

Making use of spatially biased variables in ecosystem condition accounting – a GIS based workflow

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Abstract

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Keywords: alien species, disturbance, indicator, ecosystem condition, wetlands, mire, peatlands, ecosystem accounting, SEEA EA

1. Introduction

Ecosystem condition accounting is the process of compiling relevant data on the status, trends and qualities of ecosystems (i.e. nature) and communicating this in a structured format. Its purpose is to make it easier to account for nature in policy by making the environmental costs of certain policies and practices visible to decision makers. As natural capital keeps declining all over the world, it is becoming increasingly urgent to make the message clear to decision makers about.

A statistical standard for ecosystem accounting, including ecosystem condition accounting, was developed by the UN and adopted by the UN Statistical Commission in 2021 and is called SEEA EA ([United Nations \(2021\)](#); System of Environmental-Economic Accounting - Ecosystem Accounting). The standard, or framework, is a set of rules, principles and best practices for compiling Ecosystem accounts, mainly aimed at national accounts.

Central to ecosystem condition accounts are *variables* and *indicators*. These are parameters chosen to reflect the central condition characteristics of the ecosystems, and that can be quantified and ideally monitored over time to reflect the status and trends in condition. Indicators are (data) variables that are normalised (rescaled) against upper and lower reference values to become bound between the values 0 and 1. This normalisation ensures that indicators are more comparable because an indicator value of 1 will mean the same for all indicators, i.e. that the variable equals the upper reference value which again reflect the value of the variables under the reference condition. Similarly, a value of 0 means that the variable is in the worst possible state. This could mean that the species or ecosystem function in question is completely lost

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from the ecosystem. The reference condition needs to be defined for each Ecosystem Condition Assessment separately, but SEEA EA gives some suggestions, such as an ecosystem with no or minimal anthropogenic disturbance.

The SEEA EA framework recommends that ecosystem condition indicators give an unbiased representation of the condition (table 1 in [Czúcz et al., 2021b](#); see also [United Nations, 2021](#), §2.87), and that condition indicators are recorded uniquely for each ecosystem asset (EA) so that the condition in the ecosystem accounting area (EAA) can be inferred from an area weighted mean based on the relative sizes of the EAs ([United Nations, 2021](#), §5.54). Ecosystem assets are defined as “ecological entities” (meaning areas) about which information is sought and about which statistics are ultimately compiled ([United Nations, 2021](#)). This recommendation for representativity in the indicators means that spatially biased data are ill suited, especially if sampling intensity varies along gradient of anthropogenic pressures and hence ecosystem condition. This recommendation for the spatial resolution also means that when a condition metric is sampled coarsely, for example in an opportunistic and spatially biased field campaign, then it is very likely that you will not have enough data points to reliably estimate an indicator value for each EA. This problem does not exist for complete wall-to-wall data like remotely sensed imagery where each EA will get its own unbiased indicator value.

There are at least 3 ways to achieve this same complete areal coverage (i.e. spatialisation) that is relatively unbiased, from originally point-based indicator values:

- a. Predict (project) values from a statistical model that accounts for the effect of environmental variation on the variables
- b. Take a central tendency (e.g. the mean) from the sample population and project it to all EAs of a given ecosystem type.
- c. Take a central tendency from stratified sections of the sample population and projection them to the EAs, adhering to the corresponding strata.

This challenge if spatial generalisation is not unique to ecosystem condition accounts, and it is much discussed in the ecosystem service accounting community of practice via the related term *value transfer* ([United Nations, 2022](#); [NCAVES and MAIA](#); [Grammatikopoulou et al., 2023](#); [Barton, 2023](#)).

The need for an unbiased estimation of indicator values is unquestionable, but nonetheless, this requirement puts a large limitation on what types of data one can use. Ecosystem condition assessments are generally limited by data availability, and the choice of variables and indicators to include in assessments are more often than not a pragmatic and opportunistic one which is unlikely to reflect the full scope of the ecosystem condition characteristics. Note that the same is true for thematic biases. For example reflected in the scarcity of data included on insects or soil biota, even though most will agree they represent key ecosystem characteristics. Also having data from only one or a subset of nature types inside what is defined as the ecosystem in the assessment, is a typical thematic bias in ecosystem accounting. However, in this paper we chose to focus on spatial bias.

