



INTEGRATED PEST MANAGEMENT & CORESTA IPM GROUP

Anne Fisher & Colin Fisher

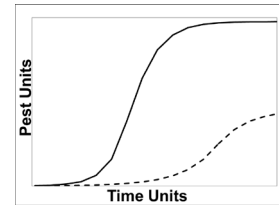
Kentucky Tobacco Research & Development Center
University of Kentucky

CEG Tobacco online meeting

26 March 2024



- What is IPM?
 - Some basic facts
- How IPM affects the mechanics of disease epidemics
 - How IPM fits into the theory of epidemics
- Some case studies
 - 4 case studies
- The CORESTA IPM subgroup
 - Brief description of the subgroup and its work



WHAT IS IPM?



- **Integrated Pest Management**

- **Definition - American Phytopathology Society**

- “A sustainable approach to managing pests by combining biological, cultural, physical and chemical tools in a way that minimizes economic, health and environmental risks”.

- IPM ≠ organic

- Chemical control important component of IPM

- Emphasis on responsible, sustainable and minimal use of CPAs

- Integrated control program can reduce CPA use

“PEST” = pathogen, nematode, insect or weed



IPM is Not New

- **INTEGRATED management system**
 - **US grower guides 1940's recommended**
 - Rotation & hygiene for black shank control
 - Hygiene for TMV control
 - **Zimbabwe, TRB handbook 1950's recommended**
 - Rotation for nematode control
 - Hygiene for TMV control
 - Avoiding over-fertilization to mitigate bacterial foliar disease
- **More recent IPM strategies**
 - **Mostly built on well-established principles**



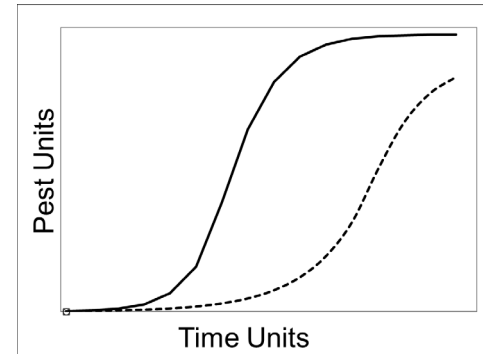
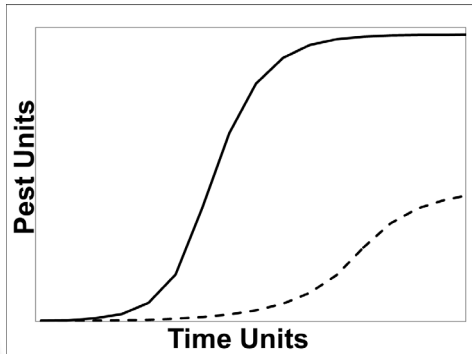
- **MAJOR issue for tobacco industry**
- IPM → lower CPA residues
 - CPAs may be replaced or partly replaced by other strategies
 - Lower rates and/or fewer applications
 - Scouting
 - Proper application
 - Lower disease/pest pressure



- **Lower disease/pest populations → easier control, less CPAs**
 - Rotations, good hygiene etc.
 - Prevent or slow build-up of diseases / pests
- **Biocontrols**
 - No residues



HOW IPM AFFECTS THE MECHANICS OF DISEASE EPIDEMICS



Crops vs Natural Vegetation

If crops can be totally destroyed by disease and insects

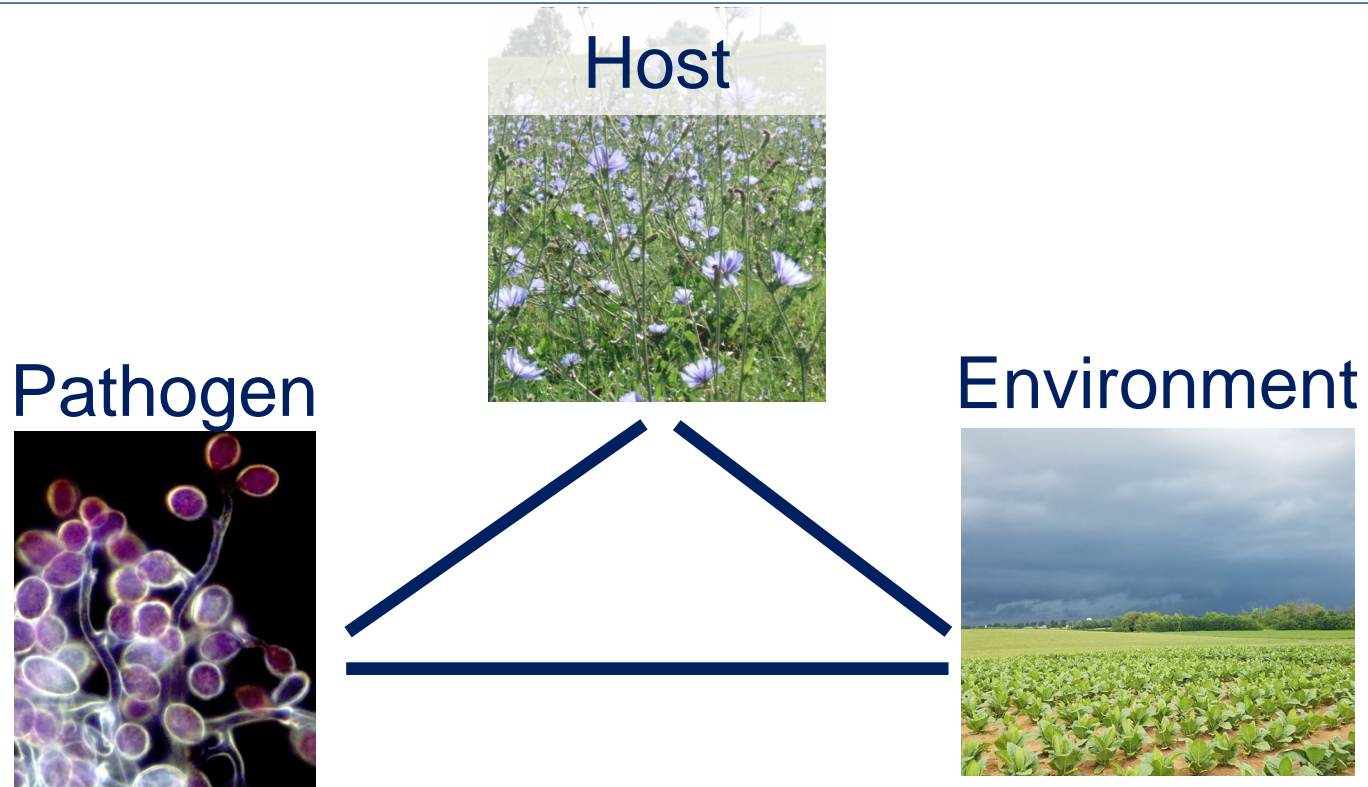


..... why does this not happen in natural undisturbed vegetation?

Success of:
plant to produce crop
or
for disease to succeed
depends on



Disease Triangle



Reduce or eliminate infection Resistance



Disease Δ – Environment

Reduce or eliminate infection

Soil Type



pH



Alternate Hosts



Reduce or eliminate infection

Rotation



Sanitation



CPAs



Crops vs Natural Vegetation

In undisturbed natural vegetation

... plant host
and
pathogen
in equilibrium
with environment
.... most of time



In natural vegetation,

two factors favour success of host plant:

