

Ecosystem accounting: Past scientific developments and future challenges

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1 2 3	Ecosystem accounting: past scientific developments and future challenges
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24 25 26	Corresponding author: Adrien Comte, comte@centre-cired.fr
27 28	<u>Highlights</u>
29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36	 The SEEA is the main framework and becoming the standard for ecosystem accounting Research is moving towards operational issues of implementing ecosystem accounts Forests are the main habitats studied but the share of aquatic habitats is increasing Most monetary methods used are based on exchange values and accounting principles Europe is, to date, the most productive region for ecosystem accounts
37 38	Abstract
39 40	To better manage our environment, systematic information is needed on the state of ecosystems and their interactions with society. Efforts have been undertaken to design

41 monitoring and recording systems, notably the United Nations System of Environmental-42 Economic Accounting (SEEA). However, the diverse conceptualizations and applications on

43 ecosystem accounting found the scientific literature have never been assessed in a systematic

44 way. Here, a systematic literature review on ecosystem accounting, i.e. natural capital 45 accounting approaches that focus on ecosystems, is conducted to detail the evolving trends in 46 concepts, methodologies, and applications, and to identify main gaps and challenges for future 47 work. Results yielded 378 scientific articles published between 1990 and 2021. This literature is 48 diverse in terms of frameworks developed, ecosystems studied, valuation methods used, and 49 accounts produced. Among the eleven ecosystem accounting frameworks identified, the SEEA 50 is the most widely used. This literature is moving from focusing on conceptual elements towards 51 addressing implementation issues. It is primarily conducted in European countries, on forest 52 ecosystems, using biophysical methods and monetary valuation methods consistent with 53 exchange values to produce accounts. The gaps that should be the focus of future work include 54 the issue of implementation: methodologies (artificial Intelligence technologies and economic 55 valuation), data, for instance making better use of remote sensing images, collaborations, and 56 supporting the use of ecosystem accounts in decision-making.

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1. Introduction

60 Political decision-making at the national level is informed by macroeconomic figures (and many 61 more factors) brought together in the national accounts. However, the conventional national 62 accounts, that are produced in the context of the System of National Accounts (SNA) (United 63 Nations, 2009), do not comprehensively record the state, extent and uses of ecosystems. 64 Indeed, the core goal of the SNA is to organize macroeconomic accounts that record economic 65 processes. International efforts have produced standards linking these national accounts to 66 ecosystem accounts, that synthesize in a consistent and comparable way information on the 67 status of ecosystems in every country, notably in the System of Environmental-Economic 68 Accounting (SEEA) (Hein et al., 2020; UN, 2021). Efforts to design and implement the SEEA are 69 led and coordinated by the UN Statistical Commission.

70

71 In the scientific literature, there have been significant research efforts on ecosystem and natural 72 capital accounting over the past decades, including conceptual developments (e.g. Obst et al., 73 2016; La Notte et al., 2019b) and applications (e.g. Weber, 2007; Barbier, 2016; Caparrós et al., 74 2017; Schröter et al., 2014). Many conceptual frameworks and methodologies have emerged on 75 ecosystems and natural capital accounting. Overviews on ecosystem accounting (Edens and 76 Hein, 2013) and syntheses of particular topics of ecosystem accounting (Boyd and Banzhaf, 77 2007) have been produced in the literature and in the context of the United Nations with the 78 development of the SEEA (UNSD, 2014a; UNSD, 2014b; UNSD 2017; Edens et al., 2022). In 79 2013 the Statistical Commission of the United Nations endorsed the SEEA Experimental 80 Ecosystems Accounting (SEEA-EEA) as the basis for commencing testing and further 81 development of this new field of national accounts. In 2021, the United Nations Statistical 82 Commission has adopted chapters 1-7 of the System of Environmental-Economic Accounting-83 Ecosystem Accounting (SEEA EA) as an international statistical standard (Edens et al., 2022). 84 These chapters focus on the biophysical part of ecosystem accounting, the monetary accounts 85 were not yet considered to be developed at the level of a statistical standard (Brown et al., 86 2021). Note that, in the last revision, the prefix 'Experimental' that was previously used has

been discontinued. Furthermore, ecosystem accounting is also rising in the global environmental policies agenda. The future agreement of the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) on post-2020 biodiversity framework will also likely call for "integration of biodiversity and ecosystem values into national accounts" (CBD SBSTTA, 2020) and will likely follow trends in adoption of ecosystem accounts. This objective was already part of the Aichi Target, but has not been achieved yet (Secretariat of the Convention on Biological Diversity, 2020).

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94 However, the scientific literature on this topic has never been analyzed in a systematic way. 95 Recent reviews analyzed frameworks of ecosystem services assessments, suggesting paths for 96 improvement (Nahlik et al., 2012; Schröter et al., 2016; Bordt and Saner, 2018). These reviews 97 are not systematic in scope and, while they mention accounting as an important future 98 development for the monitoring of biodiversity and ecosystem services, they deal with 99 assessments which do not have the attributes of an accounting system. Accounting addresses 100 issues of consistency, comparability and comprehensiveness to produce information in a 101 structured and continuous way through time.

102

103 There is a need for analysis of the literature to understand explicitly the possible ways to fully 104 develop ecosystem accounting and link it with national accounting and organizational 105 accounting (Heal 2007, Feger et al., 2018; Brandon et al., 2021). One of the major constraints to 106 developing ecosystem accounts is the feasibility of building and updating these accounts, in line 107 with statistical standards and policy objectives. A broad range of datasets and models are 108 needed to accurately capture the variety of interactions between people and ecosystems. Some 109 initiatives address this challenge like the Artificial Intelligence for Environment & Sustainability 110 (ARIES) for SEEA (https://seea.un.org/content/aries-for-seea) that explicitly aim to improve 111 data/model interoperability. Policy-makers demand clarifications on experiments and resulting 112 implication of implementing ecosystem accounting for policy use (Recuerdo-Virto et al., 2018).

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114 The development of ecosystem accounting frameworks should rest on clear conceptual and 115 theoretical bases and sound methodological approaches to produce ecosystem accounts that 116 answer to statistical standards and policy objectives. To this aim, a systematic analysis of the 117 literature on ecosystem accounting is presented here. It provides an overview on the conceptual 118 foundations and sets of values underlying the design of ecosystem accounts, which are critical 119 elements as the underlying theories and concepts that support the frameworks developed for 120 the integration of ecosystems into national accounts are not often explicit. For example, 121 applying weak or strong sustainability concepts will lead to very different outcomes when 122 integrated in the national accounts (Dietz and Neumayer, 2007). Such choices need to be 123 detailed to further the sound advancement of ecosystem accounting frameworks. This review 124 also details the scope of accounts produced to date, which is essential to understand how the 125 scientific literature contributes to the production of ecosystem accounts, to what extent it has 126 identified gaps that need to be addressed and how this endeavor can best guide policy-making 127 and environmental management by Nation States. Finally, this review zooms into the specific 128 literature dedicated to advancing the SEEA framework.

