bi-monthly research notes

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ENTOMOLOGY

Distribution of Monochamus Larval Entrance Holes on Lodgepole Pine Logs.—The distribution of larval entrance holes of Monochamus scutellatus (Say) on the surface of lodgepole pine logs [Pinus contorta Dougl. var. latifolia Engelm.] was determined for three different ecological situations: logs scattered on the forest floor; small-diameter decked logs; and large-diameter decked logs. This distribution was a prerequisite for the development of a sampling system for Monochamus (Safranyik and Raske, J. Econ. Entomol. 63: 1903-1906, 1970).

Decks of small-diameter logs and logs scattered on the forest floor were located 40 km S.W. of Strachan, Alta., and decks of large-diameter logs near Faust, Alta. All logs had been cut during the winter of 1964-65. Logs were decked before spring and were not disturbed until sampled in the summer of 1967. Ninety-eight decked and 41 scattered logs were sampled near Strachan, and 30 decked logs were sampled near Faust. Small-diameter decked logs were sampled from the deck surface, because only these were infested. Large-diameter decked logs were taken from the surface, middle, and bottom of the deck, because infested logs occurred throughout it. Every third scattered log along a transect was chosen for sampling.

A sample consisted of a log section 122 cm long, located at random on each log, but at least 15 cm from each end. The log diameter was recorded at the mid-point of the sample. Each sample was divided into 12 equal longitudinal units corresponding to numbers on a clock dial: 12–1 o'clock was the first unit at the top, etc. The 3 o'clock side was the warmest, either south- or west-facing. The number of Monochamus larval entrance holes on the log surface was recorded for each unit, and expressed as number per dm² of log surface before collating and analyses. A χ^2 test was used to test whether the distribution around the log was uniform, and a two-tailed Kolmogorov-Smirnov two-sample test (Siegel, Non-parametric statistics for the behavioral sciences, McGraw-Hill, 1956) to test for differences in density among units.

The average diameter of samples was 20.8 cm for small-diameter decked logs, 19.5 cm for scattered logs, and 38.6 cm for large-diameter decked logs. The χ^2 test showed that the distribution of larval entrance holes around the log surface differed significantly ($p \le .01$) from a uniform distribution for all three log categories. In all small-diameter decked logs fewer entrance holes occurred at the top and bottom of the log than on the sides (Fig. 1). Also no significant differences ($p \le .05$) existed between the sunny and shady side, or between the top and bottom of the log. The bottom of these logs is usually not accessible for oviposition and the top unsuitable for oviposition (Rose, Can. Entomol. 89:547-553, 1957) and sometimes too dry for larval feeding. The distribution of entrance holes on large-diameter decked logs was different from

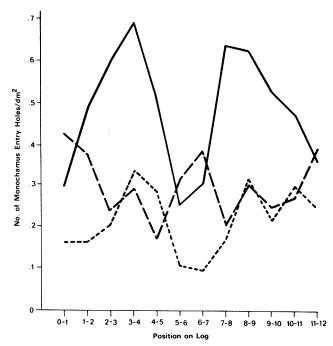


Figure 1. Distribution of Monochamus larvae around the log circumference lodgepole pine logs in Alberta.

12 = top, 6 = bottom, 3 = sunny side,
9 = shady side.

Solid line = scattered logs on forest floor (n = 41);
short broken line = small diameter decked logs
(n = 98); long broken line = large-diameter

decked logs (n = 30).

that on small-diameter logs (Fig. 1). More entrance holes occurred at the top and bottom of the log than at the sides. The top and bottom of the large-diameter logs were often not in contact with adjacent logs, which may have allowed greater use of these areas for oviposition and larval feeding.

The density of entrance holes on scattered logs was about twice that of the adjacent decked logs. Similar differences in density between decked and undecked logs were observed in other areas. The cause of this is unknown. The average density of entrance holes per dm² of log surface was 0.22, 0.47, and 0.31 for small-diameter decked logs, scattered logs, and large-diameter decked logs respectively. For all three categories the average density of entrance holes was approximated by the number occurring in the 1-2 or 2-3 and again at the 9-10 or 10-11 o'clock units.

