

# 1 Advancing crop disease early warning in South Asia 2 by complementing expert surveys with internet 3 media scraping

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## 16 **Abstract**

17 Wheat contributes one fifth of global food supply with an estimated 29%  
18 of global production in low and lower-middle income countries. As  
19 production expands across southern Asia, yields are often negatively  
20 impacted by outbreaks of fungal rust diseases. A wheat rust early warning  
21 and advisory system comprising surveillance, near real-time disease risk  
22 forecasts, and advisory dissemination has been established in two target  
23 countries in South Asia, including Nepal and Bangladesh. However, as  
24 wheat rust spores can be aerially transmitted over long distances, near  
25 real-time estimates of disease incidence are required from sources of  
26 infection in neighbouring regions. To address this challenge, we  
27 developed and tested a novel algorithm to generate proxy observations of  
28 infection sources using online media reports in two neighbouring  
29 countries, India and Pakistan. Media sampling could provide an effective  
30 alternative where data from ground surveys are not readily available in  
31 near real-time. Our results show that west Nepal was exposed to a  
32 substantial inoculum pressure from aerially-dispersed stripe rust spores  
33 originating from India and Pakistan. There were no outbreaks of stripe  
34 rust disease in Bangladesh with only very low levels of cross-border  
35 dispersion and generally unfavourable environmental conditions for  
36 infection. We further describe how proxy observations informed farmer  
37 decision-making in near real-time in Nepal and filled a knowledge gap in  
38 identifying early sources of infection for a major outbreak of stripe rust

39 during 2020 in Nepal. Our results highlight the importance of  
40 international cooperation in mitigating transboundary plant pathogens.

41 Keywords: Early warning system, long-distance dispersal, disease surveillance, wheat stripe rust, Nepal, media scraping.

## 42 **1. Introduction**

43 The security of global food supply is threatened by conflict, economic shocks, rising inequality, climate  
44 change, and pandemics (Bentley et al., 2022). Almost half of the world's hungry are in South Asia (see Tables  
45 1-4, FAO et al., 2022), which is also one of the largest wheat-producing regions, accounting for 50.6 M ha, 23 %  
46 of global wheat production in 2020 (FAOSTAT, 2023). Cultivation is concentrated along the Indo-Gangetic  
47 Plain, spanning northern regions of Pakistan and India to southern Nepal and Bangladesh. In this region wheat  
48 continues to be threatened by epidemics of airborne fungal pathogens, especially wheat rusts (Saari and  
49 Prescott, 1985; Bhavani et al., 2022), due to conducive climatic conditions (Kisana et al., 2003; Afzal et al., 2009;  
50 Ali et al., 2009, 2014). Urediniospores of rust pathogens (hereafter called spores) are capable of dispersing over  
51 long distances, increasing the likelihood of transmission across international territories and disrupting ongoing  
52 national control programmes in neighbouring countries (Meyer et al., 2017b; Radici et al., 2022).

53 Resistant varieties are routinely deployed to prevent infections from the dominant races of wheat rust  
54 species with many cases of long-term success. Epidemics still occur, however, when new races of the  
55 pathogen arise to which widely grown wheat varieties are not resistant (Singh et al., 2015; Bhavani et al., 2022).  
56 Effective control of the pathogen then depends upon predicting disease risk and early warning systems to  
57 enable farmers to apply fungicides in time to prevent yield loss.

58 An Early Warning and Advisory System (EWAS), originally developed and implemented for wheat rusts in  
59 Ethiopia (Allen-Sader et al., 2019), has been adapted and deployed in Nepal and Bangladesh (Bhavani et al.,  
60 2022), within South Asia. The EWAS involves field surveillance by trained experts (to identify new sources of  
61 infection), weather-driven dynamic models (to predict sites at risk in the target countries from spore  
62 dispersal and environmental suitability for infection) and advisory reports (to communicate risk to growers)  
63 in near real-time. Early warnings are provided to farmers for the three most damaging wheat rusts: stripe,  
64 stem and leaf rust, caused, respectively, by *Puccinia striiformis* f. sp. *tritici* (*Pst*), *P. graminis* f. sp. *tritici*, and  
65 *P. triticina*. The advisory reports on infection levels, risk, and management options, are disseminated via  
66 extension agents and phone alerts, giving farmers up to three weeks in which to apply fungicides to mitigate  
67 the risk of infection and subsequent crop loss.

68 A major challenge in forecasting airborne plant pathogens is the limitation in obtaining timely surveillance  
69 data across the full area of influence (Carvajal-Yepes et al., 2019; Morris et al., 2022). The ability of wheat rust  
70 spores to disperse beyond international borders results in the potential for emerging epidemics to originate  
71 from neighbouring countries (Brown and Hovmøller, 2002), where near real-time surveillance may be  
72 unavailable. Focusing on Nepal and Bangladesh as target countries, a significant risk may arise from any  
73 occurrences of wheat rust to the west and south, in India and Pakistan. To the north, a barrier to transmission  
74 of viable spores is formed by the Himalayas. To the east, wheat production is relatively low.

75 Local and regional news outlets routinely publicise reports of wheat rust online. Web scraping is an  
76 established approach to extract online data into a structured format for analysis (Mitchell, 2015; Diouf et al.,  
77 2019) that has been applied in many studies of human infectious disease surveillance (Jahanbin et al., 2019;  
78 Pilipiec et al., 2023), as well as environmental research (Ghermandi and Sinclair, 2019) including pest

79 monitoring (Daume, 2016). However, online news reports have not yet been tested as a complement to expert  
80 surveillance of crop diseases.

