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Predicting the Benefits of Banana Bunchy Top Virus

Eradication in Australia

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Abstract

Benefit cost analysis is a tried and tested analytical framework that can clearly communicate likely net changes in social welfare from investment decisions to diverse stakeholder audiences. However, in a plant biosecurity context, it is often difficult to predict policy benefits over time due to complex biophysical interactions between invasive species and their hosts. In this paper, we demonstrate how benefit cost analysis remains highly relevant to biosecurity decision-makers using the example of a plant pathogen targeted for eradication from banana growing regions of Australia, banana bunchy top virus. We develop a partial budgeting approach using a stratified diffusion spread model to simulate the likely benefits of eradication to the banana industry over time relative to a status quo policy. Using Monte Carlo simulation to generate a range of possible future incursion scenarios, we predict that

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18 eradicating the disease will generate \$12.5-23.6 million increased annual revenue for
19 the banana industry. To reduce these benefits to zero would require a bunchy top re-
20 establishment event three years in every four. Sensitivity analysis indicates that
21 eradication benefits can be greatly improved through improvements in disease
22 surveillance and incursion response.

23 **Key Words:** Biosecurity; benefit cost analysis; invasive alien species

24 **Introduction**

25 Comprehensive bioeconomic decision support frameworks are increasingly needed to
26 assist policy makers in managing plant biosecurity risks. Benefit cost analysis is a
27 highly effective means of communicating expected net returns from investment
28 decisions to diverse groups of stakeholders. For biosecurity economists, it can
29 provide a valuable means to convey a raft of technical economic and scientific
30 information via metrics that are easily absorbed by risk managers. In this paper, we
31 demonstrate this important property using the example of the Banana Bunchy Top
32 Virus (BBTV) in Australia, which is currently being considered for eradication.

33 Bananas are an important crop throughout the world, particularly in developing
34 countries where their importance as a food crop is only surpassed by rice, wheat and
35 maize [1-3]. More than 120 countries produce bananas, with world production
36 estimated to be in excess of 100 million tonnes [2]. Australia contributes less than 0.5
37 per cent of global production [2], but banana cultivations makes a sizeable
38 contribution to regional economies across northern Australia. In 2010, the States of
39 Queensland, New South Wales, the Northern Territory and Western Australia
40 produced a combined total of 301 450 tonnes of bananas with a gross value of \$492.2
41 million [4].

42 All modern cultivars of banana have evolved from intra-specific and inter-specific
43 crosses of the two wild diploid species *Musa acuminata* and *Musa balbisiana* [3,5].
44 Selection of high-yielding *Musa* clones and current cultural practices in large-scale
45 monoculture plantations has given rise to the occurrence of a wide range of pests and
46 diseases [3,6], of which BBTV is one of the most economically important causing
47 plant deformities, stunted growth and reduced fruit set [7]. The virus is principally
48 transmitted by the banana aphid (*Pentalonia nigronervosa*), as well as through
49 infected plant suckers and other plant tissues used in banana propagation [8,9].

50 BBTV has been present in eastern Australia since the early 1900s. Its severity was
51 clearly demonstrated in the 1920s when approximately 90 per cent of the Queensland
52 and New South Wales banana crops were destroyed [10]. This prompted State
53 government initiatives to contain BBTV through controls on the movement of
54 planting materials from affected areas, which led to a gradual recovery of the banana
55 industry. In 1993, a Banana Plant Health Improvement Project was initiated by the
56 industry aimed at eradicating BBTV from Australia [11]. However, despite achieving
57 substantial reductions in the prevalence of the virus to outright eradication was not
58 achieved.

59 In this paper, we re-visit this eradication policy and use computer-simulated economic
60 impact scenarios to determine the likely net benefits of BBTV eradication if it were to
61 be achieved. We use a partial budgeting approach in conjunction with a stratified
62 diffusion model to estimate BBTV prevalence and control responses under a status
63 quo and an eradication scenario over time. We then compare these scenarios and
64 calculate a likely financial return to the banana industry from investing in eradication.

