

OPINION PAPER

Cross-fertilizing weed science and plant invasion science to improve efficient management: a European challenge

Müller-Schärer H^{a,*}, Sun Y^a, Chauvel B^b, Karrer G^c, Kazinczi G^d, Kudsk P^e, Oude Lansink AGJM^f, Schaffner U^g, Skjoth CA^h, Smith Mⁱ, Vurro M^j, de Weger LA^k and Lommen STE^a.

^aDepartment of Biology, University of Fribourg, Fribourg, Switzerland;

^bINRA, Agroécologie, Dijon, France;

^cInstitute of Botany, University of Natural Resources and Life Sciences Vienna, Vienna, Austria;

^dInstitute of Plant Science, Kaposvár University, Kaposvár, Hungary;

^eDepartment of Agroecology, Aarhus University, Slagelse, Denmark;

^fBusiness Economics group, Wageningen University and Research, Wageningen, Netherlands;

^gCAB International, Delémont, Switzerland;

^hUniversity of Worcester, National Pollen and Aerobiology Research Unit, Institute of Science and the Environment, Worcester, United Kingdom;

ⁱUniversity of Worcester, Institute of Science and the Environment, Worcester, United Kingdom;

^jInstitute of Sciences of Food Production, National Research Council, Bari, Italy;

^kDepartment of Pulmonology, Leiden University Medical Center, Leiden, Netherlands;

*Corresponding author: Tel.: +41 (0)26 300 88 35; fax: +41 (0)26 300 88 35.

E-mail address: heinz.mueller@unifr.ch

Département de Biologie, chemin du Musée 10, CH-1700 Fribourg, Suisse

Abstract

Both weed science and plant invasion science deal with noxious plants. Yet, they have historically developed as two distinct research areas in Europe, with different target species, approaches and management aims, as well as with diverging institutions and researchers involved. We argue that the strengths of these two disciplines can be highly complementary in implementing management strategies and outline how synergies were created in an international, multidisciplinary project to develop efficient and sustainable management of common ragweed, *Ambrosia artemisiifolia*. Because this species has severe impacts on human health and is also a crop weed in large parts of Europe, common ragweed is one of the economically most important plant invaders in Europe. Our multidisciplinary approach combining expertise from weed science and plant invasion science allowed us (i) to develop a comprehensive plant demographic model to evaluate and compare management tools, such as optimal cutting regimes and biological control for different regions and habitat types, and (ii) to assess benefits and risks of biological control. It further (iii) showed ways to reconcile different stakeholder interests and management objectives (health versus crop yield), and (iv) led to an economic model to assess invader impact across actors and domains, and effectiveness of control measures. (v) It also led to design and implement management strategies in collaboration with the various stakeholder groups affected by noxious weeds, created training opportunities for early stage researchers in the sustainable management of noxious plants, and

44 actively promoted improved decision making regarding the use of exotic biocontrol
45 agents at the national and European level. We critically discuss our achievements
46 and limitations, and list and discuss other potential Old World (Afro-Eurasian) target
47 species that could benefit from applying such an integrative approach, as typical
48 invasive alien plants are increasingly reported from crop fields and native crop
49 weeds are invading adjacent non-crop land, thereby forming new source populations
50 for further spread.

51

52 **Keywords:** integrated weed management, biological weed control, plant invasion,
53 *Ambrosia artemisiifolia*, interdisciplinary and international research cooperation

54

55 **Weed science vs. plant invasion science in Europe: different history and** 56 **different focus with regard to management**

57 Weed science has historically been most successful in providing efficient control of
58 weeds by keeping up with modernization in agricultural practices (e.g. precision
59 spraying and sophisticated machinery for mechanical weed control; Jordan, Schut,
60 Graham, Barney, Childs et al. 2016) and by establishing close relationships with the
61 private sector (Box 1). However, Fernandez-Quintanilla, Quadranti, Kudsk and
62 Barberi (2008) recognized some important failures of weed science in modern
63 European societies that resulted from the close ties to agriculture, such as soil and
64 water degradation, the increasing number of herbicide-resistant weeds and loss of
65 biodiversity (Box 1). Also, weed science has been exposed to the critique that
66 management practitioners, weed biologists and ecologists studying plant populations
67 work largely in isolation and that the failure to adopt an interdisciplinary approach
68 has left more fundamental aspects of weed biology unaddressed. (Ward, Cousens,
69 Bagavathiannan, Barney, Beckie et al. 2014; Wyse 1992). From a scientific point of
70 view, and with the exception of recent advances in agroecology (Hatcher & Froud-
71 Williams 2017; Jordan et al. 2016; and references therein), there have been so far
72 only modest efforts to address new issues such as global warming, invasive alien
73 species and client diversification (forestry, landscape management, urban, amenity
74 and industrial area maintenance, transportation; Follak & Essl 2013), or to use
75 agricultural weeds as model study systems to articulate and test novel hypotheses
76 that help advancing both weed management as well as ecological and evolutionary
77 theory (Ward et al. 2014). The inability to shift focus has contributed to the steady
78 decline of active weed scientists seen in most European countries over the past few
79 decades (Fernandez-Quintanilla et al. 2008). The increasing problem with the
80 evolution of herbicide-resistant weeds reveals the immediate need for developing
81 diversified weed management practices that reduce the reliance on herbicides
82 (Lamichhane, Dachbrodt-Saydeeh, Kudsk & Messean, 2016). This has generated a
83 renewed interest in weed management with a focus on integrated approaches and
84 on sustainable and long-term considerations (Hall, Van Eerd, Miller, Owen, Prather
85 et al. 2000; Young, Pitla, Van Evert, Schueller & Pierce 2017, cf also
86 www.iwmpraise.eu). In summary, weed science, the more applied discipline and the
87 one that institutionally is “in charge” of weed management in practice, has mainly
88 focused on herbicide-based weed management in Europe. While there is a (long)
89 history of European ecologically-based weed scientists, their influence on weed
90 management has remained rather marginal (Fernandez-Quintanilla, et a. 2008).

91 The younger field of invasion science, in contrast, has become a very active and
92 highly productive sub-discipline of ecology (Kueffer, Pyšek & Richardson 2013;

93 Richardson & Ricciardi 2013) and more recently also of evolutionary biology (Colautti
94 & Lau 2015). This is indicated by its extensive coverage in many highly cited journals
95 and dedicated sessions in leading conferences in ecology, conservation biology,
96 biogeography and evolution. Scientifically, biological invasions offer a unique
97 opportunity to study species interactions when conquering a new environment, often
98 by multiple introductions and replicated on different continents, which has yielded
99 insights into key concepts in biology (Callaway & Maron 2006; Jeschke, Gómez
100 Aparicio, Haider, Heger, Lortie et al. 2012; Richardson et al. 2013; Box 1). Invasion
101 science, with its dichotomous view of species based on origin (native vs. exotic
102 status as a predictor of context-dependent plant performance), is presently
103 plateauing off. It is partially merged back into experimental ecology and partially
104 subsumed into a new paradigm in the field of ecology, that is ecological novelty
105 dealing with community and global change ecology including the redistribution of
106 species throughout the world (Hobbs, Arico, Aronson, Baron, Bridgewater et al. 2006;
107 Kueffer 2015). The key societal interest in biological invasions remains the predicted
108 increase in impact on biodiversity, ecosystem services and human well-being,
109 causing huge socio-economic costs, and the imperatives to prevent and manage
110 these impacts. This is reflected by many new European research programs on
111 invasive alien species and in the newly established regulations on invasive alien
112 species by the European Commission DG Environment ([http://eur-
113 lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:32014R1143&from=FR](http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:32014R1143&from=FR)).
114 However, in contrast to the well-established national and regional institutional
115 settings to manage agricultural weeds and pests, there is still a need for developing
116 and implementing multi-stakeholder approaches to manage invasive alien species
117 on the ground, including systems for early detection of new invaders and rapid
118 response, and for long-term and sustainable management measures for widely
119 established invaders.

