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2Environ. Entomol.

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13Running Head: Knight. Adjusting the phenology model of codling moth

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Adjusting the Phenology Model of Codling Moth (Lepidoptera: Tortricidae)

17

in Washington State Apple Orchards

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**1**ABSTRACT Field studies were conducted with codling moth, *Cydia pomonella* (L.), to fit  
2cumulative curves for the occurrence of injured fruits and male moth catches in sex pheromone-  
3baited traps as a function of accumulated degree days following the start of moth flight. Twelve  
4data sets were collected from seven apple, *Malus domestica* Bordhausen, orchards in Washington  
5State from 2003 to 2006. No clear temporal separation occurred between the end and the start of  
6the first and second generation in either moth flight or the occurrence of new fruit injury.  
7Cumulative data were grouped across years for orchards either treated with sex pheromone  
8dispensers or untreated and fit to logistic equations for both the first and second generation. A  
9cumulative model for egg hatch was generated by backtracking cumulative fruit injury one day  
10(subtracting the mean daily degree day accumulation during the previous sampling interval). No  
11significant differences were found for the cumulative curves of moth flight or egg hatch between  
12pheromone-treated and untreated orchards, thus these data were combined. These new models for  
13moth flight and egg hatch were then compared (ANCOVA) with widely-used tabular, predictive  
14models (old model) also fit to logistic equations for each generation. The cumulative flight  
15curves for the new and old models were statistically different (slopes) for the first but not the  
16second generation. Cumulative egg hatch in the new model was significantly different from the  
17old model (intercepts and slopes) for both generations. Most strikingly, the timing of 50% egg  
18hatch during the first generation was delayed 100 degree days in the new versus the old model.  
19The potential impact of this change in the characterization of codling moth's phenology on the  
20effectiveness of insecticide programs targeting eggs and newly eclosed larvae was examined.  
21Possible explanations for this significant difference between the models are discussed.

**22**Keywords: *Cydia pomonella*, apple, phenology, pest management

1GLENN (1922) first proposed using summations of physiological time (degree days) from  
2January 1 to predict the seasonal occurrence of various life stages of codling moth, *Cydia*  
3*pomonella* (L.). Adoption of this approach, however, was slow for 50 years as the method was  
4deemed cumbersome prior to the onset of the computer-age and tailored spray timings were not  
5considered to be necessary, while apple growers used preventative cover sprays of lead arsenate,  
6DDT, or other long-lasting materials (Batiste et al. 1973). Concurrent with a shift towards  
7integrated orchard pest management this approach was re-evaluated in the 1970's to substitute the  
8use of unnecessary insecticides with greater knowledge of pest and natural enemies densities and  
9their phenology (Croft and Hoyt 1983).

10 Prediction of key events of codling moth's phenology (first and peak egg hatch of each  
11generation) from easily measured biological reference points (Biofix), such as male catches in  
12sex pheromone-baited traps was developed and validated (Riedl et al. 1976). Today, the  
13prediction of first egg hatch of the overwintering generation of codling moth at 139 degree days  
14summed from the first sustained male catch in sex pheromone-baited traps (Biofix 1) has become  
15a widely adopted tool used to time the first insecticide spray (Barnett et al. 1991, Barnes et al.  
161993, Beers et al.1993). Unfortunately, the reliability of predicting other key events in codling  
17moth's phenology, such as peak egg hatch or egg hatch during the second generation or using  
18other reference points, such as peak moth catches (Biofix 2, 3), proved to be low (Riedl et al.  
191976), and have not been widely adopted . Instead, the second and subsequent seasonal sprays  
20are usually timed based on a calendar dates, i.e. 2 – 3 wk intervals depending on an estimate of  
21pest pressure and the expected residual effectiveness of the insecticide (Brunner et al. 1982,  
22Beers et al. 1993).

1 Compared with the effectiveness of the current calendar-based spray program further  
2 improvements in the management of codling moth may be possible if growers can better target  
3 the peak periods of pest densities. The periods of oviposition and egg hatch for each generation  
4 of codling moth last approximately 6 wks, and 2-3 sprays would be required depending on the  
5 insecticide's residual effectiveness to achieve complete coverage of both time periods (Riedl et al.  
6 1976). However, apple growers in Washington State on average apply fewer sprays (NASS 2005),  
7 and because weather and operational factors can both impact the deposit and retention of  
8 effective residues, the relative effectiveness of codling moth control programs may be highly  
9 variable during the season. Thus spray timing decisions are critical to achieve control of codling  
10 moth. Knowledge of the timing of peak oviposition and egg hatch during each generation  
11 remains an important piece of information needed to allocate resources and design an optimal  
12 management program.

13 Predicting the first egg hatch from first male moth catch has proved to be rather  
14 straightforward and consistent (Riedl et al. 1976, Beers and Brunner 1992). The length of this  
15 interval for codling moth is due to the occurrence of a male protandry (Howell 1991), a pre-  
16 ovipositional period for the mated female (Hagley 1973), and the degree days required for  
17 completion of egg development (Richardson et al. 1982). The shape of the cumulative curve of  
18 egg hatch for each generation, however, is more variable and is likely influenced by several  
19 factors impacting the occurrence and rate of several important activities of adult codling moth:  
20 sex pheromone release, mating, and egg laying. First, the lower temperature threshold for full  
21 expression of mating or oviposition, 15.6 °C (Eyer 1934) is substantially higher than for  
22 physiological development of immature stages, 10 °C (Glenn 1922). Thus degree days can

1accumulate that drive egg development in a predictive model even though few to no females  
2were mated or a limited number of eggs were deposited under poor field conditions. Second,  
3codling moth's sexual behaviors can be strongly affected by climatic conditions in addition to  
4temperatures below physiological thresholds, such as wind, rain, and relative humidity that can  
5occur during the restricted time periods of codling moth activity, i.e. dusk (Howell 1991). Thus,  
6the intercept and slopes of the observed cumulative curves for oviposition and subsequent egg  
7hatch plotted on a degree-day scale could vary significantly from predictive models based only  
8on physiological development (Knight and Weiss 1996).

