

1 Current Problems and Future Directions in Computational Science for
2 Natural Resource Management

3

4 Michael M. Fuller^{1*}, Dali Wang^{1,2}, Louis J. Gross^{1,3}, and Michael W. Berry²

5

6 * Corresponding Author:

7 Phone: (865) 974-4894

8 EMAIL: mmfuller@tiem.utk.edu

9

10 ¹ Institute for Environmental Modeling

11 Department of Ecology & Evolutionary Biology

12 569 Dabney Hall, 1416 Circle Drive

13 University of Tennessee

14 Knoxville, Tennessee 37996-1610

15

16 ² Department of Computer Science

17 203 Claxton Complex

18 University of Tennessee

19 Knoxville, Tennessee 37996-3450

20

21 ³Department of Mathematics

22 121 Ayres Hall

23 University of Tennessee

24 Knoxville, Tennessee 37996-1300

25

1 ABSTRACT

2 Natural resource managers must cope with a host of complex problems ranging from routine tasks
3 to urgent problems such as the control of wildfires, emerging wildlife diseases, and non-native species.
4 Recent advances in miniaturization, computing power, remote sensing, and modeling are revolutionizing
5 the science of natural resource management. But these advances also bring many challenges. The need for
6 information management and communication, dynamic models, and real-time monitoring places
7 increasing demands on legacy data structures and over-burdened networking infrastructures. To meet
8 these demands, natural resource managers require access to high-performance computing tools and
9 improvements in data storage, communication, and analysis. Computer scientists are needed who can
10 collaborate with natural resource managers and modelers to develop novel solutions. Here, we highlight
11 several key problems in resource management that represent exciting opportunities for computer scientists
12 and engineers in search of challenging practical problems.

13

14 INTRODUCTION

15 Natural resource managers are faced with the difficult task of balancing the needs of complex,
16 dynamic ecological systems with the competing demands of social, political, and commercial
17 stakeholders. Natural resources include wildlife and habitats that provide significant recreational (e.g.
18 hiking, fishing, hunting), economic (e.g. timber harvesting, gene mining), aesthetic (e.g. scenic
19 landscapes) or functional (nutrient retention, flood control) value. The ecological and environmental
20 processes that govern functioning ecosystems are difficult to manage because they involve multiple
21 components that operate over broadly disparate temporal and spatial scales. To manage the components
22 of natural reserves, biologists have traditionally relied on “rule of thumb” strategies based largely on what
23 has worked in the past. This data-driven approach has largely been replaced by model-driven strategies,
24 which attempt to forecast system behavior under alternative management scenarios. Such models are
25 frequently wedded to emerging technologies for data collection and monitoring, such as real-time remote
26 sensing and GPS. But while these advances greatly improve the temporal and spatial resolution of

1 ecological information, they also generate large volumes of data. This flood of information increases the
2 demand for efficient approaches to data analysis, storage, and communication. At the same time, the
3 evolution of approaches based on disparate technologies and computing platforms complicates the sharing
4 and integration of data from different sources.

5 As resource managers struggle to cope with these challenges, they have turned to computational
6 science for solutions. The rapid advance of software and architectures designed to exploit improvements
7 in networking, interoperability, and data management have revolutionized natural resource management.
8 The changes to natural resource management in many ways mirrors that of molecular biology, whose
9 dependence on high-performance computing is well known. For example, models of biochemical
10 networks have been expressed as stochastic Petri nets (SPNs), a mathematical formalism developed in
11 computer science¹. Another example is the use of high-performance algorithms to improve the
12 computationally intense sequence comparisons used in molecular phylogenetics². As a consequence of
13 computerization, management programs have rapidly grown in size, complexity, and computational
14 power. Modern resource management depends more and more on computational support such as
15 Geographic Information Systems (GIS) for interactive computational steering^{3,4}, high performance
16 computing for integrated system modeling⁵ as well as geographically distributed grid computing
17 technologies such as GLOBUS (www.globus.org), Netsolve (icl.cs.utk.edu/netsolve) and Internet
18 Backplane Protocol (<http://loci.cs.utk.edu/ibp/index.php>). More recently, the National Science
19 Foundation's cyber-infrastructure initiative aims to promote next generation (grid-based) information
20 infrastructures to accelerate scientific discoveries. These advances have increased the speed and
21 sophistication of models, allowing managers to tackle large, complex problems that a few years ago
22 would have been unmanageable (see Figure 1 for an example). However, the field of resource
23 management has only scratched the surface of computational approaches.