120 In this article, we argue that in Europe, cross-fertilization of the “old” and
121 experienced weed science with the “young” invasion science bears a great potential
122 to advance sustainable management of noxious plants. We illustrate this by outlining
123 and discussing key components of a recently accomplished international,
124 interdisciplinary network (EU-COST Action SMARTER; FA1203;
125 http://www.cost.eu/COST_Actions/fa/FA1203?parties) that aimed to develop efficient
126 and sustainable measures against common ragweed (*Ambrosia artemisiifolia*) in
127 Europe.

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129

130 **Crop weeds vs. invasive alien plants**

131

132 Traditionally, the focus of weed science has been on agricultural practices with
133 weeds being plants that constitute an important threat to crops (Fernandez-
134 Quintanilla et al. 2008; Hall et al. 2000; Jordan et al. 2016). Invasion science deals
135 with the causes and consequences of organisms introduced into areas outside their
136 native range, and in the case of plants, mostly on species that conquer semi-natural
137 and natural ecosystems (Kueffer et al. 2013). In this paper, we will focus on Europe
138 and use the term “weeds” for plants native to Europe and mainly harmful to
139 agricultural and horticultural crops, while we use “invasive alien plants” (IAP) for
140 species non-native to Europe and mainly imposing risks to natural or semi-natural
141 habitats. We understand that native weeds can also impose threats to conservation
142 areas (e.g. *Rubus* spp.), while several of the IAP can also be crop weeds (cf. e.g.

143 Follak, Schleicher, Schwarz & Essl 2017; Fried, Chauvel, Reynaud & Sache 2017;
144 Holzner & Glauningner 2005).

145 In Europe, weed science and plant invasion science have developed as two
146 distinct research areas, with different researchers from different institutions,
147 attending different symposia and publishing in different journals. To assess whether
148 this division can at least partly be explained by different target species and habitats,
149 we analyzed various noxious species lists by adding occurrence in crop and/or non-
150 crop habitats (crop vs. environmental weeds) and origin (native vs. alien to Europe)
151 for each species (Fig. 1). Indeed, only 26% of the 281 important crop weeds in
152 Europe (Weber & Gut 2005) are non-native to Europe (Fig. 1A). Only about one-
153 eighth of them are restricted to arable fields, and more than half of them spread also
154 to semi-natural habitat types (like *Amaranthus* spp., *Ambrosia* spp., *Erigeron* spp.).
155 In lists of IAP, less than 10% of the species are restricted to crop fields (Kumschick,
156 Bacher, Evans, Markova, Pergl et al. 2015; Lambdon, Pyšek, Basnou, Hejda,
157 Arianoutsou et al. 2008; Figs 1B, C). Van Kleunen, Dawson, Essl, Pergl, Winter et al.
158 (2015) listed 100 ornamental plants with high potential to escape to disturbed semi-
159 natural environments and become an environmental weed. Fifty-one of these were
160 non-European, and only half of all can also invade crop fields, but none are restricted
161 to crop fields (Fig. 1D). Finally, at the worldwide scale, almost none of the land plants
162 listed as top-100 IAP by the IUCN (Lowe, Browne, Boudjelas & De Poorter 2000)
163 have been mentioned as agricultural weeds.

164 Nevertheless, the two research fields are coming increasingly closer together. A
165 simple search in the Web of Science for the term “invasive plant” in the journal
166 “Weed Research” showed a steady increase in the relative number of publications
167 over the past three decades, and a similar increase for publications with the term
168 “weed” in “Biological Invasions” over the past two decades ($r^2 = 0.77$, $p < 0.0001$ and
169 $r^2 = 0.55$, $p = 0.0007$, respectively).

170 We acknowledge that the situation is quite different in the New World (Americas,
171 Australia, New Zealand), where many of the crop and grassland weeds, as well as
172 weeds of disturbed early successional habitats are of ‘Old-World’ origin, i.e. alien,
173 and given the extensive nature of parts of their agriculture, alien invasive weed
174 management became part of weed science. In the New World, environmental weed
175 management started with the enforcement of environmental legislation only in the
176 1980s, but still much earlier than in Europe, where the accumulated impact of
177 invasive alien species has been realized only since early 2000 (Hulme, Pyšek,
178 Nentwig & Vilà 2009). For this reason, weed and invasive plant management
179 developed much more as a joint venture in the New World, and ecologically-based
180 management, although still marginally applied, has been developed earlier (cf. e.g.
181 Cousens & Mortimer 1995; Inderjit 2010; Liebman, Mohler & Staver 2004;
182 Radosevich, Holt & Ghersa 1997). Nevertheless, we propose that our integrative
183 approach is widely applicable, which is supported by previous calls for greater
184 integration of weed science with other areas of biological research (Davis, Hall,
185 Jasieniuk, Locke, Luschei et al. 2009; Hatcher & Froud-Williams; 2017) and
186 successfully integrated approaches on handling invasive pests (e.g. Isard, Barnes,
187 Hambleton, Ariatti, Russo et al. 2011).

188

189 **Common ragweed, an ideal ‘bridge species’**

190

191 Here, we outline how we - in the framework of an interdisciplinary and international
192 research program - deliberately created synergies between weed science and

193 invasion science to develop sustainable management schemes against common
194 ragweed (ragweed in the following). Ragweed is one of the economically most
195 important plant invaders in Europe, this is the result of it having severe impacts on
196 human health and because it is also a crop weed. Moreover, it is increasingly
197 affecting biodiversity and nature conservation (Essl, Biró, Brandes, Broennimann,
198 Bullock et al. 2015; Pál 2004). The species grows in a wide range of habitat types
199 including crop fields, ruderal areas and grasslands and along rivers, roads and
200 railways, thus representing both early-successional as well as late-successional
201 habitats with open soil (such as dry grasslands, open sand and gravel banks, open
202 forests; cf. Essl et al. 2015 and references therein). Each plant can produce millions
203 of wind-dispersed pollen grains that elevate concentrations of pollen in the air near to
204 the source or remotely through transport in the air (de Weger, Pashley, Šikoparija,
205 Skjøth, Kasprzyk et al. 2016; Sommer, Smith, Sikoparija, Kasprzyk, Myszkowska et
206 al. 2015). Clinically relevant sensitization rates among the allergic population are
207 found throughout Europe and they are highest in countries where the plant is widely
208 distributed and abundant (e.g. Hungary; Heinzerling, Burbach, Edenharter, Bachert,
209 Bindslev-Jensen et al. 2009). Ragweed is predicted to further spread northeast in
210 Europe (Essl et al. 2015; Sun, Brönnimann, Roderick, Poltavsky, Lommen et al.
211 2017), and airborne ragweed pollen concentrations are forecast to increase about 4
212 times by 2050), with one third of the airborne pollen increase being due to on-going
213 seed dispersal, irrespective of climate change. The remaining two-thirds are related
214 to climate and land-use changes that will extend ragweed habitat suitability in
215 northern and eastern Europe (Hamaoui-Laguél, Vautard, Liu, Solmon et al. 2015).

