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ABOUT THE COVER

Our cover artist Beverly Bergemann features the logo for the new WGCSA initiative PAR 4 Research. The new fundraising program will raise funds for the turf research at UW-Madison.

"If you do not sow in the spring you will not reap in the autumn."
– Irish Proverb

As a new season dawns keep this proverb in mind to guide your decisions to ensure a prosperous fall.

THE GRASS ROOTS

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Spring Changes

By Brian Zimmerman, *WGCSA President*

Spring is here I think. By the time you're reading the latest issue of *The Grass Roots* I am hopeful that all of the snow has cleared and the grass is up and growing. The greater Milwaukee area has experienced many different types of weather over this winter season. Having talked with local superintendents there is some fear of ice damage on the playing surfaces. If this is indeed true, I wish all good luck bringing the courses back into top shape. I shutter thinking about what the courses and superintendents went thru just a few years ago. No course was more prominent than Brown Deer. Tim Wegner and the staff did an amazing job getting the course ready for the regular patrons and the PGA tour players. Here's to crossing our fingers and hoping the grass comes out alive and kicking.

Please consider the association's newest initiative PAR4Research. This new fundraising program is designed to fund sustainable turfgrass research at the University of Wisconsin-Madison. All auction proceeds will be donated to the Wisconsin Turfgrass Association for turfgrass and environmental research funding. To make this auction a success, we are asking all WGCSA members to secure a donation from your employer for the online auction. Golf rounds w/Carts will have the greatest value and should yield the greatest attention within the auction. Please consider donating for the future of turfgrass research at one of the finest universities in the nation. For more information visit the chapters web site at wgcsa.com or par4research.com. Items will be available starting April 21st, bidding begins May 2nd. Consider writing an article for you courses newsletter or local paper to explain the benefits of the program.

By the time you are reading this I will have started a new chapter in my families life and mine by taking the executive directors position of the Cleveland Metroparks. The system maintains and operates 7 golf courses with an Audubon certified First Tee Program. The Metroparks manages close to 22,000 acres most around riparian corridors. This park system places a high value on conservation, education and recreation.

I look forward to a great golf season wherever you are.

WGCSA Mission Statement

The Wisconsin Golf Course Superintendents Association is committed to serve each member by promoting the profession and enhancing the growth of the game of golf through education, communication and research.

WGCSA Vision Statement

The Wisconsin Golf Course Superintendent Association is dedicated to increase the value provided to its members and to the profession by:

- Enhancing the professionalism of its members by strengthening our role as a leading golf organization in the state.
- Growing and recognizing the benefits of a diverse membership throughout Wisconsin.
- Educating and promoting our members as leaders in environmental stewardship.
- Offering affordable, high value educational programs at the forefront of technology and service.
- Being key to enjoyment and the economic success of the game of golf.

Determining the Invasive Potential of Golf Course Grasses in Restored Prairies

By Dr. John Stier, *Professor and Chair, Department of Horticulture, University of Wisconsin-Madison*

The article "New NR40 Rule Targets Invasive Species" in the November/December 2009 issue of *The Grass Roots* discussed the Wisconsin DNR's new rule regarding invasive species in Wisconsin and outlined some of the UW-Madison's research efforts in that area. One of the complaints I consistently hear in my travels is that grasses like Kentucky bluegrass are invasive in prairie restoration efforts. One thing to keep in mind is that we don't live in the same type of environment as existed 200 years ago. Almost all land area east of the Mississippi has been plowed or logged, then replanted with non-indigenous plants. Wildfires don't occur. Animal populations have changed. Wetlands have been drained, former prairie areas tiled. We now often actively manage "natural" areas. We do know that proper timing of burning and other management practices, coupled with other management practices (e.g., preventing over-grazing), influence the presence of non-native grasses in prairie ecosystems (Mitchell et al., 1996). In some cases the presence of non-native grasses in natural areas is due to their intentional planting at some point in the past (Tunnell et al., 2004; Garrison et al., 2009). Roads and trails promote the presence of turfgrasses in natural areas, perhaps as they spread from being planted along the roadsides (Tyser and Worley, 1992). In Wisconsin, botanists from UW-Madison reported an apparent and dramatic increase of either Kentucky or Canada bluegrass in 10