24 While applied computer science has a strong tradition of collaboration with the engineering and
25 physical sciences, the lion's share of its involvement with applied biology is limited to solving the data

1 management and analysis problems of molecular biologists. For example, computer scientists are actively
2 engaged in improving techniques for managing the large amounts of data produced by the high-
3 throughput sequencing technologies used in the field of genomics. Natural resource management is
4 currently undergoing a rapid transformation to highly computerized environments, similar to that
5 experienced by molecular biology in the past decade. As a consequence, there is great need for
6 collaboration between CS professionals and natural resource managers. In the following series of sidebars,
7 we highlight several key problems, current approaches, and possible future solutions that computational
8 science may afford.

9 The challenges faced by natural resource managers can be loosely classified into three areas: Data
10 Management/Communication, Data Analysis, and Optimization and Control. Each of these areas contains
11 a diversity of problems, many of which are of great economic, social, and political importance. However,
12 a particular problem may involve all three areas. For example, solutions to the control of exotic species
13 depend on information about the occurrence and spread of organisms (Data
14 Management/Communication), understanding spatial and temporal patterns of invasion (Data Analysis)
15 and developing strategies to manage populations of exotic species (Optimization and Control).

16 Technological advances and computerization create the need for the efficient data
17 management. Satellite imagery, GPS, remote sensing, and GIS generate vast amounts of environmental
18 information that must be processed, analyzed and stored. Spatially-explicit or geo-referenced data are
19 particularly information dense, with each point on a map (or 3-dimensional volume) representing a data
20 vector that can include environmental, ecological, and geographic information. The sheer volume of
21 digital data creates challenges for organization, storage, and retrieval. Ecoinformatics (see sidebar) is the
22 use of computational methods to manage and study ecological data⁶. Herein lies many opportunities for
23 computer scientists and engineers skilled in data search and archiving approaches and in building the
24 software and protocols needed for data management.

25 There is also a need for improved search and storage algorithms. For example, spatial data vectors

1 are not easily represented as points in space. Object-oriented approaches to data representation are an
2 obvious solution but need not be restricted to traditional hierarchical strategies. Spatial data matrices are
3 often sparse and characterized by complex distribution patterns. Indexing strategies that account for the
4 structural aspects of data manifolds, such as R-trees and geometric optimization algorithms, hold promise
5 here⁷. Resource managers would also benefit from improvements in file compression and software
6 capable of analyzing terabyte-size data files. Current storage approaches used for GIS, vector, and raster
7 data are not necessarily the most efficient or most accessible.

8

9 **GIS-Enabled Dynamic System Modeling**

10 Most natural resource issues have a significant spatial component, such as the distribution of land
11 use in a watershed, the proximity of human populations to a reserve, or the degree of habitat
12 fragmentation in an ecosystem. Because of this, GIS technology is used extensively to visualize, analyze,
13 and model natural resource data for management and problem solving⁸. However, the integration of GIS
14 with dynamic models is not an easy task because of the burden of specialized data formats and
15 management tools used to process georeferenced data. GIS was originally designed to expedite the
16 processing of spatial objects on a digital map. Therefore, compound data formats were created to store
17 geographic information for rapid indexing, georeferencing, and visualization. Also in order to
18 conveniently deal with user input, event based programming (using visual programming language such as
19 Visual Basic) is generally preferred. This in turn brings additional overhead to a GIS system. Good
20 examples are the products of Environmental Systems Research Institute (ESRI; www.esri.com/), which
21 are developed using component-based building-blocks called ArcObjects.