65 **Methods**

66 We assume that the current incidence of BBTv is eliminated from Australia and
 67 concentrate on events that might subsequently transpire. As such, we treat eradication
 68 of future incursions as an investment alternative to a ‘status quo’ approach with
 69 respect to BBTv management. We assume that the Australian banana industry is
 70 represented by a single planning body determining appropriate biosecurity investment
 71 strategies. Predicted investment paths are defined as a function of expected yield and
 72 input cost changes (and hence profitability) from investing in BBTv eradication
 73 relative to a status quo approach. We make the assumption that the planning body
 74 will choose to invest in BBTv eradication in region (i.e. State or Territory) i in time
 75 step (i.e. year) t if it is expected to reduce grower losses by a greater amount than
 76 additional costs. The dichotomous adoption variable, α_t , which takes on the value of
 77 1 if the central planner invests in eradication across n regions in year t and 0
 78 otherwise, is defined as:

$$79 \quad \alpha_t = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \sum_{i=1}^n d_{it} \geq \sum_{i=1}^n c_{it} \\ 0 & \text{if } \sum_{i=1}^n d_{it} < \sum_{i=1}^n c_{it} \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

80 where d_{it} is the total difference in predicted cost increments induced by BBTv
 81 between the eradication and status quo policy options in region i in time t , and c_{it} is
 82 the total cost of implementing an eradication strategy in region i in time t . We focus
 83 on the estimation of $\sum_{i=1}^n d_{it}$ to determine how large $\sum_{i=1}^n c_{it}$ would need to be before α_t
 84 assumes a value of 0.

85 The current pre-border biosecurity strategy for addressing the threat of exotic banana
 86 pathogens includes the use of strict phytosanitary measures on traded bananas, which
 87 lower the probability of BBTV re-entering after eradication via trade routes. Indeed,
 88 these measures are so strict that they effectively mean prominent banana exporting
 89 countries such as the Philippines cannot land product in Australia at a sufficiently low
 90 price to be competitive on the domestic market for fresh bananas. Post-border
 91 biosecurity measures include monitoring through disease surveillance, robust
 92 detection and rapid response to incursions.

93 If, as a result of these post-border measures, a BBTV incursion is detected early
 94 enough, there may be a strong likelihood of eradication through plant removal and
 95 destruction. Hence, the value of d_t is influenced by eradication costs and probability
 96 of eradication success. This probability of success is assumed to decline negative
 97 exponentially at a rate of $e^{-1.5A_{it}}$, where A_{it} is the area infected with BBTV in region i
 98 year t weighted by the probability of infection and density of infection. If an outbreak
 99 is not detected early enough, a longer term management strategy is required to
 100 minimise BBTV impacts using insect control technologies and lethal chemical
 101 treatments for infected plants.

102 Algebraically, we expressed d_t as:

$$103 \quad d_{it} = \begin{cases} E_{it}A_{it} & \text{if } A_{it} \leq A_{it}^{\text{erad}} \\ Y_{it}PT_{it}A_{it} + V_{it}A_{it} & \text{if } A_{it} > A_{it}^{\text{erad}} \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

104 where: E_{it} is the cost of eradication per hectare in region i in year t ; A_{it} , as stated
 105 above, is the area infected with BBTV in region i year t weighted by the probability of
 106 infection and density of infection; A_{it}^{erad} is the maximum technically feasible area of
 107 eradication in region i in year t ; Y_{it} is the mean change in yield resulting from the

108 control of insect vectors and treatment of infected trees in region i in year t ; P_t is the
 109 prevailing domestic price for bananas in year t ; and V_{it} is the increase in variable cost
 110 of production per hectare induced by BBTV on-plantation management methods in
 111 region i in year t .

112 A_{it} is inclusive of BBTV re-entry and establishment probabilities (denoted p^{ent} and
 113 p^{est} , respectively), and therefore represents the area predicted to be in need of
 114 additional management effort (i.e. beyond normal plantation management activities)
 115 due to BBTV infection in region i in year t . A Markov chain process, described in
 116 Hinchy and Fisher [12], is used to change p^{ent} and p^{est} over time according to a
 117 vector of transitional probabilities. These transitional probabilities describe the
 118 likelihood of moving from one virus state to another. p^{ent} and p^{est} are combined to
 119 form a probability of invasion, p_i :

$$120 \quad p_i = p^{\text{ent}} \times p^{\text{est}} \text{ where } 0 < p_i < 1. \quad (3)$$

