

## Citation

Olita, H. and Sung, B. and Hooper, B. and Cao, Z. and Lopez-Ruiz, F. and Gibberd, M. 2023. The socio-economic impact of fungicide resistance in West Australia's Wheatbelt. *Advances in Agronomy*. 180. <http://doi.org/10.18408/ahuri-8111101>

# The socio-economic impact of fungicide resistance in West Australia's Wheatbelt

Harriet Toto Olita<sup>a</sup>, Billy Sung<sup>a,b</sup>, Bethany Hooper<sup>a</sup>, Zhanglong Cao<sup>a</sup>, Fran Lopez-Ruiz<sup>a</sup>,  
Mark Gibberd<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup>*Centre for Crop and Disease Management, Curtin University, Bentley, Western Australia 6102*

<sup>b</sup>*Consumer Research Lab, Curtin University, Bentley, Western Australia 6102*

---

## Abstract

Farming is a risky business, demanding daily decisions on farm input expenditure and best practices while operating in an uncertain climate. One of these decisions regards agro-chemical inputs for disease control, a decision increasingly challenged by fungicide resistance for many pathogens of agricultural significance. To understand disease management decision-making and the importance of fungicide resistance, we surveyed 137 barley growers from West Australia's Wheatbelt. On average, this group spent \$42/ha on fungicide application. Our survey found that growers were willing to invest an additional \$18/ha to delay resistance of the pathogen to fungicides. Qualitative data show that barley growers perceive fungicide resistance as a growing issue in the region with a significant economic and emotional impact. Growers also expressed concern that fungicide resistance could become a long-term threat to the sustainability of their agribusiness. This study demonstrates that understanding growers' financial motivations and the economics of plant diseases is vital.

*Keywords:* Mode of action, Net blotch of barley, Pesticide, Return on investment, Sustainable agriculture.

*JEL:* D24 D81 D83 D91 Q16.

---

## 1 Introduction

Net blotches of barley are considered economically significant diseases due to their ability to cause yield losses of between 10 to 40 percent. In situations where susceptible varieties are grown, control measures fail or are not adequately implemented and environmental conditions

27 favour pathogen growth, the disease can lead to crop failure. Additionally, net blotches can  
28 also cause substantial quality losses leading to grain downgrades (Liu et al., 2011; McLean  
29 et al., 2010; Murray and Brennan, 2010; Jayasena et al., 2007). A study by Murray and  
30 Brennan (2010) evaluated the economic impact of crop diseases in Australia. The study  
31 revealed that spot form net blotch (SFNB), the most common foliar disease affecting barley  
32 in Western Australia, caused an average annual loss of \$43 million to the Australian barley  
33 industry with a potential annual loss of over \$300 million attributed to both SFNB and net  
34 form net blotch (NFNB) if the diseases were not well managed. Since barley contributes  
35 about \$3 billion per annum to the Australian economy (ABARES, 2021; ABS, 2020), it is  
36 important to effectively manage disease epidemics to minimise the risk of undesired economic  
37 outcomes.

38 The extent of losses due to net blotches has led to the adaptation of different disease man-  
39 agement strategies. These include cultural practices such as crop rotations and stubble man-  
40 agement, planting resistant varieties, and using fungicides (Turkington et al., 2012; Walters  
41 et al., 2012; Stuthman et al., 2007; Liu et al., 2011). However, the rate of infection will  
42 depend on factors such as host genetics, environmental conditions and disease management  
43 interventions (Newlands, 2018; Ishii and Hollomon, 2015; Cooke, 2006; Anderson et al., 2004).  
44 Carlson (1970) noted that a grower’s disease management decision is often complex and needs  
45 to consider the probability of disease development in the absence of perfect information.

46 Given that fungicide is the main method of controlling NFNB in barley, due to their low  
47 cost and effectiveness against a range of pathogens, it is common for growers to prophylac-  
48 tically apply fungicides to crops in order to insure themselves against the negative impacts  
49 associated with crop disease (van den Berg et al., 2013). However, fungicides create selec-  
50 tion pressure for tolerant strains and extensive use of one mode of action group, using more  
51 fungicides than required or incorrect application of fungicides can lead to fungicide resistance  
52 (Lopez-Ruiz et al., 2018; Mair et al., 2016; Ishii and Hollomon, 2015). Moreover, the practice  
53 becomes prohibitively costly in cases where the cost associated with managing the disease  
54 outweighs the expected benefits.

55 Fungicide manufacturers are also faced with business risks if fungicide resistance becomes  
56 widespread. These include loss of current compounds leading to a reduced range of effective  
57 fungicides from their portfolio, loss of sale of less effective fungicide groups, and the length  
58 of time before new fungicide products come to market. Similarly, fungicide manufacturers  
59 would incur additional costs associated with developing new fungicide groups and compliance  
60 with regulatory approval requirements when developing new fungicide products (Oliver et al.,

61 [2021; Ishii and Hollomon, 2015](#)). According to [Ishii and Hollomon \(2015\)](#), fungicides that  
62 were frequently used in the field created selection pressure for mutant strains leading to  
63 resistance problems. As a consequence, growers would have a supply risk with limited options  
64 of fungicides resulting in further selection pressure and widespread fungicide resistance issues  
65 ([Rehfus et al., 2016; Ilbery et al., 2012](#)).

66 Regulatory uncertainty and differences in implementing plant protection products regulations  
67 in different countries can negatively affect growers' competitiveness in the global markets.  
68 There is a long history of past decisions having impacts. For example, varied timing in the  
69 withdrawal of various fungicides from the market in different countries within the European  
70 Union (EU), without considering the cost and effectiveness of alternative measures, has left  
71 some farmers more vulnerable to disease impacts, thereby impacting their gross margins  
72 ([Gullino and Laetitia, 1994](#)). Furthermore, the pressure to meet strict regulatory frame-  
73 works due to increasing health and environmental concerns has resulted in a ban of various  
74 fungicides.

75 In 2009, the EU implemented a hazard-based regulatory assessment framework to regulate  
76 plant protection products (PPP) registration. By this time, several authorised plant protec-  
77 tion actives in the EU had fallen by 63% in the past decade. That is, from 900-1000 actives  
78 to about 350 actives ([Dehne et al., 2011](#)). The impact of EU regulation on plant protec-  
79 tion products used in the United Kingdom (UK) was projected to lead to a 36% decline  
80 in total farming profits, potential losses of about £2.5 billion (AUD \$4.7 billion) of gross  
81 added value and 35,000 – 40, 000 job losses in the food processing and manufacturing sector  
82 ([Andersons Centre, 2014](#)). Similarly, [Mason and Harris \(2018\)](#) reported overall yield losses  
83 of between 4% - 50% if actives classified as “high risk” were deregistered and an estimated  
84 gross value-added loss of £1.6 billion (AUD \$3 billion) per annum.

85 A reduction in plant protection products, without the availability of appropriate alternative  
86 measures, would impact three key areas: (i) the production and viability of farm enterprises  
87 resulting in loss of livelihoods throughout the food supply chain, (ii) the affordability of  
88 food prices ([Rickard, 2008](#)) and (iii) crop disease management in the presence of pesticide  
89 resistance ([Oliver et al., 2021; Lopez-Ruiz et al., 2018](#)). Whilst regulatory frameworks are  
90 important, pathogens continue to evolve and increase the agriculture industry's vulnerability  
91 to disease outbreaks. Therefore, management solutions aimed at minimising chemical use  
92 and optimising return are essential for a sustainable farm production.

93 The emergence of fungicide resistant strains and reduced efficacy of multiple fungicide modes

94 of action groups pose a significant economic risk to the Australian barley industry ([Lopez-](#)  
95 [Ruiz et al., 2020, 2018](#); [Mair et al., 2016](#)). For example, the emergence of fungicide resistance  
96 on the farm could affect the costs associated with disease control, in the sense that growers  
97 may be forced to use higher doses or more expensive fungicides ([van den Bosch et al., 2020,](#)  
98 [2018](#); [Ishii and Hollomon, 2015](#)). Moreover, resistance to fungicides would result in yield  
99 and quality losses when growers cannot achieve adequate disease control ([Ireland et al.,](#)  
100 [2021](#); [Tucker et al., 2015](#); [Damicone, 2014](#)) as well as food security threats ([Cooper and](#)  
101 [Okello, 2021](#)).

102 Fungicide resistance in Australia has been identified in two major fungicide groups used  
103 to manage barley diseases. Specifically, there have been reports on resistance or reduced  
104 sensitivity to (i) demethylase inhibitor fungicides (DMI; Group 3) in powdery mildew, NFNB  
105 and SFNB and (ii) succinate dehydrogenase inhibitor fungicides (SDHI; Group 7) in both  
106 SFNB and NFNB in barley ([Ireland et al., 2021](#); [Lopez-Ruiz et al., 2020](#)). In Australia,  
107 resistance or reduced sensitivity to fungicides in barley has an average development time of  
108 14 years (see the list of fungicides and the first recorded detection of resistance in [Table 1](#)).  
109 These results are consistent with the findings which have been reported in the crop protection  
110 literature (see, e.g., [van den Bosch et al., 2020](#); [Elderfield et al., 2018](#); [Grimmer et al., 2014](#)).  
111 A study by [Price et al. \(2015\)](#) in the UK estimated an economic loss of €4.6 billion (AUD  
112 \$7.2 billion) if DMI fungicides became ineffective. However, the economic losses resulting  
113 from fungicide resistance in Australia has received limited attention ([Tucker et al., 2015](#)).  
114 Research to date has not yet determined growers' willingness to invest to prevent or delay  
115 the development of fungicide resistance problems.

116 This research uses both analytical and empirical analyses to (i) assess the impact of fungicide  
117 resistance on grower's return on investment, (ii) establish growers' willingness to invest to  
118 prevent or at least delay fungicide resistance problems and (iii) understand growers' cur-  
119 rent perception and attitudes towards fungicide resistance management. To the best of our  
120 knowledge, this is the first study to investigate growers' perceptions and attitudes towards  
121 fungicide resistance and their willingness to invest to manage fungicide resistance problems.  
122 The remaining part of the paper proceeds as follows: [Section 2](#) gives an outline of the theo-  
123 retical framework. [Section 3](#) introduces the case study and presents the survey results. We  
124 then discuss our findings followed by concluding remarks in [Section 4](#).

Table 1: List of fungicides and their first recorded detection of resistance in Australia (Ireland et al., 2021) and initial registration (APVMA, 2021). Note: DMI, demethylase inhibitor. SDHI, succinate dehydrogenase inhibitor fungicides. QoI, quinone outside inhibitors. FDR, First detection of resistance. LD, Lab detection, RS, Reduced sensitivity. R, Resistant. NSW, New South Wales. QLD, Queensland. SA, South Australia. Tas, Tasmania. Vic, Victoria. WA, Western Australia.

