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**1Disease progression of peach powdery mildew in Catalonia, Spain – Towards  
2a decision support system based on degree-days to initiate fungicide spray  
3programs**

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**23ABSTRACT**

24The incidence of peach powdery mildew (PPM) was monitored on fruits of  
25untreated trees in order to: i) describe the disease progress in relation to  
26accumulated degree-days (ADD) after 50% blossom, and ii) establish an ADD  
27operating threshold to initiate a fungicide spray program. PPM incidence was  
28monitored from spring to summer in 2013-15 in commercial orchards. Disease  
29onset was observed at  $242 \pm 13$  ADD and progressed following a sigmoid curve  
30until being asymptotic after  $484 \pm 42$  ADD. Beta-regression models between  
31disease incidence and ADD were fitted using Bayesian inference. An operating  
32threshold to initiate fungicide applications was established at 220 ADD, coinciding  
33with an expected incidence between 0.02 and 0.05. A commercial validation was  
34conducted in 2017 by comparing PPM incidence in: i) a standard, calendar-based  
35program, ii) a program with applications initiated at 220 ADD, and iii) a non-treated  
36control. A statistically relevant reduction in disease incidence was obtained with  
37both fungicide programs, from 0.2440 mean incidence in the control to 0.0727 with  
38the 220-ADD alert program and 0.0488 with the standard program. Although  
39statistically relevant, differences between both fungicide programs were not  
40substantial. The 220-ADD alert program resulted in 33% reduction in fungicide  
41applications.

## 42INTRODUCTION

43 The ascomycete *Podosphaera pannosa* (Wallr.) de Bary, causal agent of the  
44 powdery mildew of peach (PPM), is a cosmopolitan biotrophic pathogen that has  
45 been reported from over 40 peach-growing countries in the world (Amano 1986;  
46 Farr and Rossman 2019). It is also known to affect other Rosaceae species, mainly  
47 included in the genera *Prunus* and *Rosa* (Farr and Rossman 2019). On peach,  
48 including all fruit morphologies such as nectarines and flat fruits, the fungus infects  
49 fruits, leaves, buds, shoots and twigs (Grove 1995; Ogawa and English 1991),  
50 showing a distinguishable white-greyish mycelium developing on the surface of the  
51 affected parts. The pathogen overwinters as dormant mycelium in latent buds  
52 (Ogawa and English 1991; Weinhold 1961; Yarwood 1957), and in chasmothecia  
53 produced in the epiphytic mycelium of infected twigs and leaves (Butt 1978).  
54 Primary infections on the tree green parts occur in spring, when the primary  
55 inoculum, as ascospores, is available and favorable conditions are met. Infections  
56 from latent mycelium that overwintered in buds have also been reported (Weinhold  
57 1961). Conidia released from these primary colonies disperse in air and initiate  
58 secondary infections throughout the season (Grove 1995; Jarvis et al. 2002).  
59 Infection of fruits, if severe, makes the fruit unacceptable to industry (Weinhold  
60 1961), thus causing an important economic loss.

61 Data on potential yield reduction by PPM have been previously reported in  
62 some countries. In California, Ogawa and Charles (1956) reported that the amount  
63 of marketable peaches from fungicide-sprayed trees was about 20% greater than  
64 those from unsprayed trees. Grove (1995) reported that crop losses resulting from  
65 fruit infections may reach 50% on Japanese plums, apricots, nectarines and

66peaches. Unfortunately, no data on potential production losses are available in  
67Spain, where this study has been carried out. Nevertheless, Spain ranks as the  
68second country in the world, after China, in terms of cultivated area (86,000 ha)  
69and annual fruit production of peaches (1,5 M tons in 2016), followed by Italy, USA  
70and Greece (FAO 2019; MAPA 2019). These figures account for about 6% of the  
71total world crop area and 7% of the world production.

72 The control of PPM is usually achieved through the applications of fungicides  
73(Grove 1995; Hollomon and Wheeler 2002; Ogawa and English 1991). Most used  
74fungicides are sterol biosynthesis inhibitors (SBI), quinone outside inhibitors (QoI),  
75protein synthesis inhibitors, and various inorganic multi-site activity products  
76including sulfur derivatives. Foliar applications of fungicides, starting at petals fall  
77or the beginning of fruit set, are done routinely to protect peach fruits from infection  
78(Grove 1995; Reuveni 2001), as fruits are susceptible from the early stages of fruit  
79growth to about the beginning of pit hardening (Ogawa and English 1991). In  
80Spain, four to seven applications in a season are generally needed, which is  
81comparable to other Mediterranean countries where peaches are grown (Reuveni  
822001). In California, it has been reported that three applications are enough to  
83control the disease (Ogawa and Charles 1956; Ogawa and English 1991).  
84However, fungicide applications are done on a calendar basis (Ogawa and English  
851991) since, to our knowledge, no epidemiological models to predict the risk  
86infection of PPM are currently available.

