

## Cassava stems movement and grower behaviour in Zambia

### 1 Cassava planting material movement and grower behaviour in Zambia: implications for disease 2 management

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### 22 Abstract

23 Cassava is an important food crop for most small-holder growers across sub-Saharan Africa, where production is  
24 largely limited by the presence of two viral diseases: cassava mosaic disease (CMD) and cassava brown streak  
25 disease (CBSD), both propagated by a vector whitefly and via human-mediated movement of infected cassava  
26 stems. Despite its importance, there is limited knowledge of growers' behaviour related to planting material  
27 movement, as well as growers' perception and knowledge of cassava diseases, which have major implications for  
28 disease spread and control. This study was conducted to address the knowledge gaps by surveying small-holder  
29 growers in Zambia. A total of 96 subsistence cassava growers across five provinces were surveyed between 2015  
30 and 2017. Most growers interviewed used planting materials from their own (94%) or nearby (<10 km) fields of  
31 family and friends, although some large transactions with markets, middlemen, and NGOs occurred over longer  
32 distances. Information related to cassava diseases and uninfected planting material, however, only reached 48%  
33 of growers. Growers with access to information were more concerned about the disease, compared to uninformed  
34 growers. These data provide a basis for future planning of cassava clean seed systems to control virus diseases,  
35 emphasising the critical role of grower knowledge, and consequently education, in success of these systems. In  
36 particular, we highlight the importance of extension workers in this education process, as well as farmer's groups  
37 and the media.

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### 48 **Introduction**

49 Cassava (*Manihot esculenta* Crantz) is one of the most important root crops in Zambia, and is a staple consumed  
50 throughout the year in Western, North Western, Luapula, and Northern provinces. Despite the importance of the  
51 crop, Zambia suffers from very low average national yields of 5.8 tonnes per hectare (t/ha) (FAOSTAT 2018).  
52 This is considerably lower than the reported average yield of neighbouring countries: Malawi (22 t/ha), Angola  
53 (10.9 t/ha) and Democratic Republic of Congo (8.1 t/ha) (FAOSTAT 2018). The low yield is in part due to the  
54 high prevalence in most of the cassava-growing areas of cassava mosaic disease (CMD, caused by cassava mosaic  
55 geminiviruses family *Geminiviridae*, genus *Begomovirus*) (Chikoti et al. 2013). This disease is the most prevalent  
56 and devastating disease of cassava in sub-Saharan Africa, causing considerable losses in yield (Legg et al. 2006;  
57 Muimba-Kankolongo et al. 1997; Szyniszewska et al. 2017; Thresh et al. 1997). To make matters worse, in 2017  
58 cassava brown streak disease (CBSD, caused by potyviruses, family *potyviridae*, genus *Ipomovirus*), was  
59 confirmed in both Northern and Luapula provinces of Zambia (Mulenga et al. 2018). Both diseases are transmitted  
60 by the whitefly vector *Bemisia tabaci* (order *Hemiptera*, family *Aleyrodidae*), and through human-mediated  
61 vegetative propagation of infected planting material (Maruthi et al. 2017). Both CMD and CBSD are of great  
62 concern across sub-Saharan Africa because of their detrimental impact on root yield and quality (Abaca et al.  
63 2012; Alvarez et al. 2012; Mbanzibwa et al. 2011; Winter et al. 2010). Both diseases increase poverty by dramatic  
64 loss in yield, and continue to deteriorate the livelihoods of millions of Africans (Legg and Thresh 2003; Patil et  
65 al. 2015).

66 Strategies for disease mitigation include the removal of infected plants (rouging), the adoption of resistant  
67 cultivars, and the use of disease-free planting material (known as “clean seed”). Each strategy faces particular  
68 challenges; difficulty in identifying infected plants, a paucity of resistant varieties (in particular those resistant to  
69 both viruses), or an unacceptable increase in costs (Legg et al. 2011; Patil et al. 2015; Rwegasira and Rey 2012).  
70 To understand which strategy is most likely to be successful, it is important to understand the decision-making  
71 process of a grower; what risks and costs are acceptable under what circumstances. Recent work has shown that  
72 this can have significant impact on the long-term success of disease control, and may represent the difference  
73 between success and failure (Carrasco et al. 2012; Legg et al. 2017; McQuaid et al. 2017a; Milne et al. 2015). At  
74 the same time, in order to attempt control on a regional scale, without which any local attempts at control will  
75 ultimately fail, it is important to understand how the viruses spread between fields and across distance. This is  
76 particularly relevant in the context of grower behaviour when considering the movement of planting material,

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77 which has been shown to be key in the spread of cassava viruses (Legg et al. 2014; Legg et al. 2011; McQuaid et  
78 al. 2017b; Patil et al. 2015).

79 Recently there have been a number of surveys assessing the impact and extent of CMD and CBSD in sub-Saharan  
80 Africa. Much of the work has concentrated on assessing the per-field disease incidence and severity on a regional  
81 level (Alicai et al. 2007; Chikoti et al. 2013; Gondwe et al. 2003; Hillocks et al. 1999, 2002; Mbewe et al. 2015;  
82 Mulenga et al. 2018; Rwegasira and Rey 2012). Conducted surveys were based on field observations, without  
83 assessing growers' knowledge in terms of (i) capacity to identify the viral diseases of cassava, (ii) practices related  
84 to sourcing and exchange of planting material, and (iii) control strategies.

85 Although it has been shown that both CMD and CBSD pandemics depend strongly on the exchange of planting  
86 material (McQuaid et al. 2017b), and that growers often share their cuttings with friends and family (Houngue et  
87 al. 2018; Kombo et al. 2012; Ntawuruhunga et al. 2007; Teeken et al. 2018) there is a lack of studies that assess  
88 the distances over which this material is moved depending on sources or destinations. Thus, the primary objective  
89 of the current study was to obtain insight into the nature of the flow of cassava planting material into and out of  
90 the growers' fields (specifically the volume moved over distance) depending on sources or destinations. The  
91 second objective was to ascertain grower knowledge of diseases, their symptoms and prevalence in the area, and  
92 the sources and preferences that growers had for obtaining this information. This information was gathered  
93 through a survey of growers across the country. The results of this work can be used to inform and improve disease  
94 control strategies, particularly those aimed at the recent outbreak of CBSD in Zambia. In particular, our  
95 investigation reveals the benefit and necessity of grower education programs, particularly through media and  
96 extension workers, to make growers active actors in the control of crop disease.

### 97 **Data and Methods**

#### 98 *Agro-ecological context of the study area*

99 The study was conducted in five provinces of Zambia: Western, Luapula, Central, Northern and Eastern, which  
100 are among the major cassava growing areas and are known to have CMD. These provinces represent various  
101 environmental conditions (Figure 1). Northern and Luapula provinces are located in the Agro-Ecological Zone  
102 (AEZ) III, which comprises part of the Central African plateau and receives over 1000 mm of rainfall annually  
103 with a monomodal rainfall pattern (Saasa 2003; The World Bank 2006). The area has up to 190 days of growing  
104 season and is not prone to drought. The most widely practiced traditional farming systems by growers in this  
105 region are mainly based on "slash and burn" and shifting cultivation. The main crops grown include cassava,  
106 maize, sunflower, coffee, tea and many others (Ngoma 2008). Western, Central and Eastern provinces are located

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107 in a slightly drier AEZ II with a growing season of 120 to 150 days and receiving about 800 to 1000 mm of rainfall  
108 per annum (Jain 2007; The World Bank 2006). The farming system is mostly commercial and the major crops  
109 grown include maize, wheat, groundnuts and soy bean. In Luapula and the Northern province, the rainy season  
110 occurs between November and April, while in Eastern, Western and Central provinces the rainy season occurs  
111 between December and April. The rainy season is followed by a long dry spell lasting from May to October.