Fungicide group	Fungicide resistance risk	Crop	Pathogen	Region	LD, RS, R	Initial registration (year)	FDR (year)	Time to FDR (year)
<b>Group 3 (DMI)</b>								
Cyproconazole	Moderate	Wheat	<i>Zymoseptoria tritici</i>	Tas	RS	2004	2011	7
				Vic	RS		2011	7
				NSW	RS		2014	10
				SA	RS		2014	10
Epoconazole	Moderate	Barley	<i>Pyrenophora teres f. teres</i>	WA	RS	2002	2013	11
				Barley	<i>Pyrenophora teres f. maculata</i>		WA	RS
		Wheat	<i>Zymoseptoria tritici</i>	WA	R	2017	15	
				Tas	RS	2011	9	
				Vic	RS	2011	9	
				NSW	RS	2014	12	
				SA	RS	2014	12	

Table 1 continued from previous page

Fungicide group	Fungicide resistance risk	Crop	Pathogen	Region	LD, RS, R	Initial registration (year)	FDR (year)	Time to FDR (year)
Flutriafol	Moderate	Canola	<i>Leptosphaeria maculans</i>	NSW	LD	2002	2014	12
				SA			2014	12
				Vic			2014	12
				WA			2014	12
		Wheat	<i>Zymoseptoria tritici</i>	NSW	LD	2011	9	
				QLD		2011	9	
				Tas		2014	12	
				Vic		2014	12	
Fluquinconazole	Moderate	Canola	<i>Leptosphaeria maculans</i>	NSW	RS	2011	2013	2
				SA			2013	2
				Vic			2013	2
				WA			2013	2
Propiconazole	Moderate	Barley	<i>Pyrenophora teres f. teres</i>	WA	RS	1996	2013	17
				WA	R		2017	21
				Vic	R		2019	23

Table 1 continued from previous page

Fungicide group	Fungicide resistance risk	Crop	Pathogen	Region	LD, RS, R	Initial registration (year)	FDR (year)	Time to FDR (year)
				Tas	RS		2011	15
		Wheat	<i>Zymoseptoria tritici</i>	Vic	RS		2011	15
				NSW	RS		2014	18
				SA	RS		2014	18
		Wheat	<i>Blumeria graminis</i> f. sp. <i>tritici</i>	NSW	R		2020	24
				Vic			2020	24
Triadimenol	Moderate	Wheat	<i>Zymoseptoria tritici</i>	Tas	RS	1996	2011	15
				Vic	RS		2011	15
				NSW	RS		2014	18
				SA	RS		2014	18
<b>Group 7 (SDHI)</b>								
Fluxapyroxad	Moderate - High	Barley	<i>Pyrenophora teres</i> f. <i>teres</i>	SA	R	2012	2019	7
		Barley	<i>Pyrenophora teres</i> f. <i>maculata</i>	WA	R		2020	8

Table 1 continued from previous page

Fungicide group	Fungicide resistance risk	Crop	Pathogen	Region	LD, RS, R	Initial registration (year)	FDR (year)	Time to FDR (year)
<b>Group 11 (QoI)</b>								
All chemicals	High	Wheat	<i>Blumeria graminis</i> f. sp. <i>tritici</i>	NSW	R	2009	2015	6
				SA	R		2015	6
				Tas	R		2015	6
				Vic	R		2015	6



125 **2 Theoretical framework**

126 This section will focus on a simplified model framework of a grower implementing crop  
127 protection decisions in the presence of fungicide resistance risk. Consider a grower whose  
128 objective is to implement cost-effective crop protection strategies which maximise the return  
129 on investment while minimising the risk of fungicide resistance developing. The initial stage,  
130 such as the decision leading up to sowing, represents the opportunity cost assessment stage.  
131 This decision occurs during the planning for crop establishment, which may be several months  
132 ahead of actual physical sowing. Here, a grower must weigh the benefits of planting one crop  
133 type, for example, barley, instead of an alternative option.

134 Additionally, the grower will select an appropriate crop variety. With respect to disease, we  
135 assume that three main components influence the decision to plant a given barley variety,  
136 i.e., the availability of disease management options, anticipated disease infection levels which  
137 signifies disease pressure, and within-season weather conditions that favour disease spread.  
138 Figure 1 provides a summary of the fungicide resistance risk assessment framework for a  
139 grower evaluating the efficacy of different disease management options.

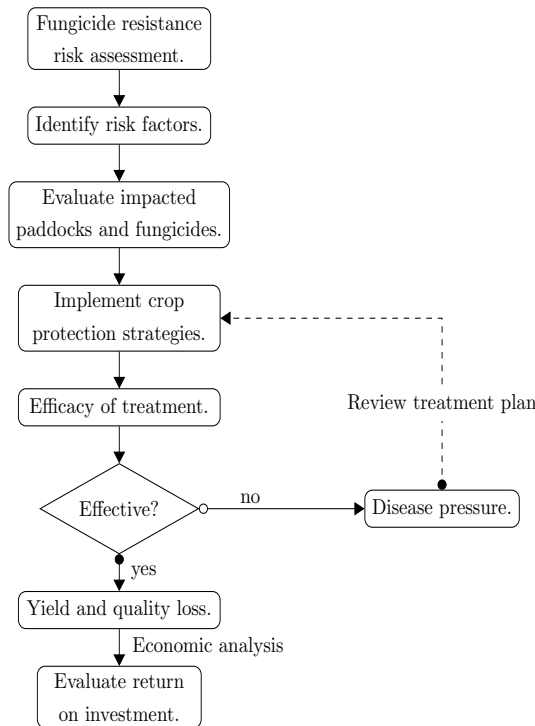


Figure 1: Grower’s return on investment decision flowchart illustrating sequence of events when managing the risk of the emergence of fungicide resistance.

140 From Figure 1, a grower starts by identifying the risk factors associated with the emergence  
141 of fungicide resistance. The risk factors include the timing of fungicide application, climatic  
142 conditions, susceptibility of the host plant, frequency of fungicide use, the rate of fungicide  
143 application (Hollomon and Brent, 2009), suitability of selected fungicide product(s) for the  
144 targeted disease and known history of fungicide resistance within the site or region. In the  
145 second stage, the grower evaluates the cropping area at risk of fungicide resistance and the  
146 affected group of fungicides. As Ireland et al. (2021) suggest, good record-keeping is essential  
147 in order to employ suitable risk management strategies. Therefore, the grower needs to  
148 assess possible fungicide resistance risk factors to ensure appropriate action is taken, thereby  
149 minimising the risk of resistance building up.

150 The third stage involves the implementation of suitable crop protection strategies. For exam-  
151 ple, a grower may decide on whether to adopt a preventative or tactical fungicide treatment  
152 regime. By adopting a preventative fungicide treatment regime, a grower applies fungicide  
153 based on known timing (usually date or growth stage). Conversely, a tactical fungicide  
154 treatment regime requires a grower to withhold fungicide application as long as the level  
155 of infection is below a pre-defined disease threshold (also called economic threshold). The  
156 economic threshold can be seen as the level where control measures should be implemented  
157 to mitigate the risk of economic damage. A grower would have to intervene either at the  
158 beginning of the cropping season (using non-chemical integrated pest management practices  
159 such as stubble management) or throughout the season (using fungicide applications based  
160 on economic threshold levels) (Savary et al., 2012; Pedigo et al., 1986; Zadoks, 1985; Tammes,  
161 1961).

162 To establish whether it is profitable to use preventative or tactical fungicide treatments in  
163 the current growing season, a grower will have to decide on a number of factors that will  
164 influence the decision to adopt a given fungicide treatment regime. For example, decisions  
165 such as cultivar selection; residue management; rotation, time of sowing and fungicide choice;  
166 the time of fungicide application; frequency of fungicide use and the rate of fungicide ap-  
167 plication(Hollomon and Brent, 2009); and the efficacy of fungicide product for the targeted  
168 disease. Other factors include environmental conditions, known history of fungicide resis-  
169 tance within the site or region, fungicide resistance risk and growers' perception of fungicide  
170 resistance risk.

171 When evaluating a suitable strategy to manage fungicide resistance risk, a grower will find  
172 it important to consider the current investment capacity to implement a given fungicide  
173 resistance management strategy. Failure to do so can lead to undesired outcomes such as

174 costly disease management options as well as possible environmental impacts (Cooper and  
 175 Okello, 2021). Finally, the last stage requires growers to re-assess the efficacy of fungicide  
 176 treatment by evaluating the level of disease pressure and the return on investment under dif-  
 177 ferent fungicide management strategies, fungicide resistance risk status and disease severity  
 178 levels.

## 179 2.1 Model formulation

180 Consider a grower who wishes to evaluate the benefit of implementing a preventative or  
 181 tactical fungicide treatment strategy under varying levels of disease pressure and fungicide  
 182 resistance risk. Following Carlson’s (1970) decision theoretic framework, our model assumes  
 183 that the grower selects from two fungicide management strategies: (i) one mode of action  
 184 and (ii) two or more modes of action (including fungicide mixtures). If a grower uses at  
 185 least one mode of action fungicide group, the total cost of adopting a fungicide management  
 186 strategy is:

$$\sum_{i=1}^m c(t_i, t_a). \quad (1)$$

187 The term  $c(\cdot)$  is a function of the fungicide treatment cost  $t_i$  (\$ per hectare, \$/ha); where  
 188  $i = 1, \dots, m$  denotes the number of fungicide application, and the corresponding fungicide  
 189 application cost  $t_a$  (\$/ha). The expected net benefit in the absence of disease-induced loss  
 190  $\pi_0$  (\$/ha) is given by:

$$\pi_0 = P y_e - \sum_{i=1}^m c(t_i, t_a) - c_0, \quad (2)$$

191 where  $P$  represents the commodity price (\$ per unit ton, \$/t),  $y_e$  denotes the estimated yield  
 192 (tons per hectare, t/ha); which represents the attainable yield in the presence of limiting  
 193 factors such as water and nutrients (Rabbinge et al., 1989; Savary and Willocquet, 2014).  
 194 The variable  $c_0$  represents other costs of production (\$/ha) not directly linked to disease  
 195 management. Furthermore, we assume that fungal pathogens are sensitive to fungicide  
 196 treatment, and there is no risk of fungicide resistance developing over time.

