selection. Plan irrigation and crop management strategies.	Consider planting window. Consider at-planting seed treatment, insecticides and other control options which do not disrupt beneficial insect activity.	Water management. Nutrient status. Growth control. Pest control.	Make final irrigation decisions. Defoliate when crop is mature. Keep on top of pests by using appropriate control options.
2. Keeping track of insects and damage	Sample cotton stubble for Helicoverpa armigera pupae after harvest.	Assess risk of wireworm, early thrips, mirids, mites and black field earwigs and decide on seed treatments, granular insecticides or in-furrow insecticide sprays.	Sample for pests, beneficials and parasitism rates in cotton as well as spring trap crop. Monitor early season damage. Track pest trends. Use pest thresholds and the predator to pest ratio.	Sample for pests, beneficials and parasitism rates. Track pest trends and incorporate parasitism into spray decisions. Monitor fruit load. Use pest thresholds and the predator to pest ratio.	Sample for pests, beneficials and parasitism rates in cotton as well as last generation trap crop. Monitor fruit load. Use pest thresholds and the predator to pest ratio. Cease pest control at 30–40% bolls open.
3. Preserving beneficial insects	Plant lucerne (strips or block) in autumn. Consider becoming involved in an IPM or AWM group. Discuss spray management plan with neighbours and consultant.	If planning to release Trichogramma during the season, plan to sow other crops eg. sorghum. Consider growing a diverse habitat to encourage beneficials.	Sample for beneficials and parasitism rates. If chemical control of a pest is required, refer to the beneficial impact table. Keep track of your BDI and predator to pest ratio.	Sample beneficials. Consider releasing Trichogramma into sorghum. Keep track of your BDI and predator to pest ratio. Food sprays may be considered. Manage lucerne appropriately.	Sample for beneficials. Encourage beneficials to reduce late season resistant pests by using food sprays and low impact insecticides.
4. Preventing insecticide resistance	Pupae bust to control overwintering Helicoverpa and mites as soon as possible after harvest. Plant spring trap crop. Review resistance management results. Reduce the availability of aphid and whitefly hosts over winter.	Consider Bollgard II refuge option. Consider choice of at – planting insecticides or seed treatment and implications for later aphid sprays.	Use pest and damage thresholds. Follow the IRMS strategy for your region. Encourage beneficials to help reduce resistant pests. Follow Bollgard II resistance management plan.	Use pest and damage thresholds. Follow the IRMS strategy for your region. Encourage beneficials to help reduce resistant pests. Follow Bollgard II resistance management plan.	Use pest and damage thresholds. Follow the IRMS strategy for your region. Encourage beneficials to help reduce resistant pests. Follow Bollgard II resistance management plan.
5. Managing crop and weed hosts	Keep farm weed free over winter. Control cotton re-growth.	Carefully consider summer rotation crops (type and location). Keep farm weed free.	Keep farm weed-free.	Keep farm weed-free.	Consider winter rotation crops (type, location and the potential to host pests or diseases). Keep farm weed-free.
6. Using trap crops effectively	Plant spring trap crop. Consider flowering date to time planting.	Consider summer trap crop. Cultivate all chickpea trap crops by 30 September.	Consider last generation trap crop.	Monitor Helicoverpa populations in summer trap crop, control if necessary.	Destroy Helicoverpa eggs and larvae in last generation trap crop using biological sprays. Pupae bust last generation trap crop.
7. Communication and training	Consider becoming involved in an IPM or AWM group. Attend regional training and information seminars. Consider doing the IPM short course.	Communicate with neighbours and applicators to discuss spray management plans.	Meet regularly with neighbours and consultant to discuss IPM strategies and attend local field days.	Meet regularly with neighbours and consultant to discuss IPM strategies and attend local field days.	Meet regularly with neighbours and consultant to discuss IPM strategies and attend local field days.