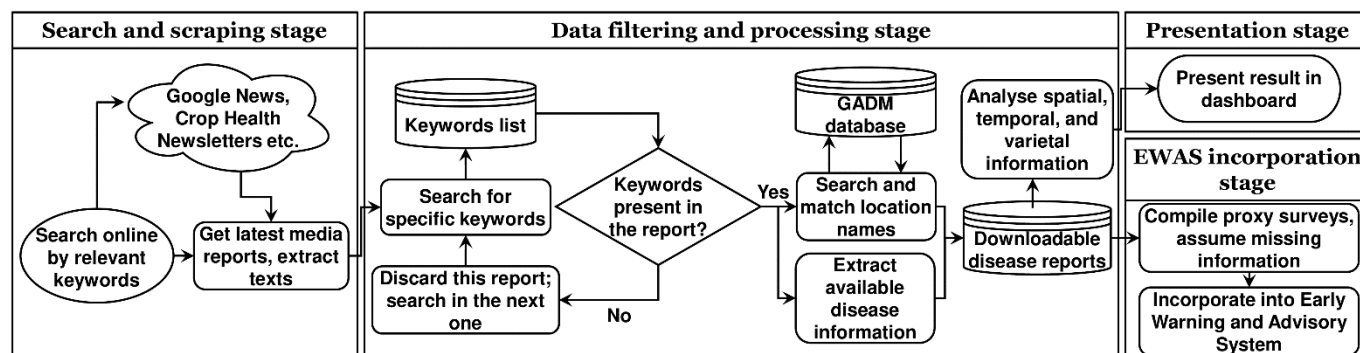
81 In the current study we undertake a media-scraping exercise using openly available software to generate  
82 proxy surveys of wheat rust infection in near real-time by web-scraping online news outlets for relevant  
83 reports beyond the target regions. Specifically, we compare two approaches (manual and automated scraping)  
84 to extract information from online news outlets covering India and Pakistan. Using historic weather data as  
85 driving variables and the Lagrangian spore dispersal models used in the EWAS, we calculate time series,  
86 source strengths and mapped densities of spore deposition over Nepal and Bangladesh from the scraped  
87 media sources. By comparing these with the corresponding outputs from sources identified by field surveys  
88 in Nepal, we show that there is strong evidence for the involvement of external sources in accounting for a  
89 Pst epidemic in Nepal in 2020 connected with the presence of multiple virulent pathotypes, including 238S119  
90 previously seen in India but not in Nepal (Baidya et al., 2022). Finally, we present the results of operational  
91 forecasts of the EWAS that were conducted in near real-time from 2020 onwards to assess the benefit of  
92 accounting for external sources of infection to provide an effective early warning system for wheat rusts in  
93 Nepal and Bangladesh.

## 94 **2. Data and Methods**

### 95 *2.1 Surveillance for wheat rust in Nepal and Bangladesh*

96 Routine surveillance was conducted by trained pathologists throughout wheat-growing areas in Nepal and  
97 Bangladesh during 2020-2023. Surveyors monitored for all three species of wheat rust. The majority of  
98 surveys were conducted between January and March when the main season crop was maturing and was most  
99 vulnerable to infection. Taking a transect approach in pre-determined districts being visited by car, sites were  
100 generally randomly selected along the roadside approximately every 10 km. At each site, surveyors recorded  
101 the date, location coordinates, field area, wheat growth stage, and wheat cultivar (if known) as well as disease  
102 type, severity (measure of disease level on wheat plants), incidence (fraction of surveyed field that appears  
103 infected) and host's reaction type (Ali and Hodson, 2017). Expert surveys are recorded electronically on an  
104 OpenDataKit (ODK, 2023) survey form and gathered in near real-time on an ODK database for automated  
105 provision to Early Warning and Advisory System forecast models, and later uploaded to the global Rusttracker  
106 repository (RustTracker, 2023).

107 The levels of stripe rust disease varied amongst years with a potentially severe epidemic evident during  
108 2020 in Nepal and comparatively low levels of disease in other years. There were no outbreaks of stripe rust  
109 disease in Bangladesh during the period of interest. Analysis of the effects of external inoculum sources  
110 estimated by media scraping were therefore carried out for the Nepal epidemic of stripe rust in 2020.



111

112 Figure 1: Workflow of the scraper tool for media reports of wheat rust infection (for more details, see text and  
 113 Faisal, 2023b).

## 114 2.2 Scraped web media to estimate inoculum sources from non-target countries

115 To construct proxy surveys of wheat rust infection outside Nepal and Bangladesh from online media, we  
 116 identified relevant news reports on rust disease and extracted information on observation date, location, area  
 117 affected, crop growth stage, rust species, incidence and severity for each year from 2020 to 2022. Two  
 118 methods of data collection were compared: one involving regular ‘manual’ searches, the other used automated  
 119 computer searches of media reports. Data from each method were used to test the likely impact of wheat rust  
 120 dispersed from these sources on the infection risk in Nepal and Bangladesh.

### 121 2.2.1 Manual search for news reports and compilation of proxy surveys

122 Weekly internet web searches were conducted during the susceptible period of the main wheat season  
 123 (January to March) in 2020 for news reports in India or Pakistan that included the terms ‘wheat rust’, ‘wheat  
 124 yellow rust’, ‘yellow rust’ and ‘leaf rust’. Early investigation indicated that a large number of the major  
 125 newspaper outlets in Pakistan and India provided English translations that were accessible by the news search  
 126 API, and therefore the coverage was considered sufficient. Surveillance data from the December 2019  
 127 newsletter of the Indian Institute of Wheat and Barley Research (ICAR - IIWBR, 2020b) were included in the  
 128 manual search because these records preceded the period of susceptibility to wheat rust diseases in Nepal  
 129 during 2020.

130 Search results were filtered for relevance and key information extracted manually (an example is provided  
 131 in supplementary Figure S1). The location coordinates for reports for all three (stripe, stem or leaf) rusts were  
 132 identified as precisely as possible, sometimes reaching village level, and collated to provide spatially and  
 133 temporally resolved proxy rust surveys. Detailed information on the level of infection and area diseased was  
 134 missing in almost all cases. Therefore, the following default values were assumed: 1 hectare for affected crop  
 135 area with medium disease incidence (20–40%) and medium severity from which to calculate source strengths,  
 136 in line with characterisations of field surveys used by Allen-Sader et al. (2019). The wheat growth stage was  
 137 estimated from the report date (Table 1). We assumed medium levels of incidence and severity since we  
 138 anticipated low levels are more likely to remain unobserved, and high levels of disease may be observed earlier  
 139 as medium levels. If a different disease level and observed area were assumed, because it would be applied to  
 140 all proxy observations in the region, the impact on results would be spatially uniform (i.e., timing of influence  
 141 is unaffected). Subsequent analyses focused on stripe rust during 2020 to assess the impact of external  
 142 sources of inoculum on the epidemic in Nepal.

