



2018 Cornell Guide for Integrated Field Crop Management

Cornell Cooperative Extension

These guidelines are not a substitute for pesticide labeling. Always read and understand the product label before using any pesticide.

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1 Pesticide Information

1.1 Pesticide Classification and Certification

The Federal Insecticide, Fungicide and Rodenticide Act (FIFRA) created two classifications of pesticides – general-use and restricted-use. **General-use pesticides** may be purchased and used by anyone. **Restricted-use pesticides can** only be purchased by a certified applicator. Restricted-use pesticides must also be used by a certified applicator or someone under their supervision.

The same federal law that classifies pesticides divided applicators into two groups: private and commercial. **Private applicators** use or supervise the use of pesticides to produce agricultural commodities or forest crops on land owned or rented by the private applicator or their employer. A farmer must be certified as a private applicator in order to purchase and use restricted-use pesticides on agricultural commodities. (No certification is needed if a farmer does not use restricted-use pesticides.)

A **commercial applicator** uses or supervises the use of pesticides for any purpose or on any property not covered by the private applicator classification. In New York, a commercial applicator must be certified to purchase or use any pesticide whether it is general- or restricted-use.

Information about pesticide certification and classification is available from your Cornell Cooperative Extension office (cce.cornell.edu/localoffices), regional NYSDEC pesticide specialist (www.dec.ny.gov/about/558.html), the Pesticide Applicator Training Manuals (store.cornell.edu/c-876-manuals.aspx), or the Pesticide Management Education Program (PMEP) at Cornell University (psep.cce.cornell.edu).

1.2 Use Pesticides Safely

Using pesticides imparts a great responsibility on the user to protect their health and that of others and to protect the environment. Keep in mind there is more to “pesticide use” than the application. Pesticide use includes mixing, loading, transporting, storing, or handling pesticides after the manufacturer’s seal is broken; cleaning pesticide application equipment; and preparing a container for disposal. These activities require thoughtful planning and preparation. They are also regulated by state and federal laws and regulations intended to protect the user, the community, and the environment from any adverse effects pesticides may cause.

1.2.1 Plan Ahead

Many safety precautions should be taken *before* you actually begin using pesticides. Too many pesticide applicators are dangerously and needlessly exposed to pesticides while they are preparing to apply them. Most

pesticide accidents can be prevented with informed and careful practices. **Always read the label on the pesticide container before you begin to use the pesticide.** Make sure you understand and can follow all directions and precautions on the label. Be prepared to handle an emergency exposure or spill. Know the first aid procedures for the pesticides you use.

1.2.2 Move Pesticides Safely

Carelessness in transporting pesticides can result in broken containers, spills, and contamination of people and the environment. Once pesticides are in your possession, you are responsible for safely transporting them. Accidents can occur even when transporting materials a short distance. You are responsible for a pesticide accident so take every effort to transport pesticides safely. Be prepared for an emergency.

1.2.3 Personal Protective Equipment and Engineering Controls

Personal protective equipment needs depend on the pesticide being handled. **Required personal protective equipment (PPE) are listed on pesticide labels.** The required PPE are based on the pesticide’s toxicity, route(s) of exposure, and formulation. Label required PPE are the minimum that must be worn during the pesticide’s use. Pesticide users can always wear more protection than the label requires.

The type of protective equipment used depends on the type and duration of the activity, where pesticides are being used, and exposure of the handler. Mixing/loading procedures often require extra precautions. Studies show you are at a greater risk of accidental poisoning when handling pesticide concentrates. Pouring pesticide concentrates from one container to another is the most hazardous activity. More information on personal protective equipment can be found online at umes.edu/NC170/Default.aspx?id=7184.

Engineering controls are devices that help prevent accidents and reduce a pesticide user’s exposure. One example is a closed mixing/loading system that reduces the risk of exposure when dispensing concentrated pesticides. More information on engineering controls can be found online at umes.edu/NC170/Default.aspx?id=7196.

1.2.4 Avoid Drift, Runoff, and Spills

Pesticides that move out of the target area can injure people, damage crops, and harm the environment. Choose weather conditions, pesticides, application equipment, pressure, droplet size, formulations, and adjuvants that minimize drift and runoff hazards. See product labels for specific application and equipment requirements.

2 General Information for Crop Production

2.1 Introduction

This publication includes the most up-to-date information on growing field crops in New York, drawn from Cornell research, extension demonstrations, and on-farm experience. It has been designed as a practical guide for farmers, for merchants who provide sales and services to producers, and for others who advise them. Our aim is to supply the best information available to help those who make management decisions. We do not consider this a cookbook but rather a source of practical information to use in the development of sound planning and good management.