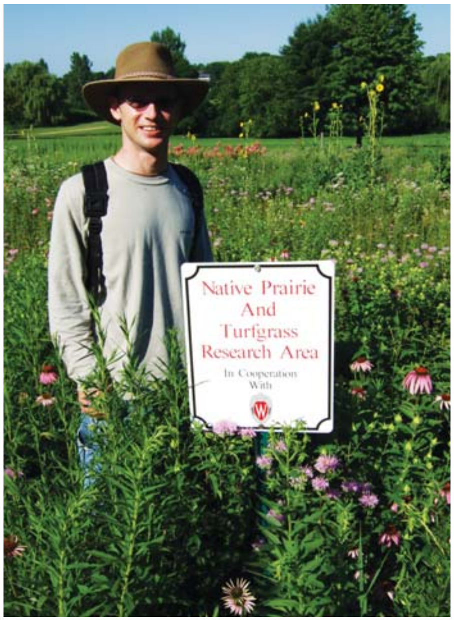


Fig. 1. Mark Garrison and prairie research site.

remnant prairie sites (Kraszewski and Waller, 2008). One important set of questions, though, has to do with determining how the non-native grasses arrive in natural areas, and how likely are they to thrive?

My graduate student Mark Garrison and I set out to determine the relative seed survival of turfgrass seeds compared to seeds of native grasses. We also wanted to know, if turfgrasses were able to establish in a prairie ecosystem, their likelihood for survival and spread.

How We Tested Seed Viability and Grass Colony Spread

One of the first things we did was locate prairies on golf courses in different parts of the state, with similar soil types and prairie ages, for us to conduct our work. We wanted prairies that had been established by people rather than prairie remnants because the history of most prairie remnants is not well known. We wanted the sites to be on golf courses because we would need full access to the site, and because we would need some on-site assistance (e.g., management records, use of golf carts, etc.). Scott Sann, superintendent of Greenwood Hills Country Club in Wausau, and Andrew Putzer, superintendent of Monroe Country Club in Monroe, both enthusiastically agreed to help us use prairies that had been planted on their golf courses (Fig. 1). The prairie areas at Monroe CC were planted in 1991 using a mixture of about 80% forbs and 20% prairie grasses. At Greenwood Hills CC, the prairie areas were planted in 1993 using a similar seed mixture. The soil type at both sites was a silt loam soil, with pH about 6.5 and sufficiently high phosphorus and potassium soil test results for turfgrasses.

Our first experiment was aimed at determining seed survival in prairie ecosystems. Most seed survival experiments place seeds in jars, bury them in the ground, then exhume the jars at different times to determine the number of seeds which survive. We felt it was important to place the seeds in a more natural state, though, as in nature seeds are subject to attack by fungi and other microbes plus toxins and other secretions from plant roots. In order to allow seeds to be influenced by these environmental factors, yet prevent them from being carried away or consumed by insects and ensure we could find them at later dates, we placed 100 seeds of a given grass species into nylon mesh bags, along with soil from each site, and buried them in the prairies at a 2 inch depth. Road construction flags, about 4 inches tall, were placed along with a small metal plate above each bag to help us locate them in the future. Bags were exhumed at 6, 12, and 22 months after planting. Seed viability was determined by the Wisconsin Crop Improvement lab. A combination of seed germination tests and tetrazolium staining on ungerminated seeds were used to distinguish viable, dormant, and dead seeds. We compared several non-native turfgrass species such as Kentucky bluegrass (*Poa pratensis* cv. Touchdown) and creeping bentgrass (*Agrostis stolonifera* cv. Penneagle) to three native tallgrass prairie species, switchgrass (*Panicum virgatum*), big bluestem (*Andropogon gerardii*), and Virginia wildrye (*Elymus virginicus*).