Being able to make use of spatially biased data would greatly alleviate data shortage problems in ecosystem condition accounts. One way to achieve this is modelling (option b in the list above). Models can describe the general associations between the spatially sampled data and the context (e.g. the set of environmental variables) where it was sampled, and use these relationships to predict and project indicator values to areas that were not originally sampled. Depending on the data that goes into these models, they can be very reliable and make good indicators. This is especially true when the ecosystem assets are large (e.g. regions or nations). But when they are small, like the scale of a municipality, and when the indicator is more likely to be used as the evidence base in concrete physical land use planning, then the inherent level of uncertainty from such models becomes unacceptable.

In this study we explore the potential for using a stratified aggregation technique to make use of spatially biased field data in ecosystem condition accounting. We demonstrate this technique using a generic GIS-based workflow for compiling ecosystem condition accounts that can be applied at any spatial scale, and

we highlight the opportunities for local use-cases of this workflow by contrasting our findings across three neighbouring municipalities in Norway. The main question is how much generalisation can we perform on the data we have before the resulting indicator loses its practical value in local governance processes. We end by interviewing end-users from the relevant municipalities about the perceived benefits and shortcomings of our condition indicators.

2. Material and Methods

This study makes use of a data set from a standardised field survey of nature types in Norway that started in 2018 and which is still ongoing (Norwegian Environment Agency, 2024). In this survey, selected nature types are delineated on a map (over 140 000 polygons at the end of 2023), and each locality is scored on a range of variables relevant for describing the state and quality of nature (Norwegian Environment Agency). The surveys are commissioned with the goal of producing data relevant for immediate land-use decisions, and are therefore spatially biased, typically towards areas with high human impact or expected impact. In addition there is a thematic and size bias in the sampling protocol. For example, for the forest ecosystem, rare, endangered or calcareous forest types are delineated, whereas more common or ordinary forest types are not. In this study we focused on open mire ecosystems in Norway where the thematic bias is less severe (the spatial bias being presumably equal for all ecosystems). The survey maps the following mire types which we use in our analyses:

- Southern ombrotrophic mires (bogs) $> 2500 \text{ m}^2$
- Northern ombrotrophic mires $> 10.000 \text{ m}^2$
- All semi-natural mires $> 1000 \text{ m}^2$
- Calcareous southern fens (minerotrophic mires) $> 500 \text{ m}^2$
- Calcareous northern fens $> 1000 \text{ m}^2$

In the above, *southern* refers to boreonemoral and southboreal zones, and *northern* refers to mid-boreal, north boreal, and alpine zones (Asbjørn Moen, 1998). In addition, the northern fens need to be even more calcareous than the southern fens in order to be surveyed. We included data from 2018 to 2023. In this paper we assume the survey is representative for the entire mire ecosystem in Norway. Although it is possible that smaller or less calcareous mires will score systematically different than the ones that are surveyed we do not think this is so much the case for our variables (see below). However, we do assume that alien plants are slightly less common on bogs relative to fens, and therefore that this variable will be biased since that variable is only recorded in fens. The other variables are recorded in all delineated mires.

From the survey data set we identified six relevant variables (variable 1-6 in Table 1) which we attribute to three different ecosystem condition characteristics that describe the typical behavior of open mire ecosystems in the reference condition (Figure S1). Variable 1, 7FA, represents the abundance of alien species, mainly plants.

Variables 2-5 (7SE, PRSL, 7TK and PRTK) describe very related aspects, and are attributed to the same ecosystem condition characteristic (vegetation intactness) and so they were combined into a single indicator called anthropogenic disturbance to soil and vegetation (ADSV; Figure S1). These variables were originally recorded along binned frequency ranges Norwegian Environment Agency. Because the data was strongly right skewed we used the lower limit for each frequency range to convert them into percentages. This was done by summing the four variables after they had been converted to percentages. This was not a perfect solution, especially since some localities only had one of the variables recorded, but we chose this, rather than for example using a *worst rule* principle, in order to better separate the localities in terms of their indicator values. Variable 6, 7GR-GI, is different from the preceding variables in Table 1 in that it includes an estimation of future effects that the observed trenches are projected to have on mire vegetation, function or structure over time. This is not a favourable trait in a metric used to evaluate the ecosystem

condition as it is today, yet we include it here nonetheless because there is a general shortage of data on mire hydrology, which is a fundamental part of mire integrity.

To turn variables into indicators we scaled them using three normative reference values each: an upper (best possible condition), a lower (worst possible condition), and a threshold value that defines the breaking point between good and poor condition (Jakobsson et al., 2020). The reference values makes up a numerical representation of the reference condition. We define the reference condition as one where ecosystems are subject to little or no human influence, with a climate as in the period 1961-1990 and a native species pool similar as today (Jakobsson et al., 2021).

