

1 Cavanagh et al: Trap Crops Reduce  
2 Insecticides in Squash

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5 **Economic Entomology**  
6 **Horticultural Entomology**

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13 **Using Trap Crops for Control of *Acalymma vittatum* (Coleoptera: Chrysomelidae) Reduces**  
14 **Insecticide Use in Butternut Squash**

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24 **Abstract**

25 Striped cucumber beetle, *Acalymma vittatum* F., is the primary insect pest of cucurbit crops in  
26 the Northeastern United States. Adult beetles colonize squash crops from field borders, causing  
27 feeding damage at the seedling stage and transmitting bacterial wilt *Erwinia tracheiphila* Hauben  
28 et al 1999. Conventional control methods rely on insecticide applications to the entire field, but  
29 surrounding main crops with a more attractive perimeter could reduce reliance on insecticides.  
30 *Acalymma vittatum* demonstrates a marked preference for Blue Hubbard squash (*Cucurbita*  
31 *maxima* Duchesne) over butternut squash (*C. moschata* Poir). Given this preference, Blue  
32 Hubbard squash has the potential to be an effective perimeter trap crop. We evaluated this  
33 system in commercial butternut fields in 2003 and 2004, comparing fields using perimeter trap  
34 cropping with Blue Hubbard to conventionally managed fields. In 2003 we used a foliar  
35 insecticide to control beetles in the trap crop borders, and in 2004 we compared systemic and  
36 foliar insecticide treatments for the trap crop borders. We found that using a trap crop system  
37 reduced or eliminated the need to spray the main crop area, reducing insecticide use by up to  
38 94% compared to conventional control methods, with no increase in herbivory or beetle  
39 numbers. We surveyed the growers who participated in these experiments and found a high level  
40 of satisfaction with the effectiveness and simplicity of the system. These results suggest that this  
41 method of pest control is both effective and simple enough in its implementation to have high  
42 potential for adoption amongst growers.

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44 **Key words:** *Acalymma vittatum*, butternut squash, *Cucurbita maxima*, integrated pest  
45 management, perimeter trap crops

## Introduction

46  
47 Vegetable crops are an important commodity in the United States, valued at \$12.7 billion in 2002  
48 (USDA 2002). Northeastern states have a high proportion of their vegetable crop industry  
49 invested in cucurbit crops, including squash, melons, cucumbers, and pumpkins; in  
50 Massachusetts, 40% of the vegetable-crop acreage is devoted to cucurbit crops (USDA 2002).  
51 The value of winter squash has been estimated at greater than \$5 million for the state  
52 (Hollingsworth et al. 1998). Butternut squash (*C. moschata* Poir) is the primary winter squash  
53 crop in MA, representing 54% of all winter squash harvested in the Massachusetts (Clifton  
54 2007). The main insect pest of butternut squash is the striped cucumber beetle (*Acalymma*  
55 *vittatum* F.), which also serves as the vector for *Erwinia tracheiphila* Hauben et al. 1999, a  
56 bacterium which causes a lethal wilt disease in cucurbits. The current chemical control strategies  
57 for this pest face rising costs, environmental concerns, and the potential for developing pesticide  
58 resistance. Growers often implement integrated pest management (IPM) strategies to mitigate  
59 spraying, but this generally entails spraying based on economic thresholds rather than reducing  
60 the amount of the crop that is sprayed. Perimeter trap cropping represents an IPM strategy that  
61 can potentially reduce the proportion of the field that requires insecticides (reviewed in Shelton  
62 & Badenes-Perez 2006). Blue Hubbard (*Cucurbita maxima* Duchesne), due to its attractiveness  
63 to striped cucumber beetles (Boucher & Durgy 2004, McGrath & Shishkoff 2000, Pair 1997),  
64 has strong potential as a trap crop in a perimeter trap cropping system (PTC hereafter). Our  
65 experiments tested a Blue Hubbard PTC system over two years in commercial butternut fields.

