

Accounting and valuing the ecosystem services related to water supply in the Central Highlands of Victoria, Australia

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Abstract

We examine the theoretical and practical aspects of accounting and valuing the ecosystem services of water provisioning, water filtration and water storage using the System of Environment-Economic Accounting (SEEA) and a case study from Central Highlands of Victoria Australia. We identify: (1) the ecosystem assets providing the ecosystem services, which is both the water body (e.g. lake or artificial reservoir) and surrounding land including the vegetation cover; (2) how these ecosystem services are used as inputs to the production of “Natural Water” as defined in the Central Product Classification used in the System of National Accounts and the SEEA, and; (3) value the ecosystem services using exchange values and the replacement cost method. We propose that for accounting purposes, the generation and use of the ecosystem services of water filtration and water provisioning is simultaneous for the water sources used for supplying water to the economy. The ecosystem service of water provisioning is equal to inflow of runoff and precipitation to reservoirs used by the water industry and recorded at the time of the inflow, not when the water is abstracted and supplied as the product “Natural Water” to households and business.

Highlights

- Water suppliers use a range of ecosystem services with the main ones being water provisioning, water filtration, and water storage.
- We show how these services can be included in the System of Environmental-Economic Accounts, and specifically when and where different services are used and how these are transformed into products as recorded in the traditional national accounts.
- Recording the use of ecosystem services in production within the economy will need to be developed in ways that ensure consistent recording across ecosystem services and across the industries and sectors using them.

Key words

System of Environmental-Economic Accounting; water provisioning; water filtration; water storage; exchange value

37 1. Introduction

38 Natural capital accounting is promoted as a way of integrating physical and monetary
39 information on the environment and the economy to provide a more complete and regular
40 source of information to aid decision making in both the public and private sectors (Boyd et
41 al. 2018; Ruijs et al. 2018). The inclusion of ecosystem services in natural capital accounting
42 is a relatively new field of research with much work ongoing (e.g. Bagstad et al. 2013;
43 Barbier 2014; Eigenraam and Obst 2018; Obst et al. 2015; UN et al. 2014b; UN 2017;
44 Vardon et al. 2018; La Notte et al. 2019). While progress has been made, the work has
45 highlighted the difficulties of different professions working together (e.g. accountants,
46 economists, ecologists, hydrologists and government officials), each with their own
47 worldview, research methods and specialist vocabulary. A key aim of this paper is to
48 continue to build understanding between the different professions, which itself has already
49 been a considerable achievement, by presenting a case study of accounting for the ecosystem
50 services used for water supply in the Central Highlands of Victoria, Australia.

51
52 Key government decision-making processes revolve around budgeting and economic policy
53 that is underpinned by macro-economic theory linking employment, market demand, saving
54 and investment (e.g., Keynes 1936; Kuznets 1949; Clarke et al. 1949). The System of
55 National Accounts (SNA) (UN, 1953) was developed to support macro-economic decision-
56 making. The SNA covers economic activity – production, consumption and accumulation –
57 in all industries (e.g. agriculture, mining, manufacturing, electricity and water supply, health
58 and education). For more than 50 years, governments and businesses have used information
59 from the SNA in economic analysis and decision-making (e.g. Stuvell 1955; Ruggles and
60 Ruggles, 1999). The theoretical underpinnings of the SNA have not changed substantially
61 since 1953, although the detail has continued to evolve with technological, economic and
62 social change (see EC et al. 2009). The SNA is an information source, providing both a
63 framework for understanding the economy, as well as the data describing the economic
64 system. Accounts consistent with the SNA are produced by virtually all governments of the
65 world¹. It has, however, long been recognised that SNA does not adequately account for the
66 inputs from the environment (e.g. Nordhaus and Tobin 1972) and that economic activity is
67 the key driver of environmental degradation (e.g. Rockström et al. 2009).

68
69 Accounting for ecosystem services provides a means to quantify the inputs from the
70 environment to economic activity (UN et al. 2014b), and human well-being more generally
71 (Boyd and Banzhoff 2007). This allows more informed decision-making as well as providing
72 economic reasons to protect and restore ecosystems. Aligning the concepts of ecosystem
73 services with those of traditional accounting has led to the System of Environment-Economic
74 Accounting Experimental Ecosystem Accounting (SEEA-EEA) (UN et al. 2014b) and
75 associated technical recommendations to support its implementation (UN 2017). The recent
76 development of the SEEA-EEA means that there is relatively little experience with its
77 application.

78
79 When and where ecosystem services are produced by ecosystems needs to be matched with
80 when and where they are used by economic units (e.g. households and industry). This
81 approach extends the inputs to production considered in the SNA (e.g. Eigenraam and Obst
82 2018; La Notte et al 2019). Here we draw on the SEEA-EEA and other material to test the
83 extended accounting framework and explore options for the treatment and valuation of the

¹ See the UN National Accounts Statistics: Main Aggregates and Detail Tables.
<https://unstats.un.org/unsd/nationalaccount/madt.asp>

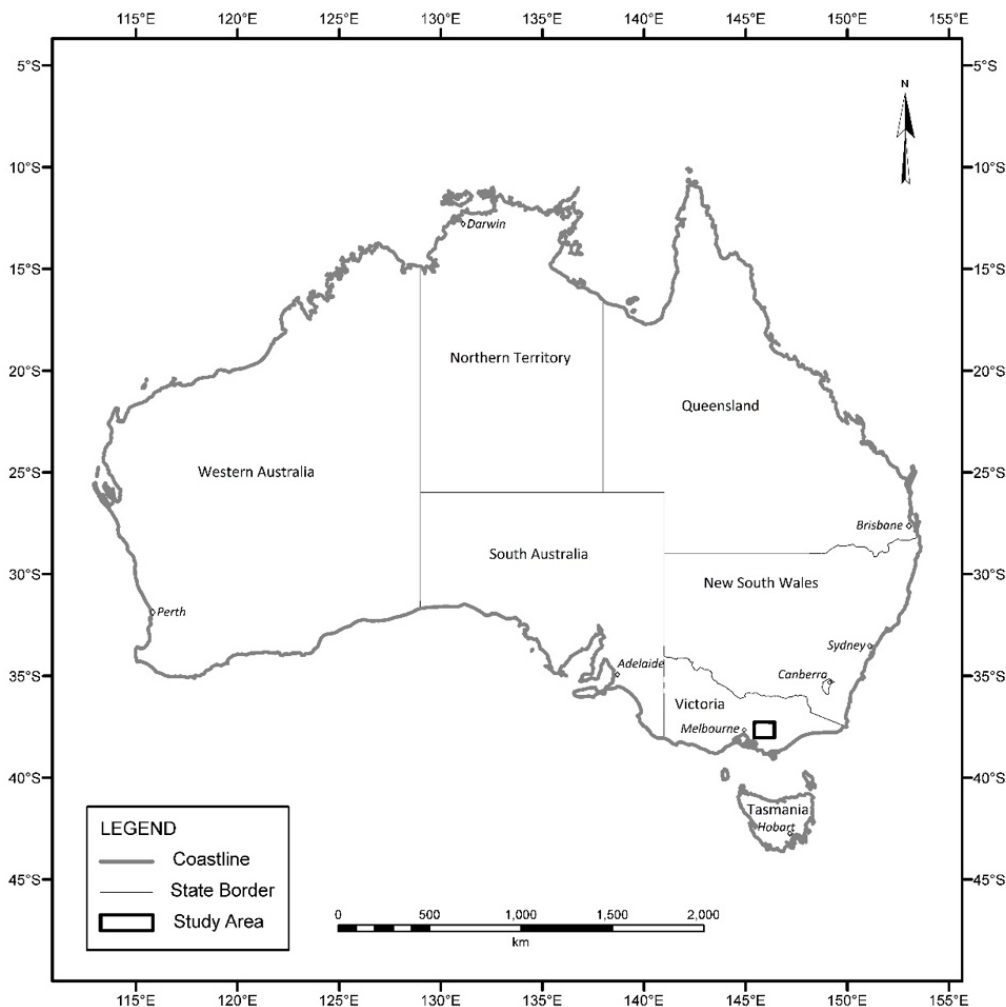
84 ecosystem services related to water supply, using data from the Central Highlands of Victoria
85 in south-eastern Australia (Fig. 1).

