Chapter 6 – Stock and Flow Systems

6.1 Introduction

Ecological, geochemical and human processes can be described by following the flows of material or energy from one place or form to another. A "system" is any set of connected processes and quantities of resources. It can be as larger or as small as you want to set the boundaries around. Although some people use the term "systems approach" to be holistic and inclusive, our use of the word "systems view" specifies a set of intellectual tools that can be applied to any size set of processes and resources.

This text presents one specific definition of how to characterize an environmental problem as a system of stocks and flows. We will be using a limited list of characteristics of a system that can be used to describe many different structures and behaviors. Our constrained set of categories will help highlight the structural similarities and differences between different systems.

This "systems" approach is useful for simplifying problems, looking for significant processes and identifying controls. The approach can also be used to create simulations of future conditions and to communicate these to other people who are making decisions. Another of the benefits of this approach is that it clearly identifies the assumptions on which simulations are based. A good "systems" model is both a valuable research tool and a platform for communication and decision-making. Thus, carefully gathering information to construct a stock and flow description of an environmental problem is a good example of methodically collecting information that takes place in scientific research (Pielke 2007).

6.2 Model Components

There are five components that we will use to represent the structure and behavior of our chosen system: stocks, flows, information flows, convertors/constants and a source/sink. An icon represents each component. For example, look at the growth of a population of rabbits (see Figure 1).

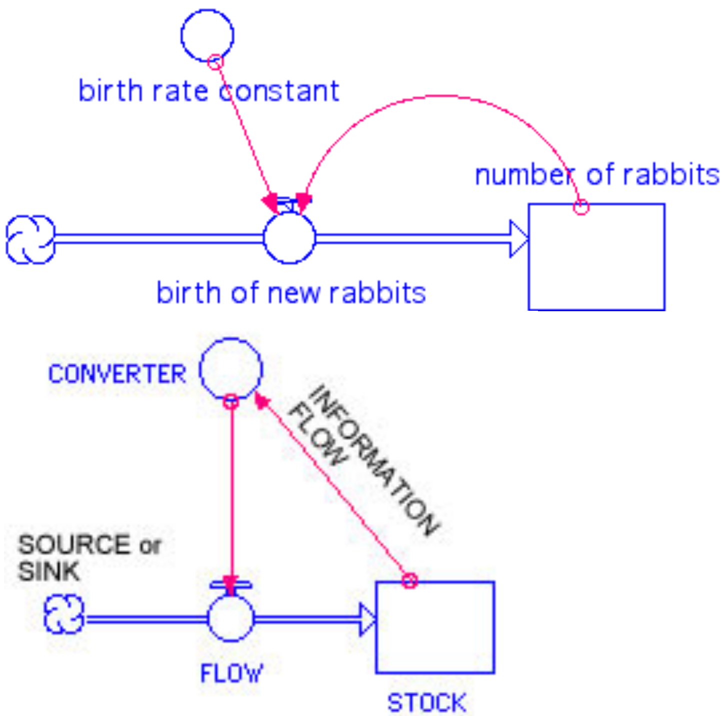


Figure 6-1. A simple systems diagram for the increase in a population of rabbits illustrates the five objects that we will use.

Stocks are a quantity of something. Water in a tank is a good example of a stock. Sometimes stocks are called reservoirs. All the stocks that are connected with flows will have the same units, that is all the stocks will be a quantity of water, or an amount of carbon, or the number of people, etc. In our example, the stock is the number of rabbits in the population. We represent this in a systems diagram with a box icon.

A **source or sink** is either has an unlimited, unchanging concentration or a reservoir that is outside the boundaries of the system that we are studying. In our example, the source of new matter that supports rabbit growth is not being considered. You can imagine another model where the amount of food available to the rabbit population limited the amount of new rabbits being born. In this case, we would probably model the system to include the nutrients as a stock rather than a source/sink. A source/sink is represented as a little cloud in our diagrams.

Flows connect stocks or source/sinks. The flow will increase any stock that it flows into or decrease a stock that it flows out of. All the flows that are connected to a stock will have the units of whatever the units of the stocks are per time. For example this could be liters of water per hour, tons of carbon per year, or in our example, rabbits per month.

When we have information that is needed in the model as a constant or we need to make a calculation, we show that as a "**converter/constant**". In our example, the growth rate constant for the rabbits was given as a constant. In the diagram, this is circle.

Information connectors illustrate the flow of information, not material, from other components to either flows or converters. Information cannot flow to a stock because the stocks can't do anything with that information. In the simplest form, an information flow simply notifies an action of the concentration of a stock, the rate of flow, or the value in a converter/constant. In our example, information flows brought in the values of the growth rate constant and the number of rabbits to the "birth of new rabbits" flow. The flow is calculated as the growth rate constant times the number of rabbits. The icon for this is a single line arrow.

These five components can be combined in flexible ways to describe the structure of different systems. An important value of this approach is that the structure of the model indicates particular types of behavior and the iconography helps visualize these structures. In our example of rabbit growth with unlimited resources (indicated by the source/sink tool), the population would grow exponentially. As there are more rabbits, the number of new rabbits per time period will get bigger, leading to an even higher population of rabbits, and so on. A mathematical model of this population growth would give the following pattern of growth shown in Figure 6-2 as population vs. time. (Of course the population can't continue to grow like this forever.)

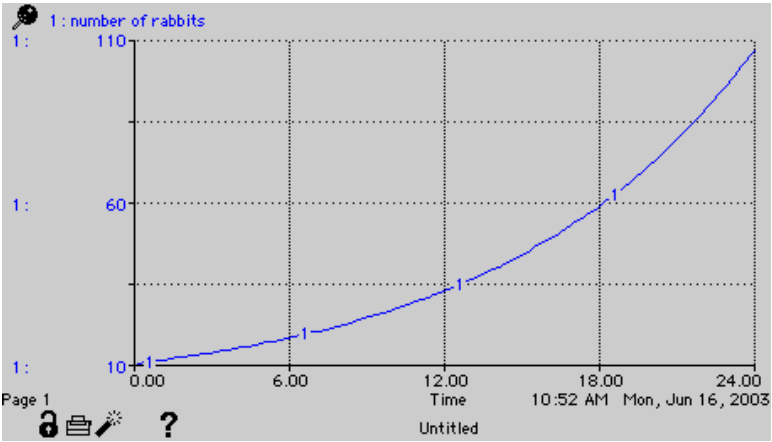


Figure 6-2. Rabbit population growth predicted from the model in Figure 1. The initial rabbit stock was set to 10 and the growth rate constant was set to 0.1 per month.