197 In order to assess the impact of disease-induced yield loss on a grower’s profit margin, suppose  
 198 a grower is faced with two discrete disease risk states: (i) a state of low disease pressure with  
 199 low levels of expected yield losses and (ii) a state of moderate to high disease pressure with  
 200 moderate to high levels of expected yield losses. The expected yield loss is defined as the  
 201 reduction in both yield quantity and quality (Zadoks, 1985). If a grower manages foliar  
 202 diseases using either a single or multiple fungicide mode of action groups, the expected yield

203 lost to disease (t/ha) is calculated as (van den Bosch et al., 2020; Savary and Willocquet,  
204 2014):

$$\xi_l = \lambda y_e \beta, \quad (3)$$

where  $\lambda \in [0, 1]$  is the proportion of disease-induced yield loss in the area affected by the disease. Note that  $\lambda = 0$  represents a scenario where the grower experience zero yield loss due to disease. Conversely,  $\lambda = 1$  denotes complete field failure. The term  $\beta \in [0, 1]$  represents the proportion of the farming area affected by the disease. For a given commodity price,  $P$ , the value lost to disease is calculated as:

$$v_l = P \xi_l, \quad (4a)$$

$$= P \lambda y_e \beta. \quad (4b)$$

205 Suppose a grower wishes to maximise the return on investment (ROI) by selecting a given  
206 fungicide management strategy. ROI is defined as the ratio between the expected net benefit  
207 from implementing a given fungicide management strategy and the total cost of production.  
208 If we assume that a grower chooses from three different fungicide management strategies;  
209 that is, (i) no fungicide application, (ii) one mode of action (MoA) and (iii) two or more  
210 MoA, the grower's ROI maximisation problem is given by:

$$\begin{aligned} \max \quad & \frac{P(y_e - \xi_l) - \sum_{i=1}^m c(t_i, t_a) - c_0}{\sum_{i=1}^m c(t_i, t_a) + c_0}, \\ \text{subject to: } & P(y_e - \xi_l) - c_0 \geq \sum_{i=1}^m c(t_m, t_a), \\ & y_e > 0; m \in \mathfrak{R}^+; \xi_l \geq 0. \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

211 The objective function in Eq. (5) seeks to maximise a grower's ROI in the presence of  
212 disease-induced yield loss risk. The constraint  $P(y_e - \xi_l) - c_0 \geq \sum_{i=1}^m c(t_i, t_a)$  ensures that  
213 the expected net benefit from adopting a fungicide management strategy,  $i \in \{1, m\}$ , offsets  
214 the fungicide treatment cost. However, in cases where growers continuously use the same  
215 fungicide mode of action group, increased selection pressure can lead to a build-up of resistant  
216 fungal populations (Hollomon and Brent, 2009), resulting in high levels of disease pressure  
217 and hence low yields. Therefore, we will assess a grower's return on investment in the  
218 presence of fungicide resistance risk.

219 To simplify our analysis, let us classify fungicide resistance risk into two broad categories:  
220 low and high fungicide resistance risk. In a scenario with a low risk of fungicide resistance,

221 a grower's disease management action results in a slow development of fungicide resistance  
 222 over time. By contrast, a scenario with a high risk of fungicide resistance results in moderate  
 223 to rapid development over time. Figure 2 illustrates a slow (linear) and a fast (exponential)  
 224 fungicide efficacy decay curve in the presence of fungicide resistance risk.

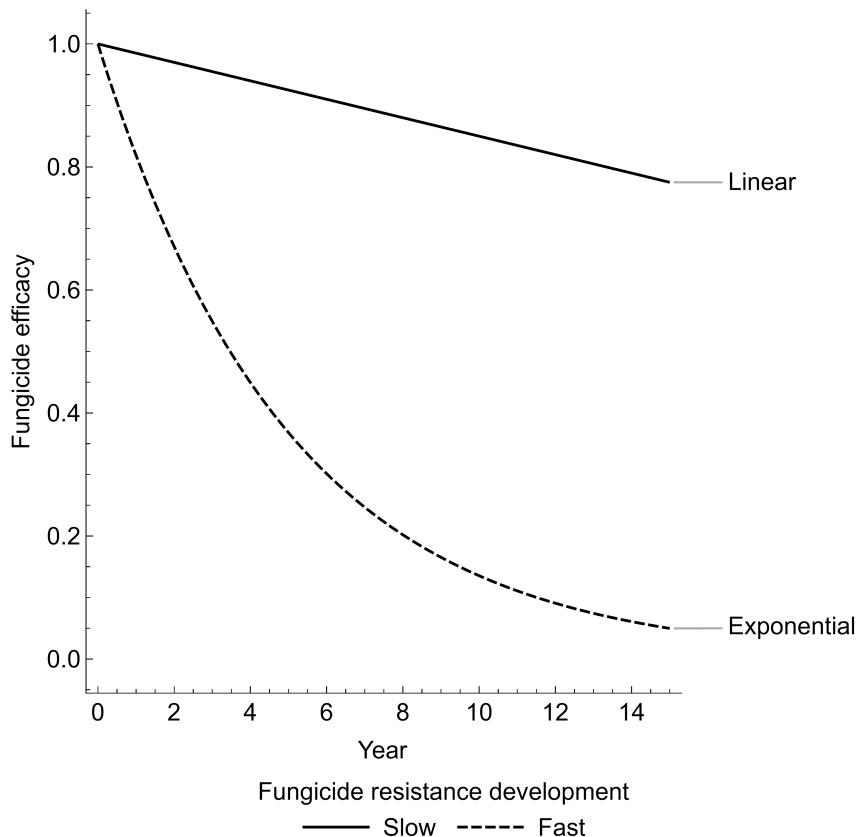


Figure 2: Fungicide efficacy decay plot based on linear and exponential fungicide resistance risk.

225 Therefore, if we include the risk of fungicide resistance in our model formulation, Eq. (3)  
 226 can be re-written as:

$$\xi_l^r = \lambda(\psi) y_e \beta, \quad (6)$$

where  $\xi_l^r$  denotes the expected yield lost to disease in the presence of fungicide resistance risk. Eq. (6) includes an adjusted yield loss variable,  $\lambda(\psi)$ , which is a function of the fungicide efficacy factor; where  $\psi$  takes any value in the range  $[0, 1]$ . When  $\psi = 0$ , the pathogen is considered resistant and unable to respond to fungicide treatment. Conversely, when  $\psi = 1$ , the pathogen is considered sensitive and fully responds to fungicide treatment. Let us suppose that a grower is faced with the risk of fungicide resistance and quality downgrade. We can reformulate Eq. (4a) to include two components: the value loss to disease and the

value loss to quality downgrade. The total value lost to disease and quality downgrade is thus given by:

$$v_l^r = P \xi_l^r + \theta(P - P_d)(y_e - \xi_l^r), \quad (7a)$$

$$= P \lambda(\psi) y_e \beta + \theta(P - P_d)(y_e - \lambda(\psi) y_e \beta), \quad (7b)$$

227 where  $\theta \in (0, 1)$  denotes the quality loss factor, which represents the proportion of down-  
 228 graded yield, and  $P_d$  denotes the downgraded commodity price. The term  $\theta(P - P_d)(y_e -$   
 229  $\lambda(\psi) y_e \beta)$  represents the value lost due to quality downgrade. If we reformulate Eq. (5)  
 230 to include the value lost to disease and quality downgrade, the grower's ROI maximisation  
 231 problem in the presence of both fungicide resistance and quality downgrade risk is:

$$\begin{aligned} \max \quad & \frac{P(y_e - \xi_l^r) - \theta(P - P_d)(y_e - \xi_l^r) - \sum_{i=1}^m c(t_i, t_a) - c_0}{\sum_{i=1}^m c(t_i, t_a) + c_0} \\ & \xi_l^r = \lambda(\psi) y_e \beta, \\ \text{subject to: } & P(y_e - \xi_l^r) - \theta(P - P_d)(y_e - \xi_l^r) - c_0 \geq \sum_{i=1}^m c(t_i, t_a), \\ & y_e > 0; m \in \mathfrak{R}^+; \xi_l^r \geq 0; \theta \geq 0. \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

232 The objective function in Eq. (8) seeks to maximise a grower's ROI in the presence of  
 233 fungicide resistance and quality downgrade risks. The constraint  $P(y_e - \xi_l^r) - \theta(P - P_d)(y_e -$   
 234  $\xi_l^r) - c_0 \geq \sum_{i=1}^m c(t_i, t_a)$  ensures that the expected net benefit from adopting a fungicide  
 235 management strategy,  $i \in \{1, m\}$ , offsets the fungicide treatment cost.

236 After setting up the profit maximisation model, the next section will use a numerical sim-  
 237 ulation experiment to explore the impact of fungicide resistance development on growers'  
 238 return on investment.

## 239 2.2 Model implementation: Numerical simulation experiment

240 In this section, two scenarios were used to assess a grower's return on investment. In the first  
 241 scenario, a grower's disease management strategy was assumed to result in a slower decline of  
 242 fungicide efficacy over time. In the second scenario, the selected disease management strategy  
 243 resulted in a faster decline of the fungicide efficacy over time. For the purpose of sensitivity  
 244 analysis, the parameter values for disease impact on profit were randomly generated over  
 245 a predefined range. Table 2 provides a summary of the parameters that were used in the  
 246 simulation experiment. The simulations were replicated 20,000 times with randomly drawn

247 parameter values within the General Algebraic Modelling System (GAMS v31.1.1).

Table 2: Parameter values for the numerical simulation experiment

Parameter	Explanation	Value
$\lambda(\cdot)$	Proportion of yield loss	0% - 80%
$\theta$	Proportion of downgraded yield	0% - 20%
$y_e$	Estimated yield	1 - 4 t/ha
$P$	Commodity price	\$225/t - \$385/t
$c(t_m)$	Fungicide treatment cost	\$10 - \$30/ha
$c(t_a)$	Fungicide application cost	\$10 - \$15/ha
$c_0$	Other cost of production	\$200/ha

Note: t/ha, ton pe hectare; \$/t, dollar per ton; \$/ha, dollar per hectare.

248 To understand the extent to which the net benefit and the return on investment values  
 249 differed between the scenarios with a slower (baseline) and faster decline of fungicide efficacy,  
 250 we computed the relative change in the average benefit from fungicide use. Table 3 shows  
 251 that, on average, the net benefit and the return on investment values decline by 11% when  
 252 the fungicide efficacy deteriorates faster (faster rate of fungicide resistance development)  
 253 compared to the baseline case (slower rate of fungicide resistance development). Overall, the  
 254 observed deterioration of the ROI value is driven by a faster decline in fungicide efficacy,  
 255 which leads to greater yield losses and, hence, lower profit margins. The implication is  
 256 that, as the fungicide efficacy decline (due to fungicide resistance), the yield lost to disease  
 257 increases, resulting in a lower net benefit and hence a lower return on investment value.  
 258 These findings suggest that there is value in minimising the negative impact resulting from  
 259 the loss of fungicide efficacy and fungicide resistance risk. The next section will use a case  
 260 study of barley growers in West Australia’s Wheatbelt (WA) to explore factors promoting  
 261 behaviour change when managing fungicide resistance.