9       The occurrence of first egg hatch of codling moth in the spring relative to the start of  
10male moth catches in sex pheromone-baited traps has been widely validated (Riedl et al. 1976,  
11Jorgensen et al. 1979), including in Washington State (Beers and Brunner 1992); but data for the  
12timing of peak oviposition and egg hatch during each generation are more limited: one orchard  
13for two years in Michigan (Riedl et al. 1976) and five orchards for one year in Utah (Jorgensen et  
14al. 1979). Data on the cumulative moth flight and egg hatch curves as a function of degree days  
15developed in Michigan were transferred and used in Washington State orchards without further  
16validation (Brunner et al. 1982). The potential error associated with extending phenology data  
17from one region to another without validation is reflected by the significant difference in the  
18mean generation time (cumulative degree days) of codling moth found in California versus  
19Michigan orchards (Pitcairn et al. 1992).

20       Since 1991, the pest management program for codling moth in Washington State has  
21evolved away from an exclusive use of organophosphate insecticides to a dynamic and variable  
22mix of sex pheromone for mating disruption, granulosis virus, and a suite of synthetic

1insecticides (synthetic pyrethroids, organophosphates, neonicotinyls, and insect growth  
2regulators) targeting both eggs and larvae (Brunner et al. 2005a). Recommendations for codling  
3moth management advises growers to consider product efficacy, compatibility with various other  
4orchard operations (worker re-entry restrictions), the need to manage other pests, such as  
5leafrollers; and the principles of resistance management (rotation of materials with different  
6modes of action) (Brunner et al. 2005b). Several 6-spray programs have been proposed that target  
7the entire period of egg laying or hatch with various combinations of insecticides (Brunner et al.  
82005a), but growers are hesitant about using these intensive spray programs to supplement their  
9use of mating disruption due to cost and the various externalities associated with insecticide use,  
10i.e. disruption of biological control, scheduling of other management practices, worker safety,  
11and environmental issues. Sex pheromone-baited traps are widely used to establish effective  
12action thresholds to either time sprays following peak catches or to avoid the use of unnecessary  
13sprays during the season (Gut and Brunner 1996). Unfortunately, this approach is hampered by  
14the lack in standardization of the various factors affecting trap performance (Knight and  
15Christianson 1999) and is particularly difficult in orchards treated with sex pheromone (Knight  
16and Light 2005). The failure of traps to detect local infestations of codling moth ('false  
17negatives') is a key factor impacting grower's effective management of codling moth (Riedl et al.  
181986).

19       Data on the timing of male moth flights and occurrence of fruit injury in a variable mix  
20of seven Washington State apple orchards were collected during seasonal investigations of the  
21effectiveness of new insecticide-based programs for codling moth from 2003 to 2006.  
22Interestingly, the data for first generation egg hatch fit a cumulative curve that was shifted

1 significantly later in the season than the predicted values in the old model. The impact of this  
2 temporal shift in the timing of egg hatch on the effectiveness of codling moth management  
3 programs in Washington State is explored. Several potential factors that may contribute to this  
4 difference are discussed.

5

## Materials and Methods

6       **Field studies.** Studies were conducted in seven apple orchards in Washington State  
7 during the four year study (Table 1). The Orondo site in Douglas County (47.71 N, 120.10 W) was  
8 a conventional, 10-ha ‘Delicious’ and ‘Golden Delicious’ orchard that had been abandoned for 1  
9 yr prior to the study. Three orchards situated near Parker in Yakima County were included in the  
10 study. The Parker 1 orchard (46.60 N, 120.46 W) in 2003 was a certified 2.0-ha organic block of  
11 ‘Golden Delicious’. The Parker 2 orchard (46.61 N, 120.47 W) monitored in 2004 was a 0.5-ha  
12 mixed-cultivar, certified organic orchard. The Parker 3 orchard (46.61 N, 120.48 W) monitored in  
13 both 2005 and 2006 was a 2.0-ha mixed block of ‘Red Delicious’ and ‘Golden Delicious’. This  
14 site was originally a conventional orchard but has been used as an experimental research block  
15 since 2001. One or two interplanted ‘Delicious’ and ‘Golden Delicious’ orchards (0.5 and 4.0-ha)  
16 near Moxee in Yakima County (46.56 N, 120.39 W) were included in the study each year. These  
17 orchards were certified organic through 2003 but have been used as experimental research sites  
18 since 2004. An unsprayed 0.5-ha ‘Red Delicious’ block at a private experimental farm near  
19 Zillah in Yakima, County (46.40 N, 120.26 W) was monitored in 2005 and 2006. Mean tree  
20 heights in all orchards ranged from 4.0 – 5.2 m and trees were planted at densities of 400 – 500  
21 per ha. All but the Zillah orchard were watered with under-tree irrigation systems. No insecticide  
22 sprays were applied to any of the areas monitored in these orchards during the study. The Parker

11, Parker 2, and Moxee 1 orchards were all treated with 1,000 sex pheromone dispensers per ha  
2(Isomate-C PLUS™, Pacific Biocontrol, Vancouver, WA).