121 To describe the movement of BBTV post-establishment in multiple regions we use a
 122 stratified diffusion model combining both short and long distance dispersal processes
 123 [13]. It is derived from the reaction diffusion models originally developed by Fisher
 124 [14] which have been shown to provide a reasonable approximation of the spread of a
 125 diverse range of organisms [15-19]. These models assert that an invasion diffusing
 126 from a point source will eventually reach a constant asymptotic radial spread rate of
 127 $2\sqrt{r_i D_{ij}}$ in all directions, where r_i describes a growth factor for BBTV per year in
 128 region i (assumed constant over all infected sites) and D_{ij} is a diffusion coefficient for
 129 an infected site j in region i (assumed constant over time) [19-22]. Hence, we assume
 130 that the original infection (i.e. the first of a probable series of sites, j) takes place in a

131 homogenous environment in region i and expands by a diffusive process such that
 132 area infected at time t , a_{ijt} , can be predicted by:

$$133 \quad a_{ijt} = p_i \left[\pi \left(2t \sqrt{r_i D_{ij}} \right)^2 \right] = p_i (4D_{ij} \pi r_i t^2). \quad (4)$$

134 For practical purposes, an estimate of D_{ij} can be derived from the mean dispersal

135 distance ($\bar{\delta}_{ij}$) of the pathogen at an infection site, where $D_{ij} = \frac{2(\bar{\delta}_{ij})^2}{\pi t}$ [23-25]. $\bar{\delta}_{ij}$ is

136 the site-specific average distance (in metres) over which dispersal events leading to

137 infection occur. By assuming D_{ij} is constant across all sites j we ignore demographic

138 stochasticity and consequent non-uniform invasion [24].

139 The density of BBTV infection within a_{ijt} influences the control measures required to

140 counter the effects of infection, and thus partially determines the value of A_{it} . We

141 assume that in each site j in region i affected, the infection density, N_{ijt} , grows over

142 time period t following a logistic growth curve until the carrying capacity of the

143 environment, K_{ij} , is reached:

$$144 \quad N_{ijt} = \frac{K_{ij} N_{ij}^{\min} e^{r_i t}}{K_{ij} + N_{ij}^{\min} (e^{r_i t} - 1)}. \quad (5)$$

145 Here, N_{ij}^{\min} is the size of the original influx at site j in region i and r_i is the intrinsic

146 rate of density increase in region i (assumed to be the same as the intrinsic rate of

147 population increase) [24].

148 In addition to a_{ijt} and N_{ijt} , the size of A_{it} depends on the number of nascent foci (see

149 Moody and Mack [26] – these are *satellite* infection sites) in year t , s_{it} , which can

150 take on a maximum value of s_i^{\max} in any year. These sites result from events external

151 to the outbreak itself, such as weather phenomena, animal or human behaviour, which
 152 periodically jump the expanding infection beyond the infection front [24]. We use a
 153 logistic equation to generate changes in s_{it} as an outbreak continues:

$$154 \quad s_{it} = \frac{s_i^{\max} s_i^{\min} e^{\mu_i t}}{s_i^{\max} + s_i^{\min} (e^{\mu_i t} - 1)} \quad (6)$$

155 where μ_i is the intrinsic rate of new foci generation in region i (assumed constant over
 156 time) and s_i^{\min} is the minimum number of satellite sites generated in region i .

157 Given equations (4)-(6), we can express A_{it} as:

$$158 \quad A_{it} = \sum_{j=1}^m (a_{ijt} N_{ijt})^{s_{it}} \text{ where } 0 \leq A_{it} \leq A_i^{\max} . \quad (7)$$

159 The total benefit to the central planner of adopting an eradication policy for BBTV in
 160 year t , B_t^{BBTV} , can be expressed as:

$$161 \quad B_t^{\text{BBTV}} = \sum_{i=1}^n d_{it} \alpha_t . \quad (8)$$

162 In the following section we estimate $\sum_{i=1}^n d_{it}$ using multiple BBTV re-entry and spread
 163 scenarios for Australia's banana growing regions over a 30 year period. These
 164 include grower areas of coastal Queensland, the north coast of New South Wales,
 165 parts of Western Australia and the Northern Territory (i.e. $n = 4$) (see Table 1).
 166 Where there is uncertainty surrounding parameter values, they are specified within the
 167 model as distributions and a Latin hypercube sampling algorithm used to sample from
 168 each distribution. In each of 10 000 model iterations one value is sampled from the
 169 cumulative distribution function so that sampled parameter values are weighted

170 according to their probability of occurrence. The model calculations are then
171 performed using this set of parameters.

