Chapter 22: Digitalisation
BPM7 Chapter 16 – Digitalisation

(new chapter)

Note: This draft chapter has been prepared jointly to cover the full range of topics to be included in the SNA and BPM chapters on digitalization. Only those issues that are relevant for external sector statistics will be included in the BPM; likewise, only those issues that are relevant to national accounts will be included in the SNA.

A. Introduction

22.0 Falling costs and rising capabilities to process, transmit, and store digitized data have resulted in extensive integration of digital technology into goods and services and the activities of production and consumption. This transformation of economic activity and daily life through the pervasive application of digital technology is referred to as digitalization. Digitalization has been enabled by many types of information and communications technology (ICT) goods and services, including semiconductor chips, computing and electronic communication equipment, software, the internet, and wireless digital telecommunication services.

22.1 A wide variety of digital products and activities have appeared as part of digitalization and digital assets, defined as assets that exist only in digital form (such as crypto assets, and data and software) have assumed important roles as stores of wealth or inputs in production. The profound impact of digitalization on production, consumption, investment, prices, finance, and other aspects of the economy, as well as its impact on international trade in services and other cross-border transactions, calls for enhanced visibility of digital activities, products, and transactions in the macroeconomic accounts. Guidelines are therefore needed on measuring the activities, products, and assets associated with digitalization in the conceptual framework of the SNA/BPM and on enhancing the visibility of digital activity and products in the macroeconomic accounts.

22.2 Measurement issues associated with digitalization, or that touch on digitalization, are also discussed in other chapters of the SNA/BPM and in other manuals. To increase the visibility of digitalization, chapter 11 of the Balance of Payments and International Investment Position Manual, recommends showing computer and information services as a first-level services category in the balance of payments current account. The capital account chapter in the SNA and the chapters on goods and services account in the BPM discuss the main types of non-financial assets that have enabled or resulted from digitalization, which include ICT equipment, software, data and databases, crypto assets without a corresponding liability, and digital elements of research and development. The financial accounts chapter of the SNA and the chapter on classification of financial assets and liabilities in BPM discuss classification of crypto assets with a corresponding liability and electronic money (e-money). The SNA chapter on measuring prices, volumes and productivity discusses measurement challenges that affect products associated with digitalization, such as adjusting price comparisons for quality change. Finally, the 2023 edition of the Handbook on Measuring Digital Trade discusses digital intermediation platforms and other aspects of trade affected by digitalization and the OECD Handbook on Compiling Digital Supply and Use Tables discusses tools to increase the visibility of digitalization in macroeconomic accounts.

22.3 To provide a consolidated view of measuring and reporting on key aspects of digitalization, and to cover additional aspects of digitalization, this chapter considers the main conceptual and measurement issues presented by the products, activities, and assets, including related cross-border transactions, that have emerged as part of digitalization and recommends tools for increasing the visibility of digitalization in national accounts/external sector statistics. The rest of this chapter is organized as follows. Section B discusses digital products used in production or that provide a record of ownership rights. Section C considers digitalization and the financial system, with subsections on new financial services and means of payment enabled by digitalization, financial digital intermediation platforms, and fungible digital assets, including crypto assets. These sections (B, C, and D) also highlight the issues relevant for external sector statistics.
Section E provides an overview of the issues and challenges presented by digital products for the measurement of prices and volumes and their solutions. Section F concludes the chapter with a section on analytical tools to increase the visibility of digitization, including a thematic account based on the digital supply and use tables (SUTs), and an extended account showing an alternative treatment of the consumption of free services of digital platforms.

B. Digital Products

22.4 Services supplied over a computer network are a defining feature of the digital economy. These digital economy services include wholesale and retail e-commerce distribution services, priced and free services of online platforms, audio and video streaming, and digital financial and payment services such as mobile money services. Their production and consumption are enabled by ICT equipment, software, and data and databases along with ICT consumer durable goods, and mobile and fixed line digital communication services. ICT components embedded in non-ICT equipment (such as semiconductor chips in motor vehicles) also facilitate consumption of digital services.

22.5 Digitalization has also resulted in, and been accelerated by, the emergence of cloud computing as a new way of accessing information technology (IT) resources. It has also resulted in new types of assets. The conceptual and measurement issues raised by cloud computing, data assets, artificial intelligence (AI) systems, and non-fungible tokens as a type of digital asset are discussed in this subsection. Online platforms are discussed in subsection C, and digital financial services and fungible digital assets are discussed in subsection D.

I. Cloud computing

22.6 Cloud computing technology has enabled a shift in the location where most computing occurs from users’ premises to remotely located data centers accessed over a network, sometimes referred to as “the cloud.” Furthermore, the growing use of cloud computing services has caused large scale substitution of purchased IT services for ownership of hardware and software assets. Many of the services delivered over the internet are produced with inputs of cloud computing services. Cloud computing services are primarily used as an input into the production of other goods and services (i.e., for intermediate consumption).

22.7 Cloud computing services consist of computing, data storage, software, and related IT services accessed remotely over a network, supplied on demand and with measured resource usage. Measured resource usage allows pay-per-use charging based on actual resources consumed. (Charges for some services, such as data storage, may instead be based on predetermined limits on the IT resources accessed.) Measured resource usage also helps allocate resources efficiently because cloud computing technology takes advantage of resource pooling. Another characteristic of cloud computing technology is rapid elasticity, which means that users with fluctuating or fast-changing computing needs can scale their consumption up or down as circumstances warrant.

22.8 The main cloud computing products can be divided into three broad categories: i) infrastructure-as-a-service (IaaS), which gives the user on-demand access to hardware such as a virtual server; ii) platform-as-a-service (PaaS), which also includes access to a software platform; and iii) software-as-a-service (SaaS), which includes access to the application software. Users of IaaS or PaaS provide their own software license, or software original. Function-as-a-service (FaaS) is a simplified type of PaaS that allows application functionalities to be executed run in response to events. In addition, business-process-as-a-service (BPaaS) enables organizations to automate business processes using cloud computing software and platforms (i.e., SaaS and PaaS).

22.9 Cloud computing is part of a broader shift to remote computing that also includes the growth of colocation and hosting services. Remote datacenters can offer advantages such as physical infrastructure that supports large-scale computing, high network bandwidth and optimized connectivity, low cost, and security. To benefit from such advantages, IT users may lease space for their equipment in a colocation datacenter, or they may lease servers and other ICT equipment from a supplier of managed or unmanaged hosting services. IT users often consume a combination of the three types of remote computing services – for example, their
colocated or hosted equipment may connect with a supplier of cloud computing services.

22.10 Cloud computing users with a long-term contract for dedicated access to a server in a cloud computing datacenter are considered to be economic owners if the operating risk is borne by the user, making the contract a financial lease. Also, rather than paying per-use licensing fees to access a software product supplied by the cloud computing enterprise, cloud computing users may hold long-term license for a software product that they access in the cloud. If the term of the software license is more than a year, the license conceptually represents a software asset of the user, and one-year software licenses that automatically renew are also treated on the same lines, for practical reasons. Software subscriptions from software publishers that come with a long-term license are software assets, not intermediate consumption of software services (which is the case with licenses of less than one year). This follows the treatment of software licenses outlined in paragraph 10.100, 2008 SNA (and its update in 2025 SNA chapter 11). The treatment of cross-border transactions in such licenses (more than one year/less than one year) is under discussion and will be included in Chapter 11, Services Account, BPM7.

22.11 The fixed capital formation of cloud computing enterprises may include own-account production of software and equipment or equipment designs. For example, a large cloud computing enterprise may design equipment that meets its needs and outsource the physical production to a contract manufacturer. This enterprise’s production of original equipment designs may be measured as part of own-account R&D capital formation.