In any statewide publication, we must deal with a spectrum of crop environments; information and guidelines must cover general farm situations. Though we have tried to make these as specific as possible for various conditions in New York, each farmer must determine how these varieties and practices will work on his or her farm. The information in this publication should be considered general rules. Additional information is available in the publication **Cornell Field Crops and Soils Handbook**, revised in 1987 and available through Cornell Cooperative Extension offices or directly from the Section of Soil and Crop Sciences at Cornell, 607-255-2177. For further information on any topic in this booklet, you may contact your local Cornell Cooperative Extension office or write to the Section of Soil and Crop Sciences Extension Office, 237 Emerson Hall, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY 14853.

2.2 New York State Climate

2.2.1 Growing Degree Days for Corn and Soybeans

Crop plants require heat from their atmospheric environment to develop, grow, and mature. The effect of this heat is cumulative as the growing plant progresses through its life cycle.

Temperature is an indirect measure of the heat available in the atmosphere. Heat sufficient to cause growth and development in a plant is indicated when the daily mean temperature warms to a certain level, called the base or threshold temperature. Below (cooler than) this level there is essentially no growth. Different species of crop plants have different base temperatures. Corn and soybeans have a base temperature of 50°F.

The growing degree day—sometimes called a heat unit—has become a useful indirect measure of the heat available for growth and development of corn and soybeans. In the 86/50 method it is assumed that for corn and soybeans, growth increases linearly from 50°F to 86°F, at which peak growth occurs, and growth remains at peak for temperatures above 86°F. The maximum temperature for the day is set at

an upper limit of 86°F, and the minimum temperature is set at the lower limit of 50°F. On each day of the growing season the crop receives a number of growing degree days equal to the number of degrees that the daily adjusted mean temperature is higher (warmer) than the 50°F base temperature. Growing degree days are then accumulated each day as the crop progresses toward maturity.

To calculate the daily growing degree days for your farm, first, determine the adjusted mean air temperature for each 24-hour day during the growing season. For a day with a high temperature of 60°F and a low of 40°F, for example, the low temperature would be set at the lower limit of 50°F. The adjusted mean temperature for the day would be 55°F. Subtracting 50°F, the base temperature for corn and soybeans, from the mean temperature gives 5 growing degree days for that day. If, on the other hand, the high temperature for a given day is 90°F and the low is 66°F, the high temperature would be set at the upper limit of 86°F. The adjusted mean temperature for the day would be 76°F. Subtracting 50°F, the base temperature for corn and soybeans, from the mean temperature gives 26 growing degree days for that day. On any day that the adjusted mean temperature is 50°F or colder, the number of growing degree days is recorded as zero.

Records are kept for each day of the growing season, from the first frost-free day in the spring through the last frost-free day in the fall. By adding together the growing degree days supplied each day, the accumulated total for the frost-free growing season is determined.

The distribution of average accumulative growing degree days in New York State is presented in Figure 2.2.1. These data, applying to the freeze-free season, were determined from temperature records kept by numerous weather stations around the state during a 30-year period ending in 1980.

2.2.1.1 How to Use Growing Degree Days

Early corn hybrids and short-season soybean varieties need fewer growing degree days than late corn hybrids and long-season soybean varieties to grow and mature.

Use the map (Figure 2.2.1) to determine the growing degree days available for corn and soybean growth in your locality. You can then choose corn hybrids and soybean varieties suited to your vicinity from the groups listed in sections 3.2: Corn-Hybrid Selection and 6.1: Soybean Varieties. You may need to make adjustments to fit local differences in elevation or frost susceptibility.

3 Corn Guidelines

High-yielding corn requires moderately well-drained or well-drained soil with a pH above 6.0 as well as timely and skillful management practices. Management practices to consider carefully include planting techniques, hybrid selection, fertilization, and control of insects, weeds, and diseases. Correct management of all these practices is essential for maximum economic yield.

3.1 Planting Techniques

Early planting usually, but not always, results in maximum corn yields. Under central and western New York conditions, corn planted in late April or early May typically out yields either grain or silage corn planted after mid-May (Figure 3.1.1). Early-planted corn also matures earlier, resulting in lower moisture and grain drying costs at harvest, and lodges less. A general guideline for the best time to begin planting corn is about 10 days before the average date of the last 32°F temperature in the spring. If soil conditions are too wet at this time, wait until soil conditions improve. Corn planted in late May under dry soil conditions will consistently out yield corn planted in late April under wet soil conditions. Conversely, if it is warm and dry any time after April 15th in central/western NY, corn growers should be ready to begin planting. Modern corn hybrids tolerate cold soil conditions and seed treatments protect corn from soil pest problems under extended emergence time due to cold soil temperatures. Planting depths of about 1.5 inches for silty clay or clay loam soils and 1.75 to 2.0 inches for silt loam and gravelly loam soils are recommended for April or early May-planted corn. Planting depths of about 1.75 to 2.0 inches for silty clay or clay loam soils and 2.0 to 2.5 inches for silt loam and gravelly loam soils are recommended for most planting dates in May. If soil conditions are dry in the top 2 inches in late May and early June, corn can be safely planted to a depth of 3 inches on silt loam and gravelly loam soils.