Spatial separation

between plants of same species
interspersed with non-host species

Genetic variability

wide variation, between orders, families
less variation between species

>> pest may not find another host



Commercial agriculture

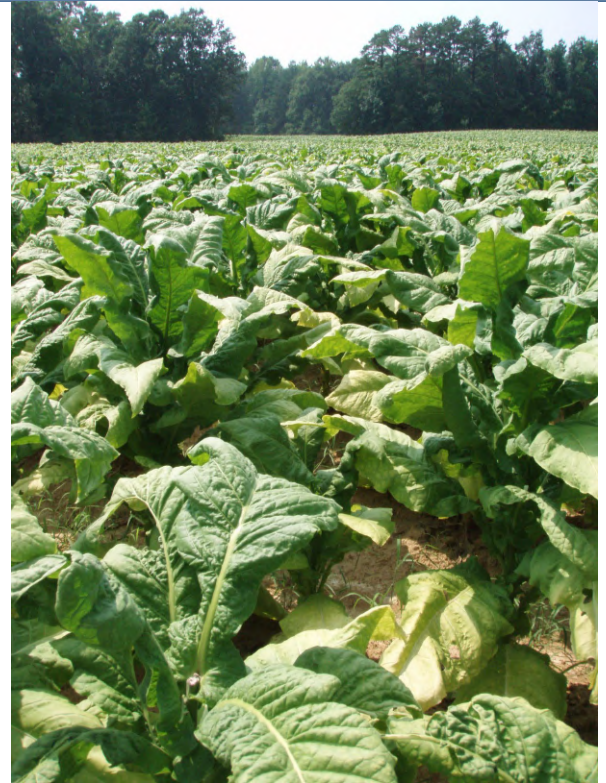
large expanses

genetically identical plants

close proximity

→ constraints on success of pests
no longer applicable

Pests/diseases multiply unimpeded



Containment of Pests

Protection of these man-made plant communities from pests requires man's intervention

- Containment methods used for centuries –
 - burning
 - rotation
 - site selection



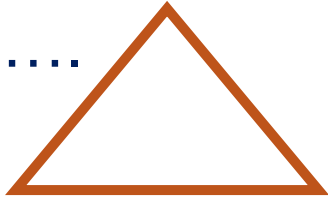
With time, experience & science
Understanding of interaction between
plant, pest, environment

- Improved containment methods



Effect of IPM on Epidemics

IPM shifts balance of
plant-pest-environment
interaction



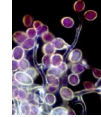
.... in favour of plant
to detriment of pest



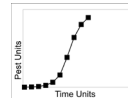
Epidemics modeled mathematically: $pR = pr_1e^{pr_1t}$

- Three components, analogous to financial interest:

- Initial inoculum = principal value



- Increase rate = interest

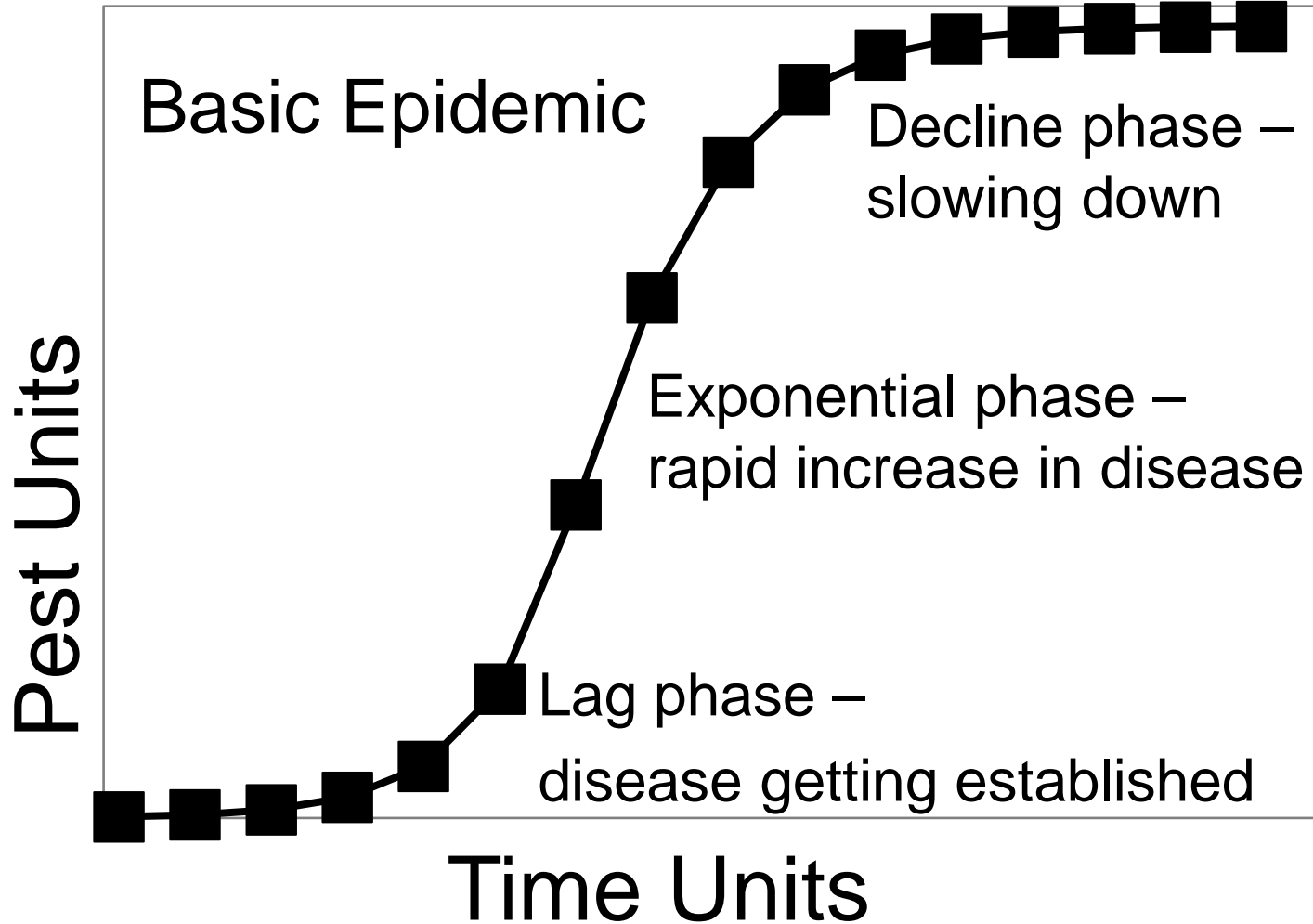


- Time



- fungal & bacterial leaf diseases – days
- insects – days/weeks
- soil-borne/root diseases – years





Managing Epidemics

To reduce crop losses from disease epidemics
 employ reverse strategy to that of retirement savings
 and do whatever is necessary to reduce “financial” gain by

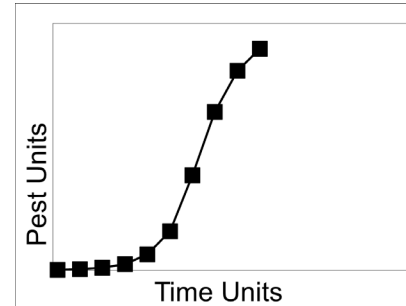
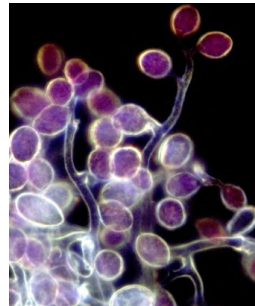
- reducing “principal investment” (initial inoculum)
- lowering “interest” rate (slowing increase of disease)
- reducing the time of the “investment” (timing of crop, dead period)