### 112 *Sample selection*

113 A total of 96 smallholder cassava growers were randomly selected along the major roads and were asked for  
114 permission before conducting the questionnaires and field samplings. 26 growers were interviewed in 2015 in the  
115 Eastern (10), Luapula (4) and Northern (12) provinces, and 72 growers were interviewed in 2017 in Central (15),  
116 Eastern (15), Luapula (15), Northern (14) and Western (13) provinces (Figure 1, Table 1). The research team  
117 comprised the principal investigator and two research assistants conversant with the local languages and with  
118 experience in cassava production for easy identification of the local varieties, CMD and CBSD symptoms. The  
119 study was conducted between January and May in both years. During this period, most plants were assumed to be  
120 between three to nine months old, as the rainy season generally starts in November in most parts of the country.  
121 Three to nine months after planting is generally regarded as being ideal for capturing foliar and root symptoms  
122 before the plants shed their leaves.

### 123 *Questionnaires*

124 Structured interviews with a mix of closed- and open-ended questions were conducted with cassava growers who  
125 voluntarily agreed to participate (Szyniszewska et al. 2019). The questionnaire was pre-tested on a small group of  
126 growers before the survey and adjustments were made to ensure that the right information was obtained during  
127 the actual interviews. To encourage wider participation, the interviews and discussions were conducted in the  
128 local languages familiar to most growers in respective regions: Bemba for Northern, Luapula and Central  
129 provinces; Lozi for Western Province and Nyanja for Eastern Province. Some of the questions asked were repeated  
130 and rephrased to enable growers to understand and respond fully. The rephrasing was done without changing the  
131 original meaning of the questions.

132 In the first section of the survey general information on growers' field location, altitude and field size was  
133 recorded. Growers were asked about varieties grown, planting and harvesting frequencies, and variety preferences  
134 and reasons. The second section of the survey comprised questions related to the trade of planting material:  
135 sourcing and exchange. Growers were asked how many bags went to or were obtained from their own fields, their

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136 stores, friends or family, markets, middlemen, NGOs or research stations, and how far away those sources or  
137 recipients were located. Growers were also asked about their favourite source of planting material and how  
138 frequently they use various sources. The third section of the surveys assessed growers' knowledge of CMD and  
139 CBSD in terms of symptom recognition, presence of the diseases in their fields and surrounding areas, and the  
140 method of disease spread. The fourth and final section of the questionnaire was related to the sources and  
141 frequencies of obtaining information related to cassava diseases, certified clean seed systems (CSS) and the  
142 ranking of sources viewed as important to the grower. Growers were also asked about the factors that influence  
143 their decisions related to disease control, including disease pressure, their concern about the disease, and market  
144 prices that would encourage them to use CSSs.

### 145 *Disease incidence and severity*

146 Plants at the fields visited were assessed for the presence and severity of disease foliar symptoms. In each field,  
147 a total of 30 plants were inspected, 15 plants on each diagonal line across the field (Sseruwagi et al., 20014). The  
148 plants were scored for the presence or absence of foliar symptoms of CMD and CBSD. Symptom severity for  
149 CMD was recorded on each plant using a five point rating scale (Hahn et al. 1980), where 1 = no disease  
150 symptoms; 2 = mild chlorotic pattern over entire leaflets or mild distortion at the base of leaflets only with the  
151 remainder of the leaflets appearing green and healthy; 3 = moderate mosaic pattern throughout the leaf, narrowing  
152 and distortion of the lower one-third of leaflets; 4 = severe mosaic, distortion of two thirds of the leaflets and  
153 general reduction of leaf size, and 5 = severe mosaic and/or distortion of the entire leaf and plant stunting. The  
154 presence or absence of CBSD symptoms on the leaves and stems was recorded for each plant using a scale of 1  
155 to 5, where 1 = no apparent symptoms; 2 = slight leaf feathery chlorosis with no stem lesions; 3 = pronounced  
156 leaf feathery chlorosis, mild stem lesions and no dieback; 4 = severe leaf feathery chlorosis, severe stem lesions  
157 and no dieback, and 5 = defoliation, severe stem lesions and dieback (Gondwe et al. 2003).

### 158 *Data analysis*

159 The grower's responses together with disease incidence and symptom severity, were analysed using the R  
160 language for statistical computing (R Core Team 2016). Frequency distributions were plotted to illustrate and  
161 compare response rates for each category. Sets of descriptive statistics including means and standard errors and  
162 cross tabulations were calculated. Results were expressed as percentages of the frequency of responses obtained  
163 from growers, excluding records where data were not available (thus totals may differ in each question) and plotted  
164 with the *ggplot2* package (Wickham 2016). Logistic regression was used to relate grower's disease knowledge

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165 with disease incidence using ‘glm’ function in the *lme4* package in R (Bates et al. 2015, p. 4) and  $\chi^2$  contingency  
166 tests were performed using ‘chisq.test’ function.

### 167 **Results**

#### 168 *Field properties and varieties preferences*

169 Most growers’ fields were small (mean 0.59 ha) and planted annually (92.9% of participants) (Table 1). Harvesting  
170 was based on need (40% of participants), from which we conclude that those surveyed were primarily small-scale  
171 subsistence growers. Incidence of CMD was generally high (range of 26.1 to 69.8%), while CBSD was not  
172 observed. Growers typically plant more than one variety of cassava in their fields (66.5% of visited locations).  
173 Good taste and associated sweetness (30 growers) and good yield and big tubers (21 growers) were the most  
174 commonly cited traits determining varietal choice (Supplementary Figure 1). The availability of planting material  
175 (14 growers) and early maturing (13 growers) were important to them. Among six preference criteria dictating  
176 choice of planting material (Figure 2) varietal preference was the highest ranked while availability related answers  
177 were ranked second and third.

#### 178 *Planting material movement and trade*

179 Most of the planting material was recycled from the previous crop (83 growers), stored (11 growers) or destroyed  
180 (52 growers) (Figure 3). While sharing did occur with family and friends (55 and 39 growers respectively) this  
181 was generally within the same or nearby villages with 94% of recipients located within a radius of 1-10 km, with  
182 a maximum of 100 km.

