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System Dynamics Applications to Injury and Violence Prevention: a Systematic Review

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Abstract

Purpose of Review System dynamics (SD) is an approach to solving problems in the context of dynamic complexity. The purpose of this review was to summarize SD applications in injury prevention and highlight opportunities for SD to contribute to injury prevention research and practice.

Recent Findings While SD has been increasingly used to study public health problems over the last few decades, uptake in the injury field has been slow. We identified 18 studies, mostly conducted in the last 10 years. Applications covered a range of topics (e.g., road traffic injury, overdose, and violence), employed different types of SD tools (i.e., qualitative and quantitative), and served a variety of research and practice purposes (e.g., deepen understanding of a problem, policy analysis).

Summary Given the many ways that SD can add value and complement traditional research and practice approaches (e.g., through novel stakeholder engagement and policy analysis tools), increased investment in SD-related capacity building and opportunities that support SD use are warranted.

Keywords System dynamics . Simulation . Injury . Violence . Systems . Complexity

Introduction

The health, social, and economic impacts of unintentional and intentional (violent) injuries are enormous. Globally, 4.8 million people died as a result of injuries and 973 million sustained injuries that warranted healthcare treatment in

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2013 [[1\]](#page-12-0). While international progress in injury prevention has been made over the last few decades, as evidenced by a 30% decline in the age-adjusted rate of disability-adjusted life years (DALYs) due to injuries between 1990 and 2013, these decreases have not been equitably dispersed [[1\]](#page-12-0). For example, during this same time period, DALY rates attributed to injury increased in west, central, and southern sub-Saharan Africa [\[1](#page-12-0)]. Moreover, even in countries experiencing declines, like the USA, the overall burden remains high. More people die from injuries in the first half of their lives (ages 1–44 years) in the USA than from any other cause [\[2\]](#page-12-0).

As with many public health problems, injury trends are relatively persistent, complex, and often resistant to attempted policy and intervention approaches [\[3](#page-12-0)•]. The underlying system of factors that drives injury trends is often comprised of multiple, interrelated organizational, social, cultural, and environmental factors and involves dynamically complex interactions between these factors [\[4,](#page-12-0) [5](#page-12-0)]. By dynamically complex, we mean that interactions are often characterized by feedback, time delays, non-linearity, adaptiveness, and other attributes that make predicting the behavior of the system of factors over time particularly difficult [\[6](#page-12-0)•, [7](#page-12-0)•, [8](#page-12-0)•].

Briefly, we define each of these characteristics to elucidate how such attributes of dynamic complexity can make

examining and responding to injury problems challenging $[6\cdot, 6]$ $[6\cdot, 6]$ [7](#page-12-0)•, [8](#page-12-0)•]. (1) Feedbacks refer to closed chains of causal connections in which a change in one factor sets off a series of reactions to further change that factor. For example, an increase in opioid overdose deaths could trigger a decrease in physicians' opioid prescribing, with the intent of addressing the problem (a control or balancing feedback loop). However, the decrease in opioid prescribing may in turn trigger an increase in illicit opioid use, potentially offsetting gains or even exacerbating the increase in opioid-related deaths (a reinforcing loop). (2) Time delays refer to the fact that certain factors, such as injuryrelated norms, attitudes, and policies, are often delayed with respect to their initial causes or inputs. For example, injury prevention legislation takes time, advocacy, and political will and may be considerably removed in time from the event(s) that initiated such action. (3) Non-linearity refers to the fact that the output observed from a system may not be proportional to any linear combination of inputs. For example, the intensity of brain injury that occurs from players' sportsrelated impacts can dramatically (and non-linearly) increase with each impact, especially when events occur close in time [\[9](#page-12-0)]. (4) Finally, adaptiveness refers to the fact that the systems are always changing and responding to new factors and feedbacks. For example, new sources of distraction for drivers arise with new technological advancements, new firearms become available with implications for violence-related outcomes, and new substances capable of causing overdose emerge, and systems react in more and less effective ways.

Traditional research tools (e.g., basic statistical measures, regression models) and frameworks (e.g., the public health approach) offer several strategies for understanding the burden of injury, examining relationships between specific risk factors and outcomes, and evaluating the impacts of public health policies designed to prevent injuries [[10\]](#page-12-0). However, many of these approaches lack a perspective of, and the analytic ability to take into account, the larger system of underlying factors and the dynamic complexity of interactions among these factors that may be driving an injury problem.

