ECOSYSTEM HEALTH: DEFINITIONS, ASSESSMENT, AND CASE STUDIES

David J. Rapport

College Faculty of Environmental Design and Rural Development, University of Guelph, Canada; Faculty of Medicine and Dentistry, The University of Western Ontario, London, Canada

William S. Fyfe

Department of Earth Sciences, The University of Western Ontario, London, Canada

Robert Costanza

Institute for Ecological Economics, University of Maryland, Solomons, Maryland, USA

Jerry Spiegel

Liu Centre for the Study of Global Issues, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada; Department of Community Health Services, University of Manitoba, Winnipeg, Canada

Annalee Yassi

Institute of Health Promotion Research, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada; Department of Community Health Services, University of Manitoba, Winnipeg, Canada

György M. Böhm

Laboratory of Experimental Air Pollution, Faculty of Medicine, University of São Paulo, Brazil

G. P. Patil

Center for Statistical Ecology and Environmental Statistics, Department of Statistics, The Pennsylvania State University, USA

Robert Lannigan

Department of Microbiology and Immunology, Faculty of Medicine and Dentistry, The University of Western Ontario, London, Canada

Christopher M. Anjema

Department of Ophthamology, Ivey Institute of Ophthalmology, Faculty of Medicine and Dentistry, The University of Western Ontario, London, Canada

Walter G. Whitford

USDA-ARS Jornada Experimental Range, MSC 3JER, New Mexico State University, Las Cruces, USA

Pierre Horwitz

Centre for Ecosystem Management; Consortium for Ecosystem Health, Edith Cowan University, Joondalup, Western Australia

Keywords: biosphere, ecosystem, ecosystem health, earth system science, sustainability, ecological imbalance, urban ecosystem, air pollutants, air pollution, statistical tools

Contents

- 1. Introduction: The Biosphere in Distress
- 2. What is Ecosystem Health?
- 3. Biophysical Dimensions: Earth System Science and Biosphere Health
- 4. Socioeconomic Dimensions: Ecosystem Services and Sustainability

5. Human Health Dimensions: How Human Health is Impacted by Ecological Imbalance

5.1 Urban Ecosystem Health in Developing Countries

- 5.1.1 The Urban Ecosystem
- 5.1.2 Urban Ecosystem Health
- 5.1.3 Dimensions of Urban Ecosystem Health
- 5.2 Air Pollutants and Health Effects
- 5.2.1 Urban Air Pollutants

5.2.2 Adverse Health Effects of Urban Air Pollution

6. Quantifying Ecosystem Health: Mathematical and Statistical Tools for the Next Generation of Ecosystem Health Assessments

6.1 Landscape Patterns in Pennsylvania

7. Education: Towards Integrating Ecology and Health Science—Ecosystem Health as part of the Medical Curriculum

8. Case Studies: Managing for Ecosystem Health

- 8.1 Desertification: Ecosystem Health in Arid and Semi-Arid Lands
- 8.1.1 History of Desertification
- 8.1.2 Social and Economic Consequences
- 8.1.3 Rehabilitation of Desertified Landscapes
- 8.2 Dryland Salinity and Rural Decline in the Wheatbelt Region of Southwestern Australia

9. The Prospect for Restoring Health to the Earth's Ecosystems

Glossary

Bibliography

Biographical Sketches

Summary

The degradation of the Earth's ecosystems entails a loss of life support for all organisms including the human community. Regaining the health of the Earth's ecosystems is emerging as a major societal goal. Vigor (productivity), organization, and resilience, in terms of both biophysical functions and socioeconomic aspects characterize healthy ecosystems. The biophysical realm takes into account consideration of climate, atmospheric chemistry, energy, materials, food, soil fertility, etc. The socioeconomic aspects include sustaining economic activity, social services, and human health. The latter is particularly at risk in developing countries and in urban areas not only from pollution but also from ecological imbalances that have been the source of many emerging diseases and the resurgence of old diseases. Ecosystem health rightly becomes

an important topic in human and veterinary medical programs as illustrated by the revision of the curriculum of a major medical school. The relations of human activity, threats to ecosystem health, loss of ecosystem services, and consequences and challenges for viable human futures are illustrated by two case studies: one focusing on desertification; the other on dryland salinity.