22.12 Data center construction is also part of the fixed capital formation associated with cloud computing. Real estate enterprises that specialize in the construction and operation of data center buildings often lease data center buildings to cloud computing enterprises. If the cloud computing enterprise bears the operating risks, the lease should be treated as a financial lease.

22.13 The shift from purchasing software and hardware as ICT fixed assets to consuming cloud computing services presents challenges for the analysis of the contribution of ICT fixed capital formation to economic growth and total factor productivity (TFP) growth. To provide the detailed data on consumption of cloud computing and hosting services needed to understand the changes in how ICT resources are accessed and the general role of ICT in production may require adding product detail on cloud computing and related services to existing classifications. This could be done as part of the digital supply and use table (SUT) discussed in Section F.

22.14 Cloud computing and other remote computing services are often supplied across borders, and important suppliers of these services are multinational enterprises with domestic and foreign computing establishments connected by cross-border networks. The consumption of these services takes place in the location of the production process into which they are an input. For example, if a business in country A purchases computing services from a cloud computing establishment in country B, the computing services will be an export of country B and an import of country A. In balance of payments, these services are recorded as part of the standard component computer and information services (refer to Chapter 11, Services Account, BPM7) for further details. The resource pooling aspect of cloud computing technology, which means that workloads can shift between servers or even establishments, can make it hard to know where the physical production of a computing service occurred. However, spending on exported and imported cloud computing should be possible to track. Also, ensuring that estimates of exports and imports of cloud computing services are consistent with the value of net exports implied by the difference between the economy’s production and consumption of cloud computing services may improve those estimates. For an economy that is just an importer of cloud computing services (and not a producer of these services), this implies that the data on intermediate consumption of these services in the economy (assuming that the services are consumed by businesses) could furnish a reliable estimate of imports.

22.15 Hosting and colocation services are exported when foreign-owned servers and software are hosted in a domestic data center. Similarly, these services are imported when locally owned IT assets are hosted in a foreign data center. The investment in the IT assets should be recorded in the economy of their owner.

2. Data assets

22.16 The emergence of data as an important type of intellectual property product is among the ways in which digitalization has transformed the economy. In the digitalized economy, many enterprises owe much of their
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producers' gross value added to be overstated, this alternative to the ratio approach does have the advantage

Data as an asset is defined as information content that is produced by accessing and observing phenomena
and recording, organizing, and storing information elements from these phenomena in a digital format and
that provides an economic benefit when used in productive activities. Digitized information that does not
provide a direct economic benefit to its owner, including ancillary data generated as a by-product of
productions, is excluded. Data assets are produced when information on observable phenomena (OP) such as
facts, behaviors, and characteristics is recorded, organized, and stored in digital format.

Producers derive economic benefits from data assets by creating databases that bring together data from
different sources and that are organized and structured to facilitate analysis, and by extracting insights and
knowledge via this analysis. The intellectual property products created as part of this value chain include
databases, software, research and development, and mineral exploration. The cost of acquiring data used to
develop an intellectual property product is included in the value of the intellectual property product.

Most data assets are produced internally. The value of own-account data assets is measured by their cost of
production. This cost includes the expenses to develop a data production strategy, to collect and record the
information elements of interest, and to access the OP.

Data assets can also be acquired in purchase transactions. Purchasing data may represent either fixed capital
formation or intermediate consumption of data services depending on the duration of the use of the data in
production and the limitations on the purchaser's use of the data. The sale of the data original, which would
include rights to sell copies of the data or access to the data and all other ownership rights, transfers ownership
of the data asset to the purchaser. Copies of long-lived data with general rights to use the data in production
for more than a year are also classifiable as fixed assets of the purchaser. However, a non-exclusive right to
access a copy of the data for a limited or specific purpose will generally be treated as a service. The right to
use a purchased copy of the data for less than a year is a service analogous to an operating lease. Cross-border
transactions in data assets are recorded in the services account (refer to BPM7 chapter 11 Services Account
for further details).

Digital platforms often collect data on their users and the content they create. If the subjects of the data
collection receive payments for granting access to their OP, those payments are also part of cost of producing
the data asset. Payments for authorization to collect data on users' OP are classified as distributions of income
and included in rents. Agreeing to collection of one's data (such as when visiting a free online platform after
accepting the license agreement) does not fall within the definition of production and is therefore not a
service. (Platform users who receive payments for undertaking specific actions to assist the collection and
recording of data on their OP do supply a service, but such cases are likely to be too rare in practice to be
worth distinguishing.) Although rents are payments for access to a non-produced asset, in the case of
payments for authorization to users' data, the right to control one's data, and the general right to privacy, are
not the type of asset that is recordable on a balance sheet as ownership rights cannot exercised over them.

The SNA asset boundary for fixed assets includes produced assets used in production for more than a year,
so data that will be used in production for more than a year is conceptually a fixed asset. However, many
types of data (including behavioral data used for targeted advertising) tend to have a relatively short service
life. The value of the goods and services produced with inputs of shorter-lived data conceptually includes the
value of that data. Therefore, when feasible, shorter-lived data should be identified and treated as an
intermediate consumption item rather than as a type of fixed asset.

In practice, the cost of producing long-lived data may be hard to estimate separately from the cost of
producing short-lived data, making it necessary to estimate the combined cost of producing data and then
split the combined estimate into short-lived and long-lived components based on an assumed ratio. As an
alternative to splitting the combined estimate of the cost of producing data based on a ratio of production of
short-lived data to production of data in general, a relatively short service life data assets as estimated in
practice may be assumed to reflect the presence of types of data with a useful life of a year or less. Although
including expenses that do not create economic benefits in future years in fixed capital formation causes
producers' gross value added to be overstated, this alternative to the ratio approach does have the advantage

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of capturing the potentially important value of the stocks of data whose useful economic life is a year or less in the measure of the stocks of the data assets. Service lives for data of under a year are common, so if the measure of the production of data does not exclude all the data with a service life of a year or less, a relatively short assumption for the service life of data assets is likely to be appropriate.

22.24 Expenditures to update or add to an existing own-account data asset are also capitalized. Suppliers of software and connected equipment with embedded software or AI systems often collect data on users to update or add to their data assets. Expenses to collect users’ data for these purposes are part of investment in data assets.

22.25 Data and databases are conceptually distinct types of intellectual property products, but they are produced using similar inputs and measuring them separately is often difficult. Moreover, transactions in databases generally include the value of the data stored in the database. Data and databases are therefore combined into a single detailed class of intellectual property (IP) product known as data and databases. This asset type is then further combined with software including artificial intelligence to form a higher-level class of IP product. (Refer to Table 11.4, Treatment of Intellectual Property, in BPM7, for details on the recording of data and databases in balance of payments and to the discussion of intellectual property products in SNA2025 chapter 11 for general guidelines.) Nevertheless, data is separately identified in the label of these IP product classes because “data” refers to the information content that has been recorded in digital form while “databases” refers to the design, structure, and organization of the files to permit efficient access to the data they contain. The costs of producing a database include planning and implementing the structure and design of the database and organizing the data to facilitate its use.

3. Artificial intelligence (AI)

22.26 Artificial intelligence refers to capabilities of a computer program, or system controlled by a computer program, of recognition, reasoning, communication, and prediction that emulate human recognition, reasoning, and communication. Machine learning, in which data enables an AI software program to learn to predict or classify from experience, is often used to develop or improve AI programs. Furthermore, deep learning (a type of machine learning) enables some AI programs to improve from experience while being used in production. Although they perform tasks that normally require human intelligence, AI programs often use data beyond a scale that humans could analyze.