143 Table 1: Wheat growth stage assumptions for proxy surveys where information was unavailable following  
 144 extraction from scraped media reports.  
 145

Report date within range:	Assumed wheat growth stage
24 <sup>th</sup> Dec –	Tillering
18 <sup>th</sup> Feb –	Booting
28 <sup>th</sup> Feb –	Heading
9 <sup>th</sup> Mar –	Flowering
14 <sup>th</sup> Mar –	Milking
26 <sup>th</sup> Mar –	Dough
10 <sup>th</sup> Apr –	Maturity
20 <sup>th</sup> Apr –	Outside of main season for winter wheat
24 <sup>th</sup> Dec	

### 146 2.2.2 Automated search for news reports and compilation of proxy surveys

147 Seeking a more efficient method for media scraping, we set up an automated identification system using  
 148 Python (Figure 1; see Faisal, (2023b), for more details). The process starts with scheduled searching of multiple  
 149 web domains for local and regional news outlets using the Google Custom Search Application Programming  
 150 Interface (API). We used a primary search using the following English key words ("wheat rust attack India",  
 151 "yellow rust spotted India", "wheat rust attack Pakistan", and "yellow rust spotted Pakistan") followed by a  
 152 secondary filter against a pre-populated list of keywords (Faisal, 2023b). Reports were then processed to  
 153 extract available disease information including report date, location names, affected site area, and cultivar  
 154 names. Location coordinates were obtained by cross-referencing location names with the GADM database of  
 155 locations associated with each administrative district of Pakistan and India. The GADM database was used  
 156 because of the low computational demand required.

157 The processed infection reports were summarised on an online dashboard (Faisal, 2023a). The dashboard  
 158 provided users with maps, time series, and distributions of disease prevalence, affected varieties and affected  
 159 administrative districts based upon media available in Pakistan and India. The infection reports were  
 160 extracted from the dashboard via an application programming interface (API), and a manual quality check was  
 161 conducted to discard any remaining irrelevant news reports; for example, reports that provided a general  
 162 warning to farmers but did not describe a specific outbreak. Proxy surveys were compiled from the  
 163 automatically extracted news reports with identical assumptions about source strength and crop growth stage  
 164 as for manually extracted media reports.

### 165 2.3 Wheat rust source calculation

166 Spore dispersal simulations require the identification of source terms. For retrospective analysis of the 2020  
 167 main wheat season, three spore source terms were calculated: one based on known sites of wheat stripe rust  
 168 infection from expert surveys for Nepal, one based on proxy surveys from manual-scraped media for Pakistan

169 and India, and another based on proxy surveys from automated scraped media for Pakistan and India. Source  
170 terms were estimated using the method of Allen-Sader et al. (2019). The disease prevalence (incidence and  
171 severity) for each reported survey was scaled to give a spore emission per unit area per day (in the range  $10^{11}$ –  
172  $10^{13}$  spores  $\text{ha}^{-1} \text{day}^{-1}$ ). The duration each survey was assumed to remain active (i.e. informing calculations of  
173 spore availability for passive release and dispersal) was based on the reported growth stage and the estimated  
174 days until senescence.

175 The full set of surveys was clustered according to administrative districts. The source location was defined  
176 as the site with highest prevalence in the district. Daily spore production (also referred to as source strength)  
177 was calculated from the area-weighted average of all active surveyed areas and scaled-up by the wheat area  
178 for a given district. MapSPAM2005 was used to apportion wheat production areas because of its  
179 comprehensive geographical coverage and similar resolution to the meteorological model (SPAM2005; IFPRI  
180 and IIASA, 2015). The more recent MapSPAM2010 was not used because of expert knowledge identifying  
181 inaccuracies in the area being investigated.

## 182 *2.4 Wheat rust spore dispersal model: retrospective analysis*

183 We simulated Pst spore dispersal from each of the three spore source terms in order to assess the impact of  
184 external sources identified by proxy surveys, with a focus on the epidemic of stripe rust in Nepal during 2020.  
185 The passive release, transport, spread, in-air viability, and deposition of wheat rust spores were calculated  
186 with the NAME dispersion model (Jones et al., 2007) modified to simulate wheat rust spores (Meyer et al.,  
187 2017a; b). All three spore dispersal simulations used the analysis meteorology dataset (i.e., the best estimate  
188 of the historical state of the atmosphere by assimilating available observations in a numerical weather  
189 prediction model) of the Unified Model with a resolution of three hours and a spatial resolution of  
190 approximately  $0.14^\circ$  longitude  $\times$   $0.09^\circ$  latitude (roughly  $14 \text{ km} \times 10 \text{ km}$  over South Asia) (Met Office, 2013). The  
191 principal output variable of interest was the number of viable spores deposited per unit area per day.

## 192 *2.5 Wheat rust spore dispersal model: analysis of operational forecasts*

193 Near real-time forecasting of spore deposition based on expert and proxy surveys was performed daily from  
194 6<sup>th</sup> February 2020 as part of the wheat rust Early Warning and Advisory System (EWAS) in Bangladesh and  
195 Nepal. Using the 7-day global forecast from the UK Met Office Numerical Weather Prediction model (Walters  
196 et al., 2019), spore deposition was forecast with a resolution of three hours and spatial resolution of  
197 approximately  $0.14^\circ$  longitude  $\times$   $0.09^\circ$  latitude. In 2020 manual-scraped media data were used to provide near  
198 real-time identification of out-of-country proxy surveys in the wheat rust forecast EWAS for Nepal and  
199 Bangladesh. From 2021 onwards, data from the automated approach were used. The operational EWAS did  
200 not use manual and automated approaches in parallel to avoid duplication of surveys. Automatically identified  
201 news reports were extracted from the media scraper dashboard via an API and compiled as proxy surveys  
202 automatically each week. Following a manual quality check, relevant proxy surveys were provided to the EWAS  
203 to advise on wheat rust disease risk in Bangladesh and Nepal. In this study we investigate the impact of proxy  
204 survey information on near real-time forecasts of wheat rust risk.

