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1       **The impact of fungicide treatment and Integrated Pest Management on barley yields:**  
2                               **analysis of a long term field trials database**

3     Stacia Stetkiewicz<sup>1, 2, 3, 4</sup>, Fiona J. Burnett<sup>1</sup>, Richard A. Ennos<sup>3</sup>, Cairistiona F.E. Topp<sup>1\*</sup>

4     <sup>1</sup> Crops and Soil Systems, Scotland's Rural College, Peter Wilson Building, King's Buildings, W. Mains Road, Edinburgh EH9 3JG

5     <sup>2</sup> Innogen, School of Social and Political Sciences, University of Edinburgh

6     <sup>3</sup> Institute of Evolutionary Biology, School of Biological Sciences, University of Edinburgh

7     <sup>4</sup> Present institutional address: Computing Science and Mathematics, Faculty of Natural Sciences, University of Stirling

8  
9     \*Corresponding author. *E-mail address:* [Kairsty.Topp@sruc.ac.uk](mailto:Kairsty.Topp@sruc.ac.uk)

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11    Keywords: spring barley, regression model, disease resistance, disease pressure

12                       **Abstract**

13       This paper assesses potential for Integrated Pest Management (IPM) techniques to  
14    reduce the need for fungicide use without negatively impacting yields. The impacts of three  
15    disease management practices of relevance to broad acre crops –disease resistance,  
16    forecasting disease pressure, and fungicide use – were analysed to determine impact on  
17    yield using a long-term field trials database of Scottish spring barley, with information from  
18    experiments across the country regarding yield, disease levels, and fungicide treatment.  
19    Due to changes in data collection practices, data from 1996 – 2010 were only available at trial  
20    level, while data from 2011 – 2014 were available at plot level. For this reason, data from  
21    1996 – 2014 were analysed using regression models, while a subset of farmer relevant  
22    varieties was taken from the 2011- 2014 data, and analysed using ANOVA, to provide  
23    additional information of particular relevance to current farm practice. While fungicide use  
24    reduced disease severity in 51.4%of a farmer-relevant subset of trials run 2011 – 2014, and  
25    yields were decreased by 0.62t/ha on average, this was not statistically significant in 65% of  
26    trials. Fungicide use had only a minor impact on profit in these trials, with an average  
27    increase of 4.4% for malting and 4.7% for feed varieties, based on fungicide cost and yield  
28    difference; potential savings such as reduced machinery costs were not considered, as these

29 may vary widely. Likewise, the 1996 – 2014 database showed an average yield increase of  
30 0.74t/ha due to fungicide use, across a wide range of years, sites, varieties, and climatic  
31 conditions. A regression model was developed to assess key IPM and site factors which  
32 influenced the difference between treated and untreated yields across this 18-year period.  
33 Disease resistance, season rainfall, and combined disease severity of the three fungal  
34 diseases were found to be significant factors in the model. Sowing only highly resistant  
35 varieties and, as technology improves, forecasting disease pressure based on anticipated  
36 weather would help to reduce and optimise fungicide use.

## 37 **I. Introduction**

38 Fungicides are widely used in arable agriculture to reduce disease burden and its  
39 impact on yields and quality, yet the effect of fungicides on yield is far from clear. While  
40 some field studies show overall increases in yield (Kelley 2001 working on winter wheat;  
41 Paul et al. 2011, maize; Willyerd et al. 2015, winter wheat), others find no increase (Poysal,  
42 Brammally, and Pitblados 1993, tomato; Swoboda and Pedersen 2008, soybean), and many  
43 present highly mixed results (Cook et al. 2002, wheat; Cook and King 1984, barley and  
44 wheat; Gaspar et al. 2014, soybean; Mycroft 1983, barley and wheat; Priestley and Bayles  
45 1982, barley and wheat; Wiik 2009, winter wheat). Given that intensive fungicide use also  
46 has a variety of concurrent detrimental effects, such as negative impacts on soil health and  
47 soil ecosystems (Chen et al., 2001; Walia et al., 2014), and non-target toxicity linked to  
48 biodiversity loss in agricultural areas (McLaughlin & Mineau, 1995; Robinson & Sutherland,  
49 2002; Geiger et al., 2010), alternative approaches to managing pests and diseases are  
50 increasingly sought after. One such alternative is Integrated Pest Management (IPM), an  
51 ecosystem based approach, first proposed by Stern et al. (1959), which combines diverse

52 management practices in order to minimize the use of pesticides while protecting crops from  
53 pests and pathogens. IPM is an ecosystem approach which combines diverse management  
54 practices in order to minimize the use of pesticides while protecting crops from pests and pathogens  
55 (FAO 2017), and has been found to improve the overall environmental sustainability of farms, as  
56 compared to conventional pesticide use situations (Lefebvre, Langrell, and Gomez-y-Paloma 2014).  
57 IPM can encompass a number of techniques to reduce pathogen population levels or impact  
58 on crops, including spraying pesticide where appropriate, crop rotation, varietal disease  
59 resistance, forecasting disease pressure, adjusting product dose and timing, sowing  
60 early/late in the season, and monitoring disease in field so that inputs can be adjusted  
61 accordingly.