22.27 Many of the innovative products and product capabilities associated with digitalization are made possible by AI technologies. Among these are text mining, computer vision/image recognition, speech recognition, natural language processing, personalized recommendations, and content creation with the help of generative AI. Applications of AI include translation, predictive modeling, risk assessment by lenders and insurers, data analytics, writing summaries of the content of large textual databases, smart robots, autonomous drones and vehicles, face recognition, fraud detection, and cybersecurity. AI has greatly expanded the types of jobs or job elements potentially subject to automation and it also has the potential to affect patterns of international trade by facilitating digital ordering and changing relative costs of production.

22.28 The transformative impact of AI calls for the provision of granular data to permit analysis of the prevalence of AI and of questions such as the effect of AI on labor markets or international trade. To support the provision of this data, AI systems are distinguished as a special type of software within a class of intellectual property product identified as “Computer Software, including Artificial Intelligence Systems,” with the separate reporting of AI encouraged as an “of which” item. AI is also distinguished as a type of intellectual property product in the definition of this product group. AI is classified as a special type of software even though AI systems frequently include data and hardware elements, because the system is controlled by software even when these elements are present. However, the equipment that contains an embedded AI system (or other embedded software) is still classified as equipment.

22.29 The general compilation guidelines for software, data and databases in chapter 11 of the 2025 SNA/chapter 11 of BPM7 also apply to AI software, but AI uses data and machine learning in ways that present some special issues. Data plays a critical role in training AI software, and databases are often created for the specific purpose of training an AI software program. In addition, AI programs often refer to a database to generate their output. The value of the data used to train an AI software product or to help AI software to generate its output should be recorded separately from the value of AI software, as the data could have multiple uses.
However, a database created solely as a step in the production of an AI computer program and that cannot be re-used may be included in the cost of production used to value the AI program.

In contrast to fixed assets’ usual pattern of deterioration in performance over time due to obsolescence or physical decay, the performance of an AI software program with learning capabilities may improve as the program is used. Learning from experience may extend the service life of many AI programs. (Learning from experience by AI software is not the only source improvements in the performance of software that is already being used: automatic software updates delivered over the internet may also have this effect.)

4. Nonfungible tokens (NFTs)

NFTs are digital records hosted on a blockchain that are associated with a digital or physical asset or product but that are distinct from that asset or product. NFTs certify ownership of rights to use and benefit from the asset and may also serve to certify the asset’s authenticity. They are nonfungible because the associated asset is unique and not interchangeable with other assets in the same class the way that the units of a fungible crypto assets are. Payments for NFTs usually must be made in the fungible crypto asset native to the blockchain on which the NFT is hosted.

NFTs are classified into three classes: (1) those that convey no ownership rights and only allow for personal use of another asset or product; (2) those that convey limited ownership rights, beyond personal use for another asset or product; and (3) those that convey full ownership rights for another asset or product. The main classification of NFTs is based on the type of rights conveyed rather than on the characteristics of the associated asset or good. The purchase of an NFT could, based on these rights, be classified as consumption, as an acquisition of a non-produced asset, or as neither (assuming that the associated asset is already recorded). However, NFTs vary widely both in the ownership rights they convey and in the type of digital and physical asset or good to which they are linked.

NFTs that convey no ownership rights and only allow for personal use of another asset or commodity (e.g., the right to display a video clip of a scoring play in a sporting event or of a piece of digital art for non-commercial purposes) are in the first category. The purchase of an NFT that only gives rights to personal use of an item is treated as consumption. This type of NFT is not an investment item because it cannot be used in production and generally does not serve as a store of value. However, in rare cases, an NFT in this category that commands a high price when first auctioned and that has enough exclusivity and appeal to have a lasting value may qualify as a valuable. Treating the initial purchase of NFTs in this class as a consumption expenditure implies that their creation represents the production of a service. In the case of cross-border transactions in this type of NFT, such services are recorded under computer and information services.

The second type of NFT conveys limited ownership rights to another asset or commodity that go beyond personal use to include use for commercial purposes. NFTs that convey limited ownership rights are in the SNA/BPM asset class containing contracts, leases and licenses if they confer valuable benefits that the holder can realize in practice. Assets in this class are non-produced, nonfinancial assets. The ownership rights conveyed to the NFT holder may affect the value of the encumbered asset. Further information on contracts, leases and licenses is provided in SNA chapter 27/BPM chapter 14.

The third type of NFT conveys full ownership rights. NFTs that convey full ownership are a method of recording and verifying ownership of an underlying asset. That asset should already be recorded in the national accounts. An NFT that conveys full ownership is a digital recording of ownership similar to a property title, not a separate asset. Purchasing an NFT in this category is therefore a way of purchasing the underlying asset. In the case of cross-border transactions in this type of NFT, if the underlying asset is digital, it is treated based on the principles for recording such assets (goods or computer services). If the underlying asset is a physical asset (e.g., a house property), treatment follows the existing principles for recording such assets.

C. Digital Platforms

Operators of digital platforms use digital technology to supply services that facilitate interactions via the
internet between two or more distinct but interdependent sets of users (either firms or individuals). Because they help users to connect with and interact with other users, platforms are subject to network effects (which arise when the value of a product to each user depends on the number of other users of the product or family of products). The opportunities for beneficial interactions with other platform users increase with the number of users in general or the number of users on the other side of the platform, so adding users makes the platform’s services more valuable. For example, increasing the audience size raises the prices that advertisers are willing to pay for the platform’s services. Online platforms deliver their services via the internet, and digital platforms also known as online platforms.

22.37 Digital (or online) platforms are conceptually distinct from e-commerce firms because e-commerce firms take possession of the goods they sell or directly produce the services they sell. An establishment that sells its own merchandise and an establishment that facilitates selling by others can, however, both be part of the same multi-establishment enterprise. Furthermore, e-commerce firms and online platforms both use data to produce matching services, either of customers with products that suit their needs, of users with each other, of producers with consumers, or of funders with borrowers. Digitally-enabled services of matching producers with consumers or funders with borrowers are known as digital intermediation. Digital intermediation is a service in which digital technology and data are used to match parties that desire to transact with each other and to facilitate their transactions.

22.38 There are three types of digital platforms:

a. **Nonfinancial digital intermediation platforms (DIPs)** facilitate transactions between buyers and sellers for the ordering and delivery of goods and services for a fee or commission, without taking ownership of the goods and services that are intermediated.

b. **Free online platforms** facilitate non-commercial interactions between users or provide entertainment and information services and are usually funded by advertising and the collection of data on their users.

c. **Finally, financial digital intermediation platforms** mediate funding or payment transactions. Financial DIPs are discussed below in the section on digitalization and the financial system.

1. **Nonfinancial digital intermediation platforms (DIPs)**

22.39 In addition to helping buyers and sellers of goods and services to find each other, nonfinancial DIPs facilitate ordering, payment for, and delivery of goods and services supplied by institutional units on the seller side of the platform to institutional units on the buyer side of the platform. DIPs charge fees for these digital intermediation services. To increase parties’ willingness to transact, they may also provide quality assurance through steps such as vetting the parties that have access to the platform.

