

1 **ON “GREEN NATIONAL PRODUCT”: THEORIES AND A COMPARISON**
2 **AMONG DIFFERENT APPROACHES**

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14
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32 **Summary**

33
34 A theoretically “ideal” measure of green Net National Product (green NNP) is derived by finding
35 the Hamiltonian of a dynamic equation which maximizes the utility of a representative consumer. A
36 “sustainable” model of production is derived by limiting production to a level which keeps the
37 quality and quantity of natural resources intact. It is shown that the “ideal” measure is the sum of
38 the NNP under the sustainable mode and the “net benefits” from deviating from that mode. It is also
39 shown that this ideal measure differs from the conventional NNP in that it includes the total
40 post-defense direct service of the environment to consumers, and excludes the economic

1 depreciation of environmental quality, the economic depreciation of renewable resources, and
2 consumers' defensive spending (because it is a cost borne by the consumers in order to have access
3 to the post-defense environmental services). It is further shown that while all previously developed
4 concepts of green accounting reviewed in this paper have their merits, the "damaged-adjusted net
5 national income" developed by the London Group is closest to our ideal measure, followed by the
6 ENRAP (Environmental and Natural Resources Accounting Project) approach, and further followed
7 by the SEEA (System of Integrated Environmental and Economic Accounting)'s Environmentally
8 adjusted Domestic Product II or EDPII, to which the London Group's "cost-based net national
9 income" is similar.

11 **1. Introduction**

12
13 Adjustments of conventional national product measures to reflect changes in the value of
14 environmental assets, popularly known as green accounting, have gained considerable attention in
15 recent years. In the United States, intensive work on environmental accounting began in the Bureau
16 of Economic Analysis (BEA) of the U.S. Department of Commerce in 1992. Shortly after the first
17 publication of the U.S. Integrated Environmental and Economic Satellite Accounts (IEESA) in 1994,
18 however, Congress directed the Commerce Department to suspend further work in this area and to
19 obtain an external review of environmental accounting. A panel was then organized by the National
20 Research Council and charged to do the work. The findings of the panel were recently released and
21 published as the report *Nature's Numbers*.

22
23 There the panel concludes that "extending the U.S. national income and product accounts to include
24 assets and production activities associated with natural resources and the environment is an
25 important goal; and that developing a set of comprehensive non-market economic accounts is a high
26 priority for the nation." The panel explicitly recommends that the "Congress authorize and fund
27 Bureau of Economic Affairs of the Department of Commerce to recommence its work on
28 developing natural-resource and environmental accounts." Elsewhere the work continued without
29 pause in many countries.

30
31 Given the growing importance of green accounting, there are unfortunately still doubts around it
32 both theoretically and empirically. This note attempts to clarify some of concepts concerning the
33 treatment of important variables including defensive spending, direct services of the environment,
34 and depreciation, in the process of constructing the green national product. It will do so by
35 comparing the United Nations' SEEA (System of Integrated Environmental and Economic
36 Accounting) and the Philippine ENRAP (Environmental and Natural Resources Accounting Project)
37 framework (closely associated with Professor Henry Peskin) with a theoretically ideal measure of
38 national product, involving an extension of the work by Kirk Hamilton of the World Bank.

39
40 The theoretically ideal measure constructed in this paper uses a dynamic theoretical model based on

1 optimization out into the future. It fits into the neoclassical economic growth tradition, in which
2 produced capital is considered substitutable with natural resources (according to the so-called
3 “weak” or “broad” sustainability criterion). This line of research in the context of national
4 accounting goes back to the 1976 paper of Martin Weitzman, who showed that the present value of
5 future consumption would be maximized by maximizing in each period the “national product” as
6 conventionally defined, if the economy is on the dynamically optimal path *and* all contributing
7 elements to growth are appropriately accounted for. Robert Solow subsequently showed that
8 national product could be conceived of as the interest on total accumulated wealth, followed by Dan
9 Usher who discussed the interpretation of the Hamiltonian in the dynamic optimization
10 specification as the return to wealth, where wealth is defined as the present value of future
11 consumption. John Hartwick and Karl-Goran Mäler both extended Weitzman’s model to analyze
12 different aspects of the problem, while Kirk Hamilton synthesized and integrated the analysis in two
13 papers published in the mid 1990s by presenting a series of models that touch upon almost all of the
14 important aspects of concern.

15
16 In particular, for our purposes, Hamilton’s Models 2 and 5 in his 1996 paper as well as some parts
17 of Model 1 in his 1994 paper will be integrated into one model, which will subsequently be
18 transformed and re-interpreted. The idea is to develop a formulation that is as simple as possible,
19 but powerful enough to address the issues at hand. It will be clear that the model to be presented is
20 enough for the purpose, and possible extensions of the model to include other aspects such as
21 exhaustible resources would be intuitive.

22 23 **2. The Model**

24 25 **2.1. The Set-Up**

26
27 In the type of dynamic model widely used in this kind of work, the main components are a
28 technological relationship that describes production possibilities, an objective function that
29 describes the things that provide benefits to members of society (in this case, consumption of
30 material goods and services, denoted C , and the environmental benefits they enjoy, denoted Φ),
31 and a series of constraints on, and relationships between, inputs and resources that act as limits on
32 what can be achieved.

33
34 The model presented here is an optimal control model, that solves for optimal values of key
35 variables over (in this case) time. Let us define the following symbols:

36 U = utility (the instantaneous welfare of the society under consideration)

37 C = consumption other than consumers’ defensive expenditure

38 K = capital stock (produced assets)

39 F = production

40 S = stock of (renewable) resource

- 1 R = resource extraction/harvest
 2 f = extraction/harvest cost
 3 X = cumulative amount of pollution emitted
 4 g = net natural growth of resource
 5 B = flow of environmental services
 6 d = dissipation rate of the stock of pollution
 7 e = pollution emissions
 8 a = abatement expenditure by producers
 9 Φ = environmental benefits to households
 10 h = consumers' defensive expenditure
 11 L = available labor
 12 LL = total supply of labor

13

14 Thus, the economy has a given technology, transforming inputs (capital, labor and resource flow)
 15 into outputs. Specifically, the economy produces according to

16 (1) $F = F(L, K, R)$ (1)

17 where $F_L > 0$, $F_K > 0$, $F_R > 0$, and $L \leq LL$.

18

19 This production process is subject to a series of constraints. For $L \leq LL$, the inequality holds if
 20 some labor is not available due to environmentally caused harm:

21 (2) $L = LL - \delta(B_0 - B)$ (2)

22 where $\delta > 0$ is the effect of harm, proportional to the difference between B_0 and B , both of which
 23 will be defined immediately below.