To achieve the full yield potential of an early planting date, full-season hybrids (hybrids that match the growing degree days in a region) are necessary (Figure 3.1.1). After the first or second week of May, however, the yield advantage of full-season vs. medium-season hybrids decreases when planted for grain. Furthermore, full-season hybrids may not mature, resulting in low test weight, and/or will have high grain moisture at harvest, if planted after the second week of May. Therefore, for grain production, full-season hybrids should be planted only in late April or during the first 2 weeks of May. For silage production, full-season hybrids can be planted until about May 20. Growers should not plant more than 30% of their crop to full-season hybrids. The majority of corn acreage (~60%) should be planted to medium-season hybrids (100 and 200 growing degree days less than the growing degree days in a region for silage and grain, respectively). If planting must be delayed until early June, early-season hybrids (300-400 growing degree days

less than the growing degree days in a region for silage and grain, respectively) are recommended.

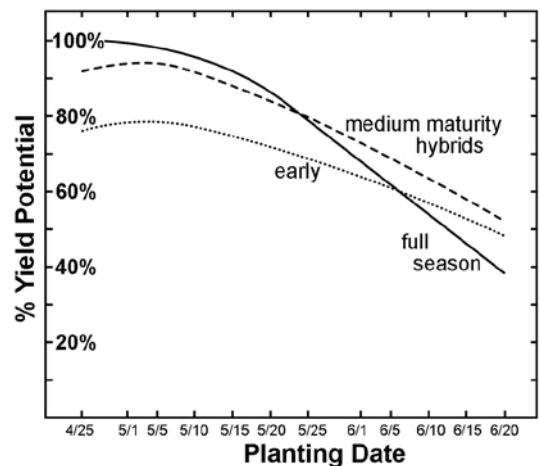



Figure 3.1.1. Effect of planting date on grain yields.

The optimal corn population depends on soil type, hybrid selection, and crop use. For many New York soils (well-to moderately well-drained to somewhat poorly drained silt or clay loams), numerous Cornell experiments have shown that modern hybrids still require a harvest population of only 26,000 to 28,000 plants per acre for maximum economic grain yields (Table 3.1.1). Droughty soils, however, cannot support high populations, and plant populations should be adjusted downward (Table 3.1.1). Likewise, hybrids differ in their response to plant populations, so hybrid selection should influence whether the harvest population is at the high or low end of the recommended range for each particular soil condition (Table 3.1.1). Also, most hybrids require higher harvest populations for silage than for grain production, about 5,000 more plants per acre (Table 3.1.1).

Planting date, tillage practices, pest problems, planter performance, and hybrid selection influence actual corn populations obtained in the field. To compensate for potential problems, it should be assumed that only 90 percent of the kernels planted actually emerge and survive to become harvestable plants in the fall. To obtain 27,000 plants per acre at harvest on a moderately well-drained silt-loam soil, the planting rate should be about 30,000 plants per acre (27,000 divided by 0.90). In some situations such as a no-till situation or an April planting date, it should be assumed that only 85 percent of the kernels will emerge and survive. The planting rate in these situations on a moderately well-drained silt-loam soil should be about 31,765 plants per acre (27,000 divided by 0.85).

corn borer, armyworm, foliar diseases, and weed control assessment; and (3) silking and grain fill, for foliage and stalk diseases, European corn borer, corn rootworm beetles, western bean cutworm and ear molds. Pre- and postseason weed surveys are recommended to identify current and future weed control needs.

Information on significant pest damage, including location in the field, should be recorded to help improve the efficiency of future pest management decisions. For additional information on identifying, monitoring and IPM practices to manage common insect, disease, and weed problems of field corn, see: nysipm.cornell.edu/fieldcrops/scouting_info/default.asp.

	For the most current information on field crop pest activity during the growing season see the NYS IPM Weekly Field Crop Pest Report: (blogs.cornell.edu/ipmwpr/#).
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See Table 3.4.1 and Figure 3.4.1 for suggestions on IPM activities and common pests by crop growth stage and seasonal occurrence.

Table 3.4.1. Field corn pests and crop monitoring activities.

Routine	Occasional
Early Season (emergence to sixth leaf stage)	
Population counts (establishment problems, seed and seedling pests), weeds, cutworm, seedling diseases, damping off; seed corn maggot, watch for “occasional” pests	White grubs, common armyworm, slugs, common stalk borer, billbug, stink bug, corn flea beetle, foliar diseases, nutrient deficiencies, environmental stress (e.g., cold weather, excessive moisture or drought), birds, deer, hail)
Mid-Season (sixth leaf stage through early silk stage)	
Presidedress nitrogen sampling; watch for “occasional” pests	Weed escapes, common armyworm, European corn borer, western bean cutworm, foliar blights, anthracnose, common stalk borer, potato stem borer, hopvine borer, vertebrate pests, nutrient deficiencies, environmental stress, hail
Pollination (throughout silking and early grain fill stages)	
Corn rootworm; watch for “occasional” pests	European corn borer, western bean cutworm, foliar blights, stalk rots, vertebrate pests, nutrient deficiencies, environmental stress, hail
Late Season (harvest and postharvest)	
Ear mold assessment, yield checks, weed inventory survey, soil sampling	European corn borer, foliar blights, stalk rots, ear molds, vertebrate pests, environmental stresses, lodging assessment

Figure 3.4.1. Field Corn IPM Scouting Calendar.