87 Disease prediction is required to apply plant protection products in rational,  
88sustainable integrated strategies, which are intended to keep control effectiveness  
89against plant diseases while reducing the application costs and the potential risks

90to the environment and public health (Jørgensen et al. 2017). Thus, optimizing  
91timing of fungicide application is fully desirable for economic and environmental  
92reasons (Jørgensen et al. 2017). Several epidemiological models have been  
93developed for powdery mildews affecting different crops, including apple, barley,  
94grape, rose, rubber, sugar beet and tomato, as reviewed by Jarvis et al. (2002),  
95cherry (Grove et al. 2000) cucurbits (Sapak et al. 2017), mango (Nasir et al. 2014),  
96and wheat (Cao et al. 2015). In general terms, models focus on the prediction of 1)  
97the critical date for a single fungicide application, 2) the date to initiate the fungicide  
98program, or 3) the timing of fungicide applications in intensive spray programs, as  
99reviewed by Butt (1978).

100 Empirical (correlative) and mechanistic (process-based) modelling  
101approaches have been used to develop decision support systems for plant disease  
102management . Empirical models are correlative in nature, so their predictive ability  
103is limited by the scope of the data (Madden and Ellis, 1988). Mechanistic models  
104are developed from controlled experiments to quantify the effects of environmental  
105factors on the different components of the disease cycle (De Wolf and Isard, 2007).  
106Mechanistic models are generally considered robust for extrapolation, but  
107epidemics are sometimes more complex than a simple combination of their  
108monocyclic components.

109 This study aimed at acquiring new knowledge on the disease progress of  
110PPM under the crop conditions in Catalonia, Northeast Spain, and to develop and  
111validate a decision support system (DSS) adapted to this area. The specific  
112objectives of this study were: *i*) to describe the disease progression of powdery  
113mildew on peach and nectarine fruits in terms of incidence along the season, *ii*) to

114develop a simple epidemiological model to estimate the disease incidence in  
115relation to temperature; and *iii*) to evaluate the performance of this empirical model  
116as a DSS to initiate the fungicide spray program for PPM management.

## 117**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### 118***Experimental sites***

119 The incidence of powdery mildew on peach and nectarine fruits was  
120monitored yearly along the growth season in the period 2013-2015 in eight  
121commercial orchards (1 to 8) located in Lleida, Catalonia, Spain and aged 4 to 8  
122years at the beginning of the experiment (Table 1). Most orchards were nectarine  
123crops whereas only one was cultivated for peach, and an additional one for  
124platerine. The commercial validation of the DSS (Magarey and Sutton, 2007) for  
125the onset of fungicide applications was conducted in 2017 in six orchards, namely  
1262, 8 and four additional ones, 9 to 12 (Table 1). All orchards (1 to 12) were included  
127within a radius of approximately 10 km. Trees in the orchards were drip-irrigated  
128and trained in 4-scaffolds open vase, which is locally common in the area. The  
129climate in the area is BSk (Tropical and Subtropical Steppe Climate), according to  
130Köppen-Geiger's climate classification system (Kottek et al. 2006).

### 131***Dynamics of powdery mildew symptoms on fruits***

132 For each growing season and experimental plot, symptoms of PPM were  
133recorded on fruit starting from the 50 % blossom biofix (mid-March) until no further  
134disease progression was noticed for up to 2-3 weeks, which occurred in mid-June  
135to early July depending on the year. Observations of PPM symptoms were carried  
136out on a weekly basis but twice a week in some sites and seasons, especially  
137when incidence progressed rapidly. The observations were conducted on five

138 contiguous trees, which were not treated with fungicides during the growing  
139 season, thus allowing for a natural progress of disease. The trees were surrounded  
140 by 1-2 rows of non-treated trees to avoid any potential spray drift. In each tree, 3-4  
141 scaffolds were selected and the central third of each branch was marked. All the  
142 fruits in the selected branch sections were recorded as either symptomatic or not  
143 and those showing symptoms were individually labelled. At the end of the  
144 monitoring period, all fruits in each monitored branch sections were counted and  
145 disease incidence was calculated as the proportion of symptomatic fruit (0 to 1) for  
146 each monitoring period, branch, tree and experimental site combination. Any  
147 diseased fallen fruit during the monitoring period was considered as a diseased  
148 fruit to avoid underestimates of disease incidence (i.e., decrease) with time.

#### 149 ***Meteorological data***

150 A wireless cellular data-logger (model Em50G, from Decagon Services,  
151 Pullman, WA, USA) was located in each experimental site, less than 50 m away  
152 from the marked trees. The data-logger was used to measure the air temperature,  
153 relative humidity, rainfall and wetness duration at 1-hour intervals during the whole  
154 experimental period. Meteorological variables were summarized for each period  
155 between two consecutive symptom evaluations as follows: mean values of  
156 temperature and relative humidity, and accumulated values of rainfall and leaf  
157 wetness duration. In addition, degree-days (DD) were calculated according to  
158 Zalom et al. (1983), by using the single-sine method and setting the extreme  
159 values 10 °C and 35 °C as the lower and higher thresholds, respectively.  
160 Thresholds were determined from the values reported for *Podosphaera fuliginea*

161(Jarvis et al. 2002). Finally, accumulated degree-days (ADD) for each monitoring  
162date were calculated starting from the 50 % blooming biofix date.