62 In order to target and reduce fungicide inputs, while maintaining high yields, it is  
63 necessary to understand under what conditions (i.e. weather, varietal resistance level,  
64 previous crop, etc.) fungicide application impacts yields. Applications can then be tailored to  
65 situations where a yield increase is likely to occur, and eschewed when yield is unlikely to  
66 be impacted. An understanding of the situations in which various IPM strategies impact  
67 yields is also necessary, in order for uptake of these techniques to be optimised.

68 Proving direct links between fungicide use, yields, management strategies, and  
69 disease is difficult. For example, several experiments on wheat have linked fungicide use to  
70 yield increases. Work on fungicide control of powdery mildew (caused by *Blumeria graminis*  
71 f. sp. *tritici*) and septoria (caused by *Zymoseptoria tritici*) diseases found wheat yield increases  
72 of up to 2.7 t/ha (Jørgensen et al., 2000). Cook and King (1984) conducted field surveys of  
73 winter wheat, and found yield responses to fungicide use of up to 89%, with the most  
74 damaging leaf disease being mildew. However, many experiments have reported

75 inconsistent results – in wet conditions, for example, fungicide use increased yields in winter  
76 wheat grown in the US, while in dry years this was not seen (Wegulo et al., 2012). In a long-  
77 term field experiment on wheat in Sweden, only 52% of the years between 1983 and 2007  
78 showed significant increases in yield from fungicide use (Wiik & Rosenqvist, 2010). Priestley  
79 and Bayles (1982), working on spring barley in England found that yield impact from  
80 fungicide use varied between years from a 2.4% increase in yield to 13.8%. The relationship  
81 between fungicide use, reduced disease, and increased yields therefore remains unclear,  
82 complicating management decisions. A number of factors likely contribute to this variation,  
83 including disease development, changes in yield potential, disease tolerance in the crop  
84 (Bingham et al. 2009), and the physiological effects of fungicide on barley, which may be  
85 beneficial even in the absence of disease (Bingham et al. 2012).

86         Analysing data collected across a range of sites, in different fields, with different  
87 weather conditions, and different management practices, can offer useful insight into which  
88 factors are most influential in determining the impact of treatment on yield. Much of the  
89 literature on the use of key IPM techniques is based on experiments running for less than  
90 five years (e.g. Makowski et al. 2005 working on sclerotinia in French oilseed rape; (Loyce et  
91 al. 2008) working on diseases of French winter wheat; (Mazzilli et al. 2016) working on  
92 wheat in Uruguay). The work by Twengström et al. (1998) and Yuen et al. (1996) on  
93 sclerotinia stem rot of oilseed rape is an example of an attempt to link yield and disease,  
94 providing both a forecast of the likely disease severity and a risk algorithm, and considering  
95 a range of factors, including crop rotation, rainfall, and previous disease incidence. Here,  
96 each factor was assessed first in an individual regression, then a full model was compiled,  
97 including all terms, and a given factor removed to determine whether or not its inclusion  
98 improved the model's ability to predict epidemics (Twengström et al. 1998). While this work

99 provided a useful tool for farmer decision making, one issue which was specifically raised  
100 by Twengström was the lack of data going back further than six years – longer term  
101 experimental work was suggested as a way of improving predictive power. While few  
102 studies on long-term data have thus far been conducted which explicitly test the impact of  
103 fungicide use on yield and disease levels, Wiik and Ewaldz's (2009) work on winter wheat in  
104 Sweden using data from 1983 – 2005, followed by further analysis done by Wiik (2010) of the  
105 data for 1977 – 2005 are notable exceptions, and both suggest that yield increases from  
106 fungicide treatments are highly variable. Maximum yield increase from a single fungicide  
107 treatment in 1983 – 2007 was found to be 1.9 t/ha and minimum yield increase was under 0.3  
108 t/ha (Wiik & Ewaldz, 2009). Similarly, Cook and Thomas (1990), working on winter wheat in  
109 the UK, saw large fluctuations in yield response to fungicide across years, with one  
110 fungicide application per season leading to average yield increases of 0.77 t/ha in 1985, but  
111 as little as 0.38 t/ha in 1984. Due to this variability, calls have been made for further analysis  
112 of long-term field trials which compare yield, disease, and treatment, to allow optimisation  
113 of fungicide use (Wiik, 2009).

114 Long-term databases can potentially provide useful information regarding IPM  
115 efficacy, as data can be collected in a number of weather and agronomic situations, within  
116 the same region. However, assessing long-term data can be problematic, as data collection  
117 and storage methods are likely to have changed over time, especially where the data has  
118 been initially collected for purposes other than long-term analysis. In addition, the  
119 institutional funding and dedication required to produce long-term datasets is often lacking,  
120 due to other institutional pressures. Long-term datasets therefore often provide information  
121 with varying levels of quality and consistency (Clutton-Brock and Sheldon 2010). Despite  
122 these drawbacks, the use of long-term data continues to be considered a useful way of

123 teasing apart complex relationships and causality in ecological studies (Clutton-Brock and  
124 Sheldon 2010; Lindenmayer et al. 2012), and, along with information regarding between-  
125 year weather variation, can therefore provide a useful starting point for considering disease  
126 prevention.