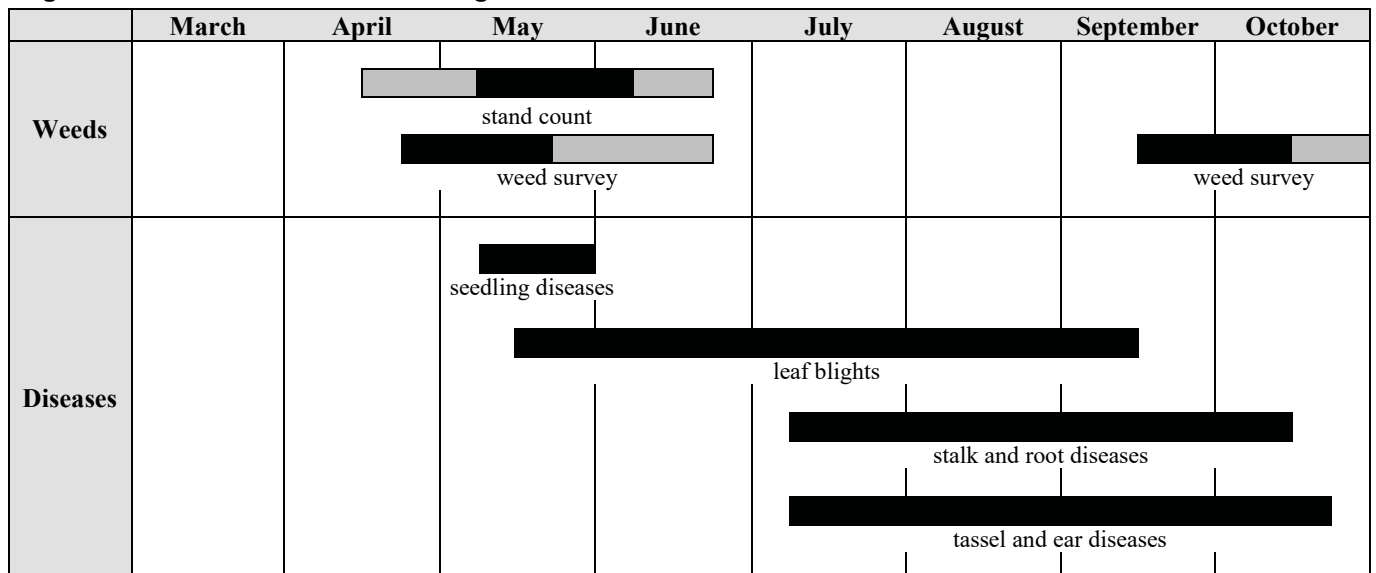


Table continues on next page.

Table 3.7.3. Chemical weed control in corn.