183 However, some movement did occur over a greater scale, including large transactions that moved planting material  
184 long distances to markets (100 bags over an average of 7.43 km), middlemen (9.5 bags on an average of 55 km),  
185 or NGOs (15 bags on an average of 28.5 km). Given the paucity of data on movement distances for cassava, we  
186 provide some additional detail on some individual transactions to illustrate the range of behaviours evident in a  
187 relatively small cohort. One transaction involved moving a large amount of planting material (100 bags) from a  
188 single grower, with a large field of 4 hectares and the distance to the market was 40 km. Three further transactions  
189 with the markets occurred. 10 bags sold at the market within a distance 0.05 km by a grower with a field size of  
190 1.5 hectare. The remaining two transactions involved small purchases of planting material (7 and 1 bag  
191 respectively) by small-holder growers (field size up to 0.25 hectares) travelling 3 and 8 km to the market. Overall,  
192 the range of reported distances to the market was between 0–40 km. Growers, who obtained their planting material

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193 from middle-men, indicated transaction distances of 50 and 60 km. Six growers exchanged their planting material  
194 with an NGO or an organization with the distance range of 0–350 km.

### 195 *CMD and CBSD knowledge*

196 Most of the growers surveyed (81%) had no knowledge of what CMD was. Having surmised it was a disease,  
197 most (60.5%) were unable to recognise it by its symptoms, or identify its means of dispersal (75.6%) or its likely  
198 effect on yield (39%). Higher CMD incidence in the field was a significant predictor of grower's knowledge of  
199 disease in a logistic regression ( $p < 0.0001$ ). Nearly half of the growers (44%) did not know whether the disease  
200 had an impact in their area, and another 44% observed disease impact on the crop. Of those that felt the impact of  
201 the disease, 25.9% identified lost yield. Disease incidence did not prove to be a significant predictor of the answer  
202 whether or not the disease had an impact in the area.

203 Overall, when asked how concerned they were about CMD on a scale from 1 (least worried) to 10 (very worried),  
204 53% of growers responded they had very low levels of worry (1-3), 17% of growers were moderately worried (4-  
205 6) and 28% were extremely worried (7-10). When we grouped them by how informed they were, growers with no  
206 information were less concerned compared with those that were informed (Figure 4).

207 None of the growers had knowledge about CBSD and no disease symptoms were detected in the field surveys.

### 208 *Disease control and management*

209 Disease management for CMD is rare among the growers. Two thirds of the growers (74.7%) declared that they  
210 do not institute any control measures. In contrast, of the few growers that applied control measures, we found that  
211 five used clean planting material; two growers who were seeking help from agricultural officers, rouged the  
212 diseased plants, and sprayed for insects. The majority of the growers who used control measures were located in  
213 the Eastern province (8 out of 11). Most growers who implemented disease management cited their own  
214 experience as a source of planting knowledge (7), two cited agricultural extension officers and one grower cited  
215 parents and one a cooperative group.

### 216 *Certified clean seed (CCS) – sourcing and knowledge*

217 Nearly half of the growers interviewed (46%) were aware of CCS, and nearly half of them would seek it from  
218 agricultural extension workers. At the same time, of those who were unaware of CCS, the majority (28%) would  
219 be happy to use them if available, and no growers indicated that they would not be happy to use CSS if it were  
220 provided or available.



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### 221 *Information sources*

222 Among the surveyed growers, 21.4% identified agricultural extension workers as a source of information, while  
223 30% relied on information on cassava planting practices passed on from their parents and grandparents and 27.4%  
224 relied on their own experience in farming as their source of knowledge. Information on cassava diseases and CCS  
225 reached half of the growers on at least one occasion (50.6% and 51.8% respectively), although no single source  
226 of information reached the majority of individuals. The most frequent sources of information included nearby  
227 friends, family and neighbours, and the radio.

228 In terms of growers' preferences for information, extension workers, radio and people within the village were  
229 clearly favoured (Figure 5), while the village leader or distant friends or relatives were least preferred. Nearly  
230 90% of growers who were aware of CMD had access to frequent information, whilst the majority of growers who  
231 were unaware of the disease had no access to information (Figure 6). Most informed growers were located within  
232 the Northern and Eastern provinces, where over half of growers had often heard about CMD from various  
233 information sources. The least informed growers were located in Luapula and Western provinces, where over two  
234 thirds of the growers reported never receiving information about CMD.

### 235 *Making decisions*

236 High yield, cost and lack of disease were the most frequently reported factors (27.4%, 25% and 22.6%,  
237 respectively) that would influence growers' decision on whether or not to use certified clean planting material.  
238 Surprisingly, few growers (3.6%) would consider adoption of CCS if it were free. Majority of the interviewed  
239 growers indicated they would consider adoption of the CCS or would control for CMD if two to four neighbours  
240 would be affected or use it (Supplementary Figure 2).

241 Growers were classified as having knowledge, some knowledge or no knowledge. In those three categories 40%,  
242 18% and 8% of growers respectively controlled for the disease. However, differences between these groups were  
243 not statistically significant ( $\chi^2$  test  $p = 0.19$ ). The price of clean seed did play a role in decision-making, with the  
244 intention to buy clean seed linearly decreasing with increasing price.

### 245 **Discussion**

246 Cassava virus diseases constitute a major constraint to the production of cassava in sub-Saharan Africa, yet there  
247 have been few studies looking into one of the key aspects of disease spread or control; the knowledge and decision-  
248 making of the cassava growers themselves. It is widely acknowledged that the burden of these diseases can be  
249 amplified within an individual field by replanting infected material (Samura et al. 2017), and on a larger scale by

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250 sharing planting material between fields (McQuaid et al. 2017a; McQuaid et al. 2017b; Patil et al. 2015), yet there  
251 are no studies of which the authors are aware that investigate the physical properties of human mediated  
252 transmission. This is critical from the point of view of disease management and control, in particular for a  
253 complete understanding of disease spread that underpins effective disease management.

254 According to our survey, cassava seed trade is largely informal in Zambia, except for a limited number of  
255 commercial growers involved in the production and sale of planting materials. Growers mostly recycle materials  
256 from their own fields, attributing this to variety preference as well as the fact that the material is readily available.  
257 The preference for recycling is supported by previous studies, which have shown that a majority of planting  
258 material is recycled within the same field, while a considerable portion is also exchanged with close friends or  
259 family (Chikoti et al. 2016; Gnonlonfin et al. 2011; Houngue et al. 2018; Ntawuruhunga et al. 2007; Teeken et al.  
260 2018). Although markets, organisations and middle-men are rarely involved in the movement of planting material,  
261 the large scale of the distances and quantities of material moved in each of these transactions highlighted by our  
262 study does indicate that they could be responsible for the movement of disease across large distances, which  
263 previous work has demonstrated could be severely detrimental to disease control (Legg et al. 2014; McQuaid et  
264 al. 2017a; McQuaid et al. 2017b). Increased trade movement of infected planting material could increase its  
265 importance in dispersal of CMD and CBSD still further (McQuaid et al. 2017b).

266 In general, most growers indicated that markets were more than 7 km from their homesteads. As presented in the  
267 study of Salasya et al. (2007), the closer a household is to the market, the higher the probability of adoption of  
268 improved varieties by that household due to greater market accessibility. Growers further away from markets are  
269 at a disadvantage, as they may lack market information and thus be more inclined to subsistence production. As  
270 a result, they may be less interested in the use of improved varieties as long as traditional varieties provide  
271 subsistence for the family. Growers are also, of course, sensitive to the price of planting material, and an increase  
272 in the price of improved seed relative to the local variety will reduce the adoption rate (Langyintuo and Mekuria  
273 2008). From our study, however, it appears more likely that a lack of knowledge and access is a more significant  
274 hindrance, which must be considered when implementing clean seed systems.