130 2. <u>Material and methods</u>

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This review focuses on the literature dedicated to ecosystems accounting. Abiotic resources (e.g. minerals), and biotic resources (e.g. timber) that are not approached through an ecosystem lens are excluded from this study as it is not the purpose of this study to analyze the whole literature on environmental accounting in general. Historically, "green accounting" and "environmental accounting" have mostly focused on the environment with two prisms: the environment as a source of renewable and non-renewable resources, and the environment as a sink of pollution.

139 Accounting for natural resources and their depletion has been the subject of extensive literature 140 (see Edens, (2013) for a review) and is brought together in the SEEA Central Framework 141 (SEEA CF), which has been adopted as a statistical standard by the United Nations Statistical 142 Commission in 2012 (UNSD, 2014a). The SEEA CF allows accounting for individual natural 143 resources, such as stocks and uses of oil and natural gas, timber and fish. However, it does not 144 allow for a comprehensive analysis of ecosystem services or the extent, condition and monetary 145 values of ecosystems. Therefore, we do not consider accounts that have been produced 146 according to the SEEA CF in this paper.

147 We included articles that focus at different spatial scales, from local to national to international 148 levels. These include articles that focus on environmental issues, including ecosystems "core" 149 (e.g. extent, condition, ecosystem services, assets) and "thematic" (e.g. carbon, water, 150 biodiversity and land) account in the SEEA EA (UNSD, 2021). Another important clarification is 151 that the literature reviewed here focuses on the production of accounts, a parallel but different 152 literature than the one dealing with the assessments of ecosystems and their services (e.g. 153 publications from the Intergovernmental Panel on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services 154 (IPBES), The Economics of Ecosystems and Biodiversity (TEEB), The Millennium ecosystem 155 Assessment (MA). While assessments are producing or using data to answer specific policy or 156 research questions, accounting is dedicated to the structuring of information systems in a 157 consistent and comparable manner. Finally, this review focuses on national accounting, and 158 does not consider the many initiatives dedicated to the inclusion of environmental information in 159 corporate accounting (Houdet et al. 2020). While organizational accounting is outside the scope, 160 articles focusing on links between them, or on national accounting conducted at sub-national 161 scale, are included (Ingram et al., 2022).

162 <u>2.1 Process of selecting articles</u>

163 The literature on ecosystem accounting is reviewed systematically, over the period 1990-2021,

using Web of Science and Scopus as the two databases exploited. The search terms used toretrieve the literature are presented in Table 1.

166

167 Table 1: Terms used for the finding of articles on ecosystem accounting (TI: Title)

Search terms	Database	Timespan
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TITLE-ABS-KEY ("ecosystem accounting") OR ("natural capital accounting") OR ("ecological accounting") OR ("environmental accounting") OR ("green accounting") AND (nation* OR public) AND PUBYEAR AFT 1989 AND PUBYEAR BEF 2022	Scopus	1990-2021
TI=(ecosystem OR green OR "natural capital" OR ecological OR environmental) AND TS=(nation* OR public) AND TI=(account*)	Web of Science	1990-2021
TI=(ecosystem accounting) OR TI=(natural capital accounting) OR TI=(ecological accounting) OR TI=(environmental accounting) AND TS= (nation*)	Web of Science	1990-2021

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171

172 Figure 1: Process of systematically selecting and analysis the literature

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174 After retrieving the literature from the two databases (1510 results), duplicates within databases 175 and duplicates common to the two databases were removed, reducing the list to 1018 resulting 176 articles (Figure 1). Missing abstracts and type of documents were then added manually to the 177 database. Non-peer-reviewed articles were removed (e.g. book chapters, news articles, conference papers, working papers) from a screen of "type of document". Then, articles that 178 179 referred to corporate accounting (e.g. life cycle assessments or Environmental Management 180 Accounting for example) or used the word accounting to mean "take into account" were 181 removed, screening through paper title, journal, abstract, and keywords. Finally, articles that do 182 not focus on ecosystems are removed. There are several of them, such as Aronson (1998) or

Aury (2007), that only include resource depletion (mostly minerals and non-renewables, energy,
and air pollution) in their work and so were not considered in the review. The final list of peerreviewed articles analyzed here contains 378 articles.

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187 <u>2.2 Categories of analysis of the literature</u>

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We produced a grid of themes, with detailed typologies to analyze and categorize the literature to answer our specific research objectives. These include: metadata of the articles containing general information, context information including spatial characteristics, purpose, topics addressed by the authors, then the values and theories underlying the accounts, accounting methods used to produce the accounts, and a description of the accounts produced in terms of geographic location, ecosystems and ecosystem services (see annex 1 for more details).

195 2.2.1 Metadata

196 These represent the standard way of assigning information to research articles in order to 197 conduct a systematic literature review, including authors, title, abstract, journal, year of 198 publication, keywords, and type of document, and were retrieved directly from Scopus and Web 199 of Science.

- 200
- 201 2.2.2 Contextual elements

Here, information on the locations where accounts have been produced and experimented is retrieved. This information will give us clues as to which countries or territories are the most advanced in producing ecosystem accounts, as this process is in part driven by research activities. The topics identified in ecosystem accounting will be important information on future research opportunities to strengthen the development of ecosystem accounts. Accounting frameworks are the foundations on which studies build to produce or refine accounting systems.

A distinction has also been made between articles that are only theoretical in nature, and the ones that attempt to construct ecosystem accounts, which will be called "applied articles".

210 2.2.3 Underlying values and economic theories mobilized

211 Various sets of theories have been described to characterize different types of values: intrinsic 212 (i.e. nature, biodiversity); instrumental (i.e. nature's contribution to people, ecosystem services); 213 and relational values (i.e. individual, collective). Classification of values of ecosystems have 214 been proposed over the years. IPBES has produced a classification of the different systems of 215 values used to relate societies relationships with nature (Pascual et al., 2017). In relation to the 216 update of the SEEA EA, a discussion paper on values proposed four categories of values, 217 which we use here (Barton et al., 2019). It is a matrix with two dimensions: anthropocentric and 218 non-anthropocentric for the first dimension and intrinsic, relational, or instrumental for the 219 second dimension. The ecosystem accounting frameworks usually rely on anthropocentric 220 instrumental values of nature, as the integration accounts into the System of National Accounts 221 (SNA) relies on assumptions that hardly accommodate other values (e.g. the common metric is 222 exchange values, institutional sectors are clearly identified). Other types of values (e.g. intrinsic 223 and relational values) exist and could be used to support the creation of ecosystem accounting. 224 While the discussion paper 5.1 of the revision of the SEEA EA suggests that biophysical

accounts relate to intrinsic values and economic accounts relate to instrumental values (Barton et al., 2019), we propose here to classify economic accounts based on the maintenance of critical natural capital as belonging to intrinsic values (Farmer and Randall, 1998).

228 2.2.4 Accounting methods

To produce ecosystem accounts, a diverse set of methodologies exists, which are linked to the values and conceptual frameworks mobilized by account developers (Santos-Martin et al., 2018, Obst et al., 2016, Bartelmus, 2009). These methods are categorized in two types: nonmonetized (producing information with various biophysical and socio-economic units such as hectares, number of species, time traveled, employment) and monetized (producing figures in monetary terms).