Weed Situation	Amount of Product(s) per Acre	Remarks and Limitations
Conventional corn hybrids		
PRE Programs Annual grass and broadleaf weeds	2.3 qt. *†Harness Xtra or 2.3 qt. *†Keystone LA NXT	GROUP 5 and 15 HERBICIDES • Apply preemergence or early postemergence. If used postemergence, apply prior to the 2-leaf grass stage and before corn is 11 in. tall. *†Harness Xtra and *†Keystone LA NXT, and other acetochlor products are not for use in Nassau and Suffolk Counties. See label for special groundwater protection requirements.
	10-18 fl oz *†Verdict	GROUP 14 and 15 HERBICIDES • Apply prior to crop emergence. Application after emergence will cause crop injury. A postemergence treatment may be required for full-season weed control. Note that rates vary depending on soil texture. *†Verdict is not for use in Nassau and Suffolk Counties.
	1.5 qt. *†Bicep Lite II Magnum or 1.5 qt. *†Cinch ATZ Lite	GROUP 5 and 15 HERBICIDES • Apply preemergence or early postemergence to corn up to 5 in. tall. A lower rate of *†Bicep Lite II Magnum or *†Cinch ATZ Lite should be used on sandy and/or low organic matter soils. *†Bicep Lite II Magnum and *†Cinch ATZ Lite are not for use in Nassau and Suffolk Counties.
	1.5 qt. *†Bicep Lite II Magnum or 1.5 qt. *†Cinch ATZ Lite + 1 qt. *†Princep 4L	GROUP 5 and 15 HERBICIDES • Preemergence only. Use with heavy infestations of crabgrass or fall panicum. *Atrazine and (or) *†Princep carryover may injure triazine-sensitive rotational crops. *†Bicep Lite II Magnum and *†Cinch ATZ Lite are not for use in Nassau and Suffolk Counties.
	2.7-3.25 qt. *†Lumax EZ	GROUP 5, 15 and 27 HERBICIDES • Apply preemergence or early postemergence before corn reaches 5 in. in height. Use the lower rate if soil organic matter content is less than 3 percent and the higher rate if soil organic matter content is 3 percent or greater. The addition of 1 pt./A of *atrazine will improve common ragweed control. *†Lumax EZ is not for use in Nassau and Suffolk Counties.
	3.0-3.5 qt. *†Lexar EZ	GROUP 5, 15, AND 27 HERBICIDES • Apply preemergence or early postemergence before corn reaches 12 in. in height. Use 3 qt./A if soil organic matter is less than 3% and 3.5 qt./A if soil organic matter is 3% or greater. *†Lexar EZ provides twice as much *atrazine/A as *†Lumax EZ (see Table 3.7.6 for the amount of *atrazine at labeled rates of each product). This additional *atrazine should improve common ragweed control. *†Lexar EZ is not for use in Nassau and Suffolk Counties.
	3 pt. Prowl H2O or 3.6 pt. Prowl 3.3 EC + 1 qt. *†Atrazine 4L ¹	GROUP 3 and 5 HERBICIDES • Apply preemergence. Prowl should not be applied preplant incorporated for corn. Plant corn at least 1 1/2 in. deep in fields with adequate seedbed preparation to provide good coverage of the corn seed. Good choice if velvetleaf or triazine-resistant lambsquarters are problems.
POST Programs Emergent annual grass and broadleaf weeds	1.5 oz. Steadfast Q + 4 fl. oz. Banvel or 4 fl. oz. Clarity or 4 fl. oz. DiFlexx	GROUP 2 and 4 HERBICIDES • Apply early postemergence with crop oil concentrate or nonionic surfactant and ammonium nitrogen fertilizer to hybrids with a relative maturity (RM) rating of 77 days or more. For best results, apply when annual weeds are 1-2 in. tall and before corn is 12 in. tall. A good choice if foxtails or fall panicum and annual broadleaf weeds have emerged. Not very effective against crabgrass. Rotational interval is 10 months or longer (depending on soil pH) for alfalfa, clovers, and several other crops. Do not apply Steadfast Q if corn was treated with Counter 15G (any application method).

4 Forage Crops Guidelines

4.1 Forage Varieties

4.1.1 Alfalfa

Often called the queen of the forages, alfalfa tops all other perennial forage crops as a producer of homegrown feed. High-yielding and versatile, alfalfa serves well for hay, silage, green chop, and pasture. It produces high-protein and palatable feed, which livestock like and do well on. Alfalfa also fills an important role in crop rotations, improving soil structure and building soil fertility for future grass and grain crops.

Alfalfa is a deep-rooted, drought-tolerant crop that does best on deep, well-drained soils. Alfalfa also needs a well-limed soil; it gives top performance on soils with pH levels of 6.5 or higher. It does poorly on acidic soils, and soil acidity is often noted as the major limiting factor on alfalfa growth in New York. Acidic soils must be limed to a pH of 6.5 or higher to maintain high-yielding alfalfa stands.

On well-drained soils, alfalfa can produce high yields for many years, but it will yield poorly and die soon on poorly drained soils. Tile and other drainage aids can improve the soil's ability to grow good alfalfa. Trefoil and red clover offer better choices for good production on sites with poor or spotty drainage patterns.

Alfalfa seedlings need phosphorus and potassium at planting time. Older stands need topdressing to maintain high yields. An ample fertility program provides nutrients for recovery after harvest, good winter survival, and high yields. Phosphorus and potassium are musts, but nitrogen rarely, if ever, pays on alfalfa because nitrogen-fixing bacteria in root nodules can provide enough nitrogen for top yields. For details on fertilizer suggestions, see Table 4.6.1.

Insect pests cause sporadic damage in alfalfa, varying with season and locality. Potato leafhopper feeding can lower second-cut yields in some years. The alfalfa weevil and blotch leaf miner, formerly serious, are now largely controlled through introduced insect parasites and predators. The alfalfa snout beetle can cause severe damage in the several counties where it occurs. Check control guidelines in the section “Management of Insects in Forage Crops (section 4.10).”

New York alfalfa trials test yield of new varieties (Table 4.1.1). Modern alfalfa varieties have been bred for resistance to one or more of five diseases that can thin alfalfa stands in New York. These diseases include **bacterial wilt**, caused by bacteria present in most New York alfalfa soils; **Verticillium wilt**, a soilborne disease that can kill susceptible plants in their second or third year; **Phytophthora** root rot, caused by a soilborne water mold often found in wet areas of fields; **anthracnose**, found in warmer areas of the state, particularly the Hudson Valley; and **Fusarium wilt**, common in New York soils and may occur but is not documented as a

widespread problem in New York. *Phytophthora* hits hardest in the seedling year, and the other diseases affect mature stands in their second and third years of production.