86

87 Ecosystem services related to water supply were chosen as: (1) water is a vital resource in
88 every nation; (2) water is usually managed to ensure consistent supply to people and not as a
89 pure economic good for profit maximisation and; (3) there is growing experience with
90 accounting for water (e.g. ABS 2017b; BoM 2016; Edens and Graveland 2014; Smith et al.
91 2017; Vardon et al. 2012) and ecosystem services related to water (Egoh et al. 2012;
92 Hackbart et al. 2017; Martinez-Harms and Balvanera 2012). In addition, the data for the
93 Central Highlands of Victoria are useful for decision-making. This is because there is conflict
94 between the use of forests for water supply, biodiversity protection, carbon storage and
95 timber production in the study area (see Keith et al. 2017).

96

97 **Fig. 1. Map showing location of Victorian Central Highlands, Australia.**



98

99 1.1 The System of Environmental-Economic Accounting (SEEA)

100 The System of Environmental-Economic Accounting (SEEA) is an international system for
101 arranging environmental and economic information. It has a series of components (e.g. UN
102 2012, UN et al. 2014a, 2014b) and builds on the SNA (EC et al. 2009) which, among other
103 things, produces the aggregate GDP (Gross Domestic Product). A key benefit of compiling

104 accounts using SEEA is that different types of environmental information (e.g. land, water,
105 energy, forests, and pollution) is integrated directly with the economic information from the
106 SNA.

107
108 The SEEA-EEA (UN et al. 2014b) and the supporting technical recommendations designed
109 to support its implementation (UN 2017) define a range of concepts and articulate a series of
110 accounts for ecosystem assets and ecosystem services. Accounting for water encompasses
111 four parts: (1) the ecosystem service of water provisioning; (2) water as an asset (or stock);
112 (3) ecosystem services related to water provided by a range of ecosystem assets (e.g. water
113 filtration and flood control provided by riparian vegetation); and, (4) water quality as a
114 characteristic of ecosystem condition. This paper focuses mainly on accounting for the first
115 two parts but these also need to be seen in context of the last two parts, as we outline later in
116 this paper.

117
118 Of particular importance to accounting are the definitions of ecosystem services and benefits,
119 which are:

120 **Final ecosystem services** are the “..... contributions to the production of benefits.
121 Final ecosystem services encompass a wide range of services provided to economic
122 units (businesses, governments and households) and may be grouped into
123 provisioning services (i.e. those relating to the supply of food, fibre, fuel and water);
124 regulating services (i.e. those relating to actions of filtration, purification, regulation
125 and maintenance of air, water, soil, habitat and climate) and cultural services (i.e.
126 those relating to the activities of individuals in, or associated with, nature)

127
128 **Benefits** may be SNA benefits - goods or services (products) produced by economic
129 units (e.g. food, water, clothing, shelter, recreation) currently included within the
130 economic production boundary of the SNA; or non-SNA benefits – benefits that
131 accrue to individuals, or society generally, that are not produced by economic units
132 (e.g. clean air). By convention, the measurement scope of non-SNA benefits for
133 ecosystem accounting purposes is limited to the flow of ecosystem services with a
134 direct link to human well-being.” (paragraphs 2.5 and 2.6 of UN 2017)

135
136 The key point is that the final ecosystem services contribute to the benefits, which can be
137 products as defined in the SNA. In the case of water, the product “Natural Water²” is the
138 benefit produced by the water supplier from the ecosystem services of water filtration and
139 water provisioning, combined with capital inputs (e.g. the dam wall, pipes, pumps), along
140 with energy (e.g. to operate pumps), labour, etc.

141 When a service is produced and used is an important consideration in accounting. In the SNA
142 and SEEA Central Framework, “Natural Water” is defined as being produced when it leaves
143 a water source, whether the source be a constructed reservoir (i.e. an artificial reservoir) or a
144 natural feature, like a lake, river or subterranean aquifer. However, this view of production
145 was questioned in the process of the development of the SEEA Central Framework, with
146 Nagy et al. (2012) and Obst (2012) recommending that the degree of management of the
147 water resource by water suppliers was such that production should be recognised when the
148 water enters artificial reservoirs. Applying this treatment would then mean that the water
149 within an artificial reservoir would become an inventory within the economy (i.e. owned and

² Natural Water is defined in the Central Product Classification (CPC) as: “Potable and non-potable water, suitable for further use, including: treated water (e.g., from desalination plants, water treatment plants); untreated water (e.g., obtained directly from natural sources)” (CPC1800, p. 197, UN 2015).

150 managed by an economic unit, e.g. a water supply company). The arguments for this being:
151 (1) the dam wall was constructed specifically to impound water and without the dam wall,
152 water would not be available for supply, and; (2) the water body and surrounding area are
153 usually managed for maintaining a supply of water. The proposal was not accepted and the
154 SEEA Central Framework maintains that economic production occurs when water leaves
155 artificial reservoirs. The development of ecosystem accounting provides a chance to revisit
156 this issue and better align hydrological and accounting concepts for both artificial reservoirs
157 and natural water bodies (e.g. lakes, rivers, groundwater, etc.).
158

159 1.2 Water supply related ecosystem services

160 The main ecosystem service examined in this study was water provisioning, but water
161 filtration and water storage are also considered. How water related ecosystem services are
162 defined and treated has been an area of investigation in both the ecosystem services and
163 natural capital accounting communities (Portela et al. 2019). Types of ecosystem services are
164 defined in the Common International Classification of Ecosystem Services (CICES), which is
165 referred to in the SEEA-EEA and was adopted for ecosystem accounting in the European
166 Union (Maes et al. 2013). CICES Version 5.1 is available from the European Environment
167 Agency³ and in this water provisioning is defined as: “*surface water used for nutrition,*
168 *materials or energy* (items 4.2.1.1 to 4.2.1.3) *and; ground water used for nutrition, materials*
169 *or energy*” (items 4.2.2.1 to 4.2.2.3). Other classifications of ecosystem services are provided
170 in various documents such as the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment (MEA; 2005); Final
171 Ecosystem Goods and Services Classification System (FECS-CS; Landers and Nahlik 2013),
172 and; National Ecosystem Services Classification System (NESCO; USEPA 2015). FECS-CS
173 and NESCO both define services in relation to source of the service, the user of the service,
174 and how the service is used. A review of ecosystem service schemes has recently been
175 published (Finisdore et al. 2019). This review highlights the benefits from using common
176 definitions of ecosystem services, including: facilitating transfer of knowledge between
177 ecosystem service practitioners; integrating data from different studies; increasing credibility
178 of results and; institutionalizing use of ecosystem services in decision making.
179

