Impact Network Analysis (INA) Evaluating the success of interventions A framework for evaluating the effects of management information through linked socioeconomic and biophysical networks Karen A. Garrett¹²³ ¹Institute for Sustainable Food Systems, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL, United States ²Plant Pathology Department, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL, United States ³Emerging Pathogens Institute, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL, United States Corresponding author: Karen A. Garrett Plant Pathology Department, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL, 32611, United States Email address: karengarrett@ufl.edu garrettlab.com

31

32 Abstract

33

34 The success of intervention projects in ecological systems depends not only on the quality of a 35 management strategy, but also how that strategy plays out among decision makers. Impact 36 network analysis (INA) is a framework for evaluating the likely regional success of interventions 37 before, during, and after projects, for project implementers, policy makers, and funders. INA 38 integrates across three key system components: (a) the quality of a management strategy and the 39 quality of information about it, (b) the socioeconomic networks through which managers learn 40 about the management strategy and decide whether to use it, and (c) the biophysical network that 41 results from those decisions. A common example where INA can be useful is management of an 42 invasive (or endangered) species or genotype. A management strategy to reduce (or increase) 43 the probability of establishment of a species may or may not be adopted by each land manager in 44 a region, depending on the quality of the management strategy and the information they have 45 available about it. The resulting management landscape will determine whether the intervention 46 project is successful, in terms of how much of the region the species can spread through and the resulting effects on the desired ecosystem services. INA can be applied in general to evaluate 47 48 the success of immediate intervention strategies, and to contribute to fundamental understanding 49 about what makes interventions successful.

50

51 Key words: adaptive management, agent-based models, complex adaptive systems, data science,

52 decision making under uncertainty, ecosystem services, emerging pathogens, epidemics,

53 intervention ecology, invasive species, meta-research, multilayer networks, non-indigenous

54 species, One Health, operationalizing sustainability concepts, science of science, social capital,

55 socio-environmental systems, translational science, value of information

56

57 Introduction

58 59

60

management strategy. The success of interventions in ecological systems depends on both how 61 62 effective the management methodologies are, and whether a critical mass of decision makers 63 adopts the necessary types of management. Because of the complexity of most ecological 64 systems, scenario analysis platforms are needed for evaluating the likelihood of intervention 65 success before, during, and after implementation. Data limitations will always be a challenge, 66 but uncertainty quantification methods can inform decisions about investments in interventions. 67 68 A common challenge across applied ecology, agricultural development, and public health 69 programs is to integrate across socioeconomic and biophysical processes to understand how 70 research products can change systems on the ground. Agricultural development often depends 71 on technologies for managing the spread of pathogens and arthropod pests, and for supporting 72 the spread of desirable crop genotypes. Public health is supported by technologies for 73 communicating about and using methods such as vaccination to slow the spread of disease. 74 Understanding how to optimize the effects of research and data collection typically requires 75 integration across three general types of system components: (a) the type and quality of 76 management information and other technologies, (b) socioeconomic networks that determine 77 communication and influence about management technology use, such as networks of land 78 managers or farmers, and (c) biophysical networks where decisions about use of technologies 79 determine ecological outcomes, such as networks of pathogen invasion or networks of 80 endangered species dispersal. Here, "impact networks" are defined as the linked socioeconomic 81 and biophysical networks through which management may have a regional effect. This paper 82 introduces a framework for scenario analysis, impact network analysis (INA), to integrate these 83 three components, and thus to evaluate the likelihood of success for interventions. 84 85 The first component in this framework is an intervention technology, which might be, for example, a model describing a management effect on transmission probabilities, or another form 86 87 of information about how to modify the system. Information can be considered in the broad sense, such as genetic information in the form of selection of appropriate genetic material for 88 89 agriculture or for ecological restoration projects. These types of information will also have an 90 associated uncertainty (Klerkx et al., 2010). Analyses of the 'value of information' have been 91 incorporated in, for example, medical decision making at multiple scales (Bartell et al., 2000; 92 Claxton and Sculpher, 2006; Tappenden et al., 2004), decision making by foraging animals (Freidin and Kacelnik, 2011; McNamara and Dall, 2010), management of species (Canessa et al., 93 94 2015; Tallis and Polasky, 2011; Wiles, 2004), and adaptive resource management (Williams et al., 2011). Even neurological processing of the value of information has been characterized 95 96 (Behrens et al., 2007). As the reproducibility of science is critically evaluated in multiple 97 disciplines, the quality of information is a focus (Ioannidis, 2005; Kenett and Shmueli, 2014; 98 Leek and Peng, 2015). And even if information and technologies are of very high quality, their 99 influence on system-level outcomes will be minimal if decision-makers are unaware of them or 100 are not persuaded that they are a good investment of resources. Impact network analysis can be 101 thought of as an evaluation of the regional value of information in landscapes.