Check Table 4.1.3 for variety reactions to these specific diseases as well as for yield and fall dormancy data. Choose varieties that are listed as R (resistant) or HR (highly resistant) for diseases found in your area. Both *Aphanomyces* root rot and pea aphid occur here but the value of varietal resistance may not be established for these and some other pests.

Several varieties have been developed at Cornell for specific adaptation to New York State conditions. These include ReGen, Ezra, N-R-Gee, Seedway 9558 SBR (selected for resistance to alfalfa snout beetle) and SW315LH (selected for resistance to potato leafhoppers).

Improved feeding value has been a goal of alfalfa breeders for years. Several recent varieties have been released with claims of improved feeding quality. Our tests show that minor differences in feeding quality do exist. However, effects on milk production have yet to be established. Timely cutting and leaf-saving harvest practices are far more important in affecting forage quality than leaf or plant type. Choose varieties with strong disease resistance and high yield potential that are well adapted to your farm and needs. Optimal yield and forage quality is at the one-tenth bloom stage.

New leafhopper-resistant varieties are available that have improved resistance and agronomic characteristics (see Table 4.1.2). Resistance comes from fine hairs on stems and leaves, and results in significantly lower numbers of hoppers in resistant alfalfa stands compared to conventional alfalfa. Resistant varieties will surpass other strains when leafhopper pressure is heavy. Spraying in the seeding year may still pay under heavy hopper pressure.

4.1.2 Birdsfoot Trefoil

Birdsfoot trefoil is a long-lived legume with high yield potential on slightly acidic soils with drainage less than the best for alfalfa. Trefoil also does well as perennial forage on hard-to-plow meadows and pastures. Trefoil is bloat free, and no case of bloat has ever been recorded in animals grazing on trefoil. On fields where drainage is a problem, trefoil can out yield alfalfa and outlive red clover by many years. Birdsfoot trefoil should be planted with a perennial forage grass and at harvest time, leave 5 to 6 inches of stubble to allow for regrowth of the trefoil. Birdsfoot trefoil varieties that are being tested in Cornell yield trials are listed in Table 4.1.4.

PARDEE birdsfoot trefoil is a vigorous, upright, hay-type variety. It resists the *Fusarium* wilt disease that often kills trefoil in New York meadows and pastures. Pardee flowers

Table 4.1.1. 2016 Yields of alfalfa cultivars in trials planted in 2013, 2014, and 2015 in New York State.

T/A = tons per acre dry matter *5% LSD* = least statistically significant difference. To claim statistically significant yield differences between two cultivars, the yield difference must be equal to or greater than the LSD. *Oneida VR*, *5312*, and *Vernal* are cultivars planted in every alfalfa trial. Results are expressed as yields that are percentages of the average yield of the three check cultivars in each trial.

Ithaca, Tompkins County, Sown May 2013			
Cultivars	2016 Total	3-Yr	
		Total Season	% of Cks.
<i>- tons per acre dry matter -</i>			
55V50	4.60	16.63	120
FSG 403LR	4.68	15.81	114
55Q27	4.69	15.73	114
L 455HD	4.74	15.69	113
EZRA	4.76	15.57	112
FSG 329	4.73	15.39	111
Seedway 9558 SBR	4.52	15.09	109
FSG 424	4.56	15.08	109
DG 4210	4.42	15.03	109
FSG 408DP	4.52	14.97	108
N-R-GEE	4.63	14.91	108
55H94	3.83	14.62	106
DKA41-18RR	4.46	14.31	103
5312	4.14	14.14	102
VERNAL	4.23	14.02	101
FSG 524	3.95	13.76	99
ONEIDA VR	4.11	13.37	97
<i>Mean</i>	4.52	15.11	Ck. Mean
<i>5% LSD</i>	0.37	0.98	13.84
<i>CV (%)</i>	6.5	5.2	
Alfalfa Entered as Experimental in Ithaca 2013			
DSD02-T*	4.80	16.52	119
DSD05-T*	4.74	16.44	119
DSD01-T*	5.01	16.42	119
DSD04-T*	5.04	16.39	118
DSD06-M*	4.93	16.28	118
DSD07-M*	4.72	15.53	112
SHOCKWAVE BR*	4.39	15.41	111
LS 905*	4.57	14.54	105
OPTIMUS*	4.53	14.44	104