24

25 The flow of environmental services—a measure of the services received by the population from the
 26 natural environment—is governed by

27 (3) $B = B_0 - \beta(X - X_0)$ (3)

28 where B_0 is the level of environmental services that flow from a pristine environment, X (X_0) is
 29 the stock (initial stock) of the pollutant, and $\beta > 0$. In turn, the rate of change in X is given by

30 (4) $\dot{X} = e - d(X)$ (4)

31 where e is emission, and d is the rate of natural dissipation, a function of X .

32

33 The rate of change in the (renewable) resource stock is governed by

34 (5) $\dot{S} = -R + g$ (5)

35 The extraction or harvest cost of the resource, represented by f , is a function of R :

36 (6) $f = f(R)$ (6)

37 where $f_R > 0$. Emission of pollution is given by

38 (7) $e = e(F, a)$ (7)

39 where $e_F > 0$ and $e_a < 0$. Environmental benefits to households (consumers)—net benefits
 40 received by the population from environmental services—are given by

1 (8) $\Phi = \Phi(B, h)$ (8)

2 where $\Phi_B > 0$ and $\Phi_h > 0$.

3

4 Having specified the production technology and the appropriate constraints, it remains to specify
 5 the objective function: that is, what is it the population would like to do (achieve) in these
 6 circumstances? Convention is followed in this treatment, by regarding the population as a single
 7 person (“a representative consumer”), for purposes of tractability. Being concerned with
 8 sustainability as we are, the “person” (population) is presumed to live forever, so their actions are
 9 described out to infinity. As noted above, the population is presumed to care about the consumption
 10 benefits they receive plus the environmental benefits they experience.

11

12 In formal terms, the dynamic optimization problem is then to maximize the social utility function

13 (9) $\int_0^{\infty} U(C, \Phi) e^{-rt} dt$ (9)

14 subject to $\dot{K} = F - C - a - f - h$ and Eqs. (4) and (5).

15

16 Mathematically, as stated, this is a problem in optimal control theory, with a constant discount rate
 17 assumed. To solve a complex dynamic problem of this nature, a function called the Hamiltonian is
 18 used, which, if maximized, supplies conditions that will solve the entire control problem.
 19 Essentially, we solve the problem for “one instant in time”, with the conditions that solve for a
 20 single instant applying to *every* single instant of the problem. Thus it is sufficient to solve as if for
 21 “one instant” only.

22

23 The relevant Hamiltonian in this problem is

24 (10) $H = U + \gamma_1 \dot{K} + \gamma_2 \dot{X} + \gamma_3 \dot{S}$ (10)

25 Linearizing U (and Φ) so that $U = U_C C + U_\Phi \Phi = U_C C + U_\Phi \Phi_B B + U_\Phi \Phi_h h$, and dividing both
 26 sides of (10) by U_C gives

27 (11) $H / U_C = C + \theta_1 \dot{K} + \theta_2 \dot{X} + \theta_3 \dot{S} + \theta_4 B + \theta_5 h$ (11)

28 where $\theta_1 = \gamma_1 / U_C$, $\theta_2 = \gamma_2 / U_C$, $\theta_3 = \gamma_3 / U_C$, $\theta_4 = U_\Phi \Phi_B / U_C$ and $\theta_5 = U_\Phi \Phi_h / U_C$.

29

30 It can be shown that the first-order conditions yield

31 $\gamma_1 = U_C = U_\Phi \Phi_h$, which makes θ_1 and $\theta_5 = 1$, so (11) can be re-written as

32 (12) $MEW = C + \dot{K} + \theta_2 \dot{X} + \theta_3 \dot{S} + \theta_4 B + h$ (12)

33 where MEW is what is termed in the literature the “measure of economic welfare.” (This is
 34 analogous to the measure of economic welfare as developed in pioneering work by William
 35 Nordhaus and James Tobin in 1973.) The distinction between measures of “net product” and

1 measures of “economic welfare” is important to appreciate, although in the above analysis they are
2 interchangeable. Net product measures are, principally, measures of an economy’s
3 output—measures of what can be *produced*. “Green accounting” measures of net product are
4 generally modified to account for changes in “natural capital” (e.g. reductions in stocks of natural
5 resources) that are not captured in the conventional market-based accounts. Measures of economic
6 welfare are based on consumption, rather than production, possibilities, and typically include
7 pollution flows and other elements that affect consumption and thus welfare, while not necessarily
8 directly affecting production possibilities.

9
10 Eq. (12) can be rewritten as

$$11 \quad (13) \quad MEW = F - a - f - h + \theta_2 \dot{X} + \theta_3 \dot{S} + \theta_4 B + h \quad (13)$$

12 which is similar to an expression derived by Hamilton in his 1996 paper (his equation 12) except for
13 the following:

14 (i) His Φ / Φ_h equals the term $\theta_4 B + h$ here; since $\theta_4 B > 0$, this explains why he argues that
15 his result regarding household defensive expenditure is not different from one derived by Mäler.
16 The latter shows that such expenditure should not be subtracted from conventional GNP to get the
17 measurement of welfare.

18 (ii) His model 5, which gives his Eq. (12), does not include renewable resources but the model
19 presented here does; this is reason for the inclusion of the terms $-f$ and $\theta_3 \dot{S}$ in the RHS of Eq.
20 (13) above.

21 (iii) He defines *GNP* as F and writes *GNP* instead of F in his Eq. (12); here we keep the
22 F term, for reasons to be given below shortly.

23 24 **2.2. “Sustainable” and “Optimal” Income**

25
26 The analysis thus far has proceeded by following through the optimization problem to see how a
27 fully-adjusted measure of national income can be derived in a dynamic model, by defining the
28 relevant contributors to output and showing how they should be valued. Such a measure is
29 characterized by optimal behavior—the population is doing the best it can given its circumstances
30 (namely, its technology and constraints), including when resource usage and pollution are accounted
31 for—but nothing yet has been said about sustainability. Sustainability is capable of many and varied
32 definitions, but much of the literature in this tradition has proceeded on the basis of the fundamental
33 definition of sustainability as non-declining utility. (This is a formal version of the famous
34 Brundtland criterion, that future generations have, broadly speaking, the same possibilities of
35 generating a standard of living as we do.)