66 Striped cucumber beetles are ranked as the most important insect pest in cucurbit crops in  
67 the Northeastern US, and the Northeast Vegetable IPM Working Group has ranked the cucumber  
68 beetle and bacterial wilt complex as a region-wide problem that causes significant reduction in

69 yield and results in high insecticide use (N.E. Vegetable IPM Working Group, 2003). In New  
70 England, cucumber beetles overwinter as adults in the woods and brush borders surrounding  
71 fields, colonize cucurbit fields from the edges inward in early to mid-June, and can completely  
72 destroy newly germinated plants (Metcalf & Metcalf 1993). Damage to leaves and early flowers  
73 takes place over a month-long period in New England, followed by a period of inactivity  
74 aboveground after adults have laid eggs in the soil and died. New adults emerge in mid to late  
75 summer and continue to feed, damaging leaves, flowers, and fruit, before leaving the fields for  
76 overwintering sites (Metcalf & Metcalf 1993). Relatively low amounts of herbivory (20% by the  
77 3-leaf stage) can significantly reduce yield in winter squash (Hoffmann et al. 2000). In addition,  
78 the percentage of the beetle population infected with *Erwinia tracheiphila* may be as high as  
79 78% (Fleischer et al. 1999). Cucurbits suffer the greatest yield loss from the bacterial wilt  
80 caused by *E. tracheiphila* when they are infected as young plants, making early season protection  
81 from beetles critical for bringing a crop to harvest (Yao et al. 1996, Brust 1997). Yield losses  
82 from bacterial wilt in winter squash and pumpkins have increased in the past decade (McGrath  
83 2004), necessitating the development of control methods that reduce transmission of wilt during  
84 the most susceptible stages of plant development.

85         There are many issues associated with insecticide use, including time and financial costs,  
86 human health, environmental concerns, the potential for evolution of insect resistance, and  
87 damage to non-target organisms (Jeryaratnam 1990, Denholm & Rowland 1992, Cassarett et al,  
88 2001). Conventional pest management for many cucurbit crops requires two to eight  
89 applications of insecticides such as carbaryl, other carbamates, or synthetic pyrethroids (Brust &  
90 Rane 1995, Brust & Foster 1999). It is possible that full field insecticide applications of  
91 insecticides can reduce yield by deterring or harming pollinators (e.g., Brust & Foster 1995), on

92 which cucurbit crops depend for pollination and fruit set (Kemp and Bosch 2001). Growers in  
93 the Northeast have recently adopted the use of systemic insecticides (e.g., imidacloprid) in the  
94 furrow at planting, which protects cucurbit crops from early feeding damage. This has the  
95 advantage of eliminating the need for precise timing with foliar applications, and potentially  
96 lowering overall pesticide use. However, the insecticide cost is higher than with foliar  
97 applications, and widespread adoption of systemic insecticides may lead to the evolution of  
98 insect resistance more quickly than foliar treatments. Imidacloprid has caused enough concern  
99 among beekeepers that it has been banned in France, though research has thus far not supported  
100 these concerns (Maus et al. 2007). Insecticide resistance is not widespread in *A. vittatum*, but  
101 has been reported in the closely related *Diabrotica virgifera virgifera* LeConte (Zhu 2001), and  
102 strategies that reduce the risk of pesticide resistance are an essential part of any IPM program.  
103 Therefore, developing methods for controlling cucumber beetles with limited reliance on  
104 insecticides could have the advantages of delaying insecticide resistance, reducing environmental  
105 impacts, and preserving pollinators and natural enemies.

106         Perimeter trap cropping uses insect preference for certain hosts to concentrate pest insects  
107 in the crop border, away from the main crop. The more attractive crop is planted around the outer  
108 edge of the entire main crop (Hokkanen 1991, Boucher et al. 2003, Boucher & Durgy 2004,  
109 Shelton & Badenes-Perez 2006). Similar strategies have been used successfully in collards,  
110 summer squash, peppers, and papaya (Aluja et al. 1997, Mitchell et al. 2000, Boucher et al. 2003,  
111 Boucher & Durgy 2004). Striped cucumber beetles overwinter in the woods surrounding fields,  
112 and move into a crop from the edges. This makes them a good candidate for control via PTC, as  
113 they will encounter the attractive border before they come into contact with the main crop. The  
114 beetles concentrate in the borders before dispersing into the field, allowing insecticides to be

115 applied to a much smaller area. If the border is treated with a systemic insecticide at planting,  
116 the crop may be protected throughout the critical early growth period. Reducing the field area  
117 sprayed with insecticides may also provide a refuge for beetles that are susceptible to chemical  
118 controls, potentially delaying the evolution of resistance (Liu & Tabashnik 1997, Zhao et al.  
119 2000, Tang et al. 2001).