3 Two to five trees with a full fruit load were randomly selected in each orchard at the  
4beginning of the season to provide an estimated sample of 2- to 3,000 fruits. During the 2003-  
52005 seasons, trees in each orchard were sampled twice per week. Fruit injury in orchards in  
62003 was sampled only for the first generation. Fruit injury in orchards in 2006 was sampled  
7once per week. One or two scouts examined all fruit on each designated tree using ladders on  
8each sample date. Sampling time on each date ranged from one to two hrs per orchard depending  
9on the number of fruits checked, the number of fruits removed, and tree size. The mean (SE)  
10number of degree days that accumulated between sample dates were 36.6 (4.6) and 83.3 (8.4)  
11when trees were sampled semiweekly or weekly, respectively. In general, degree day intervals  
12were shorter early in the season and longer during the second codling moth generation. A small  
13sample of injured-fruits collected from orchards in 2003-2004 was dissected and all larvae were  
14categorized as first to third instars based on head capsule widths (Weitzner and Whalon 1987). A  
15variable proportion of fruits in all orchards had multiple injuries. Data on the total number of  
16injuries not the number of injured fruits were recorded. The cumulative proportion of fruits  
17removed from the designated trees with codling moth injuries by the end of the season were <  
180.60 in all sites except for Moxee 2 in 2004. Due to the low numbers of uninjured fruits present  
19in this orchard later in the season, data for the second generation were not included in the  
20analyses.

21 Male codling moths were monitored in each orchard with two delta-shaped plastic traps  
22(Pherocon® VI, Trécé Inc., Adair, OK) baited with sex pheromone. Traps were attached to



1 plastic poles and placed in the upper third of the tree canopy. Traps were spaced 50 – 100 m  
2 apart and > 10 m from the edge of the orchard. Orchards treated with sex pheromone dispensers  
3 were monitored with Biolure™ 10x lures (Suterra LLC, Bend, OR). The remaining orchards  
4 were monitored with Pherocon® CM-L2™ lures (Trécé Inc.). Both lure types were replaced  
5 every 8 wks. Traps were checked once or twice per wk and sticky liners were replaced frequently  
6 (every week in most orchards).

7        Air temperatures within orchards were monitored every 5 min with digital recorders  
8 (Avatel, Fort Bragg, CA) housed in screened shelters and daily maximum and minimum  
9 temperatures were recorded. Data were entered into an Excel spreadsheet and daily degree days  
10 with a lower and horizontal upper threshold of 10 °C and 31.1 °C, respectively, were calculated  
11 with a modified sine wave function (Baskerville and Emin 1969).

12        **Model development.** Several adjustments of both moth catch and fruit injury data were  
13 made prior to analyses. First, the occurrence of each fruit injury was assumed to have occurred  
14 on average 1 d after egg hatch. The mean daily degree day total during the previous 3 – 7 d  
15 sampling interval (range in values for first and second generation were 5 – 13 and 8 - 16 degree  
16 days, respectively) was subtracted from the cumulative degree days summed from Biofix 1 for  
17 each sample date. This adjustment assumed that it would take on average one day for newly  
18 enclosed codling moth larvae to find and penetrate fruit and for the injury to be visible to a scout.  
19 This seemed to be a reasonable approximation as Hall (1934) found that codling moth neonates  
20 required a mean time of 150 min to locate and penetrate fruit, and because larval frass can be  
21 detected on the surface of attacked fruits within 24 h (unpublished data). Second, the moth catch  
22 that occurred on the Biofix date was assigned the degree day total that accumulated on the day

1 the trap was checked. Third, the ends of moth flight and egg hatch were assumed to occur at  
 2 2444 and 567 and 1044 and 1189 degree days after Biofix for the first and second generations,  
 3 respectively, to match the values used in the old model (Beers et al. 1993). Fourth, to assign moth  
 4 catches and egg hatch to either of the two generations, data were interpolated back from the first  
 5 sample date that corresponded to the second (> 444 and > 567 degree days) or third generation (>  
 6 1044 and > 1189 degree days) for moth catches and egg hatch, respectively (Beers et al. 1993).  
 7 Fifth, the final cumulative value for each generation was adjusted from 1.0 to 0.995 to allow  
 8 these data to be used in the statistical fit of the logistic models.

9       The data for cumulative proportions of moth catch and egg hatch for each generation  
 10 were fit to logistic response functions where Y is the proportion of the event completed and X is  
 11 the cumulative degree day total from Biofix (Neter and Wasserman 1974).

$$12 \quad E(Y) = e^{(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X)} / (1 + e^{(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X)})$$

13 The two parameters of the logistic equation ( $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$ ) were estimated with linear regression by  
 14 first transforming the proportions ( $p$ ) into logits ( $p'$ ).

$$15 \quad p' = \log_e(p/(1-p))$$

16 The tabular data from Brunner et al. (1982) (old model) for cumulative moth flight and egg hatch  
 17 as a function of degree days summed from Biofix were transformed and also fit to logistic  
 18 equations.

19       **Estimating the efficacy of insecticide timing.** The significance of the change in the  
 20 prediction of cumulative egg hatch between the old and new model was evaluated by considering  
 21 the potential impact of spray timing for a generic insecticide timed for either eggs or neonate  
 22 larvae. The expected proportions of first generation eggs killed by an ovicide applied at three

1 timings were evaluated: 28, 56, or 258 degree days after Biofix. The ovicide was assumed to  
2 kill 95 and 90% of the eggs laid during the first and second week after the spray application. The  
3 number of eggs expected to be laid during each of these weekly intervals with both models was  
4 estimated using mean weekly accumulation of degree days at that point of the season. These  
5 estimates were calculated with field temperatures taken from 12 field data sets. For example, the  
6 mean weekly degree day total for these sites increased from 47 to 82 from the interval of 28 to  
7 389 degree days after Biofix 1. The portion of the total complement of eggs laid during each of  
8 these intervals was determined by using the equations for egg hatch and subtracting 86 degree  
9 days for the estimated mean egg developmental time (Richardson et al. 1982).