22.40 The output of a DIP consists of digital intermediation services, which are recompensed through a fee. It does not include the goods and services that the DIP helps others to sell. Nonfinancial DIPs often accept customers’ payments for the goods and services produced by platform users and deduct their intermediation service fee from the amount passed through to the producer of the goods and services. To capture the economic substance of the transactions in which the platform passes on the payment for the good or service after deducting its fee or commission, these payment flows must be rerouted to include a direct sale of the output of the producers using the platform to the buyers using the platform and a purchase by those producers of intermediation services supplied by the platform. The approach to recording the transactions of a DIP in which the producer of the intermediated good or services is treated as the purchaser of the platform’s intermediation services is known as the producer approach. The transactions recorded for a DIP after any necessary rerouting to implement the producer approach are shown in Figure 22.1.
22.41 Handling the case when the platform’s fee is implicitly included in the price of the intermediated product by recording transactions in which the buyer purchases the product directly from its producer or seller and the producer/seller purchases intermediation services from the platform has some important advantages. This approach allows the production of the goods and services sold on DIPs to be recorded in the appropriate industry and the consumption of those goods and services to be recorded in the appropriate class of commodities. It also accounts for the effect of the intermediate consumption of the services of the DIP on the producer’s value added. (A complete picture of the services of DIPs and the value of the products ordered through DIPs may be provided as part of a thematic account on the digital economy or set of digital supply and use tables.)

22.42 The recording of the transactions of the DIP and its users follows a different approach when the DIP invoices the buyer separately for its services and for the intermediated product. In this case, the buyer is recorded as purchasing intermediation services from the platform and as purchasing the intermediated product from its producer (or seller). The DIP may also charge a fee for its services to both the buyer and the seller of the intermediated product. In this case, three transactions are recorded because both the buyer and the seller are recorded as purchasing intermediation fees from the DIP, and the buyer is recorded as also purchasing the intermediated product from its seller.

22.43 Digital intermediation services are frequently supplied across international borders by non-resident platforms. Goods and services supplied by resident producers and consumed by resident buyers via transactions intermediated by a non-resident platform should be recorded as produced and consumed in the compiling economy. Further, the fee or commission received by the DIP should be recorded as an import of digital intermediation services of the compiling economy. (Refer to BPM7 Chapter 11 the Services Account, for details on the specific recording in balance of payments.) If a resident DIP collects cross-border payments for the goods and services that it intermediates, this will require rerouting the payments so that the goods and services are not treated as being imported at the net price received by their producer and then exported at a marked-up price paid by their buyer.

22.44 Digital intermediation services can also facilitate exports by resident suppliers of goods or services or imports from foreign suppliers of goods or services. Digital intermediation services used by an exporter are included in the value of the exported good or service. For example, if a DIP located in country A facilitates the supply of a service by a resident of country B to a resident of country C, the price paid by the buyer in country C is the value of service exported by country B and imported by country C, and the fee or commission charged by the platform is the value of digital intermediation services exported from country A and imported by country B. Domestically produced digital intermediation services used by the producer of an imported good or service should conceptually be treated as an export of services and included in the value of the imported good or service. However, this treatment may require rerouting the fee or commission paid to the DIP to pass...
through the foreign producer. If the source data to compile these rerouted flows are unavailable, assumptions may be needed to impute the rerouted flows.

22.45 In general, services sold for a fee or commission are straightforward to measure, but in the case of DIPs and the goods and services that they intermediate, compilation challenges are common. Rerouting the payments collected by a DIP to the producers of the intermediated goods and services may require data that are unavailable, making assumptions necessary. Also, determining whether intermediation services are being provided may be difficult because transactions between platform users may be hard to distinguish from transactions in which the platform takes possession of the good or uses the service as an intermediate input to produce a different service, or is acting as an employer. These latter cases should be treated as e-commerce activity.

22.46 Furthermore, by allowing producers to interact with previously unreachable consumers, including those in other geographical locations, DIPs have provided selling opportunities to producers previously excluded from the market. Selling opportunities created by DIPs have led to growing activity by informal household enterprises, which are likely to be missing from business registers and other standard sources of statistical information. They have also led to rapid growth of small international transactions in goods and services that may be below de minimis thresholds for customs duties and documentation requirements. Another common compilation challenge from DIPs providing cross-border intermediation services is that source data on DIPs with no local presence and on the activity that they intermediate is not easily available.

2. Free online platforms and free digital products

22.47 Digitalization has been marked by the emergence of free online platforms as part of daily life and a general expansion in the availability of free digital products. The SNA framework that values the free outputs of nonmarket producers such as nonprofit institutions funded by donations by the cost of production does not apply to most of these free digital products because they are supplied by a commercial enterprise. The outputs of commercial enterprises are valued by their price, which is zero in the case of a free product. The emergence of free online platforms and products as part of digitalization has therefore raised questions about whether the output of the digital economy is fully included in GDP.

22.48 Free products supplied by market producers are included in GDP as part of the price of other products they help sell or with which they are bundled either directly or indirectly. Taken together, the items in the bundle generate at least enough revenue to cover the operating costs of the supplier of the free product, so the overall output of the supplier of the free digital product is not undermeasured. Free products are supplied by both platform firms and non-platform firms.

Free products supplied by non-platform firms

22.49 In the non-platform case, the free output and the priced output are marketed to the same set of customers, and the function of the free output is to promote sales of the priced output to those customers. Suppliers of digital products frequently adopt a “freemium” pricing strategy, in which a free basic version of the product promotes sales of upgrades or a premium version of the product. In these cases, the price of the promoted output includes a mark-up that covers the cost of supplying the free output that has facilitated its sale.

22.50 Rather than being free, the promotional output may have a low price that is subsidized by the fully priced product. For example, low-priced printers may boost the sales of high-priced ink cartridges, with the price of the printer supplies funding the subsidy to the printer’s price. Taken together, the sales of the items in the bundle give the value of the producer’s output.

22.51 Although a zero or artificially low price of an output that is cross subsidized by the price of another output of that same producer does not cause undermeasurement of the producer’s total output, it does affect the measurement of the composition of the producer’s output. The relative values ascribed to the items in the bundle can matter for the measurement of fixed capital formation if a free or cross-subsidized item used for fixed capital formation is bundled with items used for intermediate consumption, such as the supplies needed to operate a piece of equipment, or the training, maintenance and helpdesk services needed to use a free software product. Also, the relative values assigned to the various parts of the bundle could affect the...
measurement of exports, imports, or trade patterns if a multinational enterprise sources parts of the bundle from different countries. Finally, the effect of these relative values on the weights of the price and volume indexes could matter for measurement of the volume growth of GDP if the prices of the items in the bundle behave differently.

**Free online platforms**

22.52 Most free online platforms are organized as commercial enterprises. Two-sided (or multi-sided) commercial platforms often charge a price for their services to the users on one side of the platform and supply free services to the users on the other side of the platform to attract and retain those users. The platform users attracted by free services increase the value of the platform’s services to the users on the priced side of the platform. The users who fund the platform by purchasing priced services recoup this expense as part of the transactions with the users on the free side of the platform enabled by the platform’s services.

22.53 Free online platforms offer services such as social media, search, and access to content providing entertainment and information. Commercial free online platforms are generally funded by advertising and the collection of data on their users, while non-digital free radio and television broadcasters are funded just by advertising.

22.54 Platforms funded by advertising services frequently assemble the audience that the advertisers want to reach by supplying free services. They then include the cost of supplying the free services needed to assemble the audience in the price charged to advertisers. The advertisers, in turn, include the cost of the platform’s advertising services in the price of the product sold with the help of the advertising. Both the platform and the firms that advertise on the platform receive at least enough income from the prices at which their output is sold to cover their operating costs. The standard method of measuring the value of a market producer’s output by the producer’s sales is therefore applicable to both the platform and the funder side users of the platform. Furthermore, households’ expenditures on the products advertised on the platform include the cost of the platform’s services embedded in the price of the advertised products.

22.55 Digital platforms that collect and store data on users produce data assets as a type of own-account investment (and may also sell rights to use the data). The value of own-account investment in data assets is usually measured by the cost of production. However, the platforms may also collect short-lived data on recent browsing behavior used as an intermediate input for targeted advertising. The value of this short-lived data is part of the price of the advertisement targeting services. More generally, short-lived user data collected by digital platforms can be assumed to be used for intermediate consumption, with its value embedded in the price of the products it helps produce.