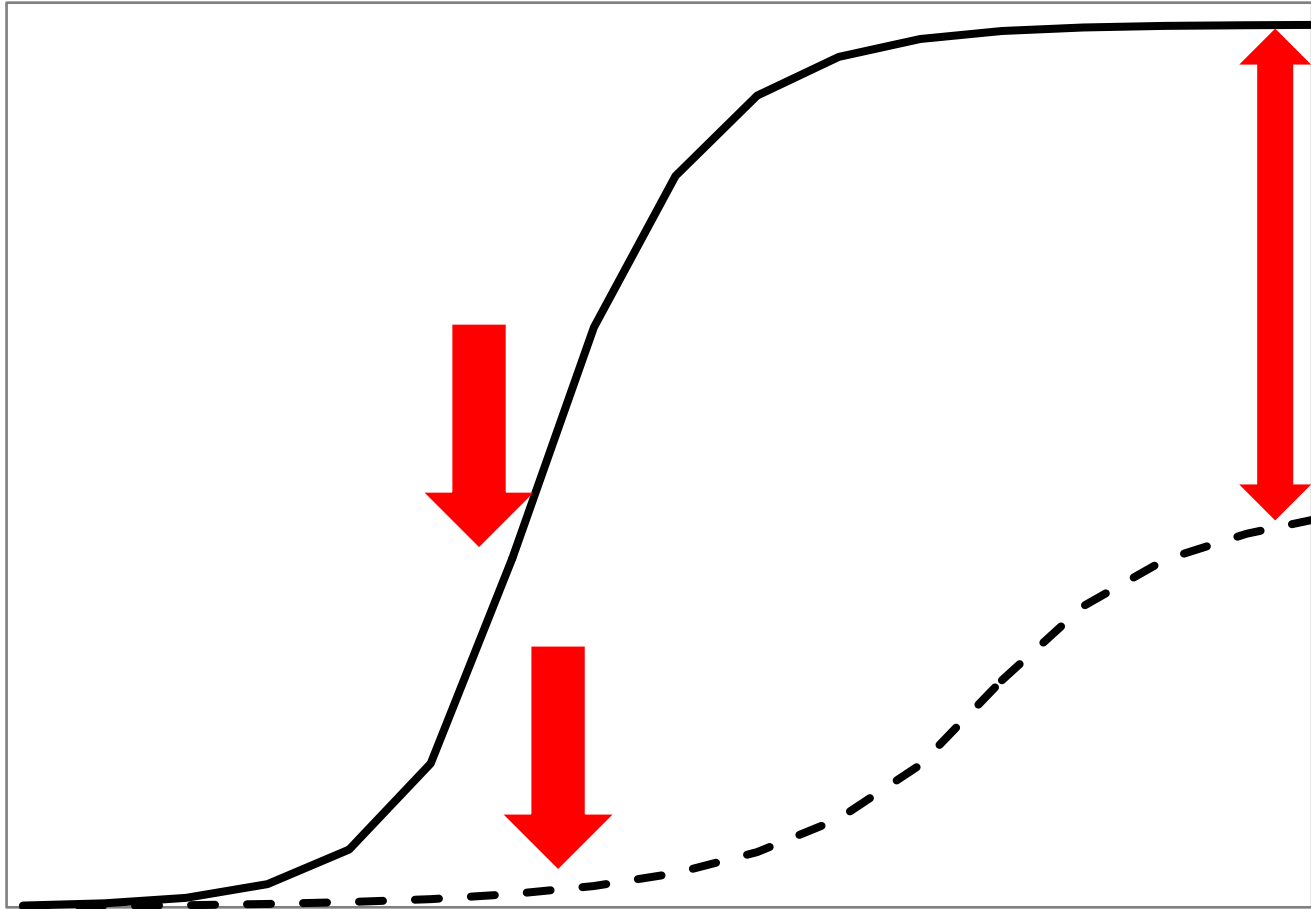
- Breaking / disrupting life cycle of pest
 - Altering environment / host
- >> Timing of crop, dead period
- >> Reducing numerical value of



- initial inoculum
- increase rate



Pest Units



Time Units

Reduce initial inoculum

Hygiene & sanitation (eg TMV)

Rotation



Well rotated field vs field with history of disease



Amount can vary by 10,000s

Compare investing \$1 vs. \$10,000



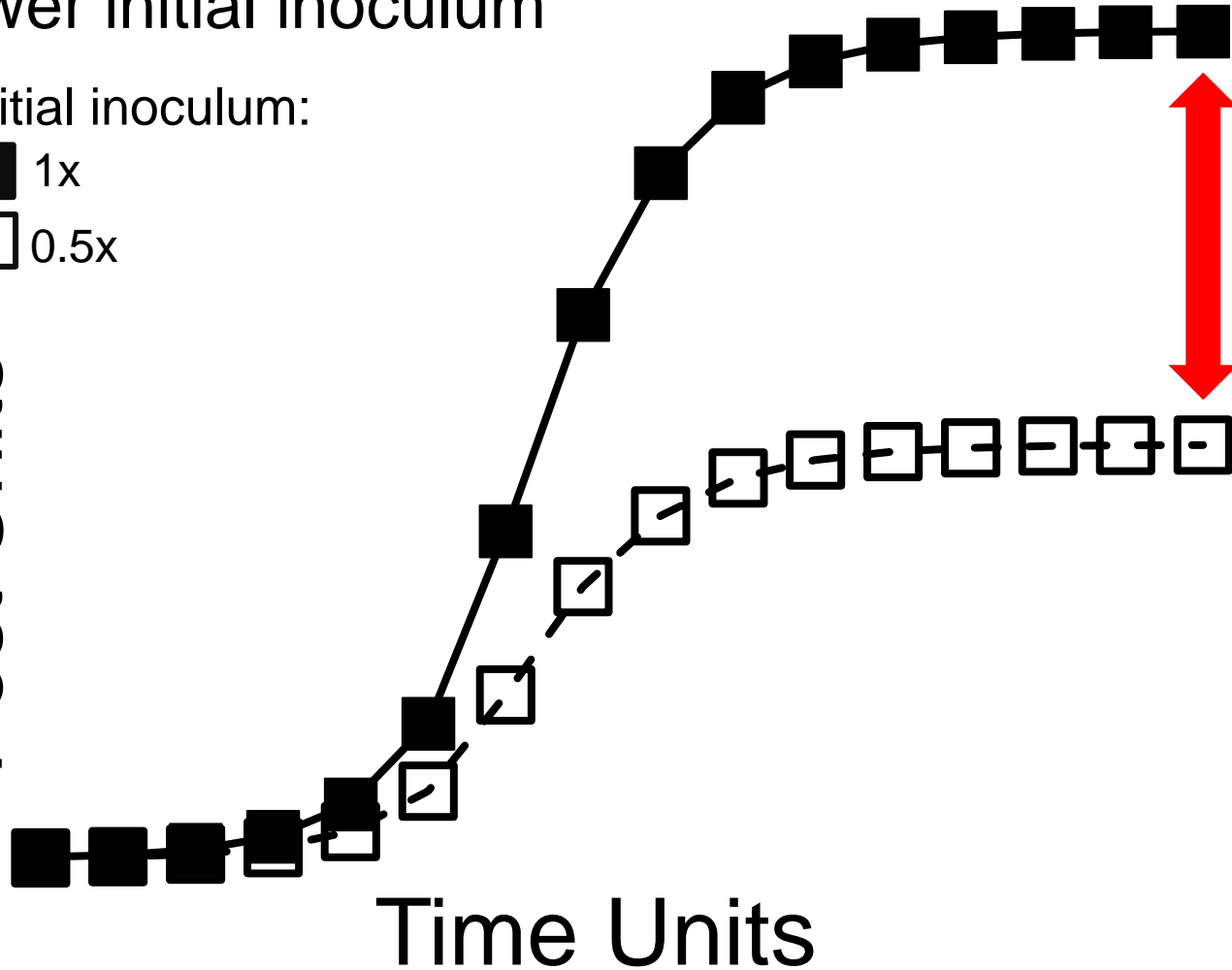
Lower initial inoculum

Initial inoculum:

■ 1x

□ 0.5x

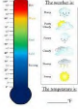





Pest Units



Reduce Initial Inoculum

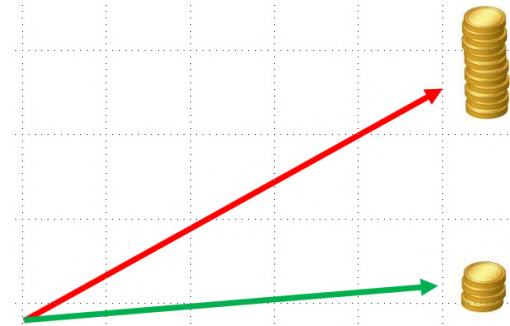
- Rotation 
- Stalk destruction 
- Crop residue breakdown 
- Disease-free seed, seedlings   
- Awareness of alternative hosts & adjacent crops  
- Hygiene, disinfectants 
- Tobacco-free period 