36
37 Note that such a definition of sustainability is purely ends-based—it does not matter how standards
38 of living are maintained, only that they *can* be. To reconcile optimality and sustainability here only

1 requires that the optimal solution satisfies the condition of non-declining utility over time. There is
 2 no presumption or requirement of any kind of environmental sustainability here—it *may* be satisfied,
 3 but it need not be. In the framework we are using here, environmental sustainability is a stronger
 4 restriction and requires maintenance of individual (natural) elements in the economy.

5
 6 To see this, now define an economy that operates such that the environment is not “disturbed” and
 7 stays at its pristine state. For our purposes, we shall describe this as “sustainable”. (Variables at such
 8 a hypothetical “sustainable” state have been denoted by an asterisk.) In this economy, a^* is spent so
 9 that

$$10 \quad (14) \quad e = (F^*, a^*) = d(X_0) \quad (14)$$

11 where $F^* = F(K, LL, R^*)$ and $R^* = g$. Therefore $X = X_0$ and $B = B_0$ for all t . Because
 12 $B = B_0$ always, there is no need for defensive expenditure, so $h = 0$. Also, because
 13 $R^* = g$, $\dot{S} = 0$ for all t .

14
 15 Define the “sustainable” green NNP as

$$16 \quad (15) \quad gNNP^* = F^* - a^* - f(R^*) + \theta_4 B_0 \quad (15)$$

17
 18 This is the value of NNP when the resource stock is being maintained, as is the flow of
 19 environmental services, and there is no accumulation of pollution. “Regular” green NNP (called
 20 “*MEW*”) can then be defined as $gNNP^*$ plus deviations (called “ V_i ’s”) from that mode of activities:

$$21 \quad (16) \quad MEW = gNNP^* + \sum_{i=1}^8 V_i \quad (16)$$

22 where

$$23 \quad (17) \quad V_1 = F_L(L - LL) \leq 0 \quad (17)$$

$$24 \quad (18) \quad V_2 = F_R(R - g) \geq 0 \quad (18)$$

$$25 \quad (19) \quad V_3 = (a^* - a) \geq 0 \quad (19)$$

$$26 \quad (20) \quad V_4 = [f(R^*) - f(R)] \leq 0 \quad (20)$$

$$27 \quad (21) \quad V_5 = -h \leq 0 \quad (21)$$

$$28 \quad (22) \quad V_6 = \theta_4(B - B_0) + h \leq 0 \quad (22)$$

$$29 \quad (23) \quad V_7 = \theta_2 \dot{X} \leq 0 \quad (23)$$

$$30 \quad (24) \quad V_8 = \theta_3 \dot{S} \leq 0 \quad (24)$$

31
 32 Let us discuss the meanings of these terms. $V_2 + V_4$ or $V_2 - |V_4|$ is additional production due to

1 extraction/harvest in excess of the self-regeneration rate minus additional extraction/harvest cost.
 2 So this is actually the net additional service of the (renewable) environmental asset to producers
 3 when the actual extraction/harvest exceeds the self-regeneration levels.

5 V_3 is the amount that actual abatement expenditure falls short of a^* , the level at which the
 6 environment would not be “disturbed.” So this means the money firms save when they use the
 7 environment as a dumping place beyond natural dissipation levels. It therefore measures the
 8 additional service of the environment to producers who dispose of their wastes in the environment
 9 in excess of the natural absorptive capacity.

11 The above are obviously the benefits of deviating from the $gNNP^*$ mode. The costs are as follows.

13 The term V_1 is the cost in terms of workday loss due to the shortfall in the actual level of
 14 environment services from the $gNNP^*$ level, B_0 . The term V_5 is the cost borne by consumers in
 15 terms of the defensive expenditure they are engaged in to mitigate the effects of the fall in B from
 16 B_0 . Finally the term V_6 is the remaining cost borne by consumers due to the fall in B even after
 17 taking defensive actions.

19 It is possible to combine V_5 and V_6 into $V_5 + V_6 = \theta_4(B - B_0)$, which is the pre-defense suffering
 20 from the fall in B . But to keep V_5 and V_6 separate clarifies the picture better.

22 Terms V_7 and V_8 are costs in terms of depreciation. From Eq. (3), $B = -\beta\dot{X}$, so V_7 can be
 23 re-written as

$$\overset{\cdot\cdot\cdot}{(25)} \quad V_7 = \theta'_2 \dot{B} \quad (25)$$

25 Where $\theta'_2 = -\theta_2 / \beta > 0$ because $\theta_2 < 0$ and $\beta > 0$ (implied by $\gamma_2 < 0$). The term V_7 is
 26 non-positive because \dot{B} is. Although B is a flow variable, it can be very appropriately viewed as a
 27 measure of the state of environmental quality. Very naturally, $\dot{B} < 0$ means a deterioration in that
 28 state. Just as θ_2 measures the (marginal, negative) contribution of an increase in X to the present
 29 value of the utility stream, θ'_2 measures the (marginal, positive) contribution of an increase in B .

30 The term $\theta'_2 \dot{B}$ is then the total fall in the present value of the future utility stream as a result of the
 31 fall in B . This is nothing else but the economic depreciation of environmental quality, measured as
 32 the reduction in present value of the future utility stream flowing from B (in terms of utils or
 33 U_c).

35 Similarly, V_8 measures the economic depreciation of renewable resources, measured again as the
 36 reduction in present value of the future utility stream flown from S (also in terms of utils).

1

2 So the sum of terms $V_1, V_2, V_3, \dots, V_8$ actually represent the “*net benefits*” to an economy when
3 it *deviates* from the “clean” or “sustainable” mode of production, i.e., it is the “net benefits of
4 deviation.” The items constituting the “benefits” are, as shown above, (i) the additional production
5 due to extraction/harvest in excess of the self-regeneration rate minus additional extraction/harvest
6 cost ($V_2 + V_4$), and (ii) the money firms save when they use the environment as a dumping place
7 beyond natural dissipation levels (V_3). The items of the “costs” are (i) workday loss due to the
8 shortfall in the actual level of environment services from the pristine level (V_1), (ii) the defensive
9 expenditure consumers are engaged in to mitigate the effects of such a fall in environmental
10 services (V_5), (iii) remaining costs (e.g. the unpleasant feeling) borne by consumers due to such a
11 fall in environmental services even after taking defensive actions (V_6), (iv) the economic
12 depreciation of environmental quality (V_7), and (v) the economic depreciation of renewable
13 resources (V_8). Together they constitute the “net benefits” of the deviation.