22 The lack of a light-weight data format for modeling and performance tuning is another obstacle to
23 incorporating GIS into dynamic models. Dynamic modeling frequently has a strong temporal component
24 and is computationally intensive. Because GIS data formats and management tools are not designed for
25 dynamic modeling, a convenient and feasible approach is to design a custom data format to extract and

1 store only specific information. There is a growing trend to provide online user services, such as the web-
2 based user interaction tools provided by ArcIMS. In these environments a light-weight data format is also
3 desirable to mitigate the performance bottleneck associated with web-based services and geo-referenced
4 data formats. However, it is not practical to require major GIS vendors to provide customized data
5 formats for natural resource management problems. Figure 2 illustrates a software architecture for GIS-
6 enabled dynamic modeling.

7

8 **High performance computing for integrated system modeling and spatial control:**

9 To better understand the behavior of natural systems, resource biologists use models to simulate the
10 processes that control ecological systems on different spatial and temporal scales. Resource managers use
11 the output of these dynamic models to project the behavior of natural systems for planning purposes.
12 Because modern computer hardware designs exploit the performance gains associated with parallelism,
13 the software used in modeling should also embrace parallel data structures. Component-based
14 architectures are a natural choice for modeling complex systems on high performance computational
15 platforms. However, there is a common misunderstanding that “master-slave” models can support
16 “embarrassingly” parallel computing in many resource management applications, such as statistical
17 analysis and uncertainty analysis. This statement is only valid for small-scale simulations. Today’s mid-
18 sized cluster usually has over 100 processors and is capable of executing hundreds of concurrent
19 simulations. For this reason the simple master-slave model is no longer the preferred approach for such
20 analyses. A hierarchical computational model and dedicated coupling component are needed to ensure
21 high performance and scalability of integrated system simulations. This is especially true for applications
22 running on high-end computers, which generally have thousands of processors. Moreover, as simulations
23 become larger and longer users must cope with additional software design issues such as recovery-
24 oriented computing (<http://roc.cs.berkeley.edu/>) and fault-tolerant computing (<http://www.crhc.uiuc.edu/>).

25 Spatial control is another application that demands high performance computing (Figure 2, 3).

26 Spatial control refers to the field of mathematics concerned with regulating the behavior of complex,

1 spatially explicit systems⁹. Resource managers use the techniques of spatial control to develop
2 management strategies for controlling such problems as wildfires (Figure 2), invasive species, and
3 wildlife diseases such as rabies (Figure 3). Alternative control strategies are first implemented in models
4 to test their effectiveness prior to use in the field. From a software design aspect, spatial control can be
5 developed as an independent component on top of integrated system models (Figure 1).

6

7 **Grid Computing and Cyber-Infrastructure**

8 Grid computing¹⁰ provides researchers with access to geographically distributed high-performance
9 computers and scientific software packages (Figure 4). The main thrust of grid computing focuses on the
10 accessibility and security of the grid infrastructure and the general structure of grid-based applications¹¹.
11 However, the cyber-infrastructure for natural resource management must focus on the development of
12 customized services to support the entire life-cycle of scientific discovery, ranging from real-time data
13 collection (via sensor networks, satellite images, GPS, etc.; Figure 2), to data transmission, archival, and
14 storage (Figure 4) as well as the dynamic models used as decision support tools for adaptive management
15 (Figure 3). Currently a few cyber-infrastructure applications exist for cross-disciplinary scientific
16 research, such as the TeraGrid Project (www.teragrid.org) and the EPIC project (www.eotepic.org). From
17 the computer science perspective, two major components of cyber-infrastructure are required before
18 resource managers can take full advantage of distributed (high performance) resources. First, an *n*-tier
19 software architecture is needed to expedite the flow of data across a diverse set of services including
20 interactive graphic user interfaces (i.e. event-driven visual programming), metadata (i.e. relational
21 databases), and dynamic system multi-modeling, as well as non-interactive, fault-tolerant high
22 performance backend computation. The architecture should also provide convenient methods to
23 implement data flows through both a logical view (management) and a technical view (software). Second,
24 a system for “management intelligence” is needed that consolidates observation/field data and modeling
25 results, enables reporting and projecting the fundamental behaviors of natural resource system, and