Interventions in ecological systems have the potential to fail due to lack of consideration of the

system components that are limiting factors for what would otherwise be a successful

102

- 103 The second component is the socioeconomic network, where nodes are key decision makers such
- as farmers, other land managers, or individuals managing their families' health, or farmers
- 105 (Rebaudo and Dangles, 2011; Rebaudo and Dangles, 2013) and potentially also include other



Figure 1. An impact network analysis can be applied to evaluate how likely an intervention is to be successful. A common type of intervention is an attempt at regional management of an invasive (or endangered) species. An intervention would often be based on an attempt to make effective management of the species more widespread. Adoption of the management may prevent or disrupt spread of an invasive species, as illustrated here. Links represent potential spread of information about the management option in the top layer, and potential spread of the species in the bottom layer. Links between layers indicate a manager in the top layer linked to a land unit in the bottom layer, where the managers' decisions will change the management landscape.

148

agents such as scientists (Ekboir, 2003), extension agents, policy makers, consumers, and related institutions. Links between nodes may indicate the spread of ideas, influence, and/or money. Within businesses, networks for the spread of information may be designed to try to achieve economic goals (Allee, 2002). In many scenarios, networks of communication and influence form haphazardly. Individual decision-making about whether to adopt new technologies plays out in the context of the information available through individuals' networks (Garrett, 2012; Rogers, 2003). Agricultural management is often limited by lack of information (Parsa et al., 2014). Even if the current standard of information is available to most agents (nodes), the information may be of low quality, and heuristics for decision-making may or may not be welldeveloped (Ascough et al., 2008; Gigerenzer and Gaissmaier, 2011). The effects of decision-making by agents in the socioeconomic network, with or without full information about options, creates a "management landscape" that influences the success or failure of species in the biophysical network.

The third component is the biophysical network, where nodes indicate the entities or geographical locations where success or failure occurs. Nodes might be groups of people (as hosts to human pathogens), farms, or other land management units. Links between nodes indicate the potential for the spread of undesirable species or genotypes, such as antibiotic resistant human or agricultural pathogens (Epanchin-Niell et al., 2010; Margosian et al., 2009; Sutrave et al., 149 2012), or of desirable species or genotypes, such as endangered species or improved crop

- 150 varieties. In some cases, the same type of biophysical network model may usefully be applied to
- 151 related processes, such as the spread of pollutants, soil erosion, and provisioning of fresh water
- 152 (Baron et al., 2002). Nodes in the biophysical network are linked to the corresponding decision-
- 153 makers in the socioeconomic network layer, such that the probability of successful management
- at a biophysical node is modified by the corresponding decisions about management. Successful
- 155 management also depends on the quality of information or other technologies that may be
- applied at a given biophysical node.
- 157
- 158 Combining these three components provides a systems perspective that can be used in scenario
- analyses to evaluate potential outcomes from research investments, before, during, or after
 projects begin. It can also be used to evaluate the likely degree of success of adaptation
- 161 strategies to pulse (intermittant) or press (continual) system stressors, such as the introduction of
- 162 a new pathogen or climate change, to evaluate system sustainability, resilience, or economic
- 163 viability. Some of these system components have been considered together more or less
- 164 explicitly in disease ecology (Funk et al., 2009; Funk et al., 2010; Garrett, 2012; Harwood et al.,
- 165 2009; Manfredi and d'Onofrio, 2013; Sahneh et al., 2012) and natural resource management
- 166 (Bodin and Prell, 2011; Epanchin-Niell and Hastings, 2010; Hernandez Nopsa et al., 2015; Mills
- 167 et al., 2011; Rebaudo and Dangles, 2011). Combining the components also provides a new
- 168 perspective on the science of science policy (Fealing et al., 2011) by directly evaluating
- interactions among agents engaged in developing scientific results and in implementing the newresults.
- 170 171
- 172 The overall goal of impact network analysis is to provide a common framework that integrates
- across all these types of applications, to enhance opportunities for lessons learned across systems
- and scientific disciplines, and to create a general platform for analysis of sustainability,
- 175 resilience, and economic viability. Applying network analyses, as compared to more aggregated
- 176 models, allows consideration of the role of geographic and social structures on the likelihood of
- 177 success of technological innovations. The specific objective of this paper is to introduce the
- 178 impact network analysis framework for evaluating the degree of success of a project in
- intervention ecology, using an example of model structure for management of an invasive or
- 180 endangered species.
- 181
- 182