235

236 2.2.5 Accounts developed

237 A wide variety of ecosystem accounts has been developed in the literature and are recorded 238 here for each study. For example, there are various accounts including ecosystem extent, 239 condition, ecosystem services, and assets proposed in the structure of the SEEA EA, as well as 240 thematic accounts. Other accounts include ecological footprints (Wackernagel et al., 1999), 241 emergy accounts based on thermodynamics (Campbell and Brown, 2012), or green accounts of 242 adjusted macro-aggregates (added value, income, investment, demand). This review will not 243 only classify and analyze all the types of ecosystem accounts produced, but also the 244 components of environment-economy they are attempting to cover (from ecosystem functions, 245 biodiversity to ecosystem services).

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3. <u>Results</u>

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250 3.1 Overview of published ecosystem accounts

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These first results present an overview of the literature on ecosystem accounting: what accounting frameworks are developed, the temporal evolution of the literature, the topics these articles address, and the outlets that publishes them, to have a sense of the scientific disciplines involved.





Figure 2: share of different conceptual frameworks in the literature reviewed. SEEA: System of Environmental-Economic Accounting; NAMEA: National Accounting Matrix for Environmental Accounting; MFA: Material Flow Accounting; AAS/EAF: Agroforestry Accounting System.

264 Eleven accounting frameworks dealing with ecosystems have been identified. The main one is 265 the System of Environmental-Economic Accounting (SEEA), with 45% of the articles reviewed 266 here using this framework to discuss or produce ecosystem accounts (Figure 2). There are 267 several iterations of the SEEA. The first one was first published in the 1990s under the name 268 Integrated Environmental and Economic Accounting (Bartelmus et al., 1991; United Nations, 269 1993). It was first revised in 2003 (United Nations et al., 2003). A second revision, in 2012, gave 270 rise to a volume solely dedicated to ecosystems accounting, the SEEA Experimental Ecosystem 271 Accounting (SEEA-EEA) (UNSD, 2014b). A third revision has just been adopted as a statistical 272 standard in its chapters 1-7 on the biophysical accounts of ecosystem extent, condition, and 273 ecosystem services. Research articles throughout the period studied have been discussing 274 ecosystems in the context of these different versions of the SEEA. The SEEA is currently the 275 only accounting framework that contains both biophysical and economic accounts consistent 276 with the System of National Accounts (SNA) (Figure 2).

277

The second most used framework is green accounting (14% of articles), also referred to as welfare accounting, that encompasses research conducted mostly by economists, with theoretical developments on welfare (El Serafy, 1998; Cairns, 2000; Dasgupta, 2009; Arrow et al., 2012; Mäler, 1991) and practical applications that have produced for example the Genuine Savings, which extends a nation's capital stock to include natural capital, implemented in most countries of the world (e.g. Hassan and Ngwenya, 2006 in Swaziland, or Lange et al., 2018 for a global picture). The main difference between the green accounting literature and the SEEA is their approach to monetary valuation. Under the SEEA, monetary valuation of ecosystem goods
and services is using exchange values to be consistent with SNA, thus neglecting consumer
surpluses, while the green accounting literature specifically aims at assessing welfare values
that are not consistent with the SNA (Caparrós et al., 2017; Hein et al., 2016).

289

290 Many articles are also written about biophysical approaches to the environment economy 291 relationship. The emergy/exergy framework (9% of articles), which is very different from the 292 SEEA and Green accounting conceptually, is using principles of thermodynamics and uses 293 solar energy as a single unit to describe interactions between the economy and the environment 294 (Odum, 1996; Ugliati and Brown, 1998), and it has been used in the Asia and Pacific region 295 (Chen and Chen, 2007). Also converting human-environment interactions into a single unit is 296 the ecological footprint framework (7% of articles) (and sometimes discussed in relation with 297 emergy (Shao et al., 2013)), which converts human appropriation of natural capital into a metric 298 of sustainable use of biologically productive areas (Wackernagel et al., 1999). A third framework 299 of this "reductionist" nature is the Material Flow Accounting (MFA; Radermacher, 1999) (3% of 300 articles), which is now one of the accounts of the SEEA CF and includes flows of emissions and 301 waste (UNSD, 2014a). Since the goal of ecosystem accounts is to go beyond the construction 302 of accounts of material flows (Weber, 2007), we find very little literature on MFA in this review. 303 These frameworks target ecological processes but do not differentiate specific ecosystems. 304 They can however differentiate between economic sectors. Similarly, the National Accounting 305 Matrix for Environmental Accounting (NAMEA) (2% of articles), is producing accounts at the 306 sectoral level on environmental impacts and can be linked to the SEEA (Dalmazzone and La 307 Notte, 2013).

308

309 All the other frameworks have been developed by specific research programs. The Agroforestry 310 Accounting System (AAS) framework (3% of articles) has been developed in Spain (Campos et 311 al., 2008) over the past decade. This framework is consistent with the exchange value criteria of 312 national accounts and that propose a full set of economic accounts with a headline indicator, 313 Environmental Income (Campos et al., 2019). All other frameworks represent less than 2% of 314 the articles included here. The Ecosystem Natural Capital Accounting (ENCA) framework 315 developed by the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) (Weber, 2014), has similar aspects 316 as the SEEA, including a geospatial biophysical basis, and differences as it describes the 317 integration of indicators into an index, the Ecosystem Capability Unit (ECU). The Environmental 318 Sustainability Gap (ESGAP) framework operationalizes indices of strong sustainability (Ekins et 319 al., 2003) that stems from the notion of critical natural capital as a minimum level of natural 320 capital that is not substitutable (Ekins & Simons, 1999). China's Gross Ecosystem Product is a 321 more recent endeavor, valuing in monetary terms ecological degradation to produce macro-322 economic indicators (Ma et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2021). Other frameworks discuss forms of 323 structuring environmental information, such as the FDES of the United Nations (Bartelmus, 324 2015) and the evaluative information systems for conservation (EISC) (Feger et al., 2017).

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Figure 3: Evolution of the number of articles published over the years. Distinction has been
 made between articles following the SEEA or other frameworks, and articles with or without
 application ("applied" or "theoretical")

From 2015 to 2021, more articles have been published using the SEEA than all the other conceptual frameworks combined (Figure 3). This shows a commitment from the scientific community to build on this framework for developing ecosystem accounting, and which is fed by concepts and methodologies from the other frameworks. For example, researchers on the AAS framework are now comparing their findings with the SEEA EA framework (Campos et al., 2019). 253 out of the 378 (67%) articles reviewed are applied. These applications can be found as tables, graphs or maps, and be very focused or very broad in scope. The number of articles containing an application is growing faster than conceptual articles, which indicates that ecosystem accounting is becoming operational and work is now moving towards case studies and implementation in different settings (Figure 3).



Figure 4: Journals publishing three or more of the articles reviewed here. Size represents the relative share of articles published, color represents main topic of the journal (Orange=economics, Light Green=ecology, Dark Blue=accounting).