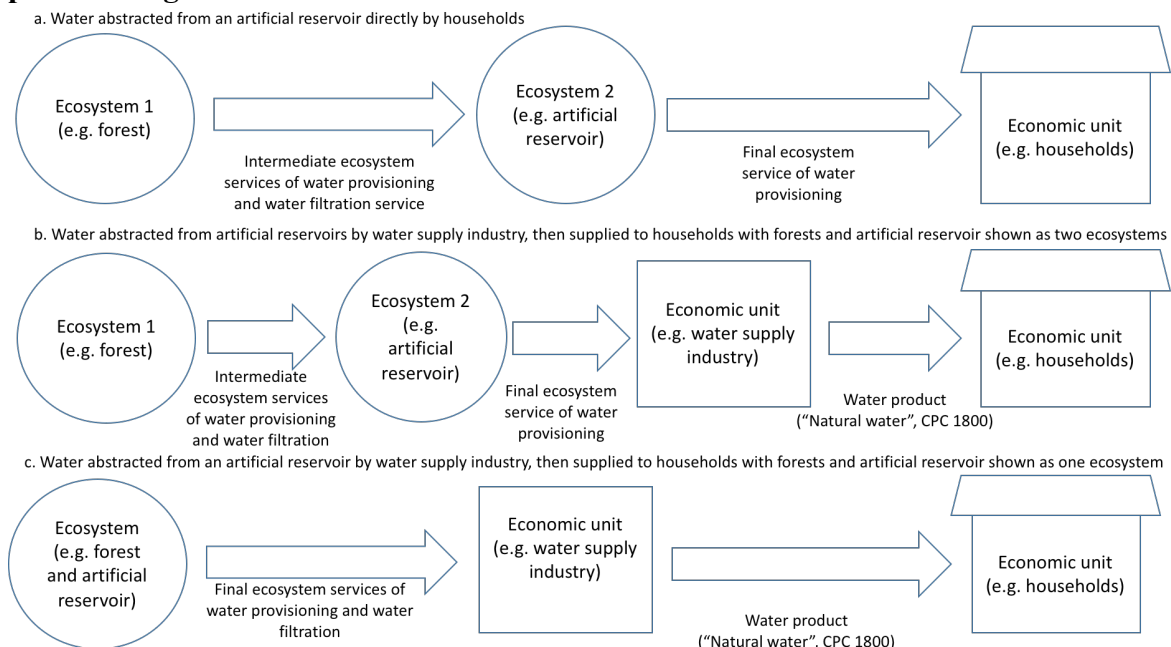
180 Figure 2 shows three different views of how flows within and between ecosystems and
181 economic units can be represented to highlight the different factors that need to be considered
182 when accounting for the ecosystem services related to water. Water provisioning includes the
183 abstraction of water from ecosystems for all uses (e.g. for drinking water). Where the water is
184 directly abstracted by the beneficiary (e.g. in the case of a person drinking water extracted
185 directly from an artificial reservoir), then they have used the final ecosystem service of water
186 provisioning (Fig 2a). In the System of National Accounts (EC et al 2009) and the SEEA
187 Central Framework (UN et al 2014a), this would be deemed household own-account
188 production of the product “Natural Water” as defined in the Central Production Classification
189 (CPC) as product CPC 1800 (UN 2015) and would be recorded as a supply from the water
190 supply industry to households (Fig 2b). However, if water from the same artificial reservoir is
191 abstracted by the water supply industry for distribution to households for drinking water, then
192 the water supplier has used the final ecosystem service of water provisioning as one of its
193 inputs to the production of “Natural Water” (CPC 1800) which is then supplied to others (e.g.
194 households and industries via pipes). A person drinking water from a tap supplied by an
195 artificial reservoir operated by a water supplier, has used the product “Natural Water”, not the
196 ecosystem services of water provisioning (Fig 2b). In both cases, water filtration also occurs

³ See Towards a Common International Classification of Ecosystem Services (CICES) for Integrated Environmental and Economic Accounting <https://cices.eu/resources/>

197 but how this is treated would depend on the number of ecosystems recognised. If, as shown in
 198 Figs 2a and 2b, the forest and lake or artificial reservoir are recognised as separate
 199 ecosystems, then the water filtration could be treated as an intermediate ecosystem service
 200 flow from the forest to the lake or artificial reservoir. However, it could be treated as a final
 201 ecosystem service supplied by the forest to the economic entity managing the lake or
 202 reservoir. This could then enable the managers of the forest and the lake or reservoir to work
 203 together to maximise the benefits of these different ecosystems. In the case where the
 204 manager of the lake or reservoir, and the manager of forest are the same, then this could be
 205 treated as a type of own-account production and use of an ecosystem service. Regardless of
 206 the accounting treatment, water filtration results in higher water quality that could be
 207 recorded in water asset accounts that show water condition or the capacity of water assets to
 208 supply ecosystem services.

209
 210 An alternative way to account for these flows would be to show both water provisioning and
 211 water filtration as ecosystem services coming from a single spatial unit. Fig. 2c shows a
 212 single unit consisting of an artificial reservoir surrounded by a forest. Current accounting
 213 practices outlined in the SEEA would allow this. If this were the treatment, then the volume
 214 of water flowing into the artificial reservoirs would be the volume of the water provisioning
 215 service used, and also the volume of water that has benefited from the water filtration service.
 216 The water filtration service would usually be measured as the amount of sediment and other
 217 pollutants (e.g. pesticides, herbicides, N, P, K, etc.) removed from the water. In some cases, it
 218 may be appropriate to use the same metric– volume flowing into the reservoir – as a measure
 219 of both the water provisioning and water filtration services, although there would need to be
 220 very clear explanation to ensure there was no actual or perceived double counting.

221
 222 **Figure 2. Alternative views of accounting for flows of the ecosystem services of water**
 223 **provisioning and water filtration**



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A third possible ecosystem service not defined in CICES Version 5.1 is water storage. This service is provided naturally by, for example, a lake, or perhaps more accurately, the

230 geomorphology that has formed a lake. The service could be measured by the volume of
231 water held in the lake. For artificial reservoirs, a water storage service is also provided but
232 this service results from both the geomorphology and built infrastructure. It is here that the
233 issue of the definition of production in the System of National Accounts (EC et al 2009) for
234 the product ‘Natural Water’ (CPC 1800) is important. As noted earlier, water is not deemed
235 to have been produced until it has left the water source, even if the water source is an
236 artificial reservoir (See Section 1.1). Since “Natural Water” (CPC 1800) is not deemed to
237 have been produced until it leaves the reservoir, recording options consistent with System of
238 National Accounts are limited. As ecosystem accounting extends the production boundary of
239 the SNA then there would be an inventory of water held by the water supply industry and this
240 could be the ecosystem service of water storage. The volume held in storage would also be
241 the measure for a natural lake, (i.e. with no artificial infrastructure), which is counter-
242 intuitive. The recording and accounting of ecosystem services resulting from ecosystems that
243 are modified or created by people to deliver goods and services to people is an area of
244 research in its infancy (e.g. Barton 2017) but the accounting treatment for ecosystem services
245 does not depend on the nature of the ecosystem (e.g. natural, human modified or human
246 created).