120 Blue Hubbard squash is highly attractive to striped cucumber beetles in comparison with  
121 butternut squash (*C. moschata* Poir) and has low susceptibility to bacterial wilt (McGrath &  
122 Shishkoff 2000). It has been used as an effective perimeter trap crop in summer squash and  
123 cantaloupe, allowing for adequate beetle control with greatly reduced applications of insecticides  
124 (Pair 1997, Boucher & Durgy 2004). Blue Hubbard is similar to butternut squash in terms of its  
125 days to maturity, temperature and spacing requirements. These factors make it a promising  
126 perimeter trap crop for butternut squash.

127 The goal of this research was to test the effectiveness of a perimeter trap crop system in  
128 reducing the amount of insecticide needed to effectively control the primary pest of butternut.  
129 We performed trials for two years in commercial fields to determine whether a PTC system  
130 would allow growers to reduce insecticide use without increasing herbivory or beetle numbers in  
131 the main crop. We compared herbivory and insecticide use between fields with a PTC system or  
132 conventional full field insecticide applications.

### 133 **Materials and Methods**

134 **Experimental Design.** To assess the effectiveness of PTC systems in commercial  
135 agriculture, we assigned treatments to 13 commercial butternut squash fields in MA. Seven  
136 fields were planted and managed using a PTC system. The other six used conventional chemical  
137 control practices. Fields ranged in size from 0.20 to 10.05 hectares (mean+s.e.: 1.38 +0.09).

138 Borders comprised an estimated 3-14% of the total field. All squash was planted by machine in  
139 rows 1.5-2.1 m apart, with an in-row seed spacing of 35.5-45.7 cm. Separation between fields  
140 was variable, with a 200 m minimum distance between fields. No fields were immediately  
141 adjacent to other cucurbit crops. As we were working with existing agricultural fields and  
142 commercial crops, our ability to control for size, shape, and other field variables was limited;  
143 however, these variable conditions are exactly those under which this system will have to  
144 function to be useful to growers. Similar experiments were conducted in 2003 and in 2004. All  
145 growers planted their fields as they normally would, except for the inclusion of the border in the  
146 PTC fields. Cultivation and nutrient management were performed by the grower, as per the  
147 needs of the field and standard management practices. The threshold over which we  
148 recommended spraying in the main crop was an average of one beetle per plant up to the five leaf  
149 stage and two beetles per plant thereafter until flowering.

150 All PTC fields used a Blue Hubbard border as the trap crop. During 2003, this border was  
151 treated with a foliar application of carbaryl (Sevin XLR Plus, Bayer CropScience, Research  
152 Triangle Park, NC) at the first sign of beetles and at roughly 10 day intervals thereafter. The  
153 main crop in PTC systems was left untreated. Conventional fields received full field applications  
154 of insecticide according to the normal practices of the growers, which were dictated by beetle  
155 pressure. Fields were monitored at weekly intervals from 3 June to 14 July (peak beetle season  
156 that year). During each census, 25 plants were randomly selected and scouted in the field  
157 borders to determine beetle numbers and the level of herbivory in the borders of the field.  
158 Another 25 were randomly selected and scouted from a row half way between the border and the  
159 center of the field to determine beetle numbers and the level of herbivory in the main crop.  
160 Plants were scouted for number of live and dead beetles, presence of cotyledon damage, and

161 overall defoliation of the plant. We rated cotyledon damage as the presence or absence of  
162 damage, and overall leaf defoliation on a 0-5 scale in 20% increments, with 0 for no damage.  
163 Cotyledon damage was recorded as a separate measure from leaf herbivory because it is possible  
164 that beetle preferences differs between cotyledons and true leaves due to chemical differences (as  
165 discussed in Tallammy & Krischik 1988). We also recorded insecticide use as the number of  
166 times borders and/or main crops were sprayed.