1. Introduction: The Biosphere in Distress

Ecosystems breakdown with attendant loss of both ecological structure and function has become pandemic and has inflicted a rising toll measured in broad-scale change and human misery. At the global scale, this is measured in terms of thinning of the ozone layer, rising levels of CO_2 concentrations in the atmosphere, net loss of tropical and temperate forests, net loss of arable land, and decreasing supplies of potable water. It is also recorded in terms of non-sustainable forestry, agriculture, fisheries, newly emerging diseases and the resurgence of old diseases, and social and economic decline, particularly in rural areas.

When, some 60 years ago, Aldo Leopold introduced the concept of "land sickness," it was already evident in the landscape of his native Wisconsin. Today, it is rampant in the landscapes around the world, and both causes and consequences are far better understood. The situation has sparked societal response at all political levels from the local to the global. As a consequence there are innumerable international treaties, agreements, protocols, and regional and local "action plans" to improve the situation. In some cases, with respect to certain specific issues (for example, the reestablishment of fish in the River Thames in London, England; reduction of nutrient loading in the Laurentian Great Lakes; reduction of air pollution in some urban areas) there have been positive changes. However, in many cases the problems are multiplying faster than the solutions, and according to a recent global assessment by the United Nations Environment Program, *Global Environment Outlook 2000*, the tendency towards ecosystem degradation, at the regional and global level, is not only continuing, but probably accelerating.

Never before in human history has the Earth's ecosystems and its biosphere been so severely compromised as today. Uncontrolled, unwise, and unsustainable demands on the planet's life support system severely threaten the future viability of humankind. A collision course between economic and population growth and the carrying capacity of the planet appear imminent. Manifestations of this are already evident in some regions of the planet. Once-fertile lands in North Africa, in China, and in North America, for example, have been transformed, largely through over-grazing, to deserts, supporting a tiny fraction of the productivity and biodiversity that once prevailed. Tropical rainforests, hotspots of biodiversity, continue to disappear owing to clearing for agriculture, and over-harvesting. Coastal marine ecosystems in many regions have become polluted. Pollution (mainly through nutrient runoff) of the coastal zone, coupled with over-harvesting of marine commercial fisheries and habitat loss is responsible for the decline in many of the world's key commercial marine fisheries. Urban air quality has become so compromised that respiratory disease in the human population is common in many urban areas.

All the above are signs of failing ecosystem health. Unless the health of the Earth's ecosystems is restored, it will become increasingly difficult to project whether or not the human population can be sustained, and current and projected levels of human sustainability in the twenty-first century will become increasingly at risk. Furthermore, while it is often claimed that technology can compensate for the destruction of the environment, there is scant evidence that this has been the case, particularly at the regional scale. Indeed, there are numerous examples where attempts to mitigate the failing of ecosystem health have simply transferred the problem elsewhere. For example, fertilizers are routinely applied to compensate for declines in soil fertility, in order to maintain crop yields. However, these interventions have resulted in side-effects such as contamination of ground water, streams, lakes, and estuaries, negatively impacting wildlife, fisheries, and human health. For example, nutrient-enriched coastal marine waters have been shown to enhance the growth of *Vibrio cholerae* the pathogen responsible for cholera outbreaks.

Clearly, one of the prerequisites to a viable human future is restoring and maintaining healthy ecosystems. In this article the concept of ecosystem health is articulated from biophysical, socioeconomic, and human health perspectives. Assessments of ecosystem health must be carried out within the complex dynamic that interrelates these elements. Both qualitative and quantitative indicators of ecosystem health are being developed for each of these dimensions, and some of the concepts being employed, e.g., resilience and organization, cut across the different aspects. Interrelationships between the socioeconomic, biophysical, and human health aspects are emphasized throughout, and particularly within the two concluding case studies.

2. What is Ecosystem Health?

Ask a dozen experts what constitutes health in humans and there are likely to be 12 different answers—or perhaps no answer at all. The reason for this is that most medical practitioners focus on pathology (illness), not health. Their responsibility has by and large been to treat the disease, not to promote health. A similar focus prevails when it comes to questions of ecosystem health.