10 A similar approach was used to evaluate the relative effectiveness of insecticide spray  
11 timings targeting neonate larvae based on the different cumulative curves of first generation egg  
12 hatch in the two models. The first larval spray was applied at 139 degree days after Biofix 1 and  
13 two additional sprays were applied at two wk intervals. The proportion of neonates killed was  
14 assumed to be 99 and 95% during the first and second week after each spray application. The  
15 effectiveness of the three spray timings in removing a portion of the total neonate population  
16 during the first generation was determined with each model.

17 **Data analysis.** All data were entered into a statistical computer package and data were  
18 transformed to fit the logistic equations (Analytical Software 2002). ANCOVA was used to detect  
19 significant differences ( $P < 0.05$ ) in either the slope or intercept of the logistic regressions of the  
20 new and old model for cumulative moth flight and egg hatch of each generation (Neter and  
21 Wasserman 1974). Data collected from orchards treated with and without sex pheromone  
22 dispensers were compared with ANCOVA. No significant differences were found between these

1 data sets and all the data were combined in the subsequent analyses with the old model.

2

## Results

3       **Field data.** Population densities of codling moth were high in all orchards (Table 1). Both  
4 mean moth catch and numbers of injuries increased between generations. Seasonal patterns of  
5 moth flight were fairly consistent in all four years though counts were much lower during 2004  
6 (Fig. 1a). Flights peaked during mid-May. Moth captures were lowest in late-June, but still  
7 averaged 10 – 35 moths per trap. Moth flight in the second generation peaked in late-July.

8       Fruit injury was first found in orchards beginning in late-May or about 4 wks after the  
9 start of moth flight (Fig. 1b). Levels of new fruit injury peaked in mid-June in 2003 and 2005,  
10 and a week later in the other two years. Relatively high levels of new fruit injuries were detected  
11 in late-June in all four years. The lowest levels of new fruit injury occurred during a 2 - 3 wk  
12 period in July, New fruit injuries increased sharply in early-August and gradually declined over  
13 the remainder of the season (Fig. 1b).

14       **Model development.** Data for both cumulative moth flight and egg hatch fit logistic  
15 equations fairly well (Tables 2 and 3, Fig. 2a, b,  $r^2$ 's  $\geq 0.85$ ). The tabular data from Brunner et al.  
16 (1982) fit the logistic equations more closely,  $r^2$ 's  $> 0.97$ . Cumulative data for moth flight and egg  
17 hatch were similar in both generations for codling moth in orchards treated with or without sex  
18 pheromone dispensers (Table 2). The slope of the regression equation for cumulative moth flight  
19 during the first generation differed significantly between the new and old model (Table 3, Fig.  
20 3a). In contrast, no statistical difference (ANCOVA) was found for the new and old model's  
21 predictions of the second generation cumulative flight. The new model's curves for cumulative  
22 egg hatch were significantly different (intercepts and slopes) from the old model for both

1 generations (Table 3, Fig. 3b). In particular, the midpoint of the new curve (proportion = 0.50)  
2 was approximately 100 degree days later than the curve generated from the old model during the  
3 first generation (Fig. 3b). The new model predicted a slightly faster and then slower  
4 accumulation of egg hatch early and then late in the cumulative curve than the old model during  
5 the second generation.

6       **Estimating the efficacy of insecticide timing.** The effectiveness of the timing of either a  
7 generic ovicide or larvicide spray application varied depending on which model was used to  
8 predict the phenology of codling moth (Table 4). With the old model, the highest proportion of  
9 eggs were killed with a spray timed at 100 degree days after Biofix 1, while the new model  
10 showed a strong improvement in control if the ovicide was delayed until 258 degree days after  
11 Biofix 1. This late timing of the ovicides corresponded closely to the second larvicide timing  
12 (Biofix + 139 degree days + 2 wks).

13       The significant differences in the two models' predictions of first generation egg hatch  
14 created relative differences in the effectiveness of the three larvicide applications. With the old  
15 model either the first or second spray would be the most important spray timings to reduce  
16 codling moth injury, while the third spray contributed a much lower amount of control (Table 4).  
17 In contrast, the new model suggests that the first spray is the least effective timing as it targets the  
18 eclosion of only 10% of the larval population. Instead, the second and then the third spray would  
19 be more important to the overall level of larval control that was achieved in this exercise.

20

## Discussion

21       Knowledge of the start date and the temporal shape of the cumulative curve of egg hatch  
22 are both key factors in constructing an effective intra-generational management program for

1codling moth. In commercial orchards, codling moth is a low-density pest and sampling the  
2relatively large orchard canopies for its widely-scattered eggs is problematic (Batiste et al. 1973).  
3Instead, the start of codling moth egg hatch in the spring can be predicted with either the  
4accumulation of degree days from January 1<sup>st</sup> (Headlee 1931, Glenn and Brain 1982) or from the  
5start of sustained male moth flight (Riedl et al. 1976, Jorgensen et al. 1979, Brunner et al. 1982).  
6By linking the start of their seasonal spray program for codling moth to the presence of the first  
7individuals of the most susceptible life stages, growers' can time subsequent sprays based on the  
8residual toxicity of each insecticide (Gratwick et al. 1965, Hameed and Allen 1976).  
9Unfortunately, a variety of factors can interplay to create time periods when residues are lower  
10than the minimum effective dosage, i.e. precipitation, overhead irrigation, poor spray coverage,  
11and elevated tolerances to insecticides (Howell and Maitlen 1987, Brunner et al. 2005a). In  
12addition, growers may further increase the number and / or length of these time periods by  
13stretching spray intervals due to economics, regulations, conservation of natural enemies, low  
14moth catches in monitoring traps or a failure to detect eggs or injured fruits in the orchard.  
15Insecticide usage surveys in Washington State suggest that on average, apple growers apply less  
16than the 4 – 6 sprays needed for complete seasonal protection from codling moth (NASS 2005).  
17Thus, growers' relative success in allocating a scarce resource (insecticide residues) to cover the  
18key periods of pest abundance will likely correlate closely with their crop losses at harvest.