127         The present study makes use of a long-term field trials database collected regarding  
128 spring barley in Scotland to assess the impact of spraying fungicide and implementing IPM  
129 on crop yields. Barley is one of the most widely grown crops in the world, with an average  
130 of 53,572,792 hectares harvested each year, globally (FAOSTAT, 2013), and is of particular  
131 importance in Scotland, where spring barley is the main cereal crop, accounting for  
132 approximately 50% of arable land (excluding permanent grassland) in 2016 (Scottish  
133 Government, 2016b). The key pests of barley are fungal pathogens, which have been estimated to  
134 cause a total yield loss of 15% worldwide (Oerke and Dehne 2004) and 14% in the USA (James, Teng,  
135 and Nutter 1991). To combat these diseases, a total of 187,173 kg of fungicide was applied to  
136 Scottish spring barley in 2014 representing 42% of the total amount of pesticide applied to the crop  
137 (Scottish Government 2014). Fungicide use in Scottish spring barley therefore provides a useful case  
138 study opportunity to assess the potential for reducing pesticide use, in a system which is of both  
139 local and global importance.

140         Three fungal diseases of particular importance to spring barley production were  
141 assessed as part of this work: mildew (caused by *Blumeria graminis* formae specialis *hordei*),  
142 Rhynchosporium (caused by *Rhynchosporium commune*) and Ramularia (caused by *Ramularia*  
143 *collo-cygni*). Humidity has been proposed as a key risk factor for all three diseases (mildew:  
144 Channon, 1981; Rhynchosporium: Ryan & Clare, 1975, Salamati & Magnus, 1997 ;  
145 Ramularia: Havis et al, 2012 ), as have temperatures between 15 and 21°C (mildew: Polley

146 and King, 1973; Rhynchosporium: Salamati & Magnus 1997, Ryan & Clare, 1975, Xue & Hall,  
147 1992; Ramularia: Havis et al., 2015).

148 Reducing fungicide use – if this can be achieved without impacting yields – could offer  
149 an opportunity to reduce the negative environmental and health impacts associated with  
150 crop production. This study aims to identify key management and environmental factors  
151 which drive yield difference between sprayed and unsprayed spring barley. A basic  
152 economic analysis is also presented to assess the potential impact on farmer's profits, had  
153 they opted not to use fungicides in 2011 – 2014, providing insight into what is likely to be a  
154 key driver of farmer behaviour.

## 155 **II. Materials and methods**

### 156 **a) Field Trials data as a platform for analysis**

157 Data has been collected from field trials at a range of locations across Scotland since 1983  
158 regarding yield, disease levels and fungicide treatment, along with a range of other  
159 management factors. As the trials included widely used cultivars across this period, the  
160 Field Trials database can provide a particularly farmer-relevant set of analyses. After an  
161 extensive review of the Field Trials database, information from 1996 (the year in which  
162 reports began to be stored electronically) onwards was retrieved for analysis; due to quality  
163 issues in the older data, this paper analyses solely the information from 1996 - 2014 (see  
164 Table 1 for a summary of the geographical spread of this database).

165 Trials used a randomised block design with three or four replicates per trial and plots  
166 ranging in size from 20 to 40m<sup>2</sup>. For each block within the trial, data for one untreated plot  
167 was recorded in the database, alongside one fungicide treated: the 'best practice' treatment  
168 for that year as determined by expert opinion (obtained from the lead plant pathologist at



169 Scotland’s Rural College [SRUC], based on the results from the larger trials programme from  
170 which this data set is extracted), allowing direct comparison of within-block differences  
171 between treated and untreated plots. The ‘best practice’ treatment varied in chemistry,  
172 timing, and number of applications between years and locations across the database. For  
173 each trial in the Field Trials database, information is recorded about key farm management  
174 features (e.g. varietal selection, preceding crop, sowing date, etc.), fungicide use information  
175 (type, dose, and timing of application), disease information (percentage disease severity for  
176 a number of key diseases at several growth stages during the crop growing season), and  
177 yield. The number of disease assessments and the growth stages at which these were  
178 measured during the growing season varied between trials, and by year and location. Trials  
179 were assessed for disease at each application timing and usually 2-3 weekly thereafter until  
180 the crop was senesced (less than 50% green leaf area on last remaining leaf). Though data  
181 regarding the quality of the barley yield was collected for some trials, this was not  
182 consistently recorded throughout the database, and so is not considered in these analyses.

183 **Table 1: Summary of the geographical spread across Scottish Government sub-regions in**  
184 **the 1996 – 2014 database**

	Clyde Valley	Dumfries & Galloway	Fife	Lothian	North East	Scottish Borders	Tayside	Total trials in this year
1996				4		3		7
1997						1		1
1998				7				7
1999		1		2		2		5
2000				3		1	1	5
2001						1	1	2
2002				1			1	2
2003		2		1		1	1	5
2004		3	2	4			2	11
2005			1		1		1	3
2006						3	1	4
2007				2		3	1	6
2008						1		1

	Clyde Valley	Dumfries & Galloway	Fife	Lothian	North East	Scottish Borders	Tayside	Total trials in this year
2009							3	3
2010				2			1	3
2011	1		1	4			3	9
2012	2		1	6			1	10
2013	4			9			1	14
2014	5			7	1		1	14

185

186 **b) Data collection and preparation**

187 Additional data regarding weather, varietal disease resistance, and area under the

188 disease progress curve were added to the Field Trials database for analysis as described

189 below. Monthly regional weather data for each year were downloaded from the Met Office