22.56 A few free online platforms (such as public wikis created and maintained by communities of volunteers) are owned by a nonprofit institution serving households and operate as non-market producers, meaning that their output is not sold for an economically significant price. The output of non-market producers is valued by the cost of production. Nevertheless, the production costs of nonprofit free platforms may be modest in comparison with physical indicators of its output such as number of visits or scale of content it hosts because volunteers may do much of the work. The work of volunteers is outside the production boundary of the SNA.

**Content created by platform users**

22.57 Users of free platforms create content such as videos, images, text, and audio, both as a leisure activity and for commercial purposes such as receiving advertising revenue. Creating content for leisure purposes is outside the SNA production boundary. If the content creator does not receive remuneration, the content is assumed to be created for leisure purposes. Households that receive monetary remuneration from an advertiser or platform for use of their uploaded content may be considered unincorporated household enterprises supplying services to the advertiser or platform. In the case of a platform that takes its fees for services out of the payments from advertisers that are passed through to the content creators, the content creators should be treated as the purchasers of the platform’s services and the producers of the services used by the advertisers. If the purchaser is a non-resident, the service should be included in exports of services.

22.58 Depending on the context, user-generated content can refer either to content created by the users of a brand's
products (customers and brand advocates), or to content created by the users of an online platform. The economic benefits that free platforms receive from platform user-generated content include attracting users to the platform, selling advertising, and adding to the platform’s stock of data assets. These economic benefits are a positive externality of the sort that frequently arises from producers’ interactions with their customers and are not a basis for inferring that the creator of the unpaid user-generated content has produced a service used by the platform. However, the cost of supplying free services to the platform users who create content may be included in the platform’s own-account investment in data assets. Furthermore, an extended account with an alternative approach to measurement of households’ consumption of the services of free platforms can optionally treat user-generated content as a service produced with inputs of the platform’s free services and used by the platform as an input in its own-account production of data assets.

22.59 In addition to posting content on free platforms that receive advertising revenue, content creators may publish on digital platforms that collect subscription fees on their behalf in return for a share of the fees. Although most of this content is likely to have a short economic life, content created for commercial purposes that yields economic benefits for the content creator over more than a year is an intellectual property asset of the creator classified as long-lived entertainment, literary and artistic originals.

Free Software

22.60 Software products are often free to download, although the services of the platform hosting the software code may not be free. The free software may be used by households for final consumption, or it may be used in production. Copies of free software are frequently supplied across borders. In addition, free code shared by software developers on code hosting platforms that facilitate collaboration plays an important role in software development.

22.61 App stores are a type of DIP where the service that is intermediated (the app that households download to their phone or other device) is often free. Free and subsidized apps used by households may be funded by advertising, by collection of data on their user, by purchases of premium versions that they encourage, or by other services whose use they facilitate. Like the services of an online platform funded by advertising, the services of apps funded by advertising are purchased indirectly as part of the price of the advertised product.

22.62 Open-source software refers to free software whose source code is publicly available under a license to copy, use, inspect, modify, and share. Open-source software is used in production by corporations, governments, and nonprofit institutions. It is usually developed, maintained, and supplied by a corporation, university, government research office, or nonprofit institution whose investment to develop the open-source software original would be included in a general estimate of own-account software investment based on costs of production, such as the compensation expense for software developers.

22.63 A complex open-source software product may contain components developed in multiple economies, as the development of complex software products is often spread across multiple locations. Depending on the circumstances, it may be appropriate to allocate the investment the open-source software product among the economies in which the development work takes place, or it may be appropriate to attribute the entire investment to the economy of residence of the owner of the software asset. In the case of software produced by a multinational enterprise, the headquarters or one of the foreign affiliates may acquire full ownership of the software original by funding the software’s development.

22.64 Even though open-source software does not generate licensing fee income for its developer, it can qualify as an asset of its developer. The producer of an asset is an economic owner if the producer bears the risks of production in order to claim benefits associated with the use of the asset. Open-source software developed by corporations is usually funded through sales of complementary services, such as training and support, or by other products it helps sell. Open-source and other free software may also help increase the number of users on a platform or enhance the developer’s reputation and profile. Open-source software supplied across borders may be funded by cross-border sales of complementary services or other products.

22.65 Open-source software is sometimes developed by individuals working independently. Unpaid production of open-source software originals by volunteers is outside the SNA production boundary. However, independent developers of open-source software for commercial purposes are unincorporated household enterprises investing in own-account software.
The value of open-source software copies supplied by enterprises may be embedded in the price of complementary outputs that the open-source software helps sell or that are bundled with the open-source software. These purchased outputs may be software or services used for intermediate consumption. If software users substitute open-source software funded by mark-ups on intermediate consumption items for explicit purchases of software, the standard procedures will still correctly measure the total output of the supplier of the free software but the breakdown of the uses of that output will omit the use for software investment. Measured software investment will also be reduced if software users substitute open-source software distributed by a government entity or nonprofit institution operating as a non-market producer for purchased software. The SNA values outputs of nonmarket producers by their cost of production, not the willingness-to-pay of the users of these outputs that could be inferred from the price of a substitute product with similar capabilities.

**Increasing the Visibility of Free online platforms and Products**

The value of the free services that advertiser- and data-funded digital platforms supply to households is relevant for analytical purposes and for understanding the broader impact on household consumption of the emergence of these free platforms. Alternative measures of household final consumption expenditures and the output of free online platforms that include the households' direct consumption of the services of advertiser- and data-funded digital platforms may be presented in an extended account on free online platforms, as discussed in Section F below.

The effect of free platforms and free digital products on volume growth of household consumption is also conceptually relevant for understanding the impact of digitalization on prices and volumes. Free digital products and the measurement of prices and volumes is discussed in section E.

**D. Digitalization and the Financial System**

**New Financial Services and Means of Payment Enabled by Digitalization**

Digitalization has resulted in the appearance of new financial service products and new digital assets designed to be used as a means of payment. The new digital financial services fall within existing categories of products, and the new digital assets fall within existing asset categories. However, they should be reported as “of which” items (or as part of the product detail in a thematic account on the digital economy and the associated digital supply and use tables) when they are important and can be separately identified. The important types of suppliers of digital financial services include financial digital intermediation platforms, digital providers of insurance services (InsurTech), digital banking platforms operating solely online (neobanks), e-money issuers, and online only foreign exchange bureaus and money transfer operators. Some important digital payment mechanisms are e-money (which includes mobile money), digital assets that are used as a means of payment including fungible crypto assets, and central bank digital currencies (CBDCs).

**1. Financial Digital Intermediation Platforms**

Financial digital intermediation platforms provide matching services and facilitate financial transactions between suppliers of funds and users of funds. They do not take ownership of the financial assets arising from claims on the users of funds or incur liabilities to the suppliers of funds. They receive fees or commissions for their services and are classified as financial auxiliaries (S126). They differ from conventional financial intermediaries, which incur liabilities on their own account and acquire financial assets and which charge for their financial intermediation services implicitly through interest rate margins.

There are three types of financial digital intermediation platforms: (1) peer-to-peer and other online lending platforms, (2) equity-based crowdfunding platforms, and (3) philanthropic crowdfunding platforms. Peer-to-peer lending platforms facilitate loans between households. Other lending platforms match households and

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1 **BPM7** recommends introducing “of which” category for i) fintech companies within the subsector classification; and ii) instruments or services classifications where necessary to separate out fintech-related instruments and services.
small enterprises seeking funding to institutional investors seeking lending opportunities. Equity-based
crowdfunding platforms facilitate financing transactions in which the funders receive equity stakes in the
enterprises or projects they fund. The funding transactions mediated by philanthropic crowdfunding
platforms are current transfers or, potentially, capital transfers, and an element of the services these platforms
perform is vetting of causes that are seeking assistance.