172 Table 1 provides banana production information for each region used in the analysis.
173 It also contains region-specific BBTV (re-)entry and (re-)establishment probabilities.
174 Given the continued stringent SPS measures against imported bananas, the probability
175 of entry in new areas beyond the historical distribution of BBTV (i.e. Northern
176 Territory and Western Australia) is regarded as very low: within the range 1.0×10^{-3} to
177 5.0×10^{-2} [27]. In areas where the virus has been present (i.e. Queensland and New
178 South Wales), the likelihood of re-entry was arbitrarily assumed to be low: within the
179 range of 5.0×10^{-2} to 0.3. The probability of establishment upon entry was assumed to
180 be moderate in all regions: within the range of 0.3 to 0.7 [27].

181 A list of all other the model parameter distributions appears in Table 2. Note that i, j
182 and t subscripts are omitted in Tables 1 and 2 since, with the exception of p^{ent} and
183 insecticide and application cost, parameter specification does not change over spatial
184 or temporal ranges. Table notes provide details where a spatial variation is assumed.

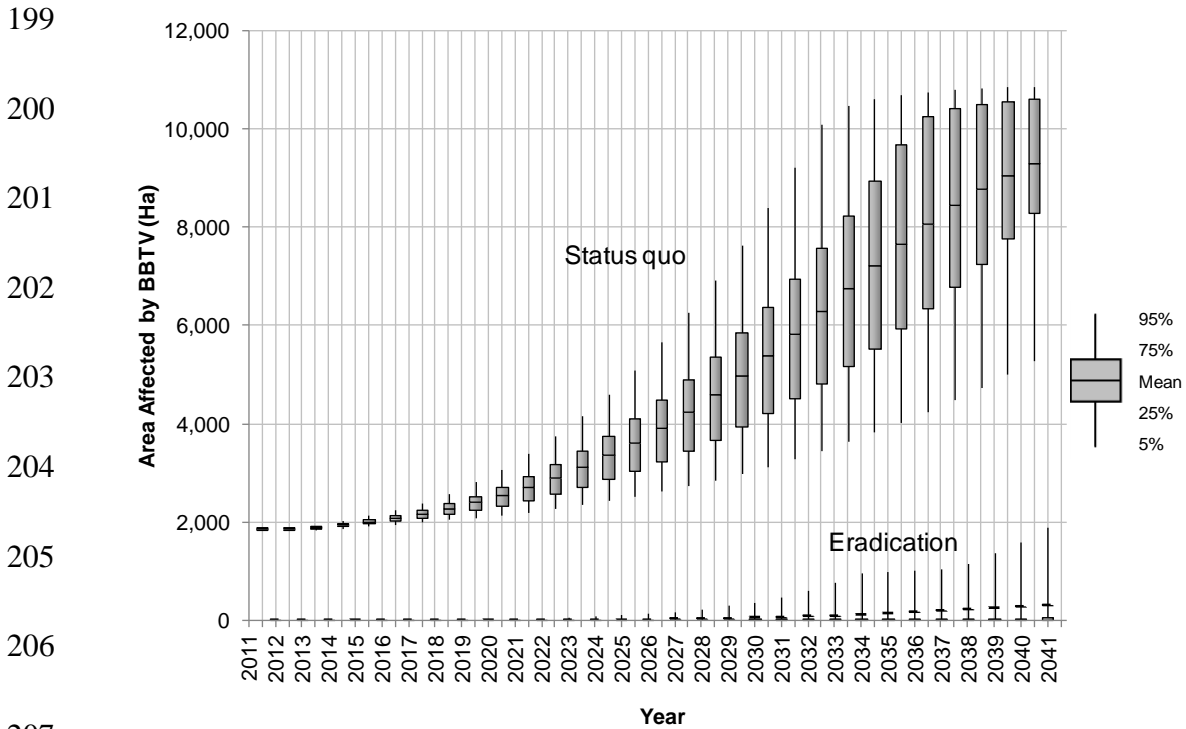
185 **Results**

186 Despite eradication being assumed to have been achieved at the outset of the analysis,
187 our assumptions are such that re-establishment is likely to occur at some point or
188 multiple points over the estimation period. The model simulates these re-
189 establishment events as a Poisson process where BBTV successfully re-establishes in
190 Queensland and New South Wales on an average of one year in six, and in Western
191 Australia and the Northern Territory one year in 50. Therefore, the resultant expected
192 spread area values under the eradication and status quo scenarios calculated from the
193 10 000 iterations of the model are positive. However, as Figure 1 reveals, the extent

194 of expected spread under an eradication policy is substantially below that of a status
 195 quo policy. These projections have been aggregated across all production regions to
 196 produce Figure 1.