216 While herbicide treatments and mechanical control have been developed and
217 implemented as short-term weed control measures in Europe, particularly in
218 agricultural settings (Buttenschøn, Waldispühl & Bohren 2008), these methods do
219 not provide sufficient control in the long term, as proven by the evolution of
220 herbicide-resistant populations (Délye, Meyer, Causse, Pernin & Chauvel 2015; Essl
221 et al. 2015). Moreover, their use is often not tailored to specifically control common
222 ragweed (e.g. mowing regimes along roadsides mainly serve traffic safety, and
223 herbicide applications in crop fields usually target the entire weed community), not
224 cost-effective for all habitat types, and/or limited to some habitat types due to their
225 associated environmental impact. Potential long-term control methods that remain to
226 be implemented in Europe are the establishment of a competitive vegetation
227 (Yannelli, Karrer, Hall, Kollmann & Heger 2018) and classical biological control, i.e.
228 the release of specialist natural enemies originating from the native range (Gerber,
229 Schaffner, Gassmann, Hinz, Seier et al. 2011).

230 Ragweed thus constitutes an ideal “bridge species” between weed and invasion
231 science by linking the management strategies and tools of the two sectors. For
232 assessing its overall impact and management success, and to develop an integrated
233 management approach, weed scientists and invasion biologists, but also experts
234 from other disciplines (public health, aerobiology, economics, etc.) have to combine
235 their efforts by forming a network for collaborations. It further requires the
236 involvement of a large spectrum of both public and private actors, ranging from
237 farmers to road and railway services, environmental advisory services, municipalities,
238 up to national and European authorities and organizations in health and agriculture.

239 We tackled this challenge in the framework of EU COST Action FA 1203 on the
240 “Sustainable Management of *Ambrosia artemisiifolia* in Europe” (in the following
241 “SMARTER”). We initiated and developed a multi-, inter- and trans-disciplinary
242 approach by interconnecting experts in weed management, plant distribution

243 monitoring, plant invasion biology, aerobiology, public health and economics and
244 establishing continuous exchange with stakeholders involved in *Ambrosia*
245 management. Box 1 summarizes the objectives and the structure of SMARTER. In
246 the following section, we outline six topics illustrating our approach to ragweed
247 management. In the final section, we briefly summarize our achievements, discuss
248 limitations and give examples of continuative interdisciplinary studies. We argue that
249 the SMARTER approach can also be applied to the management of other noxious
250 plants.

251

252 **Enabling synergies by inter-linking weed science with plant invasion** 253 **science, and by inter- and trans-disciplinary cooperation**

254

255 ***Population dynamics for the design and evaluation of management***

256

257 Modelling the demography of populations is increasingly demanded to guide policy
258 and management of biological invasions (Caplat, Coutts & Buckley 2012). For
259 instance, by projecting effects of experimentally tested management interventions,
260 population models can compare the longer-term population-level effects of
261 management interventions, and can reveal what timing, frequency and duration of
262 these interventions are most cost-effective in bringing down population sizes (e.g.
263 Zhang & Shea 2011). This requires an understanding of the variation in the
264 dynamics of invasive populations in space and time, especially in variable
265 environments (McDonald, Stott, Townley & Hodgson 2016), since analyses of
266 individual populations or years could misguide management (e.g. Evans, Davis,
267 Raghu, Ragavendran, Landis et al. 2012). Due to the international composition of
268 SMARTER, we were able to quantify the spatio-temporal variation in local
269 demographic processes of ragweed using over 50 naturalized and unmanaged
270 populations of ragweed across the European continent, covering different climates
271 and habitat types in 17 countries (please see comments on Appendix A: Fig. 1A).
272 The data are presently being used to construct climate- and habitat-dependent
273 demographic models allowing the comparison of management effects across many
274 environments. The first results indicate temporal variations in demographic
275 processes, and identify the most important environmental drivers of spatial variation
276 in reproductive output (i.e. weather and habitat types) (Lommen, Hallmann,
277 Jongejans, Chauvel, Leitsch-Vitalos et al. 2017). Our site-specific population models
278 of ragweed already revealed that the ragweed leaf beetle *Ophraella communa*
279 LeSage (see comments in Appendix A: Fig.1B) can significantly reduce the projected
280 population growth rates of ragweed in some years and places below the population
281 replacement level (S.T.E. Lommen, unpublished results). We also compared the
282 cost-efficiency of different mowing regimes for ragweed populations along roadsides
283 and in grasslands, and found that the optimal regime was consistently the same for
284 populations in different geographical locations and in different years (Lommen et al.,
285 2018; cf. below). Such a population dynamics approach may also be useful for
286 projections of effects of weed management on ragweed in crop fields by including
287 these in existing weed population models (e.g. Heard, Rothery, Perry & Firbank
288 2005; Shea 2004).

289

290 ***Biological control management***

291

292 Classical biological control of weeds constitutes the importation and release of
293 specialist natural enemies from the weed's native range to reduce its abundance in
294 the introduced range (Müller-Schärer & Schaffner 2008). Until recently, biological
295 control of weeds has mainly focused on IAP species invading semi-natural and
296 natural habitats (Müller-Schärer & Schaffner 2008). The emerging successes in
297 classical biological control of the annual weeds *Parthenium hysterophorus* (L.) in
298 Australia and *A. artemisiifolia* in both Australia and China, however, underline that
299 this control method can also be applied to annual IAP species that also cause
300 problems in crop fields (Sheppard, Shaw & Sforza 2006). Moreover, new biological
301 control solutions on the basis of inundative biological control using plant pathogens
302 naturally present in the environment or natural compounds with herbicidal activities
303 deserve to be reconsidered (Masi, Zonno, Cimmino, Revegilia, Berestetskiy et al.
304 2017). While the bioherbicide approach was originally more anchored in weed
305 science, the study of invasive plant-resident pathogen interactions has raised a lot of
306 interest in invasion ecology. In North America, some of these native fungal and
307 bacterial pathogens are currently tested for their suitability as bio-herbicides against
308 invasive species (e.g. Meyer, Beckstead & Pearce 2016).

309 SMARTER conducted host-specificity and impact studies with a set of candidates
310 for the classical (arthropods from the native range) and inundative biological control
311 (native bacteria, fungal pathogens and their metabolites) of ragweed for Europe.
312 Specifically, SMARTER responded quickly to the accidental introduction of the
313 ragweed leaf beetle *O. communa* in Europe (Müller-Schärer, Lommen, Rossinelli,
314 Bonini, Boriani et al. 2014), which is successfully used as a biological control agent
315 of ragweed in China (Sun et al. 2017; Sun, Zhou, Wang & Müller-Schärer 2018). Our
316 interdisciplinary team managed to assess both the potential benefits and risks of this
317 species (see Appendix A: Fig. 1B) (Bonini, Šikoparija, Prentović, Cislighi, Colombo
318 et al. 2015; Lommen, Jolidon, Sun, Eduardo & Müller-Schärer 2017; Mouttet,
319 Augustinus, Bonini, Chauvel, Desneux et al. 2018; Sun et al. 2017). Host specificity
320 studies carried out both under laboratory and open-field conditions so far indicate
321 that *O. communa* poses little risk to commercially grown sunflower and to native
322 endangered plant species (Müller-Schärer, Schaffner et al. 2016). Because it might
323 generate high economic benefits by reducing health costs in the regions heavily
324 invaded by common ragweed (cf. Mouttet et al. 2018), we propose that European
325 and national competent authorities should follow the example of France and conduct
326 pest risk assessments (ANSES 2015) that facilitate the decision process on how to
327 respond to the arrival of this biological control agent in Europe. Since the use of
328 classical biological control for the management of noxious plants is still in its infancy
329 in Europe, SMARTER also organized workshops to promote the integration and
330 harmonization of national and European-wide regulations dealing with biological
331 control (Shaw, Schaffner & Marchante 2016), together with the European and
332 Mediterranean Plant Protection Organization (EPPO), the International Organization
333 for Biological Control (IOBC) and other international and European stakeholders (e.g.
334 http://archives.eppo.int/MEETINGS/2015_conferences/biocontrol.htm).