The structure and relationships in this particular model demonstrates "positive-feedback". As the stock increases, that increase positively affects that flow that is leading to that stock. Many biological systems have this structure and function as part of their overall regulation. Sometimes this is good, such as in the growth of food crops and forests, the more crops or forests the faster they grow. Sometimes this is a bad feature for humans such as the spread of a disease (the more infected people, the faster the disease will spread) or the growth of invasive species.

We will examine several "simple" structures that are very common. These simple structures can be combined in larger models to describe very complex and busy processes. For example, if we were to create a model for global warming it would have positive and negative feedback components, open and closed systems and steady state structures included making up the full model. These "simple" structures that we are starting with are like the sentences in a larger document. You might be able to understand the individual sentences but not understand the entire document, but it is very likely that if you don't at least understand the sentences, you won't understand the total document.

6.3 Model structures and behaviors

The following structures and behaviors can be found in many larger systems models. The analysis of a system should start with determining the extent or boundaries of the system as you plan to study it, and then look for smaller structures and then how these smaller units are related.

Boundaries of the system – The first step in studying or communicating information about a system is to explicitly define the boundaries and what flows in and out. A "closed system" is one in which there are no source/sink components. All the flows occur between stocks. Often the decision of whether or not a system is open or closed requires a judgment based on the significance of some of the smaller losses or gains and a decision on the time scale of your study. For example, you might model a forest as a closed system for nutrients ignoring the amounts of nitrogen that comes in from rain or lost through streams. The time scale question is apparent if, for example, you are studying the gain and loss of species in a city park but are ignoring evolution. The description and diagramming of a systems model should attempt to make these boundaries very clear.

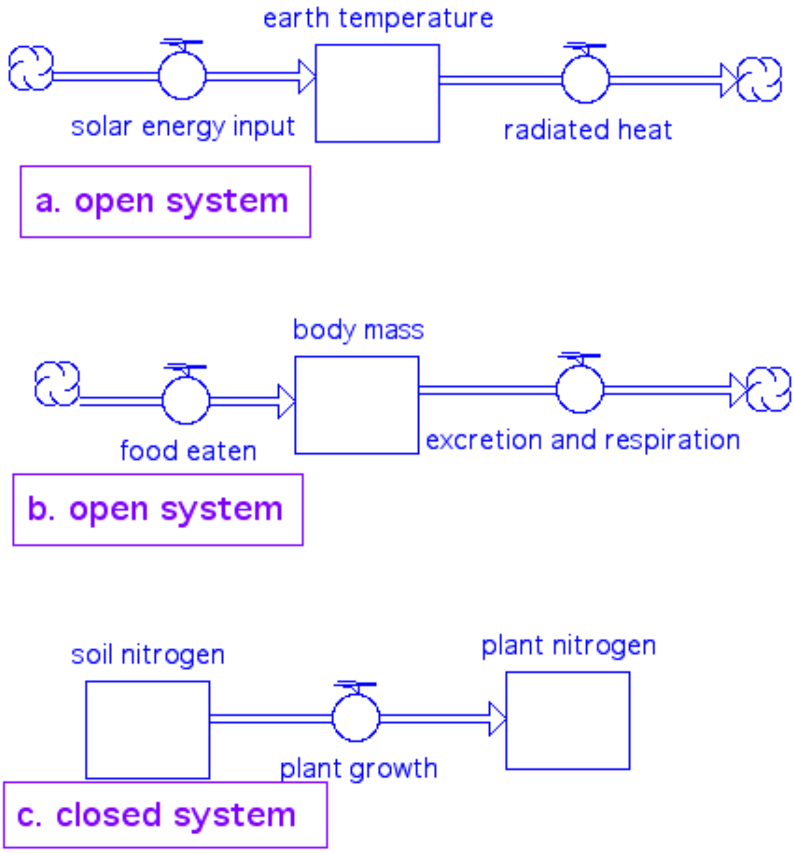


Figure 6-3: Several examples of open and closed systems. a and b are open, c is closed.

Positive and negative feedback - A stock that controls the flow into that stock can be described as having a negative or positive feedback. Sometimes we will talk about positive or negative feedback "loops" which are when stock A controls stock B which in turn eventually controls the flow into A. These feedback loops are crucial characteristics of systems control. Figure 1 was an example of a positive feedback and the example behavior given in Figure 2. Figure 4 shows a system that contains a negative feedback system with an example output.