### 163 **Modelling of disease progression**

164 Beta regression assumes that the response variable is within the interval  
165(0,1) (Ferrari and Cribari-Neto 2004; Martínez-Minaya et al., 2019), although, in  
166any interval (a,b) is possible, since it can be transformed easily to (0,1). As in  
167generalized linear models (GLM), the mean (  $\mu_i$  ) is linked to the linear predictor  
168using the logit link function:

$$169 \quad \logit(\mu_i) = \beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{N_p} \beta_j x_{ji} + \sum_{k=1}^{N_f} f_k(x_{ki}) + v_i, i=1, \dots, n,$$

170where  $\beta_0$  is the intercept of the model,  $\beta_j$  are the fixed effects of the model,  
171  $f_k$  denote any smooth effects, and  $v_i$  represents unstructured error terms  
172(random variables).

### 173 **Commercial validation of the DSS to initiate fungicide applications**

174 From the field observations, early primary PPM symptoms were observed at  
175approximately 240 ADD in average (actually,  $241.2 \pm 13.1$  ADD). Moreover, an  
176average incidence of 0.05 was estimated at  $239.1 \pm 18.1$  ADD with the beta  
177regression model described here. Thus, an operating alert threshold to initiate  
178fungicide applications was chosen at 220 ADD. This value was chosen considering  
179logistic constraints at farm level to let growers a reasonable period to initiate the  
180fungicide sprays. Roughly, this 20 ADD difference were equivalent to approximately  
1812 days, as DD values observed in this period were about 10 DD a day.

182 Six orchards, namely 2, and 8 to 12 (Table 2), were used in this study. In each  
183 orchard, three fungicide programs were evaluated: i) the standard, calendar-based,  
184 fungicide program, which was applied under farmers' criteria and coinciding with  
185 the European Directive on Sustainable Use of Pesticides (2009/128/EC). This  
186 program was applied in all orchards after petals fall, well before the 220-ADD alert;  
187 ii) the fungicide program starting at the 220-ADD alert, which was further continued  
188 on a calendar basis, and with same applications and dates as the standard; and 3)  
189 the control, non-treated group of trees. Each experimental unit consisted of five  
190 contiguous trees which were surrounded by 1-2 rows of untreated trees to avoid  
191 spray drift. The selection of fungicides to be used in each application time, as well  
192 as the application times based on calendar, were left to each farmer's criteria, but  
193 were the same in the calendar-based and after the 220-ADD alert spray program  
194 conducted in each orchard. Fungicides used in the orchards during the commercial  
195 validation were included in the chemical families of triazoles, dithiocarbamates,  
196 benzamides, strobilurins, pyrimidines, quinolines and inorganic fungicides.

197 The ADD values were calculated daily as described above for all  
198 experimental orchards starting at 50% blooming date, the latter being in the range  
199 7 to 9 March 2017. When the 220-ADD alert was approaching (i.e., around 200  
200 ADD; from 18 to 24 April 2017), incidence of PPM was evaluated in all  
201 combinations of fungicide programs and orchards. At the end of the experimental  
202 period, when no further disease progression was observed (values from 570 ADD  
203 to 760 ADD; from 8 to 12 June 2017), incidence of peach powdery mildew was  
204 again assessed in all experimental sites and trees.

## 205 **Statistical analyses**

206 The beta regression to model the dynamics in the proportion of affected  
 207 fruits was fitted following a Bayesian hierarchical approach with the INLA  
 208 methodology (Rue et al. 2009). This methodology uses Laplace approximations  
 209 (Tierney and Kadane 1986) to get the posterior distributions in Latent Gaussian  
 210 models (LGMs) (Rue et al. 2009). Vague Gaussian distributions were used here for  
 211 the parameters involved in the fixed effects  $\beta_j \sim N(\mu_j, \phi_j)$ . Precision of the beta  
 212 distribution ( $\phi$ ) was reparametrized as  $\phi = \exp(\alpha)$  to ensure that  $\phi$  was a  
 213 positive parameter. We assumed pc-priors on the log-precision for both  
 214 parameters. The computational implementation R-INLA (Rue et al. 2009) for R (R  
 215 Core Team 2018) was used to perform approximate Bayesian inference. In order to  
 216 conduct the analysis in our data, values of the response variable were transformed  
 217 to be in the interval (0,1) dividing by the maximum for each orchard and year. For  
 218 the sake of simplicity, data were represented in their original units. As common  
 219 practice in beta regression, 0s and 1s were settled to 0.01 and 0.99 respectively.

220 In the commercial validation experiment, disease incidence data at the end of  
 221 the experimental period were analyzed with a logistic regression and binomial  
 222 distribution. Fungicide programs (i.e., calendar-based, 220-ADD alert and non-  
 223 treated control) were considered as a fixed factor and orchards as a random  
 224 blocking factor. The non-treated control was used as the reference level and the  
 225 odds ratios for the calendar-based and 220-ADD alert spray programs were  
 226 calculated including their corresponding 95% credibility intervals. R-INLA for R was

227used to perform approximate Bayesian inference with the prior distributions  
228provided by default.