Table 3: Summary statistics of the numerical simulation experiment

	Mean	SD	Median	1Q	3Q	IQR
<i>Slow development of fungicide resistance scenario</i>						
Net benefit (\$/ha)	490.44	29.68	492.30	471.16	511.20	40.04
Return on investment (ROI)	1.91	0.11	1.92	1.84	1.99	0.15
<i>Fast development of fungicide resistance scenario</i>						
Net benefit (\$/ha)	437.10 (↓ 10.9%)*	61.65	447.37	394.37	485.49	91.12
Return on investment (ROI)	1.71 (↓ 11.0%)*	0.24	1.75	1.54	1.89	0.36

Note: SD, standard deviation; 1Q, First quartile; 3Q, Third quartile; IQR, Inter-quartile range; \* % change relative to the slow development of fungicide resistance scenario; \$/ha represents dollar per hectare.



## 262 3 Case study

263 The theoretical framework specified in Section 2 assesses the impact of disease and loss of  
264 fungicide efficacy on growers’ return on investment. However, economic modelling is limited  
265 in examining the psychological mechanism underpinning growers’ decisions toward fungicide  
266 resistance management. Beyond economic predictors, prior research shows that growers’  
267 willingness to invest and decisions to adopt: bio-pesticides (Al-Hassan et al., 2010), inno-  
268 vative conservative technologies (Mann, 2018), genetically modified crops (De Steur et al.,  
269 2019), and reduced usage of pesticides (Vatn et al., 2020) are predicted by different psycho-  
270 logical and attitudinal determinants that are not identified through economic modelling. In  
271 fact, besides modelling fungicide resistance from a financial perspective, existing research on  
272 fungicide resistance management strategies (see e.g., Oliver et al., 2021) has solely focused  
273 on growers’ current usage and knowledge of different management strategies. Thus, the cur-  
274 rent research will leverage both a quantitative and qualitative approach to examine barley  
275 growers’ perceptions and motivators of behaviour change underpinning their willingness to  
276 invest and attitudes toward fungicide resistance management strategies.

### 277 3.1 Participant recruitment and data collection

278 During the 2019/2020 growing season, growers participating in the “Barley Disease Cohort  
279 Project” sent diseased barley leaf samples to Curtin University’s Centre for Crop and Disease  
280 Management for disease screening. The project focused on understanding the extent of  
281 fungicide resistance in the in WA’s Wheatbelt region. After the barley leaf samples were  
282 analysed in the laboratory, the participants received the following information: (i) disease  
283 diagnosis of two major barley pathogens: spot form net blotch and net-form net blotch, (ii)  
284 fungicide resistance status of the samples and (iii) fungicide management recommendations.

285 From the initial engagement with the growers, it was clear that the fungicide resistance  
286 problem was more widespread than initially anticipated. This study wanted to understand  
287 the motivators of behaviour change when growers were faced with fungicide resistance risk.  
288 The recruitment targeted growers and agronomists who had provided their consent to be  
289 contacted about their fungicide resistance management. Growers and agronomists from the  
290 WA’s Wheatbelt were invited to share information about their fungicide resistance manage-  
291 ment practices. The primary contact was made through phone interviews. Alternatively,  
292 a link to an electronic version of the survey was included in the email communication to  
293 the participants. Prior to conducting the survey, we sought ethical approval from Curtin

294 University Human Research Ethics Committee (HRE2020-0440).

295 During the phone interview, the interviewer provided participants with the background of  
296 the study, followed by participation consent questions. Participants who provided consent  
297 to participate in the study were subsequently asked the survey questions. Their responses  
298 were recorded or transcribed by the researcher. The process took about 20-25 minutes.  
299 Participants who nominated to complete a self-administered online questionnaire had their  
300 responses stored in a secured database. To ensure consistency of the survey responses,  
301 descriptions of the contents in the electronic version of the survey were consistent with those  
302 delivered through phone interviews.

### 303 3.2 Survey summary

304 A total of 137 survey responses were obtained through phone interviews (82%) and self-  
305 administered questionnaires (18%). The overall response rate was 81% among the par-  
306 ticipants who sent their barley leaf samples for disease screening. Figure 3 provides the  
307 geographical distribution of the survey participants.

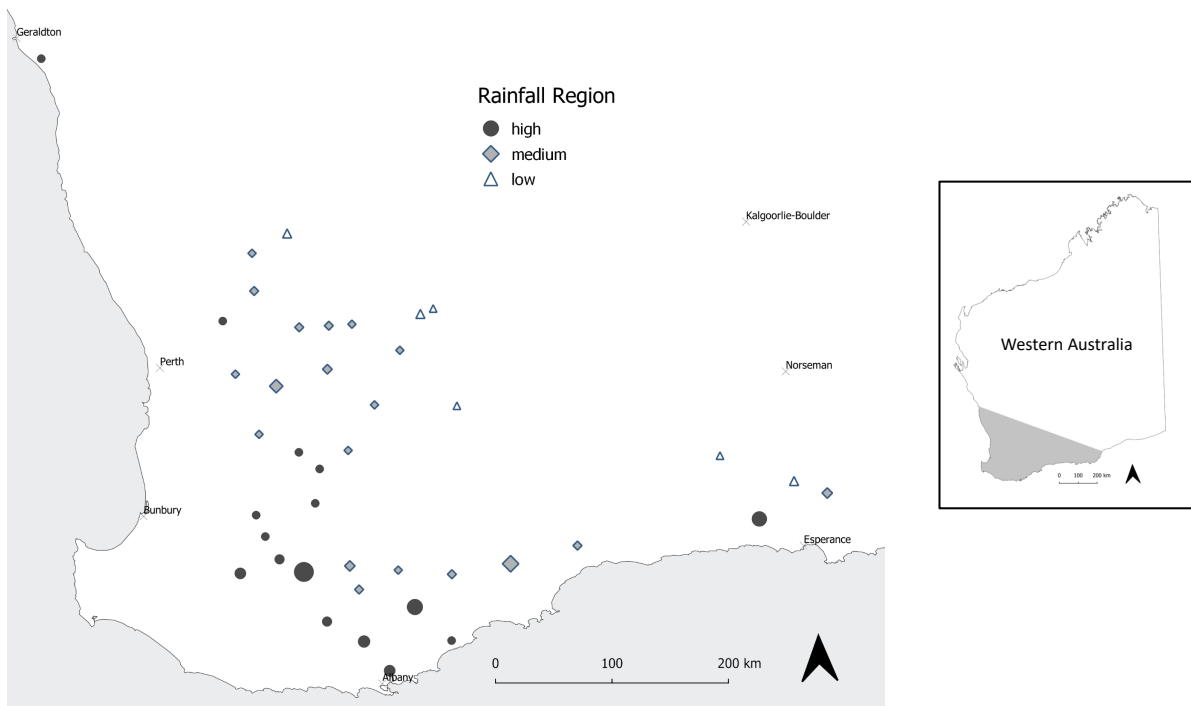


Figure 3: Map of the distribution of survey participants categorised according to postcodes and rainfall zones: Low, Medium and High. The size of the symbols denote the number of participants in each location across the West Australia's Wheatbelt.

308 The participants were aged between 22 and 69 years, while their agricultural experience  
 309 varied between 2 and 54 years. See summary statistics in Table 4.

Table 4: Summary statistics of the Barley Disease Cohort Project survey during the 2019/2020 growing season.

<b>Demographic details</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>Median</b>	<b>1Q</b>	<b>3Q</b>	<b>IQR</b>
Age (years)	44.1	10.7	44.01	35.0	52.0	17.0
Years in agriculture industry	24.6	11.8	25.0	15.0	33.0	18.0
<b>Barley production program</b>						
Planted area (hectares)	1122	1180	800	450	1500	1050
Total number of paddocks	9.9	8.0	8.0	5.0	12.0	7.0
Number of varieties grown	1.9	0.8	2.0	1.0	2.0	1.0
Number of crop(s) in 2018 rotation	1.6	0.9	1.0	1.0	2.0	1.0
<b>Fungicide treatment program</b>						
Total number of fungicide(s) application	2.4	0.6	3.0	2.0	3.0	1.0
Seed/In-furrow cost (\$/ha)	13.6	8.3	12.0	6.0	20.0	14.0
First foliar treatment cost (\$/ha)	10.3	5.8	10.0	5.6	15.0	9.4
Second Foliar Treatment cost (\$/ha)	11.9	5.3	12.0	8.0	15.0	7.0
<b>Production and harvest statistics (t/ha)</b>						
Potential yield (beginning of season)	3.3	1.0	3.5	2.6	4.0	1.4
Breakeven yield	2.0	0.6	2.0	1.5	2.4	0.9
Actual yield (end of season)	3.1	1.3	3.0	2.1	4.0	1.9
<b>Fungicide resistance management (FRM)</b>						
Maximum acceptable yield loss (%)	5.0	4.8	5.0	1.5	6.4	4.9
Extra investment for FRM (\$/ha)	17.9	11.9	15.0	10.0	23.5	13.5

Note: SD, standard deviation; 1Q, First quartile; 3Q, Third quartile; IQR, Inter-quartile range; t/ha, tons per hectare; \$/ha, AUD dollar per hectare; FRM: Fungicide resistance management.

310 In the following sections, we will: (i) evaluate growers' willingness to invest in preventing  
 311 or delaying fungicide resistance problems, (ii) assess grower's current perception of fungicide  
 312 resistance issues using thematic analysis, and (iii) understand motivators of behavior change

313 when growers were faced with fungicide resistance risk. Understanding motivators and bar-  
 314 riers of behaviour change would enable effective, practical and economical crop protection  
 315 strategies while minimising the impacts of fungicide resistance.

### 316 **3.3 Growers’ willingness to invest to prevent or at least delay fungicide resis-** 317 **tance**

318 This section will explore growers’ willingness to invest in addressing fungicide resistance  
 319 risk. It was hypothesised that growers would be willing to allocate extra investments to  
 320 manage or delay fungicide resistance problems. Our study found that, on average, growers  
 321 currently invest approximately \$30/ha on fungicide treatment (see Table 4). When asked  
 322 about their willingness to invest in managing fungicide resistance risk, growers indicated  
 323 that, on average, they were prepared to invest an extra \$18/ha to manage or at least delay  
 324 the fungicide resistance problem (see Table 5).

325 When we grouped the willingness to invest in managing fungicide resistance according to the  
 326 rainfall region, we found the willingness to invest for growers in the low rainfall region to be  
 327 \$12/ha. In contrast, those in the high rainfall region were willing to invest about \$19/ha.

328 Additionally, growers who currently find the cost of fungicide treatment to be costly and  
 329 those with lower profit margins were likely to allocate up to \$10/hectare to manage fungicide  
 330 resistance (see Figure 4). These results reveal that the affordability of disease management  
 331 alternatives remains the main factor affecting the growers’ willingness to invest in managing  
 332 fungicide resistance.

Table 5: Growers’ willingness to invest (WTI) grouped according to rainfall region.