247
248 The management of the areas surrounding watercourses, lakes and artificial reservoirs is
249 important as it affects the level of water provisioning and water filtration services delivered
250 and, in particular, the quality of water and quantity of water. For example, a natural forest
251 (i.e. one where there has been no major human disturbances for many years) will have a
252 different pattern of water flow compared with a cleared area or managed forest (Langford
253 1976; Vertessy et al. 2001). The quality of the water also will be affected. For example, a
254 forest ecosystem is likely to produce higher water quality due to less soil erosion and more
255 limited use of fertilizer, than an agricultural ecosystem. If the water has been contaminated by
256 pollutants (e.g. from chemicals used in agriculture), then these can be absorbed by the
257 vegetation and pollution levels reduced, as was shown in the famous example of the Catskills,
258 New York, USA (e.g. Daily 1999, NRCCGER 1999). The type and condition of vegetation
259 also affects the infiltration of water into the ground (Dunne et al. 1991).

260

261 2. Study area, data sources and methods

262 2.1 Study area – Central Highlands of Victoria, Australia

263 The study area in the Central Highlands of Victoria contains the majority of the water
264 catchments for the ten water storage reservoirs of the Melbourne Water Corporation, which is
265 owned by the Victorian Government, and supplies water to the city of Melbourne (Melbourne
266 Water 2015), supporting ~ five million people (ABS 2018). Melbourne Water manages the
267 storage and supply of water to retail water authorities in Melbourne: City West Water, South
268 East Water and Yarra Valley Water. Water use from these retailers includes residential,
269 commercial and non-revenue use (e.g. water used for firefighting or lost in distribution
270 through leaky pipes).

271

272 The water supply catchments cover an area of 157,000 ha in the Yarra Ranges region, with
273 115,149 ha within the study area (Keith et al. 2017). Some of this area is protected in
274 National Parks and 8,932 ha is dedicated specifically to water supply. The total water storage
275 of the ten reservoirs operated by Melbourne Water is 1,812 GL. Five of these reservoirs are
276 located within the study area. The other reservoirs are further downstream and fed by the
277 same catchments. The study area contributes to the catchments of the Yarra River and the

278 Tarago / Bunyip Rivers. The Yarra River supplies the majority of water to Melbourne. The
279 Tarago River and reservoir supply water to Westernport Bay and Mornington Peninsula.

280
281 We prepared two types of water accounts for the Central Highlands: a physical water asset
282 account and an ecosystem service account for water provisioning. The ecosystem service of
283 water filtration (including dilution, filtration and sequestration of pollutants) was not
284 quantified separately.

286 2.2 Data sources

287 The water accounts used two main sources of data: (1) Central Highlands study area
288 biophysical data (Keith et al. 2017) and (2) Melbourne Water Corporation water storage and
289 supply data, and financial statements (e.g. Melbourne Water 2016). All monetary values are
290 shown in Australian Dollars (AUD) in current prices. The physical estimate of the water
291 provisioning service was the runoff or water yield from the study area that flows into the
292 reservoirs operated by Melbourne Water. Water yield was calculated spatially across the
293 study area and disaggregated for each of the five reservoirs within the region. These data
294 provided information about the spatial distribution of water inflow and the change over time
295 each year in response to climate variability, land cover change, and disturbance history.

296
297 A physical water asset account was prepared for the water stored in reservoirs within the
298 study area, which are supplied by runoff from within the study area. The account did not
299 include the stocks of water in rivers, farm dams and groundwater. As well as water additions
300 from rainfall and runoff and reductions from evaporation and abstraction recorded for the
301 artificial reservoirs, there are other potential inflows to the reservoirs from a desalination
302 plant (located at Wonthaggi) and water transfers via a pipeline from outside the study area
303 (via a major artificial reservoir called Lake Eildon) (Viggers et al., 2013).

304
305 We did not attempt a monetary valuation of the water assets in this study. Such valuation may
306 be possible based on economic data. For example, resource rent and net present value of
307 expected future income based on receipts, expenses and value of fixed capital could be used
308 (e.g. UN et al 2014a), as has been done elsewhere for groundwater assets (Fenichel et al.
309 2016).

310
311 The volume and value of the water supplied by Melbourne Water are given in their annual
312 reports, and includes drinking water, environmental releases, irrigation entitlements, and
313 extra allocations (e.g. Melbourne Water 2015). The water supplied into the economy is the
314 end result of a combination of fixed capital (e.g. reservoirs, water mains, pumps, etc.), labour
315 and other inputs, as well as ecosystem services. The runoff is equated to the volume of the
316 water provisioning service, but the value of the water supplied is not equal to the value of the
317 water provisioning service. This is because the values of the fixed capital, labour and other
318 inputs need to be deducted. In addition, the price of water in Victoria is regulated (e.g. ESC
319 2016) which presents another complication that is discussed later. The water supplied to the
320 economy uses the additional ecosystem service of water filtration but a separate estimate of
321 this service was not made.

322
323 The Melbourne Water financial accounts included with their Annual Reports were the source
324 of information on the revenue from water supply as well as production costs. These data were
325 used to generate an estimate of the value added by the company, aligned with the concepts of
326 Industry Gross Value Added in national accounting (EC et al 2009).

327

328 2.3 Valuation methods

329 We considered three methods from the SEEA-EEA (UN 2014b) for the valuation of the
330 ecosystem service of water provisioning: (1) resource rent; (2) production function, and (3)
331 replacement cost.

332
333 The resource rent method was not used owing to the constrained nature of the water market in
334 Victoria, where prices are regulated by the Essential Services Commission (ESC)(ESC 2016),
335 likely leading to the calculation of negative resource rent. These issues have been noted
336 previously in Australia by Comisari et al. (2011) and in the Netherlands by Edens and
337 Graveland (2014). An additional factor in the rejection of the resource rent method was the
338 lack of data on the value of the water supply infrastructure and the costs associated with
339 water supply in the Annual Reports of Melbourne Water. While the Annual Reports contain
340 some information about these costs, the data are presented as the combined values of water
341 supply and sewerage infrastructure, whereas separate information about these is required for
342 resource rent calculations. Similarly, the information about water supply is included with the
343 sewerage industry in the Australian System of National Accounts (e.g. ABS 2017a).

344
345 Lack of data also was the reason for rejecting the production function approach. In the case of
346 water from the Central Highlands, the water provisioning services are used by Melbourne
347 Water but the revenue received for the supply of water is, as noted above, price constrained.
348 The benefits of the price constraint are to the consumers of the water supplied by Melbourne
349 Water. As such, the production function approach would require detailed information on all
350 of the water consumers in Melbourne and, in particular, the value of the water and all other
351 inputs to the productive activities of business using water (which would effectively be all
352 businesses in Melbourne).

353
354 The least cost replacement method was used to value the water provisioning services, broadly
355 following the method of Edens and Graveland (2014). The replacement cost method assumes
356 that: (1) the service, if lost, would be replaced by consumers, and (2) the consumption pattern
357 would be unaffected by any increase in cost. Three options were investigated for the
358 replacement cost of water: (1) transfer of water from other regions; (2) use of desalinated
359 water; and (3) use of recycled water.