Another type of financial digital intermediation platform consists of crypto asset exchanges and trading
platforms. Crypto asset exchanges and trading platforms allow users to buy, sell and stake (lend) crypto assets
for a fee or commission. Crypto assets with a corresponding liability (e.g., asset-backed stable coins, debt,
and equity security crypto assets) are classified as financial assets (see paragraph 22.76 for the classification
of crypto assets). Since financial assets are generally among the assets traded on a crypto asset exchange,
crypto asset exchanges are classified as financial auxiliaries. Crypto asset brokers act as intermediaries
between buyers and sellers of crypto assets and embed their fee into their buying and selling prices.

2. Digital Representations of Value

Digital assets designed to act as a medium of exchange or financial instrument are digital representations of
value recorded on a cryptographically secured distributed ledger or using a similar technology or issued by a
central bank as a CBDC. Digital assets differ from e-money. E-money is monetary value stored electronically
on a physical device such as card or phone or stored remotely, which represents a liability of the e-money
issuer and is denominated in a fiat currency. E-money must represent general purchasing power (i.e., it can
be used for making payments to a variety of other entities).

Crypto assets are digital representations of value that use cryptography and distributed ledger technology
(DLT) such as blockchains to enable parties to transact directly with each other without the need for a trusted
intermediary. DLTs allow transactions to be recorded, synchronized, and shared simultaneously on multiple
nodes in a decentralized network. Blockchains create cryptographic records of transactions and ownership
that are impossible to alter.

Crypto assets are classified as either fungible or non-fungible. Fungible crypto assets are divisible and not
unique (e.g., one bitcoin is equal to any other bitcoin and can be divided into equal pieces of similar value).
Conversely, non-fungible crypto assets, commonly known as nonfungible tokens or NFTs, are unique and
non-divisible (see Section B.4). Fungible crypto assets are classified into three broad categories: (1) those
designed to act as a general medium of exchange (which are further divided in those with, and those without,
a corresponding liability); (2) those designed to act as a medium of exchange within a platform or network
(again divided into those with, and those without, a corresponding liability); and (3) security crypto assets.
Security crypto assets are tokens certifying ownership of a financial instrument. They always have a
concerning liability and should be recorded as debt securities, equity securities, or financial derivative
depending on the nature of the claim on the issuer.

A digital assets decision tree to aid in identifying fungible crypto assets according to the above typology and
other digital assets that have a corresponding liability appears in Figure 22.2. Digital assets with a

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ensuring the security of transactions. This process includes the release of new units of the crypto asset as an
implicit fee paid to the miner validating the transaction. The miner validating the transaction also receives an
explicit fee in crypto assets paid by the party initiating the transaction, which is normally the sender/seller.
The validation services that are rewarded with newly released units of the crypto asset are assumed to be
collectively consumed by the existing holders of units of that crypto asset, while those rewarded by the
explicit fee are consumed by the transactor paying the fee (normally the sender/seller). Refer to Chapter 7,
2025 SN/4 and Chapter 11, BPM7 for details on the recording of output of mining and cross-border validation
services.

Figure 22.2 Decision Tree for Classifying Fungible Digital Assets

Note: Nonfungible crypto assets (NFTs) are not covered in this decision tree.

E. Measuring Prices and Volumes of Products affected by Digitalization

22.79 Many of the measurement challenges arising from digitalization involve prices and volumes rather than the
output at current prices. Price and volume measurement challenges are particularly common for products
affected by digitalization because price change is straightforward to measure only when the products and
their characteristics remain static. Digitalization has transformed household consumption and caused rapid
change in products’ characteristics and sources of supply. New digital products regularly disrupt existing
ones, new models or service contracts frequently embody quality improvements, digital intellectual property
products and services with no physical units of measurement are growing in importance, and free products
often appear or cease to be free.

22.80 Regular and timely refreshment of the samples of models (and outlets) used to calculate the price indexes for
products subject to frequent quality improvements to keep them representative of current purchasing patterns
is the first step in compiling deflators that capture these products’ quality change. Secondly, the appearance of new models and the exit of obsolete models must be handled in a way that allows the price index for the product to reflect the value of the quality changes.

22.81 The commonly used “matched models” procedure for handling entry of new models and exit of old ones when constructing the price index for a product considers only the price changes of the continuing models in calculating the change in the index. Any model not present in both periods is excluded from the subsample used to calculate the change in the index. Leaving these models out of the index calculation avoids the risk of counting price differences due to quality differences as inflation, i.e., as a price change caused by the passage of time. However, the method implicitly assumes that the quality-adjusted price of the new model equals the price of the model it is replacing (after adjusting for the general change in price of the product between the last period with the exiting model’s price was observed and the first period when new model’s price is observed). Newly introduced models of products benefiting from advances in digital technology often offer substantially improved quality at about the same price as the model they replaced.

22.82 To capture the price and volume impact of quality changes in digital products, the prices of new models must be adjusted for the value of their quality difference from the models they replace. Hedonic regression models relating the price to the product’s characteristics are a recommended method for adjusting prices for quality change. Hedonic models that use machine learning methods to predict the price of the new model in the previous period and the price of the old model in the current period have been proposed as a technique for doing quality adjustment at scale when analyzing large datasets covering e-commerce transactions.

22.83 Another technique used to adjust the price of a digital product for a quality change is options pricing, which averages observations on the differences in the price of the item caused by a characteristic offered as an option. Regardless of the quality adjustment procedure used when a quality change is observed in the data used to compile the price index,

22.84 A price measurement problem known as outlet substitution bias occurs when buyers obtain a substantially identical product at a lower price from a new source of supply. The lower cost supplier may have appeared as part of digitalization. For example, a ride sharing DIP may offer lower prices without a significant sacrifice in quality compared to the taxis, or a good may sell for less online than offline. The impact on the average price paid of a shift in households’ shopping patterns to new source of supply can be captured by compiling a unit value price index (in which the total expenditure is divided by the total quantity purchased.) However, the composition of a unit value index must be homogeneous, as the maintained assumption is that all the items included in its calculation have the same per-unit intrinsic value. (Under the weaker assumption that the average quality of items being purchased is not falling, a unit value index can provide an upper bound measure of inflation in price of the product.)

Measuring quality change in ICT goods and goods with ICT components

22.85 Frequent quality changes in ICT equipment and ICT durable goods enabled by rapidly advancing semiconductor chip technology have been a challenge for price index compilers ever since the emergence of computing devices based on this technology. New models of these goods have often offered a substantial improvement in performance at almost the same price as the previous model, yet the widely used “matched models” method for price index compilation implicitly assumes that the quality-adjusted prices of the two models in an overlap period are the same. Furthermore, the measurement problem of quality changes enabled by semiconductors has spread as digitalization has proceeded, as embedded semiconductors and software now enable quality improvements in many kinds of equipment and durable goods, including motor vehicles.

22.86 Hedonic regression methods or the option price method can be used to estimate the value of quality changes associated with model replacements to enable the price indexes for ICT goods and goods with IT components to capture their quality improvements. If these methods are not feasible, information on the cost of production of a new product feature may be used to adjust the product’s price index for the quality change. For example, a new capability of a motor vehicle made possible by embedded semiconductors and software might be valued by the producer’s cost of adding this feature plus the usual distribution margins included in the retail price.
Software and data

Software and data assets play critical roles in the success of many digital firms. The growing importance of software has expanded the range of uncertainty around the deflator for investment in IT products because the volume and quality of different software packages are hard to assess, and in-house production of software is common. The price or volume growth of own-account software and data must generally be inferred from the prices and volumes of the inputs, either assuming no productivity change or using the rate of productivity change of a related activity. Another option for deflating custom software is to use the price index of a related product, such as standardized software products sold by software publishers. Continuous improvement in the performance of AI software that learns from experience is not included in the volume of software investment.