Leroy, Geneseo County, Sown July 2013			
Cultivars	2016 Total	3-Yr	
		Total Season	% of Cks.
<i>- tons per acre dry matter -</i>			
55V50	6.77	19.69	120
FSG 424	6.90	19.47	118
55Q27	6.49	19.09	116
FSG 403LR	6.47	19.02	116
DG 4210	6.55	18.96	115
FSG 524	6.21	18.35	112
EZRA	5.86	17.81	108
N-R-GEE	5.67	17.67	107
Seedway 9558 SBR	5.50	17.46	106
ONEIDA VR	5.73	17.07	104
5312	5.42	16.68	101
55H94	5.19	16.38	100
VERNAL	4.95	15.61	95
<i>Mean</i>	5.98	18.04	Ck. Mean
<i>5% LSD</i>	0.46	1.06	16.45
<i>CV (%)</i>	6.8	5.1	
Alfalfa Entered as Experimental in Leroy 2013			
Profusion 2HX*	6.77	20.04	20.04
msSunstra-D17*	6.64	20.02	20.02
msSunstra-D16*	6.94	19.60	19.60
msSunstra-D15*	6.69	19.55	19.55
msSunstra-D11*	6.56	19.46	19.46
msSunstra-D13*	6.46	19.10	19.10

5 Small Grain Crops Guidelines

Small grains, which include winter and spring wheat, winter and spring barley, oats, and rye, play an important role in crop rotations on many New York farms. Under good soil conditions and management practices, small grains can produce profitable yields of grain for the cash market or farm feeding. Equally important is the value of the straw crop.

Oats and rye tolerate acid or poorly drained soils better than wheat or barley does. Nevertheless, maximum yields of both crops are attained on moderately well-drained or well-drained soils with a pH above 5.8. For maximum wheat production, wheat must be cropped on moderately well-drained or well-drained soils with a pH above 6.0. Barley requires well-drained soils with a pH above 6.3, the same as needed for alfalfa production.

5.1 Planting Techniques

5.1.1 Winter Grains

Winter wheat should be planted with a grain drill to a depth of 1 to 1-1/2 inches during the couple of weeks after the Hessian fly-free date. The optimal planting is thus from mid-September until early October in most regions of winter wheat production. Depending upon the fall or winter conditions, wheat can be successfully planted until early November but at a lower yield potential. Soft white winter wheat has a broad optimum seeding rate range and rates of about 120 pounds or 2 bushels per acre usually result in the highest grain and straw yields. If planting is delayed beyond early October, the optimal rate is 150 pounds or 2-1/2 bushels per acre. Soft red winter wheat also has a broad optimum seeding rate range and rates between 1,000,000 and 1,300,000 seeds per acre result in highest grain yields when planted in September and about 1,500,000 seeds/acre for highest straw yields. If planting is delayed after mid-October, soft red winter wheat should be seeded at rates of 1,500,000 seeds for acre if just for grain and 1,800,000 seeds/acre if the straw is also harvested.

Barley is less hardy than wheat and is not susceptible to Hessian fly. Winter barley can thus be planted a few days earlier than wheat, that is, from September 10 to September 20. Because barley is very susceptible to barley yellow dwarf virus, planting before this time is strongly discouraged. It is best to sow the seed with a grain drill at a depth of 1 to 1-1/2 inches. Seeding rates should be in the 96 to 120 pounds per acre or 2- to 2-1/2-bushel range.

Rye is the hardiest of all winter grains and thus can be successfully established with an early to mid-October planting date. For seed production, rye should be sown with a grain drill at a depth of 1 to 1-1/2 inches. The seeding rate should be in the 110 pounds or 2-bushel range.

5.1.2 Spring Grains

Spring grains should be sown as early in the spring as possible. In central New York, a yield decrease of about 1 bushel per acre per day can be expected in oats and barley for each day the crop is planted after April 15. With spring wheat, a yield loss of about 1/2 bushel per acre per day can be expected if planting occurs after April 15. All spring grains should be sown with a grain drill to a depth of 1 to 1-1/2 inches. The optimal seeding rate for oats is 96 pounds or 3 bushels per acre, whereas spring barley and spring wheat do best at 2 bushels per acre. If oats or barley is to be used in forage seeding, seeding rates should be reduced by 50 percent.

See the *Cornell Field Crops and Soils Handbook* for more detailed planting information.

5.2 Variety Selection

5.2.1 Winter Wheat

Wheat is an important cash crop in central and western New York. Most New York wheat is classified as soft red winter wheat, but some soft white winter wheat is also grown. Millers use the soft wheats to produce high-quality, low-protein flours for use in pastries, crackers, cookies, and breakfast cereals. Soft red wheats are inherently more resistant to pre-harvest sprouting than soft white wheats.

Winter wheat varieties are tested every year in Cornell trials, and results of multiyear evaluations are shown for soft white wheat varieties from Cornell's breeding program in Table 5.2.1 and for both Cornell and commercial soft red wheat varieties in Table 5.2.2. Please note the following points when using the winter wheat variety evaluation tables. Varieties are in order from those that have been tested the longest to those most recently entered into the testing program. For each trait, the number of years of data used to assess that trait are noted at the top of the table. The more years of evaluation, the more precise the data will be. **The table includes only varieties that have been tested for at least two years in Cornell trials.** All the winter wheat varieties reported in these tables are good options for New York growers. Their yields are good and they all have acceptable milling and baking quality, test weight, and lodging resistance.