1 analyzes data to find optimal solutions to management problems (Figure 2). A successful cyber-
2 infrastructure should provide several predefined service modules, which can either be used by natural
3 resource managers without any adjustment or serve as a template for client-specific problems.

4

5 **Conclusions and future challenges:**

6 Recent collaborations between computer scientists and natural resource managers have led to
7 significant progress in overcoming the obstacles we have discussed. Yet such pioneering work is only the
8 beginning and numerous challenges remain. Among these are issues arising in many fields dealing with 1)
9 multi-scale or hybrid modeling; 2) tying realistic decisions to the diverse, large data sets that arise from
10 advances in sensor technology; 3) developing the potential for real-time responses to rapidly emerging
11 issues such as disease management; 4) providing usable results at the desktop while utilizing high
12 performance computational resources; and 5) using models to develop effective and efficient monitoring
13 programs. We summarize here some of these future challenges with the objective of encouraging
14 computational scientists to consider applying their expertise to find solutions.

15 A host of problems faced by resource managers involve multiple processes that operate over
16 vastly different spatial and temporal scales. To integrate their approach to solving such complex problems,
17 resource managers adopt a two-tiered policy, in which management actions are divided into tactical and
18 strategic components. For example, Everglades management requires decisions about short-term, day to
19 day control of water flows while considering strategic decisions about building and removing control
20 structures that would occur over several decades¹². Computational tools which foster the linkages
21 between such two-tiered approaches to management are essentially non-existent. Options for the
22 simultaneous consideration of these multi-scale management issues, that account for constraints imposed
23 by decisions at one scale on another, could feasibly be addressed in a parallel computational framework.
24 Bringing this to managers would require appropriate software that generalizes specific land management
25 problems that recur around the world.

1 With advances in sensor technology, access to real-time environmental data is becoming more
2 common (Figures 1, 2). Emerging diseases of wildlife that impact humans, such as avian flu, are just one
3 area in which rapid assessment management options can be critical¹³. But the efficiency and speed with
4 which models can be combined with highly dispersed data sets depends on access to appropriate
5 computational tools. The GIS-enabled management decision support tools described earlier (Figure 2)
6 would provide the capability for rapid responses, in a spatial context, to quarantine, vaccination, and
7 culling strategies for these situations. As some of these situations have global implications and involve
8 global networks of scientists and managers, these decision support tools would ideally be available for
9 large numbers of distant collaborators, requiring a grid computing infrastructure to manage such
10 collaborations (Figure 4). Similar issues arise in regional plans which have local management
11 implications. One example is water management in much of the western US in which regulatory decisions,
12 typically derived in part from extensive legal negotiations, put direct constraints on local water use and
13 development opportunities¹².

14 Model selection is a major challenge for resource managers. As data sets are generally sparse, (i.e.
15 having many missing or zero values), they present a variety of patterns to which models might be
16 compared. What's more, decisions based on these models may be subject to legal scrutiny motivated by
17 the often conflicting views of the different stakeholders affected. Modern computational tools offer great
18 promise as an aid to model selection, but have yet to be employed in more than a few cases.
19 Lifemapper.org provides one example in which distributed resources were mobilized to compare large
20 numbers of possible environmental variables with species presence/absence data. Here, GARP¹⁴ (genetic
21 algorithm regression procedure) is used to choose an appropriate component of biodiversity measurement.
22 Recent arguments for the use of pattern-oriented approaches in ecology¹⁵ indicate a need for general
23 model selection tools for diverse types of spatial models, ranging from those built within a GIS to agent-
24 based models. Such computational tools are needed to confront alternative models with data and to

1 choose appropriate parameters for these models from limited data, for example by applying optimization
2 approaches (see Optimal Control sidebar).