Definitions of ecosystem health are thus often couched in terms of the absence of signs of pathology, rather than in terms of signs of health. A lake, for example, is deemed "healthy" if it shows none of the obvious signs of pathology such as contamination, algal blooms, loss of fish species, and the like. Focusing on health, per se, brings into play an entirely different set of criteria. In broad-brush terms, ecosystem health may be defined as the capacity for maintaining biological and social organization, on the one hand, and the ability to achieve reasonable and sustainable human goals on the other. From this perspective ecosystem health is as much about sustaining human communities, economic opportunity, and human and animal health, as it is about sustaining the biological functions of ecosystems.

Looking further into the properties of ecosystem health, three major attributes have been identified: vigor (productivity), organization (including the diversity of biota and their interactions), and resilience. Vigor or productivity refers to the capacity of the system to sustain the growth and reproduction of both plants and animals. Organization refers to

the capacity of the system to support a diversity of lifeforms and their interactions. Resilience refers to the capacity of the system to buffer perturbations; that is, the capacity to rebound after disturbances such as fire, floods, windstorms, and the like. While these attributes have been best worked out in terms of the biophysical properties of ecosystems (that is, from ecological perspectives), the concepts also apply to the socioeconomic and human health dimensions of ecosystem health. For example, in a healthy ecosystem, economic activity is buffered against the vagaries of market forces, for the system can support a variety of alternative human activities that can be brought into play to maintain a source of incomes for the human communities within the system.

As ecosystems include the human communities, the evolving definitions of ecosystem health encompass the direct implications of biophysical changes (described above) on humans. That is, there are direct social, economic, and human health consequences associated with ecosystem health. The economic manifestations of ecosystem health are sustainability livelihoods (with both rural and urban components). The human health manifestations are clearly seen in the vigor of the human community that is part of a particular environment. Epidemiological studies suggest that, increasingly, human ills are being driven by environmental decline. For example, cholera, malaria, Dengue fever, Ross River virus, Lyme disease, cyrptosporidosis, to name a few, are all enhanced by degraded environments.

How do healthy ecosystems become unhealthy or pathological? The transformation of ecosystems from healthy to unhealthy states is readily explained by the cumulative impacts of chronic stress from human activities. Major sources of stress include: the release of waste residuals (e.g. release of contaminants to air, water, and land); overharvesting and the physical restructuring of both terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems (e.g., dams, water diversions, roads, and utility corridors which fragment the landscape); and the introduction (purposefully or accidentally) of exotics (species not native to the ecosystem). Additional stress comes from climate change and depletion of the protective stratospheric ozone layer.

The cumulative effects of acute and chronic stress result in ecosystem distress syndrome (EDS). Key signs of EDS include: enhanced volatility of fluctuations in component population numbers, reductions in biodiversity, simplification of food webs through elimination of key species, relative depletion of the larger and longer-lived biotic components, declining yields or harvests, increasing disease prevalence (within both plant and animal species), and increases in dominance by exotic species. In addition, most terrestrial ecosystems (e.g. forests, grasslands), as damaged systems, show reduced secondary productivity and altered rates of nutrient cycling. These changes, in turn, result in impairment of ecosystem services (e.g. potable water, and supplies of renewable resources, flood protection, and pollinator activity).

Ecosystem health concerns itself with the relationships between biophysical changes, disease burdens on the human community (and other biota, including both plants and animals), and the social structure and economic sustainability of human communities. This is a difficult area in which partial understanding as a result of "single focus" models is giving way to a holistic perspective, characterized by interactions between the social, economic, ecological, and public health dimensions, uncertainty of outcomes,

and surprise. The key goals of ecosystem health assessment are to elucidate the nature of these interactions, and to provide a set of indicators (drawn from all of the relevant domains) for the diagnosis of ecosystem pathology. Through this process, it should be possible to detect, at an early stage, deterioration in ecosystem health, and thus identify opportunities for recovering health while it is still possible to reverse damage at a reasonable cost.