Data is an heterogeneous type of asset, with wide variation in value depending on the topic, context, and circumstances. The volume and value of gross investment in data are measured by the volume and value of the inputs used. However, holding gains and losses may change the value of the data, and normal obsolescence will have a downward effect on its volume.

Cloud computing

Many of the enterprises that supply cloud computing services offer a large variety of detailed products within the broad categories of IaaS, PaaS, and, especially, SaaS. Thus, the length and complexity of the menu of products is likely to pose a challenge for construction of a price index for cloud computing services. Frequent introductions of new or modified products compound the difficulty. However, price data from samples of major product varieties with relatively stable characteristics from each product category can be used to estimate a deflator for cloud computing output.

Cross-border transactions are another common challenge for estimation of deflators for output and consumption of cloud computing services. International collaboration may be required to overcome the problems of price data availability so that deflators for the consumption of cross-border cloud computing can be compiled.

Internet and telecommunications services

The volume of internet and telecommunications services consumed by households has risen substantially as households spend more time online via broadband and mobile connections and consume more digitally delivered content. Data transmission speeds have also improved. Commonly used methods for constructing consumer price indexes and producer price indexes for telecommunications services may, however, fail to capture this volume growth. To measure the change in the cost of purchasing a given volume of internet and telecommunications services accurately, samples of contracts, products and carriers must be kept up to date and prices must be adjusted for quality changes such as improvements in data transmission speeds or improvements in the geographic coverage offered by a mobile telecommunications provider.

If the available price indexes for internet and telecommunications services fail to capture the quality improvements that are appropriate to include in the measure of volume growth, an alternative to deflating by a price index is to estimate the volume growth of internet and telecommunications services directly. This volume index would be constructed from physical indicators such as data usage. To minimize the risk of distortion from changes in the composition of the aggregate being measured, the physical volume indicators should be defined at a detailed level, and the growth rates of the physical indicators for the various detailed products should be aggregated using expenditure or revenue weights.

E-commerce and digital intermediation platforms

Deflators for household final consumption expenditures on items sold online must adequately represent prices from e-commerce outlets and suppliers, and from suppliers selling on digital platforms, because online prices may have different trends from offline prices. Furthermore, the high frequency of changes in online prices will often make a monthly unit value a more suitable measure of the price of an item in a month from
an online supplier than the supplier’s price at a point in time during the month. Finally, if item-level data on expenditures are available for the online sellers, the index weights should reflect this expenditure data and an index formula or algorithm that is resistant to chain drift should be used. (Chain drift is the distortion caused by fluctuations in the weights in a chained index.)

Online prices from e-commerce retailers and platforms such as ridesharing and short-term rental platforms drivers are often lower than offline prices for comparable items. The change in the average price paid by households when households substitute a source of supply with a different price level for their old source of supply for an identical item conceptually represents a decline in the deflator for household final consumption expenditures. In practice, however, practical difficulties and concerns about possible unobserved differences in quality usually keep price index compilers from capturing the possible price decline associated with the switch to online sources of supply.

Expanded access to variety and customization

The information provided by digital platforms and e-commerce suppliers enables households to locate the detailed varieties whose characteristics best match their tastes and needs from among the vast array of products available for purchase online. Digitalization has also increased opportunities for product customization. By expanding households’ access to variety and improving the matching of product’s characteristics with the tastes and needs of the households that consume them, digitalization has improved the efficiency with which goods and services are used once they have been produced. Households’ material well-being (or welfare) from consumption of goods and services has therefore grown faster than production of goods and services. This source of welfare gain could be relevant for an extended concept of consumption volume used for analytical purposes. The welfare gains from better use of output once it has been produced are, however, not part of the production that is measured by the national accounts. Similarly, the welfare gains from inventions of new digital products with novel characteristics are beyond the scope of the price and volume measures of the SNA.

Free digital products

Conceptually, the increased availability to households of free products brought about by digitalization represents a decline in the price and an increase in the volume of the household final consumption basket. The effect of appearance of a free product is straightforward to measure in the case where the free product directly replaces a priced product. When an item that households must purchase separately becomes free, the same total expenditure will command a greater volume of goods and services and the effect on the household consumption deflator will be given by the decline in the cost of the bundle. However, when the services of free online platforms start to be bundled in the prices of advertised products, the theoretical decline in the cost of the bundle will depend on the assumed value of the free online platform services. An extended account that values the free services of digital platforms by their cost of production is discussed below in the subsection on “Analytical Tools to Increase the Visibility of Digitalization.”

The free digital services and embedded product capabilities in devices such as the smartphone that have appeared since the start of digitalization often enable households to achieve outcomes that previously required purchases of market goods and services. They may also save time or allow their user to do things that they previously could not do. However, the assumptions required to measure the effects on the household final consumption deflator of the appearance of a free digital product that is not a direct replacement for any priced product would often have unacceptable effects on the replicability of the results. Theoretical effects on deflators and volume growth associated with the appearance or disappearance of free digital products that are impossible to measure without hard-to-justify assumptions are beyond the scope of the measures of the national accounts.

F. Analytical Tools to Increase the Visibility of Digitalization

Digitalization is a multidimensional phenomenon that requires multiple indicators and perspectives to
understand. Furthermore, the standard national accounts aggregates provide limited information on the transactions, products and activities affected by digitalization. In the standard classification of industries and commodities published in the national accounts, digital products are often subsumed in broader aggregates and scattered across different aggregates. Enhanced visibility into digital firms, products, and transactions is therefore needed for a full understanding of the effects of digitalization on the economy and of the performance and the evolution of a digitalized economy. Distinguishing the digital components of the standard aggregates will also provide reassurance to the users of the national accounts that the output and consumption of digital products is being fully measured as part of those aggregates.

A thematic account on the digital economy, digital supply and use tables (SUTs), and an extended account on free services of online platforms are flexible tools for bringing the impact of digitalization on the economy into focus, where flexibility means that the content that is appropriate to include depends, in part, on which aspects are locally important and practical to measure. These tools complement each other. The conceptual framework of the digital SUTs will help to ensure the accuracy and consistency of the data presented in the digital economy thematic account, while the digital economy thematic account can help communicate the key information contained in the digital SUTs in a convenient and accessible way and provide additional context. Also, an extended account can present an alternative framework for accounting for the unpriced services that free online platforms supply to households. Households’ consumption of the free services of digital platforms funded by advertising and the collection of data is a major element of the gains in economic welfare associated with the digital transformation.

1. Thematic Account on the Digital Economy

Compiling a thematic account on the digital economy and the related digital supply and use tables (SUTs) can bring visibility to activities, products and transactions affected by digitalization that are subsumed in broader aggregates in the standard classifications of the national accounts. A digital economy thematic account provides alternative aggregations and additional detail on products and transactions that separately identifies digital segments of industries, digital products, and digital transactions and can highlight key information from the digital SUTs. The conceptual framework of the digital SUTs helps guide the compilation of the digital economy thematic account.

In developing a digital economy thematic account, the items that are most important for understanding the impact of digitalization should be prioritized. These items are likely to include breakouts of digitally ordered and digitally delivered transactions, production and intermediate consumption of cloud computing services and digital intermediation services, and the output and value added of each of the industries supplying ICT goods, ICT services, and other digital services. The suppliers of other digital services may be classified into e-tailers, and data- and advertising-driven platforms, non-financial digital intermediation platforms, financial service providers primarily operating digitally, and other service providers operating only digitally.