System dynamics (SD) offers a set of interdisciplinary research and practice tools to complement traditional approaches [[6](#page-12-0)•, [7](#page-12-0)•, [8](#page-12-0)•]. Specifically, SD can be used to help examine dynamic complexity and the effect of proposed interventions on the system's behavior over time, ultimately improving our understanding of where to intervene within the larger system to have the greatest impact.

SD tools range from qualitative to quantitative and have public health research, practice, and communication implications. For example, a common SD tool, causal loop diagramming (CLD), involves mapping the hypothesized feedbacks and interactions between factors in a system that may be driving observed trends (e.g., suicide rates) [\[6](#page-12-0)•]. This type of diagramming or mapping can occur in the context of a large group of stakeholders invested in the issue (e.g., community

members, experts, and policy makers) or among a small re-search team [\[11\]](#page-12-0). Depending on the audience and purpose, CLDs can increase understanding of a problem, elucidate hypotheses, improve stakeholder communication, facilitate development of a shared vision, illuminate research needs and gaps, or identify potential points of collaboration or synergy. Building from CLDs, SD simulation models can help quantitatively test hypotheses about the underlying factors, structures, and processes in a system driving an observed trend $[6\bullet]$ $[6\bullet]$. SD simulation models provide a tool to test hypotheses involving many factors and feedbacks, develop a greater understanding of the contributions of specific inputs to a problem, examine effects of potential interventions and unintended consequences, and develop a coordinated approach to a problem. These SD tools, among others, ultimately can help advance science and practice and foster coordinated communication, around critical public health problems, like injury. We refer the interested reader to additional resources and a more thorough discussion of SD tools [\[6](#page-12-0)•, [8](#page-12-0)•, [12\]](#page-12-0).

SD tools have been increasingly applied to a wide range of public health problems, such as diabetes [\[13,](#page-12-0) [14](#page-12-0)], tobacco [\[15](#page-13-0)], substance use $[16–18]$ $[16–18]$ $[16–18]$, HIV/AIDS $[19–22]$ $[19–22]$ $[19–22]$ $[19–22]$, and obesity [\[23](#page-13-0), [24](#page-13-0)], to help understand the complexities driving these problems and elucidate potential policy approaches. The purpose of this systematic review was to identify, summarize, and reflect on SD applications in the injury prevention literature and highlight future opportunities for SD to contribute to injury prevention research and practice.

Methods

We sought to identify all applications of SD modeling to injury outcomes in the peer-reviewed literature between January 1958, when SD methods were first introduced, and June 2018.

Search and Study Identification Strategies

Members of our research team recently completed a systematic review of SD applications in health (defined broadly to include physical, social, and/or emotional wellness of individuals or populations) in the peer-reviewed scientific literature, searching articles written in English that were published between 1958 and 2016. This review updates and builds from that work to specifically examine injury SD applications.

A detailed description of the previous review has been documented [\[25](#page-13-0)]. Briefly, studies were identified through PubMed and Web of Science using three search strategies: (1) a keyword search using a range of SD-related terms; (2) a review of all articles published in the System Dynamics Review or accepted for presentation at a list of SD-related conferences; (3) a review of all articles citing a foundational publication in the SD field (Forrester 1961–1969; Homer

2006; Sterman 2000–2010) [[3](#page-12-0)•, [6](#page-12-0)•, [7](#page-12-0)•, [26](#page-13-0)•, [27](#page-13-0)•]. Search results were restricted to health-related applications, using health-related keywords and a list of publication venues in Web of Science.

In July 2018, we updated this search to capture any articles published between 2016 and June 2018. To ensure that the health-related restriction was broad enough to capture all injury applications, we added injury and safety-related terms to the keyword search across the entire review period (1958– 2018).

Articles meeting search criteria were then reviewed to determine whether they were injury-related (more on definition below) and actual SD applications, as opposed to studies that talked about the "dynamics" of a problem in a different context or solely made recommendations to include SD methods in future work. Articles that did not use some type of SD qualitative or quantitative modeling approach (e.g., CLD, stock and flow model, and group model building) were not included.