The variable 7TK was rescaled into the indicator named *Alien species*, 7GR-GI was rescaled into the indicator *Trenching*, and ADSV was rescaled and kept the name *ADSV*. For Alien species and ADSV, the lower and upper reference values were defined as 100% and 0%, respectively. The threshold for *good ecosystem condition* was defined as 10%, which was then mapped to the value 0.6 on the rescaled indicators, thus creating a non-linear rescaling of the variable (Figure S2). For *Trenching* we used the lower and upper reference values 1 and 5, respectively, and a threshold value of 2.5 (Figure S2). A variable value of 1 indicates an intact mire, and a value of 5 indicates a mire transitioning away from a wetland. A value of 2 indicates observable change within the range expected for the same mapping unit, and a value of 3 indicates a mire transitioning into a neighbouring (ecologically speaking) mapping unit. See Figure S1 and Figure 2 for a schematic workflow for the indicator development.

According to the SEEA ECT, *Alien species* can be attributed to ECT class B1 - Compositional state characteristics and *ADSV* and *Trenching* attributed to ECT class A1 - Physical state characteristics (Czúcz et al., 2021a).

We used an ecosystem delineation map for open mires in southern Norway, produced using remotely sensed data and a deep learning model (Bakkestuen et al., 2023). This model estimates 12.7% of the area in southern Norway is mire (Bakkestuen et al., 2023). Mires are ecologically and socially important in Norway simply due to their large extent, and due to their role in climate mitigation as mires store a large amount of carbon. There has not been a national assessment of the ecosystem condition of mires in Norway, but the authors recently contributed to a report which presented several new indicators that can be used in future national assessments for this ecosystem (Nybø et al., 2023; see also Kolstad et al., 2023)). The current study builds on the work in that report.

We used the entire national data set for assessing the relationship between the HIA levels and the indicator values. We then sub-setted the national data set and chose three municipalities in south Norway to test out the indicators. The municipalities differ in several aspects, such as the amount of mire area, the total area surveyed, and the prevalence of infrastructure (Table 2, Figure 1, Figures S3, S4).

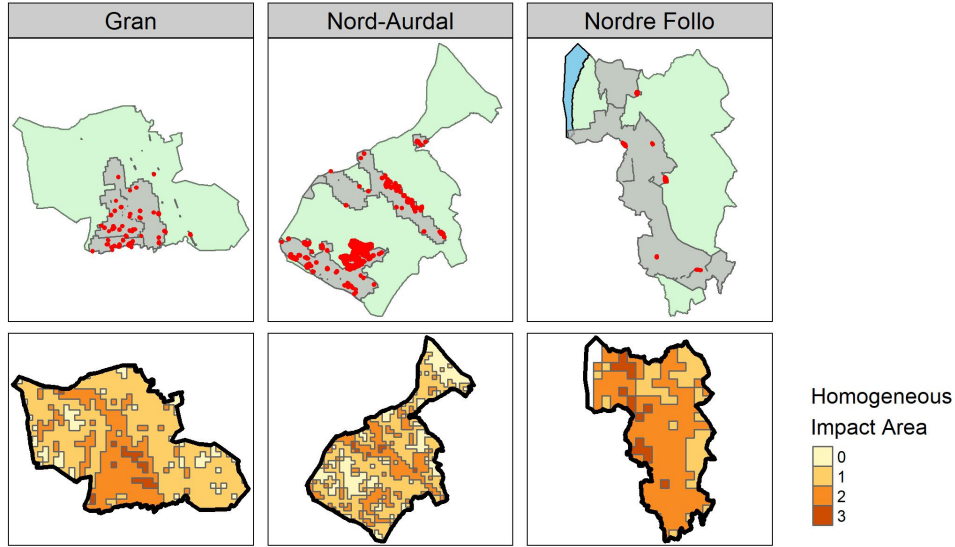


Figure 1: Map of the three focal municipalities. For each municipality the maps in the top row show ocean in blue and non-ocean in green. The survey coverage maps are in grey, and the mapped mires are in red, with polygon borders made extra thick to make them visible, but then also exaggerating their size. The bottom row shows the delineation for homogeneous impact areas which is an ordinal gradient from 0–3 with increasing presence of human infrastructure.