The thematic account should summarize the uses of ICT goods and digital services, including uses for own-account and purchased investment. The fixed capital formation that enables digital activity is also relevant for understanding the impact of digitalization. In addition to ICT equipment, software, and data, this fixed capital includes the infrastructure of data centers and networks.

Trade flows of ICT goods and digital services are important to include in the thematic account on the digital economy. A decomposition of exports and imports by major category of products may also be important to report to show the source of the differences between domestic production and domestic uses of the items in these categories. International transactions that are digitally ordered or digitally delivered are additional aspects that should be highlighted in the thematic account. Furthermore, the share of domestic transactions that are digitally ordered transactions is an important indicator of the penetration of e-commerce that is also appropriate to include.

The indicators in the digital economy thematic account need not be limited to products within the SNA production boundary. The free services that digital platforms supply to households valued by their cost of production can be reported as an addendum item.
2. Digital Supply and Use Tables

22.105 The digital supply and use tables (SUTs) analyze the impact of digitalization along the three dimensions of the nature of the transaction, products, and industries by adding new detail and aggregations to the standard SUTs. This approach ensures that the framework for analyzing digital transactions, products, and industries is aligned with existing classifications and takes advantage of those classifications. The supply table classifications enable a decomposition of the domestic and imported sources of supply of digital products, and the use table classifications enable a decomposition of the uses of digital products for intermediate consumption, final consumption, investment, and exports.

22.106 As conceptually defined, the digital SUTs have cells that can accommodate all potentially relevant transactions, which makes the number of possible entries in the new rows and columns large. To reduce the compilation burden and source data requirements, a set of high priority aggregates has been identified. The recommended high priority items include (a) decompositions of expenditures by the nature of the transaction, (b) output and intermediate consumption of digital intermediation services, cloud computing services, and ICT goods and digital services, and (c) the output and gross value added of digital industries. (For detailed guidance on compiling digital SUTs, see the OECD Handbook on Compiling Digital Supply and Use Tables.)

22.107 E-commerce transactions are defined by digital ordering. To provide insight into digitally ordered transactions, the digital supply and use tables include new rows that distinguish these transactions, along with a further decomposition into transactions ordered directly from a counterparty, transactions ordered through a resident digital intermediation platform, and transactions ordered through a non-resident digital intermediation platform.

22.108 Digital delivery of services is also an important aspect of digitalization. The digitally delivered portion of the output of domestic industries and imports may be shown in “of which” columns in the digital supply table, and digitally delivered portion of household final consumption and exports may be shown in “of which” columns in the digital use table.

22.109 To bring visibility to the output and intermediate consumption of digital products, new rows are added to the SUTs on ICT goods, cloud computing services, digital intermediation services, and all other digital services. An addendum on products beyond the standard production boundary may also have rows for free services of digital platforms and free services of online communities of volunteers. Including imputed values of these free services in the digital SUTs will facilitate compilation of an extended account on free digital services.

22.110 The output and gross value added of digital industries and related industries are shown by incorporating seven new columns in the digital SUTs. One column contains the digitally enabling industry, which comprises the producers of ICT goods and services. The other six columns cover online platforms funded by advertising and data collection, digital intermediation platforms, producers that depend on digital intermediation platforms, e-tailers, financial service providers primarily operating digitally, and other producers operating only digitally.

3. Extended Account to Increase the Visibility of the Free Services of Digital Platforms Consumed by Households

22.111 Free online platforms funded by advertising and collection of users’ data have become part of daily life and the time spent by households using platforms offering free services such as social media, search, entertainment, and information suggests that households place a high value on the free services of digital platforms funded by advertising and data collection. An estimate of the value of these free services is therefore relevant for understanding and analyzing the impact of digitalization on the growth of household consumption of goods and services. Yet the value of the free services of platforms funded by advertising and collection of users’ data is not estimated as part of compiling the standard sequence of economic accounts because the cost of supplying these services is implicitly included in the price of the advertising services and data sold by the platform and the platform’s own-account investment in data assets. In effect, in the standard sequence of economic accounts, the digital platform is itself the user of the free services, and the benefits that households derive from these services are merely a positive externality of the production of advertising services and data assets.
To provide information on households’ direct consumption of the “free” services of digital platforms funded by advertising and data collection, compilation of an extended account showing the value of these services is encouraged. Extended accounts are a flexible tool for presenting concepts that extend SNA boundaries, including expanded measures of economic activity and household final consumption expenditures that extend the production boundary.

Households’ consumption of the free services of advertiser-funded digital platforms can be included in an extended account as part of expanded measures of household final consumption expenditures and output. Although letting these services be consumed twice, once by households as they use the platform and a second time by the platforms as they produce advertising services and data assets, would cause double counting in a measure GDP, expanded measures of economic activity and household consumption that reflect the simultaneous consumption of these services by the households using the platform and by the platform itself are analytically useful.

In the framework of the extended account, households’ consumption of unpriced services produced by the platforms’ software and hardware assets in exchange for providing a license to collect data on their observable phenomena (OP) can also be included. The licenses to collect the households’ data are viewed as a payment in kind for the platform’s unpriced services and the platform’s unpriced services are viewed as a payment in kind for the license to collect the users’ data.

The imputed values of items that are bartered for each other (the unpriced platform services consumed by households and the opportunities for the platform to collect the households’ data) must be the same. Consequently, there are four theoretical ways to value the platforms’ unpriced services: (1) the platform’s cost of producing the free services, (2) the value that the households place on the free services, (3) the value that the households place on the privacy of their data that they give up, and (4) the economic benefits that the platforms derive from users’ attention and access to users’ data. The need for consistency within the system of measures of the transactions of the free platforms makes the cost of producing the services the most suitable of these four theoretical values for the extended account. Own-account investment in data assets is usually measured by the cost of production approach, so valuing the licenses to collect data on users’ OP by the cost producing the platform services exchanged for these licenses would be consistent with the general approach to measurement of own-account investment in data assets. Cost of production is also more practical to estimate than the other three theoretical values of the platform’s free services.

Although the payment in kind from the platform to the households consists of services produced by the platform, the license to access the households’ OP received in return is not a service produced by the households. and the imputed payment for that license is classified as a rent (see paragraph 22.21 for additional details). Licensing collection of data on one’s OP is not a production activity – households’ OP are not a produced asset, so access to households’ OP cannot be considered consumption of the services of a produced fixed asset. However, if households actively assist in the collection of their data, the steps they take to assist with the data collection can be considered a production of services (but such cases are rare).

The expanded measures of free platforms’ output and value added in the extended account will include the imputed value of the free services consumed by households. The balance of primary incomes of the platforms will, however, be unchanged. The platforms’ extra value added from imputed sales of services to households will equal the platforms’ imputed payments of rent for the licenses to collect households’ data. Household saving will also be unchanged because the imputed household consumption expenditures on platform services will equal households’ imputed income from licensing collection of their data.

In addition to allowing collection of data on their OP, households provide economic benefits to free platforms by creating and supplying user-generated content without monetary compensation. In the standard sequence of accounts, households that receive monetary payments for the content they post online are unincorporated household enterprises producing services, but content supplied without payment is beyond the production boundary. To increase the visibility of households’ unremunerated creation of user-generated content, the extended account can treat user-generated content that is uploaded without monetary payment as part of a barter transaction in which platform user receives unpriced platform services in exchange for the user-generated content. Under this alternative approach, the platform’s unpriced services are used by the content creators as inputs to produce the user-generated content and the user-generated content is used by the platform to produce data assets. The net effect is to increase in the measure of the platforms’ own-account investment in data assets.