For our second experiment, we grew colonies of turfgrasses, from seed, in plastic tubes (1.5 inch diameter by 6 inches length) in a greenhouse during summer of 2006. The soil type was a 2:1 mixture of autoclaved (pasteurized) silt loam soil and Scotts Metro-Mix. The grasses were fertilized and watered to prevent stress; bentgrasses were kept clipped to a height of 2 inches while the other grasses were maintained at 3 inch height. Grasses included 'Touchdown' Kentucky bluegrass, 'Providence' creeping bengrass, 'Legendary' velvet bentgrass (*A. canina*), 'SR5210' creeping red fescue (*Festuca rubra* var. *rubra*), 'SR5100' Chewings fescue (*F. rubra* var. *commutata*), and 'SR4500' perennial ryegrass (*Lolium perenne*). Other turfgrasses were also tested , but not reported here

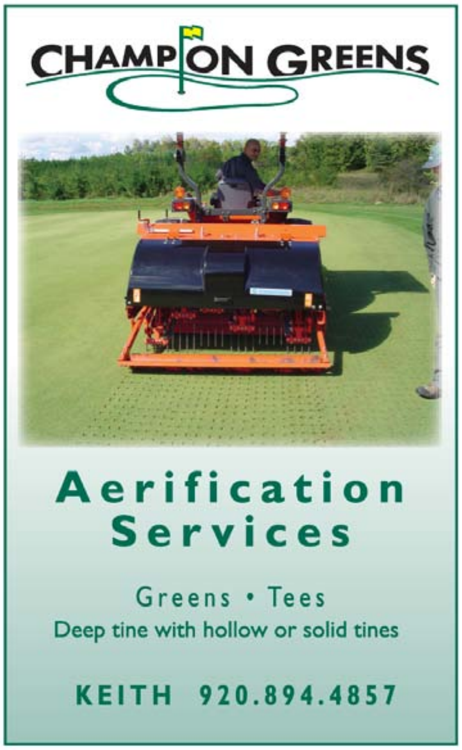


Fig. 2. Kentucky bluegrass colony in prairie after being chewed to ground level by unknown animal.

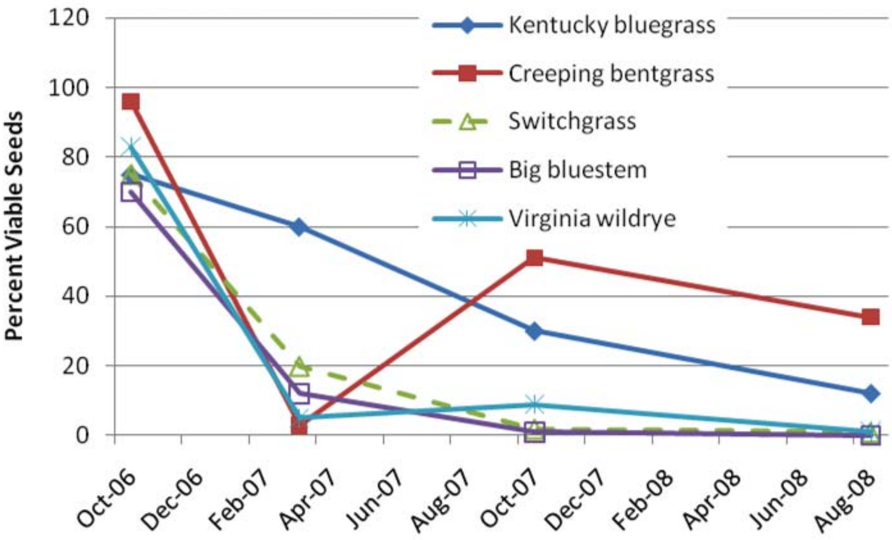


Fig. 3. Survival of non-native grass seed (Kentucky bluegrass, creeping bentgrass) and native grass seed when buried in prairie ecosystems in Wausau and Monroe, WI. Standard errors for comparing between species were reported in Garrison and Stier, 2010.

for spatial reasons or because they are less relevant for Wisconsin golf courses. Those data are available in Garrison and Stier (2010).