Definition of Injury

We examined all selected articles for their application to injury and violence prevention. Specifically, we included SD applications that explicitly and directly involved the study of at least one type of fatal or non-fatal injury. Adopting the World Health Organization's definition, we defined an injury as physical damage "caused by acute exposure to physical agents such as mechanical energy, heat, electricity, chemicals, and ionizing radiation interacting with the body in amounts or at rates that exceed the threshold of human tolerance. In some cases (e.g., drowning and frostbite), injuries result from the sudden lack of essential agents such as oxygen or heat" [[28,](#page-13-0) [29\]](#page-13-0). The main causes of injury include both unintentional (e.g., road traffic crashes, poisoning, falls, burns, and suffocation) and violent/intentional (e.g., intimate partner violence, suicide, and child abuse) mechanisms. We did not include studies that indirectly related to injury without specifically modeling or discussing the direct link to the injury outcome, such as studies of drug trade or traffic flow that did not specifically model overdose or crash-related injuries, respectively. All potential injury-related SD applications were initially selected by one research team member, who erred on the side of inclusiveness, and final decisions were made by two members of the research team with any discrepancies discussed and agreed upon.

During our review, we identified several articles that specifically focused on occupational safety processes (e.g., construction management, mine safety). While many of these models examined underlying organizational systems and how system structures and dynamic interactions might lead to safety-related incidents, they often lacked a focus or discussion on injuries specifically [\[30](#page-13-0)–[40](#page-13-0)]. Therefore, they were not included in this review. Other common themes in the literature with an indirect link to injury included post-disaster response planning and emergency department system management (e.g., management of wait times and patient flow) [\[41](#page-13-0)–[49\]](#page-13-0).

Abstraction

Key characteristics of the articles were abstracted by two members of the research team. Abstraction elements included the following: authors; year of publication; title; general injury topic area (e.g., road traffic injury, suicide); research team expertise (i.e., research departments/disciplines represented on core research team); purpose of the paper and purpose of the SD model; description of SD method(s) used (e.g., qualitative CLD, concept model, and tested/analyzed simulation model); setting/context (e.g., organization, community/city, and national); use of a participatory approach/stakeholder involvement; description of types of stakeholders involved, intensity of involvement, and method of stakeholder recruitment, if applicable; main findings and conclusions; and primary strengths and limitations. Additionally, reference lists of all articles were thoroughly reviewed for other relevant articles that met review inclusion criteria but had not been captured through the search strategy described above; however, no additional articles were identified.

Results

The combined search of keywords, specific SD-related sources, and seed articles for the period of 1958 through mid-2018 yielded 1238 unique articles (Fig. [1](#page-3-0)). The additional safety-related search terms across this period returned an additional 29 unique articles, for a total of 1267 articles reviewed. After excluding articles that did not involve an actual SD-related application and were not injury-related, 62 articles remained. Two members of the research team conducted a thorough text review of these 62 and determined that 18 [\[50](#page-14-0)–[67\]](#page-14-0) had a direct and specific link to an injury outcome and utilized a SD-related method or tool (e.g., CLD, SD simulation model). These 18 studies were included in the review (Table [1](#page-4-0)).

SD Uptake, Topics Covered, and Geographic Scale/Context

With the exception of one 1993 study related to drug use and overdose [\[54](#page-14-0)], we did not identify SD applications to injury outcomes in the peer-reviewed literature until 2009 (Table [1\)](#page-4-0). Since 2009, one to three applications have been published each year. Topic areas included youth violence [[50](#page-14-0)], domestic violence [\[55,](#page-14-0) [56\]](#page-14-0), community violence [\[51](#page-14-0)], suicide [\[63\]](#page-14-0), drug overdose [\[54,](#page-14-0) [64](#page-14-0)–[67\]](#page-14-0), occupational injury [\[53\]](#page-14-0), road traffic Fig. 1 Results of the systematic review: number of records identified through search strategy, screened for eligibility, and included in review of system dynamics (SD) applications to injury outcomes

injury [[52,](#page-14-0) [58](#page-14-0)–[62](#page-14-0)], and traumatic brain injury [[57](#page-14-0)]. Studies were conducted within a variety of geographic contexts and scales. Half of the studies $(n = 9)$ [\[50](#page-14-0), [51,](#page-14-0) [55](#page-14-0), [56,](#page-14-0) [58](#page-14-0)–[62\]](#page-14-0) were framed within the context of one or more specific communities or cities, and one-third $(n = 6)$ [\[54](#page-14-0), [63](#page-14-0)–[67](#page-14-0)] involved a national context. The remaining three occurred within a specific organization [\[53](#page-14-0)] and a region of a country [[52\]](#page-14-0), or the context was not specified [\[57](#page-14-0)].