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354 The articles reviewed are published in 141 different journals. Thirty journals published three or 355 more of the reviewed articles (Figure 4). While it is not possible to reduce all of these journals to single scientific disciplines, they revolve around three fields, from most to least invested in 356 357 publications of ecosystem accounting studies: economics, ecology, and accounting. Most of the 358 studies are published in journals at the interface of ecology and economics, with 'Ecological 359 Economics' standing out (55 articles published in this journal). There are relatively few papers 360 published in accounting journals, which may reflect that ecosystem accounting is not yet 361 considered mainstream in accounting, and that ecosystem accounting builds on an 362 interdisciplinary approach requiring spatial modelling and ecological skills that may be 363 somewhat scarcer in the accounting community. Economists are bigger contributors to the 364 literature than accountants, which may have implications in terms of constructing ecosystem 365 accounts as some concepts do not have the same meaning in economics and in accounting 366 sciences. For instance, the role of modelling and of accounting prices are not used necessarily 367 in the same way in these two fields (Mäler et al., 2008), as the default rule is to use historical exchange prices in accounting as a measure of value, whereas most economists are concernedwith welfare measures of value.

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Figure 5: Evolution of the topics addressed by the scientific literature, in number of articles per year (top) and distribution of articles by types per year (bottom).

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378 The topics identified in the literature on constructing ecosystem accounts are important 379 elements to guide future research. Part of the literature focuses on concepts to construct 380 ecosystem accounting frameworks. For instance, a clear definition of ecosystem services (ES) 381 is a prerequisite to the accounting of ES flows and their inclusion in adjusted-macro-aggregates 382 (Boyd, 2007). Concepts and methodologies represent more than 50% of the topics that the 383 literature addresses (Figure 5). The number of articles focusing on conceptual topics is still 384 increasing, but its relative share in the topics covered in the literature is decreasing. 385 Methodological issues pertaining to ecosystem accounting are now the main topic that the 386 literature is attempting to address. Still a minority, an increasing number of articles over the 387 recent years addresses issues of data access, standardization, and collaborations. 388 Collaborations between different disciplines (ecology, economics, and accounting) and between 389 different stakeholders (public and private sectors) are now seen as crucial for the establishment 390 of natural capital accounts (Boyd et al., 2018; Hein et al., 2020).

391

A relatively recent topic identified in the literature is the need for policy relevance of ecosystem accounting. Given that the overarching goal of ecosystem accounting is to guide public policies, it is surprising to find that this issue is only recently starting to be addressed. There are recent calls from the global community, for instance from the Rio+20 Conference, for producing ecosystem accounts, that respond to policy demands (Bagstad et al., 2021). Most of the studies 397 that include a discussion on policy describe in a general way how correcting national accounts 398 would give a more accurate picture of economic activity and therefore help decisions which are 399 based on the use of these figures (e.g. Ochuodho, & Alavalapati, 2016). Some articles are 400 looking at the use of accounting to respond to specific policy agendas such as the Sustainable 401 Development Goals, or to identify policy barriers to implementation of ecosystem accounting 402 (Terema et al., 2016). One paper discusses how ecosystem accounts have been used in 403 support of policy making (Shvidenko et al., 2010). Overall, it seems that more in-depth 404 collaboration between scientists and stakeholders outside of academia is needed to improve 405 policy uptake of ecosystem accounts (Bagstad et al., 2021).

406

407 Differentiating the topics that are the most addressed across the main conceptual frameworks of 408 ecosystem accounting shows that methodological gaps are the main focus across the main 409 frameworks. The frequency of the other topics varies greatly between the different conceptual 410 frameworks. One clear result is the focus of green accounting on conceptual issues, with less 411 emphasis on issues related to constructing accounts empirically (data, data access, 412 standardization issues). Indeed, economic theory on the value of natural capital and its 413 implication for wellbeing has emerged within the green accounting field (Arrow et al., 2012; Dasgupta, 2009; Cairns, 2000). On the contrary, the SEEA framework has been the focus of 414 415 both theoretical but also empirical research articles. Collaboration is the subject of 30% of 416 articles within the NAMEA framework, while only 3% of the investigations of emergy/exergy 417 identify this topic. The ecological footprint is still being pursued, including by studies 418 commissioned by the World Wildlife Fund, and this remains a policy relevant indicator. 419 Potentially, in the future data form the SEEA ecosystem accounts could be used in support of 420 assessing national or even global ecological footprints.

421

422 <u>3.2 The scope of applications</u>

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Here are presented details on which ecosystems are studied in applications, what are the
underlying values behind these accounts, what kind of methods are used to produce accounts,
and the links between ecosystem accounts and national accounts.

427



Figure 6: Number of articles focusing on each ecosystem per year. NB: palm oil plantations arepart of cropland, not forest ecosystems. Fisheries are part of marine ecosystems.

432

433 A large portion of articles containing applications does not specifically define ecosystems. This 434 is explained by many articles designed around sectors instead of ecosystems (e.g. agriculture, 435 industry) or because articles discuss specific issues not tied to particular ecosystems (e.g. 436 valuing ecosystem services). For the ecosystems that are explicitly mentioned, forests and 437 woodlands are the most studied, and one of the few ecosystems studied since the beginning of 438 the study period (Figure 6). The least studied is sparsely vegetated land. An increasing attention 439 is dedicated to marine and coastal ecosystems (Buonocore et al., 2020; Cavalletti et al., 2020; 440 Dvarskas, 2019; Fenichel et al., 2020; Lai et al., 2018), supported by the Global Ocean 441 Accounts Partnership (https://www.oceanaccounts.org/).

442

While some studies are broad scale and cover a large array of ecosystems (dark shade, Figure SM1), other studies focus on one or two ecosystems, and particularly on forests. It may be the case because forests are important functionally, provide many ecosystem services, have been a subject of accounting for a longer time, and are easier to study compared to more remote ecosystems such as marine and coastal ecosystems. This however could bias the design of ecosystem accounting that should be applicable to all ecosystems, for example as the use of remote sensing to map ecosystem extent is harder for marine ecosystems.

	Anthropocentric	Anthropocentric	Non-anthropocentric	Non-anthropocentric
	Instrumental	Relational	instrumental	Intrinsic
Theoretical	64%	26%	36%	5%
Applied	77%	15%	40%	3%
All articles	74%	17%	42%	4%

Table 2: Percentages of articles belonging to four dimensions of values. As multiple values are possible, the sum of percentage across the four categories of values is higher than 100%.

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455 The majority of articles reviewed (68%) here can be classified as using an instrumental 456 approach (Table 2). This is intuitive as one of the objectives of ecosystem accounting is to relate 457 the status and uses of ecosystems to the economy (the national accounts). There is also an 458 important proportion of articles that are classified as non-anthropogenic instrumental (29%). A 459 recent focus of the literature has been to experiment biophysical accounts of ecosystem extent 460 and condition of the SEEA (and species accounts, e.g., Weir (2018)), which falls in this category 461 of values (Maes et al., 2020; Czúcz et al., 2021; Keith et al., 2021). Some articles also develop 462 economic accounts focused on the maintenance and restoration of critical natural capital (Ekins 463 et al., 2003; Levrel et al., 2014). A non-negligible percentage of articles also belong to the 464 relational category of values towards nature. Relational values include cultural, social, emotional 465 and physical relationships with nature. Articles on ecosystem accounting discussing non-466 anthropocentric values are marginal but not totally absent. These discussions revolve around 467 the implications of accounting on ethical choices (Gamborg, 2002), for instance on the design of 468 information systems to manage uses of multiple actors including world views or ceremonial uses 469 of indigenous peoples (Feger et al., 2017; Normyle et al., 2022;).