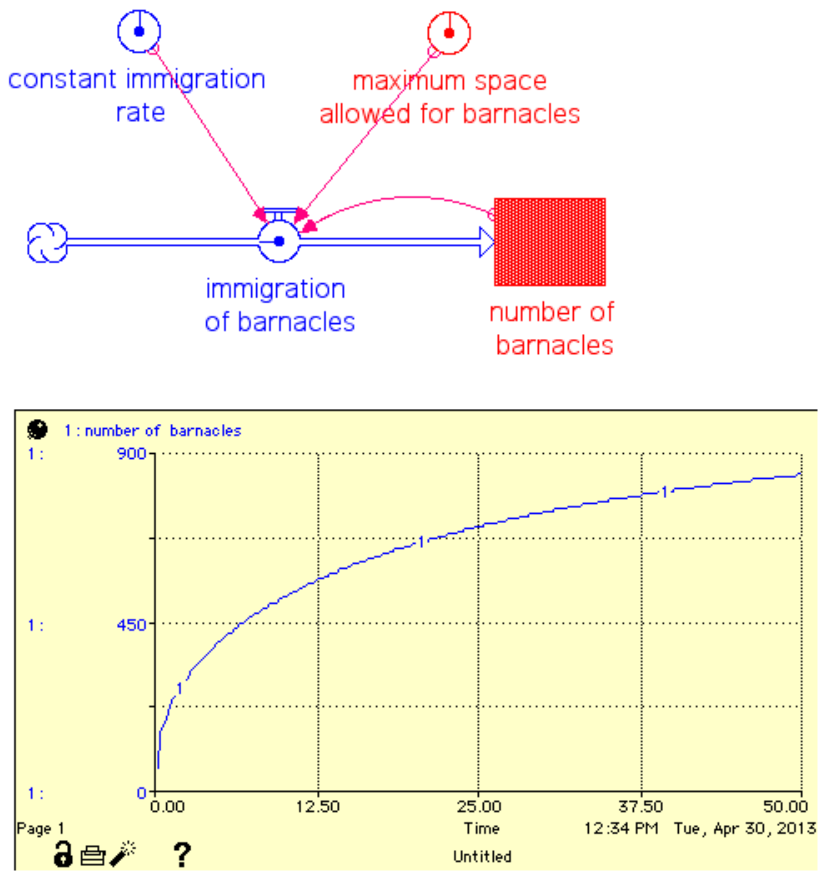
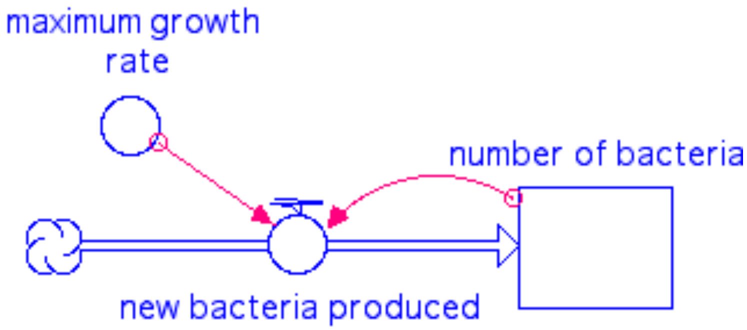
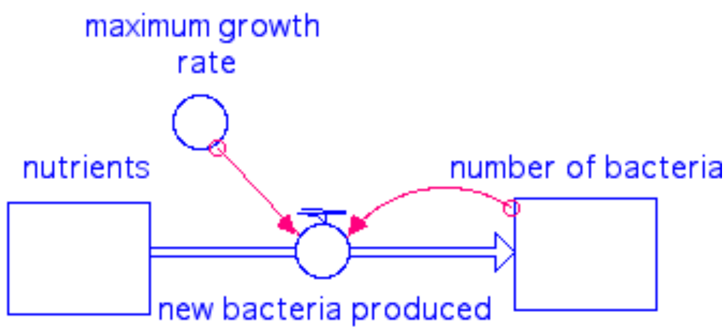


Figure 6-4. A system that contains a negative feedback control (shown in red, or slightly gray). The system wouldn't work without the other components. The number of barnacles continues to increase until it hits a maximum and then it levels off due to lack of any more space.

Stock limitation - One of the powerful applications of the systems approach is to examine the constraints over extended periods of time. Some of these are mitigated by feedback inhibition and others are exacerbated by positive feedback. Stock limitation is an absolute limitation on the amount of a stock that can flow to other stocks or an ultimate sink. Examples of stock limitation might be the seasonal availability of nitrogen in the soil, the space trees to grow, or the amount of fossil fuels available for human consumption. Figure 5 presents two variations on a model for bacterial growth, one with and one without stock limitation.



a.



b.

Figure 6-5. Stock limitation model for bacterial growth. The stock is the amount of nutrients in the container. In model "a" there is no limiting stock, in model "b" when the limiting stock runs out, the new bacteria production rate is forced to stop.

Steady state - The inflows to and outflows from a stock can create a situation where steady state is possible. If the sum of all the inputs is equal to the sum of all the outputs then the value of the stock will not change with time. A slight increase of the input or a slight decrease of the output rate can lead to an increasing stock. Figure 6 illustrates a familiar example that relates to body weight. Other examples of steady state conditions are the CO2 concentration in the atmosphere (currently not in steady state), use and replenishment of natural capital, or the human population at zero population growth.

The conditions that lead to steady state are important to understand because the steady state may be the consequence of a very slow input and very slow output, in which case not much will ever happen very quickly. Conversely, the steady state could be a very tenuous balance between rapid input and output. With rapid fluxes, slight disturbance in one rate could have dramatic consequences. A good example of this delicate balance is a pond in which a large amount of algae growth is growing and contributing oxygen to the water, but then with a slight change in temperature the large amount of algae turn from a net oxygen producer to a net oxygen consumer. These ponds crash into a scummy mass very quickly and start to stink. Simpler natural systems may be controlled by just a few rapid fluxes and when one of these processes changes those natural systems can flip to a whole new behavior. We will also examine the stability, instability and resilience of these environments in Chapter 7 using the tools of the network view.

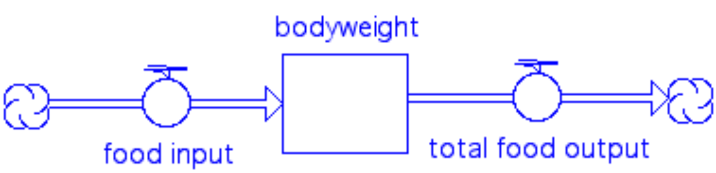


Figure 6-6. An example of a familiar steady state problem. If the input equals the output for a stock, the stock will remain constant with time, no matter how fast the input and output are. If the input exceeds the output, then the stock will increase. In this case food input is in terms of the weight of all food eaten and the food output is the weight of all excretion of waste, including the CO2 exhaled. The variable part of the bodyweight is “food storage” that is probably fat.