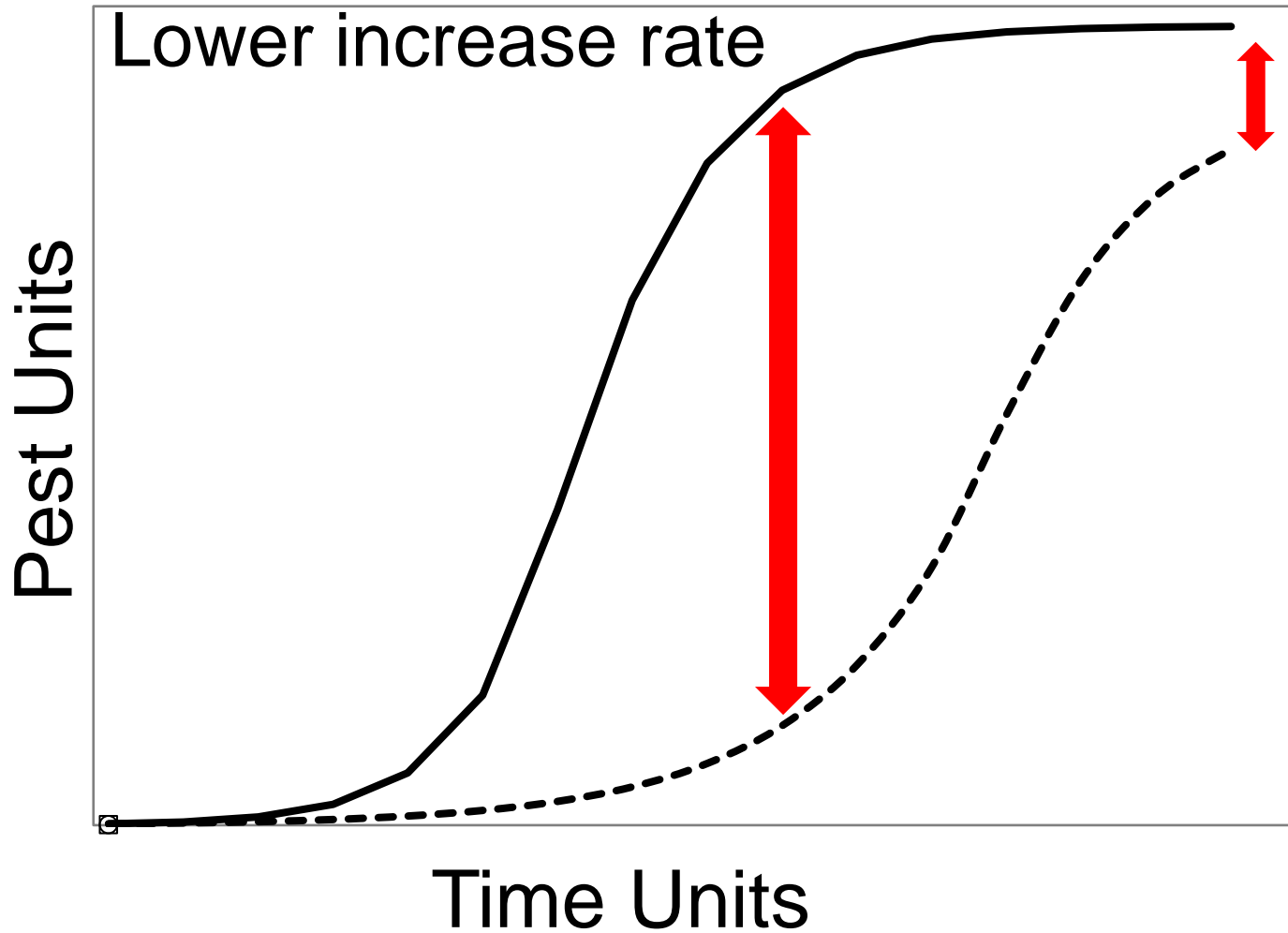
Lower Increase Rate

- Affected by how favourable environment is
 - temperature 
 - rainfall 
 - humidity 
 - soil type 
 - crop maturity  



Rate can vary by 1000x
 Compare investing at 1% vs. 5%







Increase Rate cont

The increase rate

.... declines as environment deteriorates
competition for space
nutrient supply dwindles
unfavourable weather at end of season

Increase rate changes through season

weather cooling

Pest Units



cool wet weather
e.g. blue mould

dry weather

crop
maturing
e.g. frogeye



young plants not susceptible



Time Units

Lower Increase Rate by

- **balanced fertility**



- **biological control**



- **pesticides**



- **resistance***



- **tolerance***



Resistance = prevention/reduction of infection

Not necessarily immunity



Tolerance = ability of plant to develop normally and produce acceptable yield and quality

.... despite infection



Some points about Pest Groups

- **Caution: Threshold levels vary by region depending on**

- cost of pesticide
- application cost
- crop value
- pest population vs. damage



- **To establish thresholds requires extensive monitoring of:**

- pest levels vs. economic damage
- at multiple locations, for several years



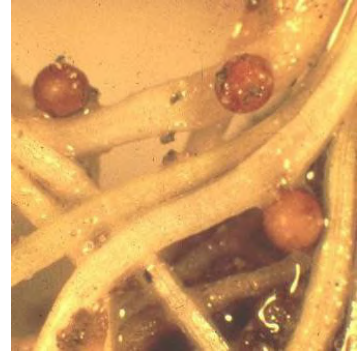
- **Threshold much lower for insects that are disease vectors**

Nematodes & Weeds



Nematodes

Soil sample analysis



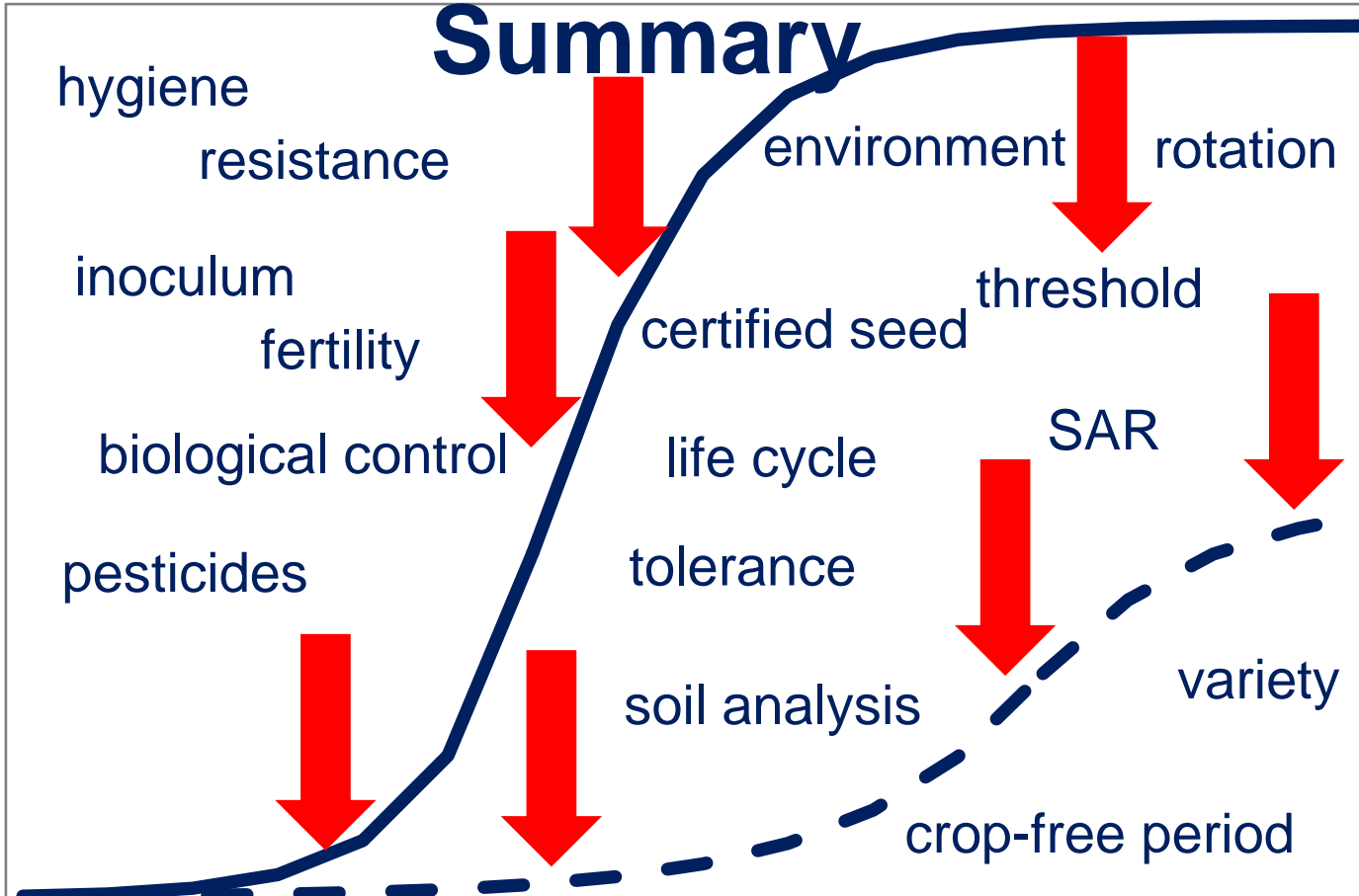
Weeds

Late season weed control effect
- reduce “initial inoculum” seed



Summary

Pest Units



Time Units

Epidemics Conclusion

With some careful planning,
crop protection could be
upgraded ...
... from where we are now ...
... to a whole new level