275 Our work supports numerous previous studies that have shown that culinary properties and taste of planting  
276 material is as important, if not more important, in planting material selection than properties of more economic  
277 traits such as yield, while the appearance of disease makes little to no difference on choice (Houngue et al. 2018;  
278 Kombo et al. 2012; Njukwe et al. 2013; Ntawuruhunga et al. 2007). With this in mind, efforts to use clean (and  
279 possibly also disease-resistant or tolerant) planting material to control disease epidemics need to address growers'

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280 varietal preferences and needs (Evenson and Gollin 2003; Kiros-Meles and Abang 2008). If new varieties are not  
281 suited to local tastes the level of adoption is likely to be low, a factor to be considered by both cassava breeders  
282 and clean planting material producers alike. At the same time, the importance of yield in varietal choice presents  
283 an opportunity to educate and reassure growers about the economic advantages of clean seed systems and the  
284 adoption of improved varieties.

285 Indeed, the lack of attention given by growers to the appearance of disease on a plant, or the decision to try and  
286 control for the disease, appears to be primarily due to a striking lack of knowledge about disease despite its  
287 widespread prevalence in growers' fields. While this is unsurprising for CBSD, CMD has been present across the  
288 country for more than two decades, incurring estimated yield losses of between 50 – 70% (Muimba-Kankolongo  
289 et al. 1997). This is a reflection of the scarcity of information available to growers; only half of growers receive  
290 any information on disease or its control at some point, and few receive information frequently or on a regular  
291 basis. Access to information is critical towards decision making, and increases concern about disease impact at  
292 the very least, as our results show.

293 Lack of awareness about the risk and impact of disease on yield in turn could lead to the failure of disease control  
294 measures implemented at a wider level, where it is necessary for a large proportion of growers to engage in disease  
295 management in order for effective, sustainable control to work (McQuaid et al. 2017a). It is certainly highly likely  
296 that the lack of awareness, combined with high incidence, likely contributes significantly to the spread of the  
297 disease. At the same time, the high use of growers' own planting materials, due to a lack of alternative sources,  
298 likely results in material susceptible to pests and diseases with a low genetic potential - similar observations have  
299 been made in Malawi (Chipeta et al. 2016).

300 The results underscore the important role of extension workers in providing information to growers. Regular  
301 visits of trusted extension workers are required to provide growers with information on innovation, general crop  
302 production, marketing and disease control strategies. Although in our study extension workers were the most  
303 trusted source of information, only a small proportion of growers were reached by this means. Our results  
304 demonstrate the need for grower education to improve knowledge and create awareness that is vital in controlling  
305 disease. Although other sources of information, such as radio, TV, or mobile phone apps can certainly be helpful  
306 in reaching growers and should not be ignored, to bridge the gap between scientific and indigenous knowledge,  
307 substantial effort should be invested in extension workers to train growers in disease recognition, the impact of  
308 the disease, and the means of spread and, most importantly, control. Reducing the presence of cassava virus

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309 diseases, and increasing the yields of small-holder growers across Zambia and East Africa, will not happen without  
310 well-informed growers acting at the individual level.

311

### 312 **Conclusion**

313 We have shown for the first time how far and how much cassava planting material moves due to trade. It appears  
314 that trade is likely responsible for much of the spread of viral diseases, where growers are unaware of this effect,  
315 as well as the disease itself, and consequently do little to prevent it. Elsewhere we see that grower awareness and  
316 education can be vital to engagement with disease control measures, so this lack of awareness highlights the need  
317 for grower education. The optimal manner in which to achieve this is through widely-trusted extension workers,  
318 although a number of other avenues such as farmers' groups and radio are also important.

319 In conclusion, in order to control cassava virus diseases, we need clean seed systems and improved (resistant or  
320 tolerant) varieties. For these to be effective, growers need to be educated in the diseases, and to achieve this we  
321 need to utilise and strengthen the existing extension worker network as well as make use of farmer's groups and  
322 the media.

### 323 **Authors contributions**

324 C.F.M. and F.v.d.B conceived the study, designed the questionnaire and drafted the manuscript. A.M.S.  
325 analysed the data and drafted the manuscript. P.C.C. led the fieldwork and drafted the manuscript. M.T and  
326 R.M. carried out the fieldwork and drafted the manuscript. C.A.G. drafted the manuscript. All authors gave final  
327 approval for publication.

328

### 329 **Conflict of interest**

330 The authors declared that they have no conflict of interest

331

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- 469
- 470

## Cassava stems movement and grower behaviour in Zambia

### 471 **Figures**

472 Figure 1. Locations of the interviewed growers in 2015 and 2017 in five provinces of Zambia, field sizes and  
473 CMD disease incidence (proportion of infected plants within the field).

474

475 Figure 2. Planting material (A) choice reason and (B) preferred source. Ranking 1 represents most preferred.

476

477 Figure 3. Total number of (A) bags of planting material moved and (B) individual transactions.

478

479 Figure 4. Growers response to the question: How worried are you about cassava mosaic disease, on a scale of 1  
480 to 10 where 1 is the least worried and 10 is the most worried. Growers are categorised based on whether they had  
481 access to information about CMD in the past at least on one occasion (informed) vs those who did not have access  
482 to information about CMD (not informed).

483

484 Figure 5. (A) Frequency of hearing information about cassava diseases from various sources and (B) ranking of  
485 information sources.

486

487 Figure 6. Disease knowledge vs frequency of obtained information (A) and by province (B).

488

489 Supplementary Figure 1. Different cassava traits dictating varietal choice cited by growers.

490

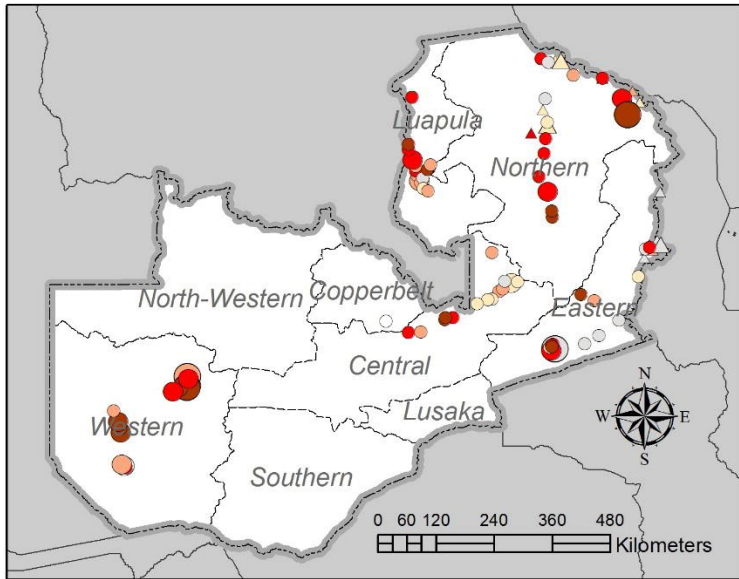
491 Supplementary Figure 2. Response to the question: After how many neighbours have the disease (CMD) or use  
492 certified clean seed (CCS) would you think about control?