## 205 **3. Results**

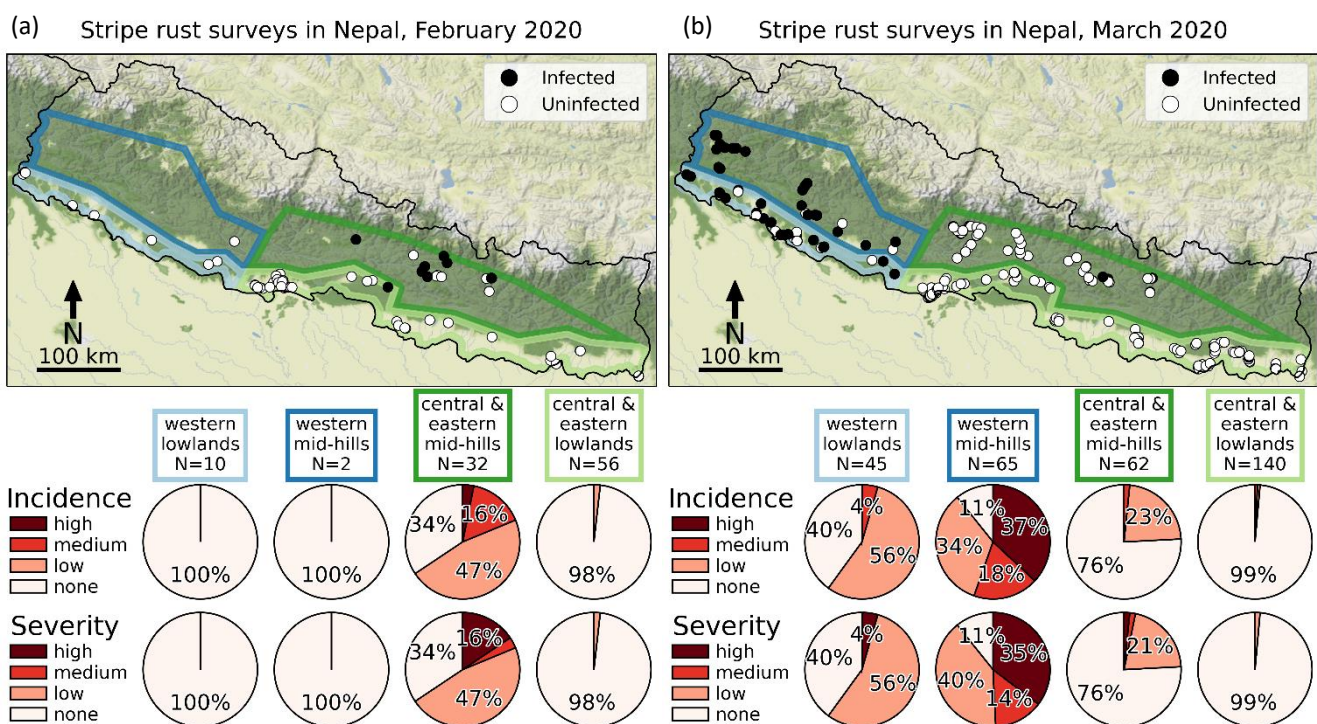
### 206 *3.1 Expert surveys and status of wheat stripe rust during 2020 epidemic in Nepal*

207 A total of 412 field surveys were conducted in Nepal between 1<sup>st</sup> February 2020 and 31<sup>st</sup> March 2020 across the  
208 main and summer season wheat growing areas in 45 districts across the seven provinces of the country. In  
209 the central and eastern mid-hills (areas above 250 m altitude), stripe rust was observed in 66% of surveys

210 during February (Figure 2a). Prevalence receded in March when only 34% of surveys in the central and eastern  
 211 mid-hills recorded the presence of stripe rust (Figure 2b). Almost no stripe rust was observed in the lowlands  
 212 (below 250 m) – *terai* – of central and eastern Nepal.

213 A different infection pattern was observed in the west of Nepal. In March 2020, the most substantial  
 214 outbreak of wheat stripe rust since 2005–2007 was recorded across the lowlands and mid-hills of west Nepal  
 215 (Borlaug Global Rust Initiative (BGRI), 2020), when 60% of surveys at lowland sites and 89% of surveys at mid-  
 216 hill sites reported stripe rust (Figure 2b). No stripe rust was observed in west Nepal in February 2020  
 217 (Figure 2a), although its presence in the western mid-hills was likely and cannot be ruled out. Pathotype  
 218 analysis indicated the first appearance of a virulent *Pst* pathotype 238S119 in western areas of Nepal during  
 219 the 2020 season (Baidya et al., 2022), which was also the dominant strain of the *Pst* pathogen in India at the  
 220 time (ICAR – IIWBR, 2020a, 2021).

221 In Bangladesh during the 2020 wheat growing season, more than 2800 surveys were conducted and there  
 222 were no reports of stripe rust infection.



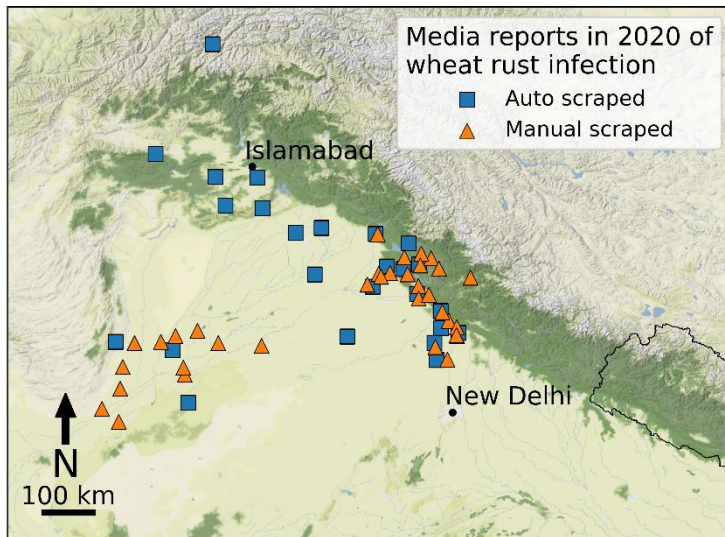
223  
 224 Figure 2: Locations and prevalence of stripe rust in expert surveys during (left) February and (right) March 2020.  
 225 Bounded regions indicate western lowlands (light blue), western mid-hills (dark blue), central and eastern  
 226 mid-hills (dark green) and central and eastern lowlands (light green). Surveys in Nepal lowlands occurred below an  
 227 altitude of 250 m.

## 228 3.2 Comparison of manual and automated scraped media reports

### 229 3.2.1 Locations of proxy surveys from scraped media reports

230 Online news outlets reported the occurrence of stripe rust in wheat fields in Pakistan and northern India  
 231 during the 2020 main season. The manual synthesis of media reports identified a total of 36 infection sites  
 232 from 14 news reports spanning 14<sup>th</sup> January to 11<sup>th</sup> March 2020, whereas the automated search identified 43  
 233 infection sites from 15 news reports spanning 20<sup>th</sup> January to 31<sup>st</sup> March (and one additional site on 24<sup>th</sup> May).

