Department of Primary Industries
and Regional Development

NSW GOVERNMENT

Berry plant protection guide 2025–26

NSW PRIMARY INDUSTRIES MANAGEMENT GUIDE




Melinda Simpson and Gaius Leong

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Department of Primary Industries and Regional Development

Berry plant protection guide

2025–26

Melinda Simpson
Development Officer – Blueberries
NSW Department of Primary Industries and Regional Development
Wollongbar Primary Industries Institute
1243 Bruxner Highway, Wollongbar, NSW 2477
m: 0447 081 765
e: melinda.simpson@dpi.nsw.gov.au

Gaius Leong
Development Officer – Blueberries
NSW Department of Primary Industries and Regional Development
Coffs Harbour Primary Industries Office
1/30 Park Avenue, Coffs Harbour, NSW 2450
m: 0484 055 748
e: gaius.leong@dpi.nsw.gov.au

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Contents

About this guide

This is the fifth edition of the *Berry plant protection guide*. It is the latest in a series of similar publications that have served the horticulture industry for over 60 years, providing up-to-date information on all aspects of protecting your orchard from pests and diseases. This edition has an integrated pest management (IPM) focus, providing information on a range of different methods that can be used to manage pests and diseases in berry crops.

Distribution

The guide aims to provide commercial berry growers with up-to-date technical information on all aspects of crop protection. It is available free to Australian blueberry, raspberry, blackberry and strawberry growers. The guide is also available to download from the NSW DPIRD website (www.dpi.nsw.gov.au/agriculture/horticulture/berries).

Pesticides

We do not list every pesticide that is registered for a specific use but rather guide growers in their choice of chemicals. It is our policy to use common chemical names or active ingredients rather than trade names when referring to pesticides, crop regulation compounds and nutrient sprays. This is because there can be many product names for the same active ingredient and it would be impossible to list them all at each mention in the guide.

Under the pesticide registration system administered by the Australian Pesticides and Veterinary Medicines Authority (APVMA, https://portal.apvma.gov.au/pubcris), individual products are registered for use in or on specific crops for specific weeds, pests or diseases. Also, there can be variations in use recommendations between states for the same crop, even differences in times of application or treatment intervals.

Using common chemical names in recommendations is intended to simplify the advice. It also means that at least one product containing that active ingredient is registered for the purpose given. Pesticide users must follow all label and permit instructions.

Pesticide use is under constant scrutiny through residue surveys. These valuable tools for fruit production must not be misused.

Always read the label

Users of agricultural chemical products must always read the label and any permit before using the product and strictly comply with the directions on the label and the conditions of any permit. Users are not absolved from any compliance with the directions on the label or the conditions of the permit by reason of any statement made or omitted to be made in this publication.

Permits

Some of the chemical use patterns quoted in this publication are approved under permits issued by the APVMA and in force at the time the publication was prepared. Anyone wishing to use a chemical in a manner approved under permit should obtain a copy of the relevant permit and approved use pattern from the supplier of the product at the point of sale and must read all the details, conditions and limitations relevant to that permit, and must comply with the details, conditions and limitations before and during use. Permits can be downloaded from the APVMA (https://portal.apvma.gov.au/permits).

Acknowledgements

We thank the officers of NSW DPIRD and other organisations who have helped to produce the guide. Once again, agricultural chemical companies have provided information on their products and helpful suggestions and we thank them for their involvement and interest.

We welcome suggestions, comments and ideas from growers and technical people alike, which will improve the usefulness and relevance of the guide.

Melinda Simpson and Gaius Leong.

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WHAT CAN YOU DO?

- use NSW WeedWise to find out about the biosecurity duties for weeds in your area (go to **weeds.dpi.nsw.gov.au** or get the app)
- talk to your local council weeds officer about weeds on your property
- control and prevent weeds spreading on and from your property

For more information about the *Biosecurity Act 2015* visit **www.dpi.nsw.gov.au/biosecuritylegislation** or email **biosecuritylegislation@dpi.nsw.gov.au**

Feature article: chilli thrips

Helen Newman, Berry Industry Development Officer at Agricultural Produce Commission

Chilli thrips

Scirtothrips dorsalis

Chilli thrips, also known as strawberry or yellow tea thrips, are sap-sucking insects with a wide host range, including native plant species. They are notoriously difficult to manage and are most active during spring, summer, and autumn. Higher temperatures and dryness create conditions conducive to their feeding, reproduction, and spread.

Chilli thrips are a known vector of several viruses including tomato spotted wilt virus and tobacco streak virus.

Risk period

Table 1. The peak risk period for chilli thrips.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Pest identification and damage

Chilli thrips are pale yellow. They are very small (0.5–1.2 mm long) and hard to distinguish from other thrips species without a microscope. Key distinguishing features include red ocelli (simple eyes or visual sensors found in many insects), 8-segmented antennae and 2 pairs of bristles below the prothorax (Figure 1). The chilli thrips life cycle lasts 15–40 days, depending on temperature and the host plant (Figure 2).

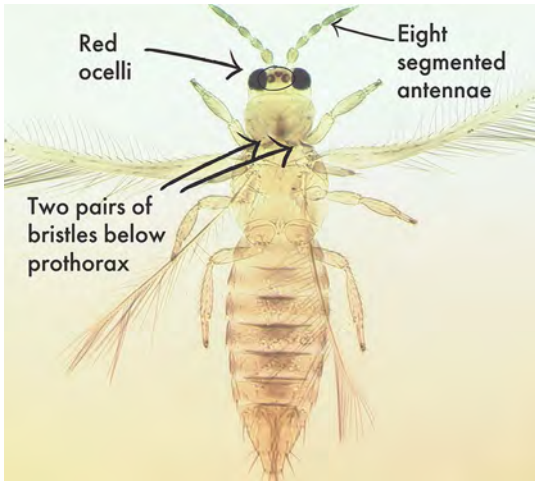

Figure 1. The distinguishing features of chilli thrips.

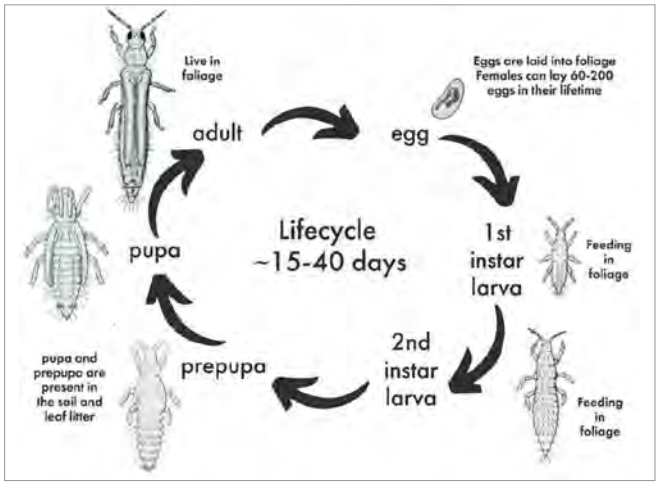

Figure 2. The chilli thrips life cycle. Source: JR Baker, NC State University.

Chilli thrips feed on tender plant parts, which results in feeding scars, distorted leaves and shoots, and discoloured buds, flowers, and young fruits.

Strawberries

Heavy feeding in strawberries causes reddening and darkening of leaf veins and petioles (Figure 3A). With severe infestations, the entire leaf turns dark, crinkled, and deformed (Figure 3B). Fruit damage is shown as bronzing and cracking, which reduces crop yields (Figure 3C).

Blueberries

Bronzing on new flush might be the first indication of chilli thrips in blueberries. Heavy infestations cause flower abortion and leaf defoliation with extensive curling of leaves and shoots (Figure 4).

Blackberries

Early signs of damage in blackberries are browning and dehydration of the leaf margins. With heavy infestations, leaf margins start to curl upwards. Fruit might be distorted with individual drupelets appearing dehydrated (Figure 5).

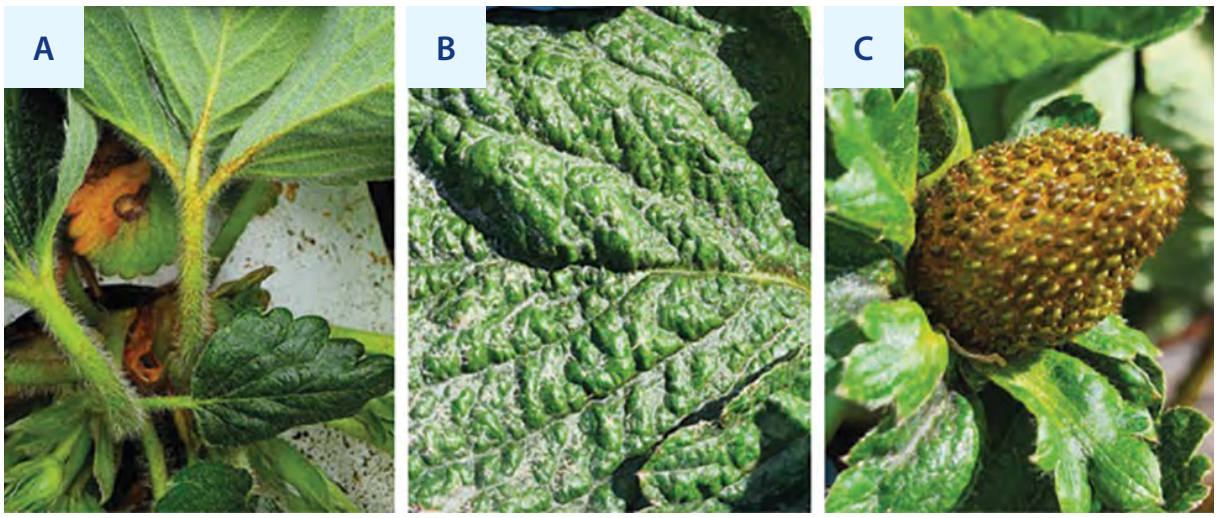

Figure 3. Symptoms of chilli thrips damage in strawberries. Photos: Cezar Moraes, Biological Services.

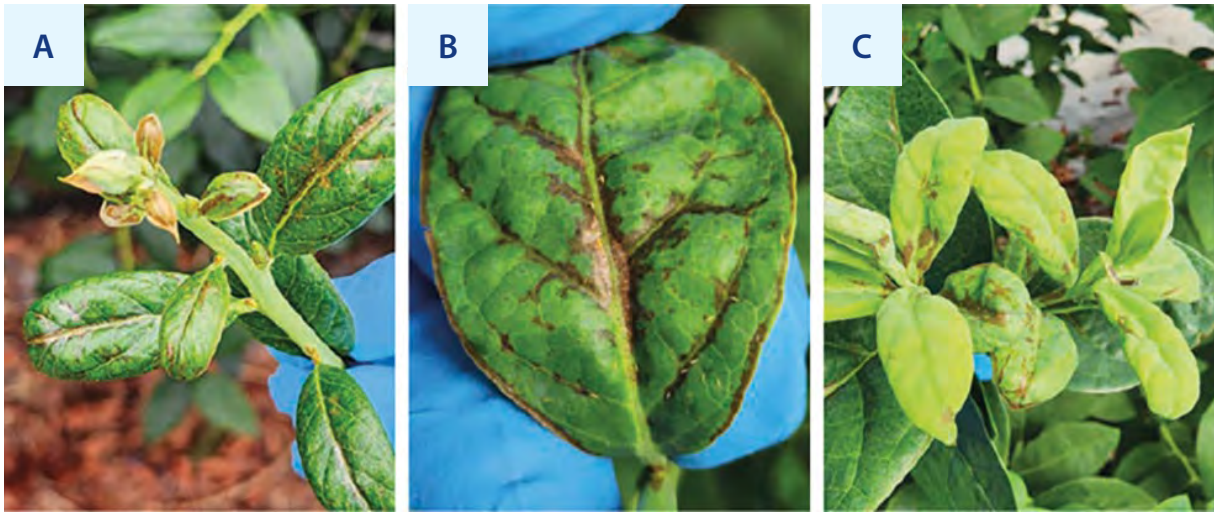

Figure 4. Symptoms of chilli thrips damage in blueberry. Photos: Cezar Moraes, Biological Services.

Figure 5. Symptoms of chilli thrips damage in blackberry. Photos: Elliot Howse, WA DPIRD.

Management

The environment and where they are on the plant will influence chilli thrips' behaviour and life cycles, which makes managing them difficult. A better understanding of their behaviour on various hosts is needed. Potential management strategies are being tested in WA.

Cultural and physical

Potential cultural management options that could be tested include using:

- overhead watering to knock thrips off the foliage onto the ground where they are vulnerable
- calcined kaolin foliar sprays to deter thrips
- reflective mulch to deter thrips from entering the crop
- barriers over the pot or ground to stop pupae from dropping into substrate/soil and prevent existing pupae from emerging
- coloured netting to deter thrips from entering the crop.

Biological

Chilli thrips populations develop rapidly, often overwhelming biological controls. Strawberry growers have successfully managed the thrips by reducing populations with a rotation of soft chemistries before releasing predators such as Cucumeris and Orius. Cucumeris mites (*Neoseiulus cucumeris*) feed on small (1st and 2nd instar) thrips on foliage and flowers but prefer an environment with greater than 65% relative humidity, which is challenging during the warmer months in WA. All life stages of Orius (*Orius tantillus*) feed on thrips, and adults can kill up to 20 thrips a day.

So far, biological controls have not been successful in blueberry and Rubus crops.

Some other biological controls that could be tested include:

- *Steinernema feltiae*: this predatory nematode feeds on pupae and larvae mainly in the soil/ or substrate.
- *Franklinothrips vespiformis*: these predatory thrips potentially feeds on all life stages.
- Entomopathogenic fungi (soil and foliar applied).

Chemical

Managing chilli thrips with chemicals is challenging as they:

- can move to surrounding weed crops to take refuge
- lay eggs inside the leaf tissue where they are protected from pesticide sprays
- can hide in concealed places such as leaf curls or under fruit calyxes where they are protected from sprays
- are prone to pesticide resistance, so rotation of chemical groups is essential.

The chemical treatment option for chilli thrips is listed in Table 2.

Table 2. Registered or permitted product for chilli thrips in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Insecticide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Isocycloseram (SIMODIS®) PER94616 (expires 30.4.26; all states and territories except Vic)	30	High	Not required when used as directed	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries, strawberries

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Farm biosecurity for the berry industry: managing the risks

Dr Zac Hemmings, Plant Biosecurity and Product Integrity, NSW DPIRD

What is biosecurity and why is it important?

Biosecurity is a set of measures to protect your crops and property from the negative effects of pests, diseases and weeds. Australia is free from many major pests and diseases present elsewhere in the world. This pest-free status provides several benefits, including reduced cost of agricultural production, increased agricultural productivity, and access to international markets. A pest's effect is not limited to economic damage; it can also negatively affect society, people's health, and the environment.

Biosecurity risks can be managed by:

- preventing entry of pests and diseases
- finding, detecting, and eradicating pests
- minimising the effect of those pests that cannot be eradicated.

These principles apply to government departments managing biosecurity (national or state) and growers to prevent the spread of pests and diseases on their property.

How can I protect my farm?

The best defence against pests, diseases and weeds is to implement sound biosecurity practices. It is more cost-effective to prevent pests from getting on your farm in the first place than it is to eradicate or manage them once there. Anything that involves the movement of people, plant material, or other items that can carry pests is a biosecurity risk.

People

Visitors can bring pests and diseases to your property on clothing, footwear, and tools. Visitors who have recently travelled overseas and those who visit multiple properties, such as casual workers, tourists, and contractors, are particularly high risk. Measures to mitigate the risks associated with the movement of people include:

- Maintaining a visitor log and requiring all visitors to sign in. This can be achieved with a physical logbook in the farm office or digitally using QR codes.
- Establishing biosecurity zones on your property to help manage where people move on and around the property. Fences or barriers can be erected to minimise the movement of people and vehicles between zones, and signs can be used to direct visitors and staff.
- Ensuring that everyone understands their biosecurity obligations and what is expected of them. Conduct site inductions with visitors, train employees, and place signs at key points (e.g. foot bath stations).
- Clothing can transmit pests and diseases, such as fungal spores.
  - All visitors should thoroughly wash their hands upon arrival.
  - Travellers from overseas should shower and wash their clothing before entering the property.
  - Workers and contractors should use clean gloves when in production areas. Clean gloves should not be used to handle dirty tools or vehicles as this can result in contamination.
- Everyone entering the property should ensure their footwear is clean and free from soil and plant material. There are several ways to achieve this, such as providing footbaths filled with water and a disinfectant that visitors and employees must use. Alternatively, you might require them to use footwear you provide that is only to be worn in certain areas of the farm.
- Purchase a sturdy plastic tub for a footbath or make your own from on-farm materials, such as leftover intermediate bulk containers (IBCs).
  - Disinfectants cannot penetrate dirt and mud. Stiff brushes, screwdrivers, hoof picks, or high-pressure hoses can be used to remove all dirt and plant matter before using the footbath.

  - Footbaths should have a hard surface or tarp on entry and exit to reduce tracking soil into them.
  - Footbaths should be undercover or have a lid to prevent them from overflowing during high rainfall.
  - Water in the footbath should be changed regularly to prevent it from becoming excessively dirty. This dirty water should be disposed of safely and away from crops.
  - A variety of disinfectants are available for use in footbaths and to clean equipment. Bleach is readily available and effective against various pests and pathogens. When used in a footbath, bleach should be diluted to 1% active sodium hypochlorite (the active ingredient in bleach). If you are concerned about more resilient pathogens, consider other disinfectants such as Virkon S, Powerquat, or F10SC. Note that some disinfectants are caustic and might damage clothing and equipment. Always use products as per label instructions.

Vehicles, equipment, and machinery

Vehicles present a large biosecurity risk as they can transport soil and plant material that might carry pests or diseases. There are several ways to minimise the risk of vehicles introducing pests to your property.

- Use signs to inform visitors about property access points and parking areas.
- Have designated parking areas for visitor vehicles and ensure they only travel along marked roads. A vehicle should only enter a production area if it is necessary.
- Request that any contractor vehicles or earth-moving equipment be cleaned and inspect them to ensure they are free from soil, mud, and other contaminants before they enter your property.
- Rather than allowing outside vehicles into production areas, have them park in designated parking areas and transfer passengers to dedicated farm vehicles that only operate within production areas.
- If your operation requires frequent movement of off-farm vehicles into production areas, consider establishing dedicated vehicle wash-down facilities at entrances and exits. Wash-down facilities should have a hard surface and a disinfectant, and wastewater should be contained in the sump or collection area.
- Always practice 'come clean, go clean'. All vehicles and machinery entering and exiting production and packing areas should be free from mud, dirt, and plant material. When cleaning vehicles:
  - park the vehicle on a hard surface
  - use high-pressure water to remove gross matter: target areas frequently exposed to dirt and plant material, such as wheel arches, tyres, side steps, and the underbody of the vehicle
  - apply a suitable disinfectant to the outside of the vehicles and any interior parts exposed to dirt, such as floor mats and footwells
  - rinse the disinfectant from all surfaces.

Passengers should disinfect footwear in a footbath.

Tools and equipment are a common vector for plant diseases and pose a significant biosecurity risk. Tools that come into contact with the plant, such as pruning equipment, can transmit plant diseases.

- If contractors or workers bring their tools, ensure the tools are disinfected before being used on your property, especially if they have been on other farms recently.
- If possible, keep tools on the farm rather than having them move off-site. Depending on the scale and nature of your business, it might be possible to provide workers with dedicated, clean, on-farm tools.
- Ensure that tools are regularly cleaned and disinfected.

Farm inputs

Plant and propagation material can carry pests and diseases.

- Maintain planting records including how many plants of each variety were purchased, who supplied them, date of purchase, date of planting, and where on the farm they were planted.
- Only purchase propagation material from reputable sources. Where possible, use clean planting

material that has been tested for pathogens. Request information from the supplier on any pathogen testing or other plant health documentation that might be required. Where possible, the supplier should have a biosecurity management plan to manage the biosecurity risks on their property.

- Propagation material should be inspected for pests and diseases before bringing it into production areas. Many diseases cannot be detected before symptoms are present, so new plants should be kept separate from established plants and frequently monitored for signs of pests or diseases.
- Have a quarantine area where farm inputs are isolated from production areas. This includes materials such as pallets and packaging, which could contain endemic and exotic pests. Regularly monitor this area for pests and diseases.
- Ensure fertilisers and growing media are free from pests and comply with relevant standards and certifications.
- Bees can act as vectors for pests and diseases. Beehives can carry mud and plant material that can spread disease. Ask where hives have been before coming on to your property. Bees themselves are at risk from pests and diseases.
- Water can carry diseases, and run-off can transfer diseases to your irrigation source. Treat water to reduce the risk of spreading diseases. Where possible, divert run-off from production areas away from the dam. Only use new irrigation equipment.
- Ensure that water in designated parking and visitors' areas does not run into production areas.

This is not an exhaustive list of plant biosecurity practices. Biosecurity is not a one-size-fits-all situation, and what is suitable for one property might not be appropriate for another. The best approach is to assess the specific biosecurity risks associated with your operation and determine how you can feasibly manage these risks. Remember, there might be multiple ways to manage a risk; consider what works for you.

Biosecurity management plans

A biosecurity management plan is a document that outlines the measures put in place to mitigate the risks of pests and diseases at a property. They are a tool to help you manage the biosecurity risks associated with your operations. Biosecurity management plans are enforceable under NSW law, and people entering areas where a plan applies must comply with the measures outlined in the plan.

Biosecurity management plans are:

- **Not a compliance tool for the government**. They are not audited, and there is no legal requirement for a property to have a biosecurity management plan. Some industry certification and accreditation schemes, however, might require participants to have a plan to acquire or maintain accreditation.
- **Not a tool to restrict access** by police, emergency services, authorised inspectors, or utility service providers. They should, however, follow the measures outlined in the biosecurity management plan where practical.

Biosecurity management plans apply to a property, not a business. If your business operates on multiple properties, you will need a plan for each. A plan does not need to apply to an entire property; it might only apply to specific areas within a property where production, processing, or movement of biosecurity material takes place.

What does a biosecurity management plan look like?

NSW legislation does not require biosecurity management plans to follow a specific structure or format; they can be as simple or complex as required. A biosecurity plan containing a few basic biosecurity practices might only be a few pages with dot points, yet a large business striving for best practices might have many pages. While biosecurity management plans can take many forms, they should include:

- a map of the property, with any zoning clearly marked
- identification of biosecurity risks and the specific actions to mitigate these risks

- any procedures or instructions visitors and staff must follow; this might include step-by-step instructions for washing down vehicles or entering production areas.

The only requirements for a biosecurity management plan to be valid under NSW legislation are:

- It contains reasonable measures to prevent, eliminate, or minimise biosecurity risks.
- You must have adopted the plan and followed the requirements set out in it; you cannot expect visitors to follow the plan if you and your staff do not.
- It must be clear where the plan applies; this means there must be a sign at each entrance to the property to which the plan applies. These signs must:
  - advise that a plan is in place
  - outline that it might be an offence under the *NSW Biosecurity Act (2015)* for a person to fail to comply with the measures set out in the plan
  - state how a copy of the plan can be obtained
  - inform visitors how they can contact you; usually, this means having a clear and legible contact number on the sign (Figure 6).

Figure 6. A biosecurity sign with space for the appropriate contact phone number to be displayed.

Biosecurity signs placed around farms are not enforceable without a biosecurity plan.

For more information about biosecurity management plans in NSW, including templates for biosecurity signs, visit the NSW DPIRD website (https://www.dpi.nsw.gov.au/biosecurity/your-role-in-biosecurity/primary-producers/biosecurity-management-plan).

Reporting exotic pests

Early detection and reporting are essential for successfully eradicating or minimising exotic pests.

If you suspect that an exotic pest is present in your farm or garden, you can report it by:

- Phoning the exotic plant pest hotline on **1800 084 881**. This is a national reporting hotline; when calling from NSW, you will be directed to NSW DPIRD.
- Emailing report details directly to biosecurity@dpi.nsw.gov.au
- Submitting report details via the online webform on the NSW DPIRD website.

All reports are taken seriously and are treated confidentially. When submitting a report you will be asked to provide information, including:

- Your name and contact details.
- Location of the pest or disease.
- Name of the affected plant, a description of the pest or disease, and of the symptoms and/or the damage caused to the plant.
- Several clear photographs showing:
  - the affected plant and its wider environment
  - and a close-up of the symptoms and/or pest.

High-priority exotic pests

Several pests not currently in Australia have been identified as high-priority pests of the berry industry. If these pests were to enter Australia, they could become established in most berry-growing regions and would negatively affect yields and production costs. Some of these pests include bacterial leaf scorch (*Xylella fastidiosa*), Japanese beetle (*Popillia japonica*), spotted wing drosophila (*Drosophila suzukii*) and the brown marmorated stink bug. This is not a comprehensive list of high-priority pests; if you see anything unusual, such as a strange insect causing damage, plants displaying new symptoms, or familiar symptoms on a new plant or variety, you should report it to the exotic plant pest hotline on **1800 084 881**.

Xylella fastidiosa

Xylella fastidiosa is a bacterial pathogen capable of infecting more than 450 plant species, including blueberries and Rubus. The bacterium inhabits the xylem of its host, the part of the plant's vascular system responsible for transporting water and nutrients from the roots to the stems and leaves. It is an extremely destructive plant pathogen; there is no treatment, and infected plants will eventually die.

The build-up of bacteria within the xylem inhibits the movement of water, causing a progression of symptoms. Initially, leaf edges become scorched, giving the disease its name, 'bacterial leaf scorch'. This scorching progresses towards the middle of the leaf, with infected leaves being dropped by the plant. The stems will turn yellow (Figure 7), and finally the plant dies. Symptoms typically develop within the first year of infection and generally continue through a second season. These symptoms are shared with other diseases, nutrient deficiencies, and abiotic stressors. The yellowing of stems combined with the loss of all leaves is one of the best indicators that a berry plant is infected with *X. fastidiosa*.

Xylella fastidiosa can only be spread between host plants through grafting infected plant material or by xylem-feeding insects, most notably the exotic glassy-winged sharpshooter and meadow spittlebug (Figure 8).

Figure 7. Blueberry plants with symptoms of *Xylella fastidiosa* infection: leaf scorch (A, B) and stem yellowing (C). Photos: Phillip M Brannen, University of Georgia.

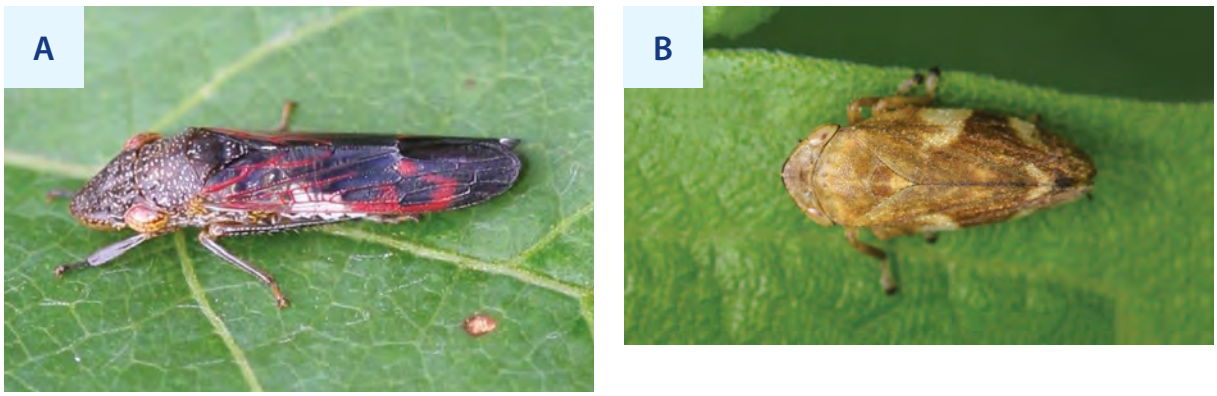

Figure 8. A) glassy-winged sharpshooter (photo: Johnny N Dell, Auburn University, Bugwood.org) and B) meadow spittlebug (photo: Ryan Hodnett, inaturalist.org/observations/7838025).

Japanese beetle (Popillia japonica)

The Japanese beetle is a small, brightly coloured scarab beetle. Adults are 8–11 mm long with a metallic green head and coppery bronze wings. There are similar looking beetles in Australia (e.g. the dung beetle *Onitis alexis*), but a key feature of this pest is the 6 tufts of white hair running down each side (Figure 9A). These tufts are not unique to the Japanese beetle, but other species that share this feature are also exotic to Australia. It is a voracious pest that feeds on over 400 plant species, including blueberry, Rubus, and strawberry.