190 for the two regions relevant to the trials database; Eastern and Western Scotland (Met Office,

191 2016). A list of the trial locations in each region is presented in Table 2. As anomaly weather

192 data, showing variation from the mean, were not directly available from the Met office for

193 the growing seasons (March – August, inclusive, based on average growing season within

194 the Field Trials database), mean temperature and rainfall were calculated using Met Office

195 weather data for each region from 1981 – 2010, the most recent baseline available from the

196 Met Office, for the full growing season. Anomaly values were then calculated in accordance

197 with the levels used in the Met Office (2016b) 1981 – 2010 anomaly maps (for more details on

198 the methods used to produce these maps, see Met Office 2016b). A growing season was

199 therefore classed as ‘wet’ if the percent of average rainfall in that period was 110% or more,

200 and ‘dry’ if under 90% of the average; it was classed as ‘hot’ if more than 0.5°C higher than

201 average, and ‘cold’ if more than 0.5°C colder than average, as per the Met Office anomaly

202 map classes (see Table 3). Additional classifications of ‘very hot’ and ‘very dry’, etc. were

203 trialled in initial stages of exploratory data analysis, but due to a lack of variability in the  
 204 weather, these were not used in the final version of the database.

205

206 **Table 2: Regions corresponding to trial locations in the 2011 – 2014 database**

Region	Trial location	Latitude		Longitude		Average yield (t/ha)	Average sow date
East of Scotland	Burnside BDE	56°28'	56.40" N	003°27'	28.99" W	5.8	75
	Balruddery BRY	56°28'	55.77" N	003°07'	48.16" W	7.1	82
	Balgonie BIE	56°11'	02.65" N	003°06'	24.36" W	6.5	83
	Boghall BLL	55°52'	16.78" N	003°12'	29.25" W	6.6	87
	Cauldshiel CEL	55°53'	35.87" N	002°50'	04.68" W	5.6	76
West of Scotland	Drumalbin DIN	55°37'	26.80" N	003°44'	25.73" W	6.9	93

207

208 **Table 3: Rainfall and temperature anomalies for each region in the 2011 – 2014 database**

Region	Growing season rainfall anomaly value				Growing season temperature anomaly value			
	2011	2012	2013	2014	2011	2012	2013	2014
East of Scotland	Wet	Wet	Dry	Wet	Average	Cold	Average	Hot
West of Scotland	Wet	Wet	Dry	Average	Average	Average	Average	Hot

209

210 Varietal disease resistance information was added to the database using the  
 211 SRUC/Scottish Agricultural College & Home Grown Cereals Authority cereal recommended  
 212 lists for Scotland (1996 – 2014). Where a variety was not included in the recommended lists,  
 213 and therefore could not be compared with other trials, it was removed from the database.

214 In order to provide a quantitative measure of disease intensity which could be used  
215 to assess impact of fungicide use on disease, AUDPC was calculated using the standard  
216 trapezoidal method, after Madden et al. (2007), such that:

$$217 \text{ AUDPC} = \sum_{j=1}^{n_j-1} \left( \frac{y_j + y_{j+1}}{2} \right) (t_{j+1} - t_j)$$

218 Where  $t_j$  is the sample at a given time point  $j$ ,  $y_j$  is the disease level at the time point  $j$ , and  $n_j$   
219 is the number of time points. Growing season AUDPC was calculated for each of the three  
220 diseases (Rhynchosporium, Ramularia, and mildew) for each trial, as was Total AUDPC (the  
221 sum of AUDPC for the three diseases).

222 In a number of cases for trials prior to 2011, yield and disease severity measurements  
223 were recorded only as means for a given treatment, rather than at plot level. Where possible,  
224 plot level data was retrieved from old trial reports, but in a majority of cases plot level data  
225 was unavailable. A means database was therefore created, running from 1996 - 2014, by  
226 taking means of plot level data, where available, in order to render the database internally  
227 consistent.

228 Prior to analysis of the full dataset, a subset of the data chosen for its direct relevance  
229 to current commercial farmers was first analysed. This subset comprised the last four years  
230 of information available (2011 – 2014), for the varieties which were in use by farmers during  
231 this period (as determined by a farmer survey, reported in Stetkiewicz et al. (2018)) to  
232 provide information which is relevant to current farmer decision making. Data in this  
233 subset was available at individual plot level, which also allows for statistical analysis within  
234 trials, something which is not possible for the full dataset, due to the lack of plot level data.

235 c) **Analysis of the 2011 – 2014 plot level subset**

236 First, overall mean and median difference in yields between treated and untreated plots  
237 in the Field Trials database were calculated using the within-trial block data, which was  
238 summarised for the variety. As an assessment of the impact of treatment on trial yields and  
239 disease severity, ANOVA was conducted on each individual trial and variety combination,  
240 using Genstat 16 (VSN International, 2013), and using within-trial block as the blocking  
241 structure. The impact of treatment was tested for yield, mildew AUDPC, Ramularia  
242 AUDPC, Rhynchosporium AUDPC, and Total AUDPC. Significance was set at  $p < 0.05$ .