## 229RESULTS

### 230*Dynamics of powdery mildew symptoms on fruits*

231 Only datasets with final PPM incidence on fruit equal or higher than 0.05 in  
232the orchards were used in this study; i.e., a total of 14 datasets resulting from the  
233combination of the experimental orchards and monitored years (Fig. 1). Final  
234incidence values ranged among orchards and years between 0.05 and 0.96. Four  
235orchard-year combinations were in the range 0.05-0.20 final PPM incidence, eight  
236in the range 0.20-0.60, and two over 0.80 (Fig. 1). Moreover, first symptoms were  
237noticed at variable dates and their equivalent ADD values among orchards and  
238years. Field observations revealed that first PPM occurrences on fruit were noticed  
239in average at 240 ADD after the 50 % blooming biofix (mean  $\pm$  std. err.:  $242.0 \pm$   
24013.1 ADD; median: 241). On a calendar basis, most of these primary infection  
241symptoms were noticed between the last week of April and the two first weeks of  
242May. PPM incidence increased in the experimental orchards roughly until June,  
243and last new infections were mostly detected at 460-480 ADD (median: 460 ADD;  
244mean  $484 \pm 42.2$ ). Last new infections on fruit were early detected in May (first to  
245third week) in some orchard-year combinations, whereas in other cases they were  
246detected as late as in July (first week).

247 The beta regression models were able to accommodate the dynamics of PPM  
248incidence in all the orchards and years analyzed, despite the large differences  
249observed in disease progress rates and final incidences (Fig. 1). The mean of the  
250posterior distribution for the intercept ( $\beta_0$ ) ranged from -12.2 in orchard 3 to -4.9 in

251orchard 2 in 2013, from -16.8 in orchard 1 to -5.2 in orchard 7 in 2014, and from  
252-11.7 in orchard 8 to -4.6 in orchard 6 in 2015 (Table 3). The mean of the posterior  
253distribution for the parameter of ADD ( $\beta_1$ ) ranged from 1.6 in orchard 2 to 6.1 in  
254orchard 3 in 2013, from 1.7 in orchard 7 to 5.9 in orchard 1 in 2014, and from 1.3 in  
255orchard 6 to 3.8 in orchard 8 in 2015 (Table 3).

256 Based on the beta regression models, between 107.2 ADD (orchard 2, 2013)  
257and 278.1 ADD (orchard 1, 2013) were needed to reach PPM incidences of 0.01 in  
258the 2013-15 monitoring period (Table 4). In addition, between 161.6 ADD (orchard  
2597, 2014) and 389.9 ADD (orchard 1, 2013) were needed to reach 0.10 PPM  
260incidence in the same period. Highest annual mean values for ADD estimations at  
2610.01 to 0.10 incidence were obtained in 2015, whereas lowest estimates were  
262obtained in 2014. On average, 187.1 to 264.0 ADD were needed to reach PPM  
263incidences between 0.01 and 0.1, respectively, among orchards and years (Table  
2644). An average of 239.1 ADD for 0.05 PPM incidence was determined for all  
265orchard and year combinations, which was comparable with the first PPM  
266occurrences visually noticed in the orchards.

### 267 ***Commercial validation of the DSS to initiate fungicide applications***

268 Two of the six orchards evaluated in 2017, namely orchards 9 and 12, were  
269excluded from the commercial validation as no PPM symptoms were recorded at  
270the end of the experimental period. Thus, only data from four orchards (2, 8, 10  
271and 11) were used in the analyses (Supplementary Fig. S1). Disease incidence  
272values recorded in the non-treated control ranged from 0.1574 (orchard 8) to  
2730.4105 (orchard 2). Mean PPM incidence recorded in the non-treated control was  
2740.2441  $\pm$  0.1136 (std. dev.) (Fig. 2), with a total sample size of 5894 fruits. Mean

275 PPM incidence recorded in the calendar-based spray program was  $0.0488 \pm 0.0323$ , with a total sample size of 5465 fruits. Mean PPM incidence recorded in the 220-ADD alert spray program was  $0.0728 \pm 0.0442$ , with a total sample size of 5883 fruits.

279 The odds ratio was 0.1992 (credibility interval: 0.1752-0.2250) for the 280 calendar-based spray program and 0.1159 (0.0987-0.1346) for the 220-ADD alert 281 spray program. The 95% credibility interval of the odds ratio was lower than 1, so 282 both spray programs reduced PPM incidence compared with the reference level 283 (non-treated control). The odds of PPM incidence in the calendar-based spray 284 program were 8.63 times less than in the non-treated control, whereas the odds 285 corresponding to the 220-ADD alert spray program were 5.02 times less than in the 286 control. The 95% credibility intervals of the odds ratio for the calendar-based and 287 the 220-ADD alert spray programs did not overlap, being lower for the calendar- 288 based treatment. Therefore, higher reduction of PPM incidence compared with the 289 non-treated control was obtained with the calendar-based spray program than with 290 the 220-ADD alert spray program.

291 Regarding the total number of fungicide applications in the calendar-based 292 program, it ranged from 4 (orchard 2 and 10) to 7 (orchard 8). Meanwhile, the 293 number of fungicide applications in the 220-ADD alert spray program ranged from 294 2 (orchard 10) to 5 (orchard 8). This represents, in percentage, and compared with 295 the calendar-based program, a reduction in the numbers of fungicide applications 296 from 25% (orchard 2) to 50% (orchard 10) (mean: 33.3%) (Supplementary Table 297 S1).