14

15 Since the green *NNP* under the “sustainable” mode is $gNNP^*$, regular green *NNP* ($gNNP$) or
16 *MEW* is simply the sum of $gNNP^*$ and the above net benefits of deviation. The policy
17 implication is that a deviation is worthwhile if and only if the resultant net benefits are positive, i.e.,
18 the actual $gNNP$ exceeds $gNNP^*$; and that if it is possible at all to get positive net benefits,
19 optimal policy is represented by the maximization of the net benefits of deviation, or alternatively
20 by the maximization of green *NNP* ($gNNP$) because $gNNP^*$, as defined, is a constant.

21

22 **2.3 Comparison to “Conventional” Income**

23

24 Turn now to the question of conventional *NNP*. Hamilton defines conventional national product as
25 total production, F (Hamilton, 1996, p. 22), and argues in his Model 2 that a should be
26 deducted because it is actually an “intermediate consumption.” Given that intermediate
27 consumption would not have been part of conventional *NNP* in the first place if it had been
28 explicitly recorded in conventional business accounts as such, we will here simply make the
29 assumption that either a (and f) has been recorded as an intermediate consumption (and so is
30 not part of conventional *NNP*), or that it has been otherwise imputed as such and deducted. By so
31 doing, we will define conventional *NNP* as $F - a - f$. We will call conventional *NNP* so
32 defined “ $cNNP$.”

33

34 Now let us give green *NNP* an alternative interpretation. Under the sustainable mode

$$35 \quad (26) \quad cNNP^* = F^* - a^* - f(R^*) \quad (26)$$

36 which can be thought of as a level of conventional *NNP* that is free from environmentally caused
37 workday loss, but at the same time barred from enjoying any environmental services in excess of
38 polluting at the natural dissipation rate and extracting/harvesting at the natural regeneration rate. It
39 is basically then $gNNP^*$ minus the direct services of environment:

1 (27) $cNNP^* = gNNP^* - \theta_4 B_0$ (27)

2

3 So $cNNP^*$ is the hypothetical national product level, which on the one hand leaves the environment
 4 intact, on the other hand ignores the direct services of environment to consumers. Given this, Eq.
 5 (16) can be re-written as

6 (28) $MEW = gNNP = cNNP^* + \sum_{i=1}^5 V_i + V'_6 + V_7 + V_8$ (28)

7 where $V'_6 = \theta_4 B + h$, which is the total post-defense direct service of the environment to consumers.

8 The sum of the second to the last terms in the RHS of Eq. (28) can be thought of as the “net benefits
 9 of bringing the environment back into the picture (from being left intact and ignored).” Because
 10 both $cNNP^*$ and $gNNP^*$ are constants, it is obvious that the policy implications from Eq. (28)
 11 are the same as those from Eq. (16). That is, when the environment is brought back into the picture,
 12 optimal policy calls for the maximization of the net benefits of such action, because if these net
 13 benefits are maximized, so would be MEW , which measures consumers’ welfare, given a constant
 14 $cNNP^*$.

15

16 It would be useful to examine the relationship among $cNNP^*$, $gNNP$ and $cNNP$. From Eq. (26),
 17 the definition of $cNNP$ given above, and the definitions of $V_i (i = 1, 2, \dots, 4)$ given in Eqs. (17)-(20),

18 it can be shown that the difference between $cNNP$ and $cNNP^*$ is the sum of V_1 , V_2 , V_3 , and V_4 .

19 This is not hard to understand: $cNNP^*$ is the gross production F^* based on $L = LL$ and $R = g$,
 20 minus a^* (the hypothetical abatement expenditure to keep the environment at its pristine level)
 21 and minus $f(R^*)$, which is the extraction/harvest cost when the level of extraction is such that the
 22 stock of renewable resources remain intact; $cNNP$ consists of these same items but all at actual
 23 rather than hypothetical levels of spending. The difference between the two are (i) V_1 , which
 24 catches the fall in gross production from F^* when there is workday loss caused by the actual supply
 25 of labor falling short of LL as a result of the fall in environmental services from its pristine level,
 26 (ii) V_2 , which catches the rise in gross production level from F^* when the actual level of
 27 extracting the renewable resource, R , exceeds its self regeneration level, g , (iii) V_3 , which catches
 28 the difference between a^* and a (the actual and lower abatement expenditure), and (iv) V_4 ,
 29 which is the difference between $f(R^*)$ and $f(R)$, the actual, higher extraction/harvest cost.

30

31 Given $V_4 = -|V_4|$, we can then re-write Eq. (28) as

32 (29) $MEW = gNNP = cNNP^* + V_1 + (V_2 - |V_4|) + V_3 + \sum_{i=5,7,8} V_i + V'_6$
 $= cNNP^* + (cNNP - cNNP^*) + \sum_{i=5,7,8} V_i + V'_6$ (29)

1

2 That is, the algebraic difference between $cNNP$ and $cNNP^*$ consists of the terms involving V_1
3 to V_4 . In other words, when the environment is brought back into the picture, benefits $V_2 - |V_4|$
4 (net receipts from additional extraction/harvest) and V_3 (waste disposal), and damage V_1 (workday
5 loss) would have been recorded by the conventional NNP . But conventional NNP is obviously
6 an unsatisfactory candidate to maximize, because the entire term $\sum_{i=5,7,8} V_i + V'_6$ is left out. And this is
7 precisely why the green accounting exercise is valuable. Together, V_5 (the negative of consumers'
8 defensive spending), V'_6 (total post-defense direct service of the environment to consumers), V_7
9 (economic depreciation of environmental quality), and V_8 (economic depreciation of renewable
10 resources) constitute the terms for which adjustments in conventional NNP are needed in order to
11 derive a green NNP ($gNNP$) or MEW , that is an appropriate target to maximize.

12

13 **3. The SEEA and ENRAP Approaches and the Green NNP**

14

15 **3.1 Introduction**

16

17 Practical revisions to national accounting systems have typically not been constructed from
18 theoretical principles. The purpose of this section is to analyze two key such accounting systems in
19 the light of the preceding theoretical analysis.

20

21 The United Nations has been engaged in modifying the official system of national accounts, under
22 the label SEEA (System of Integrated Environmental and Economic Accounting). In this section we
23 compare the approaches identified from the foregoing theoretical discussion with the adjusted
24 measures of income presented in the SEEA, and also with the ENRAP system associated with
25 Henry Peskin.

26

27 SEEA (Version IV.2 in 1993, 1998) defines EDPI as NNP minus “depletion” of natural resources
28 and EDPII as EDPI minus “degradation” of natural resources. The depletion is estimated at net
29 rent cost (otherwise known as the “net price” valuation; recommended for all resources), or at
30 user-cost (otherwise known as the El Serafy valuation; recommended for exhaustible
31 resources—see the companion paper by Atkinson and Dietz for further discussion), while
32 degradation is estimated at the hypothetical abatement cost of bringing down pollution from the
33 existing (post-treatment) level to a level that does not harm the environment (called “maintenance
34 cost”).