Table 1: Variables used in this study

id	Variable code	Variable name	Measurement unit	Description	Reference
1	7FA	Prevalence of alien species	Unit-less, ordinal, non-linear scale from 1 (no alien species) to 7 (only alien species)	The fraction of the species composition made up from alien species	Halvorsen and Bratli (2019)
2	7SE	Human caused abration or abration-caused erosion	Unit-less, ordinal, non-linear scale from 1 to 4.	Measures the frequency of imagined 4 m ² quadrats laid over the area that has some sign of abration	Halvorsen and Bratli (2019)
3	PRSL	<i>as above</i>	Unit-less, ordinal, non-linear scale from 0 to 7.	Same as 7SE, but recorded at a higher resolution	Miljødirektoratet (2022)

id	Variable code	Variable name	Measurement unit	Description	Reference
4	7TK	Tracks from large vehicles	Unit-less, ordinal, non-linear scale from 1 to 4.	Measures the frequency of imagined 100 m ² quadrats laid over the area that has some signs of vehicle tracks	Halvorsen and Bratli (2019)
5	PRTK	<i>as above</i>	Unit-less, ordinal, non-linear scale from 0 to 7.	Same as 7TK, but recorded at a higher resolution	Miljødirektoratet (2022)
6	7GR-GI	Trenching intensity	Unit-less, ordinal scale from 1 to 5	Describes the effect that drainage ditches is estimate to have on the species composition and environmental variables ones the system reached its new equilibrium	Miljødirektoratet (2022)
7	Infrastructure Index	Infrastructure Index	Unit-less linear scale from 0 to 13.2	Unit-less index ranging from 0 to 13.2	Erikstad et al. (2023b)
8	HIA	Homogeneous Impact Area	Ordinal, non-linear scale from 1 to 4	A categorical representation of the infrastructure index	this paper

Table 2: Information for the three target municipalities in Norway

Municipality	Total terrestrial area (km ²)	% of terrestrial area surveyed	% open mires in relation to total terrestrial area	Total mire area (km ²)	% of mire area inside survey area	Number of mire polygons in survey	Mean Infrastruc- ture Index value
Nordre Follo	203	40	0.3	0.6	18.6	6	1.8
Gran	756	21	2.7	20.2	0.5	56	1.2
Nord-Aurdal	906	26	11.1	100.7	18.1	236	1

Because the nature type survey data are spatially biased, we cannot assume that they are area-representative. In an attempt to overcome this issue we divided the area of Norway into four non-overlapping Homogeneous Impact Areas (HIAs) based on an infrastructure index for the year 2022 (Table 1). This index is a continuous variable that represents the frequency of different infrastructure types inside 500 m radius circles around each 100×100 m pixel (Erikstad et al., 2023a). We then categorised this continuous variable into four classes (0–3) using the following value ranges: 0 = <1; 1 = 1–6; 2 = 6–12; 3 = >12. These ranges were chosen as they produced a sensible and relatively linear area classification when visualised along an urban-wilderness gradient, whilst at the same time delineating sufficient areas for each range across Norway. We then aggregated the data to 1×1 km pixels to ease computations, and vectorized it.

The name HIAs is not a perfect representation of the information found in the infrastructure index, but we introduce this name here as a general term which is aligned with the concept of Homogeneous Ecosystem Areas, *sensu* Vallecillo et al. (2022).

We then took the nature type polygons with the indicator values and intersected with the HIA map and a map of municipal outlines in Norway. The relationship between the HIA classes and indicator values was examined visually. For each HIA and municipality combination we then created a probability distribution for the area weighted mean of the indicator values using Bayesian updating of a uniform prior between 0 and 1, informed by the standard deviation (SD) of the indicator values in the national data set [Figure 2 C; Appendix C, line XXX]. We refer to this step as the first of two *aggregation* steps (Fig. S1). The resulting distributions are assumed to be normally distributed, and we therefore simply carried the mean and SD from the posterior distributions over to individual polygons in the ecosystem delineation map, for each HIA class separately. This step is referred to as *spreading* the data (Fig. S1). For each polygon we then sampled random numbers from a normal distribution with this same mean and SD. The number of m² dictated the number of samples for each polygon, thus ensuring that large polygons ended up counting more towards the indicator value in the given municipality. We then drew 1000 random values from this vector of possible indicator values and created a probability distribution for the indicators for each municipality (the second aggregation step; Fig. S1). When there were no indicator values for a given HIA class, we ignored that class also in the municipal estimate.

3. Results

3.1. Indicator validity and trends in Norway

The three indicators showed some association with the HIAs when we looked at data from all of Norway with 9026 individual mires. The indicators mostly showed a worsening of condition with increasing presence of human infrastructure (Figure 3). This relationship was much stronger for the indicator Trenching, and weakest for the indicator Alien species. Alien species also had the highest indicator values overall, with most mires having no alien species recorded. For Trenching, 57% of mires in HIA-3 had some trenches, whereas in HIA-0 this number was 10%.

