Growing Chiles in New Mexico
Guide H-230

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THE CHILE PLANT
Chiles (Capsicum) have been grown in New Mexico for at least four centuries. However, since 1970 chile has become an important cash crop for farmers. In 2002, almost 17,000 acres were harvested in New Mexico. Most chiles are grown under contract and sold to processors. Processors prefer mildly pungent chiles. Several different and distinct processors operate in New Mexico, depending on the type of chile handled. For example, New Mexico-type green chile is peeled, then canned or frozen. The product is packed as a whole or diced product. Red chile is usually harvested in the red ripe, partially dried stage. The red product is further dehydrated at the processor, then either packaged as dried whole pods, flakes or powder. Paprika is nonpungent red chile that is usually highly pigmented. About 15% of the paprika crop is processed to produce a red, oleoresin colorant through extraction of the colored pigments. Cayenne peppers are a pungent type that are picked in the red succulent stage, and undergo a salt fermentation at processing plants as the primary step in conversion to hot sauce. Jalapeños are usually pickled and packed whole or sliced. Chiles for local sales are a relatively small part of total commercial chile acreage, but chile is a good cash crop for some small growers. Dried red chiles can be strung on ristras for ornamental and culinary use.

VARIETIES AND CULTIVARS
Many types of chile are grown in New Mexico. These include New Mexico type, cayenne, paprika and jalapeños. New Mexico type cultivars include ‘New Mexico 6-4’, ‘NuMex Big Jim’, ‘Sandia’, ‘NuMex R Naky’, ‘NuMex Conquistador’, ‘NuMex Joe E. Parker’, and ‘Arizona-20’. Processors usually dictate specific varieties of chile that must be planted for their contracts. Many of these varieties, especially in the red chile and paprika industries, are proprietary lines developed specifically for or by the processor. Yield, disease resistance, adaptability and market acceptance should be considered if the choice of variety is at the grower’s discretion. A good source of information on these and other New Mexico State University cultivars is “The Chile Cultivars of New Mexico State University—released from 1913-1993,” New Mexico State University, Research Report 719.

PREPARING THE LAND
To help prevent disease, and provide productive chile crops, rotate chile with wheat, barley, oats, corn, alfalfa, sudan grass and cotton. Do not plant chile in the same field more than once every 2 years.

A deep, well-drained, medium-textured sandy loam (or loam soil) is best for producing chiles. Good yields often result from planting chiles in a place that contained a flood-irrigated crop the previous year. Laser level the field at a grade of 0.01 to 0.03% in one or both directions. This drains the field of extra water, reducing the risk of root diseases.

Preparing soil involves plowing, deep chiseling, discing, smoothing and listing. Form listed beds by scalping the top of the ridge with a drag harrow. Irrigate the field 2 to 4 weeks before planting. Plant chile seed before the soil dries.

FERTILIZING
In New Mexico, nutrients normally used on chiles are nitrogen and phosphorus. A soil test determines nitrogen, phosphorus and micronutrient needs. The Plant, Soil, and Water Testing Laboratory at New Mexico State University can determine nutrient needs, pH, salt E.C., and sodium level.

Broadcast the first nitrogen application and all the phosphorus before discing or listing. Band nutrients either when seed is planted or after seedlings have emerged. Phosphorus helps young seedlings grow, especially when the soil warms in spring. Phosphorus is not needed if levels of soil phosphorus are between medium and medium-low, based on the New Mexico State University analysis system (Guide A-122, Soil Test Interpretation, Cooperative Extension Service, New Mexico State University). Add 50 to 100 lbs. of P₂O₅ per acre before discing if levels are lower. Alternatively, band phosphorus (30 lbs. of P₂O₅ per acre), 3 to 4 inches below the seed.

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Preplant nitrogen also generates vigorous seedling growth, which ensures a well-branched plant by the first fruit set. Preplant nitrogen is not needed if a soil test shows the soil has 20 ppm nitrate or more. Broadcast 20 to 30 lbs. of actual nitrogen per acre before discing if nitrogen is needed. Otherwise, band nitrogen (2 to 5 lbs. per acre), 3 to 4 inches below the seed.

Apply a steady supply of nitrogen to the plant during fruit set to produce greater yields. New M exico growers often use 150 lbs. of urea per acre when plants are thinned. While plants develop first fruits, analyze plant tissue samples to keep nitrate concentrations in the plant stem and petiole between 7,000 and 8,000 ppm.