335 336 **Spatial modelling**

337
338 Changes in climate, land use and trade are expected to favor the spread of ragweed
339 in Europe (Essl et al. 2015; Sun et al. 2017). Our recent species distribution models
340 predict that ragweed in Europe will rapidly spread towards the northeast, while its
341 biocontrol candidates would not keep pace with this spread. This identifies the need

342 to develop climatically adapted strains for biological control in regions where
343 ragweed is currently unlikely to be controlled (Sun et al. 2017).

344 The availability of the required plant occurrence records of invasive species is often
345 limited. For an anemophilous species like ragweed, spatial data on airborne pollen
346 concentrations can help to construct occurrence maps. SMARTER members
347 constructed gridded pollen source inventories using top-down methods by integrating
348 land use data and local knowledge of plant ecology into spatial distribution models of
349 airborne pollen (Skjøth, Smith, Šikoparija, Stach, Myszkowska et al. 2010). We
350 showed that these inventories reflect variations in plant abundance and effectively
351 link land management to atmospheric concentrations of ragweed pollen (e.g. Karrer,
352 Skjøth, Šikoparija, Smith, Berger et al. 2015) and that it is also possible to integrate
353 the effect of *O. communa* after its appearance in Northern Italy (Bonini, Šikoparija,
354 Skjøth, Cislighi, Colombo et al. 2018). By integrating airborne pollen concentrations
355 with numerical atmospheric transport models, we also provide an early warning
356 system for risks of exposure to airborne ragweed pollen in presently uninvaded
357 countries (Sommer et al. 2015). In a further study, we are presently comparing two
358 approaches for assessing ragweed infestations and for producing reliable
359 background data for its management by (i) mapping ragweed presence in Europe
360 using a top-down approach (where infested ragweed habitats are based on a
361 combination of expert knowledge, land cover data and calculated pollen integrals)
362 and (ii) a bottom-up approach (using geographically referenced ragweed
363 occurrences and abundances where available). The two approaches provide
364 comparable results, which allows for the reliable prediction of high ragweed densities
365 using the top-down approach in cases where ragweed occurrence data are not
366 available (Skjøth, Sun, Gerhard, Branko, Matt et al. 2018).

367

368

369 ***Overcoming conflicting management objectives and reconciling management*** 370 ***activities of the various stakeholders***

371

372 Current habitat management and agricultural practices are not aimed at reducing
373 ragweed specifically, and can even foster its spread. Not cleaning farm machinery
374 after cultivation of ragweed-infested areas, and an inappropriate frequency and
375 timing of mowing of linear corridors along road shoulders and water body
376 embankments can accelerate the spread of ragweed (Karrer, Milakovic, Kropf, Hackl,
377 Essl et al. 2011). To reduce the population size of ragweed (i.e. limit seed production)
378 and also avoid pollen production, management needs to be tailored to meet both
379 aims when managing this protandrous monoecious plant. One single cut before peak
380 male flowering may reduce the airborne pollen load without affecting ragweed seed
381 output and population size, while two cuts later in summer reduce population size
382 without affecting pollen loads. Only the costly combination of all three cuts meets
383 both aims (see Appendix A: Fig. 1C; Milakovic, Fiedler & Karrer 2014), so the
384 adoption of new methods or combinations (e.g. with biological control) is needed to
385 achieve cost-effective control. In a recent study of roadside populations in Austria,
386 we integrated the effects of four experimental mowing regimes on plant performance
387 traits of five years and experimental data on seed viability after cutting to further
388 determine the cost-effectiveness of mowing regimes varying in frequency and timing.
389 The prevailing 2-cut regime in Austria (cutting during vegetative growth in June and
390 just before seed ripening in September) performed least well. By applying our
391 previously established plant population model, we further explored effects of five

392 theoretical mowing regimes to identify the most cost-effective schemes for each
393 cutting frequency (1–3 cuts). They all included the cut just before female flowering,
394 highlighting the importance of cutting at this moment (here in August) and showing
395 the usefulness of population models in designing cost-effective mowing regimes that
396 will lead to both pollen and seed reductions (Lommen et al. 2018). The same
397 approach could be applied to reconcile conflicting management requirements for
398 ragweed in crops, i.e. between early-season control to avoid yield losses vs. late-
399 season control to avoid pollen and seed production to minimize health effects.

400 Furthermore, a lack of coordination of management aims and strategies can
401 create conflicts between managers of the different habitats invaded by ragweed.
402 Management imperatives may be opposite (e.g. for roadsides, biodiversity
403 conservation for natural areas) and available practices differ (roadside mowing,
404 herbicides for cultivated areas) (see Appendix A: Fig. 1D). Seed flows between
405 habitats remain poorly understood and this can introduce doubts about the need for
406 control by a manager if the neighboring environment appears to be poorly managed.
407 For example, an additional investment of a roadside manager can encourage
408 neighboring farmers to improve the management of their field during the
409 intercropping period and thus promote a joint effort against ragweed. SMARTER
410 organized both regional and European-wide stakeholder meetings to reconcile
411 management activities of the various stakeholders by sharing biological, ecological
412 and agronomical data between stakeholders (e.g. Bonini, Gentili & Müller-Schärer
413 2017). Proof of success is needed to jointly work towards a long-term goal. An
414 overview of where to apply which management tool and combination by taking a
415 region-specific and successional view of habitat occupancy is presently in
416 preparation (Kudsk et al., in preparation).

417

418 ***Economic impact assessment of ragweed and management evaluation***

419

420 Stakeholders involved in ragweed management constitute multiple sectoral (e.g.
421 biophysical, technological, economic) and institutional dimensions (private, public)
422 and are linked to interventions across different spatial levels (e.g. farm, village,
423 national, continental level). Evaluating the management of ragweed, therefore,
424 requires an interdisciplinary approach, assessing effects on ragweed distribution and
425 spread, crop yields, airborne pollen, ragweed-related medical parameters and the
426 costs of these (see Appendix A: Fig. 1E). SMARTER collected and merged datasets
427 in order to map the distribution (Sun et al. 2017) and related impact of ragweed in
428 Europe. These include observational and modelled data that can be used for making
429 *ex-ante* assessments of economic and health impacts under different management
430 options using the impact pathway approach that has been applied to air quality for
431 decades (e.g. Cifuentes & Lave 1993; Richter, Berger, Dullinger, Essl, Leitner et al.
432 2013) The output of this Action helps decision makers in selecting region-specific
433 and cost-effective measures for controlling the spread and mitigating the impacts
434 of ragweed. In a joint project between economists, aerobiologists, public health
435 experts and ecologists, we recently assessed the potential economic benefits of an
436 establishment of *O. communa* in the heavily invaded Rhône-Alpes region in south-
437 eastern France. We estimated that the number of days with a ragweed pollen risk at
438 which sensitive people express symptoms would be reduced by 50% and the
439 medical costs due to common ragweed would subsequently decrease by 5-7 M €
440 annually (Moultet et al. 2018).

