

DEVELOPMENT OF HUMAN AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT INDICATORS: HUMAN ASPIRATION AND SUSTAINABILITY

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1. Human Aspiration and Environmental Sustainability

Human and social development is assessed in terms of such parameters as education, health, equity, poverty, population, and social cohesion. The desire for improvement in such respects has provided the primary rationale for economic growth, and the prevailing attitude has generally been the more growth the better.

Despite progress, however, the world remains plagued by poverty, with serious consequences for health, education, and social cohesion. Current world governance is guided by the premise that reduction in poverty (and in income differentials, both within countries and globally), can be achieved through industrialization in less developed countries. The hope is for increased production to bring about higher levels of income,

increased consumption, better access to medical and educational facilities, and improved quality of life.

After some 200 years of industrialization, however, we are now faced with pressing evidence that the planet can no longer carry the burden placed on it by human aspiration. The Earth is becoming more polluted as its resources are being depleted. It is also likely that the Earth's climate balance has been seriously upset. The future consequences are unknown.

1.1. Spaceship Earth and the System Boundary

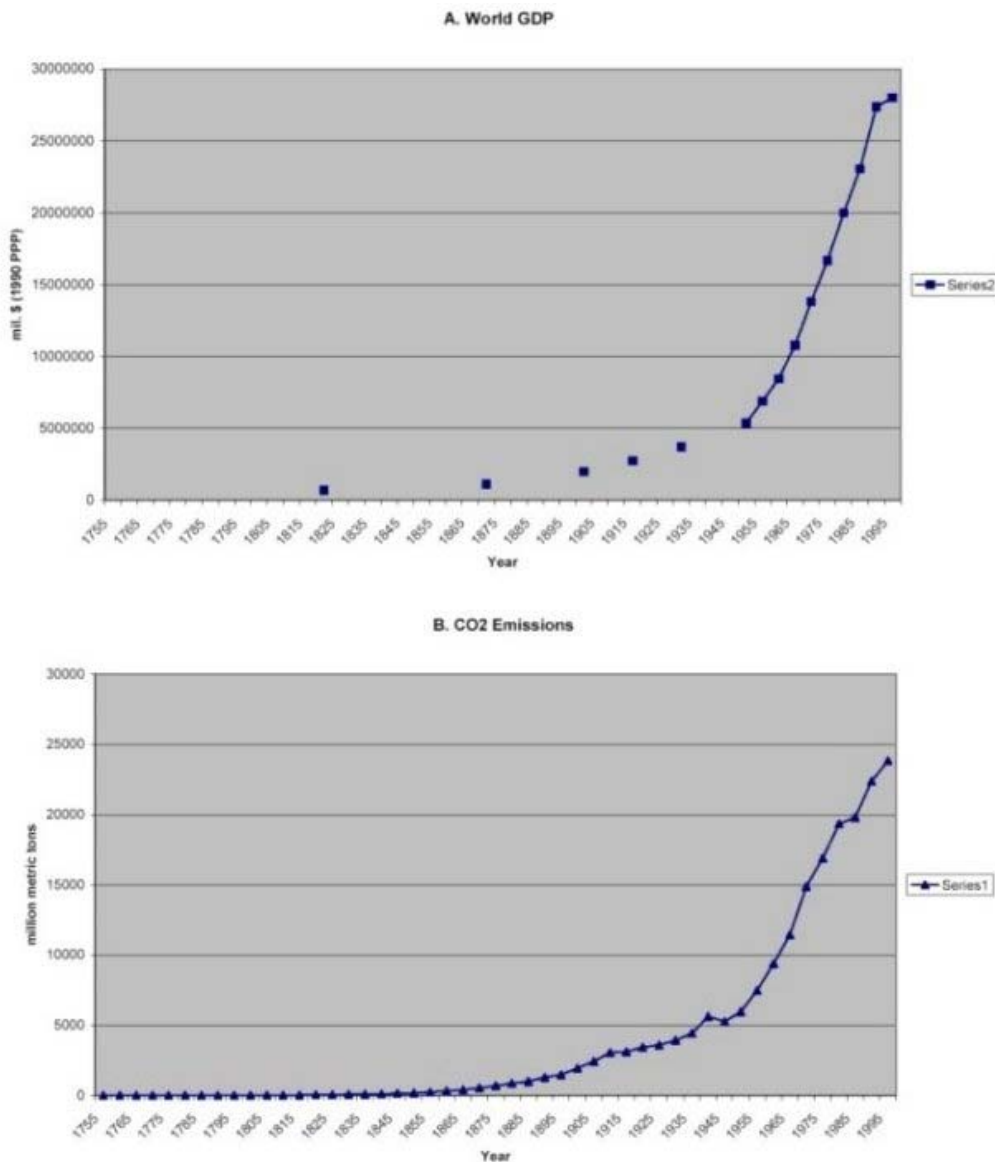


Figure 1.A. Historical Trends of World GDP and CO₂ Emissions

In 1968 Kenneth Boulding described the coming economics of Spaceship Earth. “System may be open or closed in respect to a number of classes of inputs and outputs.