Adults feed on the leaves, flowers, and fruit and can skeletonise leaves. They congregate in large groups to feed, typically starting at the top of the host and moving downwards. These aggregations can completely strip a plant of its leaves and often feed on fruit, rendering it unsuitable for market (Figure 9B). Large infestations can result in crop losses of >60%, or even 100%, because while not all fruit is damaged, picking the crop becomes uneconomical.

Female beetles lay their eggs in moist soil and prefer irrigated environments, such as golf courses and turf farms. Larvae inhabit the soil, where they are a major pest of grasses. They will consume grass roots in summer and autumn before overwintering in the deeper soil layers. In early spring, they move back to the surface, with adult beetles usually emerging in late spring to early summer.

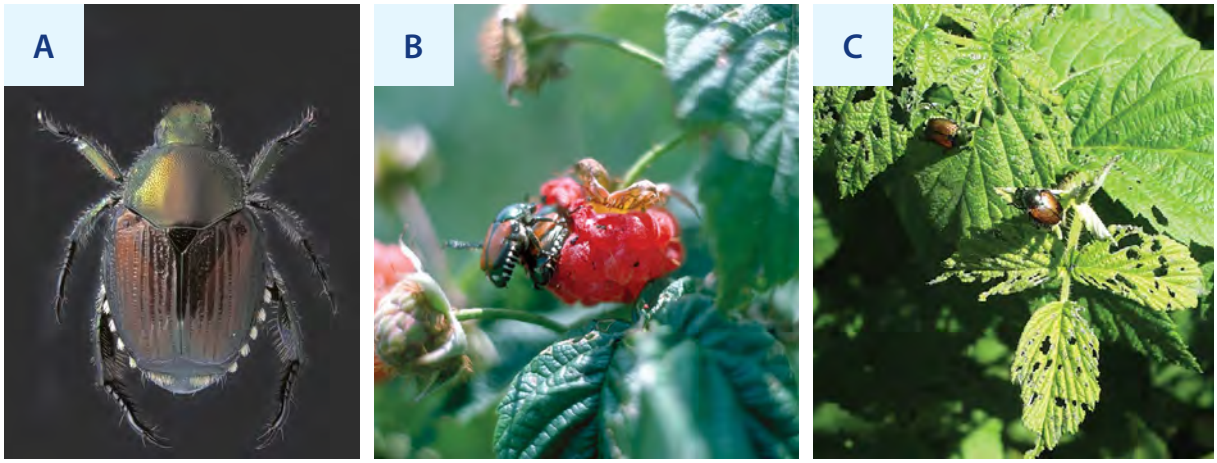

Figure 9. A) adult Japanese beetle (photo: Susan Ellis, Bugwood.org), B) Japanese beetles on a raspberry (photo: European and Mediterranean Plant Protection Organisation, Bugwood.org), and C) light Japanese beetle damage to raspberry leaves (photo: Whitney Cranshaw, Colorado State University, Bugwood.org).

Spotted wing drosophila (Drosophila suzukii)

Spotted wing drosophila (SWD) is a pest of soft-skinned fruit, including blueberries, Rubus, and strawberries. It is a member of the genus *Drosophila*, which is the same group as vinegar flies, which are commonly found around bins and compost. Where vinegar flies reproduce in fermenting and rotting fruit, SWD prefers to lay eggs inside undamaged and slightly under-ripe fruit. Once the eggs hatch, larvae consume the fruit's flesh, leaving it unsuitable for all markets. Once fruit has been infested, there are no viable options for control or redirection to other markets. Yield losses of up to 80% have been reported, but 30–40% losses are more common.

Adults are 2–3 mm long, with red eyes and yellow-brown bodies (Figure 10A). Male flies have a dark spot on the end of their wings but otherwise appear similar to other *Drosophila* species. Flies emerge in spring and are typically active from October to May, although some adults will be active if it is warm enough in the winter. Development from egg to adult can take as little as 9 days, with up to 15 generations a year, depending on conditions. Often the first sign of a SWD infestation is the presence of scars and maggots on otherwise healthy fruit (Figure 10B).

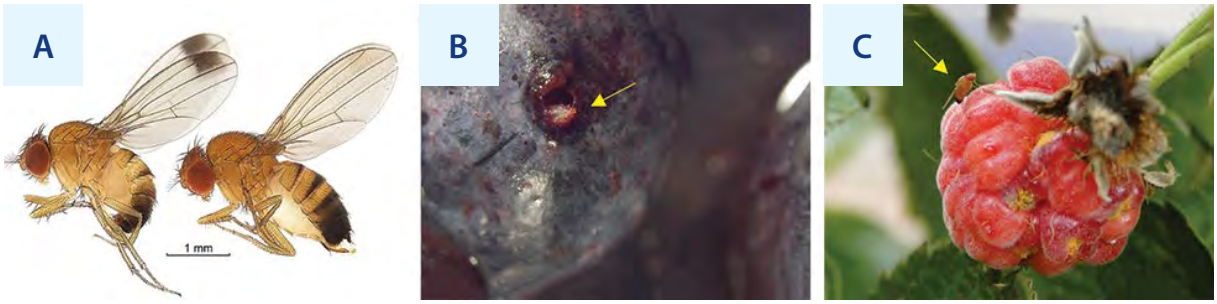

Figure 10. A) male and female spotted wing drosophila (photo: Shane F McEvey, Australian Museum), B) oviposition hole and larvae in a blueberry (photo: Frank A Hale, Bugwood.org), and C) spotted wing drosophila on a Rubus berry (photo: Hanna Burack, Bugwood.org).

Brown marmorated stink bug

The brown marmorated stink bug (BMSB) is a highly invasive species. It is extremely polyphagous, with over 300 known hosts, attacking most commercially grown fruit and vegetable species. It is frequently intercepted at the border in shipping containers and vehicles from late spring to late autumn. Overseas travellers also pose a risk as there have been reports of BMSB in travellers' luggage and clothing. These interceptions result from the overwintering behaviour of BMSB, where large groups seek shelter to hibernate during the colder months in the northern hemisphere.

Adult BMSBs are 12–17 mm long and are generally a mottled brown (Figure 11). The key features that differentiate BMSB from similar species of stink bugs are white bands on the antennae, alternating black and white stripes along the sides of the body, and a rounded head and shoulders.

Brown marmorated stink bugs feed by piercing the plant with specialised mouthparts, injecting saliva and removing fluids. This can result in sunken areas on the fruit surface, deformed fruit and shrivelled seed pods, pale spongey areas on the fruit surface, internal tissue damage, and rotting or corking flesh. This also creates an opportunity for secondary infection by bacteria and fungi.

Not only is it a plant pest, but its overwintering behaviour also makes it a serious social pest. In countries where it is established, groups of thousands of BMSB will often seek shelter inside houses and under eaves, where their excrement can damage buildings. When disturbed, they release a foul-smelling liquid, which can cause skin irritation and eye injuries.

Figure 11. The size of a brown marmorated stink bug adult (middle) and nymph (right) relative to a $1 coin. Adapted from photos by Susan Ellis, Bugwood.org.

How to use this guide

Finding the information you need is as easy as 1–2–3.

Step 1: go to Table 3 or Table 4 and find the pest or disease you are interested in. These are listed alphabetically under the column titled 'Common name'.

Step 2: check to see if the pest or disease is considered a major problem in your crop. If there is a red cross (X) in the cells intersected by the pest or disease and the crop, then that crop is not likely to be affected. If there is a green tick (✓) in the cells intersected by the pest or disease and the crop, then the crop is likely to be affected by it and control strategies are recommended.

Step 3: scan across the table to find the relevant page number for the pest or disease. The icons shown in Figure 12 to Figure 15 are used to identify the crops in this guide.

Figure 12. The blueberry icon. Source: PNG Tree.

Figure 13. The raspberry icon. Source: PNG Tree.

Figure 14. The blackberry icon. Source: PNG Tree.

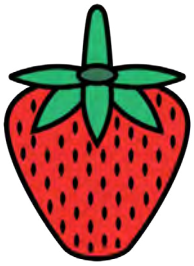

Figure 15. The strawberry icon. Source: Vectorstock.

Alternatively, visit the contents table (Page 3) and search for the pest or disease there. The contents table also includes details of other important plant protection articles on subjects such as crop regulation, avoiding spray drift and responsible pesticide use.

This guide provides berry growers with suggestions for managing the main pests and diseases with the responsible use of pesticides (Page 107). For pesticides to be most effective, implementing practices such as integrated pest, disease and weed management (IPDWM) is essential. Good management and anti-resistance strategies must also be strictly followed.

Weather influences the pests and diseases that affect berries. By observing the weather, berry growers can predict the occurrence and severity of some pest and disease outbreaks and only spray when a threat exists. Watching the weather and knowing the conditions for pests and diseases are essential.

These steps are crucial in managing chemical resistance, prolonging the life of pesticides and achieving effective pest and disease control.

Diseases affecting berries

Table 3. Diseases affecting berries in Australia.

Common name	Scientific name	Which crops are primarily affected?				Where to look
		Blueberries 	Raspberries 	Blackberries 	Strawberries 	
Alternaria fruit rot	*Alternaria* spp.	✓	✓	✓	✓	Page 26
Anthracnose	*Colletotrichum simmondsii*	✓	✓	✓	✓	Page 27
Bacterial blight/canker	*Pseudomonas syringae*	✓	X	X	X	Page 29
Blueberry rust	*Pucciniastrum minimum*	✓	X	X	X	Page 30
Cane spot	*Elsinöe veneta*	X	✓	✓	X	Page 32
Charcoal rot	*Macrophomina phaseolina*	X	X	X	✓	Page 33
Cladosporium fruit rot	*Cladosporium* spp.	X	✓	X	X	Page 34
Crown gall	*Agrobacterium tumefaciens*	✓	X	✓	X	Page 35
Downy mildew	*Peronospora* spp.	X	X	✓	X	Page 36
Fusarium wilt	*Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp *fragariae*	X	X	X	✓	Page 37
Grey mould/flower blight	*Botrytis cinerea*	✓	✓	✓	✓	Page 38
Leaf blotch and stem end rot	*Gnomomiopsis fructicola*	X	X	X	✓	Page 43
Neopestalotiopsis	*Neopestalotiopsis* spp.	✓	X	X	✓	Page 44
Phomopsis blight	*Phomopsis* spp.	✓	X	X	✓	Page 45
Phytophthora crown and root rot	*Phytophthora* spp.	✓	✓	✓	✓	Page 46
Powdery mildew	*Podosphaera macularis* and *Erysiphe* spp.	X	✓	✓	✓	Page 48
Stem blight	*Neofusicoccum* spp., *Lasiodiplodia* spp. and *Botryosphaeria dothidea*	✓	X	X	X	Page 51
Yellow rust	*Phragmidium rubi-idaei*	X	✓	X	X	Page 52

Pests affecting berries

Table 4. Pests affecting berries in Australia.

Common name	Scientific name	Which crops are primarily affected?				
		Blueberries 	Raspberries 	Blackberries 	Strawberries 	Where to look
Aphids (green peach aphid)	*Myzus persicae*	✓	✓	✓	✓	Page 53
Blueberry stem girdler	*Idiophantis habrias*	✓	X	X	X	Page 55
Broad mite	*Polyphagotarsonemus latus*	X	✓	✓	✓	Page 57
Cottonseed bug	*Oxycarenus luctuosus*	X	✓	✓	X	Page 59
Dried fruit beetle (Carpophilus beetle)	*Carpophilus* spp.	✓	✓	✓	✓	Page 60
Elephant weevil	*Orthorhinus cylindrirostris*	✓	X	X	X	Page 61
European earwig	*Forficula auricularia*	✓	✓	✓	✓	Page 63
Foliar nematodes	*Aphelenchoides* spp.	X	X	X	✓	Page 64
Fruit spotting bug and banana spotting bug	*Amblypelta nitida* and *Amblypelta lutescens lutescens*	✓	X	X	X	Page 65
Green stink bug	*Plautia affinis*	✓	✓	✓	X	Page 66
Green vegetable bug	*Nezara viridula*	✓	✓	✓	✓	Page 67
Greenhouse and silverleaf whitefly	*Trialeurodes vaporariorum* and *Bemisia tabaci*	✓	✓	✓	✓	Page 68
Leaf-hoppers/jassids	*Cicadellidae* spp.	✓	✓	✓	✓	Page 69
Leaf-rollers	Tortricidae	✓	✓	✓	✓	Page 70
Loopers	*Lepidoptera* spp.	✓	✓	✓	✓	Page 73
Mirids (green, brown and crop)	*Creontiades dilutus, Creontiades pacificus* and *Sidnia kinbergi*	X	✓	✓	✓	Page 74
Noctuid caterpillars	*Epiphyas postvittana, Helicoverpa* spp.	✓	✓	✓	✓	Page 76
Plague thrips	*Thrips imaginis*	✓	✓	✓	✓	Page 79
Queensland fruit fly	*Bactrocera tryoni*	✓	✓	✓	✓	Page 81
Redberry mite	*Acalitus essigi*	X	X	✓	X	Page 84
Red-shouldered leaf beetle	*Monolepta australis*	✓	✓	✓	X	Page 86
Root-knot nematodes	*Meloidogyne hapla*	X	X	X	✓	Page 88
Rutherglen bug	*Nysius vinitor*	X	✓	✓	✓	Page 90
Scale insects	*Coccidae* spp., *Diaspididae* spp.and *Eriococcidae* spp.	✓	✓	✓	X	Page 91
Scarab beetle	*Heteronychus arator*	✓	✓	X	X	Page 93
Two-spotted mite	*Tetranychus urticae*	✓	✓	✓	✓	Page 95
Western flower thrips	*Frankliniella occidentalis*	✓	✓	✓	✓	Page 97

Development stages

Blueberry

Figure 16. Tight bud.

Figure 17. Budswell.

Figure 18. Budbreak.

Figure 19. Tight cluster.

Figure 20. Early pink bud.

Figure 21. Late pink bud.

Figure 22. Full bloom.

Figure 23. Petal fall.

Figure 24. Green fruit.

Figure 25. Fruit colouring.

Blackberry

Figure 26. Closed bud. Photo: Damien Clothier, Mountain Blue Farms.

Figure 27. Opening bud to bloom. Photo: Damien Clothier, Mountain Blue Farms.

Figure 28. Blackberry Bloom. Photo: Damien Clothier, Mountain Blue Farms.

Figure 29. Fruit development. Photo: Damien Clothier, Mountain Blue Farms.

Figure 30. Fruit ripening. Photo: Damien Clothier, Mountain Blue Farms.

Figure 31. Ripe fruit. Photo: Botanicoir.

Raspberry

Figure 32. Raspberry bud.

Figure 33. Raspberry bloom.

Figure 34. Bloom to green fruit.

Figure 35. Green fruit.

Figure 36. Green to ripe fruit.

Strawberry

Figure 37. Tight bud. Photo: Sandy Shaw, Victorian Strawberry Industry Development Committee.

Figure 38. Partially open flower.

Figure 39. Open flower.

Figure 40. Petal fall.

Figure 41. Green fruit.

Figure 42. Fruit ripening.

Figure 43. Ripe fruit.

Managing diseases in berries

Alternaria fruit rot

Alternaria spp.

Alternaria fruit rot can affect blueberries, strawberries, raspberries and blackberries. The fungus overwinters in old twigs and plant debris on the ground. The optimal temperature for the fungus to grow and the spores to germinate is 28 °C, but 20 °C is optimal for disease development.

Risk period

Table 5. The peak risk period for alternaria fruit rot.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Disease identification and damage

Alternaria fruit rot is characterised by sunken areas with dark green–greyish spores (Figure 44). Infected fruit becomes soft and shrivelled. Increased infection on leaves can cause considerable damage to fruit after harvest. In packing facilities, spores from in-field infected berries can contaminate inspection belts and other surfaces. Healthy berries coming into contact with these surfaces pick up the spores and become infected through wet stem scars. The pathogen can affect the leaves and fruit of strawberries. Black spot caused by *Alternaria* spp. on fruit is often related to secondary infection from physical injury. Lesions are filled with a black mould that has a greenish hue when viewed under reflected light.

Figure 44. Alternaria fruit rot in blueberries. Photo: Pscheidt and Ocamb (2021).

Management

Cultural and physical

Remove or break down all leaf and pruning residue, especially if there was leaf disease in the previous season. In larger orchards, mechanised mulching can be used to hasten pruning and leaf matter breakdown (Figure 45). Picking buckets, packing lines and inspection belts should be cleaned frequently to reduce the chances of contamination by fungal spores.

Figure 45. Mulching pruning debris to hasten the breakdown of diseased leaf matter.

Biological

There are no known biological controls for alternaria fruit rot in berries.

Chemical

The chemical option for controlling alternaria fruit rot is listed in Table 6.

Table 6. Registered or permitted product for alternaria fruit rot in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Fungicide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Boscalid + pyraclostrobin (Pristine®) PER82986 (expires 30.6.29)	7 + 11	Low	1	Blackberries, raspberries (field and protected grown)

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Anthracnose

Colletotrichum spp.

Anthracnose affects berries and is caused by *Colletotrichum* spp. fungi, mainly *Colletotrichum simmondsii* in blueberries and *C. acutatum* in strawberries. The pathogen overwinters on infected twigs, old fruiting spurs, live buds, infected prunings and fruit left in the orchard. In spring, spores are produced and released from blighted twigs and can continue to be released throughout the growing season. Anthracnose will develop in moist conditions with temperatures between 20 °C and 27 °C. Flowering is the most critical time for infection.

Risk period

Table 7. The peak risk period for anthracnose.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Disease identification and damage

Infection on fruit begins during flowering. Infected fruit remain symptom-free until berries ripen. The first symptom will usually be berry shrivelling, then the characteristic sunken lesions will develop, particularly during warm, moist conditions. On ripe fruit, orange–pink spore masses form during humid conditions (Figure 46). Symptom development is often delayed until after harvest. In strawberries, the disease is commonly known as black spot. While the rest of the fruit remains firm, circular, dark brown, sunken spots form on part of the fruit (Figure 47). White fungal growth, followed by orange spore masses, will develop on the spots.

Figure 46. Orange spore masses characteristic of anthracnose. Photo: Pscheidt and Ocamb (2021).

Figure 47. Black spot in a strawberry. Photo: Wendy Morris, Berries Australia.

Management

Cultural and physical

Regular pruning allows air circulation in the canopy and reduces drying time after the bushes have become wet. Remove sources of inoculum such as dead twigs, leaves, diseased fruit and pruning debris from blocks. Handle fruit carefully to minimise injury and cool berries rapidly after harvest.

Biological

Botector® is a biological fungicide containing a naturally occurring fungus, *Aureobasidium pullulans*. It is registered in blueberries for the suppression of anthracnose. Botector® works through competitive exclusion, creating a physical barrier at potential infection sites.

Chemical

The chemical treatment options for anthracnose are listed in Table 8.

Table 8. Registered or permitted products for anthracnose in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Fungicide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Aureobasidium pullulans strain DSM 14940 and DSM 14941 (Botector®)	–	Low	Not required when used as directed	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries, strawberries (suppression only)
Boscalid + pyraclostrobin (Pristine®) PER82986 (expires 30.6.29)	7 + 11	Low	1	Blackberries, raspberries
			3	Blueberries
Captan	M4	Low	1	Strawberries
Captan PER13958 (expires 31.8.25)	M4	Low	1	Blueberries
Copper present as copper hydroxide or cupric hydroxide PER84176 (expires 31.12.25)	M1	Medium	1	Blueberries
Copper present as copper oxychloride	M1	Medium	1	Raspberries
Cyprodinil + fludioxonil (Switch®)	9 + 12	Low	3	Strawberries
Cyprodinil + fludioxonil (Switch®) PER84891 (expires 31.1.28)	9 + 12	Low	7	Blueberries
Prochloraz	3	Low	Not required when used as directed	Strawberries (runners only)
Thiram	M3	Low	2	Strawberries

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Bacterial blight/canker

Pseudomonas syringae pv. *syringae*

Bacterial canker mainly affects blueberries. It is caused by the bacterium *Pseudomonas syringae*, which is naturally in the environment and can survive on the surface of the stem. It only infects the plant if it enters the stem through wounds, such as from frost damage, or through natural openings, such as leaf scars. The bacteria can be spread by wind, rain, or insects, or introduced with infested propagation wood or nursery stock.

Risk period

Table 9. The peak risk period for bacterial blight.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Disease identification and damage

Symptoms appear first as water soaking on 1-year-old stems (Figure 48). These lesions rapidly develop into reddish-brown to black cankers (Figure 49) with margins and can extend the length of the stem. Buds above or in the canker area are killed. Dead tissue reduces plant vigour and yield. Shoot-tip dieback is the most common symptom in young plants in nurseries.

Figure 48. Infected buds fail to open and die, and some stem necrosis. Photo: Anco and Ellis (2011).

Figure 49. Buds within the canker area are killed. Photo: British Columbia Ministry of Agriculture.

Management

Cultural and physical

Cultural controls are required to manage the disease, including pruning out diseased wood as soon as it is noticed, and especially before rain, to prevent the bacteria from spreading; avoiding excessive nitrogen applications; and maintaining strict hygiene to avoid spreading the pathogen through the orchard.

Biological

There are no biological control options for bacterial canker in blueberries.

Chemical

There are no chemical control options for bacterial canker in blueberries.

Blueberry rust

Pucciniastrum minimum (formerly *Thekopsora minima*)

The *Pucciniastrum minimum* fungus causes blueberry rust. Spores spread from old infections to infect new tissues. Infected leaves remaining on the plant after pruning can become an inoculum source for new infections. Young leaves are most susceptible to infection. Periods of leaf wetness (e.g. 7 hours at 21 °C) are required for infection.

Risk period

Table 10. The peak risk period for blueberry rust.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Disease identification and damage

The fungus grows into the leaf and, depending on environmental conditions, pustules can develop from 10 days after infection. Spores are then moved by air or moisture to infect new tissues. Spore numbers can build up rapidly and there can be many infection cycles in a season. Spores survive at least 4–8 weeks on leaves on the orchard floor, although viability declines over time.

Early blueberry rust signs will appear as small chlorotic (yellow) spots on upper leaf surfaces (Figure 50). As the disease develops, the spots become larger and turn dark red–brown (Figure 51), then merge and become necrotic. Yellow–orange pustules develop on the corresponding lower leaf surface (Figure 52). The pustules contain spores that can infect new leaves; there can be thousands of spores in a single pustule (Figure 53). If the disease is severe, infected leaves can drop prematurely, and entire plants can be defoliated. Lesions and pustules can also form on fruit (Figure 54), reducing berry quality and marketability.

Figure 50. Early blueberry rust symptoms.

Figure 51. Progressive blueberry rust symptoms.

Figure 52. Orange pustules on the underside of leaves.

Figure 53. Blueberry rust pustules.

Figure 54. Blueberry rust spores on fruit.

Monitoring

Spring through to autumn is the best time to check plants for signs of blueberry rust, but in favourable conditions, spores can be produced and dispersed at any time of the year.

Management

Cultural and physical

Diligent hygiene practices will minimise the spread of blueberry rust. Where possible, remove all diseased wood and leaves during pruning and dispose of all fallen and pruned leaves from branches. Pruning allows air circulation in the canopy and reduces drying time after bushes become wet (Figure 55).

Figure 55. Pruning allows air circulation and reduces drying time after bushes get wet. Photo: G Mittasch, OzGroup.

Biological

There are no known biological controls for blueberry rust.

Chemical

The chemical treatment options for blueberry rust are listed in Table 11.

Table 11. Registered or permitted products for blueberry rust in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Fungicide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Azoxystrobin (Amistar®) PER89953 (expires 31.8.26)	11	Low	1	Blueberries
Boscalid + pyraclostrobin (Pristine®) PER82986 (expires 30.6.29)	7 + 11	Low	3	Blueberries (suppression only)
Chlorothalonil PER91300 (expires 30.9.26)	M5	Low	28	Blueberries
Copper present as copper hydroxide or cupric hydroxide PER84176 (expires 31.12.25)	M1	Medium	1	Blueberries
Dithianon PER82601 (expires 31.12.26)	M9	Low	21	Blueberries
Mancozeb PER13958 (expires 31.8.25)	M3	Medium	7	Blueberries
Polyoxin D zinc salt PER92997 (expires 31.3.25)	19	Low	Not required when used as directed	Blueberries (suppression only)
Propiconazole (Tilt®) PER14740 (expires 30.6.24)	3	Low	3	Blueberries

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Cane spot

Elsinöe veneta

Cane spot is caused by the *Elsinöe veneta* fungus. It is often referred to as anthracnose and affects raspberries and blackberries. Cane spot usually damages the stems but can also affect the leaves and fruit. The pathogen overwinters on infected twigs and leaves. Cane spot can be introduced by infected plants or by spores that are dispersed by rain or water, blown in on the wind, or transported on contaminated clothing, vehicles or machinery.

Risk period

Table 12. The peak risk period for cane spot.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Disease identification and damage

On leaves, cane spot symptoms appear as irregularly shaped, yellow spots. These spots enlarge and develop grey centres with a reddish–purple border (Figure 56). Over time these grey centres can fall out, giving the spots a shot-hole effect. Symptoms begin as small, distinct, purplish spots on younger stems. The spots get larger and their centres turn grey, while the outer edge stays purple (Figure 57). In severe cases, the spots join, causing the stem to become weak and, in some cases, die.

Figure 56. A leaf infected with cane spot.

Figure 57. A cane infected with cane spot. Photo: Charles Drake, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University.

Management

Cultural and physical

Cane spot control begins with clean, disease-free planting material, promoting good air movement by keeping fruit rows narrow, spacing canes adequately and controlling weeds.

Biological

There are no known biological controls for cane spot in raspberries and blackberries.

Chemical

The chemical treatment options for cane spot are listed in Table 13.

Table 13. Registered or permitted products for cane spot in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Fungicide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Azoxystrobin (Amistar®)	11	Low	1	Blackberries, raspberries
Boscalid + pyraclostrobin (Pristine®) PER82986 (expires 30.6.29)	7 + 11	Low	1	Blackberries, raspberries
Captan PER13958 (expires 31.8.25)	M4	Low	1	Blackberries, raspberries
Copper present as copper oxychloride (Coppox)	M1	Medium	1	Raspberries

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Charcoal rot

Macrophomina phaseolina

Charcoal rot is a major soil-borne disease that has the potential to cause significant plant death and devasting crop losses in strawberries. The pathogen favours high soil temperatures (>27 °C) and invades the plant through roots, crown and foliage. It has also been reported to infect blueberries, but, the incidence has been relatively low compared to strawberries.

Risk period

Table 14. The peak risk period for charcoal rot.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Disease identification and damage

Charcoal rot has very similar symptoms to fusarium wilt, which includes foliar dieback of older leaves and dark brown or reddish-brown necrotic areas in the vascular tissue of the crown (Figure 58). Initial signs of disease development are similar to water stress. Symptoms are most severe when infected plants are subjected to stresses from water, extreme weather and soil conditions, or heavy crop loads. Diagnosis at an accredited laboratory is important to confirm which disease is involved.

Figure 58. Charcoal rot symptoms on leaves (left) and in the vascular tissue of the crown (right). Photos: Business Qld.

Management

Cultural and physical

- Select more resistant cultivars.
- Implement a farm biosecurity plan.
- Remove infected crop debris to minimise inoculum.
- Manage plant stress throughout the season by ensuring plants are well nourished and watered.
- Trim plants lightly during warm periods.
- Use crop rotation, green manure or inter-row crops with plants not affected by charcoal rot such as ryegrass, oats, biofumigant crops and fescue.
- Consider moving to soil-less production.

Biological

There are no known biological controls for charcoal rot in strawberries.

Chemical

There are no known chemical controls for charcoal rot in strawberries.

Cladosporium fruit rot

Cladosporium spp.

Cladosporium spp. are naturally present environmental fungi that can be isolated from air, soil and dead woody materials. Cladosporium fruit rot is primarily a postharvest storage disease of raspberries. The optimal temperature for *Cladosporium* spp. growth is between 20 °C and 25 °C but can occur at lower temperatures during normal fruit storage.

Risk period

Table 15. The peak risk period for cladosporium fruit rot.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Disease identification and damage

Cladosporium spp. infection on the fruit will appear as a velvety olive-green growth, generally restricted to the fruit surface with little or no damage to the tissues (Figure 59). However, the appearance of fungal growth renders the berries unfit for sale. The disease is favoured by rainfall followed by temperatures between 20 °Cand 25 °C. Monitor weather conditions and take a preventative approach to controlling infections.