SOME CASE STUDIES



• Tobacco Bushy Top Virus

- Devastating virus disease

- Can cause 100% loss



- Occurs mainly in southern & central Africa

- Aphid borne



- Mainly affects late-planted crops, only affects new growth

- Like all virus diseases, no chemical control

- Only control of vector

Dead Period Legislation

- **Legislation**

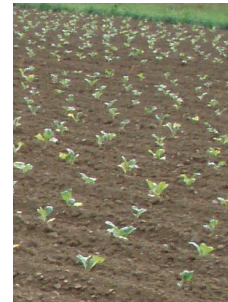
- Seedbeds

- Earliest sowing date
- Latest seedbed destruction date

- Fields

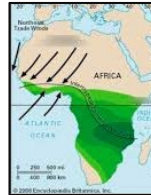
- Earliest transplanting date
- Latest stalk/residue destruction date

- 6 weeks with no tobacco growing – fields or seedbeds

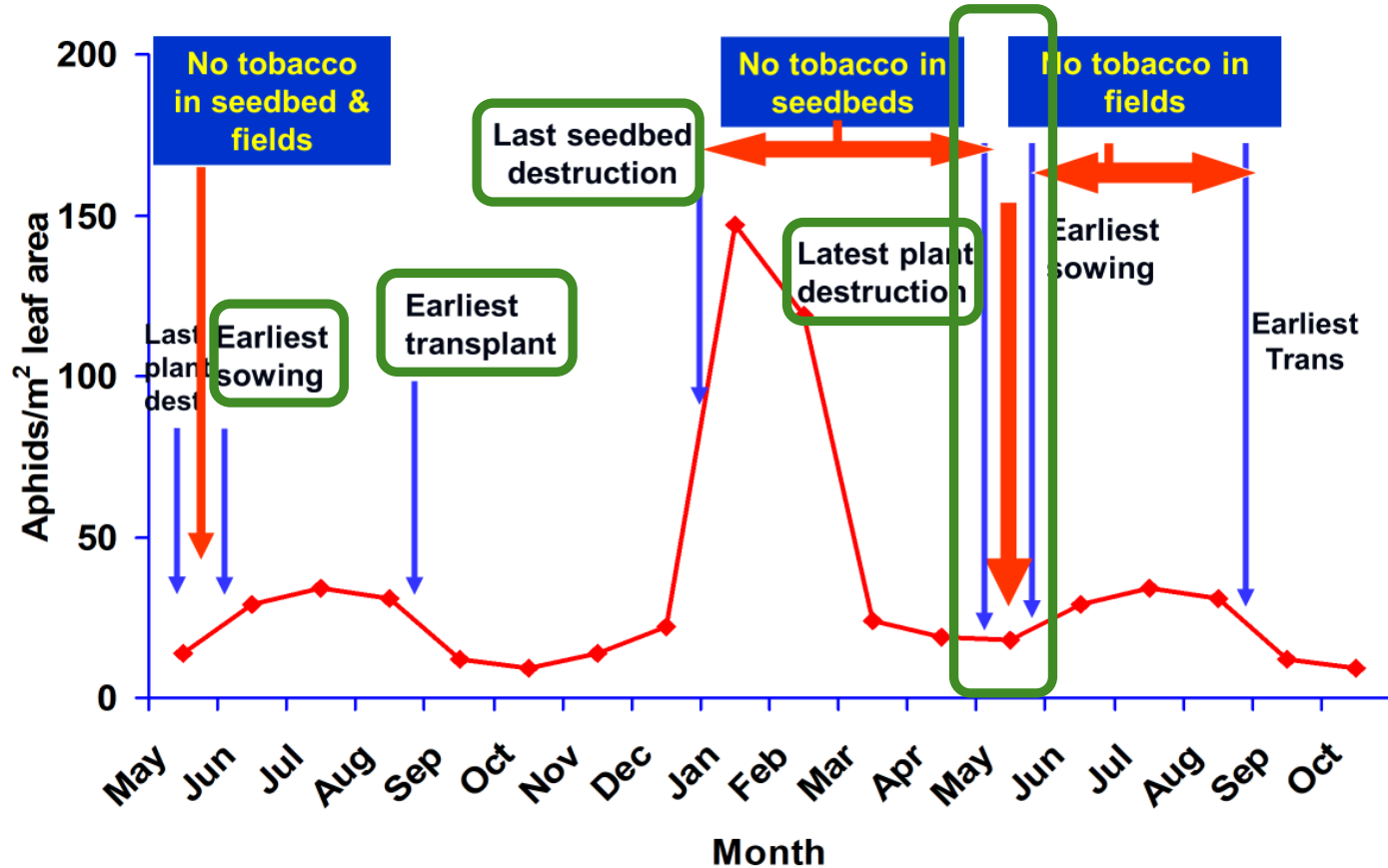


Reason for Dead Period

- **Based on knowledge of aphid populations**
- Small aphid populations overwinter
 - Winters cold & dry, very little green vegetation (~4 months w/o rain)
- Most aphids come with rains, on ITCZ in November
 - Then multiply rapidly
- Dead period in winter
 - Tobacco would be the only green vegetation
 - Aphids would multiply early → high numbers at start of season