6.4 Simple and busy models

We have shown several "simple" models above. These models have a few components or strings of components and all the units for stocks and flows are related. There are other simple models that might contain two parallel paths to represent different forms of materials or energy. For example modeling energy and nitrogen in an ecosystem requires two sub-models; one for nitrogen and one for energy that are linked by information connectors. These should be treated as two simple models that have some interacting control points.

The point of using the systems view is to take a complex set of processes and try to simplify it to just a few components that describe the control over the behavior. Then this model of the system can be used to make predictions about different controls or perturbations.

Several examples of simple and slightly busy models are given below. A “busy” model contains several “simple” models joined together. For each of these examples an analysis is provided that serves to demonstrate how you can use this to understand environmental problems.

Example 1: Changes in human population in a country.

The current population plus additions from births or immigration and minus losses from death or emigration determines the new population level. If the birth rate is higher than the death rate even by a little bit, the population can experience an exponential growth rate. In many countries, industrialization has lead to a decreased death rate followed by a decreased birth rate. The overall side effect of industrialization on the population has been to stabilize of population size. Some countries however, are stalled at a level of industrial development that has resulted in a decrease in the death rate but left the birth rate high. These countries are experiencing rapid population growth rates.

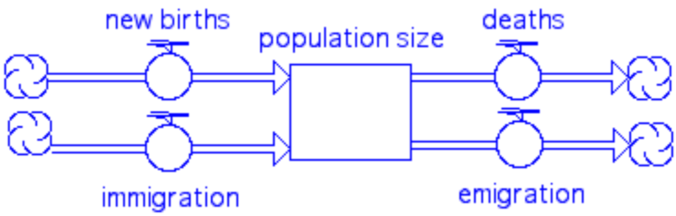


Figure 6-7. Population change. The population increases from birth or immigration and decreases due to emigration or death.

Analysis - The population is the only stock in this system. All of the inputs and exports are out of the system, which only means they are not being studied in this model, not that they aren't important. The population is a possible steady state situation. Notice that this version of the model has left out the control of births or deaths by the population size itself. (See Figure 1 for how it should be written.) This diagram illustrates clearly that we need to understand the relative rates of all of these processes to predict what will happen with this population.

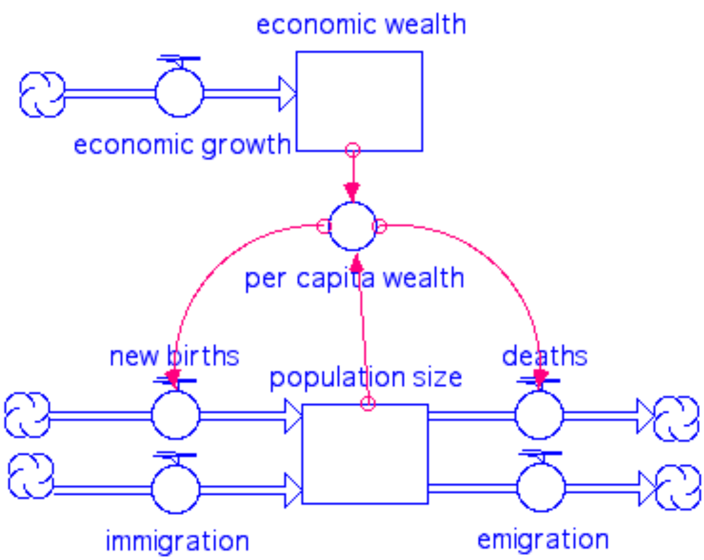


Figure 6-8. Busier model of population change. Economic growth in a country (which can be the result of industrialization) creates wealth. The economic wealth per capita is the total economic wealth divided by the population at any

time. In models of population growth, a decrease in death rate is correlated to an initial increase in per capita wealth. If the economic wealth per capita continues to increase, families may choose to have smaller families and thus decrease the birth rate. Note that the structure of this model makes it clear that we are assuming that increased per capita wealth will have some impact on the birth and death rate.

Analysis: This model contains two simple models that are connected through the "per capita wealth" convertor. Economic growth will increase the per capita wealth and increases in population will decrease the per capita wealth. This model illustrates that if the economy grows more slowly than the population, it may result in higher per capita wealth and then in a decreased birth rate. This may lead to a slowing of the birth rate to allow a steady state population. However, if the economy grows just enough to decrease the death rate but the per capita wealth doesn't increase after that point, the population will continue to grow exponentially. This relationship between population and economic conditions is the basis for studying demographic transitions that occur. In Northern Europe, the United States and Japan, for example, the industrialization and economic growth has lead to what is called the classical demographic transition. We will revisit the systems description of demographic transitions when we study how different worldviews treat the risks of population growth and forecasts for economic growth (Chapter 11). The systems analysis of this problem can be combined with other frameworks to provide further help in describing and making decisions.

Example 2: Global warming and CO2 in the atmosphere.

Global temperatures and the CO2 in the atmosphere are linked at multiple layers. The "busy" model diagram below shows how several simple models are linked.