The next three sections describe the biophsyical, socioeconomic, and human health dimensions of ecosystem health in more detail. A section follows on quantitative methods for characterizing ecosystem health at regional (landscape) scales. The two case studies illustrate the "bricks and mortar" of an ecosystem health assessment. The article concludes with a section on the prospect for restoring health to the Earth's ecosystems.



TO ACCESS ALL THE **40 PAGES** OF THIS CHAPTER, Visit: http://www.eolss.net/Eolss-sampleAllChapter.aspx

Bibliography

Ackernecht E. H. (1982). A Short History of Medicine, 271 pp. Baltimore, MA: The Johns Hopkins University Press. [This provides a general discussion of the history of medical practice through the ages.]

Anable M. E., McClaran M. P., and Ruyle G. B. (1992). Spread of introduced Lehmann lovegrass, *Eragrostis lehamanniana Nees.* in southern Arizona, USA. *Biological Conservation* **61**, 181–188. [Documents rapid spread of this South African grass throughout southeastern Arizona. Lehmann lovegrass now dominating the degraded grassland areas.]

Aronson J., Floret C., Le Floc'h E., Ovall, C., and Pontanier R. (1993). Restoration and rehabilitation of degraded ecosystems in arid and semi-arid lands. II. Case Studies in southern Tunisia, central Chile and northern Cameroon. *Restoration Ecology* **1**, 168–187. [This article describes restoration efforts focusing on reestablishing arid-adapted trees and shrubs that reduce soil erosion and develop fertile patches under the tree/shrub canopies.]

Böhm G. M., Saldiva P. H. N., Pasqualucci C. A. G., Massa E., Martins, M. A., Zi, W. A., Cardosa W. W., Komastsusaki M., Sakae R. S., Negr, E. M., Lemos M., Capelozzi V. L., Crestana C., and Silva R. (1989). Biological effects of air pollution in São Paulo and Cubatão. *Environmental Research* **49**, 208–216. [This article resumes a pioneer long-term study of the biological effects on animal indicators of the atmosphere of two highly-polluted towns in Brazil.]

Buffington L. C., and Herbel C. H. (1965). Vegetational changes on a semi-desert grassland range from 1858 to 1963. *Ecological Monographs* **35**, 139–164. [Buffington and Herbel provide vegetation maps that document the spread of invasive shrubs into desert grasslands soon after those grasslands were exposed to grazing by cattle during recurrent droughts.]

Corvalan C. and Kjellstrom T. (1995). Health and environmental analysis for decision-making. *World Health Statistics Quarterly* **48**, 71–77. [This provides an excellent introduction to an analytical framework for developing indicators to describe ecosystem interactions producing effects on human health.]

Costanza R., d'Arge R., de Groot R., Farber S., Grasso M., Hannon B., Naeem S., Limburg K., Paruelo J.,

O'Neill R. V., Raskin R., Sutton P., and van den Belt M. (1997). The value of the world's ecosystem services and natural capital. *Nature* **387**, 253–260. [Estimates the global value of 17 ecosystem services over 16 biomes and the total annual value.]

Costanza R. (2000). Social goals and the valuation of ecosystem services. *Ecosystems* **3**, 4–10. [Discusses the various social goals that can form the basis for valuation, including ecological sustainability, social fairness, and economic efficiency.]

Daily G. C. ed. (1997). *Nature's Services: Societal Dependence on Natural Ecosystems*, 392 pp. Washington, D.C: Island Press. [A collection of papers by a range of authors on ecosystems services and their importance in maintaining human welfare.]

de Groot R. S. (1992). *Functions of Nature: Evaluation of Nature in Environmental Planning, Management, and Decision Making*, 315 pp. Groningen, Netherlands: Wolters-Noordhoff. [A description of ecosystem functions and services and their use in planning and decision-making.]

Ernst W. G. ed. (2000). *Earth Systems, Processes and Issues*, 566 pp. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Fullen M. A. and Mitchell D. J. (1994). Desertification and reclamation in north-central China. *Ambio* 23, 131–135. [This article describes the reclamation efforts that are focused on stabilizing mobile dunes. The labor-intensive establishment of networks of "sand fences" allowed vegetation to establish on the stabilized surfaces.]