441

442 ***Knowledge and technology transfer: involving stakeholders and forming***
443 ***future experts***

444
445 To transform scientific understanding into practice, it is important to co-design and
446 co-implement management strategies in collaboration with the various stakeholder
447 groups affected by noxious weeds (See comments above) (Clark, van Kerkhoff,
448 Lebel & Gallopin 2016; Oude Lansink, Schut, Kamanda & Klerkx 2018). Invasion
449 science can learn from agricultural science, where knowledge transfer among
450 stakeholders has led to the development of practical and profitable innovations
451 (Elueze 2016). On the other hand, weed management could benefit from invasion
452 science by taking a more spatial and holistic approach to coordinate and integrate
453 management across habitats and the respective stakeholders responsible for
454 management (e.g. Grice, Clarkson & Calvert 2011; Shackleton, Le Maitre, van
455 Wilgen & Richardson 2017; see Appendix A: Fig. 1D). In order to conduct research
456 on ragweed management that is practically relevant, we included academic and non-
457 academic stakeholders in the research design and programs (Karrer et al. 2011) as
458 well as in the dissemination of the results (Gentili, Bonini & Müller-Schärer 2017).
459 One strategy to identify and manage common ragweed that has proven particularly
460 successful was implemented in Switzerland by sub-national working groups and later
461 on coordinated by weed scientists from the Swiss Agricultural Research Institute
462 Agroscope. Building on public information campaigns and agricultural advisory
463 services, ragweed infestations were mapped across Switzerland, treated and
464 subsequently subjected to a monitoring programme because of the invasive
465 character of ragweed (Bohren, Mermillod & Delabays 2006). Such an approach
466 based on agricultural institutional settings is likely to be suitable also in other parts of
467 Europe with currently low levels of ragweed invasion, particularly countries in
468 Northern Europe.

469 Also, SMARTER contributed to form a new generation of invasion and weed
470 scientists through multidisciplinary training schools and exchange visits for early
471 stage researchers (which have resulted in new collaborations and papers, e.g.
472 Yannelli, et al. 2018), which is a focus of COST (<http://www.cost.eu>). We provided
473 them with knowledge of a wide range of cutting-edge technologies for understanding
474 the causes, monitoring the spread, and predicting future scenarios of the invasion
475 (e.g. the use of drones for weed mapping and detection, smart technologies for
476 precise and environmentally friendly herbicide application, genetics and population
477 dynamics studies) and for transforming novel scientific understanding into practical
478 application (see Appendix A: Fig. 1A). As an example of stakeholder involvement,
479 we brought together early-stage plant scientists and road maintenance workers to
480 discuss vegetation management (cf. references above).

481 Furthermore, SMARTER developed a conceptual framework for designing invasive
482 weed management strategies (Oude Lansink et al. 2018). The framework supports
483 the systematic identification, categorization and analysis of the needs and interests
484 of different stakeholders across local, national and supra-national levels, and links
485 this to incentives for engaging in individual and/ or collective invasive weed control.

486
487
488 **SMARTER - a template for a more efficient and sustainable management of**
489 **invasive plants and weeds: achievements, limitations and the way forward**

490

491 Our “SMARTER” consortium initially consisted of researchers already actively
492 working in the field of weed /IAS science and management, most of them already
493 working with common ragweed. This is in line with the objective of EU-COST that
494 does not finance research, but mainly supports networking activities. By doing this
495 and in a first step towards an interdisciplinary project, we brought together
496 researchers from different disciplines, countries and both scientific and non-scientific
497 parties (stakeholders, regulators) to achieve a well-established multidisciplinary team.
498 This already resulted in a good number of publications in the various disciplines.
499 Capitalizing on the established network, we then initiated a number of truly
500 interdisciplinary studies that have already well advanced, such as quantifying the
501 effects of common ragweed on public health across Europe and the potential impact
502 of the ragweed leaf beetle on the number of patients and healthcare costs in Europe,
503 which is both relevant to advance science and to its application.

504 The established SMARTER network is presently extended by including
505 population genetics, experimental evolution and genomics tools to potentially
506 increase the effectiveness of management interventions and predicting their long-
507 term effect. Previous studies and those carried out by the SMARTER Task Force on
508 Genetics revealed that introduced *A. artemisiifolia* populations in Europe (and Asia)
509 are probably a mixture of different native populations (Genton, Shykoff & Giraud
510 2005; Chun et al. 2010; Li et al. 2012; Causse et al. 2014), with observed genetic
511 variation mostly occurring within rather than between populations. This high genetic
512 variation within populations might allow for selection and adaptation and thus
513 mitigating management interventions, such as in response to cutting regimes and
514 biological control. In this context and by collaborating with population geneticists and
515 evolutionary biologists, we now work on improving predictions for future long-term
516 benefits and risks of the potential biological control by the ragweed leaf beetle *O.*
517 *communa*. For this, we initiated a novel experimental evolutionary approach to
518 assess the beetle’s potential to select for resistant/tolerant ragweed populations, as
519 well as the beetle’s potential for evolutionary adaptation to novel biotic (host plants)
520 and abiotic (colder temperature for spreading into the yet unsuitable habitats in
521 Central Europe) conditions, using selection experiments, next generation sequencing
522 and bioassay approaches. We now also extend the biological control part to further
523 agents, including the mite *Aceria artemisiifoliae* sp.nov. (Vidović, Cvrković, Rančić,
524 Marinković, Cristofaro et al. 2016) and the tortricid moth *Epiblema strenuana* Walker
525 (Yaacoby & Seplyarsky 2011), both also recently and accidentally introduced to
526 Europe.

527 A further item, which has yet to be achieved, is the elaboration of habitat- and
528 region-specific management interventions by combining the various methods
529 presently elaborated, such as establishing competitive vegetation, cutting regimes
530 and biological control measures. An experimental approach combining an
531 establishment of a competitive vegetation and *O. communa* herbivory has recently
532 been carried out in Northern Italy (Cardarelli, Musacchio, Montagnani, Bogliani,
533 Citterio et al. 2018). A further study addressed joint effects between natural
534 occurrences of some polyphagous insects and pathogens in Hungary (Kazinczi &
535 Novák, 2014).