360

361 2.3.1 Transfer of water from other regions

362 Water can be traded between regions in Victoria, with the price of water allocations
363 varying over time and by location. The price ranged from AUD\$30 to \$100 per ML
364 between 2010-11 and 2013-14, (DELWP 2015). The purchase of water from other
365 regions (e.g. from northern Victoria) and its transport to supply Melbourne is possible,
366 although subject to regulatory approval. Melbourne Water could transport water to its
367 distribution network via an existing pipeline, the 70 km long Yea-Sugarloaf pipeline,
368 which can move up to 75 GL yr⁻¹. It was completed in 2010 at a cost of AUD\$750 million
369 (Melbourne Water 2010). Assuming a 75-year asset life for the pipeline and a linear
370 depreciation (i.e. AUD\$10 million per annum), the capital cost is AUD\$133 ML⁻¹.
371 However, operation of the pipeline is energy-intensive which adds significantly to the
372 cost. Energy is typically the biggest cost in water systems (e.g. Delgado et al. 2015).
373 Energy use by Melbourne Water increased by 222,000 GJ between 2008-09 and 2009-
374 10 due to the operation of the Yea-Sugarloaf pipeline, as well as the energy
375 requirements of another pumping station and a wastewater treatment plant

376 (Melbourne Water 2010, p. 26). Assuming the pipeline used one-third of the additional
377 energy, this is 74,000 GJ to transport 16.7 GL (Melbourne Water 2010 p. 26). In 2009-
378 10, Melbourne Water's total energy use was 1,638,000 GJ and energy expenditure was
379 AUD\$20.2 million (Melbourne Water 2010 p. 27). This represents an energy cost of
380 AUD\$55 per ML transported. Summing these costs, the total cost of replacing water
381 would be around AUD\$218 per ML in 2009-10 based on the sum of: AUD\$30 per ML for
382 purchase on water allocation (using the lowest value), AUD\$133 per ML for the
383 estimated capital cost of the pipeline, and AUD\$55 for the energy cost.

384 2.3.2 Use of desalination

385 The cost of desalination was determined from the information available on the
386 Wonthaggi Desalination Plant that was built to supply water to Melbourne in case of the
387 failure of other water sources. The price was AUD\$1.37 per kilolitre (\$1370 per ML) in
388 2009 (Department of Treasury and Finance 2009), which was based on the assumption
389 of the plant operating at full capacity (150 GL per year) for 27.75 years. Construction of
390 the plant cost AUD\$3.5 billion and was built between 2009 and 2012. The net present
391 cost of financing, building and operating the plant over 30 years is AUD\$5.7 billion
392 (assuming water orders of 150 GL yr⁻¹). It is unclear if this cost also includes the cost of
393 pipes and pumping to transport the water produced via desalination to the existing
394 distribution network. If they were not included, then this would increase the cost of
395 desalination as an alternative source of water. The results, presented and discussed in
396 Section 3, revealed that desalination was not the cheapest option and hence was not
397 investigated further.

398

399 2.3.3 Use of recycled water

400 The recycling and treatment of wastewater from the sewerage and stormwater systems
401 and its supply to water users already occurs. The volume of treated wastewater
402 available for recycling supplied by Melbourne Water in 2014-15 was 295 GL yr⁻¹, and
403 this has been increasing steadily from 43.8 GL in 2005-06 (volume excludes
404 environmental flows) (Melbourne Water 2009). The water supplied cannot be used for
405 drinking and is not yet an equivalent product to most of the water supplied from the
406 catchments by Melbourne Water to households and business. It could, however, be used
407 for some purposes, such as irrigation of sports fields and industrial processing.
408 Unfortunately, the costs associated with production of recycled water are not easy to
409 determine from accounts of Melbourne Water owing to the value of capital assets for
410 water supply and sewerage being presented together and it is not known if the water
411 can be transported via the existing water distribution network. The price for recycled
412 water charged by Melbourne Water provides a guide: in 2006-07 revenue from recycled
413 water was \$2.0 million for the supply of 61 GL (Melbourne Water 2009 pp 30-31) or
414 AUD\$33 per ML. Given that recycled water is not an equivalent product and cannot be
415 used as a replacement for all water currently supplied by Melbourne Water this value
416 was not used to estimate the replacement cost for the water provisioning service
417 generated by the catchments in the Central Highlands.

418

419 2.3.4 Adjusting for inflation

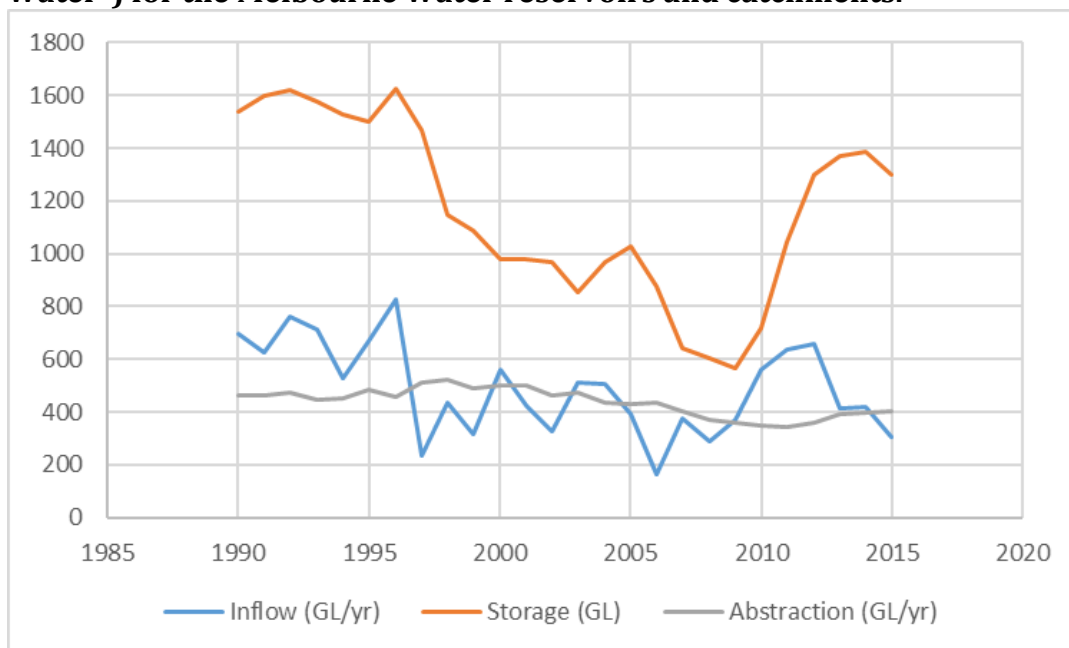
420 The prices for water transfer and desalination were applied to all other years, adjusted
421 for inflation using the Australian Consumer Price Index Inflation Calculator (ABS 2016).
422 For these calculations, we used the average annual price. We made no attempt to adjust

423 the estimate for changes in technology – the implicit assumption is that the cost of
424 water transfers and desalination and water recycling has remained constant over the
425 time-period.

426 3. Results

427 Estimates of the volume of water in storage, inflows from precipitation and runoff, and
428 reduction due to abstraction are summarized in Figure 3. The water storage volume
429 (GL) represents the average over the year for the combined ten Melbourne Water
430 reservoirs. The total potential water storage of the ten reservoirs is 1,812 GL but the
431 volume in storage, and hence the volume of the ecosystem service of water storage
432 fluctuated by approximately 1,000 GL between around 600 and 1,600 GL. The volume of
433 inflow, representing the ecosystem service of water provisioning, also fluctuated,
434 peaking in 1996 at just over 800 GL yr⁻¹ and lowest in 2006 at just under 200 GL yr⁻¹.
435 The pattern of inflow closely follows the pattern of rainfall. However, runoff is also
436 influenced by season of rainfall and antecedent soil water content.