Fyfe W. S. (1998). Towards 2050: The past is not the key to the future. *Environmental Geology*, **33**, 92–95.

Government of Western Australia (2000). *Natural Resource Management in Western Australia: The Salinity Strategy*, 68 pp. Perth, Government of Western Australia, The State Salinity Council. [This public document which outlines the "whole-of-government" approach to dryland salinity in Western Australia is a product of at least five years of consultation with community groups and between government agencies.]

Haines A. and McMichael A. J. eds. (1999). *Climate Change and Human Health*, 96 pp. London: The Royal Society of London.

Hancock T. (2000). Urban ecosystems and human health. A paper prepared for the Seminar on CIID-IDRC and urban development in Latin America. Montevideo, Uruguay. April 6–7.

Holachek J. L. (1992). Financial aspects of cattle production in the Chihuhahuan Desert. *Rangelands* **14**, 145–149. [Holachek summarizes the cost-benefit of cattle production in the Chihuahuan Desert where most of the rangeland has suffered some degree of degradation. Cattle production is found not to be economically-viable for most of the ranching operations.]

Holgate S. T., Samet J. M., Koren H. S., and Maynard R. L., eds. (1999). *Air Pollution and Health*, 1065 pp. London: Academic Press. [The most complete and recent book about air pollution and health.]

Hopper S. D. (1992). Patterns of plant diversity at the population and species levels in south-west Australian mediterranean ecosystems. In *Biodiversity of Mediterranean Ecosystems in Australia* (ed. R. J. Hobbs), pp. 27–46. Chipping Norton, New South Wales: Surrey Beatty and Sons. [This paper is typical of many on the biodiversity of southwestern Australia and highlights the special features of the plant biodiversity in areas now affected by dryland salinity.]

http://www.idrc.ca/lacro/docs/conferecias/hancock.html [This provides a comprehensive discussion of issues related to ecosystem health in urban areas, particularly with reference to bio-physical environmental factors.]

International Society for Ecosystem Health (ISEH) [Provides information on the Society's activities and its journal, *Ecosystem Health*.]

Johnson G. D. and Patil G. P. (1998). Quantitative multiresolution characterization of landscape patterns for assessing the status of ecosystem health in watershed management areas. *Ecosystem Health* 3, 177–187. [http://www.stat.psu.edu/~gpp/newpage11.htm]

Johnson G. D., Myers W. L., Patil G. P., and Taillie C. (1999). Fragmentation profiles for real and simulated landscapes. Environmental and Ecological Statistics (in press). Technical Report Number 99–

0102, Center for Statistical Ecology and Environmental Statistics, Department of Statistics, Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA. [http://www.stat.psu.edu/~gpp/newpage11.htm]

Lyons A. S. and Patrucelli R. J. (1978). *Medicine: An Illustrated History*, 615 pp. New York: Harvey N. Abrams Inc. [This provides a comprehensive view of the practice of medicine, including medical education.]

MacIntyre A. (1984). *After Virtue: A Study in Moral Theory*, 286 pp. 2nd edn. Notre Dame, IL: University of Notre Dame Press.[This provides a discussion of moral theory and values education within the contexts of education and moral philosophy.]

Moody R., Stonely R., Oldershaw C., and Larwood J. eds. (2000). *Earth Altert*, 151 pp. London: The Geologists Association of London.

Neufeld V. R., Maudsley R. F., Pickering R. J., Turnbul, J. M., Weston W. W., Brown M. G., and Simpson J.C. (1998). Educating future physicians for Ontario. *Academic Medicine*, **73**, 1133–1148. [This provides a Canadian perspective on the rationale for changing the focus of medical school curricula.]