**Cassava stems movement and grower behaviour in Zambia**

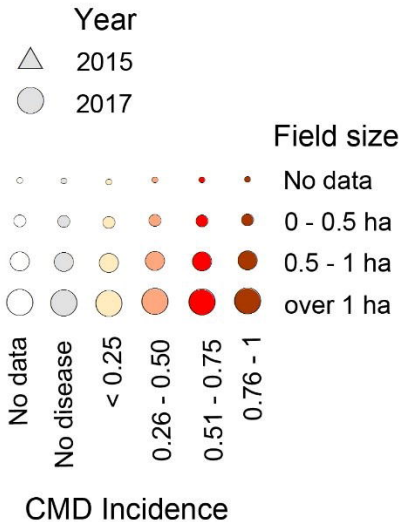
493 **Tables**

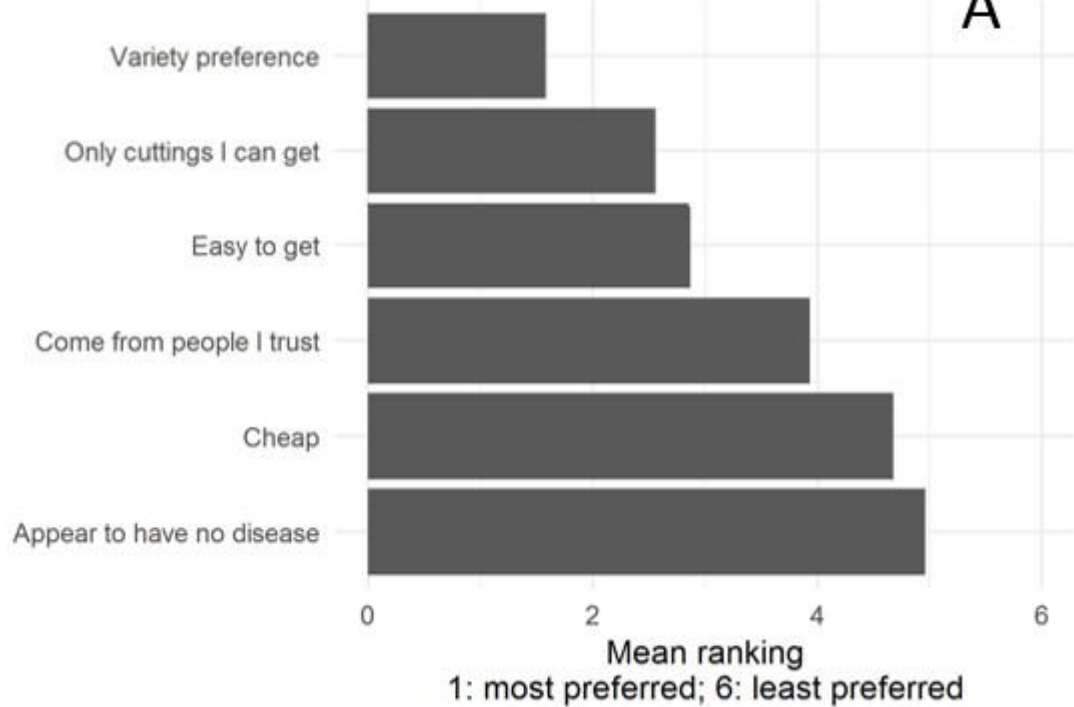
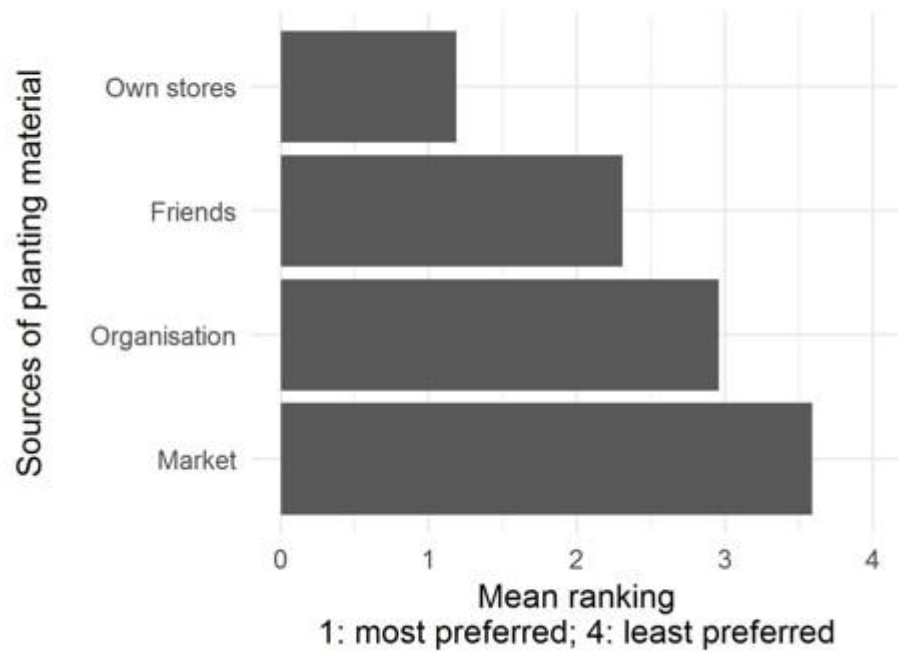
Province	Number of growers		Mean field size [ha]	Median number of varieties	Planting frequency			CMD			
	2015	2017			Biennial	Yearly	Twice a year	Incidence		Severity	
								Mean	SE	Mean	SE
<b>Central</b>	-	15	0.26	2	0	2	2	36.7%	7.6%	2.93	0.189
<b>Eastern</b>	10	15	0.82	1	0	22	2	26.1%	7.3%	2.81	0.327
<b>Luapula</b>	4	15	0.29	3	1	18	0	47.9%	6.0%	2.74	0.156
<b>Northern</b>	12	14	0.45	2	0	23	0	43.8%	6.5%	2.82	0.142
<b>Western</b>	-	13	1.25	3	0	12	1	68.9%	6.0%	3.72	0.062

494 Table 1. Summary of the number and per-province distribution of the growers, average field size, variety number,  
 495 planting frequencies and CMD incidence and severity scores. Incidence is calculated based on visual foliar  
 496 symptoms. Mean severity scores are derived per field from symptomatic plants only. No visual CBSD symptoms  
 497 were reported in the study.  
 498