183 Methods

- 184
- 185 The model presented here is a simpler version of the range of potential impact network analyses 186 that could be considered. For example, this simple model addresses a single "unit" of
- 187 management information that is generated by an agent such as a research team, while more
- elaborate models might address "big data" in the form of information that is generated
- 189 throughout a network, as well as spread throughout that network. The simpler model is
- 190 introduced here, for the most part using a standard format for describing agent-based models
- 191 (Grimm et al., 2010).
- 192
- 193
- 194

195 *Purpose*

196

197 The purpose of this model is to understand the likelihood of success of an intervention in an 198 ecological system, before the intervention and with iterative adjustments as more information 199 about the system become available. It evaluates the outcomes of information and technology impacts on linked socioeconomic and biophysical networks. These system components tend to 200 201 be studied separately in traditional disciplinary models, but the way they are integrated 202 influences system sustainability. The broader goal is a new impact network modeling framework 203 that can be applied across a broad range of system contexts and questions, providing research 204 spill-over and cross-disciplinary lessons learned. The impact of information related to 205 management of an invasive or endangered species is considered. 206

207 State variables and scales

208

209 The model describes the effects of a management strategy (information or other types of

- 210 technologies), socioeconomic networks that influence management decision-making, and
- biophysical networks that influence species dispersal and establishment, in the case of the
- 212 application to invasive or endangered species.
- 213
- 214 *Ecological information or other technology, and the management effect size*
- 215 The state variable describing information is the researchers' *estimate* of the management effect
- size, in terms of the percentage change in the probability of species establishment, with the goal
- 217 of stopping invasive species establishment, or supporting endangered species establishment.
- 218 (The *actual* effect size is a model parameter.)
- 219

The generation of an estimate is based on two parameters, the mean effect size and the standard error of the mean (which is implicitly a function of both variance in effect size and the experimental sampling effort). The estimated management effect size must be greater than a threshold value in order to trigger communication about the management.

- 224
- 225 Communication network226

The nodes of the communication network, which determines how information (or other types of technology) may be propagated, are individual people or institutions (land managers, policy makers, information brokers, researchers). The link weights indicate the probability of sharing information between two nodes. The state of each node at a given time step is presence or absence of the information. The time step (temporal resolution) is related to logical time units

- for the linked ecological network, such as the generation time for the species being managed.
- 233
- The probability of information sharing between a given pair of nodes is constant throughout a simulation, where sharing of information at a particular time step is determined based on that probability.
- 230 pro 237
- 238 The higher-level measures of the status of the communication network include the number of
- nodes where information is present and the network properties associated with the
- 240 communication network.

241 *Decision-making at a node*

242

Whether or not land managers who have information about a new management technology will choose to use the new management is determined by factors such as the distribution of early and late adopters. In this model, each land manager node has associated with it both the information status described above and a decision status. If the information has not reached a land manager node, the decision will be 'do not adopt' by default. If the information has reached a land manager node, the decision may be 'adopt' or 'do not adopt'.

249

Each land manager node has an assigned likelihood of adoption during a time step, where a given land manager node retains its probability of adoption throughout a simulation. Whether management is used is determined at each time step.

253

The higher-level measures of the status of the network of land managers will include the number of nodes where the outcome is 'adoption' and the network properties associated with those

- 256 nodes.
- 257
- 258 Ecological network and establishment
- 259

260 The nodes of the ecological network are units of land managed by a particular land manager,

such that the land manager node and the corresponding land node are connected. For the

262 invasive or endangered species example, the links between land nodes indicate the probability of

263 movement of the species between the pair of land nodes. Whether or not movement occurs is

determined at each time step based on that probability. The probability of successful

establishment at that land node is a function of whether or not management has been adopted.
The state of each land node for the species movement case is 'species established or 'species not

- established'.
- 268

The higher-level measures of the status of the network of land units will include the number of nodes where the outcome is 'species established'.