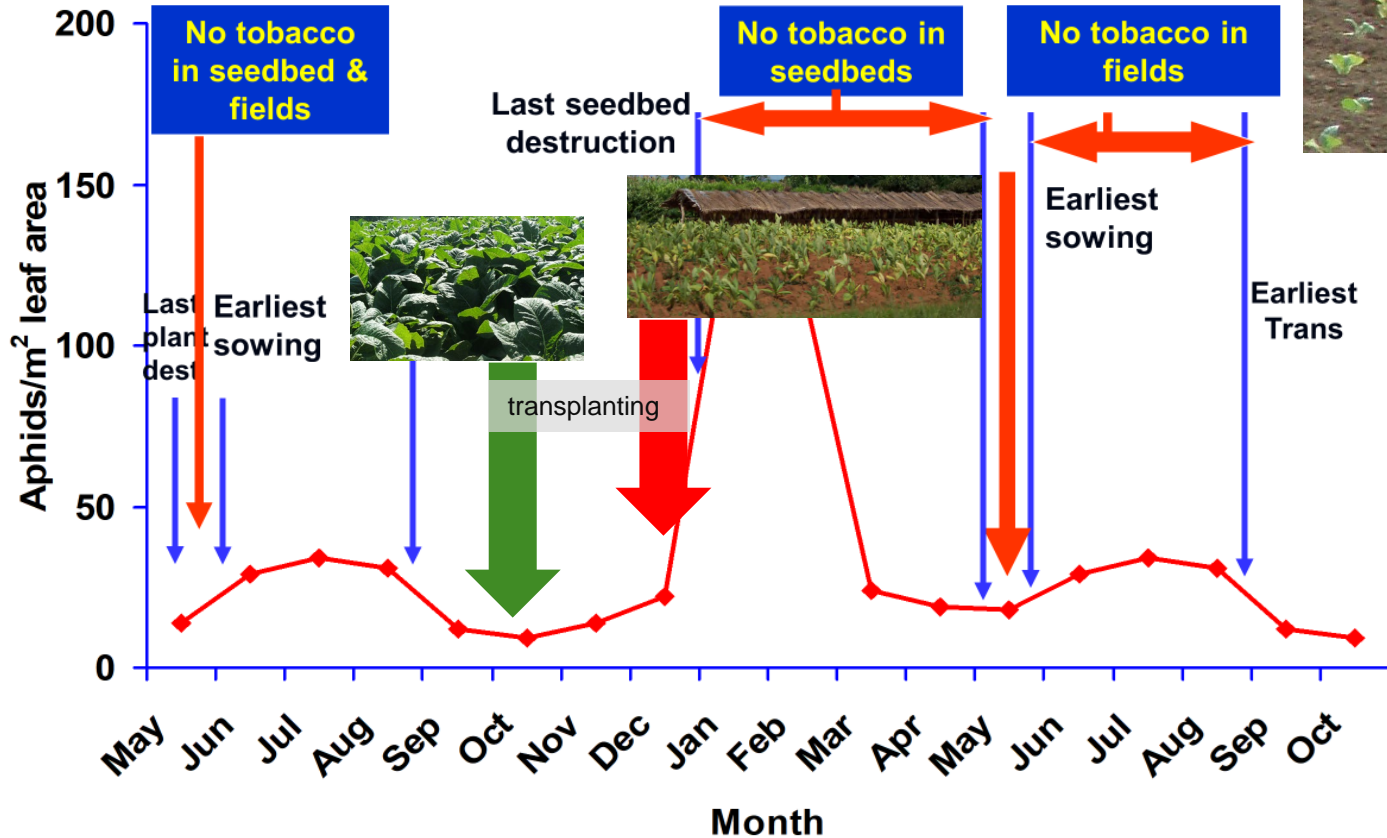


Winged Aphid Numbers & Legislated Tobacco-Free Periods



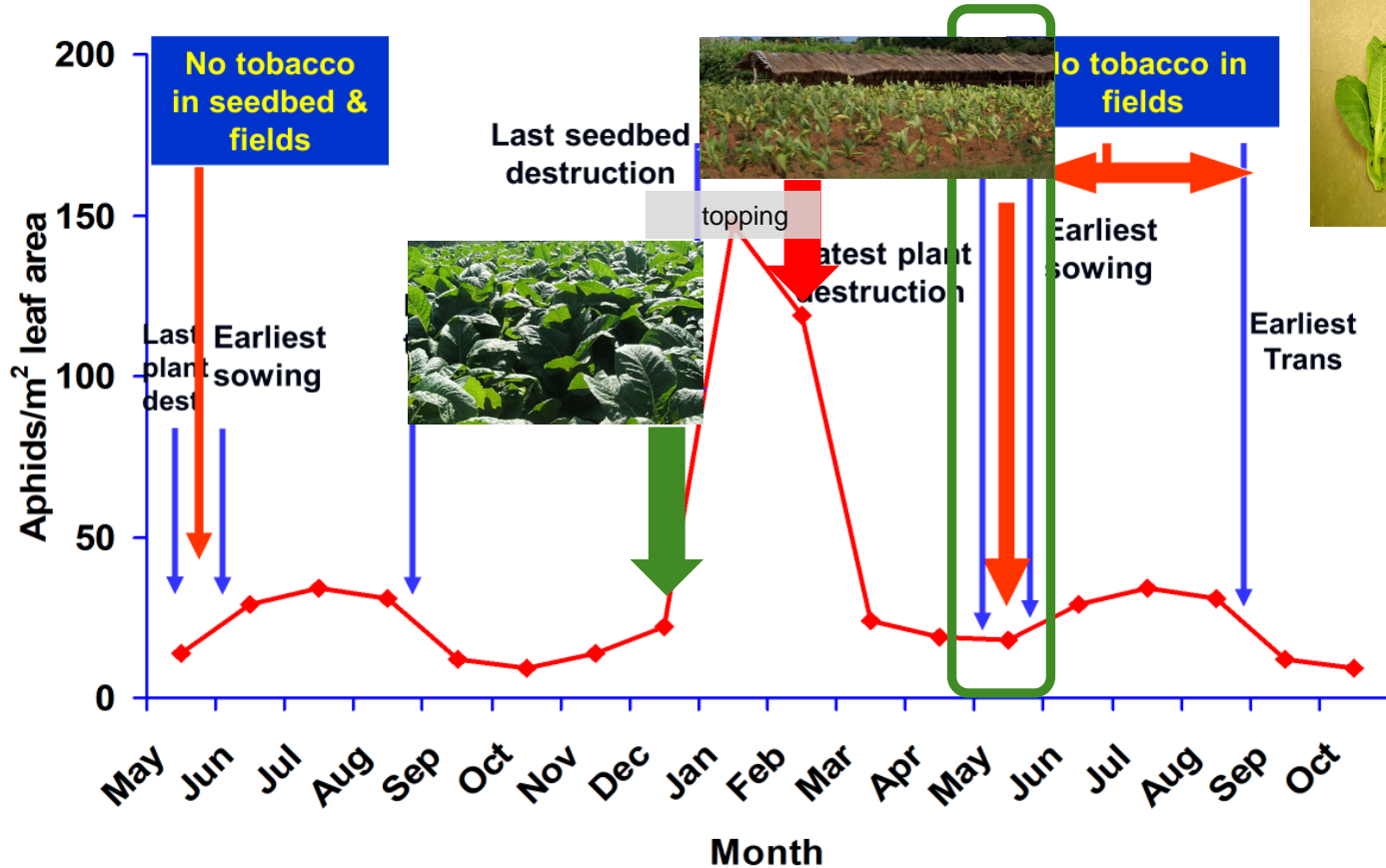


Winged Aphid Numbers & Legislated Tobacco-Free Periods





Winged Aphid Numbers & Legislated Tobacco-Free Periods



Success of Dead Period

- **Zimbabwe – very successful to end of 1990s**
 - Strictly enforced
 - Growers were mainly large commercial growers
- **Currently ineffective**
 - Not enforced
 - Growers now mainly smallholders
 - They have many challenges



Smallholder Challenges

• Commercial growers

- Prepare fields early, mechanical tillage
- Water-plant mid October
 - Early start, crop well-established when aphid populations peak
 - Crop topped while aphid numbers still low



• Smallholders

- Wait for rain to prepare fields, ox-drawn tillage
- Rain-plant in December
 - Crop in early stages when aphid populations peak
 - Crop only topped after aphid populations peak



Dead Period Then & Now

- **For about 50 years**

- Success story in Zimbabwe

- Bushy top rarely seen, occasionally on very late crops



- **Now bushytop rampant**

- Double impact for smallholders

- No dead period → high aphid populations
- Plant late → crop infected early
- → high losses – sometimes total losses



Hygiene & Sanitation

• TMV tobacco mosaic virus

- Spread mechanically (hands, tools)
 - VERY easily spread
- Affects new growth
 - Early infection VERY serious
 - Particular care with seedlings & transplants
- Virus dissociated by soap
 - Washing facilities, footbaths at seedbed sites
 - Disinfect tools
 - No smoking



- **Highly successful**

- **If done effectively,** prevents TMV occurring on farm
- Once present, very difficult to eradicate
 - Survives long periods in debris 
 - Alternate hosts
 - Wide host range  
- One of the oldest IPM strategies
 - Employed long before resistant varieties available 

- ***Bacillus thuringiensis* – budworm/hornworm**

- Soil bacterium, many products, kills most caterpillars

- Safe



- Cheap



- Eco-friendly

- Naturally occurring

- Affects very specific insects



- Safe for humans, animals, beneficial insects



- **Successful for 100 years**

- No residue issues
- Effective
 - Must be applied early
- Used globally
 - Europe since 1920s
 - US since 1950s
 - GAP, ESG



- **Rootknot nematode *Meloidogyne javanica***
 - Major pest in southern & central Africa
 - Can cause heavy losses
 - Especially for smallholders
 - Susceptible tobacco variety
 - Fumigation + rotation
 - Resistant tobacco variety
 - Fumigation or rotation