19       Several studies monitoring codling moth with sex pheromone-baited sticky traps during  
20the 1970's found that a distinct time period, defined by low weekly moth catches, occurred  
21between generations beginning in late June and lasting 3 to 4 wks (Batiste et al. 1970, Madsen  
22and Vakenti 1973, Riedl and Croft 1974, Westgard and Graves 1976). Pitcairn et al. (1992),

1 however, in their modeling of the generation time of codling moth in California discarded  
2 approximately 40% of the 250 intra-generation data sets of male moth catches collected from  
3 1978 to 1988 because they could not detect a clear separation between generations. Similarly,  
4 data collected from unsprayed Washington State apple orchards from 2002 - 2006 failed to detect  
5 a time interval between generations where moth catches were low, i.e. < 20% of the peak and < 5  
6 moths / wk (Fig 1a). Factors, such as differences in trap and lure maintenance (Riedl et al. 1986),  
7 impact of seasonal sprays (Riedl and Croft 1974), or a quantitative shift in the phenology of  
8 codling moth (Boivin et al. 2003) could account for this apparent change in the flight patterns of  
9 male codling moth to sex pheromone-baited traps. Significant changes in the structure of orchard  
10 training systems over the last 40 yrs could also have had some impact on the variability of  
11 codling moth's phenology (Kührt et al. 2006).

12       Studies conducted in the 1970's found that a gap occurred in the timing of oviposition by  
13 female moths between the first and second generation (Riedl et al. 1976, Jorgensen et al. 1979).  
14 In contrast, new fruit injury by codling moth was found every week in orchards sampled from  
15 2002 to 2006, and was particularly high in late June and the first week of July (Fig. 1b). This  
16 period coincides with the timing of the third cover spray (Biofix 1 + 139 degree days + 4 wks).  
17 Obviously, growers failing to apply a third cover spray for the first generation or experiencing  
18 one or more factors previously listed that would shorten this spray's effectiveness could  
19 experience significant levels of codling moth injury at this point in the season (Table 3). In  
20 addition, stretching the spray interval between generations during July would further jeopardize  
21 codling moth management.

22       Recommendations for spray timing in Washington State have typically considered each

1 generation separately (Brunner et al. 1982, Beers et al. 1993). For example, after the first spray  
2 application at 139 degree days following Biofix 1, additional sprays for first generation are  
3 calendar-based, 2 – 3 wk intervals and based on cumulative catch of moths. Insecticide sprays for  
4 the second generation are independently timed based on the accumulation of 694 degree days  
5 summed from Biofix 1 (Beers et al. 1993). Unfortunately, this effectively expands the spray  
6 interval at mid-season (late June to late July) to 3 – 4 wks. Management of codling moth within  
7 infested orchards could likely be improved if spray timing was based on maintaining an effective  
8 minimum deposit among the currently registered insecticides for codling moth throughout the  
9 season.

10       The codling moth phenology data collected in Michigan in 1973-74 were fit into a  
11 generalized phenology model format (PETE) that was subsequently incorporated into various  
12 state-wide computer-based agricultural networks (Welch et al. 1978, Croft and Knight 1983).  
13 This generic model format uses a kth-ordered distributive delay process to advance insects  
14 through substages, the rate of which is determined by each stage's degree day requirements and  
15 daily temperatures (Manetsch 1976). PETE is a deterministic model that generates a fixed output  
16 when plotted on a degree day scale. The influence of stochastic events such as temperature or  
17 rainfall that can significantly impact daily fecundity are not included (Howell 1991). Further  
18 improvement in phenological modeling of codling moth has been achieved with the inclusion of  
19 climatic factors' impacts on both mating success and fecundity, particularly early in the season  
20 (Knight 2004a). Cool springtime temperatures were found to retard the oviposition rate of  
21 codling moth when plotted on a degree day scale. This could explain the proportionally greater  
22 shift that occurred in the timing of egg hatch versus moth flight in the new versus the old model



1(Figs. 3a, b).

2       The codling moth PETE model was adopted in Washington State (Brunner et al. 1982)  
3and validated by comparing its prediction with observed first egg hatch in the field (Beers and  
4Brunner 1992). Data on the cumulative curves of codling moth oviposition, egg hatch, or fruit  
5injury has not been reported previously from Washington State orchards or compared with  
6populations in Michigan. Significant differences in the phenology of codling moth are known to  
7exist between different geographical areas, such as California versus Michigan (Pitcairn et al.  
81992). The PETE model developed in Michigan where codling moth has 1 to 2 generations did  
9not fit the phenology of codling moth in North Carolina; where similar to populations in  
10California, it has 2 to 4 generations (Rock and Shaeffer 1983). Data used to develop this new  
11model were largely collected from orchards in Yakima County. Further validation of these  
12equations is needed for orchards in other regions in Washington State and for orchards in other  
13geographical areas.