Multidisciplinary Involvement

The multidisciplinary nature of SD was observed with respect to both the core research teams, as well as the larger group of participants and stakeholders engaged. Core research teams included those with backgrounds in social work, engineering, public health, psychology, design and built environment, medicine, policy, criminal justice, statistics, and geography. Twothirds ($n = 12$) [\[50,](#page-14-0) [51](#page-14-0), [53](#page-14-0), [56](#page-14-0)–[58,](#page-14-0) [60,](#page-14-0) [62](#page-14-0), [64](#page-14-0)–[67\]](#page-14-0) of the studies involved some type of larger stakeholder engagement, ranging from an expert panel or a few key informant interviews to several iterative workshops, in-depth interviews, and continued follow-up with key stakeholders representing a range of community perspectives (Table [1](#page-4-0)). In three studies [[55,](#page-14-0) [59,](#page-14-0) [61\]](#page-14-0), a participatory approach was not used for the specific study reviewed but was used for other components of the team's larger body of work on the injury topic.

SD Tools Applied and Findings Elicited

One-third $(n = 6)$ [[51,](#page-14-0) [53,](#page-14-0) [57,](#page-14-0) [59](#page-14-0)–[61](#page-14-0)] of the reviewed articles used CLD and mapping techniques to develop a deeper understanding of hypothesized factors, feedbacks, and the system structure driving an injury problem; to refine a hypothesized map for other contexts or communities; to elucidate data gaps and research needs; or to develop a shared framework among diverse stakeholders (Table [1\)](#page-4-0). Eleven (61%) articles [\[50](#page-14-0), [54](#page-14-0)–[56,](#page-14-0) [58,](#page-14-0) [62](#page-14-0)–[67](#page-14-0)] involved building and testing a SD simulation model, typically, but not always, after CLD or map development. Simulation models were built to increase understanding of a specific injury problem or observed unintended consequence, explore the choice and timing of different intervention strategies, test the generalizability of the model structure across different contexts (e.g., cities), or provide a decision support tool for injury prevention stakeholders. Finally, one study [\[52\]](#page-14-0) involved construction of SD simulation concept models to demonstrate the utility of SD methods for traffic safety policy analysis. Table [1](#page-4-0) includes brief summaries of the specific insights revealed by study.

Primary Strengths and Limitations

There were several similar strengths and weaknesses expressed by the authors. One of the most common strengths

was the richness in perspectives and expert knowledge contributed through multidisciplinary stakeholder involvement (Table [1\)](#page-4-0). Other strengths included increased ability to visualize the "bigger picture" and create a unified framework around a specific injury problem, to examine non-linear and complex hypothesized relationships, to explicitly highlight the importance of specific research needs and data gaps, and to create hands-on tools to foster active learning about a problem and potential intervention effects. Common limitations included lack of empirical support for specific model parameters and relationships, lengthy processes involved in building relationships and engaging with a wide range of stakeholders, generalizability concerns of models, potential oversimplification of models, and lack of model alignment with historical data (i.e., poor model calibration).

Discussion

We found limited uptake of SD tools and methods in the injury prevention field over the past several decades. While SD methods were first developed in the mid-1950s [[68](#page-14-0)], they were largely applied within economics, engineering, operations, management, business, and mathematics fields for many years. It was not until the late 1970s and early 1980s that researchers began using SD tools to study public health problems [[3\]](#page-12-0), and uptake in injury prevention has appeared even more recently, within the past 10 years.

Although relatively few in number $(n = 18)$, SD applications to injury have covered a range of topics and contexts, employed different SD tools and approaches, and served a variety of research and practice purposes. We found that applications covered both unintentional injury (e.g., road traffic injury, overdose) and intentional or violence-related injury (e.g., youth, domestic, and community violence) and occurred across a wide range of scales, from an organizational to a national level. Likewise, the SD tools applied extended from qualitative CLDs and mapping approaches to quantitative simulation and empirical decision support tool development, with a range of implications for both research and practice.

During our review of these specific studies, we noted seven noteworthy advantages of taking an SD approach to injury research, or using SD-related tools (Table 2). These are discussed in detail below.