470

471 While there is ongoing research on eliciting different definitions and measurements of these 472 different values (Arias-Arévalo et al., 2017; Jacobs et al., 2018), our crude approach can be 473 used to analyze the differences between what values are discussed in theory vs. in practice. 474 The applied articles are more inclined to use instrumental as opposed to relational and intrinsic 475 values (70%, Table 2), which is associated with the fact that instrumental values are more easily 476 guantifiable, and a large amount of methods has been developed to guantify instrumental 477 relationships between ecosystems and the economy. There is a spike in instrumental values in 478 2007 linked to the special issue on accounting in the journal Ecological Economics that 479 introduced advances in the 2003 version of the SEEA (Lange, 2007). Relational values are 480 more difficult to quantify and indeed we find more theoretical than applied articles discussing 481 this type of value. For example, Sullivan & Hannis (2017) criticize economic quantification of 482 nature in environmental accounting, which (according to them) misses the point of "value" of 483 nature and is set in a specific political setting where natural capital is a rent that rewards private 484 ownership of nature.

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Figure 7: Number of applied articles using monetized methods (left, orange) and non-monetized
 methods (right, green) to construct accounts

492

493 There are mainly two types of methods to produce ecosystem accounts: monetized methods 494 and non-monetized (i.e. biophysical and socio-cultural) valuation methods (Santos-Martin et al., 495 2018; Schröter et al., 2016). These are not mutually exclusive, as producing monetary values of 496 ecosystem services often relies on surveys, questionnaires, and other types of assessments. A 497 large variety of methods are used in the literature to produce accounts, which we classified in 24 498 non-monetized methods and 24 monetized valuation methods (Figure 7). This result parallels 499 the predominant use of instrumental and to a lesser extent intrinsic values above relational 500 value.

501

502 Looking specifically at the monetized valuation methods, market prices are the most used 503 methodology, which is consistent with the use of exchange values recommended in the SNA 504 (SNA, 2008). Many articles use preference-based methods to conduct economic valuation of ecosystem accounts since 2000 (Figure 7). For instance, articles developing the AAS 505 506 framework use preference-based methods to estimate simulated exchange value and not the 507 consumer surplus or other welfare measure (Campos et al., 2021). Several propositions on the 508 measurement of the cost of degradation are starting to offer consistent complementary accounts 509 to the current structure developed in the SEEA Ecosystem Accounts (Ogilvy et al., 2018; Comte 510 et al., 2020).

- 511
- 512 Biophysical quantification and representation on maps is fundamental for ecosystem 513 accounting. The UN is working on updated valuation guidelines for SEEA EA that will parallel

514 their guidelines for biophysical modeling (United Nations, 2022). Monetary accounts can't be 515 compiled without precise biophysical quantification, because biophysical data on ecosystem 516 services is required as input into their monetary valuation (UN et al., 2021). However reliable 517 biophysical data is required for sustainable use and management of ecosystems, ecosystem 518 services and natural capital accounting at local, country, and regional levels. Biophysical data 519 can be gathered either by direct observations and measurements, by indirect methods such as 520 proxies or spatial extrapolation, or by modelling. In practice, multiple different methods are often 521 used together, e.g. via integrated modelling platforms such as InVEST or ARIES, or through 522 purpose-fitted selection of appropriate data and methods.

523

524 It is becoming increasingly clear that Artificial Intelligence (AI) and Machine Learning (ML) will 525 greatly enhance our capacity to model and understand ecosystem services, in particular 526 regulating and cultural services that require modelling of complex, spatially variable processes 527 involving large amounts of data. For example, Duku and Hein (2021) analyze the rainfall 528 maintenance service in Africa using ML, Araza et al. (2021) produce an above ground biomass 529 map of the Philippines that can be extended to map carbon sequestration and Havinga et al. 530 92021) analyse landscape aesthetic quality with ML. The results obtained in these models could 531 not have been achieved with traditional, e.g. process-based, modelling approaches. It is clear 532 that, with large datasets increasingly available and the new generation of students increasingly 533 schooled in ML this type of analysis will soon dominate the field of ES modelling.

534

In the context of ecosystem accounting, it is important to highlight ARIES, developed by researchers at the Basque Centre for Climate Change. This tool is an integrated, open-source modelling platform for environmental sustainability, where researchers from across the globe can add their own data and models to web-based repositories. In particular, the ARIES for SEEA Explorer application allows users anywhere in the world to produce rapid, standardized, scalable and customizable ecosystem accounts for their area of interest that are consistent with the SEEA Ecosystem Accounting framework.

542

543 In the ecosystem service supply and use account, most studies focus on provisioning and 544 regulation services (both discussed by 32% of the articles reviewed), as opposed to cultural 545 services (22% of articles). The tendency to discuss or even assess more provisioning and 546 regulation services has also been highlighted in other papers containing ecosystem service 547 assessments like in Campagne et al. (2020) which show that in 108 papers using the matrix 548 approach (Burkhard et al. 2014) to assess ecosystem services, 94% assessed regulation 549 services, 87% assessed provisioning services and 83% assessed cultural services. Similar 550 tendency with more assessments of regulation services has been highlighted also in Egoh et al. 551 (2012); Crossman et al (2013); Haase et al. (2014); Malinga et al. (2015); Englund et al. (2017) 552 and Hölting et al. (2019).

553

554 Our literature review shows that an impressive number of accounts has been published. We 555 count more than 25 unique types of accounts produced by the 253 applied articles reviewed 556 here, among which the 6 core accounts and 5 thematic accounts proposed in the SEEA EA, but 557 also ecological footprint accounts such as the embodied ecological overshoot account in China 558 between 1981 and 2001 (Chen & Chen, 2007), or green accounts such as the wealth account 559 for storm protection benefits from marsh creation in Louisiana (Barbier, 2016). Within these 560 categories, 614 individual accounts have been reported in the literature, presented as tables, 561 maps, or graphs in the publications. The vast majority of research papers focus on one or two 562 ecosystem accounts. The exceptions are seminal papers, either applied or conceptual, including 563 Bartelmus et al. (1991) that first built the conceptual frameworks to link environmental and 564 economic accounting and builds the accounts for one selected country and Dubé et al. (2006) 565 that syntheses forestry and forestry-related accounts in a selected number of countries. Also, 566 Edens and Hein (2013) propose a consistent way of including ecosystem services and 567 ecosystem assets into ecosystem accounting.

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570 <u>3.3 Zooming into applications of the SEEA EA</u>

572 After the adoption the SEEA EA framework as a globlal statistical standard (UN et al., 2021), 573 several guidelines and technical reports are being developed to support the implementation 574 strategy of ecosystem accounts: Guidelines on Biophysical Modelling (UN 2022); a Technical 575 report on Monetary Valuation of Ecosystem Services and Assets (Interim version); as well as 576 tools to support compilation such as ARIES for SEEA.

578 Here are provided results specifically linked to the implementation of the SEEA EA framework 579 and concern the types of accounts produced and their geographic scope.