- **Katambora Rhodes grass**

- Non-host

- **4 years** grass rotation



- Nematode populations drop drastically

- Most tobacco growers use the grazing for cattle



- **No other rotation as effective**

- Cash crops slow nematode increase

- But do not decrease population





Success of Grass Rotation

- **Up to 1990s, very successful for commercial growers**
 - Large farms, enough land to rotate
- **Last 20 years, government has taken farms**
 - Smaller farms, limited rotation – much less effective
- **Smallholders**
 - Have never had enough land to rotate

Overall Success of IPM

• Most IPM strategies

- Need a certain level of resources & sophistication
- Dead period
 - Ability to plant early – tillage equipment, access to water
- Sanitation
 - Good management, water
- Bt
 - Good management, timeliness
- Rotation
 - Enough land





CORESTA IPM SUBGROUP



FIELD GUIDE TO INTEGRATED PEST MANAGEMENT



TABLE OF CONTENTS - OUTLINE

Ref	Group / Section	Coordinator	Page
A	Integrated Disease Management	tba	1
A.1	Fungal Diseases	A. Fisher, University of Kentucky, USA	4
A.2	Bacterial Diseases	C. Fisher, University of Kentucky, USA	33
A.3	Viral Diseases	B. Kennedy, University of Kentucky, USA	40
A.4	Seedling Diseases	tba	57
A.5	Postharvest Diseases	C. Fisher, University of Kentucky, USA	58
A.6	Minor Diseases	A. Fisher, University of Kentucky, USA	71
B	Integrated Nematode Management	J. LaMondia, Connecticut AED, USA	22
B.1	Major Nematode Pests	J. Eisenback, Virginia Tech, USA	24
B.2	Minor Nematode Pests	J. Eisenback, Virginia Tech, USA	40
C	Integrated Insect Management	P. Semtner, Virginia Tech, USA	102
C.1	Stem and Root Insect Pests	F. Reay-Jones, Clemson University, USA	107
C.2	Chewing Insect Pests	D. Martin, USA	112
C.3	Sucking Insect Pests	R. McPherson, Univ of Georgia, USA	119
C.4	Seedling Insect Pests	P. Semtner, Virginia Tech, USA	124
C.5	Stored Tobacco Pests	V. Schmitt, RU Reynolds, USA	126
D	Integrated Weed Management	A. Bailey, University of Kentucky, USA	138
D.1	Field Weeds	A. Bailey, University of Kentucky, USA	131
D.2	Parasitic Weeds	J.L. Vermer, BS & B, France	158
E	IPM Strategies	tba	170
E.1	Pests, Pesticides, and Epidemics	C. Fisher, University of Kentucky, USA	174
E.2	Systemic Acquired Resistance	A. da Rosta, Universal Leaf, Brazil	177
E.3	Biological Control Organisms	A. Kottler, UNISIC, Brazil	178
E.4	Trap, Barrier, and Rotation Crops	H. Papenfuss, Alliance One, England	181
E.5	Cigar Tobaccos	M. Hartley, Lancaster Leaf, USA	184

iii

A.2. Bacterial Diseases

15. *Wiltfire, Angular Leaf Spot*

Pseudomonas syringae pv. *tabaci* (taxonomically known as *P. tabaci*, *P. angulata* and *P. syringae* pv. *tabaci*), *P. syringae* pv. *angulata* (Arie Fisher, University of Kentucky, USA)

General
Wiltfire and angular leaf spot can affect tobacco in both the seedbeds / float trays and the field, although wiltfire tends to be more of a problem in the seedbed and angular leaf spot in the field. Wiltfire and angular leaf spot are not major problems in many tobacco producing areas, such as the USA, Brazil, and Europe. In Africa, they are diseases of major importance which can cause devastating losses, especially in wet seasons. The bacteria that cause wiltfire and angular leaf spot are identical in all respects except that the wiltfire bacteria produce a toxin and the angular bacteria do not. Wiltfire is therefore caused by the "toxin" strain and angular leaf spot by the "non-toxin" strain.

Symptoms
The symptoms of the toxin (toxin producing) and non-toxin (non-toxin producing) forms of this disease are quite different.
Wiltfire (toxin) is characterized by a small brown or black watersoaked lesion, surrounded by a broad chlorotic halo (Figs. 15.1A, 15.2). The lesions increase in diameter and may coalesce until the diseased tissue eventually falls out leaving ragged holes. Wiltfire can be systemic in seedlings, causing distortion (Fig. 15.4) of the apical bud, veins and leaves. The angular (toxin) lesion is brown, dark brown or black, much larger than the wiltfire lesion, has little or no chlorotic halo, and has angular margins because the lesion is confined by the lateral veins (Figs. 15.1B, 15.3, 15.5). In Africa, both diseases tend to be more severe at the top of the plant (Figs. 15.2, 15.3).

Source and Transmission
The bacteria are spread in wind-driven water droplets, from leaf to leaf and plant to plant within the field, from field to field and from infected weed hosts or tobacco growth. Driving rains and sand blasting winds exacerbate the problem considerably. These diseases can also be seed transmitted. Tobacco regrowth and debris from infected plants should always be destroyed at the end of the season, as they are sources of inoculum to infect overwintering weed hosts. In the semi-tropical areas where these diseases are a problem, winters are seldom cool enough to kill overwintering weeds and tobacco regrowth. Wiltfire and angular leaf spot are favoured by cloudy wet weather.

Rotation and Site Selection
Disease spread is reduced by planting earlier fields downwind of later planted fields; the earlier planted fields often serve as an inoculum source. These diseases are generally worse in intensively used fields, and can be minimised by suitable rotations (Ch. 27).

Alternate Hosts
Many non-toxic weeds are hosts of this pathogen (Ch. 61). Examples are Apple of Peru (*Micandra physalodes*) and Jimson weed / *Ekiribaar* (*Datura stramonium*), shown in Fig. 15.6. Such weeds should be removed from the proximity of the fields, and especially seedbeds / greenhouses. This is particularly important in areas which do not have killing winter frosts, where weeds overwinter.

32

Chapter 15 Wiltfire, Angular Leaf Spot

A.2. Bacterial Diseases

Tobacco Research Board of Zimbabwe. Handbook of recommendations. Shew, H. D. and G.B. Lucas, Eds. 1991. Wiltfire and Angular Leaf Spot. Pages 30-32 in: Compendium of Tobacco Diseases. APO Press. ISBN: 0-89054-117-5.



Fig. 15.1. Wiltfire and angular lesions. A: Wiltfire, with chlorotic halo surrounding lesion B: Angular, with no chlorotic halo and angular margins



Fig. 15.2. Wiltfire, *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *tabaci* (tox +)



Fig. 15.3. Angular, *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *tabaci* (tox -)

35

Chapter 15 Wiltfire, Angular Leaf Spot

• Objectives

- To summarize available IPM strategies for each pest & disease
 - Must be proven on field scale
- Then produce a document for agronomists & farmers
 - Structured by disease or pest
 - With a common outline framework based on relevant IPM methods
 - NB – not a pathology textbook

Subgroup Structure

- **80 chapters over 5 groups**

- diseases
- nematodes
- insects
- weeds
- IPM strategies

- **Each with a group leader**

- organizes group
- collects chapters
- arranges reviews & editing



Subgroup Approach

Same approach for 3 groups

Diseases



fungal
bacterial
viral
seedling
post-harv

Nematodes



Insects



Groups divided into sections
Chapter for each disease or pest

Subgroup Approach cont

Weeds group

Field Weeds



Parasitic Weeds



Different approach

Principles of weed control Specific weed problems

Subgroup Approach cont

IPM Strategies

Biological Control



Rotation



Correct CPA Usage



Sections deal with general IPM principles



Document



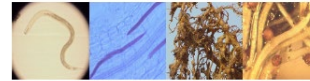
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E.5	Cigar Tobaccos	M. Hartley, Lancaster Leaf, USA	184

ii



INTEGRATED NEMATODE MANAGEMENT



B. NEMATODES

FOREWORD

Integrated Nematode Management

Plant parasitic nematodes can be a major challenge to tobacco crop production. First, it is important to understand that nematode damage often goes unrecognized as such and may be attributed to other factors such as problems with nutrient availability or other root diseases. In addition to the direct effects of plant parasitic nematodes on tobacco that result in root damage, stunting, delayed maturity and reduced leaf quality as a result of infection, nematodes can also have secondary effects that result in increased disease caused by other pathogens. These effects can involve nematode feeding and wounding increasing ingress of other pathogens, systemic effects of nematode infection on plant physiology changing how plants may respond to infection by pathogens such as fungi, or nematodes vectoring other pathogens such as viruses to result in disease.