Figure 59. Velvety olive-green growth is characteristic of cladosporium. Photo: S Evangelista, Mountain Blue Farms.

Management

Cultural and physical

Practice good sanitation and manage moisture in the planting to reduce inoculum levels and infection risk. Harvest regularly and carefully, removing damaged and infected fruit. Cool berries as rapidly as possible.

Adjust pot moisture and root pressure according to transpiration. Avoid excessive pot moisture going into long periods of reduced transpiration.

Biological

There are no known biological controls for cladosporium in raspberries.

Chemical

The chemical treatment option for cladosporium fruit rot is listed in Table 16.

Table 16. Registered or permitted product for cladosporium in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Fungicide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Azoxystrobin (Amistar®)	11	Low	1	Blackberries, raspberries

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Crown gall

Agrobacterium tumefaciens

Crown gall is caused by the *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* bacterium. It is spread by moving soil, infected plant material or pruning tools. Strict orchard hygiene should be employed to manage the spread.

Risk period

Table 17. The peak risk period for crown gall.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Disease identification and damage

The bacterium enters through natural or mechanical wounds on stems and roots, then induces gall formation at the base of canes (Figure 60) or on the main roots (Figure 61). Galls can also occasionally form on branches higher in the bush. Young galls are cream to light brown and spongy in texture. They turn dark, rough and harden with age. The disease is less of a problem in acidic soil.

Figure 60. Blueberry crown gall on the base of canes. Photo: Gaius Leong, OzGroup.

Figure 61. Crown gall often occurs on roots as a solid mass. Photo: OSU Plant Pathology Slide Collection.

Management

Cultural and physical

Managing crown gall involves starting with planting disease-free nursery stock in non-infected soil, minimising wounds, sterilising pruners and removing and destroying plants if they become infected.

Biological

Agrobacterium radiobacter K1026 is a non-pathogenic biological control agent used to prevent crown gall in the field. It works by colonising wounded plant tissue and blocking infections by the agrobacteria.

Chemical

The chemical treatment options for crown gall are listed in Table 18.

Table 18. Registered or permitted products for crown gall in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Fungicide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Agrobacterium radiobacter var. *radiobacter* (NoGall™) PER89523 (expires 31.7.28)	–	Low	Not required when used as directed	Blueberries
Rhizobium rhizogenes (NoGall™) PER13150 (expires 30.9.27)	–	Low	Not required when used as directed	Blackberries

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Downy mildew

Peronospora spp.

Downy mildew, caused by *Peronospora* spp. oomycetes, is mainly a problem in blackberries. It overwinters inside roots, crowns and canes. Downy mildew favours warm, humid areas and is most prevalent during wet weather with temperatures between 18 °C and 22 °C. Spores can be carried by insects, wind, rain, people and equipment.

Risk period

Table 19. The peak risk period for downy mildew.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Disease identification and damage

Symptoms appear as light green to yellow discolouration on the upper leaf surface that progresses to red and purple (Figure 62). Lesions are usually angular and restricted by veins. On the underside of the leaf, light pink to tan areas appear directly below the blotches on the upper surface (Figure 63). Spore masses are produced only on the lower leaf surface and are initially white but become light grey with age. Infected green fruit causes premature reddening and the berries to shrivel and harden.

Figure 62. The top of a blackberry leaf infected with downy mildew. Photo: P Bachi, University of Kentucky Research and Education Centre.

Figure 63. The underside of a blackberry leaf infected with downy mildew. Photo: S Koike, University of California Cooperative Extension.

Management

Cultural and physical

Use pathogen-free planting stock. Ensure good airflow through the canopy to promote quick leaf drying. Prune, train and thin out canes early to reduce humidity in the canopy. Remove and destroy old and infected pruning debris to reduce inoculum build-up.

Biological

There are no available biological controls for downy mildew in blackberries.

Chemical

The chemical treatment options for downy mildew are listed in Table 20.

Table 20. Registered or permitted products for downy mildew in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Fungicide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Chlorothalonil PER14449 (expires 31.3.25)	M5	Low	28	Blackberries, raspberries
Mancozeb PER13958 (expires 31.8.25)	M3	Medium	7	Blackberries, raspberries
Metalaxyl-M + mancozeb (Ridomil Gold® MZ) PER84973 (expires 31.12.27)	4 + M3	Low	14	Blackberries, raspberries
Propamocarb hydrochloride + fluopicolide (Infinito® SC) PER93024 (expires 31.8.26)	28 + 43	Low	1	Blackberries, raspberries

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Fusarium wilt

Fusarium oxysporum f. sp *fragariae*

Fusarium wilt is a common soil-borne disease affecting strawberries in warm to hot growing conditions. Field diagnosis is often complicated as it exhibits symptoms similar to those of other soil-borne diseases such as charcoal rot and phytophthora crown rot.

Risk period

Table 21. The peak risk period for fusarium wilt.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Disease identification and damage

Fusarium wilt causes wilting, stunting, crown discolouration, death of older leaves and eventual plant death. The disease often affects the outer leaves first; they become yellow and eventually take on a scorched appearance (Figure 64 left). The inside of the crown discolours and becomes dark to orange–brown (Figure 64 right). Plants subjected to stress from extreme weather conditions and/or heavy fruit loads are more severely affected.

Figure 64. Fusarium wilt symptoms on leaves (left) and in the vascular tissue of the crown (right). Photos: Aileen Reid, WA DPIRD.

Management

Cultural and physical

- Select more resistant cultivars.
- Fumigate planting beds between seasons.
- Ensure planting material is free of pathogens.
- Remove affected plants as soon as possible.
- Practice good intra-property hygiene with machinery, footwear and animals.
- Ensure even irrigation through planting beds to avoid over-watering.
- Consider moving to soil-less production.

Biological

There are no known biological controls for fusarium wilt in strawberries.

Chemical

There are no known chemical controls for fusarium wilt in strawberries.

Grey mould/flower blight

Botrytis cinerea

Botrytis cinerea is a fungus that causes blossom blight during flowering and fruit rot during postharvest handling and storage. Infections occur in the field during flowering, so this is the most effective time to implement controls. *Botrytis cinerea* is always present but causes serious losses when the weather is wet and cool for several consecutive days. Infection is favoured by high relative humidity, fog and long wet periods. Studies have found that at 20 °C, only 6 hours of leaf wetness is required for infection. The spores germinate and penetrate plant tissue using natural openings or micro-wounds.

Risk period

Table 22. The peak risk period for grey mould.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Disease identification and damage

Blossoms are the most susceptible tissue, turning brown when infected (Figure 65) after only a few days of high relative humidity. In continued humid conditions, masses of grey mycelia and spores are produced on blighted blossoms (Figure 66). Developing berries also become infected (Figure 67 and Figure 68), but few rot in the field before harvest.

Spores are produced in moisture and are carried by air currents and water splash. Flowers are most susceptible shortly after they open, although earlier infection is possible. Slow pollination and ageing flowers can favour infection. Non-pollinated ovaries from which petals have shed are also highly susceptible to infection. They can remain attached for about 10 days and become a source of secondary inoculum. The fungus can grow from these ovaries into the stalk to infect other flowers and fruit in the cluster (Figure 69). It can also grow into the stem, causing twig blight.

Figure 65. Blossoms infected by *Botrytis cinerea*.

Figure 66. *Botrytis cinerea* spores and mycelia.

Figure 67. *Botrytis cinerea* on blueberries.

Figure 68. *Botrytis cinerea* on a raspberry.


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Management

Cultural and physical

Remove infected fruit and plant material from the orchard. Each infected fruit with spores can infect more flowers and fruit. Raspberries should be trained to encourage airflow and row bases should be kept clean and narrow. Blueberries should be pruned annually to keep the canopy open and improve air circulation. This will help with drying when the plant has become wet from dew or rain.

Avoid excessive use of nitrogen fertiliser in spring because the *Botrytis* fungus will readily infect succulent green growth. Cool berries rapidly after harvest and use sulfur pads in stacked trays.

Figure 69. Botrytis in strawberries. Photo: Qld Department of Agriculture and Fisheries.

Biological

Botector® is a biological fungicide that contains a naturally occurring fungus, *Aureobasidium pullulans*. Botector® works through competitive exclusion, creating a physical barrier at potential infection sites. Serenade® Opti is another biological fungicide that contains the bacterium *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* strain QST713.

Chemical

The chemical treatment options for grey mould are listed in Table 23.

Table 23. Registered or permitted products for grey mould in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Fungicide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Aureobasidium pullulans strain DSM 14940 and DSM 14941 (Botector®)	–	Low	Not required when used as directed	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries, strawberries
Azoxystrobin (Amistar®)	11	Low	1	Blackberries, raspberries
Bacillus amyloquefaciens strain MBI600 (Serifel®)	44	Low	Not required when used as directed	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries, strawberries
Bacillus amyloliquefaciens strain QST 713 (Serenade® Opti)	BM02	Low	Not required when used as directed	Strawberries
Bacillus amyloliquefaciens strain QST 713 (Serenade® Opti) PER88058 (expires 21.8.27)	BM02	Low	Not required when used as directed	Blackberries, raspberries
BLAD (ProBlad Verde®)	BM01	Low	Not required when used as directed	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries, strawberries
Boscalid + pyraclostrobin (Pristine®) PER82986 (expires 30.6.29)	7 + 11	Low	1	Blackberries, raspberries
			3	Blueberries
Captan	M4	Low	1	Strawberries
Captan PER13958 (expires 31.8.25)	M4	Low	1	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries
Chlorothalonil PER14449 (expires 31.3.25)	M5	Low	28	Blackberries, raspberries
Chlorothalonil PER91300 (expires 30.9.26)	M5	Low	28	Blueberries
Copper present as copper hydroxide, copper ammonium complex and cuprous oxide (SA, Tas, Vic, WA)	M1	Low	1	Strawberries
Cyprodinil + fludioxonil (Switch®)	9 + 12	Low	3	Strawberries
Cyprodinil + fludioxonil (Switch®) PER14422 (expires 31.7.25)	9 + 12	Low	7	Blackberries, raspberries

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Table 23. Registered or permitted products for grey mould in Australia (continued).

Active constituent (example trade name)	Fungicide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Cyprodinil + fludioxonil (Switch®) PER84891 (expires 31.1.28)	9 + 12	Low	7	Blueberries
Fenhexamid (Teldor® 500 SC)	17	Low	1	Blackberries, raspberries
			Not required when used as directed	Strawberries
Fenhexamid PER86489 (expires 31.12.28)	17	Low	1	Blueberries
Florylpicoxamid (Verpixo®)	21	Low	1	Strawberries
Fluopyram + tebuconazole (Luna Experience®)	3 + 7	Low	1	Strawberries
Fluopyram + trifloxystrobin (Luna Sensation®)	7 + 11	Low	1	Blackberries, raspberries, strawberries
Ipflufenoquin (Migiwa® Kinoprol®)	52	Low	1	Strawberries
Iprodione (Ippon® 500 Aquaflo)	2	Low	1	Raspberries, strawberries
Iprodione (Ippon® 500 Aquaflo; NSW, Qld, Tas, WA)	2	Low	1	Blueberries
Iprodione (Rovral® 250)	2	Low	1	Raspberries, strawberries
Isofetamid (Kenja®)	7	Low	Not required when used as directed	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries, strawberries
Mancozeb PER13958 (expires 31.8.25)	M3	Medium	7	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries
Penthiopyrad (Fontelis®)	7	Low	Not required when used as directed	Strawberries
Polyoxin D zinc salt (Intervene®)	19	Low	Not required when used as directed	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries, strawberries
Pydiflumetofen + fludioxonil (Miravis® Prime)	7 + 12	Low	1	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries, strawberries
Pyrimethanil (Scala®)	9	Low	1	Strawberries
Pyrimethanil (Scala®) PER13958 (expires 31.8.25)	9	Low	1	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries
Thiram (Qld, SA, Tas, Vic, WA)	M3	Low	2	Strawberries

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Leaf blotch and stem end rot

Gnomomiopsis fructicola

Gnomomiopsis fructicola infects the plant through stomata or wounds. It favours cool, wet weather and reproduces at temperatures over 5 °C but grows best at temperatures above 20 °C.

Risk period

Table 24. The peak risk period for leaf blotch and stem end rot.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Disease identification and damage

Leaf blotch and stem end rot diseases can occur between flowering and harvest. Early symptoms often affect foliage (Figure 70), causing brownish–purplish lesions that start small but expand to large areas, coalescing to form large leaf blotches. The pathogen also infects the calyx before spreading into the fruit as a rot. Symptoms on the calyx ranged from small lesions to completely affected calyx that turned necrotic and brittle (Figure 71). Both green and ripe fruit are susceptible to infection, turning fruit pale red to brown. The fruit often remains firm but susceptible to secondary infection from pathogens such as *Botrytis cinerea*.

Figure 70. Gnomoniopsis symptoms on leaves. Photo: Photo: S Mattner, Vic DPI.

Figure 71. Gnomomiopsis calyx symptoms. Photo: S Mattner, Vic DPI.

Management

Cultural and physical

The pathogen is often found on plant debris from the previous crop. Removing plant material after harvest is important for reducing the risk of infection.

Biological

There are no available biological controls for leaf blotch and stem end rot.

Chemical

The chemical treatment option for leaf blotch and stem end rot is listed in Table 25.

Table 25. Registered or permitted product for leaf blotch and stem end rot in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Fungicide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Fluazinam PER83871 (expires 30.6.27; all states except Vic)	29	Low	Not required when used as directed	Strawberries (runners only)

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Neopestalotiopsis

***Neopestalotiopsis* spp.**

The pathogen causes secondary infections, usually in stressed plants. The disease exhibits symptoms over a wide temperature range but favours warm, humid conditions above 20 °C.

Risk period

Table 26. The peak risk period for neopestalotiopsis.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Disease identification and damage

Neopestalotiopsis spp. can infect most above-ground plant parts but often causes symptoms on strawberry leaves and blueberry growing point tips. Early infection in strawberry leaves includes small, brown circular spots that further coalesce into larger, irregular-shaped necrotic lesions (Figure 72), which results in leaf death (Figure 73). Plants might also suffer from poor establishment, stunting and dieback. Symptoms on fruit can include small tan lesions, which might be covered in dark fungal spores.

In blueberries, symptoms (Figure 74) are similar to twig blight, stem canker and tip dieback; therefore, laboratory diagnostics are required. The pathogen is usually associated with weaker, less vigorous varieties under stress.

Figure 72. Neopestalotiopsis early symptoms. Photo: Apollo Gomez, QDAF.

Figure 73. Neopestalotiopsis leaf symptoms. Photo: Apollo Gomez, QDAF.

Figure 74. Neopestalotiopsis twig dieback. Photo: Jay Anderson, SCU.

Management

Cultural and physical

Increasing air-flow and using protected cropping will reduce leaf wetness and, therefore, susceptibility In strawberries. Reducing stress and planting stronger stress-tolerant varieties will also help reduce susceptibility in blueberries.

Biological

There are no available biological controls for neopestalotiopsis.

Chemical

There are no available chemical controls for neopestalotiopsis.

Phomopsis blight

Phomopsis spp.

Phomopsis blight in blueberries and leaf blight in strawberries are caused by *Phomopsis* spp. fungi. They survive the winter in dead, infected twigs and plant debris.

Risk period

Table 27. The peak risk period for phomopsis blight.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Disease identification and damage

Infection occurs in flower buds (Figure 75) and advances 50–150 mm down the stem, causing a brown lesion and dieback of the flower-bearing stems. This sunken necrotic area spreads as the disease progresses. From budbreak to bloom, fungal spores ooze from small black structures (pycnidia) on previously infected twigs (Figure 76) and are spread by rain. These spores infect flower buds and the fungus spreads into and through the twig to other flower and leaf buds. The fungus does not grow into and infect older wood.

Figure 75. Necrotic tissue spreading from a bud infected with *Phomopsis* spp. Photo: P Wharton, University of Idaho.

Figure 76. A blighted twig caused by *Phomopsis* spp. Photo: W Cline, North Carolina State University.

In strawberries, the pathogen is a common disease that infects leaves and fruit. Leaf lesions start as circular spots and coalesce to form a V-shape lesion along the leaf vein (Figure 77). The V-shaped lesion is characteristic of the disease.

Figure 77. Phomopsis leaf blight. Photo: A Koeh, North Carolina State University.

Management

Cultural and physical

Prune and destroy infected twigs during pruning. This removes sources of inoculum and limits the availability of wounds as points of infection during the growing season.

Biological

Botector® is a biological fungicide that contains a naturally occurring fungus, *Aureobasidium pullulans*. Botector® works through competitive exclusion, creating a physical barrier at potential infection sites.

Chemical

The chemical treatment options for phomopsis blight are listed in Table 28.

Table 28. Registered or permitted products for phomopsis blight in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Fungicide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Aureobasidium pullulans strain DSM 14940 and DSM 14941 (Botector®)	–	Low	Not required when used as directed	Blueberries and strawberries (suppression only)
Azoxystrobin (Amistar®) PER89953 (expires 31.8.26)	11	Low	1	Blueberries

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Phytophthora crown and root rot

Phytophthora spp.

Phytophthora spp. oomycetes cause phytophthora root rot in blueberries, raspberries and blackberries, and phytophthora crown rot in strawberries. Moisture is required for disease reproduction and spread. Fine feeder roots are infected, compromising water and nutrient uptake. Phytophthora root rot develops when soil temperatures are greater than 12 °C, where there is poor drainage, water ponding, heavy soil types or low levels of organic matter in the soil.

Risk period

Table 29. The peak risk period for phytophthora root rot.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Disease identification and damage

Symptoms mostly occur during warm weather, often in plant clusters spread along drainage lines. In blackberries and raspberries, primocanes wilt and shoot tips dieback. Floricanes (fruiting canes) will have weak lateral shoots. Leaves wilt then become yellow or brown from the margins until the leaf dies (Figure 78). Roots will be discoloured (black to brown; Figure 79) and fine feeder roots will be missing. Affected plants are easily pulled from the soil. If cut open, the centre of the main root will be brown (Figure 80).

In blueberries, early symptoms are often above ground and include leaf yellowing and wilting, resembling drought or water loss (Figure 81). As the disease advances, stunting of terminal growth, leaf necrosis and plant dieback can occur. Below-ground symptoms include young rootlet and crown necrosis, with the main roots turning reddish–brown. Disease symptoms might follow drainage lines as the pathogen can be spread by water. Bushes can eventually die (Figure 82).

Figure 78. Foliar symptoms of phytophthora root rot.

Figure 79. Root symptoms of phytophthora root rot.

Figure 80. Phytophthora root rot in strawberries.

Figure 81. Foliar symptoms of phytophthora root rot. Photo: M Rocchetti, Costa Berries.

Management

Cultural and physical

Figure 82. Plant death due to phytophthora root rot. Photo: M Rocchetti, Costa Berries.

- Source new planting material from phytophthora-free nurseries.
- Prepare new sites by mounding and improving soil organic matter using cover crops and manure. Ammonia and volatile organic acids released by decomposing organic material reduce phytophthora spores and stimulate beneficial microorganisms. Incorporating gypsum into planting sites also helps to act as a weak fungicide and reduces the number of spores in the soil.
- In heavy soil types or high rainfall areas, grow blueberries on mounds with good drainage in the inter-row. In high rainfall areas, blueberry mounds should run up and down the slope for quick drainage rather than across the contours.
- Avoid planting in poorly drained sites or improve the drainage before planting.
- Grow rooted cuttings or nursery plants on raised beds and avoid over-irrigating and ponding.
- Monitor irrigation to avoid overwatering and waterlogging.
- Disinfect fertigation water in substrate production.

Biological

Beneficial soil bacteria and antagonistic fungi can help reduce the risk of soil-borne diseases. Building healthy soil by adding organic matter will help encourage beneficial soil organisms. *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* strain QST 713 (Serenade® Prime Soil Ameliorant and Biofungicide) can be applied to the soil to improve the bioavailability of soil resources.

Chemical

The chemical treatment options for phytophthora root rot are listed in Table 30.

Table 30. Registered or permitted products for phytophthora root rot in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Fungicide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Captan	M4	Low	1	Strawberries
Mancozeb + metalaxyl-M	M3 + 4	Medium	7	Strawberries (runner production only)
Metalaxyl (Ridomil) PER13958 (expires 31.8.25)	4	Low	48	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries
Metham present as sodium salt (Nemasol)	–	High	Not required when used as directed	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries
Phosphorous acid PER13958 (expires 31.8.25)	33	Low	Not required when used as directed	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries
Phosphorous acid PER80064 (expires 31.10.25)	33	Low	Not required when used as directed	Strawberries
Streptomyces lydicus (Actinovate)	BM02	Low	Not required when used as directed	Strawberries

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Powdery mildew

***Podosphaera* spp. and *Erysiphe* spp.**

Powdery mildew in Rubus is caused by *Podosphaera macularis* and *Erysiphe* spp. These fungi overwinter in the dormant buds on stunted cane tips. Infections start on dry leaves in high humidity with temperatures over 15 °C. Optimum conditions include over 97% humidity and temperatures between 18 °C and 25 °C. Visible signs appear 28 days after infection. Spores are spread by wind. In strawberries, the fungi (*Podosphaera aphanis*) grow best between 20 °C and 25 °C and are common under protective systems favouring warm, dry conditions followed by moisture on leaves from overnight dew.

Risk period

Table 31. The peak risk period for powdery mildew.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Disease identification and damage

Powdery mildew produces white patches of web-like growth that develop on both the lower and upper leaf surfaces. Leaf edges are often distorted and curled upwards. Immature fruit harden, turn reddish and have raised seeds.

Similarly, infected raspberry and blackberry leaves initially develop light green (chlorotic) patches on the upper surfaces. Leaves and shoots are later covered with white to grey fungal growth (Figure 83). Affected leaves can be curved, twisted, or otherwise distorted. Severely infected shoots become long and spindly, with dwarfed leaves that curl upward. Severely diseased plants can be stunted. The fungus can prevent late buds from developing into fruit. It can also render fruit unsaleable by covering it with white fungal growth (Figure 84).

Figure 83. Raspberry leaves infected with powdery mildew. Photo: M Grabowski, University of Minnesota Extension.

Figure 84. Powdery mildew on a strawberry. Photo: Aileen Reid, WA DPIRD.

Management

Cultural and physical

Remove late-forming infected primocanes for Rubus and plant residues at the end of the season. Ensure good airflow through the canopy. Prune, train and thin out primocanes early to reduce humidity in the canopy. Use tip pruning to remove infection sources before the next season. Raspberries and blackberries should be monitored when conditions favour the disease. Manage nutrition and irrigation to avoid highly vigorous canopies.

Biological

There are no available biological controls for powdery mildew in blackberries and raspberries.

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Chemical

The chemical treatment options for powdery mildew are listed in Table 32. Monitor during ideal conditions and apply fungicides at the first sign of leaf distortion and discolouration.

Table 32. Registered or permitted products for powdery mildew in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Fungicide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Boscalid + pyraclostrobin (Pristine®) PER82986 (expires 30.6.29)	7 + 11	Low	1	Blackberries, raspberries
Bupirimate (Nimrod®; Qld, SA)	8	Low	Not required when used as directed	Strawberries (runner production only)
Cyflufenamid (Flute)	U6	Low	Not required when used as directed	Strawberries
Florylpicoxamid (Verpixo®)	21	Low	1	Strawberries
Fluopyram + trifloxystrobin (Luna Sensation®)	7 + 11	Low	1	Strawberries
Mancozeb PER13958 (expires 31.8.25)	M3	Medium	7	Blackberries, raspberries
Myclobutanil (Systhane®)	3	Low	Not required when used as directed	Strawberries
Penthiopyrad (Fontelis®)	7	Low	Not required when used as directed	Strawberries
Polyoxin D zinc salt (Intervene®)	19	Low	Not required when used as directed	Blackberries, raspberries, strawberries
Potassium bicarbonate (EcoCarb®)	M2	Low	Not required when used as directed	Strawberries
Pydiflumetofen + fludioxonil (Miravis® Prime)	7 + 12	Low	1	Strawberries
Quinoxfen (Vitae®)	13	Low	Not required when used as directed	Strawberries (runner and plug production only)
Sulfur (Thiovit jet®)	M2	Medium	Not required when used as directed	Strawberries
Triadimenol PER13958 (expires 31.8.25)	3	Low	7	Blackberries, raspberries
Trifloxystrobin (Flint®)	11	Low	1	Strawberries

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Stem blight

Neofusicoccum spp., *Lasiodiplodia* spp. and *Botryosphaeria dothidea*

Fungi associated with stem blight in Australia include *Neofusicoccum parvum*, *N. australe*, *N. oculatum*, *N. macroclavatum*, *Lasiodiplodia theobromae*, *L. pseudotheobromae* and *Botryosphaeria dothidea*. The fungi survive in infected wood and leaves of blueberry and other woody hosts. Spores produced on infected plant material are dispersed by air or water-splash to infect shoots, stems, branches and buds. Stem blight is favoured by high relative humidity, rainfall and a wide temperature range (5–35 °C) as well as plant stress and injury.

Risk period

Table 33. The peak risk period for stem blight.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Disease identification and damage

Infection usually begins in the branches. Symptoms include reddening leaves (Figure 85), necrosis on one or more branches, and a characteristic 'flagging' of a dead branch with leaves still attached. A pale brown–grey discolouration can be seen inside infected stems (Figure 86). In severe cases the infection progresses into the base of the plant, resulting in systemic branch dieback over weeks or months, eventually killing the plant. Raised black fruiting bodies can occur on infected stems. The fungi enter the host plant through wounds, including herbicide injury, pruning wounds, insect damage and crown injury due to salt burn. They can also enter through natural openings such as growth cracks, leaf scars, lenticels (stem pores) and root-to-root contact. The fungi often remain latent in the plant, not causing symptoms until the plant becomes stressed.

Figure 85. Reddening leaves caused by stem blight.

Figure 86. Stem blight discolouration.

Management

Cultural and physical

Source clean, disease-free planting material when establishing a new block or orchard. Avoid any activities that might stress or injure the plants. Ensuring good irrigation and nutrition practices will help with managing this disease. Practice strict orchard hygiene measures.

The best control is achieved by pruning out infected plant parts and removing them from the orchard. Prune at least 150–200 mm beyond diseased (discoloured) wood to prevent the infection from spreading. Prune during dry periods to reduce spread and disinfect tools between plants, especially if cutting through a diseased branch. Cutting at an angle when pruning can promote water run-off.

Biological

There are no available biological controls for stem blight in blueberries.

Chemical

The chemical treatment option for stem blight is listed in Table 34.

Table 34. Registered or permitted products for stem blight in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Fungicide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Azoxystrobin (Amistar®)	11	Low	1	Blueberries

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Yellow rust

Phragmidium rubi-idaei

Yellow rust is caused by *Phragmidium rubi-idaei*, a fungus that overwinters on the bark of remaining floricanes. These are then the source of inoculum that affects emerging leaves and primocanes the following season. *Phragmidium rubi-idaei* can defoliate canes when prolonged wet weather in spring encourages rapid development. Leaf wetness, high humidity and mild temperatures (11–25 °C) favour infection.

Risk period

Table 35. The peak risk period for yellow rust.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Disease identification and damage

The initial symptoms appear as raised yellow–orange pustules on the upper side of raspberry leaves (Figure 87). Later in the season, orange–yellow spots appear on the underside of leaves (Figure 88). These turn black as the fungus life cycle progresses.

Figure 87. Yellow rust on the upper leaf surface.

Figure 88. Orange-yellow spots on the underside of leaves are characteristic of yellow rust.

Management

Check plants weekly from early spring for pinhead-size yellow raised spots on leaf tops. Look on the underside for yellow rust spots, particularly where there is old leaf debris.

Cultural and physical

Manage primocane density to maintain an open canopy to increase airflow and reduce humidity. Keep ground cover low to reduce humidity around canes.

Biological

There are no available biological controls for yellow rust in raspberries.

Chemical

The chemical treatment options for yellow rust are listed in Table 36.

Table 36. Registered or permitted products for yellow rust in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Fungicide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Boscalid + pyraclostrobin (Pristine®) PER82986 (expires 30.6.29)	7 + 11	Low	1	Blackberries, raspberries
Chlorothalonil PER14449 (expires 31.3.25)	M5	Low	28	Blackberries, raspberries
Copper present as copper hydroxide PER14443 (expires 31.1.24)	M1	Medium	Not required when used as directed	Blackberries, raspberries
Copper present as copper oxychloride	M1	Medium	1	Blackberries, raspberries
Mancozeb PER13958 (expires 31.8.25)	M3	Medium	7	Blackberries, raspberries
Myclobutanil PER92308 (expires 31.10.25)	3	Low	1	Blackberries, raspberries

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Managing pests in berries

Aphids

Myzus persicae, Chaetosiphon fragaefolii, Amphorophora rubi

Aphids produce copious amounts of honeydew, making the leaves and fruit sticky, sensitising plant tissue to sunburn and promoting sooty mould growth. More significantly, aphids can transmit potential plant virus diseases.