3 The spatial control issues mentioned above are not as yet coupled with adaptive management
4 methods. In adaptive management, models are used as an inherent part of the management framework to
5 reduce uncertainty about system responses. The objective is to limit the enormous control space to one
6 that is feasibly analyzed by a combination of grid and desktop tools. Another objective of spatial control
7 is to guide the development and use of spatial monitoring systems (Figure 3). An example is using models
8 to find optimal strategies for allocating limited funds and management resources (see Fire Management
9 sidebar) while maintaining the capacity to respond to emerging issues such as disease outbreaks¹⁶ (Figure
10 3).

11

12 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

13 The US National Science Foundation supported this research through Awards DMS-0110920, DEB-
14 0219269, and IIS-0427471 to the University of Tennessee.

1 **SIDEBARS**

2

3 **OPTIMAL CONTROL**

4 Resource managers are perennially faced with limited manpower, funds, equipment, and supplies
5 that must be distributed among a laundry list of daily tasks. Optimal control approaches combine
6 mathematics, biology, and economics to identify the best strategy for a given goal and set of
7 constraints^{9,17}. Figure 2 shows the application of optimal control to fire management, while Figure 3
8 shows a disease control application. Workloads for many tasks, such as harvesting and erosion control,
9 may be periodic or seasonal. But workload scheduling must also accommodate unplanned demands on
10 time, supplies and manpower such as catastrophic fires, floods, and the arrival of new exotic species or
11 disease. Traditional approaches to managing such tasks are data-driven and goal oriented, though often
12 goals are vague or ill-defined. Optimal control models attempt to find the most efficient control strategy
13 for allocating limited management resources, given constraints on time or effort. However, few software
14 tools are available for implementing optimal control approaches. There is a particular need for spatially
15 explicit models that can examine the influence of processes that operate in 2 and 3 dimensions. For
16 example, work is needed on models based on Pontryagin's optimal control theory (Sethi and Thompson
17 2000) which may consider space as continuous (e.g. with dynamics described by partial differential
18 equations) or discrete (e.g. using difference equations). Spatial explicitness adds a computational burden
19 to models (Figure 2) and such models would benefit from parallelization, high-performance computing,
20 and the development of lightweight data formats.

21

22 **FIRE MANAGEMENT**

23 Fire management is a complex problem that involves forecasting fire frequency and magnitude as
24 well as seasonal demands for equipment, fire crews and the aircraft used to spot and fight fires in rugged
25 terrain¹⁸. Resource managers must coordinate fire monitoring and control with municipal and regional

1 fire management agencies. Often multiple organizations must share fire-fighting resources such as water
2 trucks, aircraft, and work crews. An important problem in fire management is therefore how to optimally
3 manage limited resources. As an aid to forecasting, resource managers use spatially explicit models that
4 replicate vegetation dynamics and other processes that govern fire outbreak and spread (Figure 2). Such
5 models allow researchers to test the effects of different variables, such as the age and density of stands,
6 topography, vegetation type, and short and long-term weather conditions. The goal is to improve the
7 accuracy of fire forecasts and to develop effective control strategies. To this end applied ecologists have
8 used linear and non-linear programming to identify optimal solutions. Yet, the complexity of models is
9 increasing as technological advances, such as satellite imagery, increase the scale and resolution of spatio-
10 temporal data. These improvements create greater demands for efficient modeling and processing. Here
11 we see opportunities for computer scientists skilled in parallelization and concurrency in computation.