<b>Rainfall region</b>	<b>WTI (\$/ha)</b>	<b>Actual yield (t/ha)</b>
High	\$18.98	3.7
Medium	\$17.88	2.7
Low	\$12.29	1
Average	\$17.93	3.1

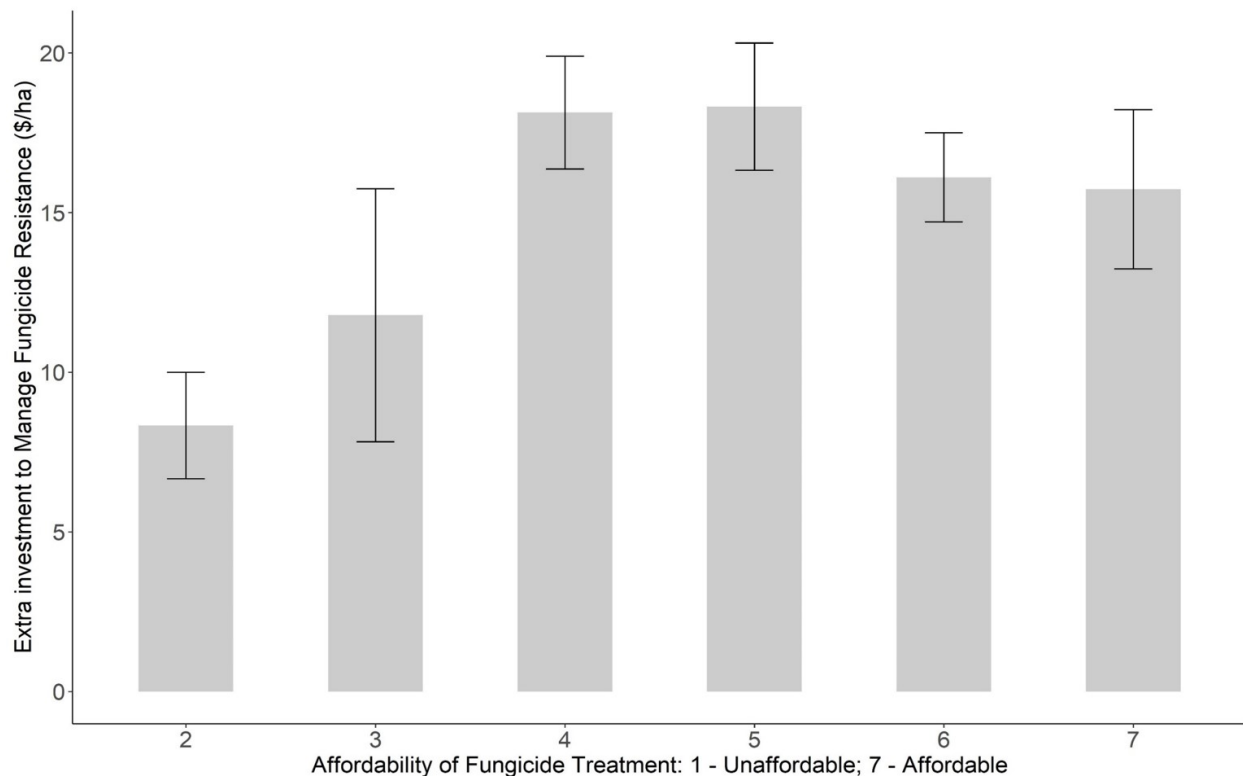


Figure 4: Distribution of the extra investments that growers were willing to invest in managing fungicide resistance problems. The extra investments were grouped according to the affordability of the current fungicide treatment. \$/ha denotes dollar per hectare.

333 *3.3.1 Drivers of return on investment (ROI) and extra investment to manage fungicide*  
 334 *resistance*

335 Multiple factor analysis (MFA) was used to reduce the dimension of the variables in the  
 336 dataset and investigate the influence of the variables on the total variance. MFA can be  
 337 viewed as a weighted principal component analysis (PCA) that compares the differences  
 338 between several groups of variables and the correlation of the variables (Jolliffe and Cadima,  
 339 2016; Abdi et al., 2013; Bécue-Bertaut and Pagès, 2008; Escofier and Pagès, 1994). In our  
 340 survey data, we normalised related questions by assigning equal weights to each question in  
 341 the same category.

342 The original questionnaire data contained 66 variables. In order to reduce the number of  
 343 variables, we grouped the variables into 20 distinct groups. The resulting variables included  
 344 (denoted as G1 to G20): area under barley production (G1), crop varieties (G2), yield  
 345 estimates (G3), age and experience (G4), return on investment (G5), fungicide resistance

346 management (FRM) investment (G6), crop rotation program (G7), rainfall region (G8), ed-  
347 ucation level and association membership (G9), fungicide application decision-maker (G10),  
348 type of fungicide used (G11), affordability of disease management options (G12), fungicide  
349 application patterns (G13), the importance of FRM to agri-business (G14), disease pressure  
350 on the farm (G15), fungicide resistance management practices (G16), factors that drive the  
351 adoption of FRM practices (G17), frequency of access to FRM information sources (G18),  
352 accessibility of FRM information sources (G19) and timeliness of FRM information sources  
353 (G20).

354 Results from multiple factor analysis reveal that the first 11 components (G1 - G11) explain  
355 55% variability within the dataset. For instance, accessibility of FRM information sources,  
356 timeliness of FRM information sources, frequency of access to FRM information sources and  
357 the return on investment contribute the most to the first component. FRM investment,  
358 yield estimates and rainfall region dominate the second component, while factors driving the  
359 adoption of FRM practices, fungicide resistance management practices, and the importance  
360 of FRM to agri-business contributes to the third component.

361 Additionally, multiple linear regression was used to determine the drivers of the return on  
362 investment (ROI) and the extra investments growers were willing to invest in managing  
363 fungicide resistance. The model indicates the following factors to have significant positive  
364 effects on ROI (p-value < 0.05): the actual yield, age of the respondent, rainfall region,  
365 the total number of fungicide applications, accessibility of fungicide resistance information  
366 source (e.g., agronomists) and the timeliness of the fungicide resistance management infor-  
367 mation source (e.g., print media). Factors that negatively impacted ROI include: farm size,  
368 current fungicide cost, the total cost of production, years in the agriculture industry, types  
369 of fungicide resistance management practices (e.g., scouting for disease and varieties used),  
370 frequency of use of fungicide resistance management information source (e.g., social media),  
371 accessibility of the fungicide resistance management information source (e.g., the Barley Dis-  
372 ease Cohort Project) and timeliness of fungicide resistance management information source  
373 (e.g., field days).

374 Regarding growers' willingness to invest in preventing or delaying fungicide resistance prob-  
375 lems, the positive drivers included the types of fungicide resistance management practices  
376 (e.g., varieties used, scouting for disease, use of fungicide mixtures); the estimated yield;  
377 and the first foliar fungicide treatment group. On the other hand, the main factor limiting  
378 the allocation of extra investment to manage fungicide resistance includes the actual yield  
379 obtained at the end of the growing season.

380 In the next section, we will use thematic analysis to understand growers' perceptions of the  
381 fungicide resistance problem and motivators of behaviour change. Qualitative responses were  
382 collected to better understand the factors that promote and impede growers' willingness to  
383 invest in mitigating fungicide resistance risks and adopting fungicide resistance management  
384 practices.

### 385 **3.4 Thematic analysis: Current knowledge about fungicide resistance**

386 Thematic analysis was used to identify themes (patterns of meaning) from the qualitative  
387 data collected on the survey. Specifically, we adopt [Braun and Clarke's \(2006\)](#) reflexive  
388 thematic analysis approach, which is designed to explore an individual's views, attitudes,  
389 and lived experience. To ensure the robustness and reliability of the thematic analysis, three  
390 researchers conducted the thematic analysis following the recommended analysis process  
391 outlined by [Braun and Clarke \(2006\)](#): (1) data familiarisation; (2) coding; (3) generating  
392 initial themes; (4) reviewing themes; (5) defining and naming each theme; (6) writing up.  
393 The three researchers conducted the first three steps individually, whereby recurring and  
394 prevalent themes were coded, extracted, and grouped. The final, synthesised themes were  
395 then re-assessed to ensure that the scope and focus aligned with our research question. A  
396 consensus was reached through discussion to ensure that they were sufficiently meaningful  
397 and informative ([Braun and Clarke, 2006](#)).

398 Growers were asked about their current knowledge of fungicide resistance problem and cur-  
399 rent agronomic practices. Five major themes emerged from the thematic analysis ([Braun  
400 and Clarke, 2006](#)) and content analysis [Weber \(1990\)](#) of growers' perceptions of the fungicide  
401 resistance problem (see Figure 5).

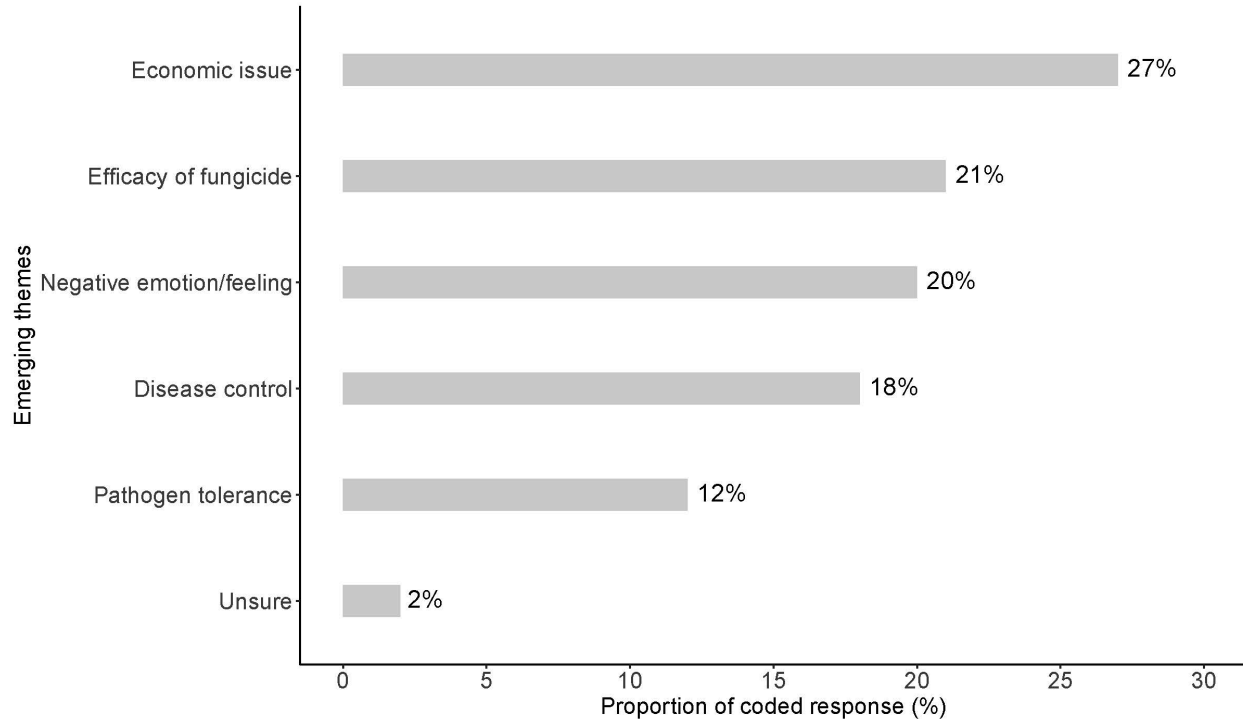


Figure 5: Emerging themes from growers' definition of fungicide resistance.