Three important classes are matter, energy, and information. The present world economy is open in regard to all three....from a material point of view, we see objects passing from the non-economic into the economic set in the process of production, and we similarly see products passing out of the economic set as their value becomes zero.” Boulding called our present open economy a “cowboy economy,” and called the closed economy of the future a “spaceman economy.”

In the cowboy economy, consumption is regarded as a good thing and production likewise. If there are infinite reservoirs from which material can be obtained and into which effluvia can be deposited, then the throughput is at least a plausible measure of the success of the economy. The gross national product is a rough measure of this total throughput. By contrast, in the spaceman economy throughput is by no means a desideratum, and is indeed to be regarded as something to be minimized rather than maximized. In the spaceman economy, what we are primarily concerned with its stock maintenance, and any technological change which results in the maintenance of a given total stock with a lessened throughput (that is, less production and consumption) is clearly a gain. (Boulding 1968, pp. 275-287)

By the time Ayres and Simonis jointly edited a volume on industrial metabolism in 1994, the list of unsustainable environmental trends had grown even longer. The items listed by Ayres and Simonis included: the build-up of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere; the destruction of the ozone layer in the stratosphere; the acidification of soil and surface waters; the build-up of toxic metals in sediments and soil; the build-up of radioactive wastes; the accumulation of long-lived non-biodegradable chemicals in the environment; the contamination and exhaustion of groundwater; and the loss of tropical forests, wetlands, biodiversity, etc. “Industrial metabolism is the set of physico-chemical transformation that convert raw materials (biomass, fuels, minerals, metals) into manufactured products and structures (i.e. “goods”) and waste. To an economist these processes, in the aggregate, are called ‘production.’ A further transformation of economic goods into services (and wastes) is also implied by the economic term “consumption.” (Ayres and Simonis 1994, pp. xi-xii)

1.2. Pollution

Production, income, and consumption are positive outcomes of human activity. But the negative outcomes, among which environmental degradation is perhaps paramount, must also be acknowledged. Environmental concerns range from local to national and global levels, and extend over very diverse spheres of concern, including the quality of air and water, the disposal of waste, the alteration of land use and land cover, the depletion of energy and other resources, the threat to endangered species, and global warming.

One can analyze environmental issues in terms of the “pressure” (or “driving force”) side of human activity, the “state” of the environment and of natural resources, and the “response” of economic and environmental agents such as households, enterprises, governments, and international institutions. Here we focus on industrial pollution in the form of sulfur dioxide (SO₂) concentrations. Ambient level is a location specific index, and care must be taken when using it to represent the spatial dimension of the state of

the environment. Table 1 shows the levels of SO₂ concentration in representative cities of OECD countries. The data are indexed taking 1985 as 100. The 1985 base figures are also shown in physical terms. In many countries, a declining trend can be observed, indicating that the peak of industrial pollution, as measured by SO₂ concentration level, had passed before the observation period in the table. According to the same source (OECD), the concentration of nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) has peaked more recently, sometime between 1985 and 1990. In the case of particulates, the peak was typically reached before 1985, and the figures for 1990s tend indicate improvement.

Country	City or Area	1985 Base reference (g/m ³)	(Unit: Index, 1985=100)			
			1980	1985	1990	1995 or latest available
Canada	National	16.0	163	100	100	100
Mexico	Mexico, D.F.	162.8	95	45
United States	National	24.4	122	100	88	62
Japan	National	17.0	118	100	100	83
Korea	Seoul	146.7	168	100	91	30
Australia	Melbourne	10.5	...	100	325	...
New Zealand	Auckland	3.2	719	100	59	134
Austria	Wien	(1989) 23.0	87	61
Belgium	National	46.0	109	100	57	52
Czech	National	63.0	76	100	59	33
Denmark	Copenhagen	26.0	119	100	66	28
Finland	Helsinki	29.0	110	100	52	14
France	National	(1988) 27.0	93	74
Germany	National	118.0	110	100	46	15
Greece	Athens	26.5	...	100	149	147
Hungary	Budapest	42.0	149	100	34	92
Iceland	Reykjavik	(1990) 3.8	100	118
Ireland	Dublin	35.0	134	100	60	56
Italy	Milano	90.8	214	100	51	34
Luxembourg	National	(1988) 22.0	127	86
Netherlands	National	(1986) 29.4	110	...	58	...
Norway	National	15.1	139	100	60	43
Poland	National	(1990) 36.0	100	58
Portugal	Lisbon	28.0	121	100	71	29
Spain	Madrid	(1987) 87.0	64	41
Sweden	Stockholm	21.0	200	100	38	24
Switzerland	Zurich	50.0	...	100	36	22
Turkey	Ankara	132.0	158	100	129	42
United Kingdom	National	41.0	112	100	88	59
Slovakia	National	53.0	115	100	55	47

Source: OECD, *OECD Environmental Data, Compendium 1997*.