197

198 **Figure 1.** Likely spread of BBTV over time with and without an eradication policy



208 The present value of average benefits accruing from a BBTV eradication policy is
 209 estimated by the model to average \$18.9 million per year over 20 years across banana

210 producing regions (i.e. $\sum_{i=1}^n d_{it} = \$1.89 \times 10^7$). Recall from equations (1) and (8), this

211 represents the threshold level of $\sum_{i=1}^n c_{it}$ beyond which the central planning body will

212 choose not to invest in eradication as an alternative to a status quo strategy (i.e.

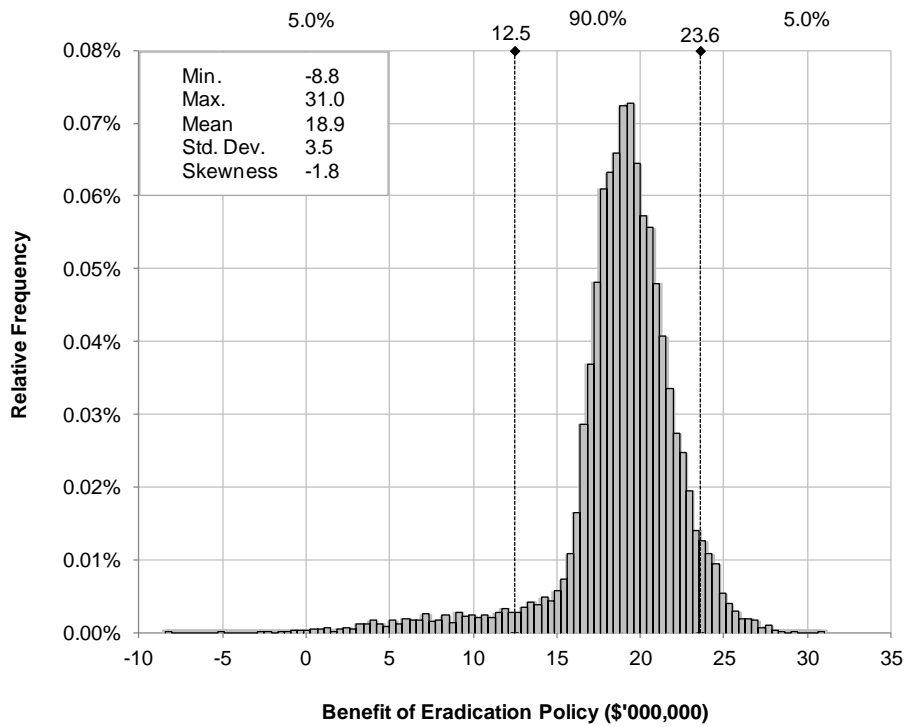
213 $\alpha_t = 0$). The standard deviation of the distribution of average annual biosecurity

214 benefits is \$3.5 million and skewness -1.8 (i.e. the distribution is skewed left such that
 215 the left tail is long compared to the right tail).

216

217 **Figure 2.** Expected annual benefit of BBTV eradication over 20 years.

218



226

227

228 Given current average banana yields, our estimated value of $\sum_{i=1}^n d_{it}$ is equivalent to an

229 annual increase in national banana production harvest volume of 11.6 million tonnes

230 per year. While Figure 2 shows benefits over a 20-year period, Figure 3 illustrates

231 how these annual eradication benefits are expected to change over time as the

232 expected difference in BBTV prevalence between the eradication and status quo