536 Ragweed is just one example from a large number of invasive plants that
537 requires integration across different disciplines. The well-established network can
538 now similarly be used to tackle other Old World (Afro-Eurasian) target species. (see
539 Appendix A: Table 1). *Parthenium hysterophorus*, for instance, a close relative of
540 ragweed and one of the worst invasive plant species worldwide, also affects different

541 actors, including those representing human health, agriculture and environment.
542 Other species may require cooperation among other actors and research disciplines,
543 e.g. environment with engineering (*Reynoutria* spp.) or agriculture with environment
544 and trade (*Eichhornia crassipes* (Mart.) Solms) (see Appendix A: Table 1). Typical
545 IAP species are increasingly being reported from crops (e.g. *Ageratum conyzoides* L.,
546 *Abutilon theophrasti* Medic., *Erigeron canadensis* L.; cf. also Follak, Schleicher,
547 Schwarz & Essl 2017; Holzner & Glauning 2005), and native crop weeds are
548 invading early-successional (e.g. ruderal habitats such as along railway tracks, roads
549 and industrial areas) as well as late-successional habitats with open soil, such as dry
550 grassland and open forests (e.g. *Cirsium arvense* (L.) Scop., *Echinochloa crus-galli*
551 (L.) P.Beauv., *Chenopodium album* L., *Convolvulus arvensis* L., *Cyperus esculentus*
552 L.) (Table 2). Invasive plant species and weeds usually have strong socio-economic
553 impacts, particularly in developing countries, expanding the list of actors in Table 2.
554 Implementation of management strategies should therefore always consider the
555 regional and local societal and economic environment. Projects that implement
556 sustainable management of invasive plant species can benefit from existing
557 structures and management practices, such as agricultural extension services,
558 thereby profiting from a system with foundation in weed (and pest) science. Invasive
559 species do not stop at habitat or political boundaries, calling for a trans-national and
560 trans-sectoral coordination of management activities.

561 Similarly, the management of traditional crop weeds may greatly benefit from
562 collaboration with non-agricultural actors and domains by streamlining specific aims
563 as outlined above for ragweed (see Appendix A: Fig. 1D). The adoption of integrated
564 weed management rather than herbicide-based weed control will shift the focus from
565 short-term benefits of weed management to medium- and long-term benefits (Young
566 et al. 2017).

567 In summary, forming an interdisciplinary team from experts working in isolation
568 via multi-disciplinary groups took us seven years. This process had been initiated by
569 a few motivated researchers, with little money, and irrespective of institutional and
570 other systemic barriers. We managed to involve stakeholders along the way, but
571 clearly a better approach would have been to involve them from the beginning.

572 The increasing number of herbicide-resistant weeds and their resistance to a
573 rising number of active ingredients, together with an increasing number of banned
574 herbicides might support a process of forming interdisciplinary consortia. This also
575 applies to the increasing number of IAP species and the lack of an efficient and
576 sustainable management. Major hurdles remain, including the absence of a strong
577 interest for building up such networks both from the private (agrochemical industry)
578 and the public sector (researchers, phytosanitary services, national and European
579 authorities), as well as for a harmonization of management intervention (including
580 prevention and biological control measures) against IAP species across Europe.

581 The SMARTER approach is based on a close cooperation among weed science,
582 invasion science as well as other research disciplines and actors and domains
583 affected by ragweed invasion and management across Europe. We propose that it
584 can serve as a template for establishing trans-national, trans-sectoral and
585 interdisciplinary consortia, which can undertake comprehensive impact analysis,
586 efficient management and evaluate subsequent success. A better involvement of
587 stakeholders from the very beginning as laid out in the 'multi-actor approach' now
588 promoted by the EU (being now compulsory for all Horizon 2020 calls within the
589 agricultural area) would greatly benefit and further advance our SMARTER approach.
590 Such an approach can then be used for numerous other weeds and invasive alien

591 species that impact on multiple actors and domains, habitat types and regions.
592 Furthermore, such research cooperation also offers opportunities to train early-stage
593 researchers in interdisciplinary research, a key skill for future collaborative research
594 projects for the sustainable management of noxious plants.

595
596

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612

613

614 Appendix A. Supplementary data

615

616 Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version,
617 at XXXXX.

618

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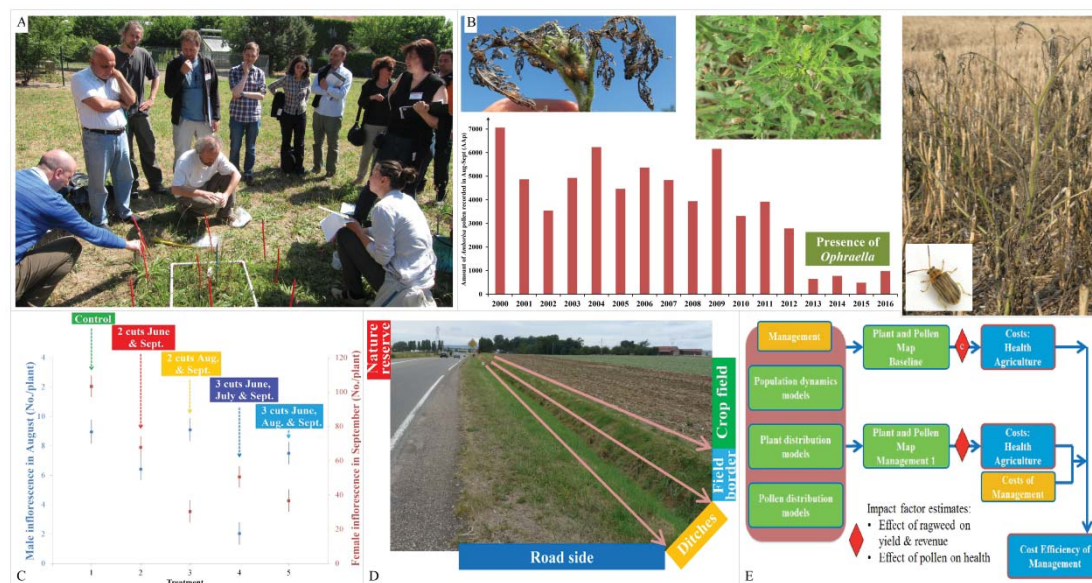
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Appendix A: Fig. 1. Achievements from inter-linking “Weed Science” with “Plant invasion science”, and from interdisciplinary and/or international cooperation



(A) We monitored 50 natural populations of *Ambrosia artemisiifolia* across Europe in 2014-2016, covering different climatic and habitat conditions, to assess environmental drivers underlying spatial variation in its demographic performance. The resulting demographic models allow the identification of optimal habitat- and region-specific management interventions. This is our workshop on demographic research. Capacity-building in the field of understanding, monitoring and managing noxious plants constitutes a sustainable output of our SMARTER approach.

(B) We quantified the impact of the accidentally introduced ragweed leaf beetle *Ophraella communa*, first recorded in Europe in 2013, on pollen and seed production of ragweed. Aerial pollen concentrations dropped by 80% in the area of Milan, with regional savings in health costs of millions of Euros per year (graph adapted from Bonini et al. 2015).

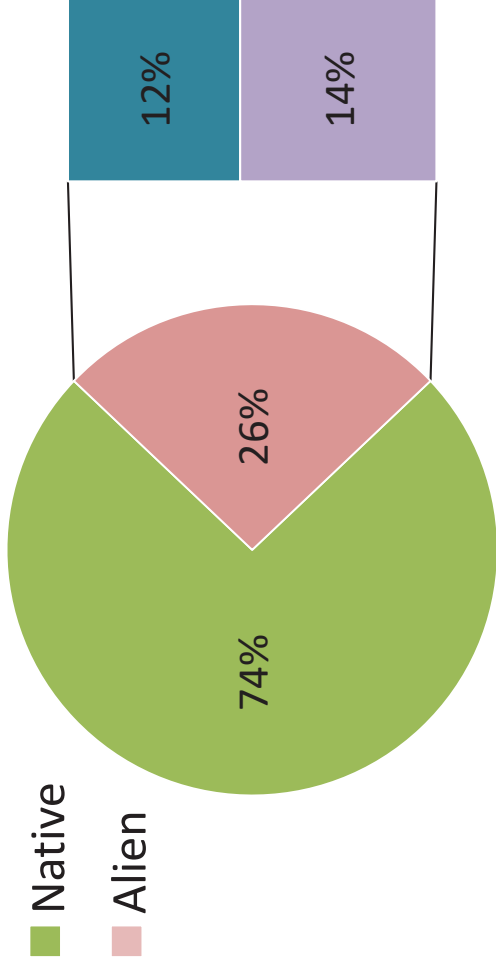
(C) We developed management options that overcome conflicting management objectives. The traditional two cutting interventions reduce either pollen or seed output of the monoecious ragweed. Thus, managing ragweed as a crop weed with minimum cuts might help the farmer, but could extend health problems. Three cutting interventions are needed to significantly reduce both pollen and seeds. Combining cutting with biological control is needed to achieve cost-effective control (graph redrawn from Milakovic et al 2014).