## 298 **DISCUSSION**

299 The incidence of peach powdery mildew on peach and nectarine fruits was  
300monitored in different commercial orchards located in Catalonia, Northeast Spain,  
301along several years. This allowed us to describe the disease progress in relation to  
302air temperature, which has been reported to be one of the main factors affecting  
303the disease progress in powdery mildews (Yarwood 1957). Temperature was  
304expressed in ADD recorded after the 50 % blooming biofix, and PPM progression  
305was modelled according to ADD using beta regression models (Ferrari and Cribari-  
306Neto, 2004). As shown by previous studies using beta regression for modelling  
307inoculum availability of *Plurivorosphaerella nawae* (Martínez-Minaya et al., 2019),  
308this method overcomes the drawbacks of the traditional data transformations,  
309allowing a direct interpretation of model parameters in terms of the original data.  
310The analysis is not sensitive to the sample size and posterior distributions are  
311expected to concentrate well within the bounded range of proportions.

312 Butt (1978) pointed out that powdery mildews are underrepresented in  
313conceptual epidemiological models, partly because their disease cycles are not  
314driven by a critical environmental variable such as wetness. In addition, the advent  
315of fungicides with notable activity against powdery mildews may also have averted  
316the reliance on epidemiological models to schedule fungicide sprays. Nevertheless,  
317a reduction in fungicide use and implementation of DDSs is now mandatory by  
318Directive 2009/128/EC, which aims at establishing a global framework on the  
319sustainable use of pesticides in the EU.

320 Previous works on modelling *P. pannosa* progression on fruits are scarce in  
321literature; some models aimed to determine optimal temperature and relative  
322humidity parameters for different phases of the disease cycle (Grove 1995; Toma

323and Ivascu, 1998). However, Pieters et al. (1993) concluded that neither the  
324temperature nor the relative humidity influenced the differentiation between the two  
325epidemic phases (primary and secondary infections) that were described for *P.*  
326*pannosa* progression on rose in greenhouse conditions. Regarding the control of  
327rose powdery mildew, Pieters et al. (1993) also concluded that initiating fungicide  
328applications between the two epidemic phases reduced total fungicide inputs for  
329disease control.

330       Several epidemiological models for powdery mildew in other host species  
331described the relationship between environmental factors and specific stages of  
332the disease cycle, such as the occurrence of secondary infections of wheat  
333powdery mildew (Cao et al. 2015), or the optimal conditions for spore germination  
334and infection in apple (Xu 1999). Other models consisted of several components,  
335which included different environmental variables to describe in detail the disease  
336progress along the crop cycle and give advice to farmers on proper fungicide spray  
337timing. For instance, the Gubler-Thomas model for the grapevine powdery mildew  
338(Gubler et al. 1999) predicts disease pressure and consists of two components  
339according to the disease cycle: an ascospore primary infection and a conidial  
340secondary infection stage. The first component of the model predicts the release of  
341ascospores (primary inoculum) and infections depending on rain, temperature and  
342wetness periods, whereas the second component turns to be a risk index for  
343secondary conidial infections based on the effects of temperature and wetness  
344duration variables. Similar approaches have been developed for the management  
345of cherry powdery mildew (Grove 1991; Grove and Boal 1991; Grove 1998), which  
346are, to the best of our knowledge, the only example of epidemiological models

347previously described for Rosaceae species. The effects of several meteorological  
348factors on the development of different stages of the cherry powdery mildew have  
349been studied, such as the release and germination of ascospores depending on  
350temperature and wetness duration (Grove 1991), the germination of conidia on  
351leaves and fruits depending on the temperature and vapour pressure deficit (Grove  
352and Boal 1991), and the availability of the secondary inoculum based on  
353temperature, relative humidity and wind speed (Grove 1998). In a posterior study,  
354Grove et al. (2000) used the secondary infection component of the Gubler-Thomas  
355model in the management of cherry powdery mildew infections with spray oils.

356 Carisse et al. (2009) developed and validated a degree-day model to initiate a  
357fungicide spray program for the management of grapevine powdery mildew. They  
358concluded that fungicide sprays could be initiated when 1 % to 5 % of the total  
359seasonal airborne inoculum was reached, which was depending on the grape  
360variety about 500-600 ADD after vines reached the 2–3 leaves phenological stage.  
361According to this degree-day model, fungicide sprays were initiated 30 to 40 days  
362later than those in the standard program (just at the 3–4 leaves phenological  
363stage). This resulted in a 40-55 % reduction in the number of fungicide sprays  
364applied. Similarly, we were able to establish a fungicide spray program based on  
365the degree-day monitoring with an operating threshold of 220-ADD to initiate  
366fungicide applications, allowing farmers with a safe period to coordinate spray  
367logistics before the onset of the risk period.

368 For the defined 220-ADD operating threshold, the beta regression model  
369estimated a PPM incidence between 0.02 and 0.05 (i.e., between 205.3 and 239.1  
370ADD). Thus, 220-ADD spray program is based on synchronizing the initiation of

371fungicide applications with the detection of the first PPM symptoms. This period  
372coincides with the beginning of the exponential phase of the disease, which causes  
373significant yield losses in grapevine (Carisse et al. 2009). Nevertheless, the 220-  
374ADD alert spray program resulted in an increase of 2.4 % final PPM incidence as  
375compared to the calendar-based program. Although statistically relevant because  
376of the relatively large sample size, the size effect of this difference was not  
377biologically substantial in our opinion and, thus, we consider the 220-ADD alert  
378spray program as effective as the current calendar-based spray program.