243 A simple economic analysis was then conducted, using fungicide application cost data  
244 (not including labour and machinery costs) from the SAC Farm Management Handbook  
245 calculations, which was available for spring barley in 2013 and 2014 (SAC Consulting, 2014;  
246 SAC Consulting, 2013). For 2011 and 2012, fungicide cost data was not recorded separately  
247 from total treatment costs, which included herbicides, insecticides, growth regulators and  
248 trace elements (SAC Consulting, 2011; SAC Consulting, 2012). Fungicide applications  
249 represented, on average, 69.2% of the total application costs for the years 2013 – 2016 (SAC  
250 Consulting, 2015; SAC Consulting, 2016; SAC Consulting, 2013; SAC Consulting, 2014). The  
251 cost of fungicide applications in 2011 and 2012 was therefore assumed to be 69.2% of the  
252 total reported treatment costs. Spring barley price information was taken from the AHDB's  
253 market data centre, where two-monthly average prices for spring barley were available  
254 separately for both feed and malting varieties (AHDB, 2016c). Feed varieties were not  
255 included in the Field Trials database for 2013 and 2014, meaning profit margin calculations  
256 were not possible for this period. Average Scottish prices for each market type were  
257 calculated by year for use in the analysis. This allowed a simple estimate of the difference in  
258 profit per hectare between treated and untreated systems to be calculated. The impact of

259 fungicide treatment on difference in profit was assessed across the four years for each  
260 variety use type using two-way ANOVA.

261 **d) Absolute yield difference regressions**

262 **Models**

263 Stepwise regressions using GLM (generalised linear model) in Minitab 16 (2010)  
264 were elaborated for two databases: the full means Field Trials database (1996 – 2014), and  
265 the plot level Field Trials database (2011 – 2014). One of the objectives of this work was to  
266 compare which variables were included in the final stepwise regression for each of these  
267 datasets.

268 The 2011 – 2014 plot level data gave a high level of detail over a short period of time;  
269 this shortened period thus provided less factor variability to test, as there were necessarily a  
270 relatively small number of varieties, preceding crops, and weather conditions. Using the full  
271 dataset for 1996 – 2014 provided the opportunity to compare a larger number of factor  
272 levels, though with means rather than plot level data, and thus is useful for assessing a  
273 wider range of potential management situations.

274 The regression model results presented in this paper are based on the yield  
275 difference between treated and untreated plots/trials. For the 2011 – 2014 plot level data,  
276 this yield difference was calculated in order to compare within-block treated and untreated  
277 yields; for the 1996 – 2014 means database, data were not available for within-block  
278 comparisons, and so yield differences are analysed at trial level (each trial was comprised of  
279 one variety of spring barley). For a summary of the data types and analysis, see Table 4.

280 The variables included in the stepwise regressions were: sowing date; preceding crop  
281 – barley or non-barley; any resistance – disease resistance rating of seven or more to at least  
282 one of the three diseases; AUDPC; and season rainfall and temperature anomaly levels of

283 wet/dry/average and hot/cold/average, respectively. A normal error distribution and  
 284 identity link function were used, as residuals were distributed relatively normally, as  
 285 determined by a review of standardized residual histograms and half-normal plots. Errors  
 286 likely to arise due to aliasing were identified, and these interactions were excluded from the  
 287 analysis. Random effects were unable to be fitted in the model.

288 While models were developed to consider the three individual diseases, in a majority of  
 289 instances, a lack of data for mildew AUDPC through incomplete field recording meant trials  
 290 without this information were removed from the analysis, rendering the results from these  
 291 regressions misleading. As such, the results presented in this paper represent only those  
 292 models which assessed Total AUDPC, rather than individual disease AUDPC.

293 Table 4: Summary of data types and analysis for each dataset

	1996 - 2014 dataset	2011 - 2014 dataset
Data available at	trial level	plot level
Data for	all varieties trialled in this period	only farmer-relevant varieties
Analysis	stepwise regression	stepwise regression within-trial ANOVA

294 **III. Results**

295 **a. 2011 – 2014 plot level initial analysis**

296 *Fungicide treatment does not significantly impact yield in the majority of trials*

297 Though treated plots had, on average, higher yields than untreated by 0.62 t/ha (see  
 298 Table 5), the majority of trials (65%) did not show a statistically significant impact of  
 299 fungicide treatment on yields. In cases where disease was present, disease severity,  
 300 particularly Total AUDPC, was more likely than yield to be reduced by the fungicide  
 301 treatment (see Table 6, below). The significance of treatment impact on yield varied across

302 years and locations, with 2013 (the only one of the four years with a growing season classed  
 303 as 'dry' in both East and West Scotland) having no trials showing a significant impact. Not  
 304 all diseases were present in every trial; the majority of instances where disease was not  
 305 recorded occurred in trials where treatment did not significantly impact yields.  
 306

307 **Table 5: Mean and median of the treated and untreated yields and the difference between**  
 308 **treated and untreated yields of spring barley**

	Mean yield (t/ha)	Standard error of mean (t/ha)	Median yield (t/ha)
Untreated	6.23	0.11	6.38
Treated	6.84	0.12	6.82
Difference	0.62		0.44

309

310 **Table 6: Significance of impact of fungicide treatment on yield and disease severity\***

	Number of trials significantly different	Number of trials not significantly different	Percent of trials significantly different**	Number of trials with no disease pressure
Yield	14	26	35.0	
Total AUDPC (all diseases)	19	18	51.4	3
Rhynchosporium AUDPC	17	19	47.2	4
Ramularia AUDPC	13	13	50.0	14
Mildew AUDPC	6	11	35.3	23