In early September, we moved the grass colonies outside to the O.J. Noer Turfgrass Research and Educational Facility to let the plants acclimate to climatic fluctuations, including less water, to prepare them for planting into prairies. In early October, we placed colonies of each turfgrass species about 6 feet apart into prairie sites on the golf courses. Within 48 hours we found all the grasses at Monroe had been chewed to ground level (Fig. 2), so we placed metal screens (4 inch diameter by 6 inch height) used for downspouts over each colony at both locations to reduce the effects of herbivores on turfgrass survival. The screens were removed during the late spring as prairie vegetation began growing and replaced late each summer as prairie vegetation began to senesce (die). We visited the sites about once each month for two years and measured the lateral spread of the grass colonies.

Seed Survival

Seed viability of all species was roughly similar at the beginning, ranging from about 75 to 95% viability (Fig. 3). Viability for all species declined over time. Seeds of the native grasses had very poor survival rates, becoming effectively zero between 12 and 22 months. Creeping bentgrass had about 35% seed survival after 22 months (low survival at 6 months appeared to be an anomaly), while just over 10% of Kentucky bluegrass seed remained viable at 22 months.

The poor survival of native grass species relative to the turfgrasses provide evidence that turfgrasses may generate in restored prairie sites if their seed had fallen or been planted into the soil within the previous two to three years. The data suggest that prairie restoration success could likely be ensured if an area containing turfgrasses was prevented from seeding for a couple of years. Timely application of systemic herbicides such as glyphosate that can kill stolons and rhizomes would appear to be helpful to ensure turfgrasses don't revegetate from those types of organs.

Grass Colony Spread

Grass colonies at Monroe all showed a bimodal (2 peak) growth and decline phases, with up to 400% spread in spring of the first year followed by a decline to at or below the initial colony size later that summer (Fig. 4). Colonies experienced a smaller scale regrowth the following spring, but usually declined to at or near zero by the second autumn. Some species like perennial ryegrass failed completely.

In Wausau, similar declines occurred for Kentucky bluegrass, creeping bentgrass, and perennial ryegrass (Fig. 5). Surprisingly, the colony size of velvet bentgrass increased, while fine fescue colony sizes stayed roughly the same over the two year period.

The loss of colony size for most grasses appeared to be due to a combination of herbivory and summer stress. We never saw which animals were eating the turfgrasses, though turkey and rabbits were abundant. Summer stresses, including drought and heat, would