379 Fungicide sprays in the 220-ADD alert spray program were initiated 24 to 39  
380days later than in the calendar-based spray program, resulting in an overall  
381reduction of 33 % in the number of fungicide applications. Estimated local cost per  
382each fungicide application (including fungicide, machinery and personnel costs) in  
383the commercial orchards of our study ranged from 70 to 90 \$ per ha and  
384application (Marimon, *unpublished data*). Thus, the 220-ADD alert spray program  
385represents a valuable tool to optimize PPM control by reducing both production  
386and environmental costs.

387 Further validations would be needed to extrapolate the 220-ADD alert spray  
388program for PPM management to other cultivars and growing areas with different  
389environmental conditions. For instance, disease prediction could be adapted by  
390considering cultivar susceptibility and inoculum levels present in the orchard, as  
391they were also considered by Carisse et al. (2009) in the case of the grapevine  
392powdery mildew. Also, other variables might be considered in the current model in  
393addition to temperature. We aimed at describing the PPM progress by using a  
394simple model with few variables. Thus, we focused on air temperature as this

395variable is widely available and can be easily recorded at orchard level. Also, DSSs  
396based on this environmental variable are more accessible and easier to implement  
397by farmers (Jarvis et al. 2002). Despite of the potential advantages foreseen by the  
398implementation of the 220-ADD alert spray program, we assume that  
399epidemiological models including only one or few components of the disease cycle  
400may limit, to some extent, model transferability and consistency. Therefore, further  
401work is needed with PPM models including additional environmental predictors for  
402the primary and secondary infections on peach fruit. In this sense, the 220-ADD  
403operating threshold described here may be considered as the first component of a  
404future, more complete, DSS for powdery mildew control on peach.

405       Diversification of fungicides and usage of resistant cultivars are the main  
406management strategies used for powdery mildew management worldwide (Cao et  
407al. 2015; Wolfe 1984). Nowadays, epidemiological models and derived DSSs are  
408also important in integrated disease management. Combining the use of resistant  
409cultivars with effective DSSs would certainly reduce the amount of fungicides  
410applied while maintaining optimal disease control levels.

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529 Berkeley, CA.

## 530 TABLES

531

532 **Table 1.** Characteristics of the commercial orchards used in the study of the  
 533 disease progression of peach powdery mildew on fruit (2013-15), and the  
 534 commercial validation of the model to initiate the seasonal applications of  
 535 fungicides (2017).

Orchard no.	UTM Coordinates (WGS 84, 31 T)		Area (ha)	Crop	Cultivar	Rootstock	Tree spacing (m)	Symptom monitoring (years)	Commercial validation (year)
	X	Y							
1	287680	4602661	4.18	Nectarine	'Red Jim'	'GF-677'	5 x 3	2013-2015	
2	297674	4602928	0.95	Nectarine	'Red Jim'	'GF-677'	5 x 3	2013-2015	2017
3	289237	4613448	0.73	Peach	'Albesa Red'	'GF-677'	5 x 3	2013-2014	
4	288554	4613923	8.96	Platerine	'ASF 07.78'	'GF-677'	5 x 3	2015	
5	283489	4619988	1.00	Nectarine	'Venus'	'GF-677'	5 x 3	2013	
6	302991	4627916	6.96	Nectarine	'Nectareine'	'GF-677'	4.5 x 2.5	2014-2015	
7	287918	4597751	4.59	Nectarine	'Venus'	'GF-677'	5 x 3	2013-2014	
8	287141	4609517	3.71	Nectarine	'Autumn free'	'GF-677'	4.5 x 2.5	2013-2015	2017
9	287972	4603490	4.62	Nectarine	'Tarderina'	'GF-677'	5 x 2.9		2017
10	286696	4605773	4.14	Nectarine	'Independence'	'Garnem'	5 x 3		2017
11	289380	4612041	4.96	Nectarine	'Extreme Red'	'GF-677'	4 x 2		2017
12	282806	4614805	0.86	Nectarine	'Nectatinto'	'GF-677'	5 x 3		2017

536

537**Table 2.** Most relevant dates and accumulated degree days (ADD) values recorded  
 538during the commercial validation of the 220-ADD alert spray program for the  
 539control of peach powdery mildew in 2017 in six nectarine orchards.

Orchard no.	50% bloom date	Petals fall	220-ADD alert Pre-evaluation		Application at 220-ADD alert		Final evaluation	
			Date	ADD	Date	ADD	Date	ADD
2	8 Mar	15 Mar	21 Apr	214.9	22 Apr	219.4	9 Jun	654.2
8	7 Mar	13 Mar	18 Apr	207.9	21 Apr	222.7	9 Jun	636.3
9	7 Mar	15 Mar	19 Apr	228.6	20 Apr	232.8	8 Jun	675.2
10	7 Mar	29 Mar	21 Apr	213.5	22 Apr	219.4	12 Jun	648.4
11	9 Mar	21 Mar	21 Apr	222.7	20 Apr	216.9	12 Jun	758.9
12	8 Mar	30 Mar	24 Apr	208.1	27 Apr	217.8	8 Jun	572.8

540

541**Table 3.** Posterior distributions for the parameters ( $\beta_0, \beta_1$ ) of the beta regression  
 542model on the peach powdery mildew disease progression modelling for different  
 543orchards and years, including mean, 95% credibility interval and standard  
 544deviation.