35

36 ENRAP has the “factor cost” and the “expenditure” side of the accounts. On the former side,
37 adjustments to conventional NNP come from waste disposal services (a negative number, as it is
38 seen as a “subsidy” from nature) plus “net environmental benefits” minus “depreciation of ‘natural

1 assets' such as minerals, forests and fishery" On the latter side, adjustments to conventional NNP
2 come from deducting the environmental damages (workday loss and medical costs), adding direct
3 services of the environment to consumers and then deducting "depreciation of natural assets."
4 Because ENRAP's "net environmental benefits" are defined as waste disposal services (at its
5 absolute value) minus damages plus direct services of the environment, if the latter two terms were
6 zero, waste disposal services (at its negative value) and "net environmental benefits" would have
7 cancelled each other out, and there would be no adjustment except for the "depreciation of
8 environmental assets." So the essence of the green NNP concept under ENRAP are damages (to be
9 subtracted from *cNNP*) and direct services of the environment (to be added to *cNNP*), both on
10 the "expenditure" side of its accounts.

11
12 In addition, in the implementation of ENRAP in the Philippines, the "depreciation of environmental
13 assets" seems to have included only the quantitative aspect of environmental depletion. Here
14 Peskin emphasizes that the ENRAP valuation of "depreciation" is based on economic rather than
15 net rent cost, i.e., it is the difference in the present values of net future services from the assets
16 between periods.

17
18 Recently the United Nations appointed a group of experts, called the London Group, to revise
19 SEEA. A draft has been put on the web. In the latest version, it is clear that the basic spirit of
20 subtracting the depletion of natural (non-produced) resources from traditional GNP to get an
21 environmentally adjusted NNP (hereafter known as eaNNP) is maintained. But it is obvious that
22 while in the 1993 (and 1998) version, the net price and El Serafy's methods are highlighted, they
23 are alluded to as "special cases" of the present value method, which the 2002 version sticks to (see
24 chapters 7, 8, and 10). Using non-produced biological resources as an example,
25 "depletion-adjusted" NNP is conventional NNP minus the difference between two present values of
26 (non-produced) natural resources at respectively the beginning and the end of the accounting period.

27
28 As for the subtraction of degradation, the London Group mentions at least three different
29 approaches (see chapters 9 and 10). One is called "cost-based" (this version of eaNNP will be
30 hereafter known as ceaNNP), which is basically the same as EDPII in the 1993 version. That is,
31 ceaNNP equals conventional NNP minus depletion and minus maintenance cost. Maintenance cost
32 is the amount of spending that would have had to be spent to avoid environmental degradation that
33 has actually happened, using current cost estimates under current technologies.

34
35 The second option is to deduct damages to the economy that have occurred from actual pollution
36 from the conventional NNP. The result is called "damage-based" NNP (this version of eaNNP will
37 be called deaNNP hereafter, although it is called daNNI or damaged-adjusted net national income
38 by the London Group).

1 The third option is to design a model, which takes into account economic behavior, and calculate a
2 GNP (or NNP) that is based on the economy operating under a certain set of constraints, which
3 constitute the researcher's idea of how to put the long-term economic growth (and the associated
4 social welfare) of the society on a more "sustainable" path. The interest then focuses not on the
5 resultant new aggregate, "but in the gap between the existing economy and the greened version".
6 This version of the green GNP is named "greened economy GNP" or geGNP in the report of the
7 London Group. In this paper, it will be referred to as geNNP for consistency in the use of terms.

8
9 With the above introduction, let us now start comparing the different approaches with the system of
10 equations developed in the last section.

11 12 **3.2 Depletion of Natural Resources**

13
14 With respect to depletion (the quantitative aspect of depreciation) of natural assets, the SEEA and
15 ENRAP methods are the same in deducting it from conventional NNP to get $gNNP$, but the method
16 of valuation is different, at least in the area of renewable resources. It is obvious from Eq. (24) and
17 the subsequent explanation that the present value approach, recommended by both the London
18 Group and ENRAP is more sound economically.

19
20 It may be argued that the net rent approach, calculated as the amount of resources being extracted or
21 harvested times its current price, is easier to estimate, and that the choice of that method is merely a
22 matter of the method of valuation: it does not reflect any substantive difference from the economic
23 depreciation approach recommended by ENRAP. (To be sure, the two approaches are equivalent
24 under the condition that the net rent always appreciates at the discount rate, a situation otherwise
25 known as the Hotelling rule, which would have been the case if there were perfect competition and
26 foresight. In reality, this condition is unlikely to hold, especially for publicly owned natural
27 resources)

28
29 Upon closer examination, such a view does not seem to hold. The green accounting system as
30 derived in Eq. (28) has important implications for optimal policy-making. Let us concentrate now
31 on terms $V_2 - |V_4|$ and V_8 . The former is net benefits (addition to current consumption) from
32 extraction/harvesting beyond natural re-generation, the latter is the depreciation in the value of the
33 natural assets being so extracted/harvested. The former is therefore the "benefit" in terms of
34 additional *current* consumption, and the latter the "cost" in terms of forgone *future* consumption.
35 Optimal policy calls for choosing the level of extra extraction/harvesting that would maximize
36 $(V_2 - |V_4|) - |V_8|$.

37
38 Now if the latter is valued at the net rent approach, it is de facto valued at the term $V_2 - |V_4|$, so the
39 sum of the two terms, namely $(V_2 - |V_4|) + V_8$ or alternatively $(V_2 - |V_4|) - |V_8|$ would always be zero,
40 *regardless of the level of extra extraction/harvest*. This would therefore deprive the net rent

1 approach from giving useful information about the optimal level of extra extraction/harvesting to be
2 chosen by policy-makers. (If the Hotelling rule prevails, there is nothing wrong with such a result:
3 there could be no net gains or losses from deviating from the “sustainable” mode.)
4

5 But of course, to deduct something from the conventional *NNP* is still better than deducting
6 nothing. Conventional *NNP* or *cNNP* would lead us to think that any extra extraction/harvesting
7 is worthwhile, because the consequences for the future are not accounted for. Those 1993 and 1998
8 SEEA accounts that adopt the net rent approach adjust the conventional *NNP* by removing the
9 value of such extra extraction/harvesting completely. By contrast, those SEEA accounts that use the
10 El Serafy approach would not suffer from such a shortcoming. But the El Serafy approach would be
11 equivalent to the present value approach only under an assumption that is also very restrictive,
12 namely that the net rent is constant and positive, and then drops to zero when the resource is
13 exhausted.
14