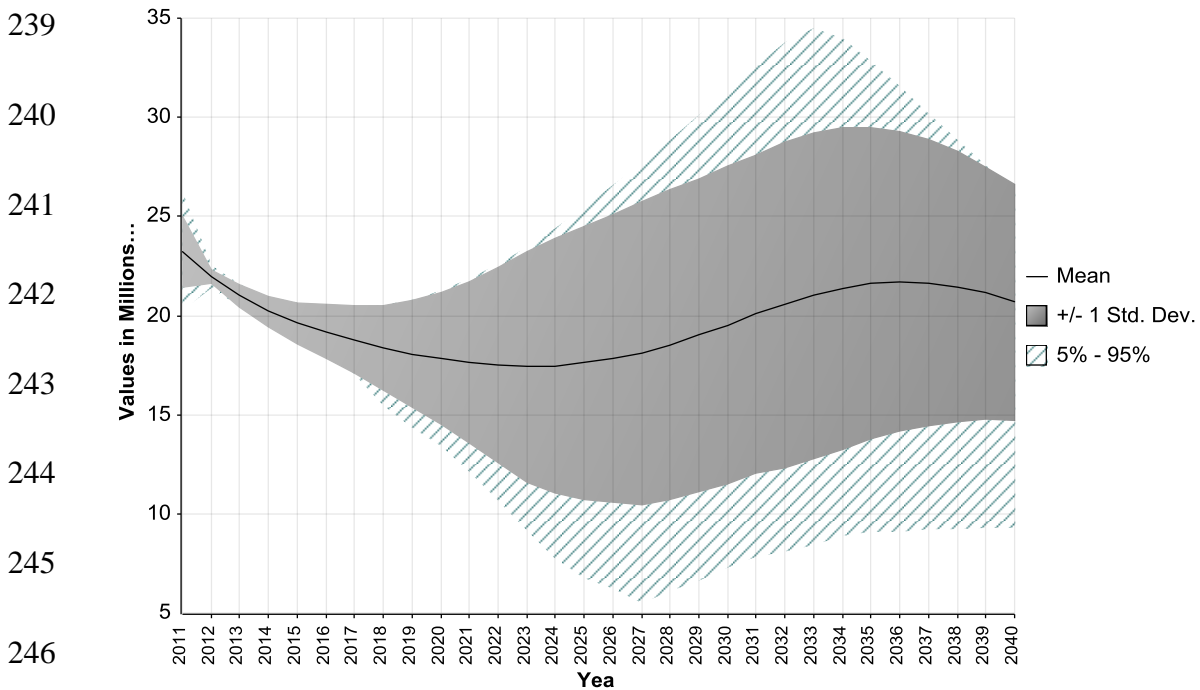
233 scenarios increases the further into the future we project. Here, the mean benefit of

234 BBTV eradication predicted by the model is plotted ± 1 standard deviation and 5 per

235 cent and 95 per cent confidence bounds. All projected benefits are discounted at 5 per
 236 cent per annum.

237

238 **Figure 3.** Expected annual benefit of BBTV eradication over time.



247

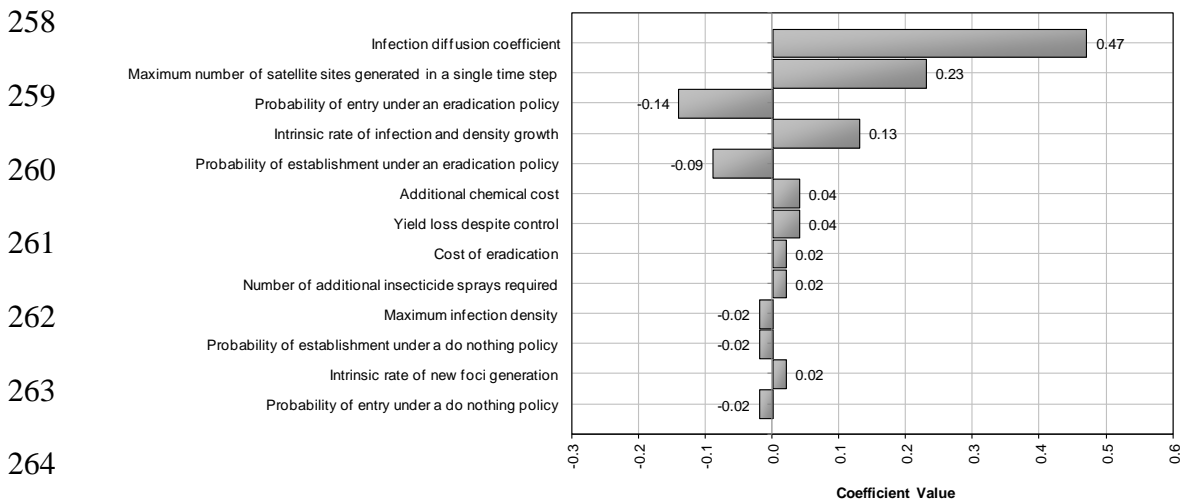
248 In view of the uncertainty surrounding many of the parameters used to describe the
 249 BBTV (re)infection and spread process, the sensitivity of the change in expected
 250 eradication benefits to the key assumptions of the model must be tested. Parameters
 251 were sampled from a uniform distribution with a maximum (minimum) of +50 per
 252 cent (-50 per cent) of the original values entered in to the model using Monte Carlo
 253 simulation. The Spearman's rank correlation coefficients relating the sampled model

254 parameter values and the change in $\sum_{i=1}^n d_{it}$ were then calculated. The results are

255 presented in Figure 4.