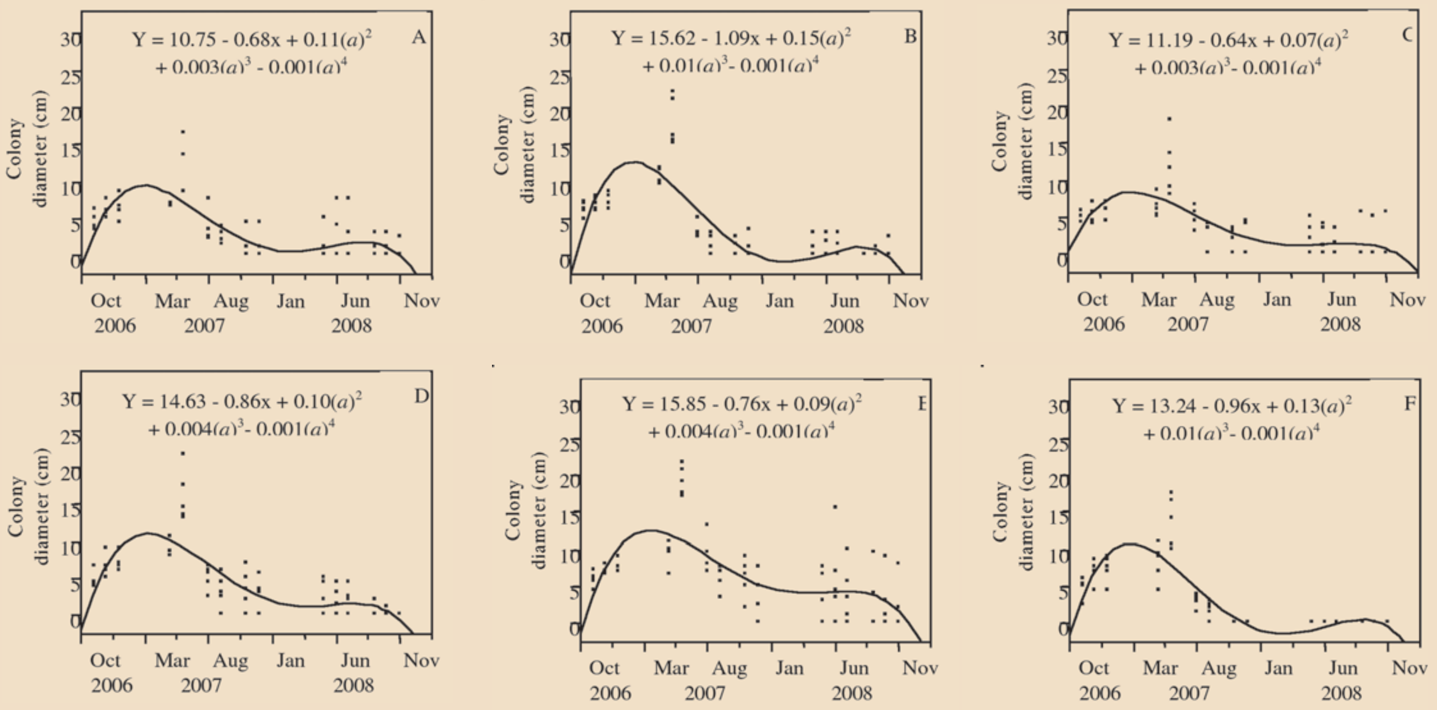
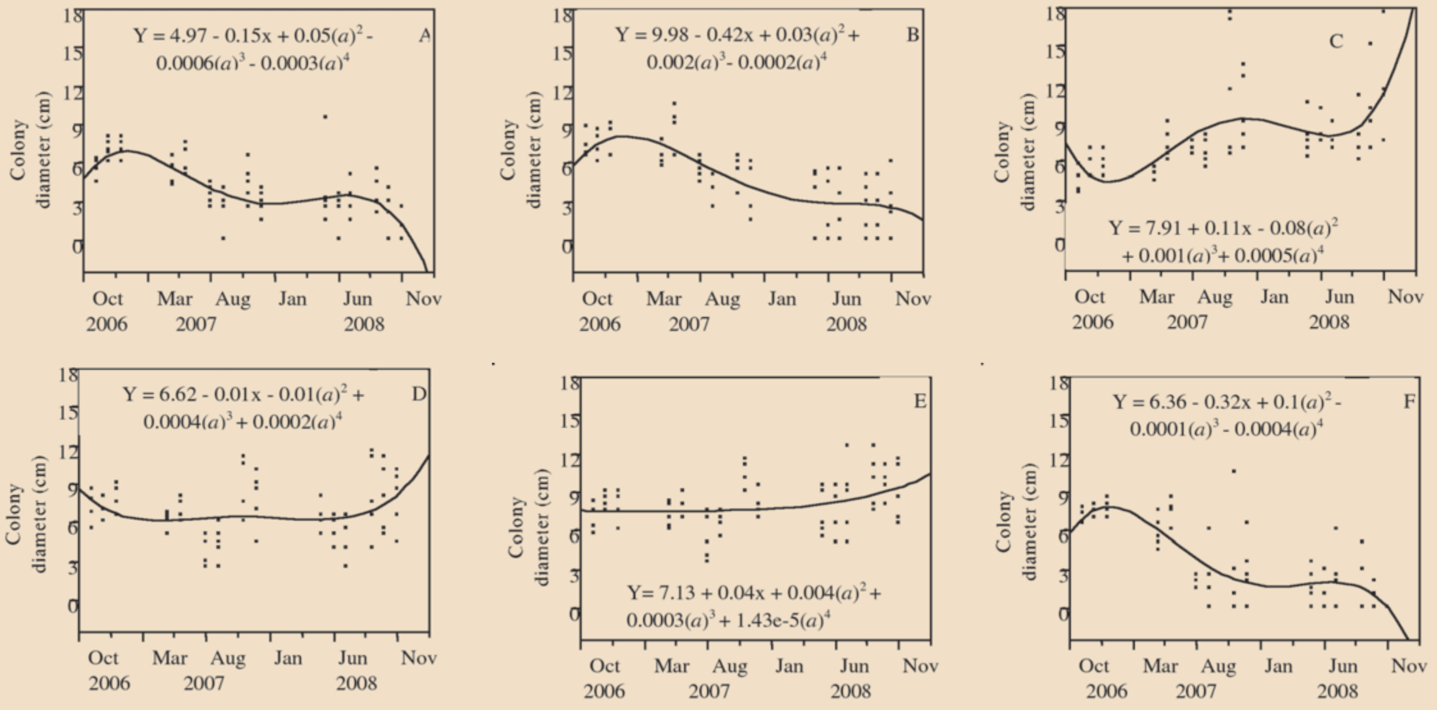