187 *3.2. The three focal municipalities*

188 Only in Gran municipality was there a significant difference in the Trenching indicator between HIAs, with
189 HIA-2 having worse condition than HIA-1 (Figure 4). Conversely, the ADSV indicator in Gran showed worse
190 condition in HIA-1 compared to HIA-2. Nordre-Follo had considerably fewer data points compared to Gran,
191 and especially to Nord-Aurdal who had the most data points, and this paucity of data is reflected in the wide
192 credible intervals for all three indicators in Nordre Follo. The credible intervals are widest for the Trenching
193 indicator, and this is because the national data set showed more variation in the underlying variable 7GR-
194 GI compared to the other variables 1-5 (Table 1), and this information is informing the Bayesian updating
195 process (see Section 2). Besides Nordre Follo, which do not contain any HIA-0 areas (i.e. relatively wild
196 areas), the three municipalities had areas in all HIA classes. Yet, none of the three municipalities had survey
197 data from all HIAs. Therefore, when we transferred the mean and SD for each HIA (Figure 4) over to the
198 ecosystem delineation map (Figure 5), some mire polygons in the ecosystem delineation map did not get
199 assigned any data, and were therefore not included (i.e. did not have any influence on) in the following
200 aggregation to ecosystem accounting areas (EAA). At the municipality level (i.e. the EAA level) the three
201 municipalities show some differentiation. Nordre Follo had the highest (the best) indicator values for ADSV,
202 but the lowest for Trenching, which was also the only instance of an indicator crossing the threshold from
203 good to deteriorated condition (Figure 6; Table S1).

204 **4. Discussion**

205 **5. Conclusion**

206 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

207 **Anders L. Kolstad:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Software, Validation, Formal analysis, Data Cu-
208 ration, Writing - Original Draft, Visualization, Project administration, Funding acquisition. **Matthew**
209 **Grainger:** ... **Marianne Evju:** ...

210 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

211 **Acknowledgements**

212 Kwaku Peprah Adjei Hanno Sandvik

213 **Data availability**

214 This manuscript is written in Quarto, and the source file (Appendix B) also contains code for all the analyses
215 underlying this study, including data exploration and cleaning. For a rendered version of the source file, with
216 all code and calculation visible, see Appendix C. The source files and the data are also located on GitHub
217 (<https://github.com/anders-kolstad/HIAs>). The exception is the large nature type survey data which was
218 downloaded locally, but which is freely available (see [Norwegian Environment Agency \(2024\)](#)).