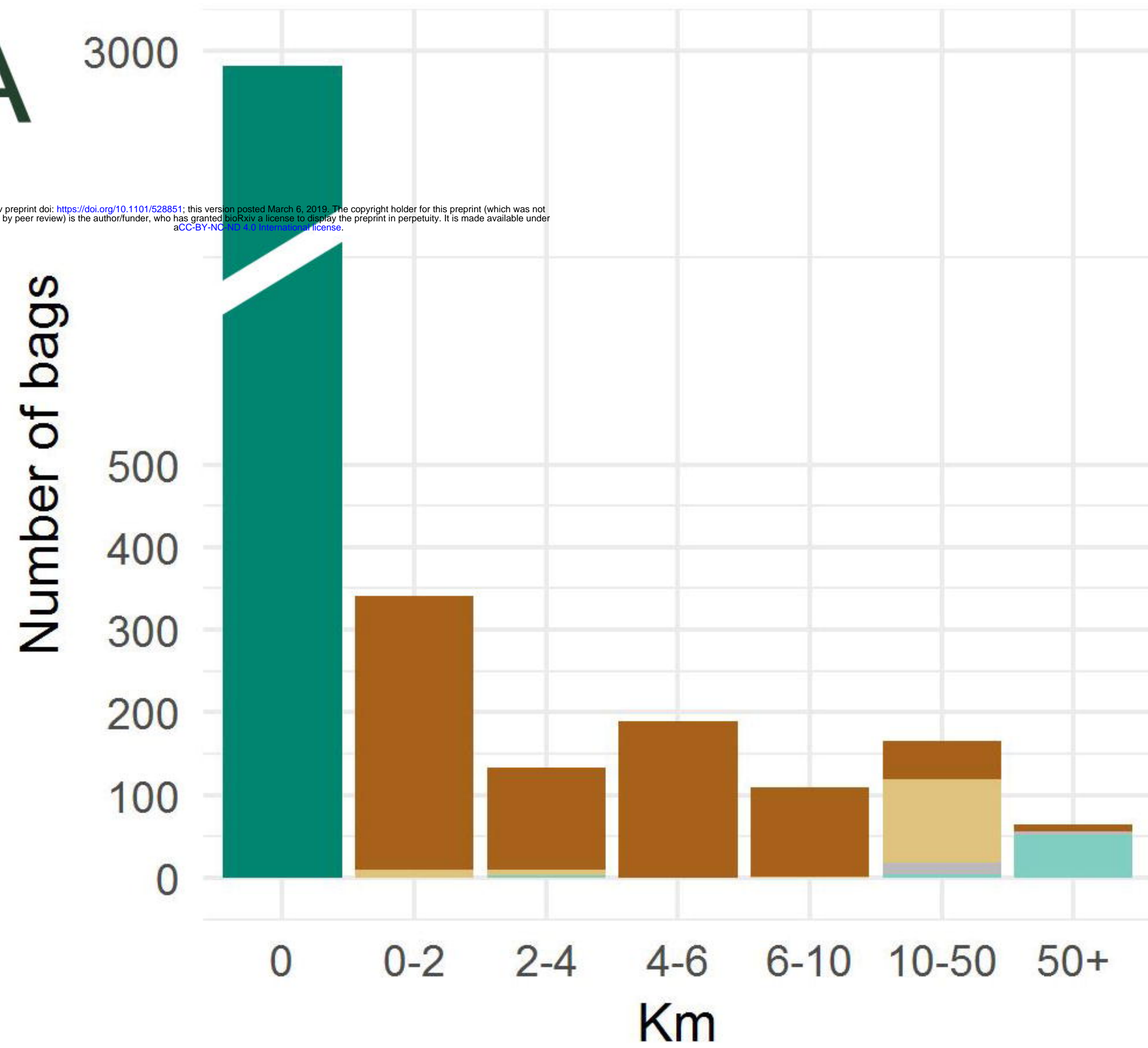
## Legend



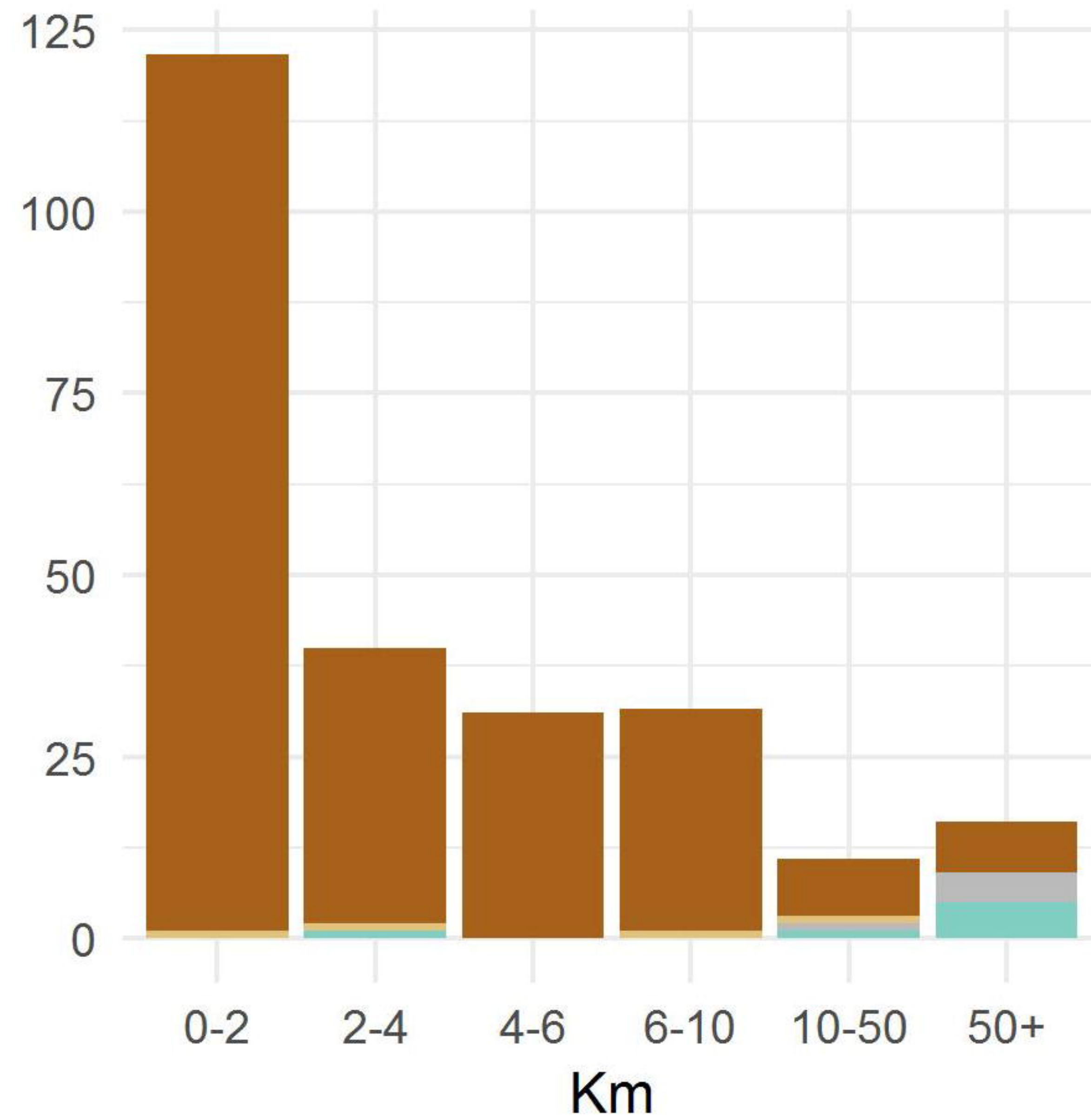
**A****B**

**A**

bioRxiv preprint doi: <https://doi.org/10.1101/528851>; this version posted March 6, 2019. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder, who has granted bioRxiv a license to display the preprint in perpetuity. It is made available under aCC-BY-NC-ND 4.0 International license.