(D) We discovered that reconciling management activities of the various stakeholders is needed to achieve efficient management at the regional scale. Here, five different stakeholders are concerned. Investments by one (e.g. road service) might greatly benefit another stakeholder (e.g. farmer), and failing management by one affects all. Monitoring of the weed dynamics therefore needs to be extended from the local to a larger spatial scale.

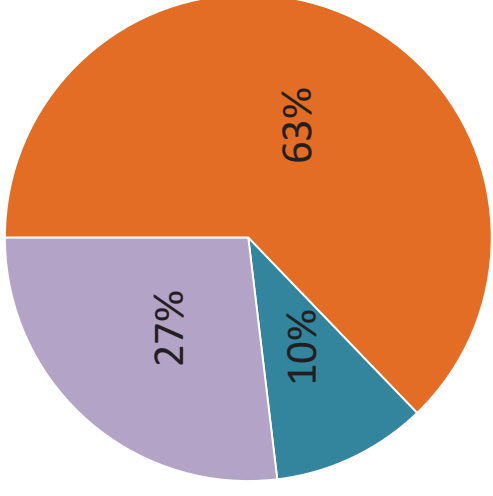
(E) Our economic framework for the evaluation of the management of *Ambrosia*. The 'management module' produces maps of the distribution of *Ambrosia* plants and pollen in a baseline scenario, including a basic set of current management practices. The economic evaluation of the baseline and alternative management scenarios computes the costs for agriculture, health and management (e.g. FADN 2015; Soliman et al. 2010). Cost-efficient management scenarios are those where impact savings outweigh the costs of the management practices.

Fig. 1. Analysis of various European noxious species lists for species occurrences in crop and/or non-crop habitats (crop vs. environmental weeds) and origin (native vs. alien to Europe). (A) Important crop weeds in Europe (N=281) (Weber & Gut 2005), (B) Plant species naturalized in Europe (N=145) (Lambdon et al. 2008), (C) Neophytes in Europe (N=127) Kumschick et al. 2015), (D) Naturalized alien ornamental plants (N=100; 51 are non-European) (van Kleunen et al. 2015).

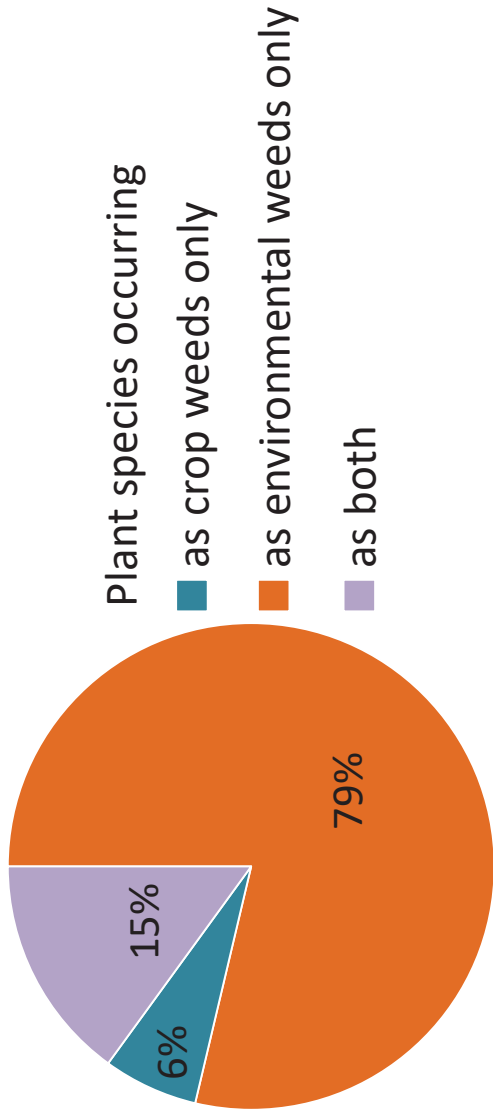
(A) Important crop weeds in Europe



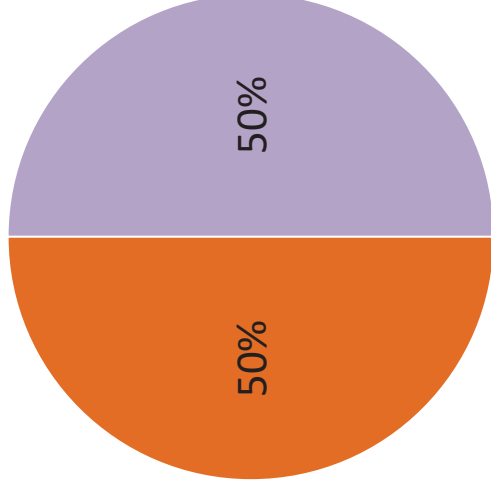
(B) Plant species naturalized in Europe



(C) Neophytes in Europe



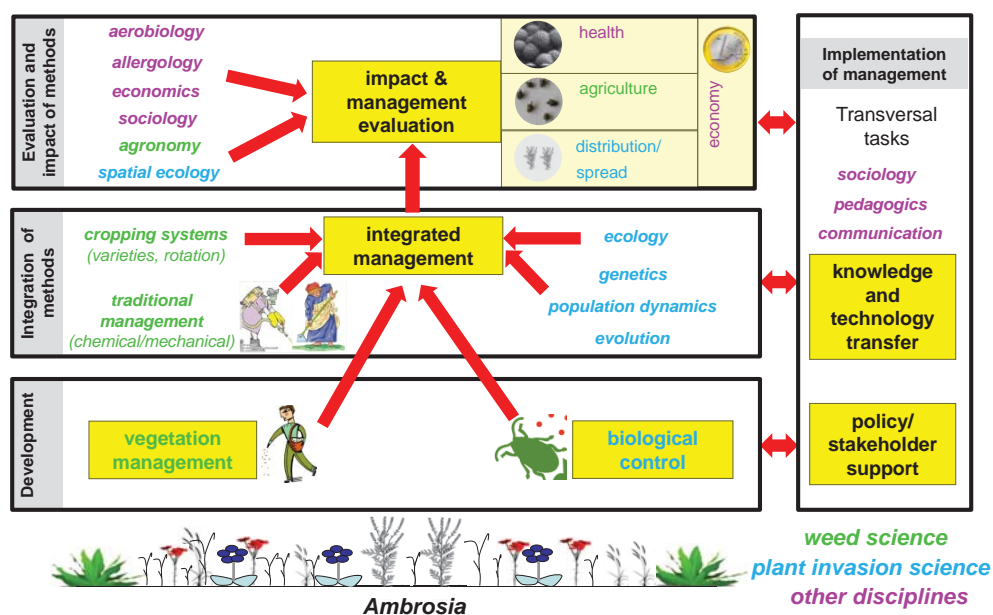
(D) Naturalized alien ornamental plants



Box 1. Differences in the setting, focus and strengths between “Weed Science” and “Plant Invasion Science” as practiced in Europe