402 The top theme emerging from the thematic analysis of growers' definition of fungicide resis-  
 403 tance related to the economic impact of fungicide resistance. We find that 27% of the coded  
 404 responses define fungicide resistance as an economic issue. The respondents were particularly  
 405 concerned about the threats of fungicide resistance to their agribusiness and the sustainabil-  
 406 ity of their production program. For instance, one grower said: "*Fungicide resistance affects*  
 407 *agribusiness state-wide; it doesn't matter where you farm, every area is affected or near af-*  
 408 *ected by diseases. It impacts your business model (tons in the bin) and chemical logistics.*"  
 409 Interestingly, respondents tend to frame the economic impact of fungicide resistance as a  
 410 yield loss or a high input cost. From the perspective of yield loss, respondents indicated:  
 411 "*Fungicide resistance is caused by fungal organisms within productive crops which have yield*  
 412 *effect if left untreated*", "*yield loss*", and "*less yield, small crop, thin crop*". However, other  
 413 respondents perceive fungicide resistance as a significant input cost to implement fungicide  
 414 management strategies: "*expensive, making barley less economical to grow*", "*Expensive if it*  
 415 *is a failure*", "*annoying, costs money...*" and "*(management strategies) wasting your money.*"  
 416 These responses highlight growers' concerns about the threat of fungicide resistance risk to  
 417 the profitability of the Australian barley industry. They also demonstrate the need for  
 418 fungicide resistance management strategies to positively impact yield in a cost-effective way.



419 Growers also highlighted the emotional impact of the fungicide resistance problem. The  
420 respondents had a sense of urgency to manage fungicide resistance risk. The respondents  
421 had a sense of urgency to manage fungicide resistance risk. One respondent stated that:  
422 *“Fungicide resistance is scary. It is definitely a looming issue. We haven’t got it yet, but it’s*  
423 *something that we are very worried about. With herbicide resistance, we’ve got different op-*  
424 *tions, but we don’t really have those options with fungicides.”* Other respondents referred to  
425 fungicide resistance as: *“a bad thing”, “frustrating”, “stressful”, “worrying”, “challenging”,*  
426 *“Scary, you need to be on your front foot and be preventative rather than reactive”,* and  
427 *“problematic...stress...”*. Another respondent highlighted that fungicide resistance results  
428 from the *“lack of knowledge. Expensive if it’s a failure and wasting your money”* while an-  
429 other stated that fungicide resistance results in *“spending a lot of money on something that*  
430 *doesn’t work, frustration”*. These sentiments highlight growers’ concern about the long-term  
431 threat of fungicide resistance risk and the likelihood of the problem impacting disease man-  
432 agement strategies, especially for those operating in marginal areas. Aside from economic  
433 impact, the findings show that these threats may also negatively impact growers’ emotional  
434 well-being.

435 The second major theme concerned the efficacy and knowledge of fungicide treatment, ac-  
436 counting for 21% of the coded responses (see Figure 5). Generally, fungicide resistance was  
437 defined as the state where cheaper fungicides failed to provide adequate protection against  
438 fungal pathogens. As one respondent states: *“The pathogen is no longer controlled by the*  
439 *chemistry that we are using.”* Other respondents commented: *“failure with the use of one*  
440 *or more fungicides in crop apart from weather conditions or other factors”*; *“fungus that has*  
441 *become resistant to chemicals”*; *“application of fungicide choice which fails due to resistant*  
442 *factors other than factors under my control such as weather and application techniques”*  
443 and *“using a fungicide and not getting a result you were hoping for”*. At the same time,  
444 other respondents also attribute the inefficacy of fungicide treatment to the lack of knowl-  
445 edge: *“problematic because it’s hard to understand whether we’ve had resistance or failures in*  
446 *fungicides”*, *‘Fungicide knowledge as a farmer isn’t that great and I don’t think agronomists*  
447 *have a great handle on fungicide management”*, and *“It’s a bit of an unknown. Something*  
448 *that you can’t see you can’t fix”*. These findings suggest that respondents are particularly  
449 concerned about the risk to their agribusiness if cheaper fungicides failed to provide ad-  
450 equate protection against fungal pathogens, highlighting the need for fungicide resistance  
451 management strategies to demonstrate their effectiveness and efficacy before wide adoption.  
452 Knowledge about fungicides, fungicide resistance risk factors and management strategies is  
453 essential to tackle resistance issues.

454 The concerns of fungicide resistance are also attributed to the ongoing inability to control  
455 the disease with fungicides (18%) and pathogens developing tolerance to chemicals over time  
456 (12%). For instance, when asked about the fungicide resistance challenge that they face, a  
457 respondent said *“inability for (current) fungicide to control a disease”* and another indicated  
458 *“loss of control over diseases in barley”*. In fact, some respondents agreed that fungicide  
459 resistance is a growing concern that is not within their control due to the ever-increasing  
460 and changing challenge to manage the issue: *“It’s increasing and more difficult to control*  
461 *nowadays as products are not working as they used to do”*, *“resistant factors other than*  
462 *factors under my control such as weather and application techniques”*, and *“loss of control*  
463 *over diseases in barley”*. The respondents attribute this lack of control to the development  
464 of tolerance in crop disease pathogens: *“When a fungicide has reduced sensitivity or won’t*  
465 *work on a pest you’re trying to control”*, *“When a product used no longer provides the level of*  
466 *control on a target pathogen population.”*, and *“increasing tolerance to label rates of fungicide.*  
467 *Reduced expected control period”*. Interestingly, about 2% of the coded responses (6 growers)  
468 were unsure of how to define fungicide resistance. Taken together, these findings suggest  
469 a need to assist growers in regaining control by educating them regarding different facets,  
470 causes, and management strategies of fungicide resistance beyond the overuse and resulting  
471 tolerance of fungicides.

### 472 **3.5 Motivators of behaviour change**

473 To further understand patterns in the coded responses, the results were grouped according  
474 to the participant’s age and experience level (years in the industry). Age was divided into  
475 three distinct groups: (i) below 35 years, (ii) 35 to 50 years and (iii) over 50 years. Similarly,  
476 the experience level was divided into three groups: (i) 0 to 15 years, (ii) 16 to 30 years and  
477 (iii) over 30 years (See Tables 6 and 7).

478 Growers were asked to indicate their current fungicide resistance management (FRM) prac-  
479 tices. Our study reveals that, on average, greater than 70% of the participants use crop  
480 rotation and resistant (tolerant) varieties as their top two strategies to manage fungicide  
481 resistance. On the contrary, 46% of the participants reported using fungicide mixtures to  
482 manage fungicide resistance problems. When FRM practices were grouped by rainfall re-  
483 gions, we find that greater than 80% of growers in all the rainfall regions were likely to adopt  
484 crop rotation as their top strategy to manage the fungicide resistance problem. We also  
485 see that growers in the high rainfall regions were likely to adopt resistant varieties (74%) or  
486 rotate new chemistry (74%) as their top two FRM strategies. On the other hand, growers in  
487 the low rainfall region were likely to use stubble management (64%) or rotate new chemistry

488 (64%) to manage fungicide resistance. Interestingly, only 27% of growers in the low rainfall  
489 region were likely to use fungicide mixtures.

490 In relation to the fungicide application pattern, participants across all age groups implement  
491 the following management practices: (i) use label rates (96%), (ii) scout for the disease  
492 before applying fungicides (93%) and (iii) alter their fungicide spray programs in response to  
493 weather condition (92%) and disease pressure (91%). The average proportion of participants  
494 using fungicide mixtures was 57% across all age groups. When asked about their willingness  
495 to stick to the spray plan, a smaller proportion of participants under 35 years (6%) were  
496 likely to stick to their original spray plans. However, 23% of participants between the ages  
497 of 35 and 50 years and 32% of participants over the age of 50 stated that they would stick  
498 to their original spray plan. If we considered the participants' level of farming experience,  
499 32% of participants with more farming experience were more likely to stick to their spray  
500 plan than participants with less farming experience (11%).

501 Moving on to factors that would motivate growers to adopt FRM practices, we find that  
502 majority of the respondents considered yield and profitability as the two main drivers of  
503 adopting FRM practices. In particular, more than 80% of the growers indicated that they  
504 would adopt FRM practices if they: (i) received a positive fungicide resistance diagnosis; (ii)  
505 lost disease control from current fungicide management practices, and (iii) observed a reduc-  
506 tion in productivity relative to the current state. On the other hand, 73% of the respondents  
507 indicated that they were likely to change their FRM practices if fungicide treatment costs  
508 became expensive. Taken together, these results demonstrate growers' willingness to imple-  
509 ment cost-effective FRM practices in anticipation of disease epidemics while maintaining the  
510 efficacy of current fungicides and the profitability of their agribusiness.

Table 6: Descriptive statistics showing respondents' fungicide application patterns grouped according to age with Likert scale score of 5 and above (1 – Strongly disagree to 7 - Strongly agree). Note: \*FRM, Fungicide resistance management.

<b>Frequency of using *FRM practices</b>	<b>Age group (years)</b>			
	Average	Under 35	35 - 50	Over 50
I rotate crops	88%	94%	87%	83%
I use resistant varieties	70%	65%	75%	70%
I rotate new chemistry	66%	52%	75%	73%
I change mode of action	67%	68%	70%	63%
I use stubble management	55%	58%	53%	55%
I use fungicide mixture	45%	42%	52%	40%
<b>Fungicide application pattern</b>				
I use full label rates	96%	90%	97%	100%
I scout for disease before fungicide application	93%	87%	97%	95%
I alter spray plan depending on weather condition	91%	90%	93%	90%
I have an annual agronomic spray plan	90%	84%	92%	95%
I alter spray plan depending on disease pressure	91%	94%	92%	88%
I use fungicide mixtures	57%	55%	58%	58%
I stick to spray plan no matter what	21%	6%	23%	33%
<b>Factors driving *FRM adoption</b>				
Receipt of positive fungicide resistance results	99%	100%	97%	100%
Loss of disease control from current fungicide use	98%	97%	98%	100%
Reduced productivity relative to current state	93%	87%	95%	98%
Rise in cost of fungicide treatment	74%	77%	72%	73%

Table 7: Descriptive statistics showing respondents' fungicide application patterns grouped according to years of experience with Likert scale score of 5 and above (1 – Strongly disagree to 7 - Strongly agree). Note: \*FRM, Fungicide resistance management.