The distribution of entrance holes approximates the distribution of the larvae because most larvae enter the log within or adjacent to their feeding areas. The determination of the distribution pattern has made sampling estimates for larvae and their damage more efficient.—A. G. Raske, Northern Forest Research Centre, Edmonton, Alta. (Present address: Newfoundland Forest Research Centre, St. John's, Newfoundland.)

Persistence of a Virus of the White-marked Tussock Moth on Balsam Fir Foliage.—Valuable Christmas tree stands in Nova Scotia have been periodically attacked and heavily damaged by the white-marked tussock moth, Orgyia leucostigma (J. E. Smith). The infestations were eventually terminated by a polyhedrosis virus but not until severe damage had been done. Because under natural conditions the virus takes several years to reach epidemic levels, it was postulated that the early artificial introduction of the virus could act as

an important factor in biological control of the tussock moth. As part of the control program, the study sought to determine if virus residues of the white-marked tussock moth persist over winter, and if artificially increasing the virus population enhances carry-over from one generation to the next. The relation between strength of suspension and virus persistence to exposure was also studied.

In the spring of 1972, balsam fir [Abies balsamea (L.) Mill.] foliage was collected at West River Station, N.S., where an infestation of tussock moth had collapsed in 1971 because of a virus disease, and near Bridgewater, N.S., in an active outbreak area, where trees had been sprayed in June 1971 with a suspension of a nuclear polyhedrosis virus (18 x 10° polyhedra/ml). Each branch was collected from a different tree and transferred aseptically to the laboratory. Foliage collected in a virus-free area in Fredericton served as control. One healthy first-instar tussock moth larva was placed on each sprig of foliage.

To test the effect of exposure or weathering on the persistence of varying concentrations of the virus, branches of partially exposed and markedly exposed balsam fir trees in a virus-free area were sprayed in the fall of 1973 with one of two virus suspensions (36×10^6 or 360×10^6 polyhedra/ml). The partially exposed branches were protected from rain, snow, and sunlight by overlapping branches of adjacent trees. Foliage of the markedly exposed trees was unprotected. An unsprayed tree was used for control. In the spring of 1974, 10 sprigs of foliage were collected aseptically from each tree, separated to prevent cross containination, and placed in sterile rearing vials. One healthy first-instar tussock moth larva was placed on each sprig. All larvae in each experiment were reared at 22 ± 2 C and $50 \pm 5\%$ relative humidity. Dead larvae were smeared and examined for polyhedrosis.

The results suggest that the virus, deposited on the foliage (naturally or artificially) in the summer, retains sufficient activity throughout the winter to kill at least some larvae, and that spraying, even when done the previous year, increases larval mortality (Table 1). Larvae fed foliage from partially exposed trees had higher mortality and died earlier than larvae fed foliage from markedly exposed trees (Table 2). Moreover, higher mortality occurred earlier on partially exposed sprigs sprayed with the weaker suspension than on the markedly exposed sprigs sprayed with the stronger suspension. The virus

TABLE 1

Degree of persistence of nuclear polyhedrosis virus of the white-marked tussock moth expressed as mortality of first-instar larvae reared on balsam fir foliage subjected to weathering overwinter

Treatment	Treatment Trees tested, number	
Artificial virus introduction (Bridgewater)	24	29.2
Natural virus presence (West River Station)	26	7.7
Control _ no virus (Fredericton)	33	0

TABLE 2
Mortality of first-instar tussock moth larvae reared on virus-contaminated foliage

Source of	Strength of suspension	Larvae Died of Number disease		Days to Death	
foliage	(polyhedra/ml)	reared	%	Avg	Range
Unexposed branches	360 x 10 ⁶	10	40	10.0	9-12
-	36 x 10 ⁶	10	40	13.6	9–19
Exposed branches	360 x 10°	10	30	16.6	16-17
	36 x 10 ^a	10	0		
Laboratory					
(sprayed branches)	360 x 10°	10	100	10.0	6–11
	36 x 10°	10	100	10.0	6-11
Control	_	10	0		

in the weaker suspension lost its activity when exposed but retained its infectivity when protected. Larvae fed partially exposed foliage sprayed with the suspension of 360 x 10° polyhedra/ml and larvae fed foliage sprayed with the same suspension in the laboratory died in 10 days. In contrast, larvae fed foliage sprayed with this suspension but exposed to weathering died in 17 days.