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584 Figure 8: Number of applied articles that have produced accounts within the SEEA EA core 585 accounts, per region of the world

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587 The main accounts discussed in the literature on the SEEA are the ecosystem services flows 588 accounts, both in biophysical and monetary terms (Figure 7; e.g. Schröter et al., 2016; Lai et al., 589 2018; Remme et al., 2015). The least discussed accounts are the condition account and the 590 capacity account. Even though some interesting developments have attempted to operationalize 591 ecosystem capacity account as a measure of sustainability (Schröter et al, 2014; La Notte et al. 592 2019a; Hein et al., 2016), this account does not appear in the last version of the SEEA EA 593 (UNSD, 2020), but could be integrated in the condition account (Comte et al., 2020).

594

595 Geographical disparities exist in the production of ecosystem accounts. Europe is the region of 596 the world that has produced the most extensive literature on EA (Figure 8). West-European 597 countries and Australia (part of the East Asia and Pacific region) or the main contributors. 598 Zooming into the ecosystem core accounts proposed in the SEEA EA, a slightly different picture 599 emerges. While Europe is still leading the scientific production, followed by East Asia and 600 Pacific, North America contributes a lot less, and Africa a bit more. North America only 601 contributed to monetary accounts until recently, but biophysical accounts have been produced 602 at the sub-national level in the United States (Warnell et al., 2020). However, SEEA accounts 603 compilation in the US could speed up rapidly now that the White House has communicated an 604 intention to start compiling SEEA ΕA accounts as of 2023 https://www.whitehouse.gov/ostp/news-updates/2022/04/24/accounting-for-nature-on-earth-day-605 606 2022/).

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4. Discussion

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611 *4.1 Frameworks and topics* 612

613 Eleven different conceptual frameworks to produce ecosystem accounts have been highlighted 614 in this review (Figure 2). These frameworks are not completely independent from each other, 615 and overlaps or cross-breeding have occurred. Comparisons and integrations of different 616 frameworks have been discussed, notably to fill conceptual gaps on the many compartments of 617 ecosystem accounting. Lawn (2007), in his review of green accounting, argues for the necessity 618 of using a broad variety of indicators, including economic indicators using the "green 619 accounting" framework and biophysical indicators using the "ecological footprint" approach. 620 Bartelmus (2003) compares material flow analysis and SEEA. Ultimately, MFA and NAMEA 621 were included in the Central Framework of the SEEA. Vargas et al. (2018) also compares the 622 SEEA, but with the more recent framework of planetary boundaries. The ENCA framework 623 developed for the CBD and work on land accounts have participated in the definition of 624 biophysical accounts in the SEEA (Weber, 2007). Research on green accounting was also used 625 as foundations for the SEEA (Mäler et al., 2008). The increase in papers is related to the 626 publication of the SEEA-EEA in 2012. Despite the evolution of topics that are the focus of the 627 literature, conceptual issues are still discussed because of the complexity of accounting for

628 ecosystem and ecosystem services, and because of the conceptual and methodological 629 difficulties to integrate ecosystem accounts with the SNA (La Notte et al., 2020).

630

631 While these discussions have helped to map the different possibilities to build ecosystem 632 accounts, there is limited success in their integration. One stream of ecosystem accounting is 633 green accounting and modifications of NNP to provide welfare aggregates (Mäler, 1991). While 634 it has been argued early on that theoretical advances have been made and that empirical 635 applications should now be undertaken in various countries (Vincent, 2000), this has not turned 636 into reality for the study of ecosystems. Two products, the ISEW and the Genuine Savings, are 637 the empirical applications of these theoretical advances, but have been criticized as 638 inappropriate measure of sustainability (Hueting and Reijnders, 2004). While the World Bank is 639 implementing Genuine Savings in many countries (Lange et al., 2018) and regularly updates its 640 findings (World Bank, 2021), we have not found much of this literature in our review. It appears 641 that this stream of literature has mainly stayed theoretical or focused on the issues of natural 642 resources and pollution, but has not moved to focus on ecosystems and ecosystem services, 643 mainly due to data constraints. However, this body of work has also influenced the initial 644 development of the SEEA (Mäler et al., 2008).

645

646 The sequence of scientific inquiries through time also merits discussion. It appears that the 647 literature began by formulating concepts and methodologies before clarifying the purpose that 648 these accounts could serve in decision-making. Very few have guestioned the use of ecosystem 649 accounting in decision-making explicitly (Recuerdo-Virto et al., 2018). This is one of the major 650 gaps identified in this paper, and that was already revealed for the literature on ecosystem 651 services assessments (Laurans et al., 2015). The value of producing ecosystem accounts is 652 broadly recognized, but their actual use for policy-making is still unknown. Few countries have 653 yet produced these sets of accounts or provided access to underlying spatial data. Capacity 654 building to produce complex ecosystem accounts is still necessary. As macro-economic 655 aggregates, including GDP, are widely used, developing such an aggregate indicator using 656 ecosystem accounts could lead to effective use by decision-makers. Another approach to their 657 use is through a dashboard of indicators (Stiglitz, Sen, Fitoussi, 2009). These visions invariably 658 lead to engage in the discussion of defining sustainability.

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661 *4.2 Sustainability*

662 663 One major conceptual issue to be resolved is the measurement of sustainability (Dietz and 664 Neumayer, 2007; Hamilton, 2016). Sustainability has to be conceptualized with respect to the 665 relationship between ecosystem condition, capacity, and flow of services (La Notte et al., 2019a, 666 with the use of monetary valuation methods, and), with the formulation of critical natural capital 667 (Bordt and Saner, 2018; Fairbrass et al, 2020).

668

Ecosystem accounting goes beyond other approaches to ecosystem analysis through its explicit
 linking of ecosystems to economic and other human activity. The links are forged through the
 services provided by ecosystems and the impacts that economic and other human activity may

672 have on ecosystems and their future capacity. While ecosystem accounting does consider 673 ecosystems and the economy to be different systems, they are analyzed jointly to reflect the 674 fundamental connections between them. The use of an accounting framework enables the stock 675 of ecosystems and flows from ecosystems to be defined in relation to each other and to a range 676 of other sustainability information. Through the adoption of a systems perspective on 677 environmental assets, information organized within the context of SEEA EA is able to provide an 678 indication of impacts (both positive and negative) of economic and other human activity on the 679 environment and can highlight the potential trade-offs among the different combinations of 680 ecosystem services.

681

682 Monetary valuation of ecosystems can be done based on a valuation of the ecosystem services 683 provided by the ecosystem (as in SEEA EA and in Wealth accounting) or based upon 684 alternative approaches such as the restoration cost approach. Antagonist approaches to 685 sustainability are mostly found in the monetary valuation of ecosystems (Dietz and Neumayer, 686 2007). A distinction exists between preference-based valuation and cost-based valuation 687 methods as they represent different kinds of values and are associated with weak and strong approaches to sustainability respectively (Pearce et al., 2001; Levrel et al., 2014; Dietz and 688 689 Neumayer; 2009). Ecosystem accounting does not imply a choice for a specific sustainability 690 paradigm. The information in the accounts can be used to measure sustainability, as far as the 691 use of ecosystems is concerned, in terms of both a weak (allowing conversion of natural to 692 other types of capital) or a strong (allowing no such conversion) sustainability approach. The 693 ecosystem extent and condition accounts show the area covered by different ecosystem types 694 and their condition or state. A strong sustainability paradigm requires these areas and their 695 condition to remain intact, or potentially to allow conversion of one ecosystem type to another, 696 or a decrease in ecosystem quality in one ecosystem if compensated by an increase in quality 697 of another ecosystem. This is measured in the ecosystem accounts. In case a weak 698 sustainability approach is followed, some trade-off between ecosystem and other capital is 699 allowed. In this case, it is useful to have information on the monetary value of ecosystems and 700 the services they supply.