256

257 **Figure 4.** Sensitivity analysis.



265

266 The sensitivity tests indicate that the model is highly responsive to changes in five of
 267 the parameters listed in Tables 1 and 2 (13 of which are shown in Figure 4). These

268 parameters and their correlation with predicted $\sum_{i=1}^n d_{it}$ are the infection diffusion

269 coefficient (0.47), the maximum number of satellite sites generated in a single time

270 step (0.23), the probability of entry under an eradication policy (-0.14), the intrinsic

271 rate of infection and density growth (0.13) and the probability of establishment under

272 an eradication policy (-0.09).

273 To indicate how high the probability of BBTV entry and establishment under an

274 eradication strategy must be to produce a result where the central planner is

275 indifferent between the eradication and status quo options (i.e. $\sum_{i=1}^n d_{it} = \$0$) requires

276 the model to be aggregated across all States and Territories. If we consider the sum of

277 all banana growing areas in Australia as one susceptible host block, the probability of

278 BBTV entry and establishment under an eradication strategy that would lead to

279 expected costs in both policy scenarios to be equivalent is approximately 0.75. This

280 requires a re-entry and establishment event to occur in three of every five years post-
281 eradication.

282 **Discussion**

283 Our results are indicative of the potentially large benefits of investing in eradication
284 for BBTV. Based on the model outlined in the Methods section, it is shown in the
285 Results section that eradicating the virus is likely to produce a net benefit over time
286 provided the annual costs of doing so do not exceed \$18.9 million.

287 The sensitivity analysis reveals a high sensitivity of this result to changes in several
288 biological parameters that can be influenced by post-border biosecurity policies.
289 Indeed, four of the five most sensitive model parameters fall into this category,
290 including the infection diffusion coefficient, the maximum number of satellite sites
291 generated in a single time step, the intrinsic rate of infection and density growth and
292 the probability of establishment under an eradication policy. Policies that encourage
293 crop monitoring and disclosure of detection information could have the effect of
294 lowering each of these parameters, thus increasing the likely returns to an eradication
295 policy over time.

296 The cost of achieving BBTV eradication is not known, but the eradication of the
297 fungal pathogen black Sigatoka (*Mycosphaerella fijiensis* (Morelet)) from north
298 Queensland between 2001 and 2003 provides at least some indication of what the
299 possible BBTV eradication cost might be. *M. fijiensis* was detected in 2001 in the
300 Tully area, the major banana-growing region of Australia. Although past detections
301 of the fungus in far north Queensland were eradicated with similar tactics to those we
302 have suggested for BBTV eradication (i.e. removal of infected plants followed by
303 burial and burning), a programme of intensive de-leafing was employed to remove the
304 majority of inoculum from plants in the Tully outbreak [28,29]. This was followed by

305 intensive fungicide treatment applied to plants weekly in rotation for a period of 6
306 months after de-leafing. In total, the eradication cost A\$17 million [29].

307 If this figure can be considered broadly representative of a relatively small scale
308 eradication program, let us hypothetically assume that the eradication of BBTV might
309 involve a cost more than three times this amount. Even if eradication costs are as high
310 as \$60 million and it takes a full five years to remove the virus completely, our results
311 indicate that returns to the industry would be highly favourable. A benefit cost
312 analysis performed using our estimated value would produce a benefit cost ratio of
313 1.6:1.0 (i.e. every \$1.00 spent on eradicating the disease returns \$1.60 worth of
314 benefit to the industry). It is possible, indeed likely, that eradication of BBTV can be
315 achieved at substantially lower cost. If this is the case and eradication is achieved, the
316 returns on investment will be higher.

317 Future extension of the model developed in this analysis could include the
318 consideration of flow-on effects of BBTV to the regional and national economies
319 using a general equilibrium model [30]. While the importance of potential costs of
320 non-market (e.g. environmental costs due to the use of pesticides) and indirect market
321 impacts (e.g. reduced purchases of inputs after an industry is affected by an invasive
322 species) of BBTV are acknowledged, they have not been included in the model due to
323 high levels of uncertainty in the data. If the environmental costs of the use of, for
324 instance, pesticides to control BBTV insect vectors were to be included, the benefits
325 of eradication over time would probably increase. On the other hand, the use of more
326 complex biophysical modelling of susceptibility and resilience to infection [e.g. 31]
327 may indicate less substantive damage attributable to BBTV. Using a general
328 equilibrium model or using an ecosystems approach may improve the investigative

329 power of the analysis, but would impose a cost in terms of the increased need for
330 information to run the models effectively.