As trees in both markedly exposed and partially exposed locations were subject to essentially the same temperatures, it appears that the lower incidence of mortality in larvae fed foliage from markedly exposed trees resulted from the inactivation of the virus by precipitation and/or sunlight. The results indicate that strong suspensions of the nuclear polyhedrosis virus of the white-marked tussock moth as well as virus deposits from natural epizootics remain viable on balsam fir foliage over winter. The rate of inactivation depends on the degree of exposure of the branches to weathering and the period to inactivation depends on both the strength of the suspension applied and the degree of exposure of the branches to weathering.—E. Elgee, Maritimes Forest Research Centre, Fredericton, N.B.

PATHOLOGY

Cylindrocladium floridanum in an Ontario Forest Nursery.—C. floridanum Sob. & Seymour was first described in 1967 (Sobers and Seymour. Phytopathology 57:389-393, 1967). Morrison and French (Mycologia 61: 957-966, 1966) compared C. scoparium Morg. with C. floridanum and concluded that the species were distinct, with C. floridanum being the cause of an important root rot in Minnesota forest nurseries. C. floridanum is also the fungus responsible for root rot problems reported in Wisconsin, previously attributed to C. scoparium (Berbee, J. G., personal communication).

During the fall of 1974, mortality was noticed in a compartment of 2-0 black spruce [Picea mariana (Mill.) B.S.P.] in the Provincial Forest Nursery at Midhurst, Ont. Seedlings submitted for diagnosis to the Great Lakes Forest Research Centre, Sault Ste. Marie, Ont., indicated that a root pathogen was involved. Isolations were made from the roots onto PDA and 2% V-8 juice agar plates using routine culture techniques. C. floridanum was the only known pathogenic fungus isolated.

Other compartments of the Midhurst nursery were examined in November for seedlings exhibiting symptoms similar to those shown by the affected black spruce. Seedlings suspected of being infected included red pine [Pinus resinosa Ait.], jack pine [Pinus banksiana Lamb.], and white spruce [Picea glauca (Moench) Voss]. C. floridanum was isolated from the roots of all three species and results indicated that the fungus is distributed throughout much of the nursery.

Previously, C. scoparium Morg. was described as the cause of a damping-off problem in a forest nursery in Quebec (Sutherland and Keable. Bi-mon. Prog. Rep. 22(1):2, 1966). Isolates from that study have recently been examined by Dr. S. J. Hughes, Biosystematics Research Institute, Research Branch, Agriculture Canada, and he has identified them as C. floridanum rather than C. scoparium. The Midhurst record is the first authenticated report of a nursery disease problem caused by C. floridanum in Ontario. Other forest nurseries in Ontario will be examined for this fungus in the near future.—D. T. Myren, H. L. Gross and E. B. Dorworth, Great Lakes Forest Research Centre, Sault Ste. Marie, Ont.

ADDENDUM

Fungitoxic Effects of Fatty Acids Salts. — Due to limitations on space, the photograph of cultures was not published in Vol. 31, No. 4, pages 26-27 with the text of note by George S. Puritch and D. E. Etheridge. This photograph is published herein at the top of page 35.

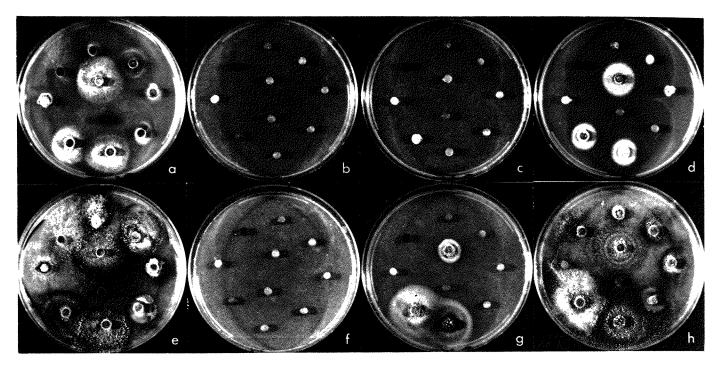


Figure 1. Effect of various concentrations of K caprate on growth of Ceratocystis picea (isolates 1-7), Europhium clavigerum (isolate 8), and Ceratocystis sp. (isolates 9-10) after 5 (A. B. C. D) and 18 (E, F, G, H) days on agar. Isolates are numbered clockwise from the top with No. 9 situated in the upper middle and No. 10 in the lower middle. (Letters A, E = control; B, F = 1% K caprate; G, C = 0.1% K caprate and D, H = 0.01% K caprate).