15 **3.3 Degradation of the Quality of Natural Resources**

16

17 The ideal expression of this term should be Eq. (25), i.e., the fall in the present value of the future
18 flow of direct environmental services. It is therefore the economic depreciation of *B*, which can be
19 thought of as an index of environmental quality.
20

21 The SEEA approach is to value it in terms of “maintenance cost” as explained above. This appears
22 to be a good candidate for valuing the depreciation in environmental quality. But upon closer
23 examination, a different story emerges.
24

25 The “maintenance cost” is simply V_3 in Eq. (19), the saved cost from reduction in abatement efforts.
26 To value V_7 in Eq. (25) at V_3 is to value the sum of $V_3 + V_7$ or alternatively $V_3 - |V_7|$ always at
27 zero. But this would deprive the green accounting from being useful in optimal policy-making, as in
28 the case of depletion of natural resources discussed above.
29

30 Similar to the case above, the benefit in terms of additional *current* consumption of the degradation
31 of the quality of natural resources from extra pollution, i.e., polluting beyond the natural dissipation
32 level, should be weighed against the cost of doing so, in terms of the foregone *future* consumption
33 (fall in the present value of the future stream of direct environmental services). So optimal extra
34 pollution calls for the maximization of $V_3 - |V_7|$, V_3 being the benefit and $|V_7|$ being the cost. To
35 value $V_3 - |V_7|$ at zero *regardless of the level of extra pollution*, as SEEA does, prevents it from
36 being a useful decision-making tool. (Many theoretical derivations of an ideal measure of “green
37 national income” or “green national product” have the implication that it is the damages of pollution
38 (valued at marginal social costs) that should be subtracted from the regular GNP (rather than the
39 “maintenance cost”), but the current treatment exposes the problem by using the concept of green
40 accounting as “sustainable green income” plus deviations from that level of income, thus making

1 the undesirable consequence of subtracting the maintenance cost much clearer.)

2
3 But here again, to deduct the maintenance cost is better than no deduction. If there were no
4 deduction, all the saved abatement cost would appear as additional consumption or national product,
5 while the sacrifice in terms of the fall in future stream of consumption would not be accounted for.
6 SEEA's EDPII knocks out the saved abatement cost (or benefit from extra pollution, in terms of
7 additional current consumption) completely.

8
9 Turn now to ENRAP. The term V_7 does not appear explicitly in ENRAP's handling of
10 "depreciation" of natural resources, which is confined to the quantitative aspect. Since ENRAP does
11 have a term measuring direct services of the environment, the absence of this term looks strange: it
12 would be more consistent if ENRAP contained an item (in the capital account) that records the
13 change in the present value of future stream of direct services of environment, that results from
14 pollution in the current period. Maybe this is what future revisions of ENRAP can take into account.

15
16 It is possible to seek an alternative interpretation of ENRAP's "damages." They can be regarded as
17 a measure of loss of consumer's utility in the current period, under the assumption that there are no
18 damages in the future periods. That is, all damages caused by pollution are borne by consumers in
19 the current period. The model presented here would then not be a suitable tool because it assumes
20 the side effects of pollution would affect only future stream of services. It is possible to re-design
21 the model to analyze the problem, and this will be done in the section below.

22 23 **3.4 Defensive Spending by Consumers and Direct Services of the Environment to Consumers**

24
25 While adjusting the conventional NNP for environmental effects, whether to deduct "defensive
26 spending" by consumers has been a point of contention amongst analysts. Hamilton's formulation
27 (in his 1996 paper, equation 12) first subtracts such spending from conventional national product,
28 but then adds a term (the contribution of Φ), which he says would be higher than the original
29 amount subtracted.

30
31 It is clear from Eq. (29) and the definition of V'_6 in Eq. (28) that the answer actually depends on the
32 method of estimation of "direct services of environment to consumers." If it is estimated at
33 *pre-defense* levels (the first term in V'_6), there is no need to deduct h (the term V_5), because it
34 would have been cancelled out by the addition of h according to the second term in V'_6 . If, on
35 the other hand, the direct services of environment to consumers has been estimated at *post-defense*
36 levels (so it is the entire V'_6 , or alternatively, the entire contribution of Φ rather than merely B),
37 then apparently there is a need to deduct h according to V_5 .

38
39 This is not surprising. From Eq. (9), utility is a function of C and Φ , the latter is in turn a
40 function of B and h according to Eq. (8), and C and h are homogeneous products. Since

1 both C and h work to enhance U , the distinction is actually arbitrary given the general
 2 functional form employed in the equations. This is why in the end, in the derived Hamiltonian
 3 (measured in U_c) in Eq. (16), there is actually no distinction between C and h . So whatever has
 4 been subtracted according to V_5 , must be added back according to the second term in V_6' . Put
 5 another way, the appropriate treatment of defensive expenditure h depends on whether our
 6 benchmark is utility pre-defense or post-defense. This has clarified the picture, we hope.

7

8 Turn now to the SEEA and ENRAP. It is clear from the first term in V_6' that when adjusting the
 9 conventional NNP for environmental effects, direct services of the environment to consumers
 10 should be added, according to Eq. (29). Neither SEEA's EDPI nor EDPII catches this item, while
 11 ENRAP does have an item called "direct nature services," which basically includes the imputed
 12 services of recreation. So SEEA does not handle the problem while ENRAP handles it in a limited
 13 way.

14

15 But admittedly it is very hard to measure the *total* value of *all* direct environmental services (air,
 16 water, recreation and so on) to consumers. For this reason, it may be advisable to estimate the
 17 (negative) value of the *change* in quality of environment from B_0 to actual B instead. Because
 18 B_0 is a constant, such an action would not affect the policy implication of green accounting. That is,
 19 instead of using the formulation in Eq. (29), we can use

$$20 \quad (30) \quad MEW \equiv gNNP = cNNP^* + (cNNP - cNNP^*) + \sum_{i=5,6,7,8} V_i + \theta_4 B_0 \quad (30)$$

21 and not actually estimate the last term in the RHS, as it is some constant. The first term of V_6 then
 22 measures the decrease in utility enjoyed by the consumers in the current period due to the fall in the
 23 quality of environment from its "sustainable" level, according to Eq. (22).