14       The pleiotropic costs associated with insecticide resistance alleles have been found to  
15affect the timing of spring emergence, the rate of larval development, and the seasonal timing of  
16diapause in codling moth in strains exhibiting high levels of resistance to either diflubenzuron  
17(10,000-fold) or deltamethrin (80-fold) (Boivin et al. 2001, 2004). Boivin et al. (2003) suggest  
18that the maintenance of a polymorphic codling moth population in the field is achieved by the  
19trade-offs between the negative pleiotropic costs of resistance on female fecundity and longevity  
20and egg fertility and the selective advantages for resistant individuals escaping current spray  
21timings designed for the phenology of susceptible populations. The phenology of a mixed  
22genotypic population of codling moth would likely be similar to the data found for populations in

1 Washington State in this study – no change in the initiation of moth flight or egg hatch, but  
2 broader periods of overlapping moth flight and oviposition among generations. Interestingly, a  
3 significant positive correlation was found for a delay in the median date of spring emergence and  
4 levels of tolerance to azinphosmethyl among field-collected populations in Washington State  
5 (Knight 2004b). These data support the hypothesis that codling moth, in response to strong  
6 selection pressure imposed by insecticide usage, may have evolved a phenology different than  
7 that previously described by Riedl et al. (1976). Successful future management of codling moth  
8 will require careful consideration of these changes.

## Acknowledgements

2 I would like to thank Ted Goehry, Duane Larsen, and Brad Christianson, (U.S.D.A.,  
3A.R.S., Wapato, WA) for their help in conducting these tests. Pete Garza (Manzana Orchards,  
4Moxee, WA), Ron Britt (Britt and Associates, Yakima, WA), Riley Wallace (Parker, WA), Ryoko  
5Taki (Mair Farm-Taki, Parker, WA), and Mike Young (Parker, WA) generously allowed us to use  
6a portion of their orchards. The reviews by Vince Jones (Washington State University,  
7Wenatchee, WA), Rick Hilton (Oregon State University, Medford, OR), Larry Gut (Michigan  
8State University, East Lansing, MI, and Steve Arthurs and Peter Landolt (U.S.D.A. Agricultural  
9Research Service, Wapato, WA) provided helpful comments on an earlier draft of this  
10manuscript. The Washington Tree Fruit Research Commission, Wenatchee, WA provided partial  
11funding of this research.

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**1 Table 1. Summary of codling moth counts of male moths caught in sex pheromone-**  
**2 baited traps and injured fruits sampled on selected trees in apple orchards monitored**  
**3 during one or both generations from 2003 to 2006**

Orchard	Year	Biofix date <sup>a</sup>	1 <sup>st</sup> generation		2 <sup>nd</sup> generation	
			cumulative counts <sup>b</sup>		cumulative counts <sup>c</sup>	
			No. moths	No. injuries	No. moths	No. injuries
Orondo	2003	4/22	452	1679	57	-
Moxee1	2003	4/28	320	562	393	-
Parker1	2003	4/28	189	600	324	-
Moxee1	2004	4/29	67	398	183	1187
Moxee2	2004	4/29	77	2035	373	-
Parker2	2004	4/19	126	423	248	847
Moxee1	2005	4/25	228	72	260	228
Zillah	2005	4/22	314	77	415	240
Parker3	2005	4/20	444	184	280	385
Moxee2	2006	5/04	-	185	-	1668
Zillah	2006	5/01	152	126	356	833
Parker3	2006	4/27	436	609	326	1131
Mean (SE):			255.0 (44.1)	579.2 (182.9)	292.3 (31.4)	814.9 (180.6)

4<sup>a</sup> The start of sustained male moth catches in a sex pheromone-baited trap (Biofix 1).

5<sup>b</sup> Cumulative counts from the timing of first moth catch to 444 and 567 degree days for male  
6moth catches and injured fruits, respectively.

7<sup>c</sup> Cumulative counts from the timing of first moth catch to 1044 and 1189 degree days for moth  
8catches and injured fruits, respectively.

**Table 2. Model parameters of logistic equations fit to cumulative emergence and egg hatch for both the first and second codling moth generations from apple orchards treated with or without sex pheromone dispensers, 2003-2006**

Orchard treatment <sup>a</sup> / generation	Intercept	Slope	Adjusted $R^2$	ANCOVA $P$ -values	
				Intercepts	Slopes
Cumulative moth flight					
Sex pheromone / 1 <sup>st</sup>	-3.4417	0.0098	0.88	0.22	0.34
No pheromone / 1 <sup>st</sup>	-3.0576	0.0105	0.85		
Sex pheromone / 2 <sup>nd</sup>	-11.1586	0.0108	0.90	0.34	0.19
No pheromone / 2 <sup>nd</sup>	-11.3795	0.0083	0.91		
Cumulative egg hatch					
Sex pheromone / 1 <sup>st</sup>	-8.2650	0.0123	0.92	0.65	0.83
No pheromone / 1 <sup>st</sup>	-8.0692	0.0124	0.91		
Sex pheromone / 2 <sup>nd</sup>	-11.3368	0.0070	0.85	0.77	0.76
No pheromone / 2 <sup>nd</sup>	-11.6536	0.0072	0.85		

<sup>a</sup> Orchards treated with sex pheromone (5 data sets) received 1,000 Isomate-C PLUS™ sex

pheromone dispensers per ha, and the other orchards (7 data sets) were left untreated.

**Table 3. Model parameters of logistic equations fit to cumulative emergence and egg hatch from first moth catch from apple orchards monitored from 2003-2006 and compared with similar equations fit to tabular values of an older model for both the first and second codling moth generations**

Model <sup>a</sup> / generation	Intercept	Slope	Adjusted $R^2$	ANCOVA $P$ -values	
				Intercepts	Slopes
Cumulative moth flight					
Old model / 1 <sup>st</sup>	-3.1204	0.0196	0.97	0.52	0.02
New model / 1 <sup>st</sup>	-3.1568	0.0103	0.85		
Old model / 2 <sup>nd</sup>	-11.158	0.0148	0.99	0.34	0.62
New model / 2 <sup>nd</sup>	-10.743	0.0083	0.91		
Cumulative egg hatch					
Old model / 1 <sup>st</sup>	-5.9834	0.0204	0.97	< 0.0001	< 0.0001
New model / 1 <sup>st</sup>	-8.1947	0.0124	0.91		
Old model / 2 <sup>nd</sup>	-13.494	0.0151	0.98	< 0.0001	< 0.0001
New model / 2 <sup>nd</sup>	-11.478	0.0071	0.85		

<sup>5a</sup> Data used to fit the logistic equation to the old model were taken from Beers et al. (1993).