167         The experimental design in 2004 was very similar to that of 2003, except that we also  
168 examined the effects of treating the border with the systemic insecticide imidacloprid (Admire  
169 2F, Bayer CropScience, Research Triangle Park, NC) using a furrow drench applied at planting  
170 to the Hubbard borders of the PTC fields and to the whole field in the conventional fields. This  
171 was done after consulting with several growers, as the use of a systemic seemed likely to  
172 alleviate difficulties in timing the initial spray correctly. The design was adapted to include two  
173 levels of insecticide: systemic (Admire) and foliar (Sevin), crossed in a 2x2 factorial design with  
174 system (PTC or conventional), for a total of four treatment combinations. We initially had three  
175 fields per treatment combination, for a total of 12 fields. One of our PTC systemic fields failed  
176 to emerge due to wet weather, leaving only two fields in that category. Fields were scouted for  
177 beetles and herbivory at weekly intervals between 4 June and 6 July following the 2003 protocol.  
178 The number of sprays required for adequate beetle control was recorded for each field. At the  
179 end of the season in 2004, growers were given a survey in which they were asked to quantify  
180 their satisfaction with different aspects of the system, including its effectiveness, usability, cost  
181 relative to conventional methods, and impact on yield relative to their past experiences with  
182 more traditional methods.

183         **Statistical Analysis.** We asked how PTC vs. conventional management affected

184 herbivory and beetle numbers in the border and main crop, and what proportion of the field was  
185 treated with insecticide. All data were analyzed using PROC GLM in SAS V. 9.1 (SAS-Institute,  
186 2004). We evaluated the impact of a PTC system on herbivory and beetle numbers in the main  
187 crop using MANOVA with system (PTC or conventional) and insecticide type (foliar or  
188 systemic, 2004 only) as the independent factors. We used the same model for beetle numbers  
189 and damage in field borders to determine whether borders of PTC fields had more beetles than  
190 borders of conventional fields. Beetle numbers, defoliation, and cotyledon damage were  
191 averaged over censuses to provide one measure per response for analysis. Analyzing data from  
192 the first four censuses alone, when beetle damage may have the highest impact on plant health,  
193 provided qualitatively the same results as averaging over the whole season (data not shown).  
194 Beetle numbers were square root transformed to meet assumptions of normality; other data were  
195 normal without transformation. Cotyledon damage was not recorded in one field with early  
196 cultivation, and so was analyzed separately in both years since MANOVA excludes replicate  
197 fields with any missing responses.

198         Insecticide use was analyzed as total proportion of field with insecticides applied. As  
199 fields were of uneven size and shape, proportion of field with insecticides applied was a more  
200 universal measurement than area treated, amount of insecticide used, or other absolute measures  
201 of insecticide use. Because fields were of uneven shape the border area was estimated as if the  
202 fields were rectangular with length to width proportions of 1:2. For example, a two hectare field  
203 of irregular proportions would be standardized as a rectangular two hectare field with a width of  
204 100 m and a length of 200 m. Assuming that the PTC borders were 1.8 m wide, this would give  
205 us an estimated border area of 1092 m<sup>2</sup>. Standardizing the fields in this way allowed us to  
206 quantify and compare pesticide use between fields of different size and shape. Exact

207 measurement of the sometimes curved or jagged field edges was not practical. As all fields were  
208 roughly rectangular in shape, we believe that this method provides a reasonable estimation of  
209 border area. The total proportion of fields treated in each system were compared using ANOVA  
210 with system (PTC or conventional) as the independent variable in 2003, and system, insecticide  
211 type (foliar or systemic), and their interactions as the independent variables in 2004. In both  
212 years, the response was normalized with square root transformations. We used square root  
213 transformations instead of the arcsine(sqrt(x)) transformation usually used for proportional data  
214 because multiple sprays of the entire field resulted in proportions greater than one. Grower  
215 satisfaction surveys were summarized but not subject to statistical analysis.

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## Results

218 **Herbivory and beetle numbers.** In 2003, system (PTC or conventional) did not affect  
219 herbivory in the main crop (MANOVA: Wilks'  $\lambda = 0.97$ ,  $F_{2,10} = 0.16$ ,  $P = 0.85$ ). ANOVA  
220 indicated no significant effect of PTC on cotyledon damage ( $F_{1,10} = 0.52$ ,  $P = 0.49$ ) in the main  
221 crop, which was analyzed separately in both years due to missing values for one field. PTC  
222 treatment had a significant effect on herbivory in the borders (MANOVA: Wilks'  $\lambda = 0.52$ ,  $F_{2,10}$   
223  $= 4.59$ ,  $P = 0.039$ ). Subsequent univariate analysis indicated that the Blue Hubbard borders of  
224 the PTC fields attracted significantly more beetles than the borders of the conventional fields  
225 (Fig. 1), but defoliation ratings and cotyledon damage were not different between PTC and  
226 conventional fields.