24

25 There is, of course, a way to get rid of B completely. Assuming all damages from pollution affect
 26 utility in the current period only, and ignoring extraction of natural resources (or S) here, we can
 27 re-formulate the system as a problem of maximizing

$$28 \quad (31) \quad \int_0^{\infty} U(C, \Phi) e^{-rt} dt \quad (31)$$

29 subject to

$$30 \quad (32) \quad \dot{K} = F - C - a - h \quad (32)$$

31 In addition,

$$32 \quad (33) \quad F = F(L, K) \quad (33)$$

$$33 \quad (34) \quad L = LL - g(e - e_0) \quad (34)$$

34 where e_0 is a level of harmless emission that equals the natural dissipation rate,

$$35 \quad (35) \quad \Phi = \Phi(e - e_0, h) \quad (35)$$

36 and

$$37 \quad (36) \quad e = e(F, a) \quad (36)$$

1

2 It can be shown that the resultant Hamiltonian measured in utility units could be written as

3 (37) $MEW \equiv gNNP = F(L, K) - a - h + \lambda(e - e_0) + h$ (37)

4 after using the first-order conditions, where $\lambda = (U_\phi / U_c)[\partial\Phi / \partial(e - e_0)]$. Assuming as before
5 conventional NNP equals $F(L, K) - a$, and canceling terms, we have

6 (38) $MEW \equiv gNNP = cNNP^* + (cNNP - cNNP^*) + \lambda(e - e_0)$

7 where

8 $cNNP^* = F(LL, K)$

9 i. e., the “hypothetical” NNP at the “sustainable” level. So the term actually measures the decrease
10 in national product resulting from pollution-caused workday loss, while the last term (in the RHS of
11 Eq. (38)) measures the decrease in real national product resulting from polluting beyond the natural
12 dissipation level.

13

14 Eq. (38) is, we believe, as close to the ENRAP framework as we can get (ignoring the issue of
15 resource extraction, which has already been discussed above). ENRAP’s “damages,” consisting of
16 workday loss and medical costs (as well as damages on property, an issue not considered in the
17 model), can be thought of as measures of the second and third term in Eq. (38). Here it seems that
18 because ENRAP deducts workday loss from actual instead of the hypothetical conventional NNP to
19 get its green NNP , there might have been double subtractions, because actual conventional NNP
20 would have already reflected such losses. This is a point that can be taken into consideration in the
21 future revision of ENRAP.

22

23 In addition, medical costs might have been able to catch only part of the effect of increased
24 pollution. When the quality of environment falls from a pristine to a mediocre level, consumer’s
25 welfare would have been adversely affected even in the absence of medical care expenses (or
26 workday loss), the latter emerging when the quality falls further to hazardous levels. So medical
27 costs would under-estimate the fall in the utility caused by $e - e_0$. This is another point that can be
28 taken into consideration in the future revision of ENRAP.

29

30 The London Group’s $deaNNP$ (defined above) is similar to the ENRAP approach in that it too
31 deducts damages from conventional NNP . That is, an environmentally adjusted aggregate measure
32 should be defined as conventional NNP minus environmental damages defined as the fall in
33 consumers’ utility as a result of polluting beyond the “natural dissipation” level. When damages are
34 confined to those done to human health, as expressed in London Group’s definition of $daNNI$, they
35 can be measured in terms of the willingness to pay to avoid an environmentally caused deterioration
36 in health-related welfare (our utility).

37

38 In the actual imputation of such willingness to pay, all avoidance cost, including consumer
39 expenditure on environmental improvement and medical expenditure should be included. If such

1 cost is regarded as “consumer defensive expenditure,” then it can be said that deaNDP argues for its
2 exclusion. Specifically, Eq. (38) can be re-written as $MEW = cNNP - h + \lambda(e - e_0) + h$. Suppose a
3 person suffers from say, air pollution, and has chosen to spent on air filters as well as medical
4 services to restore his or her health. The post-defense or post-restoration level of services from the
5 environment would be $\lambda(e - e_0) + h$, which can be regarded as zero (as if nothing had happened).
6 Then the entire defensive expenditure has to be deducted from $cNNP$. In many cases complete
7 restoration is not possible (or not chosen), so the term $\lambda(e - e_0) + h$ would be smaller than zero. In
8 these cases, deaNDP would not only deduct all consumer defensive expenditure from the
9 conventional NDP, but should also deduct (from the constant) the deterioration in welfare
10 associated with the shortfalls from the “normal” level of direct services from the environment as a
11 result of post-defense poor health.

13 **4. Conclusion and a Brief Discussion of the Use of Models**

14
15 Among the three basic variants of approaches to the issue of green accounting reviewed above,
16 namely the SEEA’s EDPII, the ENRAP, and the London Group’s deaNNP, the distance from the
17 third one to the theoretically ideal system of green accounts (in Eqs. (29) or (38)) is the smallest,
18 followed by that from the ENRAP, and still followed by the SEEA, which leaves much room for
19 improvements. This said, it should be emphasized that all approaches (including SEEA’s EDPII)
20 have their merits when compared to the situation of no adjustments in the conventional national
21 product, which leaves a far greater room for improvements as it ignores almost all of the important
22 aspects of environment-related costs and benefits.

23
24 The SEEA’s handling of environmental depletion (the “net rent” version) and environmental
25 degradation is basically that of surgical removal. It can be interpreted as saying that these values
26 should not be part of national product, thereby de facto assuming the net benefit from
27 pollution/extraction/harvest beyond sustainable levels is always zero, until better ways of valuation
28 of such net benefit exist and can be brought back in. Given the difficulties in the estimation of net
29 benefits, such an option is perhaps not a bad first step to be taken by the statistics authorities, who
30 typically care a lot about “standardization.”

31
32 Moreover, EDPII and the related EDPI are only two of the numbers in the entire system of satellite
33 accounts advocated by SEEA. In the “environmental assets” accounts, there are such items as “other
34 accumulation,” “other volume changes,” and “revaluation.” These can be used along with other
35 variables that need to be collected/estimated to compile an estimation of the true economic
36 depreciation of tangible environment assets, and thereby assessing the policy implication with
37 respect to optimal extraction/harvest. In fact, many researchers have found that the compilation of
38 the detailed SEEA satellite accounts, which record environment-related expenditures by sectors, in
39 addition to the assets accounts by different types of environmental assets, is extremely useful both
40 as a tool to gather valuable information and as a pool of data from which different researchers can

1 draw different elements for their different studies. So the SEEA statistics scheme is definitely a
2 worthwhile exercise.

3
4 The ENRAP system is close to the ideal system presented above, and is therefore recommended,
5 particularly if green accounting is to be used for environmental policy decision-making. It would,
6 however, be even closer, if the following strengthening can take place in the future.