**Table 4. Comparison of the expected effectiveness of spray timing for an ovicide applied at one of three timings and the individual effect of each application in a three-spray larvicide program based on the old and new model predictions**

Insecticide	Timing (degree days) <sup>a</sup>	Proportion of life stage killed <sup>b</sup>	
		Old model	New Model
Ovicide	28	0.25	0.04
Ovicide	56	0.34	0.06
Ovicide	258	0.21	0.51
Larvicide	139	0.42	0.10
Larvicide	258 <sup>c</sup>	0.41	0.51
Larvicide	394 <sup>c</sup>	0.12	0.33

<sup>4a</sup> Degree days were accumulated from the first sustained male moth catch (Biofix) in sex

<sup>5</sup>pheromone-baited traps.

<sup>6b</sup> The ovicide was assumed to kill 95 and 90% of all eggs deposited during the first and second

<sup>7</sup>week after application. The larvicide was assumed to kill 99 and 95% of all neonate larvae

<sup>8</sup>during the first and second week after application. Mean weekly degree day totals used to

<sup>9</sup>estimate the proportion of each life stage exposed to the insecticides were based on field data and

<sup>10</sup> ranged from 50 to 86.

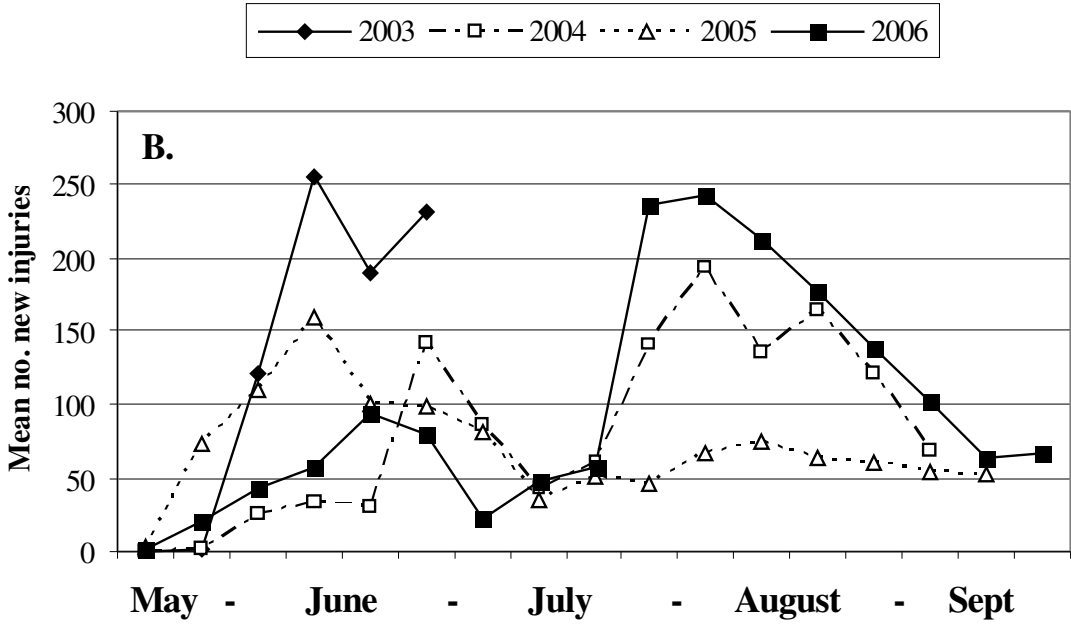
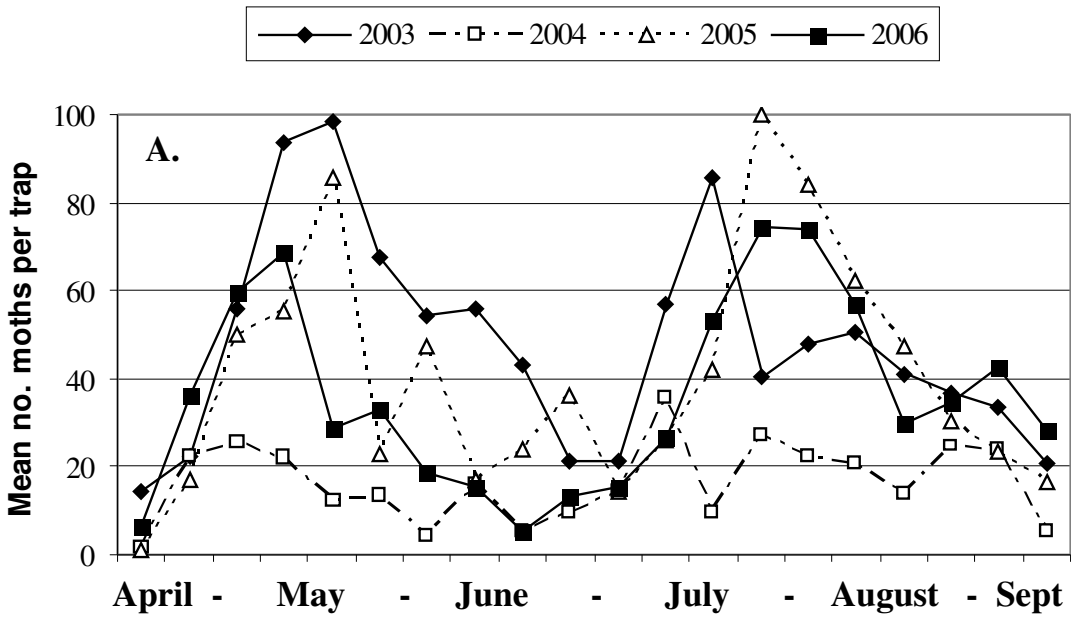
<sup>11c</sup> The second and third larvicide sprays were applied at two-wk intervals.