Fig. 4. Turfgrass colony diameter changes after placement in 15-yr old prairie, Monroe Country Club, Monroe, WI. A='Touchdown' Kentucky bluegrass, B = 'Providence' creeping bentgrass, C = 'Legendary' velvet bentgrass, D = 'SR5210' creeping red fescue, E = 'SR5100' Chewings fescue, and F = 'SR4500' perennial ryegrass. For all regression equations, a = x-13.4; convert months into numbers with Oct. 2005 being zero (e.g., Aug. 2007 would be 10).



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have suppressed turfgrasses. Shading by prairie plants during the summer was likely a major factor in the poor growth of the turfgrasses. At Wausau, the survival of velvet bentgrass and the fine fescues may have been due to their superior drought and shade tolerances. It is also important to note that both red fescue and velvet bentgrass are deemed by some ecologists and taxonomists as native to the U.S. or at least to North America.

The Meaning of Our Work

The superior seed survival of the turfgrasses relative to the native grasses indicates that turfgrasses may be better able to establish in untended prairie plantings. However, herbivores seemed to preferentially eat the turfgrasses as compared to the prairie plantings. In addition, the turfgrasses were susceptible to environmental stresses, some of which were caused by the prairie plants themselves, culminating in poor survival for non-native turfgrasses. Thus, unless turfgrass seed was routinely introduced into a prairie restoration site, it appears unlikely that turfgrasses would dominate. Since we do occasionally find bluegrasses in Wisconsin prairie sites, however, future work should determine if those plants are indeed Kentucky bluegrass or other species of bluegrass (e.g., Canada bluegrass), some of which are native to the U.S. Additional work is also needed to further examine influences that facilitate the survival or spread of turfgrasses into prairie sites or other natural areas. In the short term, our project provided useful information to ensure grasses such as perennial ryegrass and creeping bentgrass were not placed on the Wisconsin DNR invasive species list. Other grasses like Kentucky bluegrass and tall fescue are still being considered for listing. Outside of Wisconsin, virtually all of the cool-season turfgrasses have been placed on one or more invasive species lists, so the education and research have to continue if we are to make accurate listings.

Acknowledgements

We express sincere thanks for Andrew Putzer and Scott Sann for their assistance and allowing us to use their prairie sites for our project. We are also grateful to Heidi Larsen at Wisconsin Crop Improvement Association for her seed viability testing and to L.L. Olds Seed Co. for donating seed. Funding for the project was supplied by a University of Wisconsin-College of Agricultural and Life Sciences and Federal Hatch grant (WIS01092).

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What is ELISA, and Why You Should Care?