Post-emergence nitrogen fertilization depends partly on whether the crop will be picked at the mature green stage or if it will be picked at the mature red stage. Normally, a mature green chile crop requires more nitrogen, particularly when second-harvest fruits develop. Apply a sidedress of 20 to 30 lbs. of nitrogen per acre in mid-June, when primary and secondary floral buds are evident and plants are 8 to 10 inches tall, and again in early July when many first-set fruits develop. Apply fertilizer in a continuous band, 4 inches to the side of the bed, 2 to 3 inches below the surface. Alternatively, liquid fertilizer solutions can be added to irrigation water.

High-yielding or early-setting crops may benefit from a third nitrogen application. However, too much nitrogen can over-stimulate growth, producing large plants with few early fruits. During high rainfall and humidity, extra nitrogen de-stimulates growth, producing large plants with few early fruits. During high rainfall and humidity, extra nitrogen de-

ROW SPACING AND PLANT POPULATION

The most common row widths in New Mexico are 30 to 40 inches. Growers often select row spacing to conform with requirements of other farm-rotation, row crops. Narrow row spacing can result in higher yields.

Thin the plants when they are actively growing, about 2 to 4 inches tall, and have two to four true leaves. Delay thinning to ensure a good plant stand if losses due to curly top virus, damping-off and salt injury are anticipated. New Mexico type green chile, cayenne and jalapeños are usually thinned to single plants spaced 10 to 12 inches apart. Red chile and paprika are typically thinned to clumps of 2 or 3 plants spaced 6 to 8 inches apart.

TRANSPLANTING

Transplanting chile seedlings was common before 1940. Currently, most commercial chile acreage in New Mexico is directly seeded. Transplants are being tried again to promote earliness or when expensive hybrid seed is used.

Transplanting has some advantages. It guarantees a well-distributed stand of plants, reduces seed costs and thinning costs, and requires less cultivation and irrigation. The slightly older transplants are also less susceptible to salt damage than young, direct-seeded plants. Such economies help offset transplant and field-setting costs.

Transplants are shorter than direct-seeded plants and have more branches. This can be detrimental when long fruits touch the soil, increasing the possibility of pod rot. Because of the affect on plant habit and a less secure root system, transplants are not as well adapted to machine harvest as direct-seeded stands. Anticipated benefits of earliness and higher yields are not consistent, so growers should consider other factors (seed amount, thinning costs, water amount and late planting opportunities) to decide whether to transplant.

Transplant 5- to 6-week-old plants that are 6 to 8 inches tall; space them 10 inches apart in the row. Retain as many roots as possible before lifting the transplant. Apply a high-phosphorus starter solution to the soil during transplanting to aid in establishment.
CULTIVATING
Shallow cultivation controls weeds and increases soil aeration. Consult your county agent or NMSU Extension weed specialist for additional information concerning application of herbicide treatments.

FRUIT SET AND DEVELOPMENT
Chile plants usually start flowering in mid-June in southern New Mexico, with a single flower at the first branching node. Plants flower later in northern areas. Flower number doubles with each extra node. Fruits from early flowers are usually large and have greater red color content at maturity. Fruits do not set when mean temperatures are below 60°F or above 90°F. However, flowers drop when night temperatures are above 75°F. Fruit set may be stalled if temperatures rise above 90°F after several flowers have set and fruits are developing. This causes a split in the fruit setting continuum and is called a split-set. Early yield is determined by fruits developing before the onset of hot weather. Delay in fruit set can reduce yields. It also causes fruit to set high on the plant, which makes plants more prone to wind damage as they mature.

Chiles usually grow to full pod length in 4 to 5 weeks; pod weight increases as fruit walls thicken. Fruit normally reaches the mature green stage 35 to 50 days after the plants flower.

PEST AND DISEASE CONTROL
Flea beetles, thrips, leafhoppers and aphids can infest seedling that were planted early and reduce stands. Plants can die directly from insect injury or indirectly from viral diseases. An insecticide applied to the crop before, during or after planting can reduce insect damage.

The Food and Drug Administration has increased restrictions of chemical residues in food products. Read the label before using any pesticide. Do not use any chemical, whether it is an herbicide, insecticide, nematocide or fungicide, if it is not labeled for chiles. All large processors have sample chile fields to ensure that there are no traces of non-approved chemicals and that residues of substances allowed for chiles are within acceptable limits. Consult the county agent or a New Mexico State University specialist before using the chemical if there is any doubt.

Root-knot nematodes can cause serious yield losses. The only nematode known to damage chiles in New Mexico is the southern root-knot nematode, M. dolygonoe incognita. Take a soil sample as described in Extension publication 400-W9, “How to take a Nematode Sample,” if a problem is suspected. The samples can be processed at the New Mexico Department of Agriculture. Again, the county agent or a New Mexico State University specialist can assist with control measures.