Risk period

Table 37. The peak risk period for aphids.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Pest identification and damage

Most aphids are soft-bodied, pear-shaped (Figure 89 and Figure 90) and approximately 1–2 mm long. The large blackberry aphid is typically 2–5 mm long (Figure 91), is host specific and only feeds on cultivated and wild blackberries.

Figure 89. Wingless adult female and nymph stage green peach aphids.

Figure 90. Strawberry aphid adult and nymph. Photo: Jack Kelly Clark, University of California.

Aphids prefer feeding on tender growing shoots, causing new growth to deform, wilt and defoliate. High infestations can reduce fruiting bud formation for the following year's crop.

Look for aphids on areas of the bush with tender tissue such as new branch growth, buds, shoots, both sides of the leaves and into leaf curls.

Figure 91. Large blackberry aphid.

Management

Cultural and physical

Aphid populations increase rapidly on most plants receiving excess nitrogen. Regulate nitrogen fertilisers for optimum, but not excessive, growth and vigour. If needed, prune to remove excess growth. Ants are known to 'farm' aphids for their honeydew production. Controlling ant populations in the vicinity will reduce the spread of aphids.

Biological

Release predatory arthropods and create inviting habitats for beneficial insects. The main aphid predators include common hoverflies, green lacewings (Figure 92), assassin bugs and lady beetles (Figure 93). Parasitic wasps such as *Aphidius colemani*, *A. ervi* and *Aphelinus abdominalis* are commercially available for release.

Figure 92. Green lacewings are natural aphid predators. Photo: Whitney Cranshaw, Colorado State University, Bugwood.org.

Figure 93. Common spotted lady beetles are natural aphid predators. Photo: Lesley Ingram, Bugwood.org.

Chemical

The chemical options for controlling aphids are listed in Table 38.

Table 38. Registered or permitted products for aphids in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Insecticide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Afidopyropen PER90178 (expires 30.4.24)	9D	Low	1	Blackberries, raspberries
Botanical oil (Eco-oil)	–	Low	Not required when used as directed	Strawberries
Cyantraniliprole	28	Medium–high	1	Strawberries
Dimethoate	1B	High	1	Blueberries
			7	Blackberries, raspberries
Flonicamid	29	Low–medium	1	Strawberries
Flonicamid PER89214 (expires 28.2.27)	29	Low–medium	3	Blackberries, raspberries
Paraffinic oil (NSW, SA, Tas, WA)	–	Low	Not required when used as directed	Strawberries
Primicarb (Pirimor®)	1A	Low	2	Blueberries, strawberries
			7	Blackberries

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Blueberry stem girdler

Idiophantis habrias

The blueberry stem girdler is a small moth that lays eggs under the bark of blueberry stems, often near the crown.

Risk period

Table 39. The peak risk period for blueberry stem girdler.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Disease identification and damage

The moth's wingspan is approximately 11 mm. Forewings are whitish, light-yellow with a tinge of brown, with the dorsal half reddish-brown sprinkled with white (Figure 94). The hindwings are light grey, and the apex is dark grey. The eggs are laid under the bark to hatch into small larvae where they start feeding. This produces frass, which is a clear sign of their presence.

The symptoms include discolouration (Figure 95 and Figure 96), cane death, or lack of vigour. Depending on the location and/or the extent of feeding damage, foliage symptoms might be similar to phytophthora root rot, stem blight or root/crown strangulation.

Figure 94. Blueberry stem girdler adult. Photo: CSIRO/BIO Photography Group, Centre for Biodiversity Genomics, University of Guelph.

Figure 95. Extensive damage to the crown will discolour and stunt the bush.

Figure 96. Damage to a single stem will discolour the branch. The rest of the bush might still look healthy.

Secondary infection from pathogens such as bacterial crown gall can further deteriorate plant health (Figure 97).

Figure 97. Secondary infection of the feeding wound from bacterial crown gall.

Management

Cultural and physical

The adult moths are typically drawn to surface moisture, where they will lay their eggs around the crown area. As such, substrate-grown berries are often more susceptible, especially if mulch pads are left at the top of the pots after plant maturity. Pruning and skirting the bottom canopy to increase airflow can help decrease pest incidence.

Biological

An Ichneumonid wasp could be a potential control method. Paraffinic oil can be applied to the crown area to control larvae.

Chemical

There are no chemical control options for blueberry stem girdler.

Broad mite

Polyphagotarsonemus latus

Broad mites are microscopic and generally go unnoticed until damage is seen on new growth and reproductive structures. The ideal climatic conditions for broad mites are tropical, subtropical and greenhouse habitats where temperatures are warm and humid. They differ from other mites in that they feed on the upper leaf surface of the plant tissue rather than the underside.

Risk period

Table 40. The peak risk period for broad mite.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Pest identification and damage

The adult female mite is white or pale yellow, oval, and 0.2 mm long. The male is smaller, has longer hindlegs and is more active. A distinguishing feature of broad mite is the male's habit of carrying pre-adult females on their backs in a 'T' shape until they are sexually mature. Another identifying characteristic is the eggs, which are dome-shaped, translucent and covered with white 'studs' or tubercles.

Signs of broad mite activity on blackberries include terminal leaf rigidity, discolouration, inter-veinal chlorosis, leaf cupping up or down and lateral bud blackening/dropping (Figure 98 and Figure 99). Subsequent years of broad mite damage can result in weakened floricanes with reduced or no yield. Left unchecked, this will result in plant death.

Figure 98. Leaf distortion and cupping from broad mite infestation. Photo: Donn Johnson, University of Arkansas.

Figure 99. Broad mite damage to strawberries.

Management

Cultural and physical

Dusty environments favour pest mite activity. If weather conditions are hot and dry, traffic should be limited and operators should drive slowly to limit the dust on plants. Establishing and maintaining green ground cover, especially before planting, can reduce dust while also providing an attractive alternate habitat for beneficial predatory insects. Provided most berries are grown under plastic, it is recommended to establish ground cover before the plastic is installed.

Biological

Broad mite can be controlled by the predatory mites *Neoseiulus cucumeris* and *N. californicus*, which are available for purchase. Careful selection of IPM-friendly insecticides will help to encourage predatory mites and other beneficials. Throughout this guide, look at the 'Effect on beneficials' column in the chemical tables to identify the effect each chemical will have on beneficials and bees.

Chemical

The chemical options for controlling broad mite are listed in Table 41.

Table 41. Registered or permitted products for broad mite in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Insecticide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Fenbutatin oxide PER89407 (expires 28.2.26)	12B	Low	1	Blackberries Raspberries (field and protected cropping)
Paraffinic oil (NSW, SA, Tas, WA)	–	Low	Not required when used as directed	Strawberries
Sulfur PER87245 (expires 28.2.29)	M2	Low	Not required when used as directed	Blackberries

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Cottonseed bug

Oxycarenus luctuosus

Cottonseed bugs can swarm in large numbers and will cause significant damage to ripening fruit.

Risk period

Table 42. The peak risk period for cottonseed bug.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Pest identification and damage

Cottonseed bug adults are about 3 mm long and have triangular patterns on their backs (Figure 100). Nymphs are black with a blood-red abdomen. They are soft-bodied and can be easily squashed, releasing a bad smell.

They are attracted to lights at night and can be seen in large numbers in and around buildings and orchards. The swarms can congregate for several weeks, depending onsite suitability. They are attracted to shade, humidity and moisture (e.g. from irrigation), which are often found near houses, buildings and orchards.

Cottonseed bug causes damage by:

1. bleaching and deforming the fruit
2. causing the fruit to be unsaleable because the bug sticks to the fruit, causing contamination.

Figure 100. Adult cottonseed bug, note the triangular patterns. Photo: Biosecurity New Zealand.

Management

Cultural and physical

Cottonseed bug control can be difficult. Since the bugs are native, they breed in bushland and although it might be necessary to apply sprays to reduce numbers, this does not prevent any further swarms from moving onto properties.

Biological

There are no known biological controls for cottonseed bug in berries.

Chemical

The chemical options for controlling cottonseed bug are listed in Table 43. Remember, applying sprays will reduce numbers temporarily, but it will not prevent further swarms from moving onto properties.

Table 43. Registered or permitted products for cottonseed bug in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Insecticide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Acetamiprid + pyriproxyfen (Trivor®) PER91601 (expires 28.2.25)	4A + 7C	Medium–high	7	Blackberries, raspberries
Sulfoxaflor PER90208 (expires 30.4.27)	4C	High	1	Blackberries, raspberries

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Dried fruit beetle

Carpophilus spp.

Carpophilus spp. beetles can cause serious losses when they enter ripening fruit. The adult can fly several kilometres in search of hosts. Summer rain and rotting fruit are ideal breeding conditions.

Risk period

Table 44. The peak risk period for carpophilus beetle.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Pest identification and damage

Carpophilus spp. beetles are small (2–3 mm long) and black or brown (Figure 101). Their wing covers are short and they have clubbed antennae. Larvae are yellowish, about 5 mm long when fully grown, have brown heads and forked tails.

Carpophilus spp. beetles feed on ripe and decomposing fruit. Adults are mechanical carriers of brown rot and botrytis, transmitting spores as they move across the fruit, which develops at the sites of beetle damage on fruit.

Figure 101. Adult *Carpophilus* species beetle.

Management

Cultural and physical

The most important management strategy for *Carpophilus* spp. beetles is good orchard hygiene, which is improved by removing and destroying waste fruit from orchards. Controlling Queensland fruit fly will decrease the amount of fallen fruit and reduce the potential for *Carpophilus* spp. infestation.

Biological

When deployed at least 4 weeks before harvest, an attract and kill system using synthetic aggregation pheromones plus a food-attractant protects ripening crops. Continuing to mass-trap through harvest and for an additional 2 weeks will help reduce the resident pest population. Placing traps (Figure 102) upwind on the outside edges of blocks will ensure maximum pheromone spread.

Figure 102. *Carpophilus* spp. traps can be used for monitoring and mass trapping. Photo: Bugs for Bugs.

Chemical

The chemical option for controlling *Carpophilus* species beetle is listed in Table 45.

Table 45. Registered or permitted product for carpophilus beetle in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Insecticide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
3-methyl-1-butanol, 2-methyl-1-butanol, ethyl acetate, acetaldehyde, sec butanol, ethanol, carpophilus aggregation pheromones (Carpophilus Catcha Trapping System)	–	Low	Not required when used as directed	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries, strawberries

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Elephant weevil

Orthorhinus cylindrirostris

The elephant weevil larval stage causes the most economic damage. Adults emerge from September to February when they climb onto upper branches and mate, usually a few weeks after pruning. This is the optimum time for control. Oviposition (egg-laying) lasts from September to February but peaks in October. Plants can remain suitable as egg-laying sites for many years as long as they do not die from elephant weevil attack.

Risk period

Table 46. The peak risk period for elephant weevil.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Pest identification and damage

The elephant weevil's body is densely covered with scales (Figure 103) that vary from grey to black. The weevils can be up to 20 mm long. The larvae are soft, fleshy, creamy–yellow and legless (Figure 104). They hatch and feed by boring tunnels (Figure 105) through the stem, crown and roots of the plant. As larvae exit the base of the plant to mature, they leave large emergence holes (Figure 106).

Figure 103. Adult elephant weevil.

Figure 104. Elephant weevil larvae.

Figure 105. Elephant weevil boring tunnel.
Photo: M Rocchetti, Costa Berries.

Figure 106. Elephant weevil exit damage.
Photo: M Rocchetti, Costa Berries.

Some blueberry varieties (e.g. MBO 11-11, Star, Costa cv. 42) are more attractive to elephant weevil than others, so monitor these carefully. Practices that reduce stress (such as fertilisation and irrigation) are essential in drought to reduce the susceptibility of bushes.

Management

Cultural and physical

Monitor for bore holes in the wood. Rapidly remove and thoroughly destroy all infested bushes and material to prevent premature metamorphosis and emergence of any weevils in the bushes. Removing adults might help break population cycles.

Biological

A braconid wasp has been found at elephant weevil-infested vineyards, but confirmation of a parasitoid-host relationship was not made from rearing, and further work in this area is required.

Chemical

The chemical options for controlling elephant weevil are listed in Table 47. Chemical treatment is most effective when the adults emerge and climb on to the upper branches of recently pruned plants.

Table 47. Registered or permitted products for elephant weevil in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Insecticide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Bifenthrin PER84972 (expires 30.11.27)	3A	High	1	Blueberries
Indoxacarb PER13289 (expires 31.5.28)	22A	High	3	Blueberries

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label

European earwig

Forficula auricularia

European earwigs have a very broad host range, feeding on many horticultural and broadacre crops.

Risk period

Table 48. The peak risk period for European earwig.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Pest identification and damage

Adult European earwigs are dark brown with yellow-brown legs and shoulders. They are 12–24 mm long and have thin, segmented antennae with a pair of pincers at the rear of the body. European earwig males have longer curved pincers and females have straight pincers (Figure 107).

European earwigs will feed on foliage, leaving irregularly shaped holes. Most economic loss occurs from the earwigs feeding on the fruit, causing shallow depressions. They can also cause a contamination threat as they often hide in fruit clusters.

Figure 107. Adult European earwigs, male on the left and female on the right.

Management

Cultural and physical

Practising good farm hygiene will prevent the introduction and spread of European earwig. Generally, European earwigs will seek shelter during the day in the plant and among fruit clusters, so keeping canopies open (where possible) will help reduce the potential for fruit damage. Reducing the height of weeds in the inter-row will reduce shelter options for the earwigs.

Biological

Currently there are no known natural predators of the European earwig. Some birds and lizards will feed on earwigs, but this is unlikely to significantly reduce populations. In certain horticulture crops where the fruit is generally hard, European earwig is considered a beneficial insect because it predates on other insect pests.

Chemical

Currently there are no chemical options for controlling European earwig in berries.

Foliar nematodes

Aphelenchoides spp.

Foliar or bud nematode is a plant pathogenic nematode that causes significant crop loss in strawberries. While most nematodes occur in soil or on below-ground plant parts, these nematodes feed on above-ground plant parts.

Risk period

Table 49. The peak risk period for foliar nematodes.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Pest identification and damage

Symptoms include stunted and deformed buds and flowers. Leaves will be twisted, puckered and/or crinkled (Figure 108). There will be tight aggregation around the crown accompanied by reddened, stunted petioles and flower stalks with partly or fully aborted flowers. These symptoms can often be confused with mite or insect damage.

Figure 108. Foliar nematode damage. Photos: Wendy Morris, Berries Australia.

Management

Foliar nematodes have a very wide host range including weeds and natural vegetation. They can feed and survive on fungi, either in the soil or on decaying plant material when the host is not present. This makes these nematodes very difficult to control.

Cultural and physical

Foliar nematodes require water to move. A thin film must be present for the nematode to move around the plant and from plant to plant. Nematodes can also be splashed between plants by rainfall and overhead irrigation, and workers can transfer them if the foliage is wet.

To limit spread through these pathways:

- Inspect crops and surrounding vegetation regularly.
- Remove and destroy infected plants and weeds regularly.
- Avoid working when plants are wet.
- Remove decaying plant material where the nematode can survive and re-infest.
- Ensure starter plants/runners are clean of foliar nematodes.

Biological

Currently there are no biological options for controlling foliar nematodes in strawberries.

Chemical

The chemical option for controlling foliar nematodes is listed in Table 50.

Table 50. Registered or permitted products for foliar nematodes in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Insecticide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Fluopyram (Indemnify®) PER95520 (expires 30.4.26)	7	High	Not required when used as directed	Strawberries (runners and field use)

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Fruit spotting bug and banana spotting bug

Amblypelta nitida and *Amblypelta lutescens lutescens*

The fruit spotting bug (*Amblypelta nitida*) and the banana spotting bug (*A. lutescens lutescens*) are fairly new pests of blueberries and currently only affect those in the Queensland growing region.

Risk period

Table 51. The peak risk period for fruit spotting bug.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Pest identification and damage

Fruit spotting bug (FSB) nymphs are 2–10 mm long. Their main feature is 2 black spots on the abdomen (Figure 109). Nymphs are distinguished from adults by the absence of external wings. Adult FSB are approximately 11–15 mm long and slender. Their body is often tinted yellow-orange.

FSB have piercing-sucking mouthparts. They feed by inserting 2 pairs of stylets (slender, piercing tube structures) into the plant tissue. These inject salivary fluid containing enzymes, including sucrase. In berry crops, FSB target flowers and fruit, leaving a sunken brown lesion on immature fruit (Figure 110).

Figure 109. Banana spotting spotting bug nymph.

Figure 110. Fruit spotting bug feeding damage to blueberries. Photo: M Rocchetti, Costa Berries.

Management

Cultural and physical

A pheromone-based trap for FSB is commercially available. The pheromone lure is an aggregation chemical that attracts *Amblypelta lutescens lutescens*. This trap is sold as a single unit or as a pack of 10, which is enough to monitor the insect over 1 ha of crop for 6 weeks.

Biological

Use cover crops in the inter-row to provide habitat for natural FSB predators, such as:

- egg parasitoids
  - *Anastatus* spp. nr *pentatomidivorus* (Eupelmidae)
  - *Ooencyrtus caurus* (Encyrtidae)
  - *Gryon* spp. (Scelionidae)
  - *Centrodora darwini* (Aphelinidae)
- nymph and adult parasitoids include the tachinid fly, *Trichopoda giacomellii*
- predators: spiders, ants e.g. green tree ant (*Oecophylla smaragdina*) and big head ants *Pheidole* spp., predatory bugs e.g. assassin bug (*Pristhesancus papuensis)* and lacewings (e.g. brown lacewing *Micromus tasmaniae)*.

Chemical

Currently there are no chemical options available to control FSB in berries in Australia.

Green stink bug

Plautia affinis

Adult green stink bugs overwinter on other hosts (e.g. corn crops), under tree bark or in farm sheds. In warmer coastal areas, the green stink bug will feed and breed all year round. It can be a contaminant pest that can cause significant damage to crops.

Risk period

Table 52. The peak risk period for green stink bug.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Pest identification and damage

Adult green stink bugs are approximately 8 mm long and have a green shield-shaped body with brown wing covers (Figure 111). Each female lays about 200–300 eggs in small loose rafts, with an average of 30 eggs on each raft, on raspberry leaves or fruit. Nymphs are cream and yellow with prominent dark markings. Nymphs hatch and pass through 5 instars before becoming adults.

Both nymphs and adults pierce plants with needle-like mouthparts, sucking sap from buds and blossoms. Adults and nymphs also feed directly on the green, ripening and ripe berries, causing discolouration and reduced firmness. Adults can lay eggs on the fruit (Figure 112), which can cause contamination when picking.

Figure 111. Adult green stink bug. Photo: M Rocchetti, Costa Berries.

Figure 112. Green stink bug eggs (top left) and nymphs (middle).

Management

Biological

Spiders, ants and predatory bugs (e.g. lacewing larva) are green stink bug predators, particularly of eggs and young nymphs. Eggs can be parasitised by wasps (*Trissolcus basalis*, *T. oenone* and *Telenomus cyrus*).

Chemical

The chemical options for controlling green stink bug are listed in Table 53.

Table 53. Registered or permitted products for green stink bugs in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Insecticide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Pyrethrin (PyGanic®) PER80070 (expires 31.10.25)	3A	High	Not required when used as directed	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries
Sulfoxaflor (Transform®) PER91327 (expires 30.9.26)	4C	High	1	Blueberries

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Green vegetable bug

Nezara viridula

Adult green vegetable bugs overwinter on other hosts (e.g. legumes), under tree bark or in farm sheds. In warmer coastal areas, green vegetable bug (GVB) will feed and breed all year round.

Risk period

Table 54. The peak risk period for green vegetable bug.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Pest identification and damage

The adult GVB is 15 mm long, green and shield-shaped (Figure 113). When disturbed, it releases a strong aroma to deter predators. The nymphal stages look similar to the adult, but with a range of green, yellow and black markings.

Green vegetable bugs invade crops at flowering, laying eggs underneath leaves in rafts. Nymphs and adults feed by piercing flower buds and fruitlets. The eggs are treated as a biological contaminant under quality control guidelines, resulting in potential crop losses.

Figure 113. Adult green vegetable bug.

Management

Cultural and physical

Remove weeds from around the crop, as many (i.e. turnip weed, wild radish and variegated thistle) are breeding hosts for the GVB.

Biological

Green vegetable bug eggs are parasitised by the wasp *Trissolcus basalis* (Figure 114). Parasitised eggs are easily recognised as they turn black. Nymphs are attacked by ants, spiders and predatory bugs. The final instar and adult are parasitised by the tachinid fly (*Trichopoda giacomelli*).

Figure 114. Stink bug egg parasite (*Trissolcus basalis*). Photo: Guido Bohne, Bugwood.org.

Chemical

The chemical options for controlling green vegetable bug are listed in Table 55.

Table 55. Registered or permitted products for green vegetable bug in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Insecticide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Acetamiprid + pyriproxyfen (Trivor®) PER91601 (expires 28.2.25)	4A + 7C	Medium	7	Blackberries, raspberries
Flonicamid PER89214 (expires 28.2.27)	29	Low–medium	3	Blackberries, raspberries (suppression)
Pyrethrin (PyGanic®) PER80070 (expires 31.10.25)	3A	High	Not required when used as directed	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Greenhouse and silverleaf whitefly

Trialeurodes vaporariorum and *Bemisia tabaci*

Whiteflies are tiny sap-sucking insects that are found on the underside of leaves. They can develop rapidly under warm, favourable conditions. As whiteflies can produce several generations a year, they are also quick to develop insecticide resistance.

Risk period

Table 56. The peak risk period for greenhouse and silverleaf whitefly.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Pest identification and damage

Adult whiteflies are white to off-white, about 1.5–2.5 mm and look like small moths (Figure 115). Similar to other sucking pests, they produce a sticky substance known as honeydew, which encourages sooty mould. The sucking damage causes reduced growth, yellowing, stunting, and overall yield reduction.

Some whitefly species can transmit viruses and carry other pest species such as broad mites.

Figure 115. Whiteflies on a blueberry leaf.

Management

Cultural and physical

Remove broadleaf host weeds and remnants of harvested crops from the production area. Use yellow sticky traps such as Optiroll Super Yellow for mass trapping.

Biological

There are several natural predators that can help manage whiteflies. Several insect species such as lacewings, ladybirds and hoverflies will feed on whiteflies. *Encarsia formosa* is a small, parasitic wasp that controls greenhouse and silverleaf whiteflies. Other commercially available parasitic wasps include *Eretmocerus warrae* and *E. hayati*.

Chemical

The chemical options for controlling greenhouse and silverleaf whiteflies are listed in Table 57.

Table 57. Registered or permitted products for greenhouse and silverleaf whiteflies in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Insecticide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Afidopyropen	9D	Low	1	Strawberries
Afidopyropen PER90178 (expires 28.2.27)	9D	Low	1	Blackberries, raspberries
Flonicamid	29	Low–medium	1	Strawberries
Flonicamid PER89214 (expires 28.2.27)	29	Low–medium	3	Blackberries, raspberries
Pyrethrins	3A	High	Not required when used as directed	Strawberries
Pyriproxyfen PER13331 (expires 31.8.25)	7C	Low	2	Strawberries
Sulfoxaflor	4C	High	1	Blackberries, raspberries

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Leaf-hoppers/jassids

Cicadellidae

Leaf-hoppers are small, mobile, leaf-feeding insects that are commonly found on stems or the undersides of leaves.

Risk period

Table 58. The peak risk period for leaf-hoppers.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Pest identification and damage

Leaf-hoppers are about 3 mm long and wedge-shaped (Figure 116) with a broad, rounded head and short antennae. They range from green to yellow. They are quick to jump, hop sideways or fly away if disturbed. Nymphs usually resemble adults but are smaller and wingless. Adults and nymphs pierce the leaf and feed on the plant sap. Severe infestations can cause damage to foliage (Figure 117), flowers and fruit.

Figure 116. Adult flatid plant-hopper. Photo: Brisbane Insects.

Figure 117. Leaf yellowing and curling from leaf-hopper damage. Photo: Hanson et al. (2014).

Management

Cultural and physical

Well-watered, vigorously growing crops can generally tolerate damage. Maintain good farm hygiene and remove other host plants (e.g. weeds).

Biological

Generalist predators will attack leaf-hoppers but are unlikely to provide sufficient control during outbreaks.

Chemical

The chemical options for controlling leaf-hoppers are listed in Table 59.

Table 59. Registered or permitted products for leaf-hoppers in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Insecticide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Acetamiprid + pyriproxyfen (Trivor®) PER91601 (expires 28.2.25)	4A + 7C	Medium	7	Blackberries, raspberries
Dimethoate	1B	High	1	Blueberries
			7	Blackberries, raspberries
Flonicamid PER89214 (expires 28.2.27)	29	Low–medium	3	Blackberries, raspberries
Sulfloxaflor (Transform®) PER91327 (expires 30.9.26)	4C	High	1	Blueberries

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Leaf-rollers

Tortricidae

Several leaf-roller species can damage berries, including *Epiphyas postvittana* (light brown apple moth; Figure 118), *Dudua aprobola* (mango flower webworm; Figure 119), *Isotenes miserana* (orange fruit borer; Figure 120) and *Lobesia physophora*.

Figure 118. Light brown apple moth larva.

Figure 119. Mango flower webworm larva. Photo: Pestnet.org.

Figure 120. Orange fruit borer larva.

Risk period

Table 60. The peak risk period for leaf-rollers.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Pest identification and damage

Moths in the Tortricidae family are often referred to as leaf-rollers because the caterpillars of many species roll the leaves, joining them together with silk, and live and pupate in this leafy shelter (Figure 121).

The light brown apple moths (LBAM) are pale brown (Figure 122) with a wingspan of about 10 mm. Leaf-roller caterpillars are generally small with soft, smooth skins and fine, sparse hairs. LBAM caterpillars are often yellow when young and become green with a brown head. Pupae are 10–12 mm long and turn from green to brown. Egg masses can be green to yellow-brown. They often wriggle backwards when disturbed, trying to withdraw into any available crevice. They are also inclined to drop on a silken thread.

In blueberries, the leaf-roller caterpillar causes the most damage, mainly from feeding activity that destroys vegetative growth (Figure 123), flowers and fruit (Figure 124). Damage can also reduce fruit quality through skin marks.

Figure 121. Rolled leaf with light brown apple moth caterpillar inside.

Figure 122. Adult light brown apple moth.

Figure 123. Leaf-roller damage to leaves.

Figure 124. Fruit damage from light brown apple moth.

Management

Cultural and physical

Prune plants to maximise spray coverage. Reduce weeds such as dock and capeweed because LBAM survive on these weeds during winter. There are limited cultural and physical control options for mango flower webworm and orange fruit borer.

Biological

Monitoring using commercially available pheromone traps (Figure 125) provides early warning of the arrival or emergence of LBAM, helping with early control and management. Monitoring should start early in the season e.g. August.

Trichogramma carverae are commercially available parasitic wasps for controlling LBAM. Natural predators such as other parasitic wasps, lacewings, spiders and predatory shield bugs also contribute to biological control.

Bacillus thuringiensis (Bt) is a naturally occurring, commercially available soil-borne bacterium that is toxic to LBAM larvae when consumed.

Pheromone isomate wire ties (Figure 126) placed in the orchard at a rate of 500/ha are effective non-chemical mating disrupters. They work by flooding the orchard with a pheromone that confuses the male. It does not kill the adult or any stage of the LBAM life cycle, but disrupts the mating behaviour.

There are limited biological options for controlling mango flower webworm and orange fruit borer. More research needs to be done to determine potential effective options.

Figure 125. A pheromone trap being used for light brown apple moth monitoring.

Figure 126. A pheromone isomate wire tie in place.

Chemical

The chemical options for controlling leaf-rollers are listed in Table 61. Please note that some chemical options are registered either specifically for LBAM or other Lepidopteran pests; always check the label before using a product.