701

Hence, ecosystem accounting can support both (very) weak and (very) strong sustainability
assessments. Depending upon the sustainability paradigm followed, either each individual type
of ecosystem or the total amount of ecosystem assets needs to be at least stable (i.e. not be
depleted or degraded). In both cases, some type of aggregation is necessary in order to
compare trends in different types of ecosystem, or to analyze changes within ecosystem types.
Aggregation is likely to require monetary valuation – since individual biophysical indicators (e.g.
tons of standing biomass and soil organic matter content) cannot be summed.

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Given the importance of measuring the sustainability of ecosystem use, the monetary valuation of ecosystems is also for this reason (in addition to monetary indicators being easier to communicate to policy makers) likely to become more important in the future. This echoes the scientific efforts on the developments of the economic accounts of the SEEA EA, focused on valuing benefits of ecosystem services in economic terms (Hein et al., 2016), which itself is supported by the rapidly growing literature on valuing ecosystem services (Laurans et al., 2015), but the attempt to link measures of inclusive wealth (weak sustainability) with critical naturalcapital resilience is under early development (Walker and Pearson, 2007; Vargas et al., 2018).

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719 This result suggests a gap in scientific efforts towards cost-based methods to produce economic 720 accounts for maintaining critical natural capital (Vanoli, 1995; Bartelmus, 2009). These different 721 points of view have practical implications for ecosystem accounting (Brouwer and Leipert, 722 1999). A welfare approach would include ecosystem services flows in calculation of final output 723 as they represent changes in well-being (Mäler et al., 2008), which would lead to comparability 724 and consistency issues (notably with SNA figures), according to many (Carpenter et al., 2009; 725 Ludwig, 2000; Toman, 1998; Spash and Vatn, 2006). New techniques are allowing the valuation 726 of simulated exchange values that do not include consumer surplus and therefore is not 727 considered a welfare valuation of ecosystems (Caparrós et al., 2017). These monetary 728 valuations are anchored in the weak sustainability paradigm when used to correct macro-729 aggregate figures. The critical natural capital approach in monetary terms emphasize the state 730 of the environment as a reference and maintenance costs as a mean to attain it. It could 731 produce a stand-alone figure of an "ecological debt" in monetary terms, or be included in the 732 national accounts (Vanoli, 1995).

734 Another limitation in ecosystem accounts linked to sustainability is that, to date, there has been 735 relatively little attention for ecosystem regime shifts, resilience and thresholds in ecosystem 736 dynamics (e.g. Folke et al., 2004). These thresholds are critical to the safe operating space and 737 resilience concepts (Steffen et al., 2015; Vargas et al., 2018). Biophysical indicators of critical 738 natural capital need normative targets, using precautionary approaches (Farmer and Randall, 739 1998), operationalized notably through the environmental sustainability gap framework (Ekins & 740 Simon, 1999; Usubiaga-Liaño & Ekins, 2021; Comte et al., 2021). These fields still need to be 741 connected somehow. One possibility is to have reference conditions that describe the 742 boundaries of critical natural capital (Comte et al., 2020).

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745 4.3 Applications and the SEEA

747 The adoption of SEE-EA as global statistical standard, and rolling out this system among 748 countries would greatly enhance the availability of data for ecosystem assessments as well as 749 support a systematic monitoring of ecosystem state and the supply of ecosystem services. 750 Implementing the SEEA EA requires biophysical modelling of ecosystem services. These 751 models should be robust and accurate, have a high spatial resolution and be applicable at local 752 to national scale. In the past decade, several approaches and lines of thinking have been 753 developed on how to model ecosystem services for accounting. In the coming years, one of the 754 main research topic will be how to apply this model for decission making aand discuss 755 complementarity and synergies between approaches. For instance in Europe, the MAIA 756 (Mapping and Assessment for Integrated ecosystem Accounting) projects 757 (https://maiaportal.eu/) aims to promote the mainstreaming of natural capital accounting in EU 758 Member States and Norway.

Western European countries. Australia and North American countries account for a 760 761 disproportionate share of scientific articles. The Netherlands and the United Kingdom seem to 762 be the most advanced in producing SEEA ecosystem accounts (Hein et al., 2020). This could 763 be explained by cultural differences, as ecosystem accounts are produced to inform national 764 accounts and guide public policies in a top-down manner, whereas liberal democracies may be 765 more interested in economic evaluations to inform cost-benefit analyses for public and private 766 decision-making. The Integrated Natural Capital Accounting (INCA) initiative (https://ecosystem-767 accounts.jrc.ec.europa.eu/) is also an important building block that steared the process of 768 ecosystem accounting in Europe. Eurostat, the statistical office of the European Union, is the 769 first to enforce legislation on the mandatory production of ecosystem accounts following the 770 SEEA guidelines (European Commission, 2022). In the emerging world, Mexico, Brazil, China, 771 India and South Africa have been producing ecosystem accounts outside of the peer-reviewed 772 literature, partly thanks to international programs such as Wealth Accounting and the Valuation 773 of Ecosystem Services (WAVES) and Natural Capital Accounting and Valuation of Ecosystem 774 Services (NCAVES) (Hein et al., 2020). So far, there seems to have been relatively little 775 consideration of SEEA accounts in IPBES, which may be related to ecosystem accounts being 776 published only recently in many countries, and to the different perspective on valuation taken in 777 IPBES. Nevertheless, the biophysical information in the SEEA accounts, and parts of the 778 monetary valuation (although narrower in scope than the value concept of IPBES) could support 779 IPBES by providing comprehensive data on ecosystems that is both consistent in time and 780 between countries. At the same time, IPBES yields valuable insights in human-ecosystem 781 interactions that are relevant for SEEA ecosystem accounts. Hence, further collaboration would 782 likely be mutually beneficial.

783

784 A large portion of the literature from 1990 to 2021 focuses on more than one ecosystem, 785 focuses on more than one account, and uses more than one type of methodology to populate 786 these accounts. However, there is no evidence that the number of methods or accounts in a 787 single article is increasing over the years. There is however an upward trend in the number of 788 ecosystems included since 2008. The evidence is therefore not clear that more extensive sets 789 of ecosystem accounts are created over time in the peer-reviewed literature. This may not be 790 the case for several reasons: either the amount of work and the diversity of methods that have 791 to be used to produce an extensive set of ecosystem accounts is a barrier for the scientific 792 community, or the format of journal articles is not appropriate or use to report on a wide variety 793 of ecosystems and accounts in a single paper. Nevertheless, recent examples show that 794 scientific papers can assemble a wide variety of ecosystems and accounts (e.g. Hein et al. 2020 795 and Vallecillo et al., 2019). It is likely that the scientific community focuses on developing and 796 testing ecosystem accounts on specific issues, with standardization and comprehensive 797 applications being conducted outside of the academic literature by statistic offices and other 798 organizations.