437
438 **Figure 3. Time series of water storage inflow (runoff+rainfall directly on**
439 **reservoir = water provisioning service), and abstraction (= supply of “Natural**
440 **Water”) for the Melbourne Water reservoirs and catchments.**



441
442
443
444 In Figure 3, the water abstracted is the amount of water supply of “Natural Water” by
445 Melbourne Water to its customers. The amount is not modelled but is the amount
446 measured by Melbourne Water and reported in their Annual Reports. The pattern of
447 water abstraction is reasonably constant around 400 GL yr⁻¹. Supply and consumption
448 of “Natural Water” are influenced by the region’s population, which has been increasing
449 over time (ABS 2018), and efficiency of water use, which has been improving (ABS
450 2017b). Overall, there is a trend of decreasing “Natural Water” consumption due to
451 greater water use efficiency and investment in alternative water projects following the
452 Millennium Drought (2001-2009), resulting in 23% lower water use per person than
453 pre-drought levels. However, water abstraction has increased slightly in the last four
454 years, partly because of a growing population, although total levels of abstraction are

455 still lower than pre-drought conditions (Melbourne Water 2016). When volumes of
 456 inflows exceed abstractions (e.g. 2010 to 2012), this is reflected as an increase in water
 457 storage. The converse, when volumes of inflows are low, such as during drought, a key
 458 response is to impose water restrictions (e.g. no watering of house gardens) (Viggers et
 459 al., 2013), resulting in a decreasing rate of abstractions.

460 The amount of the water provisioning service from the catchments within the study
 461 area is shown by land cover type in Table 1. The amount from each of the land cover
 462 classes depends on the area of land in each class, forest age, and precipitation and
 463 evaporation. Forests (open mixed, wet mixed, alpine ash (*Eucalyptus delegatensis*),
 464 mountain ash (*Eucalyptus regnans*) and cool temperate rainforest) provided most of the
 465 water provisioning service, accounting for around 85% of the total water provisioning
 466 service between 1990 and 2015. The forests also would be expected to provide a higher
 467 level of water filtration service than other land covers (e.g. pastures, crops, horticulture,
 468 built-up areas). Water quality was not considered in the accounts prepared but is
 469 important.

470
 471 **Table 1. Water provisioning service (ML yr⁻¹) classified by land cover over the**
 472 **Central Highlands study area (735,655 ha), using an average annual total for each**
 473 **5-year period.**

Land cover	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010	2015
bare	33,522	38,820	28,870	21,435	13,019	42,066
swamp	61	59	48	47	38	61
built-up area	40,237	47,497	36,572	25,923	14,052	52,559
crop	1,964	1,945	1,497	1,142	510	2,321
crop/ pasture/ grassland	19,729	23,408	17,973	12,635	6,822	25,711
pasture / grassland	81,576	88,391	67,224	48,903	24,376	97,546
horticulture	8,755	10,289	7,946	5,506	2,752	11,271
pine plantation	30,794	34,382	25,282	18,987	11,129	37,258
eucalypt plantation	61,455	72,314	54,654	38,892	21,848	79,598
shrub & heath	24,470	25,108	19,669	17,505	13,077	26,668
riparian shrubs	26,189	26,687	20,912	18,250	13,079	28,507
woodland	12,712	15,260	11,949	8,184	4,357	17,273
montane woodland	140,066	137,990	103,426	96,688	72,876	144,984
open mixed forest	594,173	643,267	440,591	353,956	228,955	675,159
wet mixed forest	904,808	1,000,743	708,858	550,497	387,057	1,062,748
alpine ash	500,190	502,009	378,299	349,860	268,102	624,202
mountain ash	750,495	807,288	606,153	511,585	377,444	969,954
rainforest	41,651	42,162	32,632	29,381	22,159	54,648

unknown	15,125	17,707	11,746	8,856	5,803	18,282
Total	3,287,971	3,535,325	2,574,300	2,118,232	1,487,455	3,970,818

474

475

476 Summary data for Melbourne Water's water supply operations, including both
477 monetary and physical measures are presented in Table 2. This shows standard metrics
478 such as revenue, wages and operating expenses as well as the value of the ecosystem
479 service of water provisioning used, and the amount in storage which could be taken as
480 the volume of another ecosystem service, water storage. The total revenue received by
481 Melbourne Water from water supply activities was AUD\$876 million in 2014-15, up
482 significantly from AUD\$144 million in 1999-2000. In 2014-15, the total industry value
483 added (or contribution to GDP) from water supply was AUD\$318 million and the value
484 of the ecosystem service of water provisioning was AUD\$75 million. The volume of
485 water supplied has decreased between 2000 and 2015, while the revenue received has
486 increased steeply since 2008, with revenue increasing by 500% since 2007-08.

487

488 The estimates of the total water provisioning services of water yield for the whole study
489 area (735,655 ha) are shown in Table 1. Only a part of these services are used by
490 Melbourne Water as the water yield within the catchments for the reservoirs (115,149
491 ha), and so the physical volumes of the water provisioning services shown in Tables 2
492 and 3 are less than for the total area.

Table 2. Accounts for all Melbourne Water activities (within catchments of 115,149 ha), including volume and value of water supply and water provisioning service

	1999-00	2000-01	2001-02	2002-03	2003-04	2004-05	2005-06	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09	2009-10	2010-11	2011-12	2012-13	2013-14	2014-15	2015-16
Revenue (\$m*)																	
Revenue from water supply	154.9	155.8	154.4	164.5	158.8	163.7	173.8	175.4	175.5	227.3	325.5	379.7	512.3	547.6	911.2	876.2	964.2
Other revenue	322.9	305.0	325.8	346.2	345.0	364.3	418.8	412.9	424.8	504.9	532.9	617.6	727.9	710.6	805.5	873.5	889.1
Total revenue	477.8	460.8	480.2	510.7	503.8	528	592.6	588.3	600.3	732.2	858.4	997.3	1,240.2	1,258.2	1,716.7	1,749.7	1,853.3
Expenses (\$m*)																	
Operating & other expenses	(98.2)	(108.0)	(119.8)	(111.4)	(138.1)	(148.8)	(167.2)	(196.4)	(257.6)	(265.2)	(254.1)	(253.0)	(272.2)	(367.7)	(404.9)	(408.2)	(366.3)
Wages, employee benefits	(34.4)	(33.8)	(33.7)	(37.4)	(39.6)	(41.5)	(46.7)	(50.5)	(60.9)	(65.4)	(72.5)	(75.0)	(103.5)	(86.9)	(100.7)	(106.4)	(115.6)
Depreciation & amortisation	(63.2)	(62.9)	(64.8)	(69.3)	(70.3)	(71.2)	(69.8)	(77.4)	(87.5)	(105.8)	(122.0)	(231.9)	(242.6)	(315.9)	(351.6)	(367.5)	(373.8)
Financial expenses	(77.8)	(79.8)	(76.1)	(74.2)	(76.3)	(77.9)	(81.2)	(86.6)	(100.8)	(122.0)	(171.3)	(223.3)	(249.2)	(549.3)	(727.6)	(707.2)	(676.7)
Total expenses	(273.6)	(284.5)	(294.4)	(292.3)	(324.3)	(339.4)	(364.9)	(410.9)	(506.8)	(558.4)	(619.9)	(783.2)	(867.5)	(1,319.8)	(1,584.8)	(1,589.3)	(1,532.4)
Net result (\$m*)																	
Net result before tax	204.2	176.3	185.8	218.4	179.5	188.6	227.7	177.4	93.5	173.8	238.5	214.1	372.7	(61.6)	131.9	160.4	339.2
Tax (expense)/benefit	(7.3)	(47.2)	(55.6)	(68.5)	(56.1)	(62.9)	(59.0)	(43.9)	(25.9)	(45.8)	(52.1)	(56.2)	(102.8)	21.8	(42.0)	(44.2)	(185.9)
Net result after tax	196.9	129.0	130.3	150.0	123.4	125.7	168.7	133.5	67.6	128.0	186.4	157.9	269.9	(39.8)	89.9	116.2	153.4
estimated IVA (\$m*)																	
For Melbourne Water**	301.8	273.0	284.3	325.1	289.4	301.3	344.2	305.3	241.9	345.0	433.0	521.0	718.8	341.2	584.2	634.3	828.6
For water supply***	97.9	92.3	91.4	104.7	91.2	93.4	100.9	91.0	70.7	107.1	164.2	198.4	296.9	148.5	310.1	317.6	431.1
Assets (\$m*)																	
Total assets	2,852.1	2,953.6	2,994.8	3,051.4	3,131.8	3,263.2	3,768.7	3,968.9	4,435.5	5,421.1	8,948.3	9,754.5	10,034.1	14,498.2	14,339.2	14,439.5	14,820.9
Total liabilities	1,685.1	1,656.8	1,666.7	1,670.0	1,722.6	1,769.7	1,928.6	2,082.8	2,448.6	3,419.3	4,929.9	5,379.7	5,495.1	10,117.4	9,856.3	9,714.6	9,675.2
Net assets	1,167.0	1,296.8	1,328.1	1,381.4	1,409.2	1,493.5	1,804.1	1,886.1	1,986.9	2,001.8	4,018.4	4,374.8	4,539.0	4,380.6	4,482.9	4,724.9	5,145.7
Number of employees (FTE)																	
	481	488	498	512	501	537	614	645	729	807	828	841	834[#]	832	812	841	885
Water supply																	
Volume supplied (ML)	501,720	505,140	462,322	483,000	438,796	440,982	444,365	411,747	381,097	371,170	361,363	351,761	365,559	404,260	399,489	401,849	432,000
Revenue (\$m*)	155	155.8	154.4	164.5	158.8	163.7	173.8	175.4	175.5	227.3	325.5	379.7	512.3	547.6	911.2	876.2	964.2
Water provisioning service																	
Volume used (ML)	560,063	426,363	324,202	508,840	507,961	389,269	163,240	374,236	287,465	368,941	559,363	633,776	658,286	415,665	420,935	306,258	
Value used (\$m*)	90.7	72.1	56.4	91.1	93.0	73.2	31.8	74.5	59.8	78.2	121.9	142.6	150.7	97.7	101.4	74.7	
Water in storage																	
Volume (ML)	980,307	968,937	854,388	968,892	1,027,661	877,597	641,161	603,321	563,608	716,752	1,045,479	1,299,733	1,371,971	1,388,928	1,300,186	1,237,716	1,076,432