271 272

272 Process overview and scheduling273

The processes in the model for an invasive or endangered species are as follows for a single realization, in discrete time.

- 1. An estimate of the management effect is generated once.
- 277
 2. A round of communication occurs, such that some land manager nodes may change status
 278 from 'absence of information' to 'presence of information'.
- A round of decision making occurs, such that some land manager nodes may change
 status from 'non-adoption' to 'adoption', thus changing the management status of the
 corresponding land nodes.
- 4. A round of dispersal occurs, such that some land nodes may change status from 'species absent' to 'species present' because of movement.
- 5. For species presence to be maintained, the species must also become established, where the probability of establishment is conditional on whether the management is adopted at a

- 286 land node. Some land nodes where the species was previously established may change 287 status from 'species present' to 'species absent' as a result of management. 288 6. Steps 2 through 5 are repeated for as many time steps as are being considered. 289 290 **Design** concepts 291 292 Emergence: System-level traits that "emerge" from individual traits include the spatial 293 distributions and frequency distributions of (a) land manager nodes with information present, (b) 294 land manager nodes with adoption (and corresponding land nodes with management), and (c) 295 land nodes where the species is established. 296 297 Sensing: In this simple version of an impact network, land managers become aware of 298 information only through their links to other people aware of the information. The threshold for 299 the effect size estimate determines whether there is any communication about the management, 300 and can completely restrict land managers' ability to learn information. Adaptation and fitness-301 seeking are not modeled explicitly in this simple version, but are implicit in information sharing 302 and decision-making about adoption. 303 304 Stochasticity: To understand the general effects, and the upper and lower percentiles of 305 outcomes, network structures are generated anew for each simulation. The probability of 306 movement of information and species is fixed for each pair of nodes within a single simulation, 307 and whether or not movement occurs in each time step is determined independently based on this 308 probability. The probability of establishment at a given node is modified by whether the 309 management has been adopted at the corresponding manager node. 310 311 Collectives: Interactions among land managers are modeled by the network of communication. 312 313 Observation: At the end of step 5 (in the process overview above), the species is established in a 314 set of land units for that time step. The status of information and adoption at each socioeconomic 315 node, and species establishment in each biophysical (land) node, is collected for analysis. 316 317 Initialization 318 319 In the network of land managers, those who initially have the information about management are 320 those conceptualized as having access to the information from researchers and/or information 321 brokers such as journalists and extension agents. Each land manager has a probability of initially 322 having this information in each simulation. A proportion of land nodes initially have the species 323 present, and are randomly selected *along one edge of the map* or randomly in each simulation. 324 325 Input data 326 327 Input data are simulated in these examples, but could come from observed environmental 328 variables. The environmental input in this simple version of an INA is defined in terms of 329 environmental conduciveness to species establishment or persistence. For simplicity, underlying 330 environmental conduciveness is considered to be the same at all nodes for a given time step, so
- that the probability of establishment is the same at each land unit node. Three types of scenarios

332 are considered for conduciveness. In the 'constant' scenario, conduciveness does not change. In

- 333 the 'sustainability test' scenario, conduciveness increases slowly and steadily over time. In the
- 334 'resilience test' scenario, conduciveness increases suddenly for a limited period of time.
- 335

336 Next steps

337

338 This introduction to INA will be updated with a more detailed example

339

340 **Comments**

- 341
- When evaluating the likely success of interventions that are under immediate consideration, 342



Figure 2. Three potential priorities in impact network analysis, and examples of the types of questions that might be asked in each context

analyses will generally try to achieve the greatest level of precision possible given the data available. When considering the potential for different types of future interventions, or the theory of effective interventions, other priorities may be at least as important. There are often trade-offs in the ability of a model to achieve precision, realism, and generality (Gross, 2013; Levins, 1966). Other applications of impact network analysis could focus on developing general theories for the development of future intervention strategies (Fig. 2). Uncertainty quantification frameworks can incorporate multiple types of objectives in impact network analysis.