5.2.1.1 Soft White Winter Wheat

Only varieties developed by Cornell University's soft white wheat breeding program are evaluated in Cornell trials at present. Results of variety evaluations are reported in Table 5.2.1. Special traits of some of these varieties are noted below, but recall that **all the varieties listed in the Table are good options for New York growers.**

CALEDONIA is a top yielder with excellent standability. It has attractive, light-colored straw and resistance to soilborne and spindle streak mosaic viruses.

Figure 5.6.1. Winter wheat IPM scouting calendar.

	September	October	November	Dec.-Mar.	April	May	June	July
					stand count/assessment			
Weeds		weed survey			weed survey			
Diseases					monitor closely for virus diseases			
						monitor closely for fungal diseases		
Insects	aphids/Hessian fly					aphids		
						cereal leaf beetle		
					cutworm			
						armyworm/fall armyworm		
						European corn borer, grasshoppers		
	September	October	November	Dec.-Mar.	April	May	June	July

Key:



Preferred



May vary with season

5.7 Managing Diseases of Small Grain Cereals

Diseases are often a major yield constraint in the production of wheat, oats, and barley in New York State. Many disease-induced losses have been accepted by growers because of either a lack of acceptable control practices or a lack of disease detection. Disease management has been accomplished to some extent through the use of sound cultural practices, seed-treatment fungicides, and varieties resistant (or at least less susceptible) to certain diseases. With renewed interest in intensive management, the severity and importance of diseases have increased, and greater emphasis has been placed on the use of newly available foliar fungicides.

Overall, the most important diseases are fungal foliar diseases. These include *Stagonospora nodorum* blotch,

Septoria tritici blotch, tan spot, powdery mildew, and leaf rust on wheat; crown rust, *Septoria* blight, and leaf blotch on oats; and powdery mildew, net blotch, scald, and leaf rust on barley. Foliar diseases, if severe during the first few weeks after flowering, can drastically reduce grain yields.

Soilborne fungal diseases affecting the roots, crowns, and lower stems occur on cereals in New York but are seldom severe. This is probably because small grains seldom follow each other in rotational sequence in New York and the same cereal species is almost never continuously cropped. Diseases such as take-all, *Fusarium* root and crown rot, eyespot and other foot rot diseases can reduce cereal yields under certain conditions in New York.

Yellow dwarf, caused by aphid-transmitted viruses collectively called barley yellow dwarf and cereal yellow dwarf viruses, affects all cereals in New York and can be a

8 Appendix

8.1 Trade and Common Names of Field Crop Pesticides

Table 8.1.1 Fungicides.

Trade Name ¹	EPA Registration Number	Common Name
Absolute 500 SC	264-849	tebuconazole + trifloxystrobin
Affiance SC	10163-332	tetraconazole + azoxystrobin
Aframe Plus 2.2 SE	100-1324	propiconazole + azoxystrobin
Allegiance FL	264-935	metalaxyl
Alto 100 SL	100-1226	cyproconazole
*†Approach SC	352-840	picoxystrobin
*†Approach Prima 2.34 SC	352-883	cyproconazole + picoxystrobin
Apron XL	100-799	mefenoxam
Avaris 200 SC	100-1178-5905	azoxystrobin + propiconazole
Caramba 0.75 SL	7969-246	metconazole
Domark 230 ME	80289-7	tetraconazole
Endura 0.7 DF	7969-197	boscalid
*†Evito 480 SC	66330-64	fuoxystrobin
Fitness	34704-1031	propiconazole
Headline AMP	7969-291	pyraclostrobin + metconazole
Headline EC	7969-186	pyraclostrobin
Headline SC	7969-289	pyraclostrobin
*†Priaxor 4.17 SC	7969-311	pyraclostrobin + fluxapyroxad
Proline 480 SC	264-825	prothioconazole
PropiMax 3.6 EC	62719-346	propiconazole
Prosaro 421 SC	264-862	prothioconazole + tebuconazole
Quadris Flowable	100-1098	azoxystrobin
Quadris Top	100-1313	azoxystrobin + difenconazole
Quilt	100-1178	azoxystrobin + propiconazole
Quilt Xcel	100-1324	azoxystrobin + propiconazole
Stratego YLD	264-1093	trifloxystrobin + prothioconazole
Tilt 3.6E	100-617	propiconazole
†Topguard	67760-75	flutriafol
Topsin M 70 WP	73545-11-70506	thiophanate-methyl
TwinLine 1.75 EC	7969-247	pyraclostrobin + metconazole

*Restricted-use pesticide

†Not for use on Long Island, NY

¹Trade names are given for convenience only. No endorsement of products is intended nor is criticism of unnamed products implied.

Table 8.1.2. Insecticides.

Trade Name ¹	EPA Registration Number	Common Name
*Asana XL	352-515	esfenvalerate
*Baythroid XL	264-840	beta-cyfluthrin
*Counter	5481-545	terbufos
*Diazinon	Multiple	diazinon
Dimethoate	Multiple	dimethoate