*All values shown in Australia dollars (AUD) at current price. **Estimated IVA for Melbourne Water = wages, employee benefits + depreciation and amortisation + net result before tax.

***Estimated IVA for water supply = Estimated IVA for Melbourne Water x percentage of revenue from water supply[#] Annual Report unclear whether FTE or total number

Table 3 Estimates of the value of the water provisioning services in the Melbourne Water catchments (115,149 ha) at replacement cost

	Water provisioning service	Water provisioning service, Replacement price		Water provisioning service, Replacement total value (Price x volume)	
	Physical volume	Water transfer	Desalination	Water transfer	Desalination
	ML	AUD\$ ML ⁻¹	AUD\$ ML ⁻¹	AUD\$ Million	AUD\$ Million
Year					
1990	697,519	130	841	91	587
1991	628,053	134	868	84	545
1992	759,890	136	877	103	666
1993	711,745	138	893	98	636
1994	526,585	141	910	74	479
1995	666,737	147	953	98	635
1996	826,375	151	977	125	807
1997	231,941	152	980	35	227
1998	432,954	153	988	66	428
1999	316,984	155	1,003	49	318
2000	560,063	162	1,047	91	586
2001	426,363	169	1,093	72	466
2002	324,202	174	1,127	56	365
2003	508,840	179	1,158	91	589
2004	507,961	183	1,184	93	601
2005	389,269	188	1,216	73	473
2006	163,240	195	1,260	32	206
2007	374,236	199	1,289	74	482
2008	287,465	208	1,345	60	387
2009	368,941	212	1,370	78	505
2010	559,363	218	1,409	122	788
2011	633,776	225	1,456	143	923
2012	658,286	229	1,482	151	976
2013	415,665	235	1,518	98	631
2014	420,935	241	1,556	101	655
2015	306,258	244	1,580	75	484

428

429 The results from the two replacement cost options – transfer of water from other
430 regions and desalination – for water provisioning are shown in Table 3. The least
431 cost method is water transfer and hence this is the one presented in the
432 summary. It is not known if the amount of water could be supplied by transfer
433 from other regions (current infrastructure can transport 75 GL per annum but it
434 is presumed that this could be expanded). The replacement cost is likely to fall
435 within the range of estimates from these two replacement options.

436

4. Discussion

437

4.1 Accounting options

438

439 Our study aligned the hydrological concepts of rainfall, runoff, and abstraction
440 with SEEA-based accounting for ecosystem services and SNA accounting for
441 products. Runoff into an artificial reservoir was deemed to be the ecosystem
442 service of water provisioning, supplied by the forest ecosystem to the inland
443 water body, which is managed by the water supply industry. To align with the
444 current interpretation of the SNA production boundary, water provisioning is
445 also shown as provided by the inland water body from which the water is
446 abstracted by the water supply industry (Table 4). The total supply of the
447 ecosystem service of water provisioning is 401,849 ML and is from both the
448 forest (306,258 ML the amount flowing into the inland water body) and the
449 amount abstracted from the inland water body (95,591 ML) by the water supply
450 industry. The supply of ecosystem service of water provisioning is equal to the
451 amount of the product “Natural Water” (CPC 1800) supplied by the water supply
452 industry (401,849 ML).

452

453 A second accounting option is to show the amount of water flowing into the
454 water body (306,258) as the only component of the water provisioning service
455 (Table 5). The difference between the volume of “Natural Water” supplied and
456 ecosystem service of water provisioning is the volume of water in storage and is
457 accounted for as a supply from an inventory from within the economy. In this, if
458 the volume of water “Natural Water” supplied was greater than the water
459 provisioning service then the volume in storage would decrease. Conversely, if
460 the volume of water “Natural Water” supplied was less than the water
461 provisioning service then the volume in storage would increase. The effect over
462 time would be seen in accounts of the different services and can be seen in
463 Figure 3, with inflows being the water provisioning service and the outflows
464 being the supply of “Natural Water” along with the net change in water storage.
465 This essentially redefines production of “Natural Water” (CPC 1800) from its
466 current treatment in the SNA as occurring when water leaves the reservoir, to
467 occurring when it enters the reservoir used by water suppliers. This is the
468 treatment previously proposed by Nagy et al. (2012) and Obst (2012).