311 \*Significance at  $p < 0.05$

312 \*\*Trials with no disease pressure (a value of zero) are not included in percentage  
 313 significantly different, nor in the number of trials (not) significantly different

314 ***Fungicide use increases profit only marginally***

315 The simple economic analysis conducted compares the mean reduction in yields  
 316 from a lack of use of fungicide to the cost saved by not purchasing fungicides, and assumes  
 317 barley quality for treated and untreated is the same. The resulting difference in profit  
 318 between treated and untreated fields is small, averaging 4.4% (£50.30/ha) for malting



319 varieties and 4.7% (£56.80/ha) for feed varieties (see Table 7). Fungicide cost margins do vary  
320 by year, with malting varieties having, for example, net losses in 2013, compared with the  
321 +7.5% difference in profit in 2012. This difference in margin was significant at  $p \leq 0.05$  for  
322 distilling varieties, but was not significant for feed varieties (see Table 7). This analysis  
323 disregards other possible savings from lack of treatment (e.g. lower labour costs).

324 **Table 7: Cost benefit analysis for malting and feed barley from 2011 – 2014 in Scotland, based on Field Trial database yields**

	Mean Malting	Mean Feed	Difference in fungicide cost margin for		Difference in fungicide cost margin for feed	
	Barley Price (£/t)	Barley Price (£/t)	malting varieties		varieties	
			£/ha	%*	£/ha	%*
2011	193.1	152.1	83.7	6.1	102.4	8.1
2012	200.1	169.4	79.8	7.6	11.1	1.2
2013	145.4	140.2	-24.4	-2.8	-	-
2014	119.3	115.1	62.0	6.9	-	-
Overall	164.5	144.2	50.3 <sup>a</sup>	4.4	56.8	4.7

325 \*Percent difference is based on the treated profits<sup>a</sup> Indicates the relevant difference in cost margin is significant at  $p \leq 0.05$

326 **b. Modelling the full 1996 – 2014 dataset**

327 *Yield Difference*

328 The mean yield difference between treated and untreated across all trials in the 1996  
329 – 2014 dataset was 0.74 t/ha (standard error: 0.06).

330 *Factors retained in the model for the full 1996 – 2014 dataset*

331 Stepwise regressions developed for the 1996 – 2014 data identified Any Resistance,  
332 season rainfall, and disease severity as significant factors (see Table 8). Season rainfall had  
333 the highest R<sup>2</sup> when tested individually (12.5%) and when removed from the model (5.7%).  
334 Any Resistance had the second highest impact on R<sup>2</sup> (9.5% and 5.5%, respectively), and Total  
335 AUDPC, the only other factor included in the model, had the third largest impact (5.2% and  
336 4.3%, respectively).

337 **Table 8: Comparison of R<sup>2</sup> impact of significant factors in the 1996 – 2014 stepwise**  
338 **regressions and individual factor analyses**

	Change in R <sup>2</sup> when removed from the stepwise model (%)	R <sup>2</sup> when tested individually (%)
Any Resistance	5.5	9.5
Season rainfall	5.7	12.5
Total AUDPC	4.3	5.2

339

340 *Regression models - comparisons*

341 The final stepwise models for both the 1996 – 2014 means dataset and 2011 – 2014  
342 plot level dataset included Total AUDPC, though other factors varied between the models  
343 (see Table 9). Only the 1996 – 2014 dataset included Any Resistance, for example, while  
344 growing season temperature was significant in only the 2011 – 2014 plot level data. For the  
345 1996 – 2014 means dataset there was complete agreement between the stepwise models and

346 the individual factor regressions. The 2011 – 2014 plot level dataset had only one factor  
347 which was significant when tested individually, but which did not remain in the stepwise  
348 model: growing season rainfall.

349 **Table 9: Final stepwise regressions for each dataset, including Total AUDPC\***

	Model 1 – stepwise regression (1996 – 2014) including Total AUDPC			Model 2 – stepwise regression (2011 – 2014 plot level data) including Total AUDPC		
	Significance	Coefficient	Difference to R <sup>2</sup> when removed from model (%)	Significance	Coefficient	Difference to R <sup>2</sup> when removed from model (%)
Season rainfall	Wet: 0.017 Dry: 0.110	0.2187 -0.186	-5.7			
Season temperature				Hot: 0.009 Cold: N/A	0.291	-3.8
Any Resistance	<0.001	-0.2817	-5.5			
Total AUDPC	<0.001	0.000489	-4.3	<0.001	0.000574	-13.4
Model R <sup>2</sup>	21.2%			22.3%		

350 \*Factors highlighted in solid grey were significant in both the stepwise regression model and the individual regressions. Those with grey  
 351 dots as highlights were significant only individually. Significance was tested at p<0.05.

352 **IV. Discussion**

353 **a) Fungicide treatment impact on yield is variable**

354 The mean impact of fungicide treatment on yields from 2011 -2014 was 0.62 t/ha,  
355 however, the difference in yield between treated and untreated was statistically significant  
356 only 35% of the time. From 1996 – 2014, mean yield difference was 0.74 t/ha. Farmer survey  
357 work indicates that most Scottish spring barley farmers estimated the yield benefit from  
358 applying fungicides to be between 1 and 2 t/ha (Stetkiewicz et al. 2018), suggesting that if  
359 this yield difference is representative, farmers are overestimating the effect of fungicide.