Table 61. Registered or permitted products for leaf-rollers in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Insecticide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Acetamiprid + pyriproxyfen (Trivor®) PER91601 (expires 28.2.25)	4A + 7C	Medium	7	Blackberries, raspberries
Bacillus thuringiensis Berliner subsp. *aizawai* strain GC-91	11	Very low	Not required when used as directed	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries, strawberries
Carbaryl (Bugmaster®)	1A	High	7	Raspberries
Chlorantraniliprole (Coragen®) PER84178 (expires 31.1.26)	28	Low	3	Blueberries
Chlorantraniliprole (Coragen®) PER95049 (expires 3.1.27)	28	Low	3	Blackberries, raspberries
Cyantraniliprole	28	Low	1	Strawberries
Emamectin (Proclaim®)	6	Medium	3	Strawberries
Emamectin (Proclaim®) PER85422 (expires 29.2.28)	6	Medium	5	Blueberries
Indoxacarb (Avatar® eVo)	22A	Medium–high	3	Blackberries, raspberries (all field grown only)
			7	Blueberries (field grown only)
Indoxacarb (Avatar®) PER13289 (expires 31.5.28)	22A	Medium–high	3	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries
Methoxyfenozide (Prodigy®)	18	Very low	7	Blueberries
Spinetoram (Success® Neo)	5	High	1	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries, strawberries
Spinosad	5	Medium	1	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries, strawberries
Tebufenozide PER91907 (expires 30.6.26)	18	Low	3	Blueberries

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Loopers

Chrysodeixis spp.

Loopers can damage berries and are easily distinguished by the looping characteristic of their body as they move.

Risk period

Table 62. The peak risk period for loopers.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Pest identification and damage

Looper larvae are greyish-white, green or pale brown and can be mottled or striped. Some loopers, such as the green looper, will have green larvae with faint white lines running down the side of their body (Figure 127). Most looper larvae will grow to about 40 mm long.

It is the caterpillar stage of loopers that causes the most damage by feeding predominately on leaves, although they can attack growing tips, flowers and fruit.

Figure 127. A green looper caterpillar.

Management

Cultural and physical

Controlling broadleaf weeds in the orchard might help reduce the potential for looper infestation.

Biological

Bacillus thuringiensis (Bt) is a bacterium that works as an effective biological control agent against loopers, affecting the caterpillar stage.

Chemical

The chemical options for controlling loopers are listed in Table 63.

Table 63. Registered or permitted products for loopers in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Insecticide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Bacillus thuringiensis Berliner subsp. *aizawai* strain GC-91	11	Very low	Not required when used as directed	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries, strawberries
Chlorantraniliprole (Coragen®) PER84178 (expires 31.1.26)	28	Low	3	Blueberries
Emamectin (Proclaim®)	6	Medium	3	Strawberries
Emamectin (Proclaim®) PER85422 (expires 29.2.28)	6	Medium	5	Blueberries
Spinetoram (Success® Neo)	5	High	1	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries, strawberries
Spinosad	5	Medium	1	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries, strawberries

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Mirids (green, brown and crop)

Creontiades dilutus, *Creontiades pacificus* and *Sidnia kinbergi*

Several different species of mirids can damage berries, including *Creontiades dilutus* (green mirid), *Creontiades pacificus* (brown mirid) and *Sidnia kinbergi* (crop mirid). Mirids are widely distributed throughout Australia, feeding and developing on a wide range of other host plants, including many common weed species such as wild turnips, verbena and thistles. Mirids overwinter in low numbers, then as temperatures begin to rise in August, populations increase.

Risk period

Table 64. The peak risk period for mirids.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Pest identification and damage

Mirids are highly mobile insects about 7–8 mm long with long antennae. Adults have clear wings folded flat on the back (Figure 128). Green mirid adults are pale green and often have red markings, young green mirids have pear-shaped bodies and the antennae tips are reddish-brown. Brown mirids look similar to green mirids but the front part of the body is brown. Crop mirid adults are grey–green on top and bright green underneath. Younger green mirids are green with brown and white striped antennae and have a black spot on their back.

Both adults and nymphs pierce plant tissue and release a chemical that destroys cells in the feeding zone. They damage buds, flowers and growing points through feeding. This results in reduced berry weight and increased fruit distortion (Figure 129).

Figure 128. Adult green mirid.

Figure 129. Mirid damage to berries. Photo: Nightingale (2016).

Management

Cultural and physical

Controlling host weeds such as wild turnips, wild beans, wild sunflowers, marshmallow, Noogoora burr, verbena, and thistles can help reduce mirid infestation and damage.

Biological

Damsel bugs, big-eyed bugs, predatory shield bugs, lynx, night stalkers and jumping spiders feed on mirid adults, nymphs and eggs. A green mirid pheromone to use as a monitoring tool is available for purchase through EcoKimiko IPM Pty Ltd. It contains the sex-attractant chemicals used by female green mirids to attract males for mating.

Chemical

The chemical options for controlling mirids are listed in Table 65.

Table 65. Registered or permitted products for mirids in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Insecticide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Flonicamid (Mainman®)	29	Low	1	Strawberries
Flonicamid (Mainman®) PER89214 (expires 28.2.27)	29	Low	3	Blackberries, raspberries
Sulfoxaflor	4C	High	1	Blackberries, raspberries, strawberries

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Noctuid caterpillars

***Helicoverpa* spp, *Spodoptera* spp.**

Helicoverpa spp. (previously known as heliothis and commonly known as budworms, earworms or bollworms) and *Spodoptera* spp. (commonly known as armyworms or cluster caterpillars) can cause substantial crop damage and are becoming more common in all Australian growing regions. The moth larvae can cause extensive feeding damage.

Risk period

Table 66. The peak risk period for budworms.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Pest identification and damage

Native budworm (*Helicoverpa punctigera*) larvae are cream with dark-brown heads, black hairs around the head and a sharp downward angling at the end of the body. As they mature, the larvae will become darker and develop stripes along their bodies (Figure 130). Cotton bollworms or corn earworms (*Helicoverpa armigera*) have similar attributes but can be distinguished by the darker pigmented 'saddle' on the 4th body segment and white hairs around the head. They develop into adult moths, which are approximately 15–18 mm long and are light brown to red–brown, with numerous dark spots and blotches. The hind wings of the adult moth are pale with a dark band along the lower edge (Figure 131) and span 30–35 mm.

After hatching, the caterpillar crawls around the plant feeding, particularly on tender tissues such as plant tips (Figure 132), flowers and fruit (Figure 133).

Figure 130. *Helicoverpa* spp. caterpillars.

Figure 131. Female *Helicoverpa* spp.

Figure 132. Cotton bollworm damage on rubus. Photo: Costa Berries.

Figure 133. Caterpillar damage to blueberries.

A notable feature of this pest is its capacity to migrate at high altitudes over large distances (100–1,000 km) at night. The moths fly from areas where conditions do not favour another generation to areas with abundant food plants for further breeding.

The cluster caterpillar (*Spodoptera litura*) is an armyworm species prevalent in tropical and coastal regions. Its common name is derived from the mass 'clustering' of its young larvae, which feed close to the hatched egg mass. Like other *Spodoptera*, they have 3 distinct thin pale lines that run along the body (Figure 134), are often hairless and have an inverted pale 'Y' visible on their head capsule. Unlike cluster caterpillars, fall armyworm (*Spodoptera frugiperda*) newly hatched larvae do not congregate near the egg mass but disperse on silken threads (ballooning). Mature fall armyworm (FAW) larvae have a dark head (Figure 135) with an inverted pale 'Y' marking as well as 4 black dots in a square pattern on the second last segment.

Figure 134. Cluster caterpillar. Photo: Costa Berries.

Figure 135. Fall armyworm. Photo: Qld DAF.

Management

During spring and early summer monitor carefully for young caterpillars.

Cultural and physical

Helicoverpa spp. will lay eggs and overwinter on a wide range of plants including weeds. Increased larval activity in spring and summer is triggered by warmer conditions as local populations that overwintered in surrounding weeds emerge. Managing weeds can help to reduce any resident populations.

Biological

Predators and parasitoids such as predatory shield bugs (*Podisus* spp.), tachinid flies (*Trichopoda* spp.), green lacewings (*Mallada signata*), brown lacewings (*Micromus tasmaniae*), damsel bugs (*Nabi kinsbergii*) and *Trichogramma pretiosum* are all biological control options for *Helicoverpa* spp. Once hatched, lacewing larvae are wide-ranging predators that will eat small caterpillars, aphids and mites. *Bacillus thuringiensis* (Bt) is a bacterium that affects the caterpillar stage of *Lepidoptera* spp. insects and is commercially available as an insecticide. Using a 'softer' more selective insecticide program will assist with the biological control of budworms.

A pheromone lure is available for *Helicoverpa punctigera*. This pheromone attracts male moths by mimicking the scent of the female moth. Monitoring with this pheromone in combination with a trap (e.g. delta trap; Figure 136) will give an early warning of the arrival or emergence of the pest and can indicate pest pressure throughout the season.

Figure 136. A reusable weatherproof delta trap for use with pheromone lures to monitor moth populations. Photo: Bugs for Bugs.

Chemical

The chemical options for controlling *Helicoverpa* and *Spodoptera* caterpillars are listed in Table 67. Please note that certain chemical options are specific to either *Helicorverpa* spp., *Spodoptera* spp. or both; always check the label before using a product.

Table 67. Registered or permitted products for noctuid caterpillars in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Insecticide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Bacillus thuringiensis Berliner subsp. aizawai strain GC-91 (DiPel®)	11	Very low	Not required when used as directed	Blueberries, raspberries
Carbaryl (Bugmaster®)	1A	High	7	Raspberries
Chlorantraniliprole (Coragen®)	28	Low	1	Strawberries
Chlorantraniliprole (Coragen®) PER84178 (expires 31.1.26)	28	Low	3	Blueberries
Chlorantraniliprole (Coragen®) PER95049 (expires 3.1.27)	28	Low	3	Blackberries, raspberries
Cyantraniliprole (Benevia®)	28	Low	1	Strawberries
Emamectin (Proclaim®)	6	Medium	3	Strawberries
Emamectin (Proclaim®) PER85422 (expires 29.2.28)	6	Medium	5	Blueberries
Flubendiamide	28	Low	1	Strawberries
Methomyl (Nufarm Methomyl 225; NSW, WA)	1A	High	3	Strawberries
			5	Blueberries (field use only)
Methomyl PER87495 (expires 31.12.28; NT, Qld, SA, Tas, Vic)	1A	High	5	Blueberries (field use only)
Nuclear polyhedrosis virus (Vivus®)	–	Very low	Not required when used as directed	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries, strawberries
Spinetoram (Success® Neo)	5	High	1	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries, strawberries
Spinosad (Entrust®)	5	Medium	1	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries, strawberries
Tebufenozide PER91907 (expires 30.6.26)	18	Low	3	Blueberries

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Plague thrips

Thrips imaginis

Plague thrips are a native insect that can damage all berries. They can migrate in large numbers on the wind and can invade blocks in a very short time. Regularly inspecting crops will help to identify any sudden increases in thrips numbers.

Risk period

Table 68. The peak risk period for plague thrips.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Pest identification and damage

Adult plague thrips can be seen during flowering, crawling on flowers and around the reproductive parts of the flowers (Figure 137). They are usually brown, narrow-bodied and about 1.0–1.3 mm long.

Plague thrips can damage fruit crops in 2 main ways. Firstly, when they are present in very large numbers, their feeding on flowers results in damage to the stamens and stigmas, affecting pollination and fruit set. Secondly, feeding on the developing fruitlet surface causes fruit russetting that becomes unsightly as the fruit grows (Figure 138), making it unmarketable.

Figure 137. Adult plague thrips on a flower stamen.

Figure 138. Fruit russetting caused by thrips feeding on the fruitlet.

Management

Cultural and physical

If possible, avoid mowing inter-rows and adjacent pastures at or just before bloom as this might drive thrips into the crop. As thrips are naturally attracted to blue, using blue sticky Optiroll (Figure 139) as a physical barrier and mass-trapping can reduce thrips populations.

Biological

Monitor for plague thrips using yellow sticky traps placed throughout blocks from budburst to petal drop. The traps will indicate thrips activity and can also be used to obtain a formal identification of the pest species.

Figure 139. Blue sticky roll installed.

Monitor plague thrips activity by tapping flower clusters over a white ice cream container (or similar). Inspecting individual flowers can also help determine a measurable population size (i.e. numbers/flower) and damage, which will appear as brown spots on the stamens and stigmas.

There are several natural predators of plague thrips including predatory mites and thrips, lacewings, lady beetles and parasitic wasps. However, these are unlikely to provide full control of plague thrips, particularly during periods of rapid pest influx.

Chemical

The chemical options for controlling plague thrips are listed in Table 69. An effective control program will be based on strategic spraying based on monitoring and observation. When spraying at or around bloom, be particularly aware of any label warnings and recommendations for protecting bees and other off-target species.

Table 69. Registered or permitted products for plague thrips in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Insecticide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Cyantraniliprole	28	Medium	1	Strawberries
Dimethoate	1B	High	1	Blueberries
			7	Blackberries, raspberries
Methomyl (Nufarm Methomyl 225; NSW and WA only)	1A	High	5	Blueberries (field use only)
Methomyl PER87495 (expires 31.12.28; NT, Qld, SA, Tas, Vic)	1A	High	5	Blueberries

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Queensland fruit fly

Bactrocera tryoni

Queensland fruit fly (QFF) is a significant pest of fruit crops throughout northern and eastern Australia. It is an important quarantine pest of concern to most importing countries.

Risk period

Table 70. The peak risk period for Queensland fruit fly.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Pest identification and damage

Adult QFF are about 6–8 mm long and reddish–brown with yellow markings (Figure 140). They are most active in warm, humid conditions and after rain. QFF lay eggs in maturing and ripe fruit on bushes and sometimes in fallen fruit.

QFF damage the fruit by inserting their ovipositor and laying their eggs into the skin of developing fruit (most commonly as the fruit approaches maturity). When the eggs hatch, the developing larvae burrow in the fruit, causing the flesh to decay and the fruit to fall (Figure 141).

Figure 140. Adult Queensland fruit fly.

Figure 141. Queensland fruit fly larvae in a blueberry.

Management

A single control method is not sufficient to eradicate QFF from an area. A combination of methods, including population monitoring by trapping, area saturation with male annihilation technology (using pheromones to attract and kill males), protein bait sprays and strict orchard hygiene practices are required.

Cultural and physical

Orchard hygiene is essential as bushes with fallen and rotting fruit are a source of fruit fly infestations. Fruit flies can travel several hundred metres, so infected fruit should not be left within 1 km of the orchard. Practice good packing shed hygiene with thorough inspections to remove any infested fruit and dispose of it appropriately.

Monitor using fruit fly traps to determine population trends. To improve the flow in traps, replace the wicks every 3–6 months (depending on the product). Start monitoring in spring and continue until winter. Monitoring over time provides information on fly behaviour, where to focus control efforts and an assessment of the management strategies.

Figure 142. MAT cups include a lure and pesticide wick and can be placed inside a trap for monitoring or deployed separately in larger numbers to attract and kill.

Male annihilation technology (MAT) is an 'attract and kill' strategy for male flies (Figure 142). The aim is to reduce male populations to low levels, thus reducing mating opportunities for females.

The technique involves distributing devices containing Cue-Lure (male attractant) and an insecticide. Place the lures throughout the crop and in alternative hosts (i.e. fruiting windbreaks) at a density of about 16–20/ha.

Additional lures should be placed every 20 m around the perimeter of the property early in the season (late winter) to reduce the number of male flies entering the orchard. New lures should be placed into the orchard 3 times a year and each MAT device should be left in the field for 12 months. Distribute MAT cups the next season using orange in spring, yellow in summer and pink in autumn. Biodegradable MAT cups are also available.

Both male and female QFF need protein to reach sexual maturity, therefore, **protein bait spraying** is an effective control method. It involves using a protein source (e.g. yeast autolysate, PER13785) to attract QFFs and an insecticide (e.g. malathion or trichlorfon) to kill them. Begin spraying as soon as traps indicate QFF are present or fruit is at a susceptible stage. Apply bait sprays to the trunks of bushes or on trellis posts (Figure 143) where QFF are likely to be active. To avoid concerns about residue and fruit damage, do not spray the fruit. Repeat applications every 7 days, or sooner if rain has washed off the mixture. Egg-laying females can also be monitored and managed with Fruition Nova Traps. The colour, shape and smell of the trap attract and then trap them on the sticky surface (Figure 144).

Figure 143. Protein bait spray on a trellis post. Photo: Horticulture Innovation Australia.

Figure 144. A Fruition Nova Trap.

Biological

QFF has several natural predators including the parasitoid, *Diachasmimorpha tryoni*. Although not commercially available for release, studies have investigated the use of *D. tyroni* as part of an integrated management program.

The sterile insect technique (SIT) involves mass rearing and sterilising fruit flies that are then released as part of an area-wide management program. Commercial-scale SIT has recently been developed and is being used in favourable situations.

Chemical

An effective integrated chemical management program for QFF will include trap monitoring, protein bait sprays, male annihilation, orchard hygiene and cover spraying as required (Table 71).

Table 71. Registered or permitted products for Queensland fruit fly in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Insecticide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Abamectin (used in bait application)	6	Medium–high	7	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries
Acetamiprid + pyriproxyfen (Trivor®) PER91601 (expires 31.3.26)	4A + 7C	Medium	7	Blackberries, raspberries (suppression)
Alpha-cypermethrin PER90027 (expires 31.7.25)	3A	High	7	Blueberries
Dimethoate (NSW, WA)	1B	High	1	Blueberries
Dimethoate PER88174 (expires 31.5.29; Qld)	1B	High	1	Blueberries
Lures, attractants, pheromones and toxicants in traps PER13785 (expires 30.6.26)	Various	Low	Not required when used as directed	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries, strawberries
Malathion (Maldison; Fyfanon®)	1B	High	3	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries, strawberries
Spinetoram (Success® Neo) PER87408 (expires 28.2.29)	5	High	1	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries, strawberries (suppression)
Spinosad (Naturalure®; used in bait application)	5	Medium	Not required when used as directed	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries, strawberries
Trichlorfon (Lepidex®; NSW)	1B	High	2	Blueberries
Trichlorfon PER12486 (expires 31.3.26; ACT, NSW, Qld, SA, WA)	1B	High	2	Blueberries
			14	Blackberries, raspberries, strawberries

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Redberry mite

Acalitus essigi

Redberry mite (RBM) is a tiny mite that infests blackberries in Australia and many other blackberry-producing countries.

Risk period

Table 72. The peak risk period for redberry mite.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Pest identification and damage

Redberry mites are tiny, whitish, 0.5 mm long and look similar to a worm but have legs at one end of their body.

Redberry mite is believed to be the primary cause of redberry disease, a disorder that causes incomplete, delayed or uneven ripening of blackberry drupelets so that some stay hard and red while others are fully black and ripe (Figure 145).

Figure 145. Redberry mite damage to blackberry fruit.

Monitoring

Fruit monitoring

Collect 40 red fruit from a block, ensuring the calyx is included as this is where the mite will generally be located. Use the 'wash and shake' method to extract and count mites.

Wash and shake – extracting and counting mites

Mites and predators can be extracted from fruit buds by placing them in a small quantity of 70% ethanol and shaking them gently for 1 minute. If ethanol cannot be sourced, methylated spirits or a solution containing tap water, 2% household bleach, and 2–3 drops of detergent is also effective. Pour the solution into a Petri dish or small clear plastic container and place it over black cardboard to make counting easier. Count the mites using a minimum of 20× magnification.

Winter bud monitoring

Monitoring for RBM in winter can indicate the pest potential in the following season. Collect 10 buds from a block. Tease apart each bud to open it up gently before using the wash-and-shake method to extract and count the mites.

Management

Cultural and physical

Weed removal: wild blackberries are a hotspot for RBM. A higher incidence of RBM was found in fruit when wild blackberries were within 100 m of the commercial crop (Law et al. 2020). Removing wild blackberries close to the crop could help prevent reinfestation and reduce pest pressure.

Canopy management: primocane fruiting varieties managed with a complete mow down each season appear to have very low incidence of redberry mite due to habitat removal preventing large populations from building up.

Biological

Some blackberry varieties are more susceptible to RBM than others and some varieties do not show damage even when mites are present. Primocane varieties are less susceptible due to the annual removal of floricanes, which reduces RBM populations below problematic levels. Chester and Driscoll Victoria varieties are more susceptible than Elvira, Loch Ness and Karaka.

Redberry mite belongs to the family of *Eriophyid* mites, of which there are commercially available predatory mites. Introducing *Typhlodromus doreenae* and *Typhlodromalus lailae* in late spring and summer has been associated with reduced levels of redberry mite in commercial blackberry crops.

Chemical

Outdoor crops managed with low pesticide and softer fungicide programs had very low levels of redberry mite over multiple seasons. Chemical control (Table 73) should be considered when sampling indicates high levels in a susceptible crop. This should be integrated with both cultural and biological management for maximum effectiveness.

Table 73. Registered or permitted products for redberry mite in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Insecticide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Fenbutatin oxide PER89407 (expires 28.2.26)	12B	Low	1	Blackberries, raspberries
Sulfur PER87245 (expires 28.2.29)	M2	–	Not required when used as directed	Blackberries

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

This information was developed by the Tasmanian Institute of Agriculture through the project 'Integrated pest management of redberry mite on blackberries'.

Red-shouldered leaf beetle

Monolepta australis

Red-shouldered leaf beetles have a wide host range. Early detection is essential as swarms can strip leaves, fruit and buds, and numbers increase quickly.

Risk period

Table 74. The peak risk period for red-shouldered leaf beetles.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Pest identification and damage

Red-shouldered leaf beetles are 6 mm long and yellow, with a dark red band across the shoulders and 2 purple spots on the ends of their wing covers (Figure 146). Their yellowish eggs are small and oval. The larvae are white, slightly flattened with hard brown plates at both ends and up to 10 mm long.

Figure 146. Adult red-shouldered leaf beetle.

Adult beetles attack leaves, fruit (Figure 147) and flowers. High populations will shred leaves (Figure 148) and strip plants of flowers. Hatching occurs from grassed rows in spring through to autumn after rain. Infestations are likely after heavy rainfall (20–40 mm) in spring and summer. The beetles enter orchards on the wind and collect on a few plants before dispersing.

Figure 147. Red-shouldered leaf beetle damage to blueberries.

Figure 148. Red-shouldered leaf beetle damage to blueberry leaves.

Management

Cultural and physical

Eucalyptus torelliana is highly attractive to red-shouldered leaf beetle and is useful for early detection and control. Yellow sticky traps in boundary trees provide an early indication of beetle presence.

Biological

Currently there are no known biological control measures.

Chemical

Effective control can be achieved if incursions are discovered early and are spot-sprayed before they disperse to the rest of the orchard. Check crops after heavy rainfall as populations of greater than 20 beetles per square metre will cause significant damage.

The chemical treatment options for red-shouldered leaf beetles are in Table 75.

Table 75. Registered or permitted products for red-shouldered leaf beetle in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Insecticide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Bifenthrin PER84972 (expires 30.11.27)	3A	High–very high	1	Blackberries, raspberries
Methomyl (Nufarm Methomyl 225)	1A	High	5	Blueberries (field use only)
Methomyl PER87495 (expires 31.12.28; NT, Qld, SA, Tas, Vic)	1A	High	*5*	Blueberries (field use only)
Pyrethrin (Pyganic®) PER80070 (expires 31.10.25)	3A	High	Not required when used as directed	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Root-knot nematodes

Meloidogyne hapla

Root-knot nematodes (*Meloidogyne hapla*) live in the soil and attack many plants. Root-knot nematodes are sedentary endoparasites where only second-stage juveniles (the infective stage) and adult males (which might be rare) are found in the soil. The second-stage juveniles penetrate the tips of young roots. The optimum temperature for invasion and growth of *M. hapla* is between 20 °C and 25 °C, with a mean temperature of 27 °C being adverse to development.

Risk period

Table 76. The peak risk period for root-knot nematodes.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Pest identification and damage

Unlike most plant-parasitic nematodes, root-knot nematode feeding produces characteristic symptoms on roots called galls. Root-knot nematodes have very high reproductive potentials as females can produce up to 500 eggs.

Severe attack by *M. hapla* will result in badly impaired root function and accompanying stunting of the above-ground parts. Symptomatic plants characteristically appear in scattered clumps because of the patchy distribution of the nematodes. Roots have large or small galls and the proliferation of adventitious rootlets (Figure 149). Reduced runner production, depressed yields, and shortened planting life also occur.

Figure 149. Galls on strawberry roots caused by root-knot nematodes. Photo: Ontario Ministry of Food and Rural Affairs.

Management

Cultural and physical

- Fallow periods can disrupt the nematode life cycle. Practice good weed control.
- Cover crops are an excellent way to disrupt the nematode life cycle. Care should be taken when selecting a cover crop to avoid using a plant that is a host for the target nematode. In general, root-knot nematodes have very broad host ranges; therefore, selecting a non-host cover crop can be difficult.
- Use certified nursery plants.

Biological

Pasteuria penetrans is an endospore-forming bacterium that persists in the soil until a suitable nematode host encounters the spore. *Pasteuria penetrans* parasitises root-knot nematodes by adhering to the nematode cuticle (outer surface), infecting it, and developing inside the nematode body. This inhibits the nematode from producing eggs.

Chemical

The chemical options for controlling root-knot nematodes are listed in Table 77.

Table 77. Registered or permitted products for root-knot nematodes in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Insecticide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Chloropicrin + 1,3-dichloropropene (Agrocelhone NE Soil Fumigant)	8B	–	Not required when used as directed	Strawberries (pre-plant control)
Ethanedinitrile (EDN, Fumigas)	–	–	Not required when used as directed	Strawberries and strawberry runners
Fenamiphos (Nemacur®) PER91381 (expires 31.5.25; Qld, Tas)	N-1B	Medium–high	Not required when used as directed	Strawberry runners

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Rutherglen bug

Nysius vinitor

Rutherglen bugs are native insects with a wide host range. They are strong fliers that migrate in swarms. They are most prevalent in spring and summer during warm, dry periods and when surrounding weeds are drying off.

Risk period

Table 78. The peak risk period for Rutherglen bug.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Pest identification and damage

Adult Rutherglen bugs are grey-brown with clear wings (Figure 150). They are 4 mm long with a narrow body and prominent eyes. They are highly mobile insects and often swarm in the hundreds over the fruit surface.

Rutherglen bugs cause damage by sucking sap from fruit and leaves.

Figure 150. Adult Rutherglen bug.

Management

Cultural and physical

Managing weeds around the crop can reduce the likelihood of Rutherglen bugs moving from weeds into the crop.

Biological

Birds and spiders might provide some predation of Rutherglen bug, but this will not provide control of large populations.

Chemical

The chemical treatment options for Rutherglen bug are listed in Table 79.

Table 79. Registered or permitted products for Rutherglen bug in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Insecticide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Carbaryl (Bugmaster®)	1A	High	7	Raspberries
Dimethoate (Qld, SA, Tas, Vic, WA)	1B	High	1	Blueberries
			7	Blackberries, raspberries
Flonicamid PER89214 (expires 28.2.27)	29	Low–medium	3	Blackberries, raspberries (suppression)
Maldison PER13542 (expires 30.4.25)	1B	High	3	Strawberries
Pyrethrins (Pyganic®)	3A	High	Not required when used as directed	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries, strawberries
Sulfoxaflor	4C	High	1	Blackberries, raspberries, strawberries (suppression)

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Scale insects

Coccidae spp., *Diaspididae* spp. and *Eriococcidae* spp.

Scale insects feed on plant tissue and secrete honeydew. Managing scale insects should focus on preventing infestations and controlling populations before they cause economic loss. Monitoring should include visual observations, including turning over leaves and looking for black sooty mould and ants on the plants.

Risk period

Table 80. The peak risk period for scale insects.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Pest identification and damage

The term 'scale' refers to the substance secreted over the back of the insect. The white wax (Figure 151) is seen around autumn when the adults settle, so treatment should be applied when the insects are crawlers. Scale insects often do not have functional legs and adult females are generally sedentary. Most species lay eggs underneath their body.

Scale insects feed on young growing tips, causing distorted foliage. Feeding on leaves causes leaf yellowing and the plant to appear stressed and stunted. If left uncontrolled, scale insects can weaken the bush, predisposing it to disease or abiotic problems.

Coccus hesperidum (Figure 152) affects mainly blueberry leaves but their feeding activity will cause sooty mould on the plants (Figure 153), including the fruit, which makes it unsaleable.

Figure 151. Scale on a blueberry bush. Photo: J Saeck, Blueberry Fields.

Figure 152. Scale on a blueberry leaf.

Figure 153. Sooty mould on blueberry leaves.

Management

Cultural and physical

Pruning and destroying old, weak canes and scale-infested wood prevents scale populations from increasing and removes a large pool of eggs.