12

13 DISEASE AND INVASIVE SPECIES

14 Resource managers consider the control of disease and invasive species a top priority^{19,20}. The
15 global transportation network for people and commercial goods permits the rapid movement of organisms
16 around the world. International commerce facilitates the intentional and unintentional introduction of
17 exotic species, which may become local pests. Under the right conditions, exotics can become invasive to
18 the point of threatening local and regional resources. For example, the woolly adelgid, an aphid-like insect
19 pest native to Asia, is causing extensive damage to native hemlock forests in the southeastern US²¹.
20 Exotic species can also introduce disease pathogens. Imported Asian chestnut trees brought the chestnut
21 blight fungus to North America, which then devastated the American chestnut tree. There are many
22 opportunities for computer scientists to improve the management of exotic species. Resource managers
23 need tools for cataloging, tracking, and monitoring existing problem species. These tasks are complicated
24 by the need for communication and data sharing among the many local, regional, and national agencies
25 and organizations that deal with exotics, such as the US Fish and Wildlife Service (www.fws.gov). In

1 addition, resource managers desperately need information on how to effectively control invasive species
 2 without endangering populations of native species. There is a great need here for high-performance
 3 solutions. For example, goal oriented computational approaches that search for optimal or extremal
 4 solutions, while useful, have yet to fully exploit the benefits of parallelization (Figure 3). Examples
 5 include numerical optimization (e.g. linear and nonlinear programming) and evolutionary computation
 6 that involves guided random search and parallel processing.

7

8 ECO-INFORMATICS

9 Advances in embedded computer technology and remote sensing have greatly expanded our ability
 10 to collect environmental data. Ecoinformatics requires the development of computational methods for
 11 studying the structure, function, and evolution of species, communities, and ecosystems. Ecoinformatics
 12 also requires the development of methods for managing large amounts of environmental data. The
 13 National Science Foundation supports several research groups (Table 1) who are developing data
 14 management solutions. Generally the goal of these groups is to establish networking infrastructures that
 15 integrate data acquisition, storage, and analysis. Other goals include advancing sensor and embedded
 16 computer technology and improving access to remotely sensed data. For example, CLEANER is
 17 investigating the use of networks of autonomous underwater vehicles for data collection. Related
 18 technologies include integrated sensor microsystems, pervasive computing, and wireless communication.

19

20

21 TABLE 1: NSF Funded Collaborations in Ecoinformatics

Organization	URL
Collaborative Large-scale Engineering Analysis Network for Environmental Research	cleaner.ce.berkeley.edu
Consortium of Universities for the Advancement of Hydrologic Science	www.cuahsi.org
National Ecological Observatory Network	www.neoninc.org

Ocean Observatories Initiative	www.orionprogram.org
Science Environment for Ecological Knowledge	seek.ecoinformatics.org

1

1 REFERENCES

- 2 1. Goss, P.J.E. and J. Peccoud. "Quantitative Modeling Of Stochastic Systems In Molecular Biology By
3 Using Stochastic Petri Nets," *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* vol. 95, no. 12, 1998, pp.
4 6750-6755.
- 5
- 6 2. Moret, B.M.E., D.A. Bader, T. Warnow. "High-Performance Algorithm Engineering for Computational
7 Phylogenetics," *The Journal of Supercomputing* vol. 22, no. 1, 2002, pp. 99-111.
- 8
- 9 3. Wang, D., M.W. Berry, E.A. Carr, M. Palmer, L.J. Gross. "A Grid Service Module for Natural
10 Resource Managers," *IEEE Internet Computing*, vol. 9, no. 1, pp. 20-26, Jan/Feb 2005.
- 11
- 12 4. Wang, D., E.A. Carr, L.J. Gross, M.W. Berry. "Toward Ecosystem Modeling on
13 Computing Grids," *IEEE Computing in Science and Engineering*, vol. 13, no. 1, 2005, pp. 55-76.
- 14
- 15 5. Wang, D., M.W. Berry, N. Buchanan, L.J. Gross. "A GIS-enabled Distributed Simulation Framework
16 for High Performance Ecosystem Modeling," *ESRI International User Conference*, June 1-5, 2006, San
17 Diego, California (in press).
- 18
- 19 6. Kareiva P. "Ecoinformatics: Facilitating Access To Existing Data Sets," *Trends in Ecology and*
20 *Evolution* vol. 16, no. 5, 2001, pp. 226-226.
- 21
- 22 7. Kamel, I. and Faloutsos, C. "Parallel R-trees," in *Proceedings of the 1992 ACM SIGMOD International*
23 *Conference on Management of Data* (San Diego, California, United States, June 02 - 05, 1992). M.
24 Stonebraker, (ed.), SIGMOD '92. ACM Press, New York, NY, 1992, pp. 195-204.
- 25
- 26 8. Armstrong, M.P., M.K. Cowles, S. Wang. "Using a Computational Grid for Geographic Information