234 Of these findings, four news reports were found by both methods and 26 of the manually identified infection  
 235 sites corresponded to 28 of the automatically identified infection sites (for details, see Supplementary  
 236 Information). The number of matching news reports was affected negatively by some cases of multiple news  
 237 sites reporting the same occurrence of yellow rust, where the two media scraper methods have the potential  
 238 to have made alternative decisions to retain and discard duplicates. From the December 2019 newsletter of  
 239 the IIWBR, the manual compilation of proxy surveys identified three sites between 19<sup>th</sup> December 2019 and  
 240 29<sup>th</sup> January 2020.



241  
 242 *Figure 3: Sites of stripe rust infection in January–March 2020 identified by manual and automated media*  
 243 *scraping.*

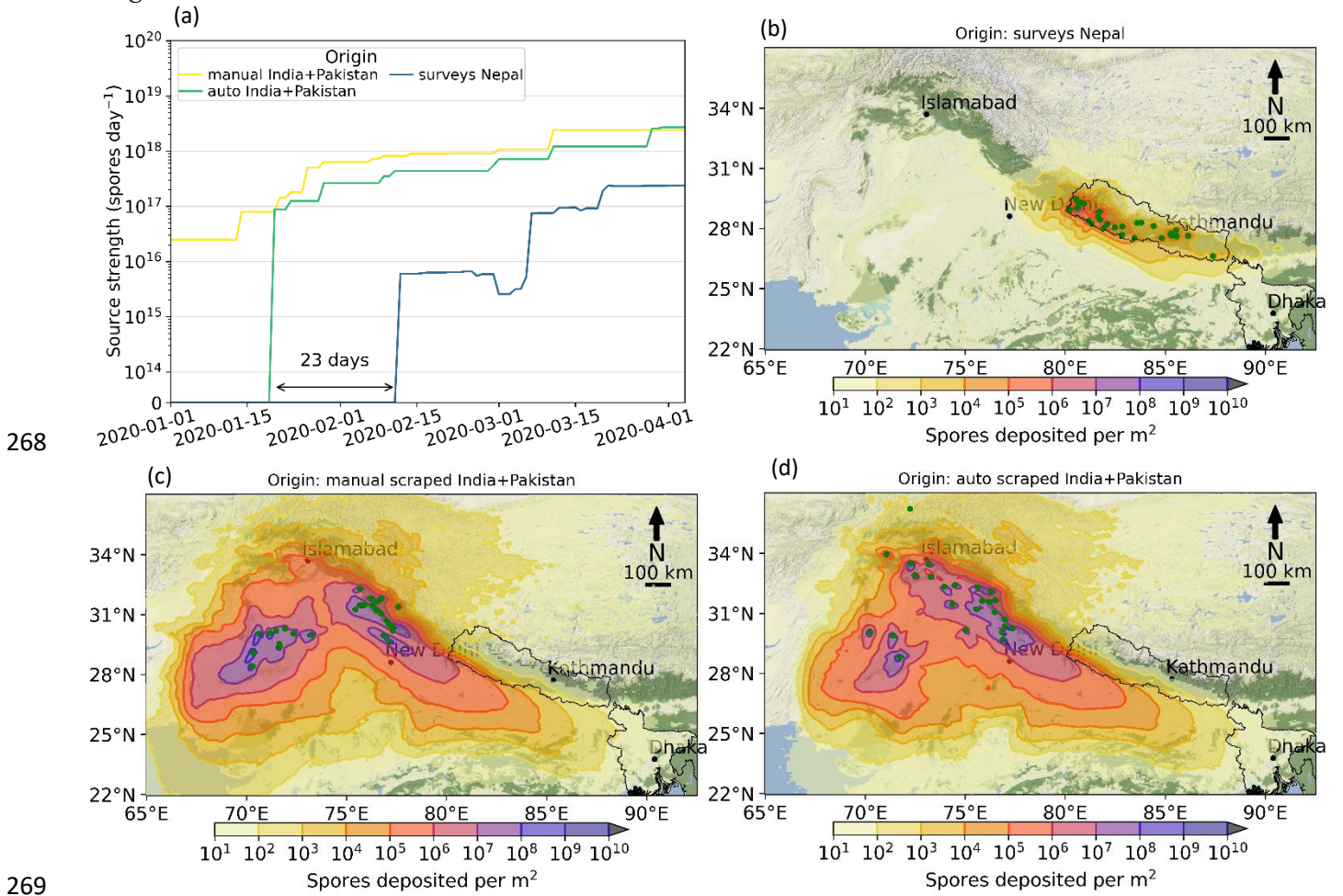
244 Reported infection source locations were similar for both automated and manual methods at the national  
 245 scale (within roughly 10 km of each other in most cases), albeit with the automated method retrieving a wider  
 246 distribution of reports across the northern hilly areas of Pakistan (Figure 3) late in the season. By contrast, at  
 247 a finer scale (<10 km), the reported site locations differed between the two methods, due to differences in  
 248 identified news reports, as well as differences in the methods to extract location names and position them, as  
 249 described in Section 2.2.