Common diseases that infect chile in New Mexico include Phytophthora root rot, Phytophthora foliar blight, Verticillium wilt, Rhizoctonia root rot, various viruses and bacterial leaf spot. A good resource publication on chile disease is “Chile Disease Control,” Extension Guide H-219.

Chile root rot disease, caused by the water mold Phytophthora capsici, is a major disease in New Mexico. Often called chile wilt, it differs from vascular wilts caused by Verticillium dahliae and Fusarium oxysporum. Large plants wilt and die, leaving brown stalks and leaves, and small, poor-quality fruits. The disease is most common in overwatered areas such as low spots, heavy soils, lower end (tails) of sloping fields or upper ends (heads) of long fields. Drain the field quickly to avoid infection. Avoid overwatering to reduce incidence of this disease. Drip irrigation is a method that can be used to avoid overwatering.

No approved chemical control for Phytophthora root rot exists. However, one cultural-control measure is cultivating roots are grown on a high ridge after the last cultivation (Garcia, 1908). Limit row length to roughly 600 feet when planting on prone sites, which avoids overwatering soil at the upper end. In addition, New Mexico State University plant geneticists are breeding plants for tolerance to this disease.

Another potential problem is Verticillium wilt disease, caused by a soil-borne fungus, Verticillium dahliae. This is a serious problem in some New Mexico fields. Crop rotation with a small-grain crop reduces the risk.

Viral diseases can also be a problem. Curly top virus, tomato spotted wilt virus, alfalfa mosaic virus, and pepper mottle virus all occur in New Mexico (Rodriguez-
Alvarado, G. et al., 2002). Aphids and leafhoppers are carriers of the viruses. Maintaining weed-free fields reduces incidence of virus by eliminating harborage for the insect carriers. Remove all Jimson weed, Datura stramonium L., within 1 mile of the field to help control pepper mottle virus. Avoid fields close to alfalfa to reduce alfalfa mosaic virus infection.

Pod rots can result in serious losses, especially in rainy and humid conditions. Infection is even more likely to occur when plants are large and lush, and when foliage from other rows overlaps. Although fungicides provide some control, use methods that avoid over-stimulation of growth. Use defoliants that control pod rot, late in the season to help accelerate maturity and dry plants.

Blossom-end rot is a physiological disorder that appears as a dry, leathery-like, elongated, brown-to-black spot on the lower half of developing fruit. Blemishes range from 1/4 inch spots to 2-to-3 inch-long elongated spots. Pods affected with blossom-end rot usually ripen prematurely. The disease appears when plants with rapidly developing fruit become stressed for water, and sufficient calcium cannot be transported to ripening pods. Irrigate when necessary during rapid-pod development to control the disease.

Harvesting

New Mexican type green chile and cayenne peppers are harvested by hand. Many of the jalapeños and about 80% of the red chile and paprikas are machine-harvested. An ideal mature green pod of the New Mexican-type feels firm when squeezed and is flat (has two cells), smooth, thick-fleshed, bluntly pointed and about 6 to 7 inches long. A good harvest of green, de-stemmed fruit ranges from 14 to 17 tons per acre. Green chile fields are often picked more than once during the season. Allow a few pods in the field to begin turning red, which is called the pinto stage, before the first harvest. This will increase the overall green chile yield. An ideal red pod is large (to facilitate harvesting), disease- and blemish-free, and high in red color content. Dry red yields average 3,500 lbs. per acre in southern New Mexico. Red chile is usually mechanically harvested once at season’s end.

Early planted chiles will make one early-August, green harvest, and the field can then mature for dry red harvest after frost. Red yields after a green harvest range from 65 to 100% of a full red crop; however, the quality of the red crop is typically reduced. In addition, a chile variety grown for green production may not be acceptable to a red chile processor. Alternatively, green chiles can be harvested a second time about 4 or 5 weeks after the first harvest. After the second harvest, if the season is favorable, a third set of fruits will develop and mature before frost. However, the fruits are usually small and poorly colored and may not be worth harvesting.

Although red fruit shape and size are less important for dry products, they need at least 120 ASTA (American Spice Trade Association) color units. If harvest is too early, some pods will be immature and maximum color will not have developed.

The ideal harvest time for red chile is early October, although timing of the pick is usually dictated by the processor in accordance with production needs at the processing plant. Highest quality is obtained when most pods are mature, partially dry and a frost has not yet occurred. If a harsh freeze occurs when red pods are succulent, pod cells rupture, causing sap leakage inside the pod. This leakage causes mold to develop, reducing quality and yield.

Defoliants or desiccants, such as sodium chlorate, are often used to both accelerate fruit drying during wet weather and aid in harvesting. Ethephon® as a ripening enhancer may defoliate, as well as hasten, maturity. This chemical will also increase color of red chiles that are harvested before frosts.

Literature Cited


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