- 1 Analysis: A Reconnaissance,” *The Professional Geographer* vol. 57, no. 3, 2005. pp.365-375.
- 2
- 3 9. Hoff, J.G. and M. Bevers. *Spatial Optimization For Managed Ecosystems*, Columbia University Press,
- 4 New York, NY, 1998.
- 5
- 6 10. Foster, I. and C. Kesselman (eds.), *The Grid: Blueprint for a New Computing Infrastructure*, Morgan
- 7 Kaufmann Publishers, San Francisco, California, 1998.
- 8
- 9 11. Berman, F., G. Fox, A.J.G. Hey (eds.). *Grid Computing: Making The Global Infrastructure a Reality*,
- 10 John Wiley & Sons, Chichester, England, 2003.
- 11
- 12 12. Army Corps of Engineers and South Florida Water Management District. *Central and Southern*
- 13 *Florida Project Comprehensive Review Study, Final Integrated Feasibility Report and Programmatic*
- 14 *Environmental Impact Statement*, U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, Jacksonville District, Jacksonville, FL,
- 15 1999.
- 16
- 17 13. Keeling, M.J., M.E.J. Woolhouse, R.M. May, G. Davies, B.T. Grenfell. “Modelling Vaccination
- 18 Strategies Against Foot-And-Mouth Disease,” *Nature* vol. 421, no. 6919, 2003, pp. 136-142.
- 19
- 20 14. Stockwell, D. “The Garp Modelling System: Problems And Solutions To Automated Spatial
- 21 Prediction,” *International Journal of Geographical Information Science* vol. 13, no. 2, 1999, pp. 143-158.
- 22
- 23 15. Grimm, V., E. Revilla, U. Berger, F. Jeltsch, W.M. Mooij, S.F. Railsback, H.H. Thulke, J. Weiner, T.
- 24 Wiegand, and D.L. DeAngelis. “Pattern-Oriented Modeling of Agent-Based Complex Systems: Lessons
- 25 from Ecology,” *Science* vol. 310, no. 5750, 2005, pp. 987-991.
- 26