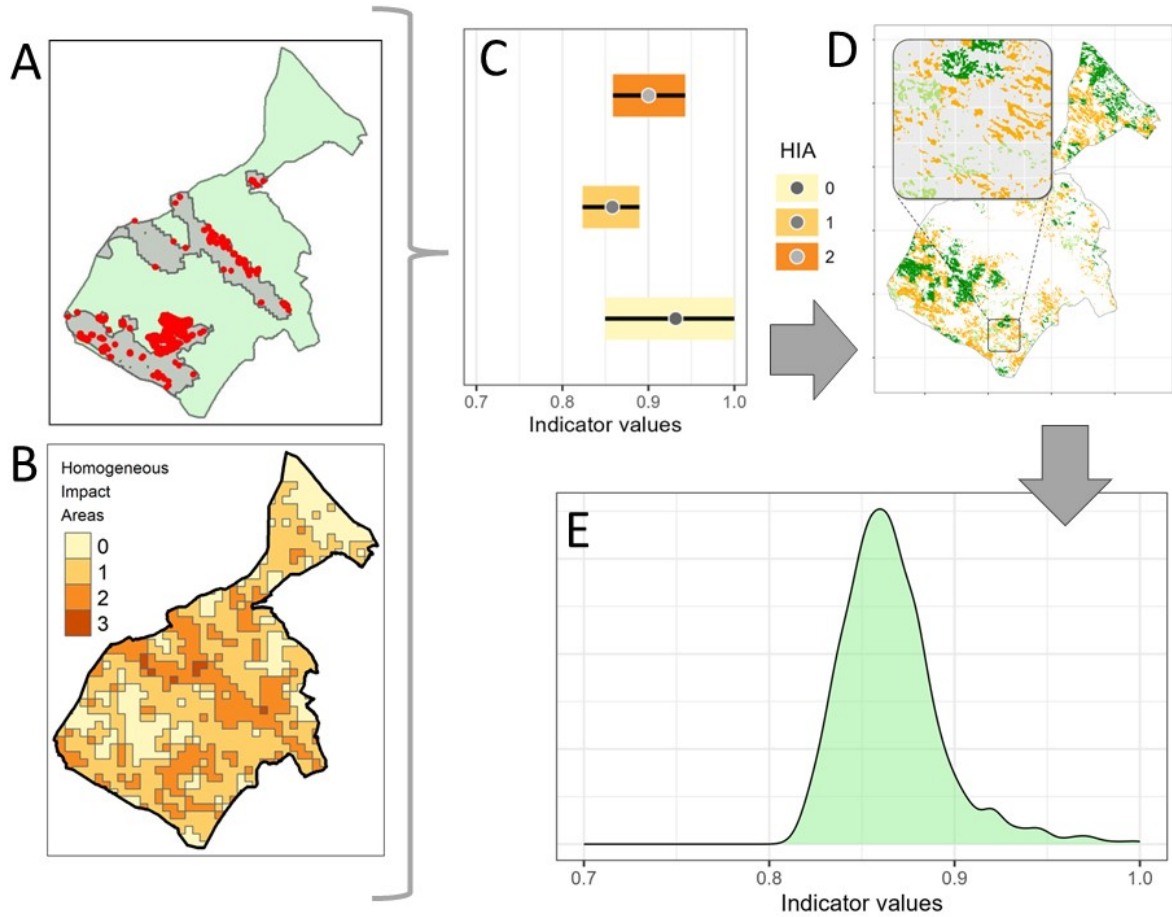


Figure 2: Simplified schematic showing the workflow (Figures A-E) for horizontal aggregation of a spatially biased ecosystem condition indicator. Figure A shows a spatially explicit indicator. The colors indicate different indicator values (highlighted in the inset). The outline is the ecosystem accounting area (EEA). Figure B shows the location of four homogeneous impact areas (HIAs) inside the EEA. The indicator values in Figure A are used, in combination with the HIA map in Figure B, to update a uniform prior and produce a posterior probability distribution for the mean indicator value for each HIA (Figure C; here simplified to only show the mean (circles) and 95% credible intervals (colored bands)). The Bayesian updating is informed by the standard deviation for the indicator in a much bigger national data set. Unlike an arithmetic approach, the width of the posterior distribution responds both to variation in the data and to the sample size, giving a reliable measure for the uncertainty around the indicator even with a single observation. The distributions in Figure C are assumed normally distributed. Note that because in this example there were no indicator data for HIA-3, indicator values are only aggregated for HIAs 0-2. In Figure D the mean and SD from the posterior distributions are transferred to individual polygons in an ecosystem delineation map, for each HIA separately. For each ecosystem occurrence (i.e. ecosystem assets) in Figure D, we draw one random value for each square meter of area from a normal distribution with the mean and SD that is associated with that polygon. In Figure E we randomly sample 1000 values from the entire vector of samples in the previous step, and we get an area weighted probability distribution for the mean indicator value for the EEA.