Engage Critical Stakeholders, Especially Frequently Marginalized Populations, in Understanding Causes and Identifying Solutions Two-thirds of the studies reviewed took an SD modeling approach that integrated stakeholder perspectives. Two studies in particular leveraged key SD diagramming techniques to advance difficult discussions around violence, race, and inequality $[50, 51]$. Bridgewater et al. (2010) [[50](#page-14-0)] engaged active gangTable 2 Advantages of using system dynamics approaches for injury prevention research and practice, as demonstrated in 18 reviewed studies

- Engage critical stakeholders, especially frequently marginalized populations, in understanding causes and identifying solutions
- Develop a shared vision and unified framework of a complex, multilevel problem to elucidate data and knowledge gaps and advance research
- Account for policy and intervention effects on multiple outcomes and metrics, fostering transparency in weighing options and considering trade-offs
- Account for the timing of intervention implementation
- Recognize and explore unintended or weak effects of policies and interventions
- Leverage the generalizability of underlying system structures driving injury trends
- Support policy decision-making with transparent, hands-on tools

involved youth, family mental health experts, survivors of gang violence, community residents, and communitybased agencies to explore strategies for reducing youth violence in Boston; stakeholders were continuously involved, using SD tools, throughout the project. Similarly, Frerichs et al. (2016) [[51\]](#page-14-0) fostered rich discussions among law enforcement, schools, housing, grassroots community organizations, religious institutions, and prior ganginvolved youth to advance discussions around community violence in Rochester, NY. Both projects recognized the ability of community-based involvement to improve the accuracy of model development and to increase the likelihood of intervention uptake. Additionally, both projects recognized the strength of SD tools to act as interventions in and of themselves by promoting restorative conversations among key stakeholders. The use of SD-related diagramming and other tools holds great, and currently underutilized, potential for advancing prevention work in injury-related areas that may be divisive or prone to stigma (e.g., gun control, intimate partner violence, and drug disorder and overdose).

Develop a Shared Vision and Unified Framework of a Complex, Multilevel Problem to Elucidate Data and Knowledge Gaps and Advance Research Kenzie et al. (2018) [\[57](#page-14-0)] provide an exemplary application of using SD to synthesize research on contributors to concussion occurring on different scales (e.g., cellular, environmental, and social). Using SD diagramming and drawing on experts across disciplines, the team created a unifying framework for interdisciplinary communication and collaboration with clear identification of research gaps and needs. Given the complex, interacting, and multilevel causes of injury outcomes (e.g., falls, overdose, and suicide), similar diagramming focused on other types of injury could accelerate advancements in these areas.

Account for Policy and Intervention Effects on Multiple Outcomes and Metrics, Fostering Transparency in Weighing Options and Considering Trade-offs Several of the papers reviewed demonstrated the importance of evaluating an intervention from multiple perspectives by incorporating multiple outcome measures into SD modeling efforts [\[56,](#page-14-0) [62](#page-14-0), [64](#page-14-0), [65,](#page-14-0) [67\]](#page-14-0). For example, through their SD simulation model, Wakeland et al. (2011) [[64](#page-14-0)] demonstrated how specific interventions focused on reducing opioid misuse in the medical sector could increase illicit opioid use or result in barriers to therapeutic care for chronic pain patients. Additionally, McClure et al. (2015) [[62\]](#page-14-0) highlighted the need to focus not only on road safety risks but also risks associated with chronic disease development when examining the effect of land use and transport policies on population health. The inherent ability of SD to incorporate multiple metrics, outcomes, and perspectives is a critical benefit, given that understanding and weighing trade-offs is fundamental to almost any injury intervention selection (e.g., interventions in sports-related injuries, pedestrian travel, and medication use).

Account for the Timing of Intervention Implementation SD simulation models run across a user-specified time frame. The longitudinal nature of such modeling tools allows researchers to explore critical questions about intervention timing, recognizing the importance of not only which interventions are implemented but also when interventions are implemented. Hovmand et al. (2009) [\[55\]](#page-14-0) explored the sequence and timing of three domestic violence interventions, finding that interventions that build victim advocacy efforts and foster cooperation between police and victim advocates prior to implementation of a mandatory arrest policy for domestic violence can lead to reductions in victim arrests, as compared with other iterations of intervention sequencing. The ability of SD to incorporate intervention timing and to factor in how events leading up to and immediately following intervention implementation can change the underlying state of the system holds enormous potential for optimizing intervention deployment to increase potential impact on injuries.