799800 *4.4 Limits*

The scope of this review, while designed to be exhaustive, only focuses on the English-written peer-reviewed literature. While this is an important corpus of information, the "grey literature" and the literature published in other languages is at least as valuable, particularly as ecosystem 804 accounting is an applied issue involving many stakeholders, some of which publish grev 805 literature. Many accounts are published by statistical agencies outside peer-reviewed journals 806 and in their native language. Other important sources of knowledge outside the scope concerns 807 London Group papers and reports from international programs such as WAVES 808 (https://www.wavespartnership.org/). Considering the narrow scope of this present review, it 809 was not possible to assess to which extent the literature on ecosystem accounting was used to 810 guide decision making and production of accounts by different actors outside of academia (and 811 particularly statistical offices). We acknowledge that the exclusion of gray literature and the non-812 English language accounts are the major and critical limit of our study, and suggest careful 813 interpretation of the figures presented (particularly Figure 8).

814

815 The list of articles reviewed here does not include much of the literature on environmentally-816 adjusted macro-aggregates such as the concepts of inclusive wealth or genuine savings (World 817 Bank, 2006). These papers, while very important to further the development of new indicators of 818 wealth, mostly consider natural resources (renewables or not) but not ecosystems per se. This 819 review also misses all the "inventories" produced in the literature, including for example 820 greenhouse gas inventories that are reported under the United Nations Framework Convention 821 on Climate Change. Inventories could be associated to satellite accounts (outside of the core 822 set of accounts described in the SNA) for the environment and aim at responding to specific 823 policy objectives, whereas ecosystem accounts should be able to give a broader overview of 824 ecosystem assets (Azqueta and Sotelsek, 2007).

825

826 The uptake of the literature in policy documents is outside the scope of this paper because we 827 do not focus on the grey literature but would be an important avenue for future work. Moving 828 forward, it is recommended to include decision-makers, and not limited to statistical offices but 829 also other departments and ministries at every level of decision, in order to assess the possible 830 use and demands for building ecosystem accounting systems (Vardon et al., 2016; Hein et al., 831 2020). This dialogue could potentially lead to reappraising the sets of accounts to be developed, 832 which may not be aligned with current scientific proposals (Bartelmus, 2015; Comte et al., 833 2020). For instance, van den Bergh & Grazi (2014), argue that while the ecological footprint 834 framework has gained attention in science and the general public, it is not useful for policy-835 making. Because a diverse set of indicators should be developed to produce useful information 836 for policy-making (Lintott, 1996), we hope that the description of the scientific efforts' breadths 837 towards ecosystem accounting presented here will promote its implementation and 838 development across geographies.

839 840

5. Conclusion

841

Ecosystem accounting has grown to become an important theme of research, with increasing number of articles and depth of scope. It first started as an emerging field with theoretical and methodological developments going in different directions. A second phase of structuring and refinement of the concepts and methods, aligned with the principles of accounting, ecology, and economy emerged, around the SEEA. The next phase that is just starting now revolves around testing, engagement, and adoption of ecosystem accounting. More applications are coming out, 848 on specific settings and policy-oriented questions, that engage the broader community beyond 849 academia, including policy makers, managers, private sector, and NGOs.

850

851 It is also paramount to better connect SEEA ecosystem accounting efforts to IPBES, that could 852 benefit from the comprehensive data in the ecosystem accounts in the countries where they are 853 produced. However, the main next step in ecosystem accounting needs to be to connect 854 ecosystem accounts to the user, including national and local policy makers, civil servants 855 informing policy makers, research bodies and environmental assessment agencies informing 856 civil servants informing policy makers, etc. Compiling ecosystem accounts requires substantial 857 investments in data, capacity and forging institutional set-up for data sharing etc. and this will 858 only be sustained if the policy makers and the ministries deciding upon budgets are convinced 859 of the added value of ecosystem accounts. Amongst others, this requires providing easy access 860 to users to all data in accounts, developing the guidance that users need to interpret the data in 861 ecosystem accounts, and showcasing policy applications of accounts. In addition to further 862 enhancing the quality of the accounts, these should be priorities for the accounting community 863 in the coming years.

864 865

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867

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1196 Annex 1: supplementary information

Summary statistics	
Authors	
Title	
Keywords	
Abstract	
Nb Citations	
Affiliation	
Country affiliation	
doi	
Type of document	
Sources of funding	

Context	Justification	
Scale of analysis	Statement	
Location (regions of the world)	World Bank classification	
Location (country)	country or countries where accounts are developed	
Topics identified	Seven possible topics are used to categorize the focus and gaps discussed in the literature: Theories/concepts, Methodologies, Data, Data access, Standardization, Collaborations, and Policy use. These categories partly come from Ekstrom et al., 2015 (itself based on Zins 2007), with addition of standardization as a potential issue for statistics and indicators development. Data = artifacts/raw information: information = structured data; knowledge = subjective construct of information. Data gaps include geographic or sectoral data to complete accounts (for example lacking data on ecosystem deservices to produce ecosystem accounts (Shapiro et al., 2014), updating of the accounts. Collaborations include pluridisciplinary work and resources to produce accounts. Policy-oriented gaps include lack of political will to sustain accounts, and inappropriateness of accounts to answer policy needs.	
Conceptual framework	Several concepts have emerged in the literature on ecosystem accounting, including the UN's SEEA (UNSD, 2014a,b), the CBD's ENCA (Wever, 2014), ecological footprints (Wackernagel et al., 1997), thermodynamics accounting (emergy), green	

accounting (Arrow,), Ekin's SGAP (Ekins et al., 2003), and the
evaluative information systems for conservation (EISC) (Feger
et al., 2017)

Theory/economics	Justification
Values	We chose a typology that is relevant specifically for ecosystem accounting, from the discussion paper 5.1 of the SEEA EEA revision process (Barton et al., 2019).

Methods	Justification	
Non-monetized methods	Santos-Martin et al 2018; EPA 2009, Vaissière et al., 2013	
Monetized valuation methods	Obst et al., 2016, Santos-Martin et al., 2018, Levrel et al., 2014	

Accounts	Justification	
Core accounts (SEEA EEA)	Following the SEEA-EEA	
Thematic accounts (SEEA EEA)	Following the SEEA-EEA	
Accounts (non-SEEA)	From the literature	
Categories of ecosystem services	Based on the CICES classification (Haines-Young and Potschin (2010))	
Units used	from literature; access can be public or private access, or distance to access a natural amenity	
Ecosystems	From the literature	
Input data	From the literature	



Figure SM1: Number of ecosystems studied, in percent of applied articles. Black: article considers this ecosystem in addition to at least 5 other ecosystems, shades of blue: this ecosystem and a total of 4 to 1 ecosystems per article were studied in the papers. Light blue: only this ecosystem is studied in a single article. NB: palm oil plantations are part of cropland, not forest. Fisheries are part of marine ecosystems.