469

470 A third accounting option would be to show flows of ecosystem services between
471 ecosystem units, as well as between ecosystem units and economic units. This is
472 the treatment shown in Fig 2b and in this case of the Central Highlands, the flows
473 between ecosystem units would be a supply of 306,258 ML by forests to inland

474 water bodies, while supply from ecosystem units to economic units would be
 475 401,849 ML from inland water bodies to the water supply industry.
 476

477 A key area for discussion (and agreement) is consistency in defining when
 478 ecosystem services are produced and used. In the case of water, which can be
 479 stored and there may be differences between when the service of water
 480 provisioning is used and when the product "Natural Water" (CPC 1800) is
 481 produced and used. Table 5 shows "Natural Water" (CPC 1800) to be produced
 482 when it enters the reservoir managed by a water supply industry. This treatment
 483 means that the water provisioning service from inland water bodies is not
 484 needed to reconcile the difference between "Natural Water" (CPC 1800) and the
 485 ecosystem service of water provisioning, as is shown in Table 4. While Table 5 is
 486 probably a neater accounting solution, it is not consistent with the current
 487 interpretation of the SNA production boundary, and the different stocks and
 488 flows of water are less transparent (as represented by Fig. 2c).
 489

490 Table 4. Accounting for ecosystem services related to water supply in the Central
 491 Highlands of Victoria 2014-15: production consistent with the SNA

PHYSICAL SUPPLY		Economic Unit					Ecosystem Unit				TOTAL SUPPLY
	UNITS	Agriculture, Forestry & Fisheries	Water supply	Other Industries	Households	Accumulation	Artificial Surfaces	Crops	Forest	Inland Water Bodies	
Ecosystem Services											
Water provisioning	ML							306,258		95,591	401,849
Water filtration	ML*							306,258			306,258
Water storage	ML									1,237,716	1,237,716
Products											
Natural water (CPC 1800)	ML		401,849								401,849
PHYSICAL USE											
	UNITS	Agriculture, Forestry & Fisheries	Water supply	Other Industries	Households	Accumulation	Artificial Surfaces	Crops	Forest	Inland Water Bodies	TOTAL USE
Ecosystem Services											
Water provisioning	ML		401,849								401,849
Water filtration	ML*		306,258								306,258
Water storage	ML		1,237,716								1,237,716
Products											
Natural water (CPC 1800)	ML			401,849							401,849

*Water filtration service would usually be measured as amount of sediment and other pollutants (e.g. pesticides, herbicides, N, P, K, etc.) removed from the water. However, in this study this estimate was not made and instead the amount of water that was filtered is used as indicator to demonstrate how the tables would work

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Table 5. Accounting for ecosystem services related water supply in the Central Highlands of Victoria 2014-15: redefining production in the SNA

PHYSICAL SUPPLY		Economic Unit					Ecosystem Unit				TOTAL SUPPLY
	UNITS	Agriculture, Forestry & Fisheries	Water supply	Other Industries	Households	Accumulation	Artificial Surfaces	Crops	Forest	Inland Water Bodies	
Ecosystem Services											
Water provisioning	ML							306,258			306,258
Water filtration	ML*							306,258			306,258
Water storage	ML									1,237,716	1,237,716
Products											
Natural water (CPC 1800)	ML		306,258			95,591					401,849
PHYSICAL USE											
	UNITS	Agriculture, Forestry & Fisheries	Water supply	Other Industries	Households	Accumulation	Artificial Surfaces	Crops	Forest	Inland Water Bodies	TOTAL USE
Ecosystem Services											
Water provisioning	ML		306,258								306,258
Water filtration	ML*		306,258								306,258
Water storage	ML		1,237,716								1,237,716
Products											
Natural water (CPC 1800)	ML			401,849							401,849

*Water filtration service would usually be measured as amount of sediment and other pollutants (e.g. pesticides, herbicides, N, P, K, etc.) removed from the water. However, in this study this estimate was not made and instead the amount of water that was filtered is used as indicator to demonstrate how the tables would work

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500

4.2 Accounting for water filtration and water provisioning

501

A question to answer for accounting is whether these water services are provided sequentially – that is the water filtration happens first and then water provisioning – or simultaneously. In this, the accounting reference period and the areas providing the services are important. If an annual accounting period is used, which is the case for virtually all business and government accounting, then it is reasonable to consider that they happen simultaneously, even if in the physical sense the water filtration service is provided ahead of the water provisioning service. In addition, if the area around the water source (e.g. the forested land) is considered with an artificial reservoir or other water source (e.g. lake) to be one ecosystem or spatial unit, then the two services would also be provided simultaneously and it may not be necessary to account for them separately for some purposes (e.g. valuation). This approach would seem appropriate for many water suppliers, since they are often responsible for both the management of the artificial reservoir (or other water source) as well as some of the land around the reservoir. This approach equates to that presented in Fig 2c and Table 5.

516

517

518 4.3 Valuing services

519 Valuation using the least cost replacement method was possible in the Central
520 Highlands of Victoria as real options for replacing the service were available and
521 the estimates could be easily adjusted for changes in the physical amount of the
522 service used, as well as inflation. The values from this study could not be used
523 uncritically in other studies. Transferring the values from one study to another,
524 known as “benefit transfer”, is an area of on-going discussion in the development
525 of the SEEA, and valuation of the environment and ecosystem services more
526 generally (e.g. UN 2017). While benefit transfer is an attractive proposition, the
527 value of ecosystem services are usually strongly dependent on environmental,
528 economic, social and legal context, making it difficult to assume that values of
529 ecosystem services generated in one study can be applied to another area (UN et
530 al. 2014b). However, by using meta-analysis of water pricing studies, benefit
531 transfer is suggested as a useful approach for valuing ecosystems services at
532 larger scales (Grizzetti et al. 2016).

533

534 The water filtration service was not valued separately from water provisioning
535 in this study, although the forests of the study area are presumed to supply most
536 of this service to Melbourne Water and result in high quality water. In the
537 Australian Capital Territory, fires in 2003 resulted in loss of the litter layer and
538 soil protection, thus greatly diminishing water quality (White et al. 2006). To
539 improve water quality to the standards in the Australian Drinking Water
540 Guidelines (and hence could be supplied to consumers), \$55m was spent on new
541 water treatment facilities (ACTEW 2005), with an additional, \$4.5m allocated to
542 catchment remediation with spending spread over three years (ACTEW 2004).
543 The cost of the new and upgraded water treatment facilities would be part of the
544 replacement cost of the water filtration service and would be indicative of the
545 value of this service in other parts of Australia.

546

547 The case study in the Central Highlands of Victoria provides useful information
548 for decision making on the water supply system and ecosystem services in the
549 study region. In particular, the example showed that the forests of the Central
550 Highlands provide a significant proportion of the water provisioning services to
551 Melbourne Water. In turn, Melbourne Water provides the product “Natural
552 Water’ to water retailers and their customers, as well as employment and
553 economic benefits, which in 2014-15 was 841 people employed and industry
554 value-added value of \$318 million.

555

556 4.4 Conclusion

557 The SEEA-based accounting approach has provided a useful starting point for
558 testing the integration of traditional national accounts with the supply and use of
559 ecosystem services. In particular, accounting and valuing the ecosystem services
560 used in the water supply industry is possible, as we have shown for the Central
561 Highlands of Victoria. The approach employed is likely to be applicable to other
562 areas, industries and ecosystem services. The study aligned accounting and
563 hydrological concepts and highlighted differences between the timing of use of
564 ecosystem services by the water supply industry and the supply of the product

565 “Natural Water” (CPC 1800) by the water supply industry. We demonstrated two
566 accounting options that could reconcile these differences.

567

568 There are likely to be equivalent differences in the provisioning and supply of
569 other ecosystem services, related products, and the industries that use them.
570 Additional work will be needed to: (1) more fully develop consistent accounting
571 approaches for the supply and use of ecosystem services and the links to the
572 supply and use of goods and services shown in the traditional national accounts,
573 and (2) ensure that there is a systematic approach to accounting for ecosystem
574 assets and ecosystem services. In this, it is likely that a range of accounts will be
575 needed and that not all aspects of interest to particular stakeholders can be
576 reconciled in a single account for ecosystem services.

577

578 5 Acknowledgements

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