Second, simply recognizing that nematodes are the direct or indirect cause of losses is not sufficient. One needs to know which nematode or nematodes are present and in what numbers. This is no small feat. Nematodes can be difficult and expensive to sample for, identify and quantify. Multiple genera, species or races may occur at the same time in the same field and the presence of a species or race is not the end of the story. Economic damage thresholds have been determined for many problematic nematodes and these thresholds may change with changing stresses such as environmental conditions. Further complicating this story is the fact that different nematodes have different life cycles and stages and may need to be sampled and recovered differently from roots or soils and at different times during the growing season. Finally, control of one nematode or race often changes the makeup of the nematode community for the future and one needs to look ahead to anticipate future problems before they become economically significant.

Managing nematodes can be quite difficult as they occur in soils, a much more difficult matrix to control pests in than air or on foliage, and as animals, require a different approach and different crop protection chemicals compared to pathogens such as fungi. Many of the traditionally used nematocides have been withdrawn from use due to toxicity or environmental concerns. While the factors mentioned above may make it seem like there is not much promise for nematode management, that is definitely not the case. Nematode management research in tobacco has a long history and is actually more advanced than many other crops.

Plant resistance has been identified and breeders have successfully incorporated cyst and root-knot nematode resistance into quite a number of varieties. Crop rotation and early root destruction have been effective in reducing nematodes and secondary root and soil diseases. Finally, new nematodes under development hold some promise for future nematode management with reduced toxicity and environmental impacts. The information provided here is designed to aid in understanding nematode pathogens and options for nematode management to improve tobacco yields and quality in a sustainable manner.



Jim LaMonda, Connecticut Agricultural Experiment Station, USA
Nematode Group Coordinator

73

A.2. Bacterial Diseases

15. Wildfire, Angular Leaf Spot

Pseudomonas syringae pv. *tabaci* tox+ tox-
(formerly known as *P. tabaci*, *P. angularis*; also *P. syringae* pv. *tabaci*, *P. syringae* pv. *angularis*)
Anne Fisher, University of Kentucky, USA

General

Wildfire and angular leaf spot can affect tobacco in both the seedbeds / float trays and the field, although wildfire tends to be more of a problem in the seedbeds and angular leaf spot in the field. Wildfire and angular leaf spot are not major problems in many tobacco producing areas, such as the USA, Brazil, and Europe. In Africa, they are diseases of major importance which can cause devastating losses, especially in wet seasons. The bacteria that cause wildfire and angular leaf spot are identical in all respects except that the wildfire bacteria produce a toxin and the angular bacteria do not. Wildfire is therefore caused by the "tox+" strain and angular leaf spot by the "tox-" strain.

Symptoms

The symptoms of the tox+ (toxin producing) and tox- (non-toxin producing) forms of this disease are quite different.

Wildfire (tox+) is characterized by a small brown or black watersoaked lesion, surrounded by a broad chlorotic halo (Figs. 15.1A, 15.2). The lesions increase in diameter and may coalesce until the diseased tissue eventually falls out leaving ragged holes. Wildfire can be systemic in seedlings, causing distortion (Fig. 15.4) of the apical bud, veins and leaves.

The angular (tox-) lesion is brown, dark brown or black, much larger than the wildfire lesion, has little or no chlorotic halo, and has angular margins because the lesion is confined by the lateral veins (Figs. 15.1B, 15.3, 15.5). In Africa, both diseases tend to be more severe at the top of the plant (Figs. 15.2, 15.3).

Source and Transmission

The bacteria are spread in wind-driven water droplets, from leaf to leaf and plant to plant within the field, from field to field and from infected weed hosts or tobacco regrowth. Driving rains and sand blasting winds exacerbate the problem considerably. These diseases can also be seed transmitted. Tobacco regrowth and debris from infected plants should always be destroyed at the end of the season, as they are sources of inoculum to infect overwintering weed hosts. In the semi-tropical areas where these diseases are a problem, winters are seldom cold enough to kill overwintering weeds and tobacco regrowth. Wildfire and angular leaf spot are favoured by cloudy wet weather.

Rotation and Site Selection

Disease spread is reduced by planting earlier fields downwind of later planted fields; the earlier planted fields often serve as an inoculum source. These diseases are generally worse in intensively used fields, and can be minimised by suitable rotations (Ch. 77).

Alternate Hosts

Many solanaceous weeds are hosts of this pathogen (Ch. 61). Examples are Apple of Peru (*Nicandra physaloides*) and Jimson weed / stinkbiliar (*Datura stramonium*), shown in Fig. 15.6. Such weeds should be removed from the proximity of the fields and especially seedbeds / greenhouses. This is particularly important in areas which do not have killing winter frosts, where weeds overwinter.

A.2. Bacterial Diseases

Tobacco Research Board of Zimbabwe. Handbook of recommendations.
Shew, H. D. and G.B. Lucas, Eds. 1991. Wildfire and Angular Leaf Spot. Pages 30-32 in: Compendium of Tobacco Diseases. APS Press. ISBN: 0-89054-117-5.



Fig. 15.1: Wildfire and angular lesions. A: Wildfire, with chlorotic halo surrounding lesion
B: Angular, with no chlorotic halo and angular margins



Fig. 15.2: Wildfire; *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *tabaci* (tox+)



Fig. 15.3: Angular; *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *tabaci* (tox-)

Alternate Hosts

Many solanaceous weeds are hosts of this pathogen (Ch. 61). Examples are *A. Peru* (*Nicandra physaloides*) and Jimson weed / stinkblaar (*Datura stramonium*), in Fig. 15.6. Such weeds should be removed from the proximity of the fields and seedbeds / greenhouses. This is particularly important in areas which do not have winter frosts, where weeds overwinter.

D.1. Field Weeds

61. Weeds as Alternate Hosts to Other Pests

Andy Bailey, University of Kentucky, USA

General

Weeds can act as major hosts for diseases, nematodes and insects. Many weeds that commonly occur around tobacco fields can harbor other pests and result in increased infection on tobacco crops. Generally, weed species that have the closest botanical relationship to tobacco, (i.e. solanaceous weed species) are most likely to harbor pests that can infest tobacco. However, many plant species with little botanical relationship to tobacco can also serve as hosts.

Reference materials used to construct Tables 61.1 – 61.5 include Daub et al. (991), Groves et al. (2002), Wisler and Norris (2005) and Lucas (1975).

Diseases

Tables 61.1 – 61.3 list weed species that commonly act as alternate hosts for tobacco diseases. Many diseases have an extremely wide host range, and so only the number of species, families, genera, or most common host species are listed.

Table 61.1: Common weeds that serve as alternate hosts for fungal tobacco diseases

Disease	Causal Agent	Host Species	Plant Families	Common Weedy Hosts
Fusarium Wilt	<i>Fusarium oxysporum</i> f.sp. <i>nicotianae</i>	Many		
Verticillium Wilt	<i>Verticillium albo-atrum</i>	250	Dicots	
Olipidium Seedling Blight	<i>Olipidium brassicae</i>	Many	Most common: Cruciferae Graminae Brassicaceae	Shepherds-purse (<i>Capsella bursa-pastoris</i>) Common lambsquarters (<i>Chenopodium album</i>) White poplar (<i>Populus alba</i>)
Black Root Rot	<i>Thielaviopsis basicola</i>	137	33 Most common: Fabaceae Solanaceae Cucurbitaceae	
Charcoal Rot	<i>Macrophomina phaseoli</i>	>300		

Ch 61 Weeds as Alternate Hosts to Other Pests

137

QUESTIONS?