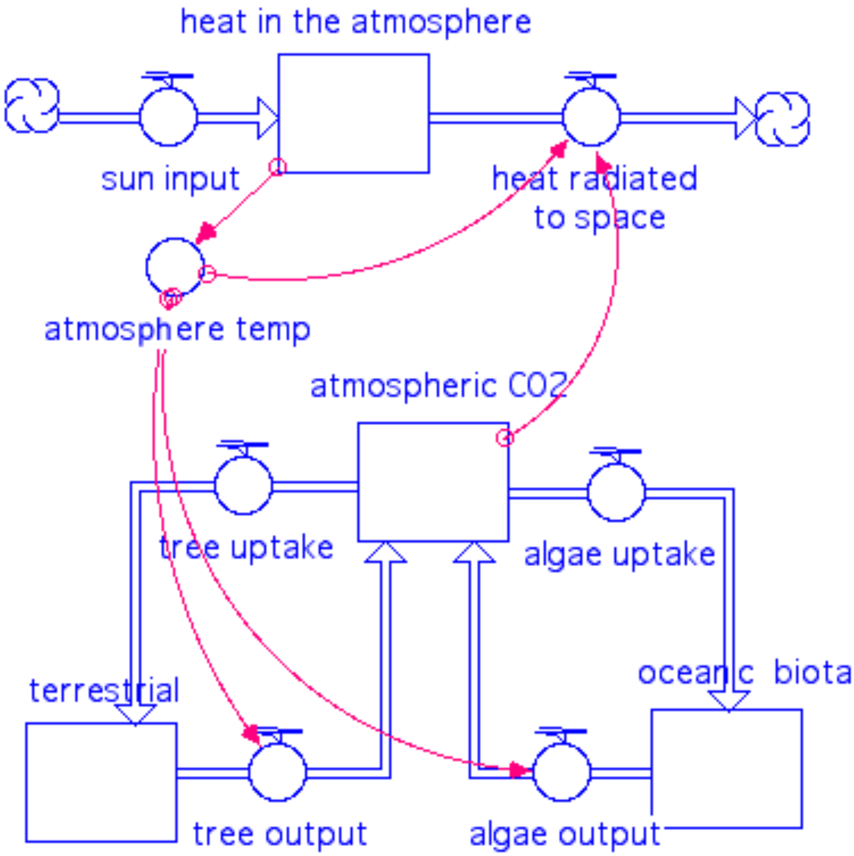


Figure 6-9. A busy model of atmospheric temperature and the geochemical cycle for carbon. The analysis, below, identifies the simple model parts and the linkages between these sub-models.

Analysis: This model is missing many important stocks and flows. Even with this deficit, it is useful to analyze the structure and potential behavior of the model.

The top part of the model shows that the atmosphere could potentially be in steady state for heat energy. The sun energy comes in and the heat is radiated back out. The amount of CO2 in the atmosphere makes the net efficiency of irradiation back into space less efficient, requiring a slightly higher atmospheric temperature to reach a steady state for the energy (heat) in the atmosphere. This is called the "greenhouse effect".

The bottom part of the model shows two major fates for CO2 from the atmosphere, either going into ocean or terrestrial biomass. In this version, the only controls that are shown are the increase in respiration rates of the terrestrial and oceanic plants from higher temperature. Notice that the top part of the model is tracking energy and the bottom part of the model is tracking carbon. There are no flows between these two halves, only an information connection and converter. The linkage of these two sub-models leads to a potentially very important behavior, run-away positive feedback of the temperature. The scenario for that outcome is as follows:

1. the atmospheric temperature increases,
2. which increases respiration from terrestrial and aquatic biota,
3. which leads a higher steady state of CO_2 in the atmosphere
4. which, in turn, leads to higher temperature
5. and it continues

These two examples illustrate how the systems view is valuable. Example 1 shows how to take a simple model and combine it with another simple model to study the potential interactions between processes. Example 2 shows how to dissect a model into the simple sub-models, analyze them and then put these all back together to study the overall behavior and look for potential problems.

6.5 Starting Steps

1. Identify what material or energy is being moved.
2. Identify what the reservoirs are and how material or energy moves between these reservoirs, i.e. the flows.
3. Draw a boundary around the system you are studying: what stocks and flows are you quantifying and what is outside. If there are flows in or out of your target system, then these must be represented by sources or sinks, respectively.
4. Create a diagram that shows the major reservoir stocks, flows, sources and sinks using the iconography supplied above.
5. Are there any conditions (such as temperature) or derived quantities (such as flow per person) that might be controlling a flow? If so, create a converter or constant to represent this relationship.
6. Make linkages from stocks to flow-regulators, from one flow to another flow, and from convertors to flows.

7. Check the diagram to see that all flows represent movement per unit time of whatever is in the stocks.
8. Examine the diagram for the regulatory components within a flow such as feedback inhibition (negative feedback), feedback acceleration (positive feedback), stock-limited flow.
9. Examine the diagram for relationships between the flow of different material or energy (such as use of natural capital vs. the rate of population growth).

6.6 Overlaps and conflicts with other tools

Term in "Systems"	other viewer/term	similarities and differences
boundary	scale/extent	Everything outside the boundary of the system is either neglected or is an unlimited source or sink. In the Scale viewer, extent relates to the size of the largest dimension considered, the word doesn't imply any process or specific border.
stock	network/node	A stock must be something measurable that can be moved through a flow. In the network view, a node can be a quality that changes depending on input links.

flow	network/link	A flow must be the movement of material or energy per unit time and whatever is flowing has to be the same as the stock at either end. A link identifies a relationship between nodes. It can be a quantity of material moved but it doesn't have to be a quantity.
stability	network/stability, resilience and resistance	Systems models can reach steady state that has some stability due to some form of negative feedback that keeps it at a level or in some range. The type of systems model that we are using doesn't have a mechanism to change its own structure. A network diagram that has many weak interactions can shift the operational structure and show how a large number of weak interactions or the combination of fast and slow processes can lead to the resilience or loss of resilience of the network.

6.7 Extending analysis to the next levels

An important extension of the use of systems models is to create simulations that demonstrate overall system behavior given certain input conditions and constants. We will look at the components of the system, such as positive or negative feedback to look for very general system behavior. There are software applications that are useful for turning these systems diagrams into mathematical dynamic models (the diagrams and charts in this page were generated with STELLA from High Performance Systems, http://www.hps-inc.com). See the appendicies for this book to see simulations that were written in STELLA and simulations made available on the web (through Forio.com). In these simulations only the parameter values can be changed, not the structure of the model itself. But these simulations are very useful for illustrating the types of predictions and uses for simulations.

Simulations of this type are extremely useful in modern decision-making. For example, the Northwest Power Council created a complicated and very busy model that contained information on fish, dams, river flows and electricity. This model could be run under different conditions and demands for energy to show which parameters affect fish survival most. They were able to show the model to people who work in this arena of fish and rivers to see if the model behaves in a way they think it should; does it show low fish years when expected or high fish years following particular events? The simulation model and the accessible interface were powerful tools in addressing problems and getting people to learn about complicated social, economic and ecological issues.