Year	Orchard	$\beta_0$ (Intercept)				$\beta_1$ (ADD)			
		Mean	0.025 quant	0.975 quant	Std. deviation	Mean	0.025 quant	0.975 quant	Std. deviation
2013	1	-12.0	-16.9	-7.7	2.3	3.6	2.3	5.0	0.7
	2	-4.9	-6.2	-3.6	0.7	1.6	1.2	2.0	0.2
	3	-12.2	-18.0	-7.6	2.7	6.1	3.7	9.0	1.3
	5	-9.2	-12.5	-6.3	1.6	2.6	1.8	3.6	0.5
	7	-8.3	-11.5	-5.4	1.5	3.6	2.4	5.1	0.7
	8	-6.4	-9.3	-3.9	1.4	2.3	1.4	3.4	0.5
2014	1	-16.8	-24.2	-10.7	3.5	5.9	3.7	8.5	1.2
	2	-6.4	-8.0	-4.8	0.8	2.4	1.8	3.0	0.3
	6	-7.1	-10.0	-4.5	1.4	3.6	2.3	5.1	0.7
	7	-5.2	-7.0	-3.6	0.9	1.7	1.2	2.2	0.3
	8	-13.7	-19.2	-9.0	2.6	4.3	2.9	5.9	0.8
2015	1	-7.7	-10.7	-5.2	1.4	2.4	1.7	3.3	0.4
	6	-4.6	-6.2	-3.1	0.8	1.3	0.9	1.8	0.2
	8	-11.7	-17.2	-7.2	2.6	3.8	2.3	5.5	0.8

545

546**Table 4.** Accumulated degree-days calculated by the beta regression model for the  
 547studied orchards and years combinations when the incidence of peach powdery  
 548mildew in fruit was 0.01, 0.02, 0.05 and 0.1.

Year	Orchard	Disease incidence			
		0.01	0.02	0.05	0.1
2013	1	278.1	296.3	327.9	389.9
	2	107.2	138.0	181.0	230.0
	3	180.6	195.9	n.a.	n.a.
	5	246.1	264.1	293.4	327.5
	7	141.0	149.2	164.3	180.4
	8	166.4	187.0	221.6	261.6
<b>Mean 2013</b>		186.6	205.1	237.6	277.9
2014	1	255.7	267.6	291.2	n.a.
	2	131.2	146.7	177.6	208.4
	7	112.7	123.3	141.6	161.6
	6	260.0	271.2	291.6	315.0
	8	114.3	131.0	163.2	200.4
<b>Mean 2014</b>		174.8	188.0	213.0	221.4
2015	1	205.8	225.4	260.8	296.6
	6	270.4	290.8	336.0	n.a.
	8	150.4	188.4	257.7	333.0
<b>Mean 2015</b>		208.9	234.9	284.8	314.8
<b>Total means</b>		<b>187.1</b>	<b>205.4</b>	<b>239.1</b>	<b>264.0</b>

549n.a.: not applicable.