Weed Science	Plant Invasion Science
Setting	
<p>long tradition supported by agronomy mainly driven by practical management/ control questions and innovations in agricultural engineering many target species (weeds), but only one focal plant (crop) predominantly native species (see Fig. 1A) single stakeholder (agriculture)</p> <p><u>policy:</u> EU Regulation concerning management practices (herbicide use, intercrop covers), but few regulations on species except for parasitic weeds</p>	<p>new fields supported by ecology & evolution mainly driven by fundamental scientific questions and ecological theories (also by practice of conservation) one target species (invasive alien plant), but many focal species (plant community) exclusively non-native species many stakeholders (conservation, public health, agriculture, forestry)</p> <p>EU Regulation 1143/2014 on Invasive Alien Species, EU regulations on the introduction of exotic biological control agents in progress</p>
Focus	
<p><u>focus</u> on cultivated land, close landscape structure</p> <p><u>main focus for management:</u> reduction of biomass at a site</p> <p><u>spatial scale:</u> local to regional; the field</p> <p><u>mainly studied at</u> national research institutions</p> <p><u>possibility to manage the habitat using perturbation:</u> abundant (soil tillage, crop rotation, herbicide, crop competition)</p> <p><u>experimental evidence and ecological/evolutionary theories:</u> on plant competition and crop breeding (for shading and herbicide-resistance)</p>	<p>on community/ ecosystem/ biogeography structure</p> <p>reduction of abundance and spread, mitigation of impact</p> <p>local, regional to global; natural or man-made habitats</p> <p>universities and environmental research institutions</p> <p>limited, especially in natural habitats</p> <p>on biotic (community) resistance, phylogenetic relatedness and community assembly, rapid evolution, local adaptation</p>
Strong points	
<p>application-driven, providing practical advice to practitioners</p> <p>providing efficient control of weeds</p> <p>good links to the private sector</p> <p>good knowledge of the species’ biology (morphology, taxonomy, life cycle, distribution)</p>	<p>strongly rooted in basic ecology, drawing insights from many disciplines and using new technologies to identify drivers</p> <p>getting great interest from society and research community</p> <p>good links to basic science</p> <p>good knowledge of the species’ ecology and evolution (species interactions, population dynamics, genetics, spatial processes)</p>

Box 2. The structure of the COST Action SMARTER: capitalizing on weed science and plant invasion science to develop and implement sustainable management of *Ambrosia artemisiifolia* across habitat types and regions.



We started the trans-sectoral and international EU COST Action SMARTER “Sustainable management of *Ambrosia artemisiifolia* in Europe, FA1203, www.ragweed.eu) in 2013. Although chemical and mechanical control methods have been partially implemented against ragweed in Europe, control efforts and methods vary greatly between geographical areas. More sustainable control strategies such as biological control or vegetation management, while successfully implemented in other continents (China, Australia), were lacking in Europe (Gerber et al. 2010). The development of such innovative strategies was needed, as large areas of ragweed infestations are on non-arable land, such as ruderal areas or along linear transport infrastructures (rivers, roads or railway tracks) where traditional methods are either too expensive or prohibited.

During four years, we brought together over 250 professionals - researchers and various stakeholders - from over 30 countries, mostly European, but also including Armenia, Canada, China, Georgia, Iran, Japan and Russia.

SMARTER elaborated six tasks (yellow blocks) through the international collaboration of multiple disciplines. Building on expertise from weed science (in green) and plant invasion science (in blue), we developed new control methods (lower panel) and assessed the integration of control methods (middle panel). For the evaluation of management impact (upper panel, with subtasks in light yellow), expertise from other disciplines (in purple) was crucial, too.

Towards a successful implementation of management strategies (vertical panel) SMARTER trained young scientists in the field of understanding, monitoring and managing noxious plants. We also advised national and European authorities on regulation regarding the prevention and management of invasive alien plants, and on the import and release of biological control organisms. The SMARTER approach may hence provide a template for trans-national and trans-sectoral cooperation in assessing socio-economic costs of noxious plants and their management, and in implementing and evaluating control measures against them.

Appendix A: Table 1. Old World (Afro-Eurasian) noxious plants that impact various sectors and regions making them suitable targets for future interdisciplinary management

Plant species	status	Sectors affected	Input from weed science	Input from plant invasion science	Expected benefits from synthesis *
<i>Ageratum conyzoides</i> L.	IAP	agriculture, environment, human/animal health	practical advice for managing at crop field level; management by soil tillage/mulching/herbicide	natural and anthropogenic habitats; knowledge on invasion history and impacts	1, 10
<i>Parthenium hysterophorus</i> L.	IAP	agriculture, human/animal health, environment	practical advice for management at field scale to end-users	present and invasive in a variety of habitats; classical biological control	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 10, 12, 13
<i>Reynoutria japonica</i> Houtt.	IAP	environment, engineering, agriculture (forage crops)	knowledge of species biology/herbicide efficacy; practical advice for handling of contaminated soil	knowledge on genetics, ecology and species interactions; policy support regarding IAS management in Europe (biocontrol)	1, 4, 5, 8, 12, 13
<i>Eichhornia crassipes</i> (Mart.) Solms	IAP	agriculture (rice), environment, trade	Management at crop field level	management at water body level, classical biological control	1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 12, 13
<i>Datura stramonium</i> L.	crop weed/IAP	agriculture, human/animal health	crop competition/rotation management at field crop and vegetable crop level	natural and anthropogenic habitats	10
<i>Echinochloa crus-galli</i> (L.) P. Beauv.	crop weed/IAP	agriculture, environment	practical advice for management at crop field level; paddy rice, maize and summer crop fields	impacts on communities/ ecosystems in wetlands	10
<i>Cyperus esculentus</i> L.	crop weed/IAP	agriculture, environment	green manure to increase competition and shading, with early and repeated tillage	coordinated management interventions across habitats and stakeholders	1, 3, 4, 5, 11
<i>Cirsium arvense</i> (L.) Scop.	crop weed	agriculture, environment	long tradition of management in native range, research at national research institutions	knowledge of species interactions, research at universities	1, 7, 9

<i>Rumex</i> spp.	crop weed	agriculture, environment, human health	local management; long tradition of management in native range, research at national research institutions	knowledge of species interactions, research at universities; classical biological control	2, 7, 9, 11, 12, 13
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* **1** Developing habitat-specific management recommendations/solutions, based on various tools, **2** Considering the regional and local societal and economic environment, **3** Trans-national and trans-sectoral coordination, **4** Trade regulation and legal and regulatory aspects to support policy, **5** Interdisciplinary, **6** Reconciling different stakeholder interests, **7** Reconciling different management objectives, **8** Develop classical biological control options for a sustainable management, **9** Develop biocontrol products together with industry, **10** Develop horizontal integration of control across different weed species, **11** Develop vertical integration by combining different control measures against a specific target species (e.g. low herbicide dosage with a biocontrol product), **12** Efficient knowledge and technology transfer, **13** Economic assessment of weed impact and management evaluation;