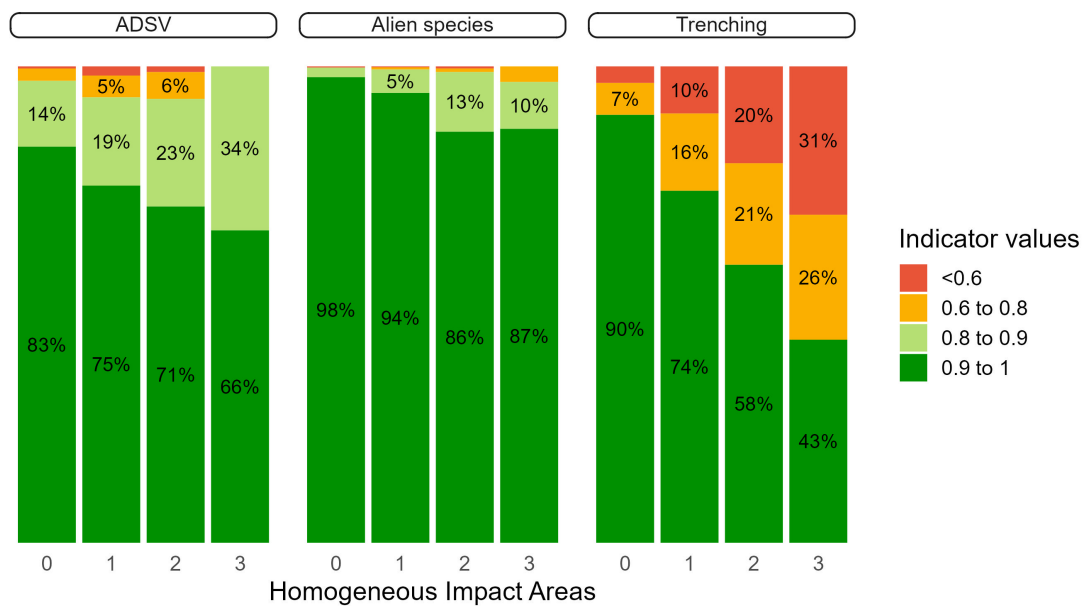


Figure 3: Proportion of localities with different indicator values for three ecosystem condition indicators along a gradient of infrastructure densities. The data is from a national vegetation type survey in Norway.

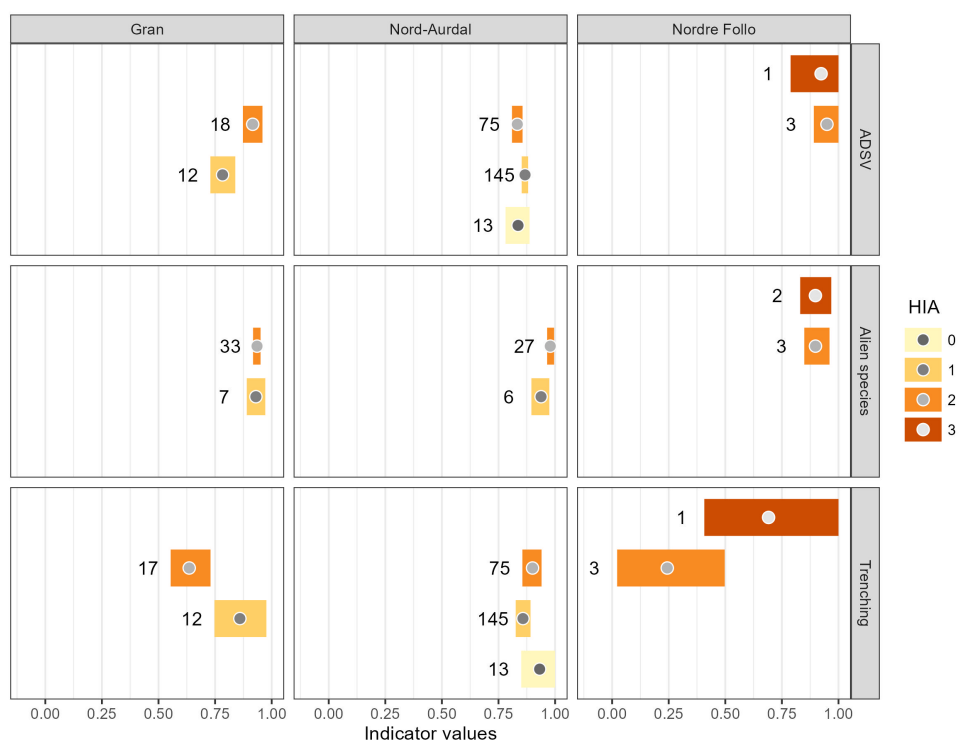


Figure 4: Indicator values (circles = mean; bars = 95% credible intervals) for three mire ecosystem condition indicators in three Norwegian municipalities. The indicator values are calculated uniquely for each Homogeneous Impact Area (HIA) in each municipality. The numbers to the left of each bar is the sample size, i.e. the number of surveyed mires.