Biological

There are several natural predators for managing scale insects. Some are commercially available predatory insects (e.g. lady beetles) such as *Cryptolaemus* spp. and blue chilocorus (*Chilicoris circumdatus*), naturally occurring parasitoid wasps (e.g. *Aphytis lingnanensis* and *A. melinis)* and predators such as green lacewings (*Mallada signata*).

Chemical

The chemical treatment options for scale insects are listed in Table 81.

Table 81. Registered or permitted products for scale insects in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Insecticide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Acetamiprid + pyriproxyfen (Trivor®) PER91601 (expires 31.3.26)	4A + 7C	Medium	7	Blackberries, raspberries
Paraffinic oil	–	Low	1	Blueberries
Petroleum oil PER13957 (expires 31.12.27)	–	Low	1	Blackberries, raspberries
Spirotetramat	23	Low	1	Blueberries
Sulfoxaflor	4C	High	1	Blackberries, raspberries (suppression)
Sulfoxaflor PER91327 (expires 30.9.26)	4C	High	1	Blueberries

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Scarab beetle

Heteronychus arator

The African black beetle (*Heteronychus arator*) and various cockchafers belong to the scarab family.

Risk period

Table 82. The peak risk period for scarab beetles.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Pest identification and damage

Scarab larvae are usually cream, white or light brown. When they hatch they are small (1–3 mm long) but generally develop until they are longer than the adult. Many species of scarab larvae appear similar and often curl into a characteristic C-shape when at rest or disturbed (Figure 154). They have 3 pairs of well developed legs and usually a hard, brown, dark red or black head. Adults can vary in appearance, often being brown or black (Figure 155) but can be green, yellow or red and are sometimes iridescent. Most scarab beetles are approximately 8–20 mm long.

Risk periods for scarab beetles include summer and early autumn, especially those with dry spring and summer; this is when populations build up. There is also higher pest incidence associated with recent movement/disturbance of the soil, for example during mounding or preparing land. Most damage is caused by the larvae feeding on the underground roots of young plants (Figure 156). Adults often kill growing points, causing the central shoots to wither and the plants to become dead-hearted. As they emerge (usually around December), African black beetles crawl up plants to feed and mate rather than go into the soil. This is when damage can occur to the young stems of newly established plants. The damage that scarabs cause is often difficult to diagnose, other than seeing signs of stress to the below-ground plant parts (Figure 157 to Figure 159).

Figure 154. Scarab larvae. Photo: Clemson University, USDA Cooperative Extension Slide Series, Bugwood.org.

Figure 155. African black beetle. Photo: Hanna Royals, Screening Aids, USDA APHIS PPQ, Bugwood.org.

Figure 156. Scarab damage to the below-ground parts of the plant.

Figure 157. Scarab beetle damage to blueberry.

Figure 158. Scarab beetle damage to blackberry.

Figure 159. Scarab beetle damage to raspberry. Photo: Simon Boettiger, Mountain Blue Farms.

Management

Biological

The entomopathogenic nematode *Heterorhabditis zealandica* is commercially available through retail outlets. This should be applied to populations of small larvae.

Chemical

Since chemical treatment should focus on preventing larvae from feeding on young plants, chemicals should be applied at planting and before root flushes each year. The chemical treatment option for scarab beetles is listed in Table 83.

Table 83. Registered or permitted product for scarab beetles in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Insecticide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Imidacloprid PER12534 (expires 31.10.25)	4A	Medium	Not required when used as directed	Blueberries

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Two-spotted mite

Tetranychus urticae

Two-spotted mite (TSM) is more likely to become a problem in warm to hot, dry summers and when predatory insects are disrupted by sprays for other key pests and diseases.

Risk period

Table 84. The peak risk period for two-spotted mite.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Disease identification and damage

The adult female TSM is approximately 0.6 mm long and, while they can be seen with the naked eye, are best viewed with a 10× hand lens or light microscope. They are opaque cream with 2 distinctive dark patches (spots) on either side of the upper and forward part of the body (Figure 160). Adult males are smaller and less distinctive than females. Eggs are also opaque, cream-coloured and very small, i.e. 0.1 mm. TSM activity is often associated with the presence of webbing over the affected foliage. TSM damage crops by feeding mostly on the underside of leaves, causing cells to turn yellow–white. Heavy feeding results in severe speckling of the foliage, which gives a bronzed look (Figure 161). Severe damage can reduce photosynthetic capacity and, therefore, yield and fruit quality.

Figure 160. Two-spotted mite adults.

Figure 161. Two-spotted mite damage. Photo: J Robertson, Costa Berries.

Management

Cultural and physical

Similar to most mite pests, TSM seem to prefer dusty conditions and often thrive in plants adjacent to unsealed tracks. Any method that reduces dust arising from such sources will help decrease TSM activity.

Establishing adequate ground cover, maintaining good soil moisture and minimising plant stress, particularly during the hottest part of the season, will help plants recover from mite attack and resist damage.

Figure 162. The predatory mite *Phytoseiulus persimilis* attacking two-spotted mites.

Biological

The predatory mites *Galendromus occidentalis* (formerly *Typhlodromus occidentalis*), *Neoseiulus californicus* and *Phytoseiulus persimilis* (Figure 162) are all reared commercially for purchase and release. They can be very effective biological control agents for TSM if seasonal conditions and crop protection chemical selection are favourable.

There are many other naturally occurring predators of TSM including lacewings and stethorus beetles, which will help control TSM populations provided they are not killed off by sprays used for other orchard pests.

Chemical

Decisions to spray for TSM are best made based on the results of regular mite monitoring. During the growing season, and particularly as spring and summer temperatures increase, monitor the undersides of leaves for TSM and their eggs. Scouting for plant damage, such as bronzed or yellowed leaves, can be a quick way to identify pest mite hotspots. Note: applying pesticides that are not soft on beneficials often leads to outbreaks of mites because biocontrol agents are eliminated. The chemical treatment options for TSM are listed in Table 85.

Table 85. Registered or permitted products for two-spotted mite in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Insecticide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Abamectin	6	Medium–high	7	Blackberries, raspberries
			3	Strawberries
Abamectin PER91106 (expires 31.7.27; NSW, Qld, Tas, WA)	6	Medium–high	7	Blueberries
Bifenazate	20D	Low	1	Strawberries
Bifenazate PER14425 (expires 31.7.28)	20D	Low	1	Blackberries, raspberries
Botanical oil	–	Low	Not required when used as directed	Strawberries
Botanical oil PER14234 (expires 31.5.28)	–	Low	Not required when used as directed	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries
Cyflumetofen	25A	Low	1	Strawberries
Dimethoate	1B	High	1	Blueberries
			7	Blackberries, raspberries
Etoxazole PER89406 (expires 31.1.26)	10B	Low	1	Blackberries, raspberries
Fenbutatin oxide	12B	Low	1	Strawberries
Fenbutatin oxide PER89407 (expires 28.2.26)	12B	Low	1	Blackberries, raspberries
Hexythiazox	10A	Low	1	Strawberries
Milbemectin	6	Medium–high	1	Strawberries
Paraffinic oil (ACT, NSW, SA, Tas, WA)	–	Low	1	Blueberries, strawberries
Petroleum oil PER13957 (expires 31.12.27)	–	Low	1	Blackberries, raspberries
Propargite (ACT, NSW, Qld, Tas, Vic, WA)	12C	Medium	3	Strawberries
Sulfur PER87245 (expires 28.2.29)	M2	–	Not required when used as directed	Blackberries

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Western flower thrips

Frankliniella occidentalis

Western flower thrips (WFT) attack a wide variety of horticulture crops, both in the field and in greenhouses. Due to their small size, WFT are usually detected by trapping the insects or seeing plant symptoms rather than direct observation of the insects.

Risk period

Table 86. The peak risk period for Western flower thrips.

Budswell	Bloom	Fruit development	Harvest	Postharvest	Vegetative growth

Pest identification and damage

Adult WFTs are about 1–2 mm long, pale brown to yellow with narrow bodies (Figure 163). Western flower thrips are hard to identify in the field and a light microscope will usually be required to differentiate them from other pest species such as plague thrips and onion thrips.

Western flower thrips are usually found in flowers where they feed on nectar and pollen. In blueberries, feeding causes bronzing of the corolla (Figure 164).

Figure 163. Western flower thrips. Photo: David Cappaert, Bugwood.org.

Figure 164. Western flower thrips damage to blueberry flowers. Photo: M Rocchetti, Costa Berries.

Management

Cultural and physical

Monitor for thrips species using yellow sticky traps (Figure 165) hung throughout blocks from budburst to harvest. The traps will give an indication of thrips activity. Blue sticky Optiroll can be used as a physical barrier and mass trapping device to reduce thrip populations.

Several management practices will reduce pest numbers and minimise damage. As broadleaved weeds (particularly clover) are an alternative host for WFT, keep ground cover mown short throughout the year to prevent flowering, but do not mow when berries are in bloom. Choose pesticides that are less harmful to beneficial insects to encourage their presence and survival.

Biological

Neoseiulus cucumeris and *Typhlodromips montdorensis* are predatory mites available for thrips control. Basil can be planted throughout orchards to act as a banker plant for *Orius* thrips predators and as a trap plant for WFT.

Figure 165. Sticky traps are a useful monitoring tool.

Use approximately 200 banker plants/ha (more or less depending on thrips pressure).

There are several natural thrips predators including predatory mites, lacewings, predatory thrips, lady beetles and parasitic wasps. However, these are unlikely to provide adequate WFT control.

Chemical

The chemical treatment options for WFT are listed in Table 87.

Table 87. Registered or permitted products for Western flower thrips in Australia.

Active constituent (example trade name)	Insecticide group(s)	Effect on beneficials	WHP[1] (days)	Registered for use in...[2]
Abamectin	6	Medium–high	3	Strawberries
Cyantraniliprole	28	Low	1	Strawberries (field use and suppression only)
Dimethoate	1B	High	1	Blueberries
			7	Blackberries, raspberries
Spinetoram (Success® Neo)	5	High	1	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries, strawberries
Spinosad	5	Medium	1	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries, strawberries

[1] WHP = withholding period. [2] Always refer to the label.

Further reading

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Frost injury – blueberries

Identification and damage

Significant frost damage to fruit can usually be detected 3–5 days after exposure. Less severe damage during pollination can take up to 14 days to be noticeable. To determine the extent of frost damage, dissect developing fruit (after petal fall to small pea-sized green fruit) with a sharp knife.

Common signs of frost damage include:

- corolla damage, brown shrivel and drop (Figure 166)
- internal fruit browning (from small developing fruit through to ripe berries; Figure 167)
- irregular colouring and ripening of berries
- water-soaked or irregular colour to fruit calyx (Figure 168)
- irregular and misshapen berries (carried over from flower or developing fruit damage; Figure 169).

Figure 166. Corolla damage. Photo: MS Fruit Extension.

Figure 167. Internal browning of fruit. Photo: Bill Cline, North Carolina State University.

Figure 168. Water-soaked and irregular colour to fruit calyx. Photo: Australian Blueberry Growers Association.

Figure 169. Irregular and misshapen berries. Photo: Australian Blueberry Growers Association.

Temperatures

The temperature at which frost injury occurs will depend on the berry development stage. As flower budswell progresses, cold tolerance decreases. By the time individual flowers start to protrude from the bud, temperatures below −7 °C can damage the most exposed flowers. When corollas have reached half of their full length, temperatures below −5 °C will kill the flowers. Blossoms on Rabbiteye blueberries can receive corolla damage when temperatures are −1 °C. This will cause the corolla to wither, although it usually remains attached.

Immediately after corolla drop and before the berry begins to swell is one of the most sensitive stages. On open blossoms, more than a few minutes at −1.5 °C can cause damage. A few minutes at below −2 °C is high risk for damage. As the berry begins to enlarge, susceptibility is similar to the critical temperature of −2 °C for open blossoms.

Cold damage is not always immediately obvious. Following temperatures well below the critical levels, flowers or small fruit will develop a water-soaked appearance, shrivel and drop. However, a very brief time at the critical temperature might damage only the pistil. All or a portion of the damaged pistil will turn brown, preventing pollination and fruit set.

Ovules, which develop into the seeds in the berry, can also be damaged without any exterior symptoms. Healthy ovules are plump and white, but become black with cold injury. If many ovules or young seeds are black, the flower or fruit will probably drop. Seeds produce hormones that help fruit to develop, so if only a few are damaged, fruit development usually continues, but the fruit will ripen later and be smaller than those with plenty of healthy seeds.

Management strategies

Orchard layout

Design the orchard to avoid frost problems. Leave a shelter belt above the orchard to restrict cold air coming into the orchard. Plant a windbreak to protect the orchard from cold wind. Arrange rows to allow for cold air to move through and drain out of the orchard. Use late flowering species and cultivars in frost-prone locations.

Frost machines

On clear, calm nights, a strong temperature inversion develops, where temperatures within 1.8 m of the ground can become much colder than temperatures 15–30 m above ground. By mixing these air layers, wind can raise the temperature near the ground by about 15 °C. The exact amount will vary with the strength of the temperature inversion and the effectiveness of the air mixing. One frost fan (Figure 170) normally provides a maximum increase in temperature of about 15 °C over an area of about 4 ha.

Maintain soil moisture

Increasing the amount of water in the soil will enable it to absorb more heat during the day and to conduct more heat to the surface for plant protection. When soil is dry, it holds very little heat and a dry surface acts as an excellent insulator to prevent beneficial heat release. Excess water for extended periods must be avoided to prevent flooding and root rot damage.

Ground cover and weeds

A thick mat of grass, weeds or mulch on the soil surface will reduce solar soil heating as well as heat release from the soil at night. However, this can make frosts cause more damage; therefore, delay applying mulches until the risk of frost has passed. Ensure weeds are well controlled with their foliage totally decayed or removed before winter.

Figure 170. A wind machine in a blueberry orchard. Photo: D Clothier, Mountain Blue Farms.

Managing weeds

Why manage weeds?

Rapid canopy establishment and early cropping are key to profitability in an orchard, particularly in modern, intensive systems. Weeds compete with bushes for moisture and nutrients and can create a micro-climate that favours pests and diseases.

Research shows that weed competition in young, developing orchards can slow canopy establishment and delay productivity. A poor weed management strategy will also have a negative effect on yields in established orchards, whereas an effective strategy will help growers achieve their goals for orchard establishment, early yields and hygiene.

Hygiene comes first

Good orchard hygiene is the first step in any weed management strategy. Weed movement on and throughout a property and the appearance of new weed species are largely determined by the degree of weed hygiene employed. Be aware of new weeds appearing on the property. Have them identified if necessary, and work towards eradicating them or reducing their spread. Moving machinery from non-crop areas to the orchard and between blocks can spread new weeds. Often introduced weeds can carry resistance to herbicides. Regularly cleaning orchard equipment can reduce the spread of new weeds.

Management strategies and control options

The most appropriate weed management strategy will vary from site to site and will depend on factors including orchard size, bush age, weed spectrum and density, soil type, available moisture and choice of under bush management (e.g. bare earth, mulched or sod culture). Strategies will need to respond to changing weed spectra and growing conditions. Weed management methods can be grouped as either physical or chemical, or can incorporate elements of both.

Physical weed control methods

Cultivation: this was once a common commercial practice in orchards to reduce competition from weeds, but at some cost. Disturbing the topsoil negatively affects soil structure and organic matter levels. Cultivation also increases erosion risk and can damage roots, especially in blocks on dwarf stocks. Spot cultivation using a hoe is labour intensive, but might be an option for smaller orchards as an alternative to broad-scale cultivation or spot spraying.

Thermal weeding: while flame or thermal weeding using propane burners, hot air or hot water can be effective on small seedlings, it is less effective on larger annuals or perennial weeds. There are also occupational health and safety issues and fire hazards associated with these methods. Do not use thermal weeding near bushes younger than 3 years old as they can be severely damaged.

Grazing: grazing sheep, geese or fowl can suppress weed growth and reduce seed load in the orchard. Geese are heavy feeders of weeds such as grasses, and they also help to clean up windfall fruit. Sheep can damage bushes if other feed is scarce. If the animals grazing the orchard are intended for sale, be aware of chemical residue issues. Consult chemical labels for information on stock withholding periods.

Mulching: if done correctly, mulching is the most effective alternative to chemical weed control. Mulching mounds with large quantities of organic materials such as straw, old hay or woodchips, has multiple benefits including moisture retention, soil temperature regulation, and building up organic matter and soil microbes. To be effective, mulch must be applied at a sufficient thickness to act as a physical barrier to sunlight and weed growth. This depth will depend on the type of mulch being used.

In blueberry orchards with bushes planted on mounds in rows, the mounds must be broad enough to prevent organic mulches from sliding off them. As the mulch decomposes, it will need to be renewed, possibly every few years. Growers should also be aware of the possibility of nitrogen being tied up in the soil and not available to the crop when it is breaking down some compost types.

Side cast mowers deposit slashed material along the bush row, which can help to suppress weeds and build up organic matter. However, this is not effective as a stand-alone mulch treatment if the aim is to achieve a weed-free strip.

Synthetic weed mat is used for weed control in high rainfall areas. It is effective at reducing weeds on mounds, but it can lead to disease and soil health problems inside mounds. Many growers use weed mat to control weeds on the side of the mound, but have a large planting hole cut into the weed mat that is covered with organic mulch to allow planting, access to irrigation lines, fertiliser application and to allow rainfall to penetrate.

Chemical weed control

Types of herbicide and when to spray

Weeds can be sprayed either just before (pre-emergent) or just after germination (post-emergent). Most weeds germinate in either spring or autumn. Small weeds are easier to control than older, more mature weeds. Orchard herbicides can be grouped into 3 broad categories:

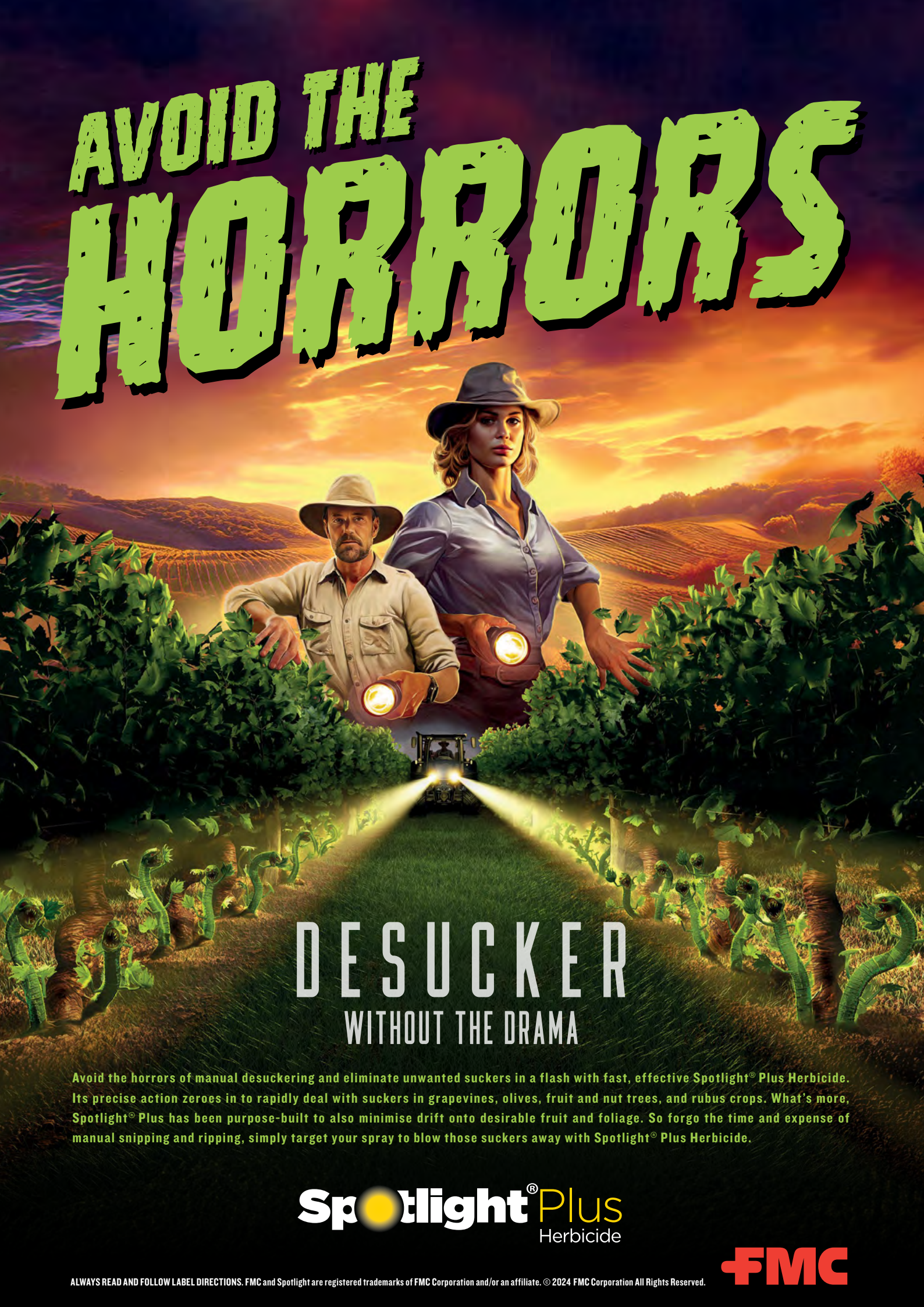
1. **Pre-emergent residual herbicides** (Table 88) work best when applied to bare soil that is free from weeds, mulch and debris. Any material that prevents the herbicide from contacting and penetrating the soil surface will reduce its effectiveness on germinating weeds. Most pre-emergent herbicides will provide effective control for a wide range of annual broadleaf weeds and grass weeds.
2. **Post-emergent selective grass herbicides** (Table 89) are useful where the predominant weed species are grasses. The 3 active ingredients with registrations for use in NSW as selective grass herbicides are all members of the Group 1 (previously A) herbicide mode of action (MOA) group. This group are highly prone to developing resistance and should be used in accordance with resistance management principles.
3. **Post-emergent non-selective knockdown herbicides** (Table 90) perform best when applied to young, actively growing weeds. As these herbicides are non-selective, some can be harmful to fruit bushes. Young bushes are particularly prone to injury if not protected from knockdown herbicides. Consult product labels for specific recommendations.

Herbicides and their uses

Table 88. Pre-emergent residual herbicides for berry orchards.

Active ingredient	Example trade name	Herbicide group*	Crop	Withholding period (harvest)	Weeds controlled	Remarks; always read the label.
Dichlobenil (Tas)	Casoron® 4G	29 (O)	Raspberries	Not required when used as directed	Annual grasses and broadleaf weeds	Apply late winter to early spring before growth has started.
Flumioxazin	Chateau®	14 (G)	Blueberries	Do not harvest for 14 weeks after application	Active against a wide range of grass and broadleaf weeds	Needs at least 15 mm of irrigation or rain to activate. When large weeds are present, use a knockdown herbicide at the full rate, allow weeds to die back and ensure minimal debris before application.
Metham present as sodium salt	Nemasol	–	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries, strawberries	Not required when used as directed	Germinating weed seeds	Refer to APVMA approved label 34049 for trickle irrigation: field application to bed or rows.
Oryzalin (non-bearing plants)	Stonewall®	3 (D)	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries	Not required when used as directed	Certain annual grasses and broadleaf weeds	Activated by moisture. For use on non-bearing bushes only.
Simazine	Genfarm simazine 900	5 (C)	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries, strawberries	Not required when used as directed	A range of broadleaf weeds	Do not apply to foliage or when fruit is present. Use on established plants only.

*The number in the herbicide column represents the new MoA and the previous letter is in brackets.



Avoid the horrors of manual desuckering and eliminate unwanted suckers in a flash with fast, effective Spotlight® Plus Herbicide. Its precise action zeroes in to rapidly deal with suckers in grapevines, olives, fruit and nut trees, and rubus crops. What's more, Spotlight® Plus has been purpose-built to also minimise drift onto desirable fruit and foliage. So forgo the time and expense of manual snipping and ripping, simply target your spray to blow those suckers away with Spotlight® Plus Herbicide.

Spotlight® Plus Herbicide

FMC

Table 89. Post-emergent selective grass herbicides for blueberry orchards.

Active ingredient	Example trade name	Herbicide group*	Crop	Withholding period (harvest)	Weeds controlled	Remarks; always read the label.
Fluazifop-P (Permit PER86586 expires 31.5.28)	Fusilade® Forte	1 (A)	Blueberries	Do not harvest for 4 weeks after application	Barnyard grass, crowsfoot grass, stink grass, Urochloa grass, carpet grass, couch grass, Johnson grass, kikuyu and paspalum	Use higher water volumes if weeds are dense.
Fluazifop-P	Fusilade® Forte	1 (A)	Strawberries	Do not harvest for 4 weeks after application	Annual ryegrass, barnyard grass, crowsfoot grass, stink grass, liverseed grass, wild oats, couch grass, Johnson grass, kikuyu and paspalum	These rates will only control couch, Johnson grass and paspalum seedlings younger than 2 months old and are establishing from seed.
Haloxyfop	Imtrade Haloxyfop 900 EC	1 (A)	Blueberries	Not required when used as directed	Annual and perennial grasses	Spray should be directed to the base of the bush to avoid contact with fruit and foliage.

*The number in the herbicide column represents the new MoA and the previous letter is in brackets.

Table 90. Post-emergent non-selective knockdown herbicides for berry orchards.

Active ingredient	Example trade name	Herbicide group*	Crop	Withholding period (harvest)	Weeds controlled	Remarks; always read the label.
Carfentrazone + glufosinate	Hellcat®	14 + 10	Raspberries, Blackberries	8 weeks	Control of perennial and annual weeds	Apply as a directed or shielded spray to the inter-row area. Take care not to allow spray or spray drift to contact the crop. Do not make more than 2 applications per season.
Glufosinate-ammonium	Basta®	10 (N)	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries, strawberries	Not required when used as directed	A broad-spectrum herbicide that controls a wide range of grasses and broadleaf weeds	Do not • apply in unfavourable weather conditions • apply to young, green or uncalloused and damaged blueberry plants • allow spray or spray drift to contact the crop, especially strawberry runners.
Glufosinate-ammonium (NSW, Vic, Tas)	Basta®	10 (N)	Blackberries, raspberries	Not required when used as directed	Primocane and sucker control	Contact with flowers, developing fruit or foliage will cause damage.
Glyphosate	Roundup® Complete Herbicide	9 (M)	Blackberries, blueberries, raspberries, strawberries	Not required when used as directed	Controls a wide range of annual and perennial weeds	Do not • allow spray or spray drift to contact green bark, fresh wounds, foliage or fruit. • use near bushes younger than 3 years old unless they are properly protected from spray drift.
Paraquat	Inferno® Herbicide	22 (L)	Blueberries	Not required when used as directed	Most annual grasses and some broadleaf weeds	Avoid spray drift onto plant parts. Spray only actively growing weeds (50–100 mm high). Do not use in home gardens.

*The number in the herbicide column represents the new MoA and the previous letter is in brackets.

Should I be concerned about herbicide resistance

Yes.

Herbicides work by interfering with specific processes in plants, known as the mode of action (MoA). All herbicides have been classified into groups according to their MoA.

Herbicide MoA classifications have been updated internationally to capture new active constituents and ensure the MoA classification system is globally relevant. The global MoA classification system is based on numerical codes that provide infinite capacity to accommodate new herbicide MoA becoming available, unlike the alphabetical codes previously used in Australia. We have updated our MoA tables to include both the number and old letter (shown in brackets).

Some groups are more likely to develop resistance and are considered high risk. Refer to product labels or Table 88 to Table 90 to determine the MoA group.

To minimise the risk of herbicide resistance developing in an orchard:

- Know the herbicide groups.
- Do not rely on chemicals from the same group for every spray.
- Use a lower risk herbicide in preference to a high risk one: for example, never use a Group 1 (A) herbicide when a Group 9 (L) or 22 (M) herbicide will do the job.
- Look for surviving weeds after spraying and prevent these from setting seed.
- Use as many weed control techniques as practical and do not rely solely on herbicides.