359

- 360 Seed systems are an important example of multilayer networks in agriculture. Layers include the network of seed movement in formal and informal systems, the network of pathogen or pest 361 movement through seed, and the network of information and influence related to integrated seed 362
- 363 health strategies (Thomas-Sharma et al., 2016; Thomas-Sharma et al., 2017). Successful seed 364
- systems will optimize the maintenance and spread of desirable crop varieties (Labeyrie et al., 365 2016; Pautasso, 2015; Pautasso et al., 2013) while minimizing the spread of pathogens through
- 366 seed or grain movement (Andersen et al., 2017; Buddenhagen et al., 2017; Hernandez Nopsa et
- 367 al., 2015). Additional linked networks include the global network of crop breeders who 368 exchange genetic material (Garrett et al., 2017).
- 369

370 Acknowledgements

371

372 Support by the following groups is greatly appreciated: the CGIAR Research Program for Roots,

- Tubers and Bananas; the CGIAR Research Program on Climate Change and Food Security 373
- 374 (CCAFS); Bioversity International; USDA NIFA grant 2015-51181-24257; the USAID Feed the
- 375 Future Haiti Appui à la Recherche et au Développement Agricole (AREA) project AID-OAA-A-
- 376 15-00039; The Ceres Trust; NCR SARE Research and Education Grant LNC13-355; USDA
- 377 APHIS grant 11–8453–1483-CA; US NSF Grant EF-0525712 as part of the joint NSF-NIH

- Ecology of Infectious Disease program; US NSF Grant DEB-0516046; and the University of
- Florida. The contents are the responsibility of the author and do not necessarily reflect the views
- 380 of USAID, other funders, or the United States Government. Thanks to P. Garfinkel for helpful
- comments. This work is dedicated to the memory of Ray Garrett and Joe Garrett.
- 382 383

384 **References**

- 385
- Allee, V. (2002): The Future of Knowledge: Increasing Prosperity through Value Networks.
 Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Andersen, K.F., C.E. Buddenhagen, P. Rachkara, R. Gibson, S. Kalule, D. Phillips and K.A.
 Garrett (2017): Analyzing key nodes and epidemic risk in seed networks: Sweetpotato in Northern Uganda. bioRxiv:https://doi.org/10.1101/107359.
- Ascough, J.C., H.R. Maier, J.K. Ravalico and M.W. Strudley (2008): Future research
 challenges for incorporation of uncertainty in environmental and ecological decision-making.
 Ecol. Model. 219 (3-4):383-399.
- Baron, J.S., N.L. Poff, P.L. Angermeier, C.N. Dahm, P.H. Gleick, N.G. Hairston, R.B.
 Jackson, C.A. Johnston, B.D. Richter and A.D. Steinman (2002): Meeting ecological and societal needs for freshwater. Ecol. Appl. 12 (5):1247-1260.
- 397 5. Bartell, S.M., R.A. Ponce, T.K. Takaro, R.O. Zerbe, G.S. Omenn and E.M. Faustman (2000):
 398 Risk estimation and value-of-information analysis for three proposed genetic screening
 399 programs for chronic beryllium disease prevention. Risk Anal. 20 (1):87-99.
- Behrens, T.E.J., M.W. Woolrich, M.E. Walton and M.F.S. Rushworth (2007): Learning the value of information in an uncertain world. Nat. Neurosci. 10 (9):1214-1221.
- 402
 7. Biggs, R., M. Schlüter, D. Biggs, E.L. Bohensky, S. BurnSilver, G. Cundill, V. Dakos, T.M.
 403
 404
 404
 404
 405
 405
 405
 406
 407
 408
 408
 409
 409
 409
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 400
 <
- 8. Bodin, Ö. and C. Prell (Editors), 2011. Social Networks and Natural Resource Management:
 Uncovering the Social Fabric of Environmental Governance. Cambridge University Press,
 Cambridge, UK.
- Buddenhagen, C.E., J.F. Hernandez Nopsa, K.F. Andersen, J. Andrade-Piedra, G.A. Forbes,
 P. Kromann, S. Thomas-Sharma, P. Useche and K.A. Garrett (2017): Epidemic network
 analysis for mitigation of invasive pathogens in seed systems: Potato in Ecuador.
 Phytopathology 107:1209-1218.
- 413 10. Canessa, S., G. Guillera-Arroita, J.J. Lahoz-Monfort, D.M. Southwell, D.P. Armstrong, I.
 414 Chadès, R.C. Lacy and S.J. Converse (2015): When do we need more data? A primer on
 415 calculating the value of information for applied ecologists. Methods in Ecology and
 416 Evolution 6 (10):1219-1228.
- 417 11. Chadès, I., T.G. Martin, S. Nicol, M.A. Burgman, H.P. Possingham and Y.M. Buckley
 418 (2011): General rules for managing and surveying networks of pests, diseases, and
 419 endangered species. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States
 420 of America 108 (20):8323-8328.
- 12. Clark, W.C., T.P. Tomich, M. van Noordwijk, D. Guston, D. Catacutan, N.M. Dickson and
 E. McNie (2011): Boundary work for sustainable development: Natural resource