**B**

Number of transactions

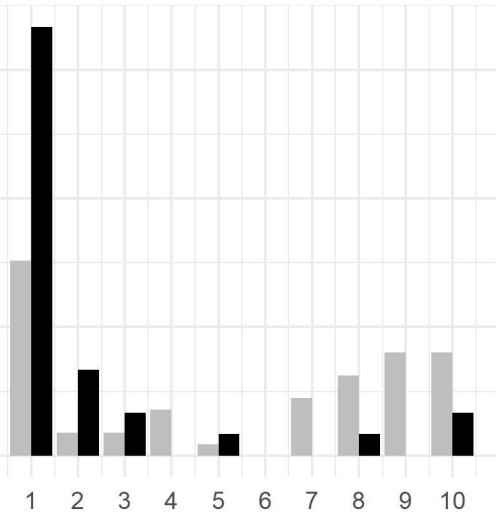


Ratio of growers  
in each category

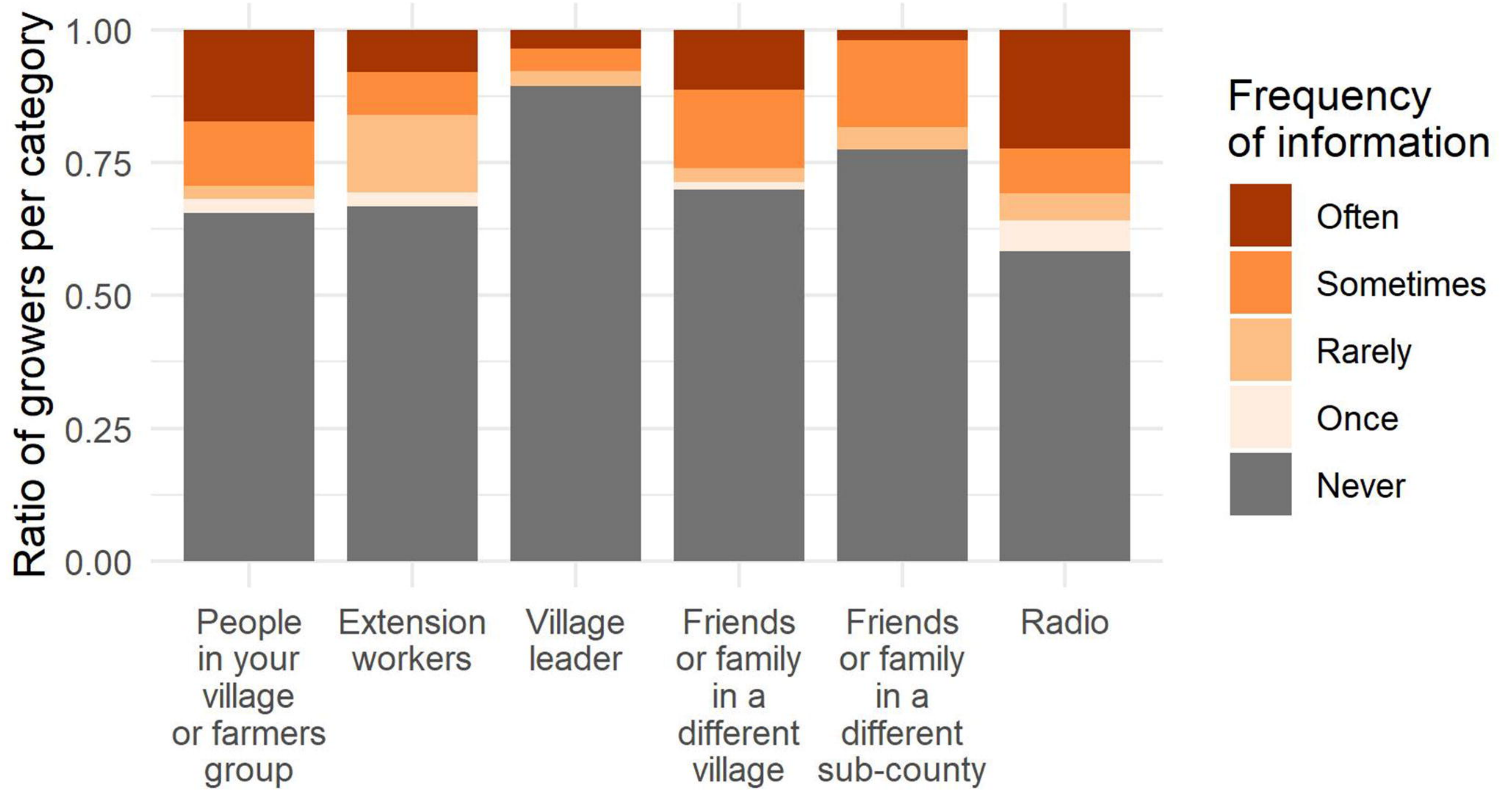
0.6  
0.4  
0.2  
0.0

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10  
How worried are you about CMD?  
(1 least, 10 most)