### 250 3.2.3 Calculation of source strength and spore deposition from proxy surveys

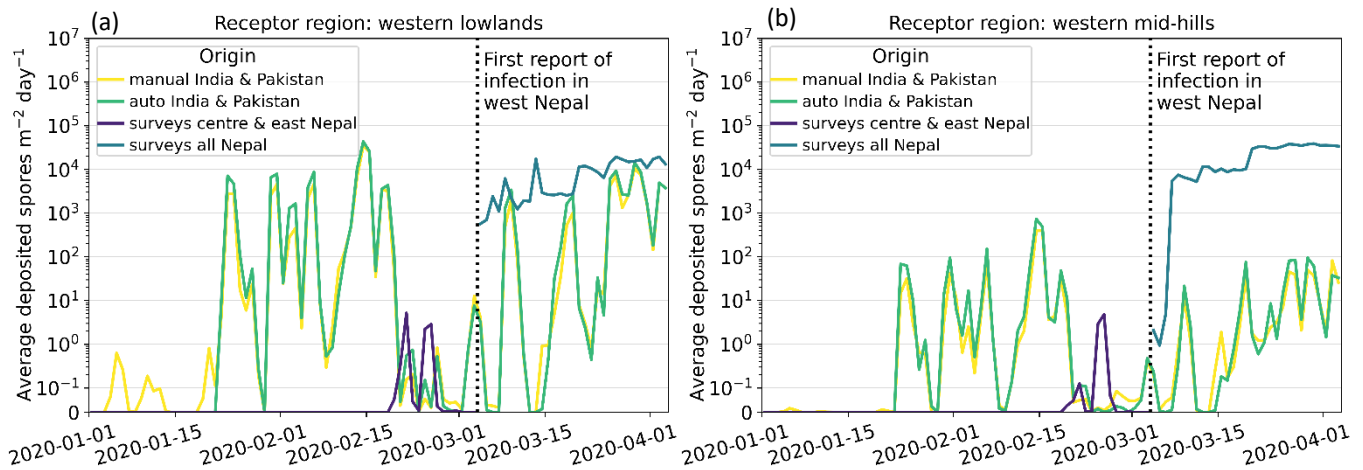
251 The calculations of source strengths from scraped web media show substantial quantities of *Pst* spores  
 252 available for release (Figure 4a). Daily source strengths based on expert surveys in Nepal alone indicate a  
 253 maximum of  $\sim 10^{17}$  spores day<sup>-1</sup>. Sources in India and Pakistan were found to have at least ten times more spores  
 254 available for release per day. Differences in source strength between the expert surveys and scraped media  
 255 methods primarily relate to the regional estimates of wheat production. Sources also appeared at least 23 days  
 256 earlier from proxy surveys in India and Pakistan during 2020 than from sites based on expert surveys in Nepal  
 257 (Figure 4a).

258 Both the manual and automated methods result in a similar incremental increase in infection source  
 259 strengths between January and February as new media reports of infection were published and incorporated  
 260 (Figure 4a). However, the manual method identified larger source strengths, in part due to additional inclusion  
 261 of proxy surveys scraped from the IIWBR newsletter for December 2019. While most spores are deposited  
 262 locally, calculations with historical meteorology show the impacts of dispersal from scraped media sources

263 extending many hundreds of kilometres, as far as Nepal and Bangladesh (Figure 4b-d). This pattern is  
 264 consistent with single-source dispersal calculations across 2003-2014 by Meyer et al. (2017b). The spatial  
 265 pattern of spore deposition is similar from both scraped media methods, with the highest levels of deposition  
 266 around central Pakistan and across the Indo-Gangetic plain and foothills south of the Himalayan mountain  
 267 range.



270 Figure 4: Time series and maps of simulated *Pst* spores during the 2020 growing season (1<sup>st</sup> Jan to 4<sup>th</sup> April) with  
 271 different methods: (a) time series of regional spore availability from source terms, and (b,c,d) maps of source  
 272 locations (green points) and number of spores deposited. Green points indicate source locations based on  
 273 clustered surveys, see section 2.3 for details.



274

275 Figure 5: Simulated Pst spore deposition amounts per day in 2020 across (a) Nepal western lowlands and (b)  
 276 Nepal western mid-hills from different source regions. The dotted line indicates the date of the first observation  
 277 of stripe rust in west Nepal. The same time series analysis for receptor regions in central and eastern Nepal are  
 278 shown in supplementary Figure S2a-b.

### 279 3.4 Impact of external inoculum pressure on Nepal and Bangladesh: retrospective 280 analysis

281 The time series for Pst spore deposition in west Nepal simulated by the spore dispersal model from sources  
 282 within and beyond Nepal are shown in Figure 5 (see also SI Fig S1). There were no recorded sources of Pst in  
 283 Bangladesh. Results for both the manual and automatic media scraping methods were similar (the Spearman  
 284 rank correlation for spore deposition over Nepal western lowlands is 0.94, and 0.96 for western mid-hills. For  
 285 further analysis, see Supplementary Information), indicating that differences in the methods of media  
 286 scraping are small relative to the impact of local meteorological conditions on long-distance dispersal into  
 287 Nepal from different release sites.

288 The external sources from India and Pakistan contributed an additional 16% (manual) and 22% (automatic)  
 289 load of Pst spores in Nepal compared with in-country sources, over the entire study period. The earlier  
 290 occurrence of deposition in Nepal from out-of-country proxy surveys than from in-country expert surveys  
 291 (Figure 5) reflects earlier infection of sites in India and Pakistan (Figure 4a).

292 We recall that there were no reported cases of stripe rust in west Nepal prior to March 2020 when an  
 293 outbreak occurred that included a virulent pathotype 238S119 previously unseen in Nepal (Baidya et al., 2022)  
 294 but known to be present in India (ICAR - IIWBR, 2020a, 2021). Stripe rust was reported at low levels in central  
 295 and eastern Nepal in February and subsided for the rest of the season (Figure 2b). However, dispersal  
 296 calculations do not support transmission of Pst from central and eastern Nepal to the west as the average  
 297 spore deposition in western areas originating from central and eastern areas did not exceed 5 spores  $m^{-2} day^{-1}$   
 298 (Figure 5 purple lines). Stripe rust infections were reported in online news media in northern India and  
 299 Pakistan, between January and March 2020 (Figure 3). Model simulations indicate Pst spores were present in  
 300 northern India and Pakistan at least 23 days before stripe rust was detected in Nepal (Figure 4a), from which  
 301 our dispersal simulations indicate suitable meteorological conditions for frequent deposition of Pst spores in  
 302 western Nepal between 22<sup>nd</sup> January and 19<sup>th</sup> February, 2020 (Figure 5). That is three to seven weeks before  
 303 the first infection reports in Nepal's western areas and long enough for infected fields to be detectable.  
 304 Calculated deposition rates peaked at roughly  $4 \times 10^4$  spores  $m^{-2} day^{-1}$  on the western lowlands and  
 305  $7 \times 10^2$  spores  $m^{-2} day^{-1}$  on the western mid-hills (Figure 5 green lines) from outside Nepal with similar rates