- 1 16. DeAngelis, D.L., L.J. Gross, E.L. Comiskey, W.M. Mooij, M.P. Nott, and S. Bellmund. “The Use Of
2 Models For A Multiscaled Ecological Monitoring System,” pp. 167-188 in Busch D.E. and J.C. Trexler
3 (eds) *Monitoring Ecosystems: Interdisciplinary Approaches for Evaluating Ecoregional Initiatives*, Island
4 Press, Washington, DC, 2003.
5
- 6 17. Sethi, S.P. and G.L. Thompson. *Optimal Control Theory: Application to Mangement Science and*
7 *Economics*, Kulwer Academic Publishers, Norwell, Massachusetts, 2000.
8
- 9 18. Pyne, S.J. *Introduction To Wildland Fire: Fire Management In The United States*, John Wiley and
10 Sons, New York, NY, 1984.
11
- 12 19. Daszak , P., A.A. Cunningham, and A.D. Hyatt. “Emerging Infectious Diseases of Wildlife- Threats
13 to Biodiversity and Human Health,” *Science*, vol. 287, no. 5452, 2000, pp. 443 – 449.
14
- 15 20. Myers, J.H., D. Simberloff, A.M. Kuris, and J.R. Carey. “Eradication Revisited: Dealing With Exotic
16 Species,” *Trends in Ecology and Evolution* vol. 15, no. 8, 2000, pp. 316-320.
17
- 18 21. Orwig, D.A., D.R. Foster, and D.L. Mausel. 2002. “Landscape Patterns Of Hemlock Decline In New
19 England Due To The Introduced Hemlock Woolly Adelgid,” *Journal of Biogeography*, vol. 29, no. 10-11,
20 2002, pp. 1475-1487.
21
- 22 22. Russell C.A., D.L. Smith, J.E. Childs, and L.A. Real. “Predictive Spatial Dynamics And Strategic
23 Planning For Raccoon Rabies Emergence In Ohio,” *Public Library of Science, Biology* vol. 3, no. 3, 2005,
24 pp. e88.

1 FIGURE CAPTIONS

2 **Figure 1: A component-based architecture for integrated system modeling with spatial control.**

3 Spatial control can be implemented on top of integrated system modeling. Here, a job scheduler allocates
4 computing resources for a multi-component fire model. Different optimal control schemes can be
5 implemented via changes to job scheduling and executed by corresponding simulation drivers. The job
6 scheduler also interacts with a computational steering console, through which managers can “manually”
7 chose an optimal scenario and enforce the underlying simulation to take a specific path.

8

9 **Figure 2: A software architecture for GIS-enabled dynamic modeling.**

10 GIS provides convenient interactive methods for visualizing data and preparing reports. GIS generally
11 rely on compound data formats to represent and manipulate data. Such compound formats create a burden
12 for dynamic models that are computationally intensive. Therefore, a *data extraction/conversion toolkit* is
13 often necessary to 1) transform native data into proprietary formats for geoprocessing or visualization,
14 and 2) exchange data between the GIS and a dynamic modeling package. This example shows how
15 multiple georeferenced data layers can be converted for use in models using different frameworks. The
16 use of a data extraction/conversion toolkit frees the modeler to use standard programming languages
17 (such as C++/C/Fortran) for dynamic modeling and high level languages (such as script languages) for
18 GIS related programming. It also facilitates the use of high performance computing resources which
19 otherwise would be unavailable within a traditional GIS.

20

21 **Figure 3. Optimal control of disease: Rabies in Ohio.**

22 The spread of rabies is an significant public health issue. In the Midwestern US, raccoons are an
23 important carrier of rabies, which spreads from an infected animal (depicted by the raccoon marked with
24 the letter ‘I’) to susceptible uninfected individuals (‘S’ raccoons in figure) by direct contact²². To control
25 the spread of rabies into Ohio from Pennsylvania and West Virginia, resource managers release small

1 food packets that contain an oral vaccine. Uninfected raccoons that eat the vaccine become immune to
2 the disease. By dropping the packets from an airplane ahead of the advancing disease front, managers
3 hope to slow its rate of spread. Vaccination success is determined via monitoring the raccoon population
4 near the wave front. Such efforts are constrained by limits on funding, manpower, and other resources and
5 researchers are now investigating the use of optimal control models to determine the most effective
6 strategy.

7

8 **Figure 4: A simplified cyber-infrastructure for natural resource management.**

9 Grid-based services enable real-time data collection and storage and the use of dynamic modeling to
10 facilitate decision support for adaptive resource management. As shown, the cyberinfrastructure
11 facilitates the sharing of data and computing resources such as processing power and storage. Data and
12 associated services are the fundamentals that allow natural resource managers to deliver reader-friendly
13 multidimensional reports. Web portals and graphic user interfaces allow users to interact with such
14 reports using the Internet.

15