6.8 Developing a simplified Systems model of sustainable resource use

Many people subscribe to the idea that a sustainable resource is one in which you reach a steady state because you don't use the resource faster than it is being created. Whether or not this is required for all resources to attain a sustainable society is a very interesting question. It maybe that you can have some resources decrease and be replaced by other resources. There are different definitions of overall sustainability that address whether the entire ensemble of capital types has to be stable or whether substitutions can be made.

We will focus here on the sustainable use of a single resource. For example, you would harvest the wood at the same rate as new trees were growing to replace what you took.

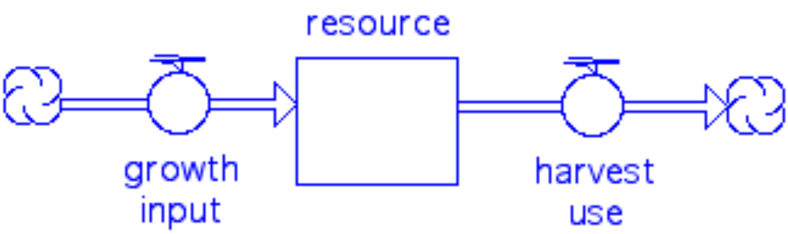


Figure 6-10. The starting assumptions for a model of sustainable natural resources are that input comes from growth and output goes to harvest. There are no other inputs or fates being considered.

If this resource is based in natural (biological) capital the growth rate will often depend on the amount of the stock. For example healthy fish populations grow faster with more fish and trees will grow better in a healthy forest with lots of other trees to provide protection and a suitable micro-climate. Although it isn't always the case, let's model the natural resource as having a positive relationship to the growth of new resource.

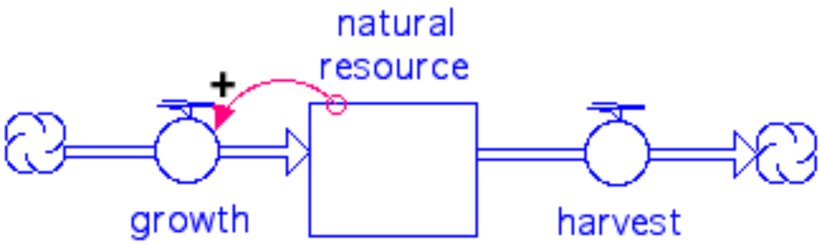


Figure 6-11. In a simple sustainable harvest model, the natural resource has a positive feedback on the growth of that resource. This holds within the region of healthy, and not over-abundant resource.

When we harvest the resource, we might just be removing the fish or trees, but we can also be degrading the environment that the fish or trees need to grow. For example, driving bulldozers around on the soil and channelizing streams in steep watersheds has a negative effect on forest health. Similarly, some fishing methods disrupt the breeding areas for fish. Thus the harvest has a direct take of the resource but it can also degrade the conditions leading to a decrease in the growth rate. Notice in this case that a negative effect on conditions is passed through to impact growth because there is a positive relationship between conditions and growth: worse conditions lead to lower growth.

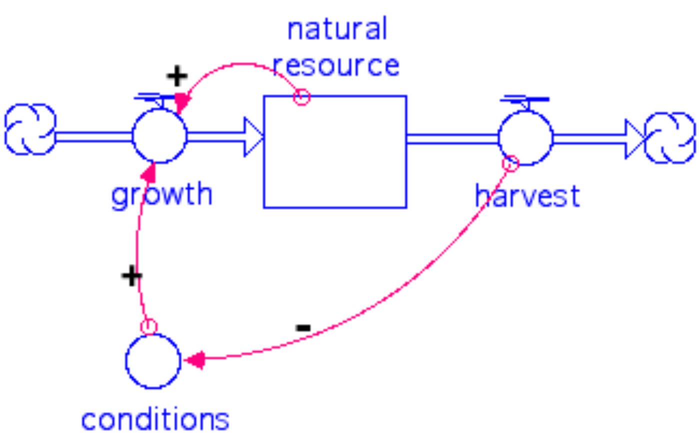


Figure 6-12. The mechanisms of harvest can have a negative effect on the conditions for growth. Overharvest can damage the microenvironment necessary for optimal growth.

Another important issue with natural resource management is the impact of bad (or good) luck. What if you were managing a forest that had an average growth rate but there was a single drought year that decreased the input to the resource by 50% just for that year? If you had a harvest plan that was even just 5% more than the actual maximum yield you could harvest, it would lead to a decrease in the population that would never recover (assuming you don't stop harvesting after you see the population start to crash).

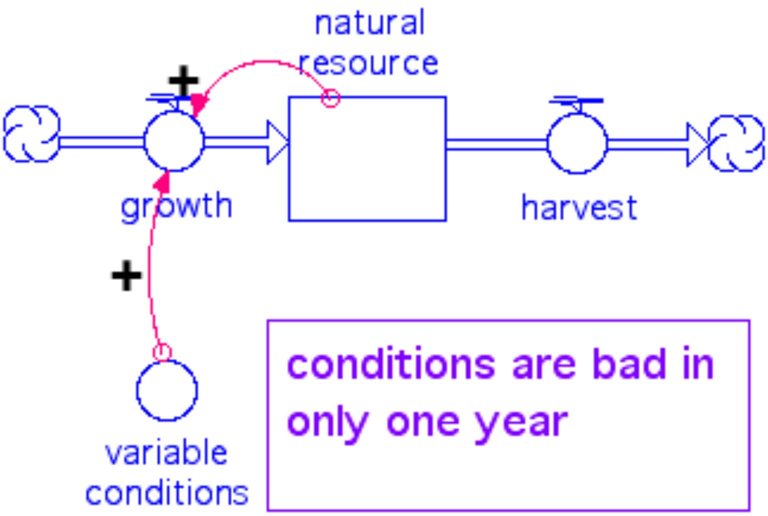


Figure 6-13. Conditions might also vary with time, such as a year of drought or unhealthy water.