360 Preliminary economic analysis suggests that increased profit from sprayed fields is in  
361 the range of 4.5% for malting barley, considering only the difference between mean treated  
362 and untreated yields, and the cost of applying fungicides. When additional factors, such as  
363 labour and machinery costs are taken into account, this figure may decrease further. This  
364 analysis assumes that all untreated barley in the Field Trials was of sufficient quality for  
365 malting, which may be inaccurate. There are, however, instances where fungicide treated  
366 yields were substantially (up to 2.01 t/ha) greater than those for untreated plots. In these  
367 situations, for example where varietal disease resistance scores are low, or in years of  
368 particularly wet weather, the scope for fungicide reduction or elimination is likely limited.  
369 Similarly, Wiik and Rosenqvist (2010) found that mean net return from fungicide use on  
370 winter wheat in Sweden was 12 euro/ha over the 25 years studied, with mean net return  
371 being negative in 10 years and with fewer than half of trials in 11 years being profitable to  
372 treat. Recent work on winter wheat in Sweden found that rain, disease severity, soil type  
373 and previous crop were able to identify situations where fungicide treatment gave a positive  
374 marginal return, and that profitability varied with wheat prices (Djurle, Twengström, and

375 Andersson 2018). Additional information about the costs, risks, and potential benefits would  
376 give farmers more confidence when deciding whether or not to reduce fungicide inputs.

377       Approximately half of the 2011 – 2014 trials showed a significant impact of fungicide  
378 treatment on Rhynchosporium, Ramularia, mildew, and Total AUDPC levels. Fungicide  
379 treatment therefore appears to impact disease severity in a large number of trials, but this  
380 impact does not translate directly into a significant impact on yield. Disease tolerance,  
381 whereby the yield of some genotypes is less affected by a given level of disease than other  
382 genotypes (Bingham et al. 2009 working on barley and wheat), may explain some of this  
383 variation. Treatment significance varied across year and location, suggesting other factors  
384 also impact yield difference, such as, perhaps, soil type and quality. Further, 2013, the driest  
385 year, and therefore a year which was not conducive to fungal growth, was also the only year  
386 with no trials showing a significant impact of treatment on yield. Previous work on long-  
387 term databases of winter wheat has found precipitation, along with temperature, to be a  
388 significant factor in predicting yield and disease severity (Wiik & Ewaldz, 2009).

#### 389       **b) Key factors influencing impact of fungicides on yield**

390       The results from the 1996 – 2014 regression model suggest that using season rainfall  
391 (perhaps via a model using within-season weather to identify periods of high risk, as done  
392 for Sclerotinia stem rot in oil seed rape by Yuen et al. (1996), a project which falls beyond the  
393 scope of this paper) as an indicator for likely need to spray fungicide, in conjunction with  
394 varietal disease resistance, has the potential to reduce the need for fungicide use while  
395 maintaining high yields. In all stepwise and individual factor regression models, regardless  
396 of the dataset tested, Total AUDPC was identified as an important factor in terms of yield

397 difference between treated and untreated trials, suggesting that where fungicide use is  
398 effective at increasing yields, this may be related to its reduction of disease severity.

399 High levels of resistance to one or more of the three diseases was also important in both  
400 stepwise and individual factor regression models developed for the full 1996 – 2014 dataset.  
401 In all cases disease resistance was linked with lower yield differences between treated and  
402 untreated trials. That disease resistance buffers the effect of not spraying fungicide is well  
403 established in the field trial literature for wheat diseases (Berry et al., 2008; Cook & Thomas,  
404 1990; Martens et al., 2014).

405 Season rainfall remained in the Total AUDPC stepwise regression model developed for  
406 the 1996 – 2014 means level data, where wet seasons were linked with larger yield  
407 differences between treated and untreated. Similarly, dry seasons were linked with smaller  
408 yield differences between treated and untreated in the plot level individual regressions. Dry  
409 conditions have previously been seen to lower the impact of fungicide use on wheat yields  
410 in long-term experiments (Wiik & Ewaldz, 2009), and to be crucial to high yields in Scottish  
411 barley (Brown, 2013), while wet periods have been proposed as one of the risk factors for  
412 *Ramularia* (Havis et al., 2015) and *Rhynchosporium* (Ryan & Clare, 1975; Xue & Hall, 1992)  
413 to flourish, as has humidity for mildew development (Channon, 1981), conclusions which  
414 are supported by this analysis.

415 Final stepwise regression models were related to individual factor regressions, following  
416 a similar method used to assess risk factors for sclerotinia in oilseed rape using logistic  
417 regressions (Yuen et al., 1996). For both datasets, the Total AUDPC stepwise regressions  
418 fitted the individual factor regression results well, with five out of the six factors which were  
419 significant when tested individually also being retained in the relevant stepwise model  
420 (those retained in the 1996 – 2014 dataset analysis: growing season rainfall, Any Resistance



421 and Total AUDPC; those retained in the 2011 – 2014 dataset analysis: growing season  
422 temperature, Total AUDPC; season rainfall was significant individually for the 2011-2014  
423 data, but not retained in the model).