By Paul Koch, *Turfgrass Diagnostic Lab,* **Dr. Jim Kerns,** *Assistant Professor, Deaprtment of Pathology, University of Wisconsin-Madison*

What happens to pesticides after they are applied? It's a tricky question that has multiple implications affecting both those that apply pesticides and those that do not. A person not familiar with pesticide usage might immediately think of the environmental implications such as environmental fate and the affect on non-target organisms. Turfgrass managers who require effective disease control to retain employment might immediately think of the length of efficacy provided. For instance, if one knew that an effective concentration allowed for an additional two weeks of control beyond the recommended interval without reapplying the pesticide then they would be foolish to reapply. Most managers, though, are unwilling or consider it foolish to take that risk without proof the fungicide is present. Thinking ahead to increased pesticide regulation, the time may come where pesticide applications are treated the same as phosphorus fertilizer applications are in Wisconsin. That is to say, a need for the pesticide application must be proven before the application can be made.

There are currently a couple options for measuring the fungicide currently present on and in the plant. Currently the most common method for determining pesticide residues in plants is gas chromatography along with mass spectrometry or flame ionized detection. This method is usually very accurate, but also costly and time consuming (Watanabe *et al.*, 2006). High performance light chromatography is also used for the purpose of measuring fungicide concentration, but cost and time are also a significant drawback. These two methods are usually used by most pesticide labs that investigate pesticide contamination.

A technique that has been developed more recently for detecting pesticide residues in plants and other media is called enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA). This is certainly not a new method, as it was initially developed in the 1970's for the rapid detection of parasites in the populations of developing nations (Anonymous, 1976). It is also a technology you have almost certainly been exposed to or are aware of. Probably the most common public use of the ELISA method is with the home pregnancy test (Fletcher, 1986). They are also widely used in pharmaceutical development to detect for increases or decreases in body function in response to different drugs (Bai *et al.*, 2010). Medical research uses ELISA to measure the presence of certain proteins in the blood and other organs (Kaefferlein *et al.*, 2010). A more recent extension of the ELISA method has been to measure pesticide residues in groundwater, on plants, and in food residues (Giersch, 1993; Gabaldon *et al.*, 1999; Shankle *et al.*, 2001).

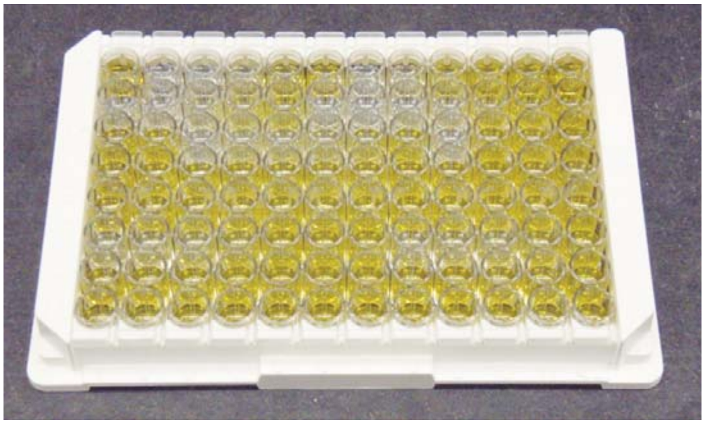

Figure 1: An ELISA test upon completion. The varying colors in the individual wells represent the varying concentrations of the pesticide tested for. This particular test was completed in the Department of Plant Pathology at UW-Madison for the presence of iprodione.

ELISA has also been used extensively in turfgrass research the past twenty years. Identification of fungal species, especially the difficult root diseases, were developed in the early 1990's (Nameth *et al.*, 1990; Fidanza and Dernoeden, 1995). Presence of specific proteins and cytokinin levels in the plant can be measured using ELISA that offer clues into the turfgrass plant's response to stresses (Zhang and Ervin, 2004; Huang and Wang, 2005; Luciani *et al.*, 2007). Detecting endophyte activity is another use of ELISA in turfgrass (Johnson, 1983).

ELISA works in much the same way a vaccine works by taking advantage of the mammalian system's immune response. When a foreign compound enters the body it is met with an immediate response that triggers an immune response. Part of that immune response is the production of cells called antibodies that specifically bind to that compound. These antibodies are long lasting cells that are meant to immediately recognize the presence of the compound again, and it can trigger an immediate and effective response. Specific antibodies are produced for measles and mumps when the vaccine is administered during infancy, and offer protection against these diseases throughout a person's entire life should the disease