<b>Frequency of using *FRM practices</b>	<b>Experience level (years)</b>			
	Average	0 - 15	16 - 30	Over 30
I rotate crops	87%	92%	87%	83%
I use resistant varieties	69%	55%	80%	73%
I rotate new chemistry	69%	61%	72%	73%
I change mode of action	67%	74%	67%	61%
I use stubble management	54%	55%	52%	56%
I use fungicide mixture	46%	47%	54%	37%
<b>Fungicide application pattern</b>				
I use full label rates	95%	89%	98%	98%
I scout for disease before fungicide application	93%	84%	96%	98%
I alter spray plan depending on weather condition	91%	89%	91%	93%
I have an annual agronomic spray plan	91%	89%	87%	98%
I alter spray plan depending on disease pressure	91%	92%	91%	90%
I use fungicide mixtures	57%	63%	56%	54%
I stick to spray plan no matter what	22%	11%	24%	32%
<b>Factors driving *FRM adoption</b>				
Receipt of positive fungicide resistance results	99%	100%	96%	100%
Loss of disease control from current fungicide use	99%	97%	98%	100%
Reduced productivity relative to current state	93%	92%	93%	95%
Rise in cost of fungicide treatment	72%	71%	74%	71%

## 511 4 Discussion and conclusion

512 This research sought to (i) evaluate the economic impact of fungicide resistance on growers’  
513 return on investment, (ii) establish growers’ willingness to invest in preventing or delay-  
514 ing fungicide resistance problems, and (iii) understand grower’s perception and behaviour  
515 towards fungicide resistance management.

516 Regarding the first objective, numerical simulations reveal that the rate at which fungicide  
517 efficacy declines negatively influences growers’ return on investment. For instance, we see  
518 that as fungicide efficacy decline at a slower rate over time, symbolising a slower development  
519 of fungicide resistance, the return on investment value also deteriorates at a slower rate.  
520 Conversely, when fungicide efficacy exhibits a negative exponential distribution, the return  
521 on investment value declines faster. A study by [Deloitte Access Economics \(2018\)](#) noted  
522 that using fungicides contributes about 9% of the yield value in barley. Other studies have  
523 highlighted the importance of extending the effective life of fungicides with practices such  
524 as optimising the dose and timing of fungicide application, rotating with low-risk fungicides,  
525 using fungicide mixtures and changing the mode of action (see, e.g., [van den Bosch et al.,  
526 2020](#); [Poole and Arnaudin, 2014](#); [van den Bosch et al., 2014](#); [Khouri and Makkouk, 2010](#);  
527 [Comins, 1977](#); [Hall and Norgaard, 1973](#); [Hillebrandt, 1960](#)). However, these benefits would  
528 likely deteriorate in the presence of fungicide resistant strains ([Grimmer et al., 2014](#)). These  
529 findings suggest that there is value in integrating different fungicide resistance management  
530 practices to protect the current stock of fungicides from losing their efficacy and slowing the  
531 rate of the evolution of resistant pathogen populations.

532 The second objective sought to find the drivers of the return on investment and growers’  
533 willingness to invest in managing the fungicide resistance problem. Results from multiple  
534 factor analysis and multiple linear regression reveal the importance of diversifying the sources  
535 of fungicide resistance management information. This can promote behaviour change among  
536 different grower groups. Most growers in the study nominated their agronomists as the  
537 primary source of fungicide resistance management information. A study by [Ingram \(2008\)](#)  
538 assessed how growers and agronomists receive and deliver information and the dynamics  
539 involved in these encounters. They established that trust, credibility and empathy underpin  
540 positive agronomist-grower interactions.

541 We also found that younger growers or growers with less experience use diverse information  
542 sources to assist them in managing fungicide resistance. Conversely, experienced growers  
543 were more likely to rely on fewer sources of information for their fungicide resistance man-

544 agement. Additionally, in regards to the most preferred media, younger growers favoured  
545 social media and online media. In contrast, the older age group favoured more traditional  
546 sources of information, such as print media and field days. These results reveal the need to  
547 diversify fungicide resistance information sources to cater to diverse grower groups.

548 The third objective sought to understand growers' attitudes and behaviour towards fungicide  
549 resistance management. Using thematic and content analysis, we find that most growers  
550 consider the economic impact of fungicide resistance as the main driver of change when faced  
551 with fungicide resistance risk. This aligns with the existing literature that has established  
552 that fungicide resistance risk impacts growers' ability to control disease outbreaks (see, e.g.,  
553 [Rehfus et al., 2016](#); [Tucker et al., 2015](#); [Ilbery et al., 2012](#)). Furthermore, unsurprisingly, we  
554 find that information regarding the impact of fungicide resistance on yield and profitability  
555 was the main driver of FRM practice adoption. In fact, the adoption of FRM practice is  
556 mainly driven by the cost of implementing the practice. These findings demonstrate the  
557 importance of quantifying the financial impact of fungicide resistance risk and considering  
558 the cost of implementation in any future effort to influence growers' willingness to adopt  
559 FRM practices.

560 Growers' perception of fungicide resistance is also manifested through fungicide inefficacy  
561 and a loss of disease control with current practices. For instance, growers indicated that the  
562 adoption of fungicide resistance management practices is influenced by: (1) a receipt of a  
563 positive fungicide resistance diagnosis; (2) a loss of disease control with existing fungicide  
564 resistance management practices; (3) a reduction in current productivity; and (4) a rise in  
565 the cost of fungicide treatment. These findings point to the importance of having active  
566 and ongoing support in diagnosing fungicide resistance on-farm, education around FRM  
567 practices, and accurate quantification of the financial impact of fungicide resistance issues  
568 and FRM practices.

569 Surprisingly, our findings reveal that fungicide resistance concerns carry significant psy-  
570 chological and emotional impacts. Many growers identified fungicide resistance issues as  
571 stressful, frustrating, and worrying. To our knowledge, this is the first study to investigate  
572 the impact of fungicide resistance issues on growers' psychological well-being. These find-  
573 ings demonstrate the need to consider fungicide resistance beyond the economic impacts and  
574 examine its social and psychological costs to growers. This also prompts further research in  
575 examining and devising effective management practices to safeguard growers' psychological  
576 and social well-being in the face of growing fungicide resistance issues. We anticipate that by  
577 understanding the socio-economic cost of the fungicide resistance problem, the agricultural

578 industry can provide targeted intervention strategies to growers leading to a profitable and  
579 sustainable industry.

## 580 **Acknowledgements**

581 We sincerely thank the 137 grain growers from West Australia’s Wheatbelt who participated  
582 in the survey. We would like to acknowledge Matthew Barber, Carole Kerr, Amanda Ian-  
583 nuzzi, Megan Jones, Linda Thomson, and Azin Moslemi for their assistance during the data  
584 collection period. Toto Olita would like to acknowledge Dr. Amir Abadi and Ilean Wright for  
585 their support. The survey is part of the Centre for Crop and Disease Management (CCDM)  
586 Economics Foundation Project: Improving Return on Agribusiness Investment and links  
587 with CCDM’s Barley Disease Cohort Project. We gratefully acknowledge funding support  
588 from the Grains Research and Development Corporation (GRDC) and Curtin University  
589 (project number CUR00023).

## **References**

- ABARES (2021), Value Of Agricultural Commodities Produced, Australia, 2019-20 Finan-  
cial Year, Technical report, Australian Bureau Of Agricultural and Resource Economics  
and Sciences.
- Abdi, H., Williams, L. J. and Valentin, D. (2013), ‘Multiple factor analysis: principal com-  
ponent analysis for multitable and multiblock data sets’, *WIREs Computational Statistics*  
**5**(2), 149–179.
- ABS (2020), Value of Agricultural Commodities Produced, Australia, 2019-20 Financial  
Year, Statistics, Australian Bureau of Statistics.  
**URL:** [https://www.abs.gov.au/statistics/industry/agriculture/value-agricultural-  
commodities-produced-australia/latest-release](https://www.abs.gov.au/statistics/industry/agriculture/value-agricultural-commodities-produced-australia/latest-release)
- Al-Hassan, R., Jatoe, J. B. D. and Egyir, I. S. (2010), ‘Biopesticides in ghana: vegetable  
farmers’ perception and willingness to pay’, *The IUP Journal of Agricultural Economics*  
**7**(4), 17–32.
- Anderson, P. K., Cunningham, A. A., Patel, N. G., Morales, F. J., Epstein, P. R. and Daszak,  
P. (2004), ‘Emerging infectious diseases of plants: pathogen pollution, climate change and  
agrotechnology drivers’, *Trends in Ecology & Evolution* **19**(10), 535–544.



- Andersons Centre (2014), ‘The effect of the loss of plant protection products on uk agriculture and horticulture and the wider economy’.
- APVMA (2021), ‘Public Chemical Registration Information System Search. Australian Pesticides and Veterinary Medicines Authority, Canberra, Australia.’.  
**URL:** <https://portal.apvma.gov.au/pubcris>
- Bécue-Bertaut, M. and Pagès, J. (2008), ‘Multiple factor analysis and clustering of a mixture of quantitative, categorical and frequency data’, *Computational Statistics & Data Analysis* **52**(6), 3255–3268.
- Braun, V. and Clarke, V. (2006), ‘Using thematic analysis in psychology’, *Qualitative Research in Psychology* **3**(2), 77–101.
- Carlson, G. A. (1970), ‘A decision theoretic approach to crop disease prediction and control’, *American Journal of Agricultural Economics* **52**(2), 216–223.
- Comins, H. N. (1977), ‘The management of pesticide resistance’, *Journal of Theoretical Biology* **65**(3), 399–420.
- Cooke, B. (2006), Disease assessment and yield loss, in ‘The epidemiology of plant diseases’, Springer, pp. 43–80.
- Cooper, B. and Okello, W. O. (2021), ‘An economic lens to understanding antimicrobial resistance: disruptive cases to livestock and wastewater management in Australia’, *Australian Journal of Agricultural and Resource Economics* **65**(4), 900–917.
- Damicone, J. (2014), Fungicide Resistance Management, Technical report, Oklahoma Cooperative Extension Service. EPP-7663.
- De Steur, H., Van Loo, E. J., Maes, J., Gheysen, G. and Verbeke, W. (2019), ‘Farmers’ Willingness to Adopt Late Blight-Resistant Genetically Modified Potatoes’, *Agronomy* **9**(6), 280.
- Dehne, H. W., Deising, H. B., Gisi, U., Kuck, K. H., Russell, P. E. and Lyr, H., eds (2011), *Modern fungicides and antifungal compounds VI. 16th International Reinhardtbrunn Symposium, Friedrichroda, Germany, April 25-29, 2010.*, Deutsche Phytomedizinische Gesellschaft e.V. Selbstverlag, Germany.
- Deloitte Access Economics (2018), ‘Economic activity attributable to crop protection products CropLife Australia’.