7
8 First, for pollution and improper solid waste disposal that would have long-lasting cumulative
9 effects (and therefore the model pertaining to Eq. (29) prevails), changes in the direct service of the
10 environment resulting from such effects (remembering Eq. (30) and the first term in the RHS of Eq.
11 (22)) should be more carefully recorded in two ways:

12 (i) Broadening the effects of decrease in the quality of environmental service by including not
13 only changes in recreational values and the incurred medical costs, but also reduced satisfaction
14 resulting from the fall in environmental quality even though it has not yet reached hazardous levels.

15 (ii) Adding a second dimension to “depreciation,” to include not only changes in the present
16 value of future stream of services from extractable/harvestable natural assets, but also from assets
17 that generate direct services to consumers such as scenery. So if wastes have been improperly
18 disposed, and their cumulative effects adversely affect the quality of the future stream of such
19 services, the resultant “depreciation” (remembering Eq. (25)) should be estimated and subtracted
20 from conventional NNP.

21
22 Secondly, for pollution that affects consumers in the current period only (most likely those types of
23 air pollution that have few cumulative effects to speak of), and therefore the model pertaining to Eq.
24 (38) prevails, it is again advisable to broaden the definition of “damages” to include reduced
25 satisfaction resulting from degrading environmental quality even before it reaches hazardous levels.

26
27 Thirdly, the appropriateness of subtracting workday loss can be re-assessed. Although it is rightly
28 part of damages that are to be weighed against the benefits (from additional waste disposal services)
29 in policy considerations, its effects are already caught by conventional *NNP*. In other words, it is
30 not the difference between the *actual* conventional *NNP* (*cNNP*) and green *NNP* (*gNNP*) that
31 needs to be maximized in the choice of policies, it should be the difference between the
32 hypothetical “sustainable” conventional *NNP* (*cNNP**) and green *NNP* (remembering Eqs. (29)
33 and (38)).

34
35 Finally, as for the work done by the London Group, the preliminary results are very promising.
36 They are very close to the theoretically correct definition of green national product, and they are
37 similar to the ENRAP approach in many aspects. In the above discussion, it should by now be clear
38 that the approaches recommended or mentioned by the London Group with regard to adjustment for
39 depletion of natural resources, and adjustment for damage-based depreciation of environmental
40 quality, are both theoretically sound. The *ceaNNP*, which is similar to the SEEA EDPII measure, is

1 not, however, recommended, for reasons given above.

2
3 One last concept introduced earlier but not really discussed is that of geNNP, or a model-based
4 green national product. The current model is not adequate to address this problem, because it does
5 not involve behavioral specifications. The model is designed as if everything can be determined by
6 a central planning agency. In the real world, market exists and authorities typically achieve policy
7 goals not by directly ordering changes, but by re-designing the incentive structure. It would
8 therefore be desirable to extend the current model to one that includes behavioral responses to
9 different policy measures.

10
11 But this is not easy to do at an abstract level, especially when the underlining structures are quite
12 different across countries. Computable or applied general equilibrium models are more suitable
13 tools to use, and they are explicitly mentioned by the London Group. So the geNNP can be
14 considered an approach that is both theoretically superior (to the abstract model in the current paper)
15 and empirically useful, and is highly recommended. It is worth mentioning that there are some
16 similarities between geNNP and the concept of sustainable green *NNP* or *gNNP** in the current
17 model. If, under certain specifications, the long-term social welfare maximizing *geNNP* is one
18 that will keep the total stock of renewable resources intact, and that will never pollute beyond the
19 natural dissipation level, then it becomes *gNNP** in our model. While this may be judged too high a
20 standard by some, it may be judged as an adequate standard by others, especially those strongly
21 committed to environmental protection.

22
23 There is admittedly a trade-off inherent in the green national product accounting exercise. If it were
24 to follow standardized rules that are easy for the statistics officials to implement, it would carry
25 only a small amount of information useful for policy-making purposes. On the other hand, if it were
26 to follow theoretically sound rules, the implementation could be a formidable task, which is also
27 likely to invite controversies. The compromise, which is already in the making, is for the authorities
28 to try to obtain as much information around the *individual variables* in the “ideal” type of green
29 accounting as possible, and leave it to the academics to collect additionally required data and
30 meanwhile develop specific green accounting models to address specific problems. Such a division
31 of labor seems to be able to strike a balance between rigorous theories and existing controversies
32 around implementation.

33
34 Green national product accounting so implemented could be a very important step towards the
35 correction of national product measures, the use of which have been very popular but under many
36 circumstances misleading, because they are often equated, explicitly or implicitly, with measures of
37 welfare. It is time to develop statistics that more closely reflect true human welfare. The green
38 accounting exercise and other even more broadly-minded attempts such as Nordhaus-Tobin (1973)
39 and Daly-Cobb (1989), are efforts that have long been overdue.

1 **Glossary**

2
3 **Natural Resource Accounting:** Accounting procedure that takes into account the use or renewal of natural resources in
4 the production of a nation’s output.

5 **Green National Product:** A modified version of the traditional concepts of national products such as Net National
6 Product (NNP); the modification mainly involves subtracting from the traditional measure the costs of natural
7 resources depletion and degradation that are not otherwise recorded as well as adding to the traditional measure
8 similarly unrecorded benefits of natural resources services.

9 **SEEA:** Formally the “System of Integrated Environmental and Economic Accounting”, which was an effort made by
10 the Statistics Division of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs, United Nations in 1998 on modifying
11 the traditional concepts of national product by taking into account the cost of the degradation of the environment
12 and the depletion of natural resources.

13 **ENRAP:** Formally the “Environmental and Natural Resources Accounting Project” implemented in the Philippines, the
14 report of which was published by the International Resources Group (IRG), Edgevale Associates (EA) and
15 Resources, Environment and Economics Center for Studies (REECS) in 1996; it was also an attempt to modify
16 the traditional concepts of national product by taking into account the cost of the degradation of the environment
17 and the depletion of natural resources, but it adopted methods different from SEEA’s.

18 **Hamiltonian:** A mathematical expression often used to solve problems of optimal controls; specifically, if one wishes to
19 maximize an objective function (defined over a period of time or “dynamic”) subject to constraints (also dynamic)
20 one can formulate a function called the Hamiltonian, which, if maximized, supplies conditions that will solve the
21 entire control problem; the Hamiltonian is defined for “one instant in time”, but the conditions that solve for this
22 single instant would apply to *every* single instant of the problem.

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19

20 **Biographical Sketch**

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