- 423 management at the Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research (CGIAR).
- 424 Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences.
- 425 13. Claxton, K.P. and M.J. Sculpher (2006): Using value of information analysis to prioritise
 426 health research Some lessons from recent UK experience. Pharmacoeconomics 24
 427 (11):1055-1068.
- 428 14. Csárdi, G. and T. Nepusz (2006): The igraph software package for complex network
 429 research. InterJournal, Complex Systems 1695:<u>http://igraph.org</u>.
- 430 15. Ekboir, J. (2003): Why impact analysis should not be used for research evaluation and what
 431 the alternatives are. Agric. Syst. 78 (2):166-184.
- 432 16. Epanchin-Niell, R.S. and A. Hastings (2010): Controlling established invaders: integrating
 433 economics and spread dynamics to determine optimal management. Ecol. Lett. 13 (4):528434 541.
- 435 17. Epanchin-Niell, R.S., M.B. Hufford, C.E. Aslan, J.P. Sexton, J.D. Port and R.M. Waring
 436 (2010): Controlling invasive species in complex social landscapes. Front. Ecol. Environ. 8
 437 (4):210-216.
- 438 18. Fealing, K.H., J.I. Lane, J.H. Marburger III and S.S. Shipp (Editors), 2011. The Science of
 439 Science Policy: A Handbook. Stanford Business Books, Stanford, CA.
- 440 19. Freidin, E. and A. Kacelnik (2011): Rational Choice, Context Dependence, and the Value of
 441 Information in European Starlings (Sturnus vulgaris). Science 334 (6058):1000-1002.
- 442 20. Funk, S., E. Gilad, C. Watkins and V.A.A. Jansen (2009): The spread of awareness and its
 443 impact on epidemic outbreaks. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the
 444 United States of America 106 (16):6872-6877.
- 445 21. Funk, S., M. Salathe and V.A.A. Jansen (2010): Modelling the influence of human behaviour
 446 on the spread of infectious diseases: a review. J. R. Soc. Interface 7 (50):1247-1256.
- 447 22. Garrett, K.A. (2012): Information networks for plant disease: Commonalities in human
 448 management networks and within-plant signaling networks. Eur. J. Plant Pathol. 133:75-88.
- 449 23. Garrett, K.A., R.I. Alcalá-Briseño, K.F. Andersen, C.E. Buddenhagen, R.A. Choudhury, J.C.
 450 Fulton, J.F. Hernandez Nopsa, R. Poudel and Y. Xing. (2018): Network analysis: A systems
 451 framework to address grand challenges in plant pathology. Annual Review of
 452 Phytopathology 56: https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-phyto-080516-035326.
- 453 24. Garrett, K.A., K. Andersen, R.L. Bowden, G.A. Forbes, P.A. Kulakow and B. Zhou (2017):
 454 Resistance genes in global crop breeding networks. Phytopathology 107:1268-1278.
- 455 25. Gigerenzer, G. and W. Gaissmaier (2011): Heuristic decision making. Annu. Rev. Psychol
 456 62:451-482.
- 457 26. Grimm, V., U. Berger, D.L. DeAngelis, J.G. Polhill, J. Giske and S.F. Railsback (2010): The
 458 ODD protocol: A review and first update. Ecol. Model. 221 (23):2760-2768.
- 459 27. Gross, L.J., 2013. Use of computer systems and models. In: S.A. Levin (Editor),
- 460 Encyclopedia of Biodiversity, Second Edition. Academic Press, Waltham, MA, pp. 213-220.
- 461 28. Harwood, T.D., X. Xu, M. Pautasso, M.J. Jeger and M.W. Shaw (2009): Epidemiological
 462 risk assessment using linked network and grid based modelling: *Phytophthora ramorum* and
 463 *Phytophthora kernoviae* in the UK. Ecol. Model. 220 (23):3353-3361.
- 464 29. Hernandez Nopsa, J.F., G.J. Daglish, D.W. Hagstrum, J.F. Leslie, T.W. Phillips, C. Scoglio,
- 465 S. Thomas-Sharma, G.H. Walter and K.A. Garrett (2015): Ecological networks in stored
- 466 grain: Key postharvest nodes for emerging pests, pathogens, and mycotoxins. BioScience 65467 (10):985-1002.