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337

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426 **Table 1.** Australian banana production statistics by region

Producer	Area (ha) ^a	Production volume (MT) ^a	Average yield (T/ha) ^a	Value produced (\$'000,000) ^a	Probability of entry, p^{ent}
Queensland	10,083	279.09	27.68	448.3	Uniform(0.3,0.7)
New South Wales	1,057	10.75	10.17	17.7	Uniform(0.3,0.7)
Western Australia	200	5.64	28.19	15.1	Uniform(1.0×10^{-6} , 1.0×10^{-3})
Northern Territory	203	5.98	29.46	11.1	Uniform(1.0×10^{-6} , 1.0×10^{-3})

427 ^a ABS [4].

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430 **Table 2.** Model parameters.

Parameters	Status quo
Probability of establishment, p^{est} . ^a	2.6×10^{-4} to 1.3×10^{-1}
Detection probability.	Binomial(1.0, 0.6)
Probability of successful eradication in a single time step given an infected area, A .	$e^{1.5 \times A}$
Population diffusion coefficient, D (m ² /yr). ^{a,b}	Pert(0, 2.5×10^3 , 5.0×10^3)
Minimum area infected immediately upon entry, A^{min} (m ²).	1.0×10^3
Maximum area infected, A^{max} (m ²). ^c	1.2×10^8
Intrinsic rate of infection and density increase, r (yr ⁻¹). ^a	Pert(0.10, 0.15, 0.20)
Minimum infection density, N^{min} (#/m ²).	1.0×10^{-4}
Maximum infection density, K (#/m ²). ^a	Pert(100, 550, 1000)
Minimum number of satellite sites generated in a single time step, S^{min} (#).	1.0
Maximum number of satellite sites generated in a single time step, S^{max} (#). ^a	Pert(10, 5, 10)
Intrinsic rate of new foci generation per unit area of infection, μ (#/m ²). ^a	Pert(1.0×10^{-6} , 3.0×10^{-6} , 5.0×10^{-6})
Discount rate (%).	5.0
Supply elasticity. ^d	Uniform(0.2, 0.8)
Demand elasticity. ^d	Uniform(-1.1, -1.0)
Prevailing market price for bananas in the first time step (\$/T). ^c	1,900
Maximum area considered for eradication (ha).	400
Cost of eradication, E (\$/ha). ^e	Pert(1.0×10^4 , 1.5×10^4 , 2.0×10^4)
Increased insecticide and application cost (\$/ha). ^f	130
Yield reduction despite control, Y (%).	Pert(0.0, 2.5, 5.0)

431 ^a Specified with reference to Cook [27] and Waage et al. [32] using distributions defined in Biosecurity Australia [33]; ^b Derived
432 from Sapoukhina et al. [34]; ^c ABS [4], Note 1ha = 10 000m²; ^d Ulubasoglu et al. [35]; ^e Assumes zero compensation following
433 banana plant removal, average density of planting of 2 000 stems/ha and removal, transport, destruction and chemical costs
434 amounting to \$20 per tree. This is inclusive of labour (team of three at \$50/hr per person), bulldozing equipment (\$100/hr at 20
435 hours per hectare), truck hire (\$75/hr), incendiaries (\$60/ha for green waste) and creation of a circular chemical buffer zone
436 approximately 5 hectares in diameter around previously infected sites. Chemical used is assumed to be dithane (applied at a rate
437 of 3kg/ha or \$25/ha) and oil (applied at 3L/ha or \$10/ha) at fortnightly intervals rotated with propiconazole (applied at a rate of
438 0.3L/ha or \$5/ha). Assume 2 additional dithane treatments are required and 4 propiconazole treatments (and therefore 6
439 additional oil treatments), each taking 1 hour per hectare to apply; ^f Assumes: (i) labour costs of \$50/ha (i.e. 1 application \times
440 1hr/ha \times \$50/hr); (ii) 75mL of chemical solution is used per banana plant per treatment costing \$10 per litre (e.g. dimethoate
441 diluted to 75mL/100L (DAWA, 2000)) (i.e. approx. \$15/ha); and (iii) two additional chemical treatments will provide sufficient
442 suppression of banana aphid.

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