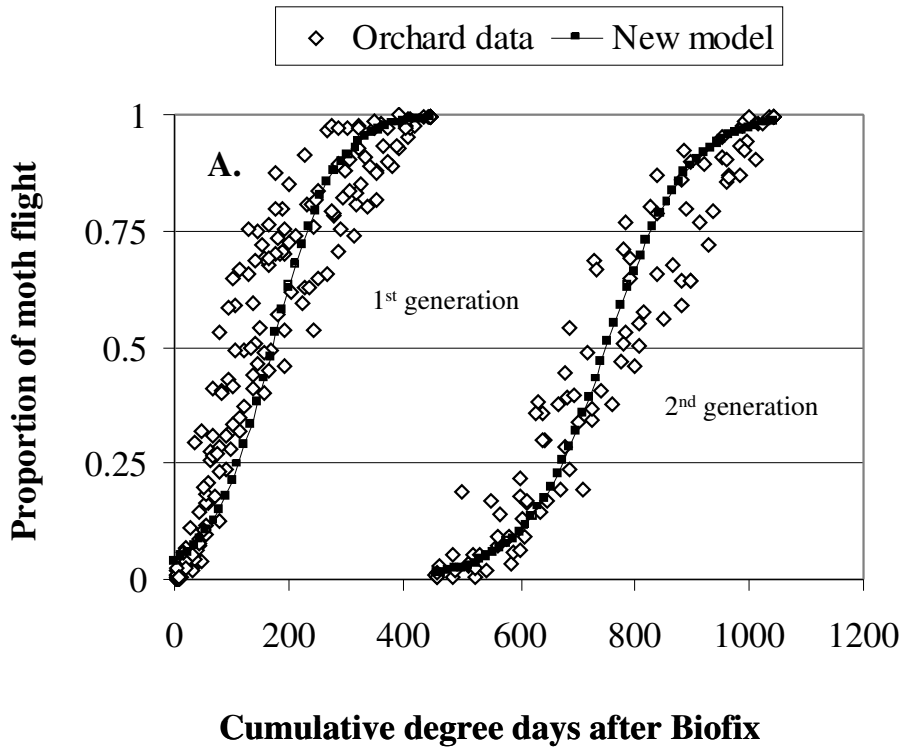
**Figure Captions**

**2Figure 1.** Seasonal mean catches of male moths in sex pheromone-baited traps (A.) and new fruit  
3injuries (B) in Washington State apple orchards monitored from 2003 to 2006.

**4Figure 2.** The proportion of moth flight (A.) and egg hatch (B.) during each generation from  
5orchard field data (open squares) and predicted by the new logistic model as a function of degree  
6days cumulated from Biofix.

**7Figure 3.** Predictions of the proportion of moth flight (A.) and egg hatch (B.) as a function of  
8degree days cumulated from Biofix in the new logistic model, tabular values for the old model  
9(Beers et al. 1993), and the fit of these data to a logistic equation.





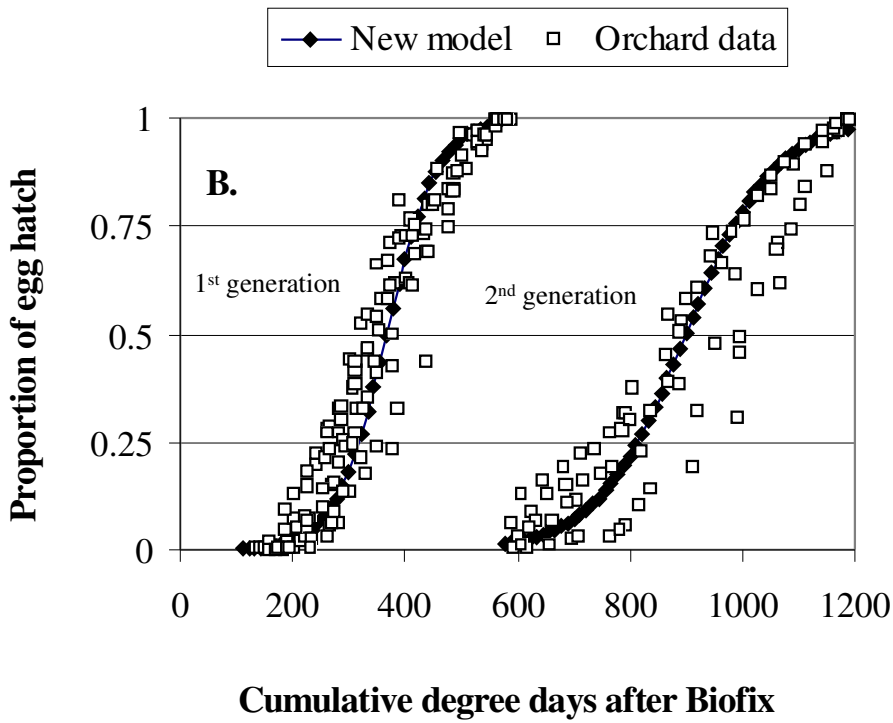
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