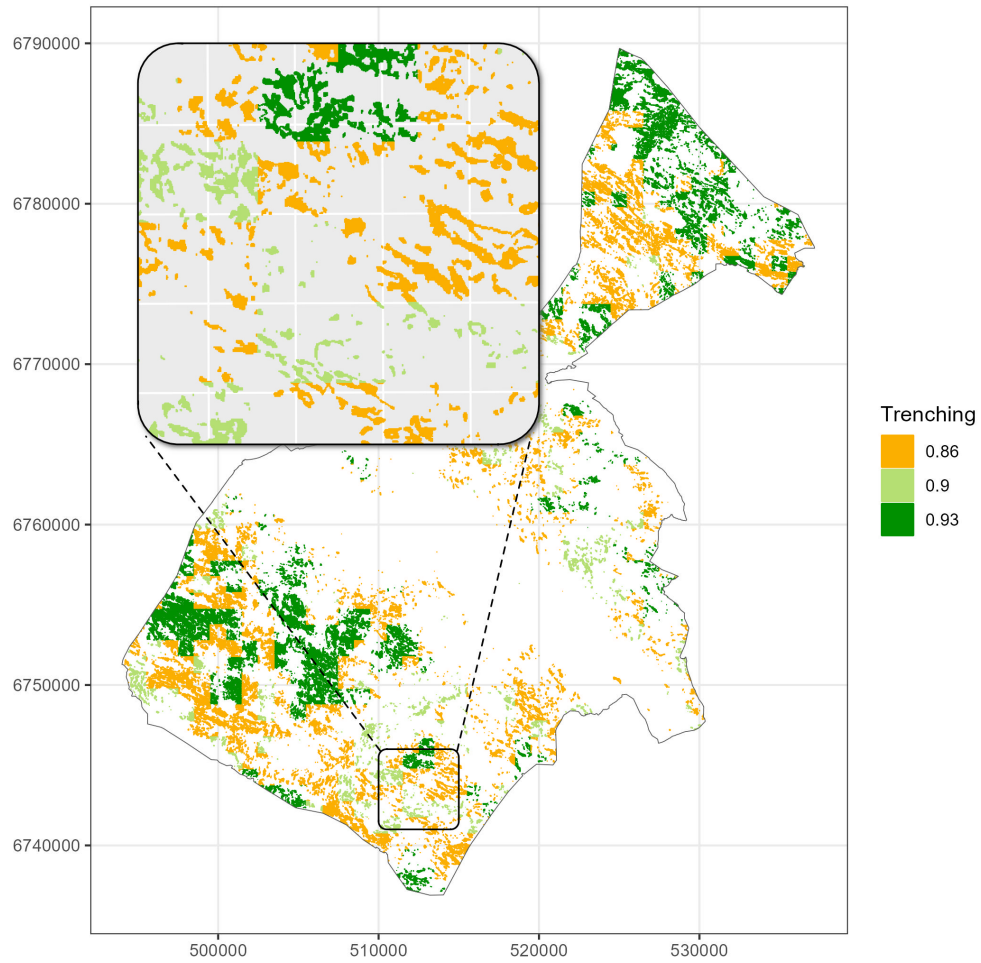


Figure 5: An indicator for mire trenching shown for Nord-Aurdal municipality. Individual mire polygons are colored by the mean indicator values for the homogenous impact area where it lies. Colors are chosen to best reflect categorical differences and exaggerates the absolute difference between areas. The inset it just a visual aid. Coordinate reference system is EPSG 25832. Axis are in meters.

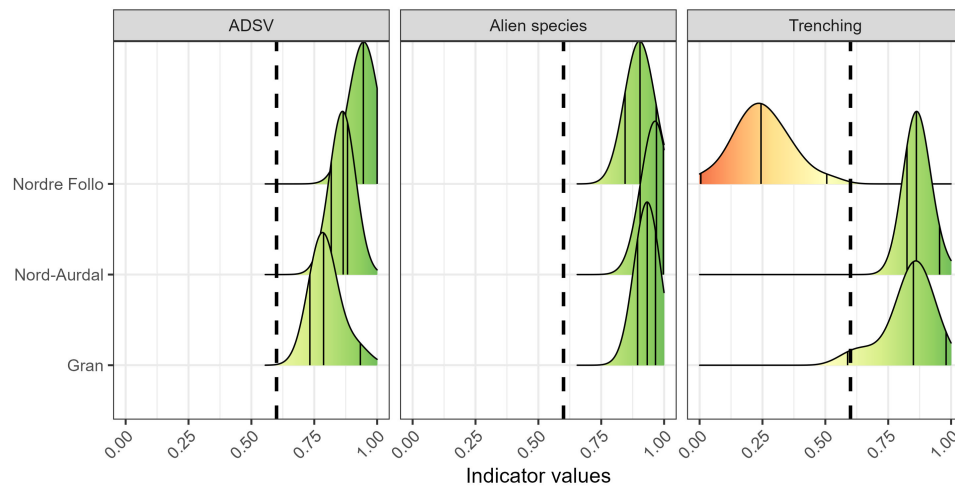


Figure 6: Distributions for three ecosystem condition indicators in the Norwegian municipalities. The color gradient reflects the value of the x-axis. The dotted vertical line represent the threshold for what is considered reduced ecosystem condition (< 0.6). Vertical lines under the density curves are 2.5%, 50% (the median) and 97.5% percentiles.

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