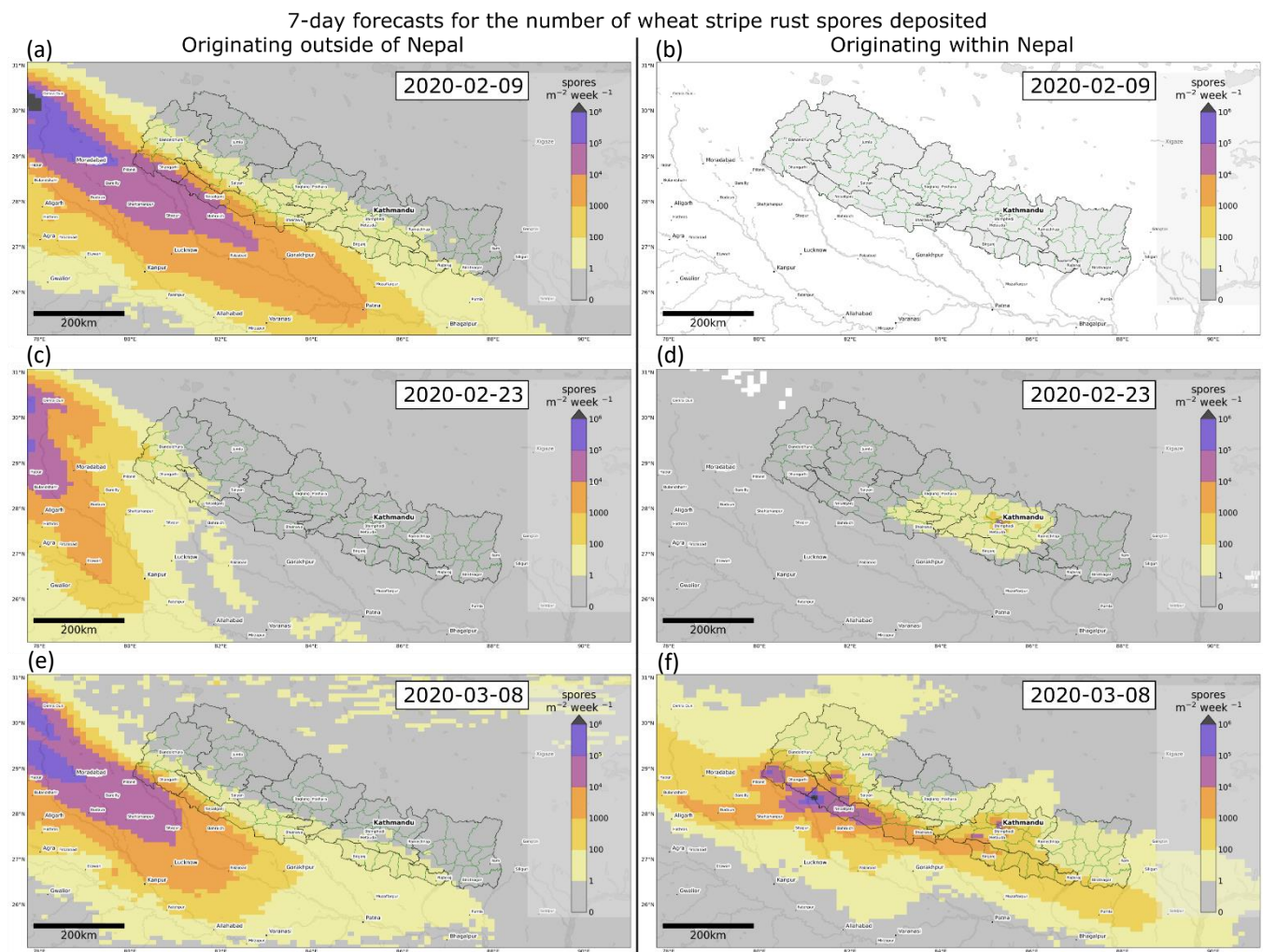
306 calculated locally in west Nepal after stripe rust became established (Figure 5 blue line). There was no  
307 evidence for involvement of Bangladesh as a source of *Pst* infection for Nepal during the 2020 main wheat-  
308 growing season.

309 Simulated *Pst* spore deposition over Bangladesh from reported infections in Nepal, India and Pakistan did  
310 not exceed 30 spores  $\text{m}^{-2} \text{day}^{-1}$  (see supplementary Figure S2c), indicating the *Pst* dispersal connection was  
311 weak. The low *Pst* inoculum pressure in simulations is consistent with the lack of stripe rust reports from  
312 surveys in Bangladesh, however environmental conditions are generally unsuitable for *Pst* in Bangladesh and  
313 therefore limit the chance of stripe rust infection.

### 314 *3.5 Impact of external inoculum pressure on Nepal: near real-time forecast modelling*

315 The above results used analysis (i.e. historic) weather data to enable a retrospective assessment of the role of  
316 alternative external sources of inoculum on the Nepal epidemic of *Pst* during 2020. We now assess the impact  
317 of external sources of inoculum on near real-time risk modelling using 7-day forecast weather data conducted  
318 for Nepal during the 2020 season when media reports were scraped manually.

319 A series of the seven-day forecasts for *Pst* spore deposition in Nepal is shown in Figure 6 for spore dispersal  
320 data from sources in Nepal (Figure 6b,d,e) and from proxy sources in Pakistan and India (Figure 6a,c,e. See  
321 also supplementary Figure S3 and supplementary Videos 1 and 2). Forecasts indicated an early and persistent  
322 influence of *Pst* spores from beyond the borders of west Nepal (Figure 6a) and that infections recorded in  
323 central and eastern Nepal did not provide substantial inoculum pressure over west Nepal (Figure 6d).  
324 Allowance for sources of external of inoculum derived from the scraped media analysis enabled early warnings  
325 and advice to be communicated to farmers through extension agencies in Nepal for farmers to apply fungicide  
326 to mitigate the risk of wheat stripe rust infection.



327

328 Figure 6: Examples of seven-day risk forecasts of Pst spore deposition during the 2020 season based on near real-  
 329 time information from (a,c,e) manually scraped online news media, and (b,d,e) expert pathologist surveys within  
 330 Nepal on (a,b) 9<sup>th</sup> February, (c,d) 23<sup>rd</sup> February, and (e,f) 8<sup>th</sup> March. A video of weekly seven-day risk forecasts is  
 331 shown in supplementary Video 1. The forecast of combined deposition from both scraped media and surveys is  
 332 shown in supplementary Figure S3, and in supplementary Video 2.