The effect of one bad year (only 50% output) and an underestimate of true maximum yield by only 5%. In 100 years you're down to less than 1/3 of your starting natural capital.

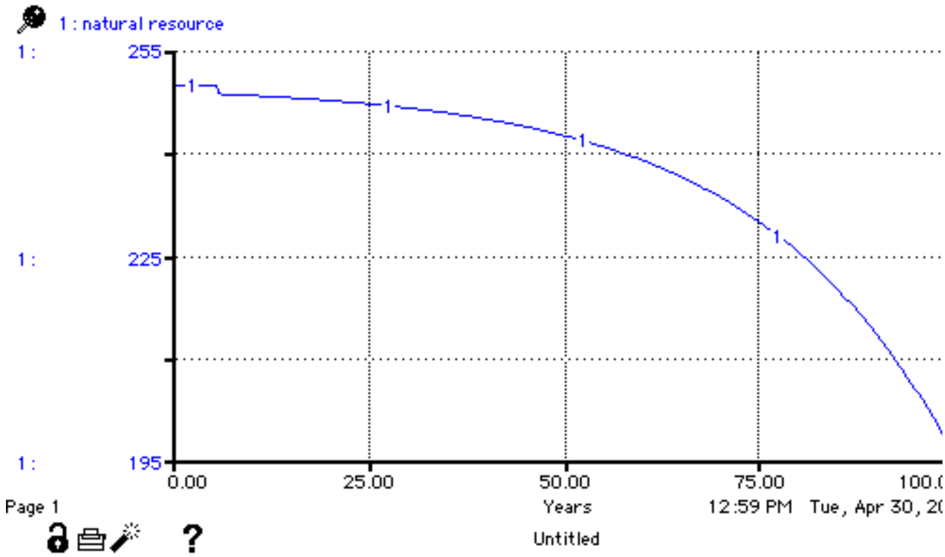


Figure 6-14. With just one bad year, holding to the previous "maximum sustainable yield" will eventually cause the collapse of this resource.

Using this simple model of natural capital and sustainability illustrates that there are at least three ways to destroy the sustainability of your natural capital

a. simple overharvest, but this may be because you didn't have good estimates for the maximum yield

b. indirect effects from either harvest methods or use

c. risk of being too close to the maximum yield, one bad year and the resource declines dramatically

6.9 Case Study: Population and Environment of Easter Island, Rapa Nui

Easter Island (also known as Rapa Nui) is a small island in the middle of a very large ocean. The area of the island is only 166 km^2 (64 mi^2) and it is 2250 km from the nearest other island (Pitcairn Island) and over 3700 km from South America, the nearest continent. You have undoubtedly heard something about this fascinating island related to speculations on what caused the population to crash. In fact, you've probably heard more about this island because of this failure to be sustainable than you've heard about any of the myriad of other islands in the South Pacific.

At one time in the history of this island, the society had fairly sophisticated culture and technology. The cultural history describes a well-developed hierarchy with laws and written script. The evidence of the technology was their ability to move the large stone statues, which the island is most known for, for long distances. They moved carved stone sculptures that weighed up to 82 tons as far as six miles (10 km). The islanders cultivated a large part of the island with multiple crops. Estimates of the maximum population on the island ranged from 7,000 to as high as 20,000. And yet the population and civilization must have crashed. When European boats first recorded their interaction with the island (in the 1700s) the population was only several thousand, and these people were leading a tough life in an impoverished and desolate environment.

You can see from just the outlines of this story why the island's history has always been so intriguing. Now with our interest in sustainable systems, it is important to attempt an understanding. There are parallels between their tiny island and our planet. Once the environment started to decay and subsequent crash of population and society, these islanders had no place to go. Sustainability isn't just about maintaining a mere subsistence life style, it's also about continuing to develop the culture and have a healthy physical existence.

In this case study, we are going to examine the population, agriculture and land use practices that were employed on Easter Island from about 400 AD to about 1700 AD. We are going to analyze the very gradual depletion of the natural capital on Easter Island using a "systems" approach.

References to studies of the fate of Easter Island

A more complete story can be found at the following sources:

- Wikipedia: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Easter_Island
- Discover Magazine: Jared Diamond. “Easter’s end.” Discover magazine, August 1995. 16(8): 62-69.
- TED talks such as: http://www.ted.com/talks/lang/eng/jared_diamond_on_why_societies_collapse.html
- http://blog.ted.com/2008/10/27/why_do_societies_collapse/
- Diamond, J. (2005). Collapse: How societies choose to fail or succeed. New York, Viking.

Salient features

The story of Easter Island has particular features that make it amenable to examination with a systems approach. First, it is very similar to the systems model for sustainability that we developed in Figure 12 and 13; there are suggestions of growth, harvest, and bad luck. Second, at any time the processes seem to be close to being in balance; it is only by looking at the long term effect of these do we see the impact of a slight over harvest or a previous year of bad luck. Third, the description contains some simple models that could be tied together to get an integrated picture; there is population growth, harvest of trees, soil moisture, agriculture and fishing. These processes are related, but not directly.

Applying the systems tool

We are going to put separate small models together and to examine how these individual processes counter or reinforce each other. This is an oversimplified model in which will only consider three stocks: the number of people, palm trees, and rats.

The number of people is the balance between birth and death rates. As there are more people, there will be more births, i.e. the population growth has a positive feedback component. The number of deaths may depend on many other factors including natural causes, famine, and disease. A simple model diagram for this is given below.

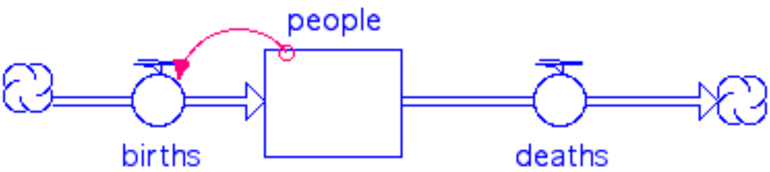


Figure 6-15. Human population sub-model showing positive feedback for births but a constant death rate.