SILVICULTURE

Use of Gramoxone® to Control Mosses and Liverworts in Greenhouse Pots.—During long-term greenhouse studies with potted tree and alternate host material for rust inoculation experiments, certain nuisance plants such as mosses and liverworts grow over the soil in the pots and require removal from time to time.

In March 1966 the herbicide Gramoxone® was tested for its control of moss and liverwort growth on pots holding transplanted ½ m high lodgepole pine that had been in the greenhouse 20 months. Gramoxone®, a contact paraquat herbicide, which rapidly kills all permeable plant material containing chlorophyll, has been used in forestry practices (Aldhous, For. Comm. Leafl. 51, 2nd ed., 1969; Lacey, J. Agric. Vet. Chem. 6:51-55, 1965). A unique property of the herbicide is its immediate inactivation on contact with the soil, which leaves no danger of toxic residues building up in the soil. Oats planted 9 days after Gramoxone® application were grown to maturity without any residual effects of the herbicide (Winston and Haavisto, Environ., Can., For Serv., Bi-Mon. Res. Notes 30(6):37-38, 1974). Literature supplied by Chipman Chemicals Limited, Winnipeg, in December 1965 indicated no previous experience with its use against mosses or liverworts, although it had been proven effective against grasses, weeds, and algae. Thomson (Agricultural Chemicals, Book 2, Herbicides, Thomson Publ., Indianapolis, Ind. 1975) also does not mention its use against mosses and liverworts. The mosses covering the soil surface of the pots were mostly Bryum spp., with some Didymodon recurvirostris (Hedw.) Jenn., Myurella sp. and Tortula ruralis (Hedw.) Gaertn., Meyer & Scherb., and the liverwort Marchantia polymorpha L.

Treatments were applied by hand spraying in early

March under greenhouse conditions by thoroughly wetting the surface of the mosses and liverworts with Gramoxone® sprays. Care was taken not to expose the foliage of the potted trees to spray. Two concentrations of Gramoxone® were applied: treatment A, 9 ml//, the recommended dosage; and treatment B, 4.5 ml//, both with 1 ml of 'Agral 90'// as a nonionic wetting agent. Ten pots were treated with each concentration, and five pots were used as nontreated controls. All pots had a heavy growth of mosses and/or liverworts almost completely covering the surface of the soil.

Table 1 shows the herbicidal effect of Gramoxone® on moss and liverwort. There was little difference between treatments A and B, both being apparently equally effective. One month after treatment all the liverwort and 85% of the moss plants had been killed, and all the moss and liverwort growth on 35% of the pots had been killed. No separate information was kept on the relative susceptibility of the species of moss.

TABLE 1

Percentage of moss remaining and the percentage of pots free of moss and liverwort on three observation dates after application of Gramoxone®

Months after application	1			7	8	
	% moss remain- ing	% pots all moss and liverwort killed	% moss remaining	% pots all moss and liverwort killed	% moss remain- ing	% pots all moss and liverwort killed
Treatment A	15	30	25	30	29	30
Treatment B	14	40	19	40	25	30
Average	14.5	35	22	35	27	30

Seven months later little renewed or fresh growth of the mosses had occurred. During the 8-month test period mosses and liverworts continued to flourish on the control pots and served as a source for spore dispersal to reestablish plants in the treated pots. Gramoxone® therefore seems to be an effective herbicide for controlling nuisance growth of mosses and liverworts under a greenhouse environment.—J. M. Powell, Northern Forest Research Centre, Edmonton, Alta.

ERRATUM

Vol. 31, page 21, col. 1: formula (1) should read $\Delta T:kI^{2/3}/h$.

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