Herbicide sprayer setup

A properly configured and well calibrated sprayer is essential to ensure herbicides are applied in accordance with label recommendations to achieve the intended weed control. Some important points to consider are:

- Ensure all equipment is properly calibrated before use.
- Ensure effective agitation, especially when using dry flowable (DF), suspension concentrate (SC), water dispersible granule (WG) and wettable powder (WP) formulations.
- Ensure pressure gauges are working accurately.
- Use the correct (specified) pressure range for the nozzles being used.
- Always use a low-drift type nozzle wherever possible, e.g. air induction (AI) nozzle. Flat fan nozzles used to be the popular choice for herbicide spraying, but these are no longer appropriate when it comes to reducing spray drift. For more information refer to the section on Avoiding spray drift in berries on page 112.
- Select the correct nozzle size from the manufacturer's chart once you have decided on a safe ground speed and the recommended application volume for the herbicide being used.
- Ensure a 'double overlap' of the spray fans at the top of the target, not at ground level. Too low will result in herbicide being applied unevenly, while too high will increase the risk of off-target damage.
- If an individual nozzle's output (L/min) varies by more than 5% from the manufacturers' specifications, replace that nozzle.
- Herbicide labels can include mandatory advice on droplet spectrum, e.g. medium–coarse. If so, be sure to choose the right nozzle and operating pressure.

Important: always read the product label or permit before applying any herbicide in an orchard. Failure to do so could result in poor product performance or damage to bushes.

Simple and easy calibration

The most common procedure for calibrating herbicide spray equipment is:

1. Select the tractor engine rpm and gear to give a satisfactory ground speed and the correct pump pressure
2. Fill the spray tank with water and note the exact level reached
3. Measure a 100 m strip and spray over it with water
4. Measure the width of the sprayed strip
5. Return the rig to the exact position where it was filled the first time and measure how much water it takes to refill the tank to exactly the same level as before.

The area covered by a full tank can then be calculated using the following:

Assume

Length of sprayed area [**L**] = 100 m

Width of sprayed area [**W**] = 1.5 m

Tank capacity [**T**] = 500 L

Volume of water used in test spray [**V**] = 10 L

Application rate of product [**R**] = 3.75 kg/ha

Then

Area covered by a full tank is **L** × **W** × **T** ÷ **V**

In our example, the area covered is 100 m × 1.5 m × 500 L ÷ 10 L = 7,500 m^2 or 0.75 ha

(there are 10,000 m^2 per hectare)

So the herbicide required in a full tank

= application rate [**R**] × area covered by a full tank.

In our example the amount of herbicide required = 3.75 kg/ha × 0.75 ha = 2.8 kg.

Your responsibilities when applying pesticides

Farm Chemicals Section, Biosecurity and Food Safety, NSW DPIRD

The Australian Pesticides and Veterinary Medicines Authority (APVMA), NSW Environment Protection Authority (EPA), SafeWork Australia and SafeWork NSW are the government agencies that regulate pesticides in NSW.

Agricultural and Veterinary Chemicals Code Act 1994 (Commonwealth)

The APVMA administers the *Agricultural and Veterinary Chemicals Code Act 1994*. Under the Act, the APVMA is responsible for importing, registering and labelling of pesticides. States and territories regulate the use of pesticides.

Permits for off-label use

Where there is a need to use pesticides outside the registered use pattern, the APVMA can approve off-label use by issuing a **minor use**, **emergency** or **research permit**. In NSW, the *Pesticides Act* does not allow off-label use unless a permit is approved by the APVMA. A list of current permits and registered products is available at the APVMA (https://portal.apvma.gov.au/pubcris).

Any individual or organisation can apply for a permit. The APVMA can be contacted on 02 6770 2300 or enquiries@apvma.gov.au.

The label

Chemical labels are legal documents. The *NSW Pesticides Act 1999* requires all chemical users to read and comply with label instructions.

Signal heading

Pesticides fall into 3 of the 10 schedules in the Poisons Standard. All pesticides carry a signal heading. Signal headings for pesticides include:

- Caution (Schedule 5)
- Poison (Schedule 6)
- Dangerous Poison (Schedule 7).

Re-entry intervals

The re-entry interval is the time that must elapse between applying a pesticide and entering the sprayed crop, unless the person is wearing full personal protective equipment (PPE).

Pesticides and the environment

Many pesticides are toxic to aquatic organisms, bees and birds. Following label instructions will minimise the risk to off-target organisms.

Many labels carry the warning: **Dangerous to bees. Do not spray any plants in flower while bees are foraging**. It is often safe to spray early in the morning or late in the afternoon but only when bees are not foraging.

Organophosphate and carbamate insecticides are toxic to some birds, especially in granular formulations. See the label for details on how to minimise the danger to birds.

Withholding periods

The withholding period (WHP) is the minimum time that must elapse between the last application of a pesticide and harvest, grazing or cutting the crop or pasture for fodder. The purpose of the WHP is to minimise the risk of residues in agricultural commodities and foods for human and animal consumption.

Some export markets have a lower residue tolerance than Australian maximum residue limits (MRL). Contact your processor or packing shed to determine their market requirements.

Managing spray drift

Spray drift is the physical movement of chemical droplets onto a non-target area. However, some chemicals can also travel long distances as a vapour after spraying. There could be a risk of injury or damage to humans, plants, animals, the environment or property.

Buffer zones reduce the risk of chemical drift reaching sensitive and non-target areas. Applicators must adhere to buffer zones and other drift reduction instructions on labels.

Safety instructions

Safety instructions on labels provide information about personal protective equipment and other safety precautions that are essential when using the product.

Note: before opening and using any farm chemical, consult the label and the Safety Data Sheet (SDS) for safety directions.

Applying pesticides by aircraft

Product labels indicate which products are suitable for application by aircraft (including drones). They also provide a recommendation for the minimum water volume for aerial application.

More information on the legal requirements for aerial application is available on the EPA website (www.epa.nsw.gov.au/pesticides/aerialapplicators.htm).

Pesticides Act 1999 (NSW)

The Environment Protection Authority administers the *Pesticides Act 1999* and Pesticides Regulation 2017, which controls pesticide use in NSW. The aim is to minimise the risks to human health, the environment, property, industry and trade.

The primary principle of the *Pesticides Act* is that pesticides must only be used for the purpose described on the product label and label instructions must be followed.

The Act and Regulation require pesticide users to:

- only use pesticides registered or permitted by the APVMA
- obtain an APVMA permit if they wish to use a pesticide contrary to label instructions
- read the approved label and/or APVMA permit for the pesticide product (or have the label/permit read to them) and strictly follow the directions on the label
- keep all registered pesticides in containers bearing an approved label
- prevent damage to people, property, non-target plants and animals, the environment and trade when applying pesticides.

Training

The minimum prescribed training qualification is the AQF2 competency unit, 'Apply chemicals under supervision'. However, chemical users are encouraged to complete the AQF3 competency units: 'Prepare and apply chemicals' and 'Transport, handle and store chemicals'.

Record keeping

All people who use pesticides for commercial or occupational purposes must make a record of their pesticide use (Table 91). Records must be made within 24 hours of applying a pesticide and include:

- date, start and finish time
- operator details – name, address and contact information
- crop treated e.g. blueberries
- property address and a clear delineation of the area where the pesticide was applied
- type of equipment used to apply the pesticide e.g. knapsack, air-blast sprayer, boom spray
- full name of the product or products (e.g. Bayfidan 250 EC Fungicide® – not just 'Bayfidan')
- total amount of concentrate product used
- total amount of water, oil or other products mixed in the tank with the concentrate
- size of the block sprayed and the order of blocks treated

- an estimate of the wind speed and direction at the start of spraying
- weather conditions at the time of spraying and weather conditions specified on the label
- changes to wind and weather conditions during application
- records must be in English and kept for 3 years.

Globally Harmonised System of classifying and labelling of chemicals

The Globally Harmonised System (GHS) is an international system for classifying hazards and communication about dangerous goods and hazardous substances. The GHS replaces the old hazardous substances and dangerous goods classification.

The SafeWork Australia website (https://www.safework.nsw.gov.au/resource-library/list-of-all-codes-of-practice) lists all the codes of practice you will need, including *Labelling of workplace hazardous chemicals* and another for *Preparation of safety data sheets for hazardous chemicals* to provide industry with guidance on how to comply with the GHS.

Work Health and Safety Act 2011 (Commonwealth)

SafeWork Australia administers the *Commonwealth Work Health and Safety Act 2011* and the Work Health and Safety Regulation 2011.

The Act defines the responsibilities of employers or the person conducting a business or undertaking (PCBU) and the responsibilities of workers.

The Regulation covers hazardous substances and dangerous goods, including applying the GHS in Australia.

SafeWork Australia has published several Codes of Practice (https://www.safeworkaustralia.gov.au/law-and-regulation/codes-practice) for different industries and situations to provide guidance for industries.

Work Health and Safety Act 2011 (NSW)

SafeWork NSW administers the *Work Health and Safety Act 2011* (https://www.legislation.nsw.gov.au/#/view/act/2011/10) and the Work Health and Safety Regulation 2011 (https://www.legislation.gov.au/Details/F2011L02664).

The Act implements the *Commonwealth WHS Act* in NSW. It outlines the primary responsibility of the employer or the PCBU to maintain a safe workplace. There is an emphasis on consultation with workers, risk assessment and management, and attention to worker training and supervision.

The WHS Regulation 2017 addresses the management of hazardous substances (i.e. most pesticides). It covers identifying hazardous substances in the workplace, assessing and managing risks associated with their use.

The WHS Regulation 2017 includes responsibilities for managing risks to health and safety at a workplace including:

- correctly labelling containers
- maintaining a register of hazardous chemicals
- identifying risk and ensuring the stability of hazardous chemicals
- ensuring that exposure standards are not exceeded
- information, training and supervision for workers
- spill containment kits to be kept onsite
- SDS for chemicals kept onsite
- controlling ignition sources and accumulation of flammable and combustible materials
- provision of fire protection, firefighting equipment, emergency and safety equipment
- developing and displaying an emergency plan for the workplace
- stability, support and appropriate plumbing for bulk containers.

Dangerous Goods (Road and Rail Transport) Act 2008

The Environment Protection Authority (EPA) and SafeWork NSW administer the *Dangerous Goods (Road and Rail Transport) Act 2008* and Regulation. The EPA deals with transport while SafeWork NSW is responsible for classification, packaging and labelling.

This act regulates the transport of all dangerous goods except explosives and radioactive substances.

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Natalie O'Leary, Profarm Trainer.

Analytical laboratories

Below is a list of commercial laboratories that undertake analysis of food commodities and other materials for chemical residues:

Eurofins Agroscience Testing (https://www.eurofins.com.au/locations/eurofins-agroscience-testing-lane-cove/), phone 02 9900 8442

National Measurement Institute (info@measurement.gov.au), phone 1800 020 076

National Association of Testing Authorities (https://www.nata.com.au), phone 02 9736 8222

Information sources

Australian Pesticides and Veterinary Medicines Authority (https://apvma.gov.au/)

Australian Code for the Transport of Dangerous Goods by Road and Rail (https://www.ntc.gov.au/codes-and-guidelines/australian-dangerous-goods-code)

Bureau of Meteorology (http://www.bom.gov.au/)

Environment Protection Authority (https://www.epa.nsw.gov.au/)

Hazardous Substances Information System (https://hcis.safeworkaustralia.gov.au/)

Managing risks of hazardous chemicals in the workplace (https://www.safeworkaustralia.gov.au/doc/model-code-practice-managing-risks-hazardous-chemicals-workplace)

National Association of Testing Authorities (https://nata.com.au/)

NSW DPIRD resources on Queensland fruit fly (https://www.dpi.nsw.gov.au/biosecurity/insect-pests/qff)

Safe use and storage of chemicals in agriculture (https://www.safework.nsw.gov.au/hazards-a-z/hazardous-chemical)

Work Health and Safety Act 2011 (https://legislation.nsw.gov.au/view/html/inforce/current/act-2011-010)

Work Health and Safety Regulation 2011 (https://www.legislation.gov.au/Details/F2011L02664)

Table 91. An example spray record form.

Chemical application record							
Property address:						Date:	
Owner:		Address:				Phone:	
Person applying chemical:		Address:				Phone:	
Spray application area				**Situation of use**			
Spray map including sensitive areas, wind direction, order of treatment				Area sprayed and order of spraying			
				Block name/ number	Area (ha)	Crop	Growth stage
				Pest(s)		Pest growth stage	Pest density
GPS reference: S E				**Application equipment**			
Comments (including risk control measures for sensitive areas):				Equipment type	Nozzle	Pressure	Speed
No-spray zone (metres):				Water quality (e.g. pH, hardness)	Droplet size	Boom height (above target)	Other
Chemical details							
Full product name (including additives)	Chemical rate	Water rate	Total amount of concentrate	Total amount of chemical mix used	Mixing order	Re-entry period	WHP (days)
Weather details							
Rainfall (amount and time from spraying)	Before: mm		During: mm		After: mm		
Time of spraying:	Temperature °C	Relative humidity %	Delta T	Wind direction	Wind speed	Variability e.g. gusting speed and direction	
Start:							
Finish:							
Start:							
Finish:							
Clean up							
Disposal of rinsate:				Decontamination of sprayer:			

Source: Adapted from SMARTtrain Chemical Accreditation Program Calibration and Records Supplement.

Avoiding spray drift in berries

Melinda Simpson and Bruce Browne, NSW DPIRD

Introduction

An effective spray application will deliver the right amount of product to the desired area. However, if any part of the spray equipment is not set up or calibrated appropriately, the target could be missed, or spray might drift to non-target areas.

Type of sprayer used

The 3 main types of sprayers used in berries are ducted air (Figure 171), multi-head (Figure 172) and axial fan air-blast (Figure 173) sprayers. The axial fan air-blast sprayer is more prone to missing the target than the multi-head and ducted sprayers, but by carefully following the instructions included herein, many of the off-target risks can be reduced.

Figure 171. A ducted air sprayer.

Figure 172. A multi-head sprayer. Photo: Dave Farmer, Croplands.

Adjust spray water volume to match the canopy size

Chemical application rate depends on the spray water volume (when using the per 100 L water rate), which depends on the crop canopy volume. An industry standard for spray water volumes in blueberries is shown in Figure 174. If spray water volumes are not matched to crop canopy volumes (i.e. less water than industry standard), chemical application rates should be adjusted (i.e. using a concentration factor) to achieve the same dose per plant. Using these water volumes and the per 100 L label rate will achieve the most desirable amount of chemical per leaf area.

Dilute spray volume is required to calculate the correct amount of chemical to be applied to cover the canopy. Water-sensitive paper should be used to verify these volumes provide adequate coverage.

Nozzle selection

Coarser droplets are preferable when spraying near sensitive areas (always follow the label recommendations). Combining coarse spray quality and an appropriate surfactant will significantly reduce the risk of off-target drift. Some product labels state the size of the spray droplets required and/or nominated no-spray zones; both must be followed.

Figure 173. An axial air-blast sprayer.

As much as 60% of the applied spray can end up either on the ground or drifting away if spray equipment is not set up properly.

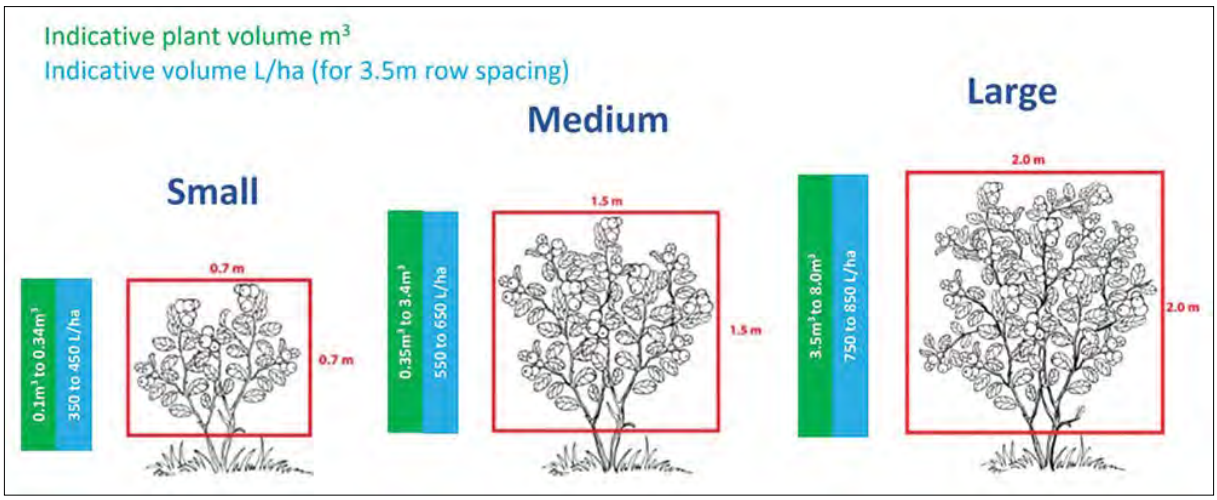

Figure 174. Industry standards for water volumes for dilute spraying in blueberries.

Over time, all nozzles suffer from wear and tear, causing their orifices to increase the desired or calibrated output. When nozzles are producing up to a 5% increase in the flow rate at a given pressure compared with a new nozzle or manufacturer's guide, they should be replaced. Reduced flow could indicate blockages or restrictions to a particular nozzle. Uneven wear can cause poor spray patterns and poor control; both potentially causing crop damage. Regularly cleaning nozzles will improve delivery rates by removing debris build-up (Figure 175).

Figure 175. Regularly cleaning nozzles will improve delivery rates by removing debris build-up.

Rules of thumb with nozzles

- Hollow cone nozzles produce finer sprays than solid cone nozzles.
- Wide-angle nozzles produce finer sprays than narrow-angle nozzles.
- Smaller orifice nozzles produce finer sprays than higher output nozzles at equivalent pressures.

Figure 176. Assessing the sprayer output is towards the canopy.

Direct the sprayer output towards the target canopy

The main risk with spraying is failing to hit the target. To assess spray output, park the sprayer in a block to be treated. Look at which nozzles should be turned on and what proportion of the output is directed to the different bush zones (Figure 176). Adjust nozzles as required for better coverage and use water-sensitive paper (Page 116) or fluorescent tracer dyes and ultraviolet lights to help assess the coverage.

An observer should monitor leaf movement to ensure sprayer-generated air is displacing the air within the canopy.

Make sure the sprayer is turned off at the ends of rows when turning. When spraying outside rows of a block, use single-sided spraying i.e. turn off nozzles that are not directed at the crop row.

Manage travel speed

Travel speed is a compromise between getting the job completed in good time and achieving thorough coverage. Research has shown that increasing travel speeds from 2.1 km/h to 7.7 km/h while keeping all other settings the same, will halve the chemical deposition rate from axial air-blast sprayers (Celen et al. 2008). Sprayer speeds can have a significant effect on spray deposit distribution, i.e. increasing sprayer speed can increase spray drift.

Sprayer speed and the effect on spray drift is a very complex subject, therefore, many factors need to be considered, including weather conditions, droplet size, type of sprayer, air speed and tree canopy density and height.

Use deflectors

When using axial air-blast sprayers, deflectors can be used to channel the air into the target rather than over or under the target (Figure 177). Deflectors help to compress the air from sprayers into a tighter stream that easily reaches and penetrates the canopy. Note: most manufacturers can supply aftermarket deflectors.

To check where the air is going from the sprayer, attach 250 mm lengths of strong ribbon to each active nozzle position. Turn the sprayer on and the direction that the ribbons move will show where the air (and spray) is being directed (Figure 178). Adjust the nozzles and deflectors so that the air stream is directed into the canopy.

Figure 177. Deflectors on an air-blast sprayer. Photo: Deveau (2015).

Figure 178. Using ribbons to work out where the air is being directed from the sprayer. Photo: Deveau (2015).

Consider fan speed

Throughout the season, fan settings should be adjusted to produce the most effective air speed. This is important because the air carries the chemical and if the air speed is too fast or too slow, the chemical will end up in the next row, on the ground or drifting away.

To estimate the required air speed, tie 250 mm lengths of ribbon to the top, middle and lower parts of the plant on the opposite side of the canopy. Drive past the canopy and note where the ribbons are being directed. This will show if the air speed is correct for spraying (Figure 179).

How to reduce air speed

Many sprayers have gearboxes that allow the fan speed to be changed. Consider using 'gear up throttle down' (GUTD) to do this. Going to a higher gear and reducing the throttle speed to around 1,500 rpm will slow the fan speed. It will also reduce fuel use by approximately 40%. Note: GUTD will only work with piston, diaphragm or roller pumps; it will not work with centrifugal pumps.

Increasing ground speed will reduce air penetration.

Note: if the air speed is increased, the sprayer volume will need to be recalibrated.

How to increase air speed

Air speed can be changed by changing the fan gear or reducing speed. Remember the sprayer volume will need to be recalibrated if the canopy is too dense, it might need thinning.

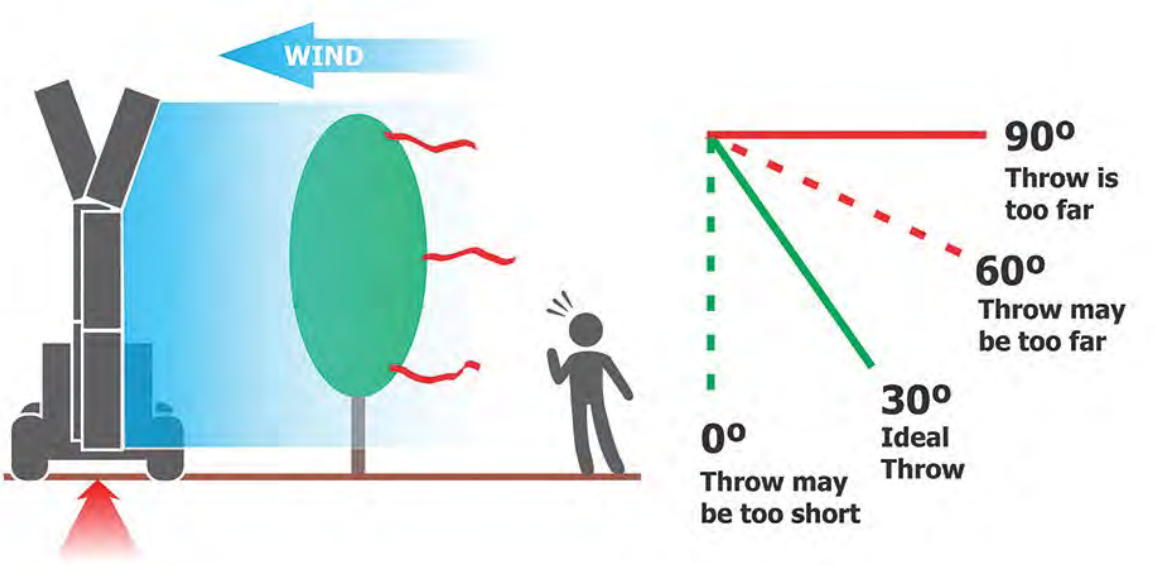

Figure 179. Using ribbons to determine adequate air speed for spraying. Source: Deveau (2015).

Natural and artificial barriers for spray drift mitigation

An artificial or natural barrier can be effective at intercepting some airborne droplets and deflecting the airflow to reduce spray drift potential by 60–90%. Wind slows and distorts as it travels through porous barriers such as a windbreak. Windbreaks protect for approximately 10 times their height. For example, if the windbreak is 20 m high, the area 200 m beyond it will receive reduced pesticide. The windbreak should have 50% porosity (i.e. can see through it) as solid windbreaks that allow little or no wind to pass through can cause turbulence on the side it is meant to protect.

Figure 180. An artificial barrier made of shade cloth with 50% porosity. Photo: Andrew Hewitt.

Artificial barriers

Artificial barriers can be made of a variety of materials such as shade cloth with 50% porosity (Figure 180). The advantage of artificial barriers is little or no waiting time for them to establish. However, they are generally not as high as natural windbreaks, so the distance protected is less.

Vegetative buffers

Vegetation barriers can be planted and maintained on downwind edges of fields and properties adjacent to susceptible areas. Trees and shrubs planted to form buffer zones should be a narrow leaf type, i.e. *Casuarina* (Figure 181) as these are much more effective at capturing droplets than larger leaved species. Also ensure the plant species is not a favoured host for common insect pests.

Figure 181. Casuarina as a vegetative buffer. These are evergreen and have fine greyish needle-like foliage down to ground level. Casuarina requires hedging to be effective.

Weather conditions affecting spraying

Wind

Avoid spraying when the wind is blowing towards a non-target area and during calm or still conditions as this is when droplets are more likely to remain suspended in the air. Avoid spraying when wind speed is too low (<4–5 km/h) or too high (>15 km/h). The ideal safe wind speed is 7–10 km/h. Leaves and twigs are in constant motion (a light breeze). Wind speeds of 11–14 km/h (moderate breeze) are suitable for spraying if low drift nozzles or higher volume applications (80–120 L/ha per nozzle) are used.

Also avoid spraying when wind speed is <10 km/h when the wind direction is towards the coast and the sun is less than 20 degrees above the horizon. Be aware that drainage wind and morning land breezes do not mix the air the same way as synoptic wind (BoM predicted direction). Drainage wind and land breezes can transport droplets far from the application site.

High temperatures

Avoid spraying when temperatures exceed 28 °C.

Humidity

Avoid spraying when relative humidity is low i.e. when delta T (the difference between wet and dry thermometers; Figure 182) exceeds 10 °C. Avoid spraying when delta T is above 8 °C with a medium spray quality or finer. High humidity extends droplet life and can greatly increase the drift hazard from fine droplets under local surface temperature. This results from an increased life of droplets smaller than 100 microns.

Methods to assess coverage

Water-sensitive paper

Water-sensitive paper (Figure 183) is an effective and economical way to monitor spray distribution. To test coverage, place 6 pieces of water-sensitive paper per plant, locating them on the top, middle and bottom and on the underside and top of the leaf surface for multiple plants along a row. Generally, 85 fine–medium-sized droplets per square centimetre, with about 15% total surface coverage, should be adequate for most foliar applications. Be prepared to make changes to the sprayer set-up and calibration to compensate for plant height, canopy density and weather conditions throughout the season. Using water-sensitive paper takes some time and effort but is far more accurate than looking over your shoulder and/or on leaf residue.

Folding the water-sensitive paper in half before placing it in the canopy can provide an opportunity to look at upper and lower leaf coverage.

Take photos of the set-up for future reference to see if changes have improved deposition and coverage. With a smartphone, the SnapCard App (https://www.agric.wa.gov.au/grains/snapcard-spray-app) can be used to quantify spray coverage from a water-sensitive spray card.

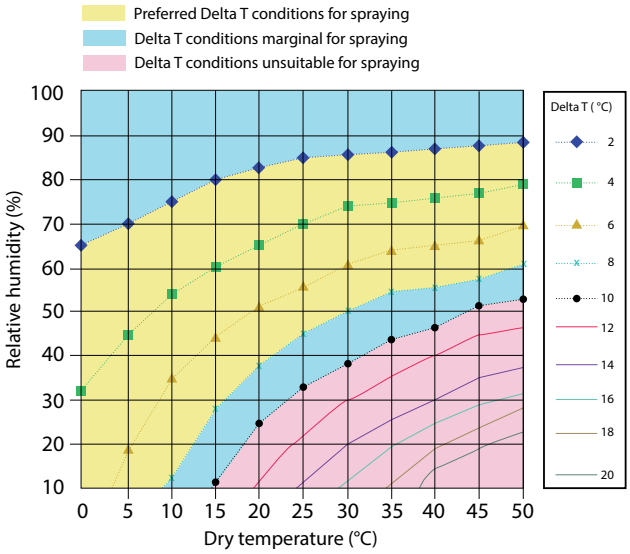

Figure 182. Delta T chart indicating appropriate conditions for spraying.

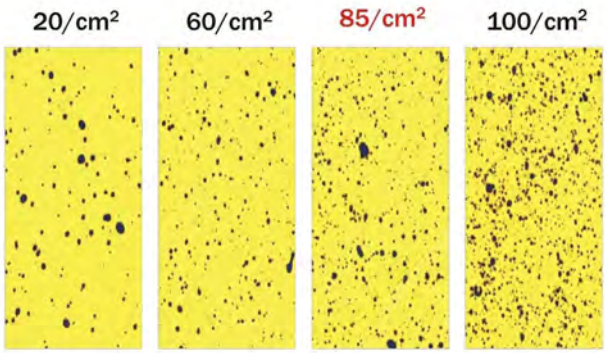

Figure 183. 85 droplets per square centimetre provides the appropriate coverage. Photo: Deveau (2015).

Clay markers

Spraying with clay markers such as kaolin clay shows coverage over the entire canopy in detail (Figure 184). Clay markers are also effective at picking up uneven banding or shading in the canopy as well as excessive run-off.

The clay droplets need to dry to become visible. It is advisable to wait 20 minutes after applying them before carrying out the assessment. If using clay markers, make sure the tank and nozzles are cleaned afterwards as it can clog up nozzles and might deactivate some products in future tanks.