- Elderfield, J. A. D., Lopez-Ruiz, F. J., van den Bosch, F. and Cunniffe, N. J. (2018), ‘Using Epidemiological Principles to Explain Fungicide Resistance Management Tactics: Why do Mixtures Outperform Alternations?’, *Phytopathology*® **108**(7), 803–817. PMID: 29377769.
- Escofier, B. and Pagès, J. (1994), ‘Multiple factor analysis (AFMULT package)’, *Computational Statistics & Data Analysis* **18**(1), 121–140.
- Grimmer, M. K., van den Bosch, F., Powers, S. J. and Paveley, N. D. (2014), ‘Evaluation of a matrix to calculate fungicide resistance risk’, *Pest Management Science* **70**(6), 1008–1016.
- Gullino, L. M. and Laetitia, K. A. (1994), ‘Social and political implications of managing plant diseases with restricted fungicides in europe’, *Annual review of phytopathology* **32**(1), 559–581.
- Hall, D. C. and Norgaard, R. B. (1973), ‘On the timing and application of pesticides’, *American Journal of Agricultural Economics* **55**(2), 198–201.
- Hillebrandt, P. M. (1960), ‘The economic theory of the use of pesticides. Part I. The dosage response curve, the rate of application and the area to be treated’, *Journal of Agricultural Economics* **13**, 464–472.
- Hollomon, D. W. and Brent, K. J. (2009), ‘Combating plant diseases — the Darwin connection’, *Pest Management Science* **65**(11), 1156–1163.
- Ilbery, B., Maye, D. and Little, R. (2012), ‘Plant disease risk and grower–agronomist perceptions and relationships: An analysis of the uk potato and wheat sectors’, *Applied Geography* **34**, 306–315.
- Ingram, J. (2008), ‘Agronomist–farmer knowledge encounters: an analysis of knowledge exchange in the context of best management practices in England’, *Agriculture and Human Values* **25**(3), 405–418.
- Ireland, K. B., Beard, C., Cameron, J., Chang, S., Davidson, J., Dodhia, K., Garrard, T., Hills, A., Holloway, G., Jayasena, K., Kiss, L., Mair, W., Marcroft, S., McLean, M., Milgate, A., Poole, N., Simpfendorfer, S., Snyman, L., Thomas, G., Wallwork, H., Van de Wouw, A., Zulak, K. and Lopez-Ruiz, F. J. (2021), ‘Fungicide resistance management in Australian grain crops’. Grains Research and Development Corporation, Australia.  
**URL:** <https://grdc.com.au/fungicide-resistance-management-in-australian-grain-crops>

- Ishii, H. and Hollomon, D. W. (2015), *Fungicide resistance in plant pathogens: Principles and a Guide to Practical Management*, Springer.
- Jayasena, K., Van Burgel, A., Tanaka, K., Majewski, J. and Loughman, R. (2007), ‘Yield reduction in barley in relation to spot-type net blotch’, *Australasian Plant Pathology* **36**, 429–433.
- Jolliffe, I. T. and Cadima, J. (2016), ‘Principal component analysis: a review and recent developments’, *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society A: Mathematical, Physical and Engineering Sciences* **374**(2065), 20150202.
- Khoury, W. E. and Makkouk, K. (2010), ‘Integrated plant disease management in developing countries’, *Journal of Plant Pathology* **92**(4), S35–S42.  
**URL:** <http://www.jstor.org/stable/41998886>
- Liu, Z., Ellwood, S. R., Oliver, R. P. and Friesen, T. L. (2011), ‘Pyrenophora teres: profile of an increasingly damaging barley pathogen’, *Molecular Plant Pathology* **12**(1), 1–19.
- Lopez-Ruiz, F., Mair, W., Thomas, G., Jayasena, K., Hills, A. and Martin, A. (2020), Azole resistance in spot-form net blotch in Western Australia, Technical report, Grains Research and Development Corporation (GRDC) Updates.
- Lopez-Ruiz, F., Mair, W., Zulak, K., Oliver, R., Thomas, G., Jayasena, K. and Hills, A. (2018), Fungicide resistance: discoveries in barley net blotches pave way to better understanding the resistance mechanisms, Technical report, Grains Research and Development Corporation (GRDC) Updates.
- Mair, W. J., Deng, W., Mullins, J. G., West, S., Wang, P., Besharat, N., Ellwood, S. R., Oliver, R. P. and Lopez-Ruiz, F. J. (2016), ‘Demethylase inhibitor fungicide resistance in *Pyrenophora teres* f. sp. *teres* associated with target site modification and inducible overexpression of Cyp51’, *Frontiers in microbiology* **7**, 1279.
- Mann, S. (2018), ‘Conservation by Innovation: What Are the Triggers for Participation Among Swiss Farmers?’, *Ecological Economics* **146**, 10–16.
- Mason, R. and Harris, C. (2018), ‘Regulation of Plant Protection products in the UK after Brexit’. Report number: 1710541.UK0 – 8023.
- McLean, M., Howlett, B. and Hollaway, G. (2010), ‘Spot form of net blotch, caused by *Pyrenophora teres* f. *maculata*, is the most prevalent foliar disease of barley in Victoria’, *Australasian Plant Pathology* **39**, 46–49.

- Murray, G. and Brennan, J. (2010), 'Estimating disease losses to the Australian barley industry', *Australasian Plant Pathology* **39**, 85–96.
- Newlands, N. K. (2018), 'Model-based forecasting of agricultural crop disease risk at the regional scale, integrating airborne inoculum, environmental, and satellite-based monitoring data', *Frontiers in Environmental Science* **6**, 63.
- Oliver, C. L., Cooper, M. L., Lewis Ivey, M. L., Brannen, P. M., Miles, T. D., Mahaffee, W. F. and Moyer, M. M. (2021), 'Assessing the United States grape industry's understanding of fungicide resistance mitigation practices', *American Journal of Enology and Viticulture* **72**(2), 181–193.
- Pedigo, L. P., Hutchins, S. H. and Higley, L. G. (1986), 'Economic injury levels in theory and practice', *Annual review of entomology* **31**, 341 – 368.
- Poole, N. F. and Arnaudin, M. E. (2014), 'The role of fungicides for effective disease management in cereal crops', *Canadian Journal of Plant Pathology* **36**, 1–11.
- Price, C. L., Parker, J. E., Warrilow, A. G., Kelly, D. E. and Kelly, S. L. (2015), 'Azole fungicides – understanding resistance mechanisms in agricultural fungal pathogens', *Pest Management Science* **71**(8), 1054–1058.
- Rabbinge, R., Ward, S. A. and Van Laar, H. H. (1989), *Simulation and systems management in crop protection*, Pudoc Wageningen.
- Rehfus, A., Miessner, S., Achenbach, J., Strobel, D., Bryson, R. and Stammler, G. (2016), 'Emergence of succinate dehydrogenase inhibitor resistance of *Pyrenophora teres* in Europe', *Pest Management Science* **72**(10), 1977–1988.
- Rickard, S. (2008), 'What price protection? an economic assessment of the impact of proposed restrictions on crop protection substances'.
- Savary, S., Ficke, A., Aubertot, J.-N. and Hollier, C. (2012), 'Crop losses due to diseases and their implications for global food production losses and food security', *Food security* **4**, 519–537.
- Savary, S. and Willocquet, L. (2014), 'Modeling Yield Losses Due to Pests - The GENEPEST Structure. In Simulation Modeling in Botanical Epidemiology and Crop Loss Analysis'. APSnet Education Center, Plant Health Instructor.
- Stuthman, D., Leonard, K. and Miller-Garvin, J. (2007), 'Breeding crops for durable resistance to disease', *Advances in Agronomy* **95**, 319–367.

- Tammes, P. M. L. (1961), 'Studies of yield losses ii. injury as a limiting factor of yield', *Tijdschrift over plantenziekten* **67**(3), 257–263.
- Tucker, M. A., Lopez-Ruiz, F., Jayasena, K. and Oliver, R. P. (2015), Origin of fungicide-resistant barley powdery mildew in western australia: Lessons to be learned, *in* 'Fungicide Resistance in Plant Pathogens: Principles and a Guide to Practical Management', Springer, pp. 329–340.
- Turkington, T. K., O'Donovan, J. T., Edney, M. J., Juskiw, P. E., McKenzie, R. H., Harker, K. N., Clayton, G. W., Xi, K., Lafond, G. P., Irvine, R. B., Brandt, S., Johnson, E. N., May, W. E. and Smith, E. (2012), 'Effect of crop residue, nitrogen rate and fungicide application on malting barley productivity, quality, and foliar disease severity', *Canadian Journal of Plant Science* **92**(3), 577–588.
- van den Berg, F., van den Bosch, F. and Paveley, N. D. (2013), 'Optimal Fungicide Application Timings for Disease Control Are Also an Effective Anti-Resistance Strategy: A Case Study for *Zymoseptoria tritici* (*Mycosphaerella graminicola*) on Wheat', *Phytopathology* **103**(12), 1209–1219.
- van den Bosch, F., Blake, J., Gosling, P., Helps, J. C. and Paveley, N. (2020), 'Identifying when it is financially beneficial to increase or decrease fungicide dose as resistance develops: An evaluation from long-term field experiments', *Plant Pathology* **69**(4), 631–641.
- van den Bosch, F., Lopez-Ruiz, F., Oliver, R., Paveley, N., Helps, J. and van den Berg, F. (2018), 'Identifying when it is financially beneficial to increase or decrease fungicide dose as resistance develops', *Plant Pathology* **67**(3), 549–560.
- van den Bosch, F., Oliver, R., van den Berg, F. and Paveley, N. (2014), 'Governing principles can guide fungicide-resistance management tactics', *Annual Review of Phytopathology* **52**(1), 175–195.
- Vatn, A., Kvakkestad, V., Åsmund Lægreid Steiro and Hodge, I. (2020), 'Pesticide taxes or voluntary action? an analysis of responses among norwegian grain farmers', *Journal of Environmental Management* **276**, 111074.
- Walters, D. R., Avrova, A., Bingham, I. J., Burnett, F. J., Fountaine, J., Havis, N. D., Hoad, S. P., Hughes, G., Looseley, M., Oxley, S. J. et al. (2012), 'Control of foliar diseases in barley: towards an integrated approach', *European Journal of Plant Pathology* **133**(1), 33–73.

Weber, R. (1990), 'Techniques of content analysis. In Basic content analysis'. SAGE Publications, Inc.

Zadoks, J. (1985), 'On the conceptual basis of crop loss assessment: the threshold theory', *Annual Review of Phytopathology* **23**, 455–473.