227 In 2004, neither system (PTC or conventional), insecticide treatment (foliar or systemic),  
228 nor their interaction significantly affected beetle numbers, defoliation (MANOVA: Wilks'  $\lambda >$   
229  $0.45$ ,  $F_{2,6} < 3.70$ ,  $P > 0.09$  for all) or cotyledon damage in the main crop (ANOVA:  $F_{1,6} = 0.53$ ,

230 P = 0.50). There were eight times as many beetles in Blue Hubbard compared to conventional  
231 borders (mean + s.e.: PTC: 2.95 +1.50; Conventional: 0.36 + 0.21), although the effects of  
232 system, insecticide, and their interaction on herbivory and beetle numbers in the borders were not  
233 statistically significant (MANOVA: Wilks'  $\lambda > 0.54$ ,  $F_{2,6} < 0.29$ ,  $P > 0.16$  for all; Fig. 1).

234 **Insecticide use.** In 2003, the proportion of PTC fields treated with insecticides was half  
235 that of the conventional fields, although this difference was not statistically significant ( $F_{1,11} =$   
236 2.65,  $P = 0.13$ ; Fig. 2).

237 In 2004, using a PTC system reduced the proportion of the field requiring insecticides by  
238 an average of 94% ( $F_{1,7} = 111.36$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ , Fig. 2). Insecticide type (foliar or systemic) had a  
239 marginally significant effect on the proportion of the field requiring treatment ( $F_{1,7} = 5.23$ ,  $P =$   
240 0.056; mean  $\pm$  s.e.: foliar:  $0.88 \pm 0.38$ ; systemic  $0.62 \pm 0.24$ ). The interaction of system (PTC or  
241 conventional) and insecticide (foliar or systemic) was not significant ( $F_{1,11} = 1.01$ ,  $P = 0.35$ ),  
242 indicating that PTC effectively reduced insecticide use regardless of the type of insecticide used.

243

244

## Discussion

245 Fields with Blue Hubbard borders required 50% and 94% less insecticide use than  
246 conventional fields in 2003 and 2004 respectively, although this effect was only significant in  
247 2004. Beetle pressure was similar in both years (mean beetles per plant in the main crop was  
248 0.28 in 2003 and 0.31 in 2004). Although the PTC fields required less insecticide overall, the  
249 PTC system did not eliminate the need for insecticides in the main crop; in 2003 six out of seven  
250 PTC fields received one or more full-field sprays. One of the major obstacles to effective use of  
251 PTC in 2003 was the precise timing required to effectively apply insecticides to the Blue  
252 Hubbard border before it was breached by the beetles. Another obstacle was grower reluctance

253 to refrain from spraying crops, even though in some cases they were not at risk. Issues with the  
254 critical timing of the foliar insecticides were addressed in the 2004 trials with the use of a  
255 systemic insecticide at planting and better communication with participating growers. These  
256 modifications led to greatly improved effectiveness; in 2004 the main crop of PTC fields did not  
257 exceed threshold beetle numbers and no PTC fields required full-field insecticide treatments.  
258 There was a marginally significant increase in the proportion of the field requiring spray in fields  
259 treated with a foliar insecticide regardless of system type. This difference is likely due to some of  
260 the conventional foliar treated fields requiring multiple applications, while the systemic fields  
261 required only one application of insecticide for full season control. It is important to note that in  
262 2004 the beetle populations and herbivory in the main crop of all fields were not significantly  
263 different even though the main crops of the PTC fields were not treated with any insecticide,  
264 while the main crops of the conventional fields all required insecticide treatment. These results  
265 show that using a PTC system can reduce or eliminate the need for full field insecticide  
266 treatments on this crop, leading to higher profit margins for the grower, reduced exposure to  
267 potentially dangerous toxins, and potential preservation of pollinators and natural enemies.