333

#### 4. Discussion and conclusions

334 Our primary aim was to assess how scraped media reports of wheat rust infection could be used as a novel  
 335 proxy for field surveys in non-target countries. While the manual and automated media scraping searches  
 336 came up with different site locations within India and Pakistan, the exact location of the spore sources was  
 337 less important for dispersal over long distances as their overall effects were similar on potential spore  
 338 dispersal and risk of deposition in Nepal and Bangladesh. Spore dispersal calculations show connectivity of  
 339 stripe rust occurrences in neighbouring countries with Nepal. Sources *outside* Nepal were calculated to  
 340 account for an additional 16% to 22% inoculum pressure *within* Nepal (for manual and automated methods of  
 341 media scraping, respectively). Our result indicates the importance of allowing for potential sources of long  
 342 distance dispersal in wheat rust early warning systems, previously identified by Meyer et al. (2017b).

343 We investigated a possible precursor to the sudden outbreak of stripe rust in west Nepal during 2020 and  
 344 found long-distance dispersal from stripe rust occurrences in India and Pakistan to be a possible contributor,

345 in agreement with the first appearance of a virulent strain of Pst in west Nepal (Baidya et al., 2022). Dispersal  
346 calculations based on near real-time field surveillance by trained personnel in central and eastern Nepal  
347 suggested no causal connection with earlier infections of stripe rust in the rest of Nepal (prior to stripe rust  
348 arriving in west Nepal, simulations indicate the number of viable deposited spores originating from outside  
349 Nepal exceeded those from central and eastern Nepal by a factor of around 8400).

350 The outbreak in west Nepal developed suddenly, indicating the potential emergence or incursion of a new  
351 virulent race (see, for example, Chen, 2020) rather than carryover from earlier crops in the same area.  
352 Barberry is a documented functional alternate host for Pst (Jin et al., 2010), a potential source of early season  
353 infections, and a source of new pathogen diversity through sexual reproduction (e.g., Mehmood et al., 2020).  
354 Several studies indicate a potential role for barberry in Nepal (Khan et al., 2019; Hovmøller et al., 2023) but  
355 conclusive evidence is lacking and further research is needed. A role for barberry in the 2020 main season Pst  
356 development cannot be ruled out, however long-distance dispersal of spores from external sources, including  
357 a new virulent strain, appears to have also contributed to the outbreak. We note that disease control is not  
358 accounted for in the spore source calculations as reliable data about fungicide use are not available. As a  
359 result, simulations overestimate inoculum pressure and therefore represent a worst case scenario.

360 Complementing expert surveys with scraped web media has informed in-season advisories disseminated  
361 through extension services to farmers in Nepal and Bangladesh since February 2020 and, in particular,  
362 provided advance warning of the substantial stripe rust outbreak that occurred in Nepal during the 2020 main  
363 season (ARRCC, 2022). Cooperation of surveillance between neighbouring nations is key in managing  
364 transboundary plant pathogens (Thompson et al., 2016; Jansen and De La Cruz Bekema, 2023; Radici et al.,  
365 2023) and has been a noted success of many multi-national efforts (e.g., Bhavani et al., 2022; Global Rust  
366 Reference Centre, 2024). Near real-time field surveillance offers the most accurate view of disease status but  
367 is costly and depends on well-coordinated reporting systems that can ideally be integrated across national  
368 boundaries. Proxy surveys from scraped news media are a novel data source for plant disease monitoring.  
369 They have the potential for low-cost high-coverage rapid application in disease early warning systems.

370 The validity of online news reports in India and Pakistan as a proxy for expert field-based surveillance  
371 observations was inferred by their attribution to timing of observed disease in Nepal that could not have  
372 arisen from sources in Nepal because of prevailing wind conditions. A more rigorous test involving  
373 comparison of field surveillance with media-scraped data for the same region and season was not possible  
374 because of the unavailability of field-based surveillance data from the media-assessed countries in this study,  
375 but is indeed crucial for future assessment. Moreover, formal validation is further complicated in that media-  
376 sourced and field survey data are not necessarily independent. Detailed inspection of the media-scraped data  
377 confirms that media reports frequently cite field survey reports as supporting evidence (for example, see  
378 supplementary Figure S1; for a full listing see the data availability statement).

379 It remains important that early warning systems consider different sources of information separately. Web  
380 scraping poses many of the same challenges as data gathered from social media, namely noise, bias, and future  
381 availability (Ghermandi and Sinclair, 2019). In the case of this study, the representativeness of news reports is  
382 subject to the resources and interests of each media outlet. For instance, news media are unlikely to report  
383 on the absence of rusts. Indeed, in the 2021 to 2023 main seasons, stripe rust was relatively limited in India  
384 and Pakistan, and the automated media scraper identified relatively few reports relating to wheat rust (5, 13  
385 and 0 reports, respectively: the stripe rust forecasts for 2021 and 2022 are shown in supplementary Videos 3  
386 and 4, respectively.) News reports of wheat rust presence may be relatively more common in India and  
387 Pakistan than in many other countries since agriculture is a major part of the national economies (accounting

388 for 16.8% and 22.7% of national GDP in 2021, respectively; World Bank, 2021) and national wheat institutes  
389 engage with news outlets (as demonstrated by the proportion of identified news reports of wheat rust  
390 occurrences that quote plant pathologists). Past studies provide a number of approaches to tackle the general  
391 challenges of scraped media, including noise, bias, and future availability (Alomar et al., 2016; Daume, 2016;  
392 Ghermandi and Sinclair, 2019). Approaches that may enhance the novel integration with crop disease models  
393 presented in this paper include a direct comparison of proxy and expert surveys in the same region and  
394 season, multilingual functionality, fuzzy logic to improve location name identification, and the use of a more  
395 open web search API.

396 Our study has demonstrated a viable means of monitoring for wheat rust occurrence where near real-time  
397 surveillance is unavailable but public news outlets are engaged, offering a novel advance in applied  
398 epidemiological modelling to support plant health initiatives. Digital agriculture tools may continue to provide  
399 opportunities to share knowledge and enhance crop disease early warning systems to promote international  
400 co-operation in managing transboundary pathogens.

### 401 **Data availability statement**

402 The code supporting the media scraper tool and dashboard are available on a public global repository from  
403 Faisal (2023b). The code and data supporting the analysis for this paper, namely wheat rust surveys in Nepal  
404 during 2020, proxy surveys from scraped media, spore source calculations, spore deposition simulation  
405 results, analysis, and figure generation, are available on a public global repository (Smith, 2023). Additional  
406 data and supporting information for wheat rust surveillance, including surveys covering other periods and  
407 countries, is available online and on request from RustTracker (2023).

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### 421 **Conflicts of interest**

422 The authors declare no known conflicts of interest.

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