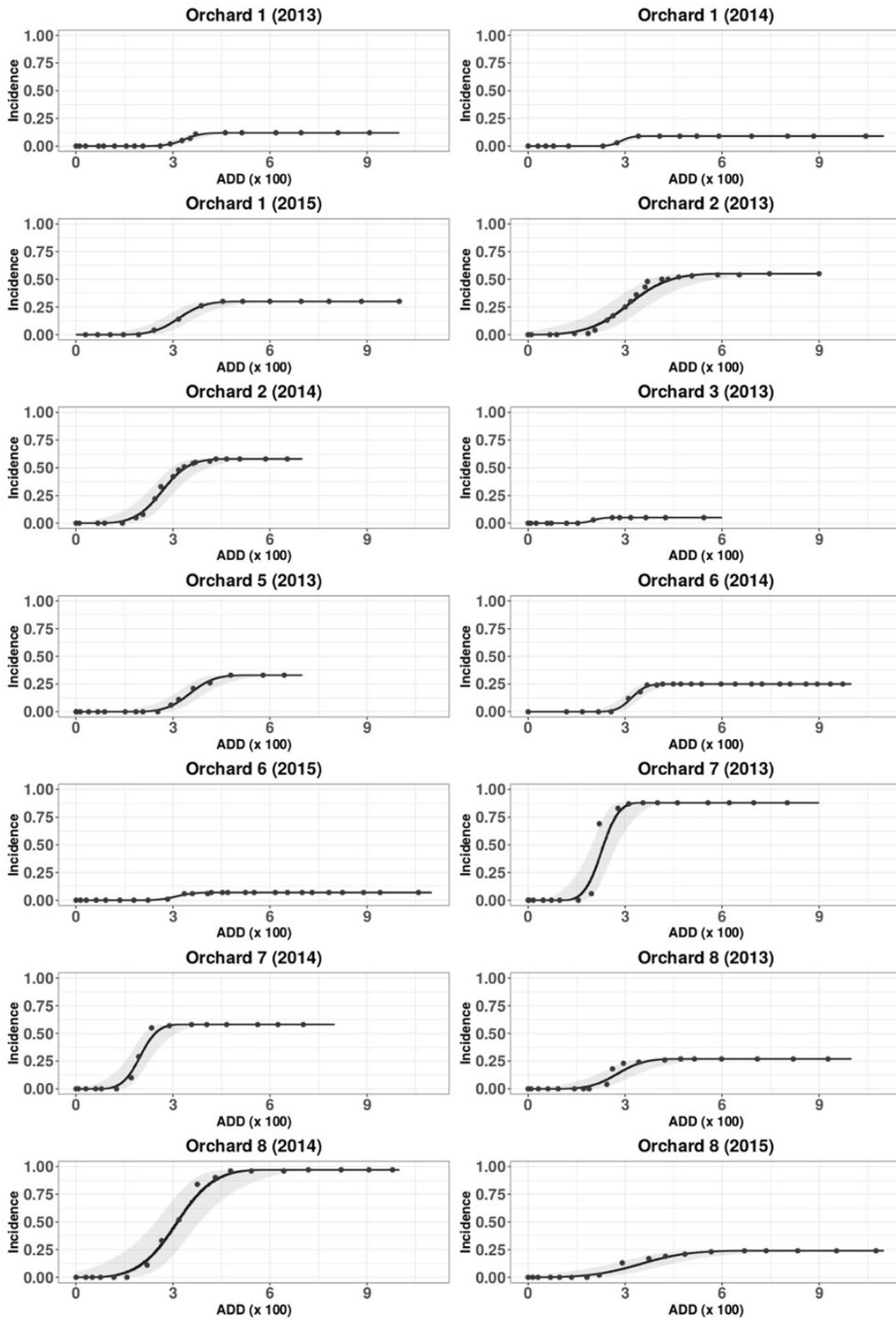
**550FIGURE CAPTIONS**

551**Figure 1.** Dynamics of peach powdery mildew incidence in fruit (solid dots) and  
552accumulated degree-days in the orchards evaluated from 2013 to 2015. Median  
553posterior distribution (solid line) and 95% credibility interval (shaded area) obtained  
554with the beta regression models.

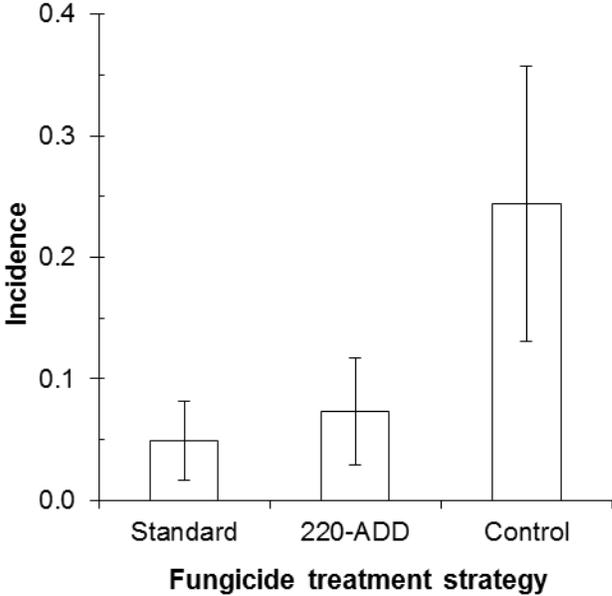
555

556**Figure 2.** Peach powdery mildew incidence obtained with a calendar-based  
557fungicide program, fungicide applications initiated after 220 accumulated degree  
558days (ADD), and a non-treated control evaluated in 2017 in a commercial  
559validation. Error bars stand for standard deviation of the mean

560Figure 1.



562Figure 2.



563

**564e-Xtras**

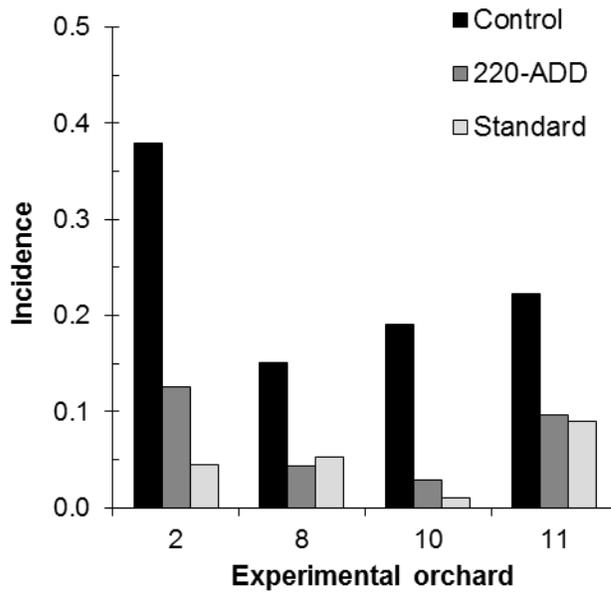
565**Supplementary Table S1.** Number of fungicide applications before and after the  
 566220-ADD threshold was reached in four experimental orchards evaluated for the  
 567model validation. The percentage of application reduction is indicated for each  
 568orchard.

Orchard no.	Applications		Application reduction (%)
	Before 220-ADD	After 220-ADD	
2	1	3	25.0
8	2	5	28.6
10	2	2	50.0
11	2	4	33.3
Total	7	14	33.3

569

570 **Supplementary Figure S1.** PPM incidence in four experimental orchards where  
571 three different calendar strategies for fungicide application were tested.

572



573