268 Ten growers who were introduced to PTC in this research were surveyed at the end of the  
269 2004 growing season. All considered the system to be good or excellent overall and were  
270 satisfied with the way the system worked for them. Eight of the ten growers using the system  
271 found that it saved them money; the remaining two felt there was no difference in savings  
272 because the bulk of their costs was due to the labor of mixing insecticides, rather than the amount  
273 and area sprayed. All of the growers spent the same or less time on beetle control using a PTC  
274 system compared with conventional methods, and all of the growers reduced their insecticide use  
275 by implementing the PTC system. The results of the grower survey, while anecdotal, support the

276 empirical evidence in this study. To the agricultural community at large, the opinions and  
277 experiences of fellow growers often weigh more heavily than experimental data in their  
278 considerations of pest management options. Our objective for this study was to evaluate not only  
279 whether PTC reduced insecticide use, but also how PTC would be accepted by the growers. The  
280 positive results of this survey, and our experience in working with the growers who volunteered  
281 their fields, showed that PTC has strong potential for adoption.

282         While a reduction in insecticide use will likely be the most important benefit for the  
283 growers who adopt PTC systems, there may be other advantages as well. Using a cropping  
284 strategy that provides an unsprayed refuge for susceptible pest individuals can delay the onset of  
285 insecticide resistance in insect populations (Liu & Tabashnik 1997, Zhao et al. 2000). In  
286 addition, it has been shown that increasing the size of the refuge generally slows the  
287 development of resistance (Tang et al. 2001). Perimeter trap cropping provides for a large  
288 proportion of the field (up to 97% in this study) to act as a refuge for susceptible individuals, and  
289 may help preserve the useful life of several important agricultural chemicals. While directly  
290 evaluating the effectiveness of PTC in delaying insecticide resistance is beyond the scope of this  
291 study, it is clear that the system meets the basic criteria for an effective refuge strategy.

292         Some current implementations of IPM have been criticized for being too reliant on  
293 chemical controls and under-utilizing tactics which promote the inherent strengths of agricultural  
294 ecosystems (Lewis et al. 1997, Ehler & Bottrell 2000). Rather than relying entirely on scout-  
295 and-spray approaches, PTC modifies crop layout to take advantage of pest host colonization  
296 behavior. Our work shows that PTC significantly reduces insecticide use while potentially  
297 providing a refuge to preserve beneficial insects such as pollinators and natural enemies, and  
298 may also help delay insecticide resistance. In this sense, PTC as an IPM tactic represents a total

299 system approach to pest management.

300           The basic principles of trap cropping are not new. Many traditional farming systems rely  
301 on trap cropping for control of insect pests, and there are examples in the US dating back to 1860  
302 (Hokkanen 1991). With the advent of modern chemical controls, these methods of pest control  
303 have largely fallen out of use. Trap cropping has only recently been adopted in modern  
304 commercial agriculture (Hokkanen 1991, Pair 1997, Boucher et al. 2003, Boucher & Durgy  
305 2004, Shelton & Badenes-Perez 2006). Traditional chemical control measures face increased  
306 pressure from rising costs, environmental concerns, and insecticide resistance, necessitating the  
307 development of alternative pest control measures. In his review of trap crop systems, Hokkanen  
308 (1991) suggested that at least 35-40 important pest species could likely be controlled with some  
309 form of trap cropping, and yet only a handful of trap crop systems are used regularly in  
310 commercial agriculture. In a similar more recent review, Shelton & Bedenes-Perez (2006) found  
311 that trap cropping was still underutilized in commercial agriculture, even in crops in which field  
312 trials have shown success with the system. Exploring the potential of new trap crop systems and  
313 developing methods that are acceptable to growers are important strategies for increasing the  
314 economic and environmental sustainability of farms.

315           Our experiments demonstrated that perimeter trap cropping can provide effective striped  
316 cucumber beetle control while greatly reducing insecticide use in commercial butternut squash  
317 fields. Most of the growers who participated in this experiment have adopted this system as their  
318 own, and were still using it as of this writing. The high level of satisfaction with the system  
319 expressed by growers who participated in the experiment indicates that PTC has excellent  
320 potential for adoption by growers wishing to reduce their insecticide costs and exposure.

321

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