Figure 184. Using clay markers to demonstrate coverage.

UV dyes

There are commercially available, water-soluble, non-toxic fluorescent dyes that can be used to assess where sprays have deposited. The dyes highlight where individual droplets have landed in the crop or onto the inter-row. To be able to see the individual droplets requires the use of a black light ultraviolet (UV-A) torch or hand-held UV-A lamp that causes the individual droplets to glow in the dark (Figure 185).

Summary

Ensuring the spraying equipment is set up correctly will help reduce the risk of spray drift. Always adjust the spray water volume to match the canopy size and select the right nozzle for the job. Use ribbons to assess sprayer output and adjust the nozzles until the output is directed towards the target area.

If necessary, use a deflector (if using an axial air-blast sprayer) to channel the air into the target rather than over or under the target.

Make sure the travel speed is the most appropriate to get the desired coverage. Fan speed must also be adjusted to produce the most effective air speed so that the chemical is carried to the target. Using the 'ribbon method' is an easy way to assess this. Remember, any changes made to the travel or fan speed might require recalibration of the sprayer volume. Physical barriers can be used to help prevent spray drift and these can be either natural (e.g. a tree line) or artificial (e.g. shade cloth).

Only apply sprays in suitable weather conditions such as when the wind is between 7–10 km/h and away from sensitive areas, the temperature is below 28 °C and Delta T is within the preferred range. Finally, assess the coverage using either water-sensitive paper, clay markers or UV dyes.

Figure 185. Using fluorescent dyes to demonstrate coverage.

References

Celen IH, Arin S and Durgut MR (2008) The effect of the air-blast sprayer speed on the chemical distribution in a vineyard. *Pakistan Journal of Biological Sciences,* 11: 1472–1476, (https://scialert.net/fulltext/?doi=pjbs.2008.1472.1476).

Deveau J (2015) *Air-blast 101 – a handbook of best practices in air-blast spraying*, (http://sprayers101.com/wp-content/uploads/2016/04/43656_OMAFRA_2015_Airblast_101_eBook_a8-FINAL.pdf).

Acknowledgements

Special appreciation for providing input goes to: George Mittasch, Agronomist, Ozgroup Pty Ltd; Dr Jason Deveau, Application Technology Specialist Ontario, Canada; Dr Andrew Hewitt, School of Agriculture and Food Sciences, The University of Queensland; Matthew Moyle, Territory Manager, Nufarm; and Bill Gordon, NSW Grains Biosecurity Officer, NSW DPIRD, Orange.

Avoiding chemical resistance

Resistance of a pest or disease to a specific chemical happens when the chemical no longer provides the control it did previously. Repeatedly spraying populations of pests and diseases with a particular chemical can cause resistance. All populations contain very small numbers of individuals that are resistant to a given pesticide. Continuing to use the pesticide will kill susceptible individuals, but it will also select a strain that is increasingly composed of resistant forms. Once the resistant population reaches a critical proportion, the chemical will not be effective.

Managing resistance

Managing resistance to all pesticides is now an important consideration when choosing a control strategy. One strategy is rotating chemical groups so that the weed, fungus, pest or disease is not being repeatedly treated with the same type of chemical.

All registered pesticides have a number on the label that identifies the action group to which they belong. This helps growers to choose a product from a different chemical action group when seeking to rotate chemicals in a program. Herbicide and fungicide identification schemes also exist.

Product labels have a resistance warning and many include crop-specific instructions relating to the number of applications permitted for use in that crop. Agricultural chemical users must always read the label and any permit before using the product and strictly follow the conditions as directed. Complying with resistance management instructions will help to minimise resistance.

Predatory mites

If two-spotted mite is a problem and predatory mites have not previously been detected in the orchard, or if predatory mites no longer respond to an increase in the pest mites, consider releasing predatory mites.

Insecticides

Unfortunately the berry industry in NSW and Qld relies heavily on the same group of chemicals (1A and 1B), limiting rotation options. However, the option is there and must be used to prevent resistance to the few chemicals that are still available. In the early stages of plant production for pre-flowering and flowering pests, options are limited to a range of 1A products. At later stages of berry development, preference should be given to products that are not in the 1A group and have short WHPs.

A typical scenario could be to spray thrips early with a 1A product at flowering, but avoid foraging bees. Continue monitoring regularly for pests at this critical stage. Another product might be required later during flowering. Then, just before harvest, there is an opportunity to use a different chemical group, e.g. 3A.

Suggestions in the remarks column of the tables in this guide are designed to help growers decide how to rotate their chemical use to avoid resistance.

Research to continually screen the effectiveness of new chemical formulations as they become available should be ongoing. Additionally, this research should also involve identifying ways that these new formulations can be incorporated into the spray program to achieve better integrated pest management (IPM) strategies.

Fungicides

Fungicide resistance arises because most of the newer fungicides are very specific in their effects on fungal cells. In any collection of spores, a very low number will be resistant to a specific fungicide. If the same fungicide is used repeatedly, the resistant spores will not be killed and are likely to multiply, until almost all of the remaining spores are resistant to, and unaffected by, the fungicide. By using a fungicide with a different mode of action, the new strain can be controlled, but damage to the crop is already done.

Avoiding fungicide resistance

Generally, horticultural crops have a variety of fungicides to prevent resistance build-up. Rosalie Daniel, Plant Pathologist with NSW DPIRD, developed an anthracnose and botrytis control management strategy. In this, she has suggested which products are available to the industry that can be used without causing resistance (Table 92).

Available products to prevent blueberry rust, the industry's main disease concern for interstate market access, are limited. A similar management strategy for blueberry rust that would also comply with Interstate Certification Assurance (ICA31) is in Table 93. Alternative products should be used when market advantages such as ICA are not required.

When a fungus develops resistance to a particular fungicide, it will often also be resistant to related chemicals; therefore, when selecting a disease control program, always ensure that the chemicals come from different MOA groups (Table 94 and Table 95).

If demethylation inhibitor (DMI) fungicides are used alone, do not use more than 4 applications, then follow with a protective fungicide within 7 days. If more than 4 DMI applications are required, subsequent sprays should be mixed with a protective fungicide that has a different mode of action to the DMIs. Refer to product labels for anti-resistance strategies.

Specific recommendations for avoiding fungicide resistance are now shown on many labels and the chemicals are classified into groups. The main groups shown in Table 94 correspond with those adopted by the agrochemical industry through CropLife Australia (https://www.croplife.org.au/). Only fungicides mentioned in this guide are included.

Table 92. An example anthracnose and botrytis management strategy. Always read the label.

Spray strategy	1st spray (before buds open)	2nd spray (14–28 days after 1st spray)	3rd spray (14–28 days after 2nd spray)	4th spray (14–28 days after 3rd spray)
1	Copper (before fruit set)	Chlorothalonil*	Switch®	Captan
2	Scala®	Chlorothalonil*	Copper	Switch®
3	Chlorothalonil*	Scala®	Captan	Captan
4	Scala®	Copper	Chlorothalonil*	Switch®

* 28-day WHP.

Table 93. An example blueberry rust control strategy. Always read the label.

Spray strategy	1st spray (early, before rust is visible)	2nd spray (14 days after 1st spray)	3rd spray (14 days after 2nd spray)	4th spray (14 days after 3rd spray)
1	Mancozeb	Tilt®	Mancozeb	Pristine®
2	Chlorothalonil*	Mancozeb	Tilt®	Pristine®
3	Mancozeb	Chlorothalonil*	Pristine®	Tilt®
4	Mancozeb	Mancozeb	Pristine®	Tilt®

* Not for ICA31.

Table 94. Fungicide groups[1,2]. Always read the label.

Group	Chemical class	Common name	Example trade name*
1	Benzimidazole	Carbendazim	Spin Flo®
2	Dicarboximide	Iprodione	Rovral®
		Procymidone	Sumisclex®
3	Triazole	Propiconazole	Tilt®
		Difenoconazole	Score®
4	Phenylamide	Metalaxyl	Ridomil®
4 + M1	Phenylamide + inorganic	Metalaxyl + copper hydroxide	Ridomil Gold Plus®
7 + 11	Carboxamides + methoxycarbamates	Boscalid + pyraclastrobin	Pristine®
8	Hydroxypyrimidine	Bupirimate	Nimrod®
9	Anilinopyrimidines	Pyrimethanil	Scala®
9 + 12	Anilinopyrimidines + PhenylPyrroles	Cyprodinil + fludioxonil	Switch®
11	Quinone	Pyroclostrobin	Cabrio
12	Phenylpyrrole	Fludioxonil	Scholar®
33	Ethyl phosphonate	Phosphoric acid	Agrifos®, Phospot®
M1	Inorganic	Copper fungicides	Kocide®
M2	Inorganic	Sulfur as polysulfide	Lime Sulfur
		Sulfur (elemental)	Thiovit®
M3	Dithiocarbamate	Mancozeb	Dithane®
M4	Phthalimide	Captan	Orthocide®
M5	Chloronitrile	Chlorothalonil	Bravo®

Table 95. Insecticide and miticide groups[1,2]. Always read the label.

Group	Chemical class	Common name	Example trade name*
1A	Carbamate	Carbaryl	Bugmaster Flowable®
		Methomyl	Nufarm Methomyl 225
		Pirimicarb	Aphidex®
1B	Organophosphate	Azinphos-methyl	Gusathion®
		Chlorpyrifos	Lorsban®
		Fenthion	Lebaycid®
		Malathion	Fyfanon®
		Methidathion	Suprathion®
		Omethoate	Folimat®
		Prothiofos	Tokuthion®
		Trichlorfon	Dipterex®
3	Pyrethroid	Alpha-cypermethrin	Fastac Duo®
		Bifenthrin	Talstar®
		Tau-fluvalinate	Mavrik Aquaflow®
4	Neonicotinoid	Imidacloprid	Confidor®
		Thiacloprid	Calypso®
5	Spinosyn	Spinosad	Success 2®
		Spinetoram	Delegate®
6	Avermectin	Abamectin	Vertimec®
7B	Juvenile hormone mimic	Fenoxycarb	Insegar®
9B	Feeding blocker	Pymetrozine	Chess®
10A	Tetrazine	Clofentezine	Apollo®
	Thiazolodine	Hexythiazox	Calibre®
10B	Etoxazole	Etoxazole	Paramite®
11	Microbial	*Bacillus thuringiensis*	Dipel®
12B	Organotin	Fenbutatin oxide	Torque®
12C	Propargite	Propargite	Betamite®
13	Pyrrole compound	Chlorfenapyr	Secure®
16	Thiadiazine	Buprofezin	Applaud®
18	Diacylhydrazine	Methoxyfenozide	Prodigy®
21A	Mite growth inhibitor	Tebufenpyrad	Pyranica®
22A	Oxadiazine	Indoxacarb	Avatar®
28	Diamide	Chlorantraniliprole	Altacor®
UN	Bifenazate	Bifenazate	Acramite®

[1] Trade names that include the common name are not listed.
[2] This information shows fungicide and insecticide groups based on the mode of action only. For a chemical's compatibility with IPM, please see the chemical listings for individual crops.
* Example only. Other products might be registered.
Source: APVMA (https://portal.apvma.gov.au/pubcris) and CropLife Australia (https://www.croplife.org.au/).

Never rely solely on chemicals from one group for whole of season disease and pest control, no matter how effective it seems; use at least 2 chemicals with different modes of action.

Disposing of farm chemicals and their containers

After chemicals have been applied according to the label directions, empty chemical containers and any unused chemicals must be disposed of in an environmentally responsible manner. Containers can be recycled through drumMUSTER (http://www.drummuster.org.au) while chemicals can be disposed of through ChemClear® (http://www.chemclear.org.au).

drumMUSTER

drumMUSTER provides Australian agricultural and veterinary (agvet) chemical users with a recycling pathway for eligible empty agvet chemical containers. Developed with the environment in mind, the drumMUSTER program collects and recycles eligible, clean agvet containers.

Working with local councils and other collection agencies, drumMUSTER has established collection facilities all over Australia. Since its inception in 1998, 35 million containers have been recycled. Once containers are collected, they are recycled into products such as wheelie bins, road signs, fence posts and bollards.

The drumMUSTER service benefits users, the environment, industry and the wider community by providing a reliable, cost-effective and sustainable option for recycling empty, eligible agvet chemical containers.

Disposing of these containers in the right way is crucial to the reputation and sustainability of the agricultural industry in Australia. By using the drumMUSTER recycling program, unwanted containers can be turned into useful, sustainable products rather than having them placed into landfill or building up on farms.

Only containers with 'drumMUSTER eligible container' printed on the label, as a sticker or embossed on the container (Figure 186) are accepted. To contact drumMUSTER, visit the drumMUSTER website (https://www.drummuster.org.au/) or phone 1800 008 707 or 02 6230 6712.

Figure 186. A chemical container with a 'drumMUSTER eligible container' printed on the label. Photo: drumMUSTER.

Cleaning containers for collection

When rinsing chemical containers, the personal protective equipment (PPE) specified on the label for applying, mixing or loading the pesticide should be worn. This is because the chemical remaining in a container is the concentrate, which is the most toxic form of the chemical, even though it is diluted during rinsing.

Rinsing is the most effective method while the containers are still moist inside. The longer the residues have to dry and cake on the inside of containers, the more difficult they are to remove. This is the reason for rinsing during mixing and loading because the rinsate can be emptied into the spray or mixing tank of the application equipment. Using the rinsate this way avoids the necessity for having to dispose of the container residues separately.

To **triple rinse** a container up to 20 L to meet drumMUSTER standards:

1. Remove the cap, invert the container and allow it to drip drain into the mixing tank for 30 seconds.
2. Add rinse water to 20% of the container volume (e.g. 1 L per 5 L).
3. Replace the cap and shake vigorously for 1 minute.
4. Remove the cap, invert and drip drain into the mixing tank for 30 seconds.
5. Repeat twice.
6. Rash the cap separately and replace on the container.

Note: triple rinsing is only suitable for small containers up to 20 L.

Alternatively, use a pressure nozzle to triple rinse small containers. There are 2 main types of nozzle. One has a rotating spray head, which can be used either to rinse an inverted container in the induction hopper or directly over the tank. The other type has a hardened, pointed shaft to pierce drums and the hollow shaft itself has 4 holes at 90° to spray the water around the container.

To **pressure rinse** a container up to 20 L:

1. Remove the cap, invert the container and allow it to drip drain into the mixing tank for 30 seconds.
2. Ensure clean rinse water is at 35–60 psi pressure.
3. Insert the pressure rinsing probe either into the container opening or through the pierced base of the container (depending on the type of nozzle).
4. Invert the container over the mixing tank and rinse for 30 seconds or longer if the water coming from the container is not clear, moving the probe about to ensure all inner surfaces are rinsed.
5. Wash the cap in clear rinse water.
6. Turn off the water, remove the probe and drip drain the container into the mixing tank for 30 seconds.
7. Replace the lid on the container.

Large containers, e.g. 200 L, are best rinsed with a chemical transfer probe that has a flushing cycle as well as the primary suction cycle. Such probes are standard on many boom sprays, and options on most others. The drums might have to be slightly inclined to ensure all rinsate is removed. Typical rinse time for a 200 L drum would be 3–5 minutes.

Non-rigid containers, i.e. bags and cartons, have to be buried. Plastic bags should be rinsed first, and paper bags punctured or shredded. Cartons also have to be punctured or shredded before burial.

Burning is specifically prohibited.

For more information, visit drumMUSTER (http://www.drummuster.org.au) or call 1800 008 707.

ChemClear®

ChemClear® provides Australian agvet chemical users with a collection and disposal pathway for their unwanted chemicals. ChemClear® complements drumMUSTER by providing agvet chemical users with a recycling and disposal option. Both programs are funded by AgStewardship Australia Limited through a 6 cents per litre levy placed on participating manufacturers' products and passed on to consumers at the point of sale.

ChemClear® collects 2 categories of agvet chemicals:

Group 1 chemicals are those currently registered products manufactured by participating companies signed into the Industry Waste Reduction Agreement. These products are collected free of charge.

Group 2 chemicals are those products manufactured by non-participating companies, or, deregistered, unknown, mixed or out-of-date products (by 2 years). A per litre/kilogram fee for disposal applies.

For more information or to register for the program, visit ChemClear® (http://www.chemclear.org.au) or call 1800 008 182.

Disposing of rinsate or dilute chemical

Labels contain a prohibition on disposing of concentrate on-site or on-farm, as per state environmental legislation. The unused chemical has first to be diluted and, if not applied in terms of the label use pattern, has to be disposed of in an environmentally responsible manner, such as an evaporation pit. This pit should be 1 m deep, lined with plastic sheeting over which has been spread hydrated lime, and any waste covered with at least 0.5 m of soil. Disposal pits are only suited to small volumes and for diluted chemicals. In the case of a concentrate spill, the chemical would have to be diluted to at least standard label rates before transfer to the disposal pit.

Berry grower's resources

Publications

Many publications mentioned in this guide are available from NSW DPIRD through Shop Regional (https://shop.regional.nsw.gov.au/) or are available free from the NSW DPIRD website (https://www.dpi.nsw.gov.au/agriculture/horticulture/berries).

Spray Sense provides information on sprayer calibration, testing for residues, storing pesticides, disposal of empty containers, how to read a label and several other topics. Download the Spray Sense leaflet series from the NSW DPIRD website (https://www.dpi.nsw.gov.au/agriculture/chemicals/spray-sense-leaflet-series).

The good bug book (https://bugsforbugs.com.au/product/good-bug-book-cd/) is a valuable reference source of the beneficial organisms commercially available for biological control in Australia. It includes illustrations of many beneficials as well as tables of information on their susceptibility to pesticides.

Childers NF (2006) *Blueberries for growers, gardeners, and promoters,* Norman F Childers Horticultural Publications. This edition is good background reading for growers and plant propagators, covering topics on production trends in North America, varietal breeding and propagation techniques.

Funt RC and Hall HK (2013) *Raspberries: crop production science in horticulture*, CABI, Cambridge, UK. A very useful book for raspberry growers. The book covers topics such as propagation, soil and water management, pest and disease management and production.

Funt RC and Hall HK (2017) *Blackberries and their hybrids: crop production science in horticulture*, CABI Cambridge, UK. A very useful book for growers of blackberries and their hybrids, covering topics such as growth and development, plant nutrition and pest and disease management.

Retamales JB and Hancock JF (2012) *Blueberries: crop production science in horticulture*, CABI Cambridge, UK. This is a very useful book for growers of highbush and Rabbiteye varieties. It includes topics such as production, nutrition, growth, pests and harvesting.

Schilder A and Isaacs R (2004) *A pocket guide to IPM scouting in highbush blueberries*, Michigan State University, Bulletin E2928. This guide is excellent for identifying some diseases and nutritional problems in blueberries. However, as it is an overseas publication, it does not include many of the pests and diseases we have here in Australia (https://www.canr.msu.edu/blueberries/uploads/files/BlueberryGuide-online-FINAL.pdf).

Internet sites

Agricultural industry organisations

Berries Australia (https://berries.net.au/)

Horticulture Industry Network (https://www.hin.com.au/)

Horticulture Innovation Australia Limited (https://www.horticulture.com.au/)

International Blueberry Organisation (https://www.internationalblueberry.org/)

National Farmers Federation (https://nff.org.au/)

NSW Farmers Association (https://www.nswfarmers.org.au/)

State government

Agriculture Victoria (https://agriculture.vic.gov.au/)

Climate Research Strategy for Primary Industries (https://crspi.com.au/)

Department of Natural Resources and Environment Tasmania (https://nre.tas.gov.au/)

Department of Primary Industries and Regional Development, Western Australia (https://www.wa.gov.au/organisation/department-of-primary-industries-and-regional-development)

Department of Primary Industries and Regions, South Australia (https://pir.sa.gov.au/)

NSW Department of Primary Industries and Regional Development (https://www.dpi.nsw.gov.au/)

NSW Local Land Services (https://www.lls.nsw.gov.au/)

Queensland Department of Agriculture and Fisheries (https://www.daf.qld.gov.au/)

SafeWork NSW (https://www.safework.nsw.gov.au/)

Water NSW (https://www.waternsw.com.au/)

Rural assistance

Centrelink (https://www.servicesaustralia.gov.au/centrelink?context=1)

NSW Health (https://www.health.nsw.gov.au/)

NSW Rural Assistance Authority (https://www.raa.nsw.gov.au/)

Federal government

Australian Pesticides and Veterinary Medicines Authority (https://apvma.gov.au/)

Australian Trade Commission (https://www.austrade.gov.au/)

Department of Agriculture, Fisheries and Forestry (https://www.agriculture.gov.au/)

Environment, land and water (https://www.nsw.gov.au/environment-land-and-water)

Plant Health Australia (https://www.planthealthaustralia.com.au/)

Climate

Bureau of Meteorology (http://www.bom.gov.au/)

The Long Paddock (https://www.longpaddock.qld.gov.au/)

Environment

Department of Climate Change, Energy, the Environment and Water (https://www.dcceew.gov.au/)

Department of Energy, Environment and Climate Action (https://www.deeca.vic.gov.au/)

Environment Protection Authority NSW (https://www.epa.nsw.gov.au/)

Environment Protection Authority Victoria (https://www.epa.vic.gov.au/)

NSW Environment and Heritage (https://www.environment.nsw.gov.au/)

Alternative systems (organics)

Australian Organic Limited (https://austorganic.com/)

Organic Federation of Australia (https://organicindustries.org.au/OFA)

Economic information

Australian Bureau of Agricultural and Resource Economics and Sciences (https://www.agriculture.gov.au/abares)

Australian Bureau of Statistics (https://www.abs.gov.au/)

Market price information

Sydney Produce Surveyors (https://sydprod.com.au/)

Technical production information

Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation (https://www.csiro.au/)

Fall Creek Nursery (https://www.fallcreeknursery.com/)

Fruit and Nut Research and Information, University of California (https://fruitsandnuts.ucdavis.edu/)

Michigan State University Extension Services (https://www.canr.msu.edu/outreach/)

New Zealand Ministry for Primary Industries (https://www.mpi.govt.nz/)

North Carolina State University Extension Services (https://blueberries.ces.ncsu.edu/)

South Australia Research and Development Institute (https://pir.sa.gov.au/research)

United Kingdom Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs (https://www.gov.uk/government/organisations/department-for-environment-food-rural-affairs)

United States Department of Agriculture (https://www.usda.gov/)

University of Florida IFAS Extension (https://edis.ifas.ufl.edu/)

Integrated pest management

Australasian Biological Control Association Inc (http://www.goodbugs.org.au/index.html)

Biological Services (https://www.biologicalservices.com.au/)

BioResources (https://bioresources.com.au/)

Bug Central (https://www.bugcentral.com.au/)

Bugs for Bugs (https://bugsforbugs.com.au/)

IPM Technologies (https://ipmtechnologies.com.au/)

Quality assurance

Freshcare Australia (https://www.freshcare.com.au/)

Harmonised Australian Retailer Produce Scheme (https://harpsonline.com.au/)

Berry marketing agents

Driscoll's Australia Pty Ltd (https://www.driscolls.com.au/) phone 07 5478 8871

Fresh Produce Group (https://fpg.com.au/) phone 02 9704 8300

Mountain Blue (https://www.mountainblue.com.au/marketing)

Perfection Fresh Australia Pty Ltd (https://www.perfection.com.au/home) phone 02 9763 1877

YV Fresh Australia Pty Ltd (https://www.yvfresh.com.au/) phone 03 9737 9534

NSW DPIRD Horticulture Leaders and Development Officers

Director Horticulture

Dr Alison Anderson
Elizabeth Macarthur Agricultural Institute
Woodbridge Road, Menangle, NSW 2568
m: 0400 189 576
e: alison.anderson@dpi.nsw.gov.au

Leader Southern Horticulture

Myles Parker
Orange Agricultural Institute
1447 Forest Road, Orange, NSW 2800
m: 0419 217 553
e: myles.parker@dpi.nsw.gov.au

Leader Northern Horticulture

Kevin Quinlan
Wollongbar Primary Industries Institute
1243 Bruxner Highway, Wollongbar, NSW 2477
m: 0408 243 028
e: kevin.quinlan@dpi.nsw.gov.au

Berries

Gaius Leong
Coffs Harbour Primary Industries Office
1/30 Park Avenue, Coffs Harbour, NSW 2450
m: 0484 055 748
e: gaius.leong@dpi.nsw.gov.au

Melinda Simpson
Wollongbar Primary Industries Institute
1243 Bruxner Highway, Wollongbar, NSW 2477
m: 0447 081 765
e: melinda.simpson@dpi.nsw.gov.au

Citrus

Andrew Creek
Yanco Agricultural Institute
Trunk Road 80, Yanco, NSW 2522
m: 0428 934 952
e: andrew.creek@dpi.nsw.gov.au

Steven Falivene
Dareton Primary Industries Institute
Silver City Highway, Dareton NSW 2717
p: 03 5019 8405 m: 0427 208 611
e: steven.falivene@dpi.nsw.gov.au

Entomology

Dr Meena Thakur
Yanco Agricultural Institute
2198 Irrigation Way East, Yanco, NSW, 2703
m: 0476 485 132
e: meenu.thakur@dpi.nsw.gov.au

Macadamias

Jeremy Bright
Wollongbar Primary Industries Institute
1243 Bruxner Highway, Wollongbar, NSW 2477
p: 02 6626 1346 m: 0427 213 059
e: jeremy.bright@dpi.nsw.gov.au

Sub-tropical

Steven Norman
Wollongbar Primary Industries Institute
1243 Bruxner Highway, Wollongbar, NSW 2477
m: 0432 680 532
e: steven.norman@dpi.nsw.gov.au

Temperate Fruits

Kevin Dodds
Tumut District Office
64 Fitzroy Street, Tumut, NSW 2720
p: 02 6941 1400 m: 0427 918 315
e: kevin.dodds@dpi.nsw.gov.au

Jessica Fearnley
Orange Agricultural Institute
1447 Forest Road, Orange NSW 2800
m: 0437 284 010
e: jessica.fearnley@dpi.nsw.gov.au

Viticulture

Penny Flannery
Orange Agricultural Institute
1447 Forest Road, Orange, NSW 2800
m: 0439 230 829
e: penny.flannery@dpi.nsw.gov.au

Information Delivery

Dr Amanda Warren-Smith
Orange Agricultural Institute
1447 Forest Road, Orange, NSW 2800
m: 0419 235 785
e: amanda.warren-smith@dpi.nsw.gov.au

NSW Local Land Services (Horticulture)

Local Land Services (LLS), launched in January 2014, delivers quality, customer-focused services to farmers, landholders and the community in rural and regional New South Wales. LLS bring together agricultural production advice, biosecurity, natural resource management and emergency management into a single organisation. LLS horticulture officers help producers with the challenges they face today and take advantage of future opportunities, to achieve improvements in crop yields, orchard management and market access.

Producers can contact their nearest LLS office by phoning 1300 795 299.

NSW DPIRD Biosecurity and Food Safety

NSW DPIRD Biosecurity and Food Safety is the contact point in this state for anyone who requires advice on intrastate or interstate movement of fruit or plants and other biosecurity-related issues. All enquiries should be directed via Plant Health Australia's Domestic Quarantine Line 1800 084 881. This phone number will connect you with an automated system to allow you to choose the state or territory relevant to your report or enquiry.

EXOTIC PLANT PEST HOTLINE
1800 084 881

Seasonal Conditions Monitoring Program

State Seasonal Update: Conditions & Outlook

The **State Seasonal Update** is produced monthly and is the official point of reference of seasonal conditions across NSW for producers, government, stakeholders and the public.

Combined Drought Indicator: Latest NSW Drought Maps

Is an interactive tool that provides a snapshot of current seasonal conditions for NSW, factoring in rainfall, soil moisture and pasture/crop growth indices.

Seasonal Conditions Information Portal

Uses a technology that allows fast, stable transfer of data and information direct from the EDIS system to your computer. The portal contains several downloadable features from the **NSW Combined Drought Indicator.**

Farm Tracker Mobile Application

Farm Tracker is a tool you can use to record seasonal conditions. You can:

1. Complete a simple crop, pasture or animal survey
2. Keep and manage a photo diary of your farm
3. Monitor the same paddock over many years

Have your say

Complete this survey and tell us what is important to you as we continue to improve our Seasonal Conditions monitoring program. Eg. improved local accuracy of data and climate networks, better ways of communicating, or strengthening linkages to drought management and relief measures.

Department of Primary Industries and Regional Development

www.dpi.nsw.gov.au

NSW GOVERNMENT

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Ecomix Australia
5 Mary Court, Epping, VIC 3076
sales@ecomix.com.au, 0434 930 977
www.ecomix.com.au