Patil G. P. and Myers W. L. (1999). Environmental and ecological health assessment of landscapes and watersheds with remote sensing data. *Ecosystem Health* **5**, 221–24 [Guest editorial.] [http://www.stat.psu.edu~gpp/newpage11.htm]

Patil G. P. and Taillie C. (2000). A multiscale hierarchical Markov Transition Matrix Model for thematic raster maps. *Environmental and Ecological Statistics* (in press). Technical Report Number 99–0102, Center for Statistical Ecology and Environmental Statistics, Department of Statistics, Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA. [http://www.stat.psu.edu/~gpp/newpage11.htm]

Pereira A. A., Loomis D., Conceição G. M. S., Braga A. L. F., Arcas R. M., Kishi H. S., Singer J. M., Böhm G. M., and Saldiva P. H. N. (1988). Association between air pollution and intrauterine mortality in São Paulo, Brazil. *Environmental Health Perspectives*, **106**, 325–329. [One of the first publications showing hard data on intrauterine mortality due to air pollution.]

Rapport D. J. (1989). What constitutes ecosystem health? *Perspectives in Biology and Medicine*, **33**, 120–132. [This article represents one of the first attempts to provide a definition and framework for ecosystem health analysis.]

Rapport D. J., Costanza R., and McMichael A. J. (1998). Assessing ecosystem health: challenges at the interface of social, natural, and health sciences. *Trends in Ecology and Evolution* **13**, 397–402. [This provides an ecosystem health perspective that integrates economic, social, and ecological aspects.]

Rapport D.J., Costanza R., Epstein P., Gaudet C., and Levins R., eds. (1998). *Ecosystem Health*, 372 pp. Malden, MA: Blackwell Science. [A conceptual text on ecosystem health with sections on concepts, measurement and case studies.]

Rapport D. J. and Whitford W. G. (1999). How ecosystems respond to stress: common properties of arid and aquatic systems. *BioScience*, **49**, 193–203. [This article reviews three case studies of ecosystems and how they respond to stress, showing common patterns.]

Saldiva P. H. N. and Böhm G. M. (1998). Animal indicators of adverse effects associated with air pollution. *Ecosystem Health*, **4**, 230–235. [A recent short review of animal sentinels as biological indicators of air pollution.]

Tonts M. and Jones R. (1997). From state paternalism to neoliberalism in Australian rural policy: perspectives from the Western Australian wheatbelt. *Space and Polity* **1**, 171–190. [An historical socioeconomic account of trends affecting rural communities of the wheatbelt which have led to demographic change, service provisions and changes in farming incomes.]

United Nations Environment Program (UNEP) (1999). *Global Environment Outlook 2000*, 398pp. London: Earthscan. [This publication provides a comprehensive assessment of the global environment, emphasizing the interplay between human activities and environmental change.]

Wackernagel M. and Rees W. E. (1996). *Our Ecological Footprint: Reducing Human Impact on the Earth*, 160 pp. Philadelphia: New Society Publishers. [This provides an introduction to a construct that explains the ecosystem impact of development and urbanization and its threats to sustainability.]

World Health Organization (WHO) (1992). Report of the Panel on Urbanization, WHO Commission on

Health and Environment, 160 pp. Geneva: World Health Organization. [This provides a comprehensive discussion of issues related to urbanization and health, particularly in the developing countries.]

World Health Organization (WHO) (1999). *Air Quality Guidelines*. http://www.who.int/peh/air/ airqualitygd.htm World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland. [Excellent Internet site on standards, guidelines, and air pollution in general.]

World Resource Institute, United Nations Environment Program, United Nations Development Program, The World Bank (1998). *World Resources 1998–1999*, 384 pp. New York: Oxford University Press. [This provides a compendium of statistics and a discussion of trends in resource use, development and environmental health.]

Yassi A., Mas P., Bonet M., Tate R., Fernaandez N., Spiegel J., and Perez M. (1999). Applying an ecosystem health approach to the determinants of health in Centro Habana. *Ecosystem Health*, **5**, 3–19. [This provides a discussion of the significance of applying an ecosystem health approach and a description of a case study that does this.]

Biographical Sketch

David J. Rapport is a Professor in the School of Environmental Design, University of Guelph (Guelph, Ontario), and a professor in the Faculty of Medicine at the University of Western Ontario (London, Ontario). He is president of the International Society for Ecosystem Health and editor-in-chief of the transdisciplinary journal *Ecosystem Health*. Recent books include: *Ecosystem Health: Analysis and Assessment* (University of Guelph, 1998) and *Assessing and Monitoring the Health of Large-Scale Ecosystems* (Springer-Verlag, 1995).