#### 424 c) **Parallels and differences in results from the two datasets**

425 The final stepwise models for both datasets using Total AUDPC were similar: each  
426 included Total AUDPC and one weather variable (season temperature for the 2011 – 2014  
427 plot level data, and season rainfall for the full 1996 – 2014 dataset), though Any Resistance  
428 was only included in the full 1996 – 2014 dataset model. As the only stepwise model for  
429 Total AUDPC which contained a factor not significant when tested in an individual  
430 regression (season temperature) was that created for the 2011 – 2014 plot level data, it is not  
431 clear that plot level information provides a more accurate representation of the factors  
432 influencing yield difference than mean, trial-level information. In this instance, means level  
433 long-term data seems to provide more useful results for understanding the impact of  
434 management and weather factors on yield differences, due to the larger amounts of  
435 variation than are seen in the short term database. In future, comparing results from a long-  
436 term plot level database and its means counterpart could provide useful data about which is  
437 more important in modelling factor impacts on yield.

#### 438 d) **Limitations**

439 A number of limitations to this study exist which are, in large part, due to the difficulties  
440 inherent in using a large database which has been collected for other purposes. Few  
441 conclusions can be drawn from this work regarding the potential influence of sowing date  
442 and preceding crop on disease and yield impacts of fungicide application, due to a lack of  
443 variation in the database for these factors. An attempt was made to include early season

444 disease measurements (between GS 24 - 34) as a way of considering disease which provides  
445 farmers with a measure to act upon within season, as recommended in previous decision  
446 making tools (Burke & Dunne, 2008), however a lack of sufficient data prevented this from  
447 inclusion in the regressions analysis. More information regarding these factors, as well as  
448 more detailed weather data, linked to each individual farm or county, rather than data  
449 compiled at regional level, could provide more insight into the factors of interest.

450 In addition, the small size of plots included in the Field Trials database (typically 20 x  
451 2m), as compared to the size of a commercial barley field, combined with the fact that the  
452 single untreated plot in any given trial block is surrounded by treated plots, may reduce the  
453 yield difference between treated and untreated plots by buffering the plot from disease  
454 pressure. Within the models themselves, being unable to include random terms, or  
455 interactions between terms such as rainfall and temperature (which are unlikely to be fully  
456 independent) also restricts the robustness of the results. Assessing diseases at an individual,  
457 rather than aggregate level could also provide more precise results, which may be of value  
458 in management decisions.

459 The use of large datasets such as the Field Trials database provides opportunities for  
460 analysing variation across a wider range of conditions, but, as many of these long-term data  
461 sources were not designed with such analysis in mind, the lack of potentially useful detail is  
462 an important trade-off of using such data. Despite these limitations, and though finer detail  
463 could no doubt be revealed with additional data, important patterns regarding the impact of  
464 fungicide use on yield were detected.

465 **V. Conclusion**

466 Fungicide treatment impacted yield levels significantly in just over one third of the trials  
467 assessed from 2011 – 2014, though disease levels were significantly reduced in many cases.  
468 The lack of a constant influence on yield, and the minimal cost benefit from fungicide  
469 treatment, estimated at less than 5% on average, suggests there may be an opportunity to  
470 reduce fungicide use in this sector with little negative impact on yield or profit.

471 In addition, the yield differences seen in these field trials (on average: 0.62 t/ha for  
472 commercially relevant varieties grown from 2011 – 2014 and 0.74 t/ha for all trials in the 1996  
473 – 2014 database) were well below those expected by Scottish spring barley farmers and  
474 agronomists (Stetkiewicz et al. 2018). Stetkiewicz et al. (2018) report 71.8% of surveyed  
475 farmers and 75% of agronomists estimating the impact of fungicide application to spring  
476 barley to be between 1 and 2 tonnes per hectare – well above the impacts reported here.  
477 Farmers and agronomists therefore appear to be substantially overestimating the impact of  
478 fungicide use on yield.

479 Using the final stepwise regression model developed for the full 1996 – 2014 dataset  
480 testing Total AUDPC, and the individual regressions for this data, three factors appear to be  
481 crucial in determining the impact of fungicide treatment on yield in the Field Trials  
482 database: season rainfall, disease resistance, and Total AUDPC. Ranked by  $R^2$ , season  
483 rainfall explains the most variation in yield difference, followed by Any Resistance, and  
484 Total AUDPC. As fungicide use did not always result in increased yield, and the increases  
485 which did occur were often minimal, forecasting disease severity for the season and acting  
486 upon this, e.g. planning to spray when the season is forecast to be wet and reducing  
487 spraying when dry, may help to rationalise fungicide use, given that the alternative of  
488 waiting until a disease appears before treating would preclude the use of preventative

489 fungicides, and restrict available products to those with curative action. Similarly, sowing  
490 only spring barley varieties which are highly resistant to one or more key diseases may  
491 reduce the need for fungicides. The inclusion of Total AUDPC as a key factor highlights the  
492 fact that disease severity is important in yield dynamics; this may be managed within season  
493 through a combination of techniques, including fungicide applications. Other IPM measures,  
494 such as rotation and sowing date, may play a role in determining yield impacts of  
495 fungicides, but could not be fully assessed here, due to lack of variation. These models  
496 provide a useful tool for assessing the relative merits of different IPM techniques on yield  
497 and allow farmers and decision makers to prioritise acting on those which have a significant  
498 explanatory effect, such as sowing highly disease resistant varieties.

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