- 30. Howden, S.M., J.-F. Soussana, F.N. Tubiello, N. Chhetri, M. Dunlop and H. Meinke (2007):
 Adapting agriculture to climate change. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of
 the United States of America 104 (50):19691-19696.
- 471 31. Ioannidis, J.P.A. (2005): Why most published research findings are false. PLoS Medicine 2
 472 (8):e124.
- 473 32. Kenett, R.S. and G. Shmueli (2014): On information quality. Journal of the Royal Statistical
 474 Society: Series A (Statistics in Society) 177 (1):3-38.
- 33. Klerkx, L., N. Aarts and C. Leeuwis (2010): Adaptive management in agricultural innovation
 systems: The interactions between innovation networks and their environment. Agric. Syst.
 103 (6):390-400.
- 478 34. Labeyrie, V., M. Thomas, Z.K. Muthamia and C. Leclerc (2016): Seed exchange networks,
 479 ethnicity, and sorghum diversity. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 113:98480 103.
- 481 35. Leek, J.T. and R.D. Peng (2015): Opinion: Reproducible research can still be wrong:
 482 Adopting a prevention approach. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 112
 483 (6):1645-1646.
- 484 36. Levins, R. (1966): The strategy of model building in population biology. American Scientist
 485 54:421–431.
- 486 37. Manfredi, P. and A. d'Onofrio (Editors), 2013. Modeling the Interplay Between Human
 487 Behavior and the Spread of Infectious Diseases. Springer, New York.
- 38. Margosian, M.L., K.A. Garrett, J.M.S. Hutchinson and K.A. With (2009): Connectivity of
 the American agricultural landscape: Assessing the national risk of crop pest and disease
 spread. BioScience 59 (2):141-151.
- 491 39. May, R.M., S.A. Levin and G. Sugihara (2008): Complex systems Ecology for bankers.
 492 Nature 451 (7181):893-895.
- 493 40. McNamara, J.M. and S.R.X. Dall (2010): Information is a fitness enhancing resource. Oikos
 494 119 (2):231-236.
- 495 41. Mills, P., K. Dehnen-Schmutz, B. Ilbery, M. Jeger, G. Jones, R. Little, A. MacLeod, S.
 496 Parker, M. Pautasso, S. Pietravalle and D. Maye (2011): Integrating natural and social
 497 science perspectives on plant disease risk, management and policy formulation. Philos.
 498 Trans. R. Soc. B-Biol. Sci. 366 (1573):2035-2044.
- 499 42. Ostrom, E. (2009): A general framework for analyzing sustainability of social-ecological
 500 systems. Science 325 (5939):419-422.
- 43. Parsa, S., S. Morse, A. Bonifacio, T.C. Chancellor, B. Condori, V. Crespo-Pérez, S.L. Hobbs,
 J. Kroschel, M.N. Ba and F. Rebaudo (2014): Obstacles to integrated pest management
 adoption in developing countries. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 111
 (10):3889-3894.
- 44. Pautasso, M. (2015): Network simulations to study seed exchange for agrobiodiversity
 conservation. Agron. Sustain. Dev. 35 (1):145-150.
- 507 45. Pautasso, M., G. Aistara, A. Barnaud, S. Caillon, P. Clouvel, O.T. Coomes, M. Delêtre, E.
 508 Demeulenaere, P. De Santis, T. Döring, L. Eloy, L. Emperaire, E. Garine, I. Goldringer, D.
- Jarvis, H.I. Joly, C. Leclerc, S. Louafi, P. Martin, F. Massol, S. McGuire, D. McKey, C.
 Padoch, C. Soler, M. Thomas and S. Tramontini (2013): Seed exchange networks for
- agrobiodiversity conservation. A review. Agron. Sustain. Dev. 33 (1):151-175.
- 512 46. R Core Team (2018): R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R
- 513 Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria.