The number of trees is also a balance between the number of palm nuts that germinate and grow, and the cutting down of the trees.

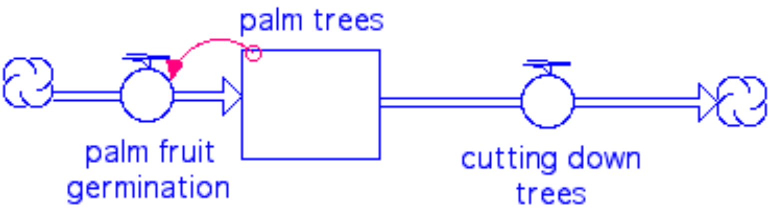


Figure 6-016. Palm tree sub-model also have positive feedback for growth and constant loss.

The third strand in our model will be the rat population. People brought rodents to the island. These rats play a key role in this problem. People eat the rats and the rats eat the palm fruit, decreasing the tree population. Their population is just like the others, there is positive feedback for rat births and several factors controlling death.

Now we are going to connect these three stocks and flows models with factors that affect either the birth or death rates. The following list details these interactions.

1. Rats have a positive effect on people births because this is a source of food for people. The birth rate of people will increase with more rats (and the birth rate will decrease if rats are low).

2. Rats have a negative effect on human death. The death rate of people will increase if rats are too low.

3. People have a positive effect on the harvesting of trees. More people cut down more trees because they need them for fishing and to cultivate land for crops.

4. Rats have a negative effect on the rate of palm fruit germination. The number of rats decreases the percentage of new palm seeds that germinate successfully because the rats chew on the seeds.

5. Palm trees have a positive effect on rat births, because the rats eat the palm fruit.

We could add more detail to this model, but even with only these five interactions this turns out to be a very interesting and instructive model. Looking at the model diagram, below, you can see that there are many positive feedbacks and only a few negative feedbacks.

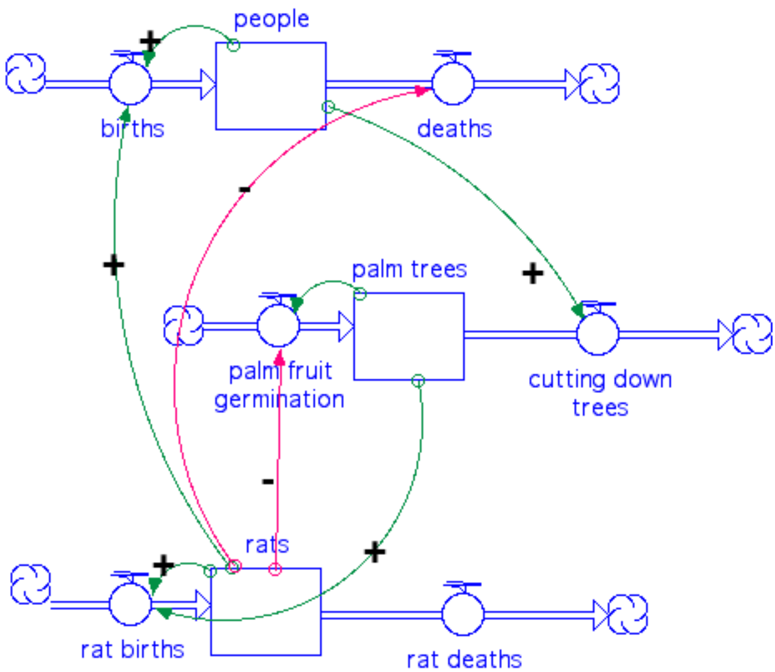


Figure 6-17. The rat submodel interacts with both humans and trees.

According to the historical record, as the human population grew, people cut more and more trees. They needed these trees for making boats for fishing and they needed more and more land for cultivation. Over harvesting trees, just on its own would have been a problem for them, but this was exacerbated by the fact that they also ate rats, and rats depended on the trees for food. As the human population continued to grow, they cut enough trees such that they ran out of trees to use for fishing. Simultaneously, with fewer trees they not only couldn't fish effectively but the other food source, rats, declined.

The model built here only represents a few of the interactions that have been described. By putting these into a systems diagram, we can explore the possible behaviors of the individual populations and their effect on each other. It is possible that the population could have also reached a balance. There is nothing inherent in the structure of these relationships that makes it crash. However, the balance comes about because all of the relatively rapid rates of all the processes are cancelling each other out, but a minor imbalance in the rates can lead to abrupt changes in the whole system.

Some narratives of Easter Island decline blame the population for their resource use strategies. For example in the book "Collapse" (2005), Jared Diamond wonders what the person who cut down the last palm tree was thinking. Even this simple model shows that there were multiple factors in play and the path toward a downward spiral of trees could have been set in motion when there were still many trees. This should be a cautionary tale for working with real and complex systems, i.e. the controls may have delays and multiple factors that make them very difficult for a person in the ecosystem and society to observe. It's not just a matter of taking the right action for the moment, but also being able to understand the more complex interactions and consequences of our actions.

6.10 Summary

Methodically constructing a stock and flow model to represent the processes related to an environmental problem supports good practice for scientific information gathering. The constraints on the quantities that are being measured and followed forces the clarification of assumptions. The structure of the model can be visualized with iconography that illuminates the relationship to particular functions of the overall system such as feedbacks, stock limitation and possible steady state conditions. The basic assumptions for using a natural resource sustainably can be explored using this approach. The goal of sustainable use would be to have the input match the output and maintain a steady state for the resource. Positive feedback works to replenish the stock, but this is a double-edged sword, just one bad year can lead to an eventual collapse unless the harvest is decreased.

Analysis of these models involves taking apart each stock and flow and explaining how that part contributes to the overall behavior of the system. This is a very useful exercise for construction of the model and for communication about the important features of a problem.

As models become busier they often require sub-models for different stocks. The example of Easter Island demonstrated hypothetical relationships between the stocks of palm trees, people and rats. At high human populations, this system was not resilient to changes and might explain the decline of the resource base.