Table 1. Ambient Levels: The Case of Sulfur Dioxide

Since the “pressure” indicators generally show downward trends, the state described above can be interpreted as one of improvement. In the case of sulfur dioxide, pollution prevention efforts, including heavy oil desulfurization and flue gas desulfurization, proceeded from the mid-1960s, covering more or less the entire production process by early the 1980s in the case of the former, and by the mid-1980s in the case of the latter (Uno, 1995, pp. 178–179).

1.3. Material Flows

The linkage between economy and environment is often analyzed in terms of natural resource inputs (such as energy, various metals, and wood products) to Gross Domestic Product (GDP), or in terms of waste and pollution in relation to economic activity as reflected in GDP. A joint report by four leading research institutions, namely, the World Resource Institute (United States), the Wuppertal Institute (Germany), the Netherlands Ministry of Housing, Spatial Planning and Environment, and the National Institute for Environmental Studies (Japan), contends that “sustainable development will require a closer understanding of how the economic and environmental aspects of human activity interact,” and proposes that study of this interaction be undertaken. (World Resource Institute, et al., 1997, pp. 1-2)

The authors of the report argue that GDP fails to include the movement of vast quantities of materials. They propose the Total Material Requirement (TMR) as a new summary measure representing the material requirement of an industrial economy. Their findings are summarized in Table 2. TMR is the total material requirement for a national economy, defined as the sum of commodities (domestic and foreign) and hidden material flows (domestic and foreign). Hidden, or indirect, material flows are associated with, for example, extractive activities, harvesting, and the building of infrastructure. Examples of hidden material flows include: the portion of ore processed and discarded in concentrating ore, plant and forest biomass removed from the land along with logs and grain, overburden removed to gain access to an ore body, soil erosion from agriculture, and material moved in the construction of highways and buildings, or in the dredging of harbors and canals (ibid., p. 8) Although this portion of the total material requirement never enters the economy, it can be very large. According to the table, the ratio of total hidden flows to total commodity flows typically amounts to between 2 and 3 in the industrial countries examined, which include the United States, Japan, Germany, and the Netherlands. Direct material input (DMI) ranges between 17 and 38 tons per person in the countries studied, whereas TMR is estimated to amount to about 45 to 85 tons per person.

	U.S.A.	Japan	Germany	Netherlands
Total Domestic Commodities	4581	1424	1367	271
Total Foreign Commodities	568	710	406	303
Grand Total Commodities	5149	2133	1773	574
Grand Total Commodity per Capita	20	17	22	38
Domestic Hidden Flows	15494	1143	2961	69
Foreign Hidden Flows	594	2439	2030	632
Total Hidden Flows	16088	3583	4991	701

Total Hidden Flows / Total Commodities	3	2	3	1
TMR (Commodities + Hidden Flows)	21237	5716	6764	1275
TMR per Capita	84	46	86	84

Source: World Resources Institute, et al. (1997).

Table 2. The Material Basis of Industrial Economies

The comparative study covers the 20-year period from 1975 to 1994. According to the time-series data, TMR per unit of GDP has tended to decline in the countries under study. In the case of Germany, TMR has declined from 2.68 to 2.09 kilograms per DM over the period, while in the United States, TMR (index, 1985=100) has decreased from 138 to 86. Due to economic growth, however, TMR per capita shows mixed trends. The figure climbed from 64 to 76 tons in Germany over the period, while it declined from 99 to 84 tons in the United States.

As the Factor 10 Club has stated, “Environmental damage is caused not only by pollution but also by the process involved in extracting resources. Reducing the costs of environmental damage requires both bringing down emissions and reducing the flow of resources drawn from nature in the first place.” (Factor 10 Club, 1997, p. 8) The Club has advocated a tenfold efficiency increase in the use of energy, natural resources, and other materials. The aims are to halve the global use of natural resources and to ensure that they are distributed more equally over the world. For the industrial economies, these objectives would require an absolute reduction in the use of natural resources by factor of 10.

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Biographical Sketch

Kimio Uno is professor of Policy Management and Dean of the Faculty of Policy Management at Keio University in Japan. He is the co-editor (with Peter Bartelmus) of *Environmental Accounting in Theory and Practice* (Kluwer Academic Publishers, 1998) which resulted from a conference organized by the

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SAMPLE CHAPTERS