Informed  
Not informed



A



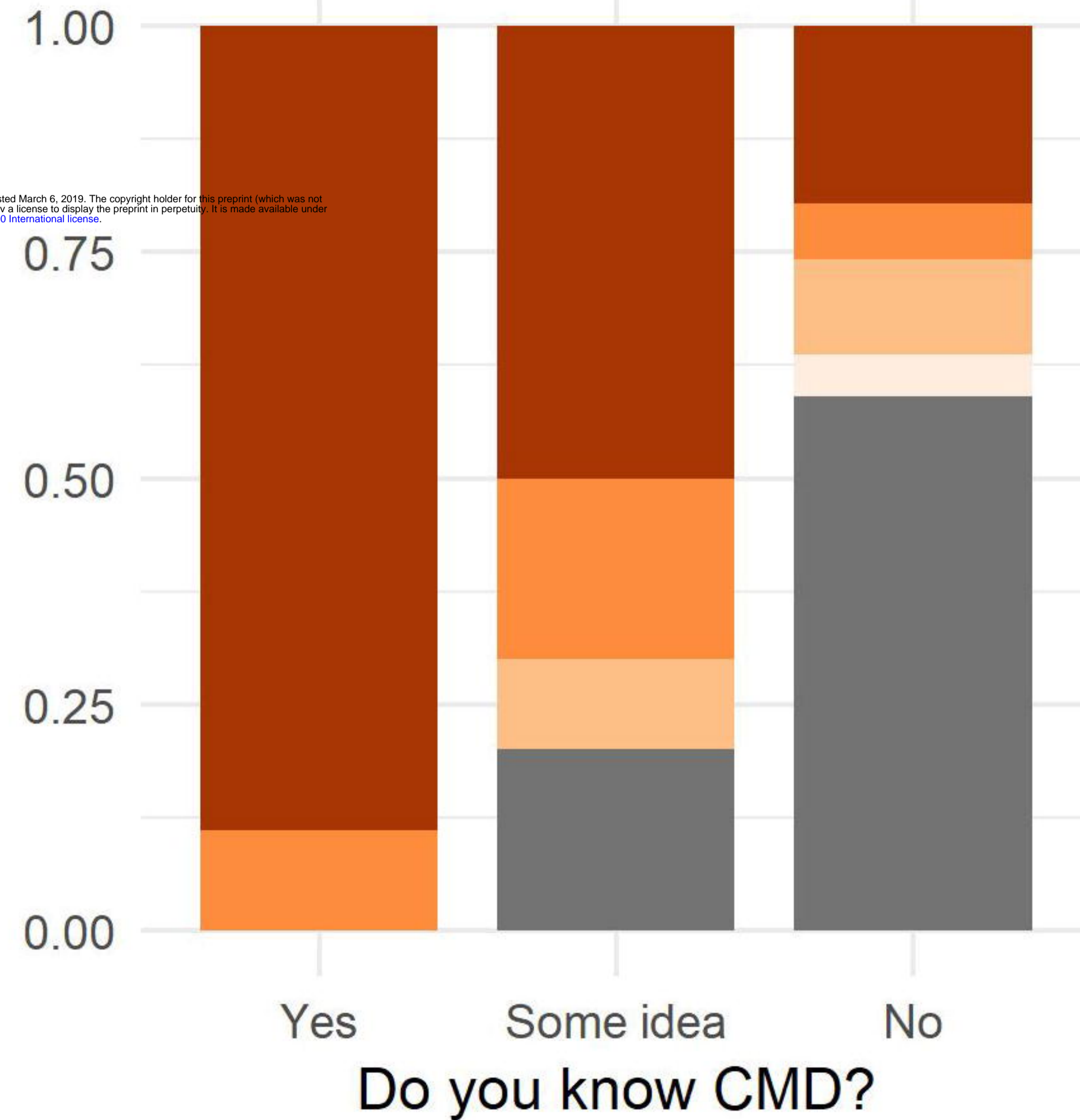
B



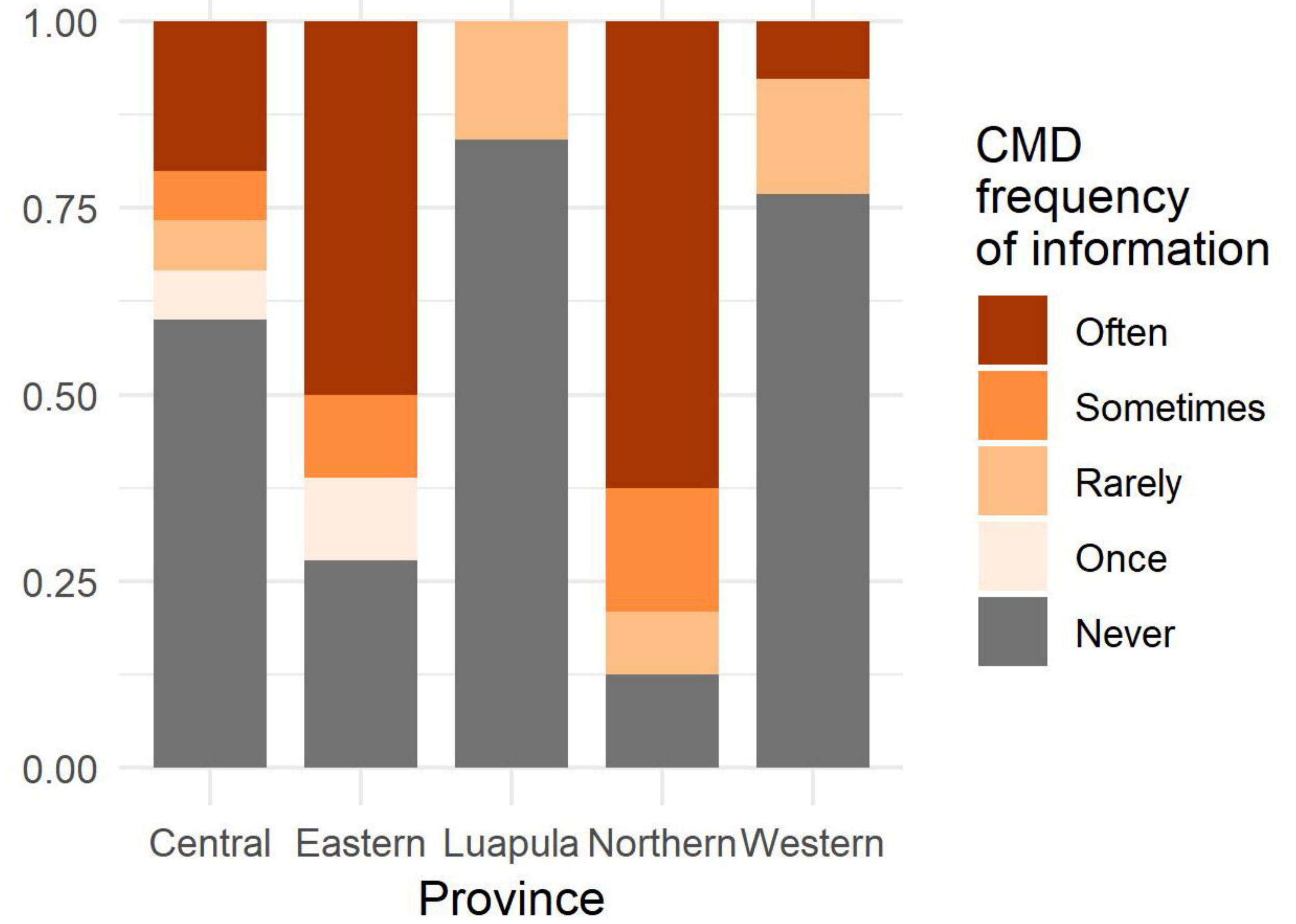


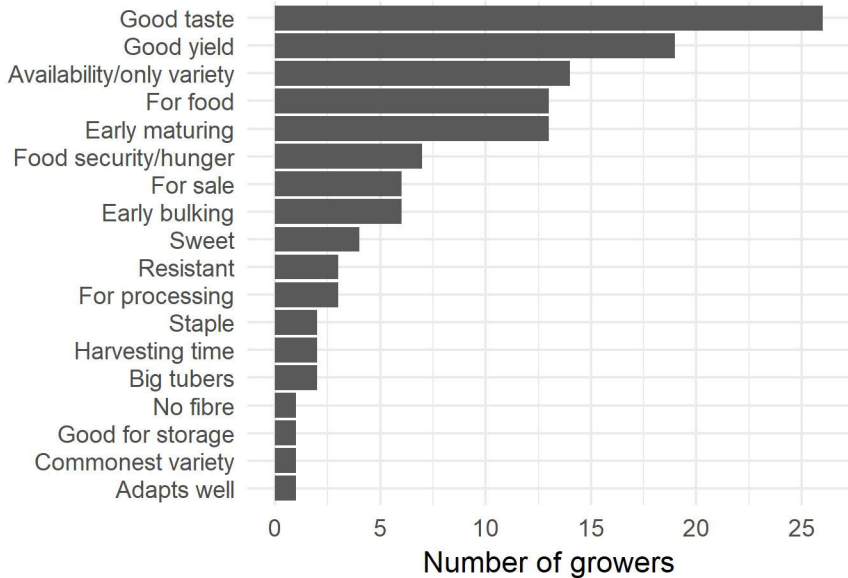
A

Ratio of growers  
in each category



B





# Number of growers