Recognize and Explore Unintended or Weak Effects of Policies and Interventions Hovmand et al. (2009) [\[56\]](#page-14-0) provide a clear example of how SD can be used to hypothesize about unintended policy effects. Using a range of data sources and stakeholder input, the researchers sought to explore the underlying system creating an increase in domestic violence victim arrests after implementation of mandatory arrest policies for domestic violence events. Additionally, Wakeland et al. [[64,](#page-14-0) [66\]](#page-14-0) demonstrated how efforts to increase prescriptions of tamperresistant opioid medications could shift opioid use and misuse behaviors to other parts of the system, resulting in very little reduction in overdose deaths. Finally, Macmillan et al. demonstrated that a city's planned approach to foster bicycle use

and reduce injuries would likely not meet anticipated government-set targets; however, modeling efforts revealed that a more ambitious approach could result in improved outcomes in a cost-effective manner [[58\]](#page-14-0). These studies and others provide useful examples of using SD to enrich injury intervention understanding, planning, and evaluation.

Leverage the Generalizability of Underlying System Structures Driving Injury Trends Two of the articles developed underlying, hypothesized model structures for explaining bicycling and road transport use and safety. The researchers then tested the generalizability of underlying structures across cities, acknowledging that specific parameter values and the dominance of specific feedback loops might vary but that underlying structures can be robust. For example, Macmillan and Woodcock (2017) [[60\]](#page-14-0) developed initial support for an underlying causal model of bicycling in higher-income cities, finding slight variations according to bicycling prevalence in cities. McClure et al. (2015) [\[62](#page-14-0)] tested a model of land transport and health across several major cities, finding that the underlying model structure was consistent with several trends across six major cities. SD applications that develop and test generalizable model structures for persistent injury problems may serve as an efficient starting point for model development in other contexts by reducing the time and cost of development. While there is often value added by engaging key stakeholders in a specific context, and model adjustment is often needed when starting from a generalized structure, SD simulation models are time and resource intensive. The ability to develop relatively generalizable structures that serve as informed starting points may not only lower the burden of SD simulation uptake but also provide critical insights on recurring underlying drivers and patterns.

Support Policy Decision-Making with Transparent, Hands-on Tools Finally, Page et al. (2017) [\[63](#page-14-0)] developed a transparent SD model that incorporated key evidence on suicide prevention strategies. The research team then created a user-friendly version of the model, making it available as a decision support tool for stakeholders to ask "what if" questions related to different combinations of policy implementation. As with any model, the SD tool developed was a simplification of reality. However, in contrast to some other modeling approaches, the hands-on tool and associated documentation made limitations and assumptions exceptionally transparent. The tool can be used to foster decision-maker engagement, active inquiry, and informed decisions about resource and intervention prioritization. Development of user-friendly SD tools for other injury outcomes could be a fruitful path forward, helping to further discussions and transparency between researchers and practitioners.

Limitations of Review

This review was limited to articles published in the peerreviewed literature, written in English, and indexed in PubMed or Web of Science. Web of Science, in particular, was included, as SD researchers working on health and safety problems may publish outside of traditional public health and injury prevention journals. Still, it is possible that our review may have missed pertinent SD applications to injury problems. In Liu et al.'s (2018) [\[69](#page-14-0)] review of SD applications in the population health literature, they highlight the fact that many SD researchers are employed in the private sector, which could result in SD applications appearing less frequently in the published literature. Finally, as with any review, there is a possibility that relevant studies were missed in our review of potential articles or that we did not correctly capture specific study details during data abstraction.

Conclusions

SD has been increasingly used to study public health problems and interventions over the last few decades; however, uptake in the injury field has been slow. While barriers to adoption exist, including few training programs in systems science methods, facilitators of SD use are becoming more prevalent, including specific funding calls for systems science applications. Given the many ways that SD can add value and complement traditional approaches in the injury field, as demonstrated above (e.g., methods to visualize and explore complexity, policy decision support tools), increased investment in building capacity to utilize SD tools and creating opportunities for use is warranted. As injury continues to represent one of our largest public health problems, innovative methods, like SD, are needed to foster new insights on intervention and policy creation, prioritization, and implementation to ultimately support prevention progress.

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Compliance with Ethical Standards

Conflict of Interest The authors declared that they have no conflict of interest.

Human and Animal Rights and Informed Consent All reported studies/ experiments with human or animal subjects performed by the authors have been previously published and complied with all applicable ethical standards (including the Helsinki declaration and its amendments, institutional/national research committee standards, and international/national/institutional guidelines).

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For the interested reader, foundational books and papers in the field of system dynamics are marked with a •.

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