514 47. Rebaudo, F. and O. Dangles (2011): Coupled information diffusion-pest dynamics models

- 515 predict delayed benefits of farmer cooperation in pest management programs. PLoS
 516 Computational Biology 7 (10):e1002222.
- 48. Rebaudo, F. and O. Dangles (2013): An agent-based modeling framework for integrated pest
 management dissemination programs. Environmental Modelling & Software 45:141-149.
- 519 49. Rogers, E.M. (2003): Diffusion of Innovations. Free Press, New York.
- 520 50. Sahneh, F.D., F.N. Chowdhury and C.M. Scoglio (2012): On the existence of a threshold for
 521 preventive behavioral responses to suppress epidemic spreading. Sci Rep 2:632
- 51. Sanatkar, M.R., C. Scoglio, B. Natarajan, S. Isard and K.A. Garrett (2015): History, epidemic
 evolution, and model burn-in for a network of annual invasion: Soybean rust. Phytopathology
 105 (7):947-955.
- 525 52. Sutrave, S., C. Scoglio, S.A. Isard, J.M.S. Hutchinson and K.A. Garrett (2012): Identifying
 highly connected counties compensates for resource limitations when evaluating national
 spread of an invasive pathogen. PLoS ONE 7 (6):e37793.
- 53. Tallis, H. and S. Polasky, 2011. How much information do managers need? The sensitivity of
 ecosystem service decisions to model complexity. In: P. Kareiva, H. Tallis, T.H. RIcketts,
 G.C. Daily and S. Polasky (Editors), Natural Capital: Theory and PRactice of Mapping
 Ecosystem Services. Oxford University Press, Oxford, UK, pp. 264-277.
- 532 54. Tappenden, P., J.B. Chilcott, S. Eggington, J. Oakley and C. McCabe (2004): Methods for
 533 expected value of information analysis in complex health economic models: developments
 534 on the health economics of interferon-beta and glatiramer acetate for multiple sclerosis.
 535 Health Technol. Assess. 8 (27):1-+.
- 55. Thomas-Sharma, S., A. Abdurahman, S. Ali, J. Andrade-Piedra, S. Bao, A. Charkowski, D.
 Crook, M. Kadian, P. Kromann, P. Struik, L. Torrance, K.A. Garrett and G.A. Forbes (2016):
 Seed degeneration in potato: the need for an integrated seed health strategy to mitigate the
 problem in developing countries. Plant Pathology 65 (1):3-16.
- 540 56. Thomas-Sharma, S., J. Andrade-Piedra, M. Carvajal Yepes, J. Hernandez Nopsa, M. Jeger,
 541 R. Jones, P. Kromann, J. Legg, J. Yuen, G. Forbes and K.A. Garrett (2017): A risk
 542 assessment framework for seed degeneration: Informing an integrated seed health strategy
 543 for vegetatively-propagated crops. Phytopathology 107:1123-1135.
- 544 57. Wiles, L.J. (2004): Economics of weed management: Principles and practices. Weed 545 Technol. 18:1403-1407.
- 546 58. Williams, B.K., M.J. Eaton and D.R. Breininger (2011): Adaptive resource management and
 547 the value of information. Ecol. Model. 222 (18):3429-3436.
- 548 59. Xing, Y., J. Hernandez Nopsa, J. Andrade-Piedra, F. Beed, G. Blomme, M. Carvajal Yepes,
 549 D. Coyne, G. Forbes, J. Kreuze, J. Kroschel, L. Kumar, J. Legg, M. Parker, E. Schulte-
- 550 Geldermann and K.A. Garrett (2017): Global cropland connectivity: A risk factor for
- invasion and saturation by emerging pathogens and pests.
- 552 bioRxiv:<u>https://doi.org/10.1101/106542</u>.
- 553
- 554
- 555