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ANNEX 5

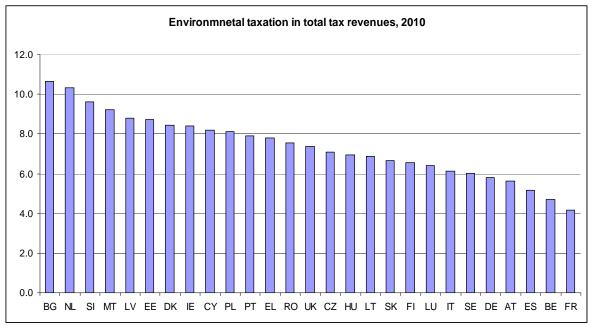
THE LINK BETWEEN THE ENVIRONMENT AND COMPETITIVENESS

The economic and financial context is much less favourable now than when the 6EAP was adopted. This makes it especially timely to examine the link between environmental protection and improving resource efficiency on the one hand and between growth and jobs on the other hand.

Governments are facing severe pressures to reduce budget deficits, there are nevertheless opportunities for environment related policies to contribute to fiscal consolidation (by removing environmentally harmful subsidies and shifting the tax burden from capital and labour to pollution), and to improving productivity and competiveness (by promoting greener, more efficient technologies, and related employment opportunities).

The possibilities for fiscal consolidation

Fiscal consolidation would be helped by shifting taxes from labour to pollution. Environmental taxes are an efficient market-based instrument to achieve environment policy objectives, while supporting growth-friendly budget consolidation Some Member States have achieved a relatively large proportion of environmental tax revenues (including energy taxes) as a share of total taxes, whilst maintaining fiscal revenues and improving competitiveness and energy efficiency. This demonstrates that it is possible to shift taxation onto environmentally harmful activities within a sound economic framework.



Source: Eurostat

Best practice in Europe is that environmental taxes contribute around 10% of all taxes. However, the average contribution of environmental taxes is only 6.3%. If all countries achieved what the frontrunners are, then there would be additional tax revenue equivalent to around 1.4% of Europe's GDP that could be used to reduce deficits or labour taxes.

A complementary action is to reform the subsidies offered for inefficient activities that are also harm the environment. This would also help fiscal consolidation. The OECD's work on fossil fuels, suggests that OECD governments could save up to 75 billion dollars a year, and other countries an additional 400 billion dollars a year. Another example is that in Europe we provide favourable tax treatment of company cars at a cost of almost half a percentage point of GDP. Such support could be better targeted on green cars.

The possibilities to improve productivity and competiveness

The environment and natural resources are an input to the European economy. Because of this, they are linked to the economy's competitiveness. The macroeconomic viewpoint is not contentious: if resources are a factor for production, they impact on productivity and growth. However, if the theory is not contended, the debate lies on the potential for improving resource efficiency.

Whilst macroeconomic modelling of the economic underpinning for resource policy is relatively in its infancy, studies are being undertaken. For example, a top-down study for the Commission concludes that we could realistically reduce the total material requirements of the EU economy by 17% and that this could boost GDP by up to 3.3% and create between 1.4 and 2.8 million jobs. Every percentage point reduction in resource use is worth around 23 billion Euros to business and could lead to up to 100,000 to 200,000 new jobs in the short run.¹

In terms of bottom-up analysis, this tells a similar story. A few examples are:

- Study found that UK business could save around £23bn per year from resource efficiency measures that are either no or low cost².
- Empirical evidence suggests that a 10-20% reduction in resource and energy use in Germany is possible³.
- The consultant company McKinsey have identified resource efficiency potential linked to different measures⁴. They estimate that globally there is a \$3.5 trillion business opportunity from improving resource efficiency, according to the preliminary results of their study.
- Using waste as a resource and implementing EU waste legislation fully would save Europe €72 billion a year and create over 400,000 jobs by 2020.⁵

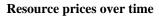
The potential for improved resource efficiency to pay off in terms of cost savings is likely to increase as the prices of natural resources fell over the twentieth century, but generally increased in the last decade. Resources will become scarcer and more expensive in the future – we need to anticipate this change. In particular, global demand for resources is increasing, as the world population grows towards 9 billion people and becomes richer.

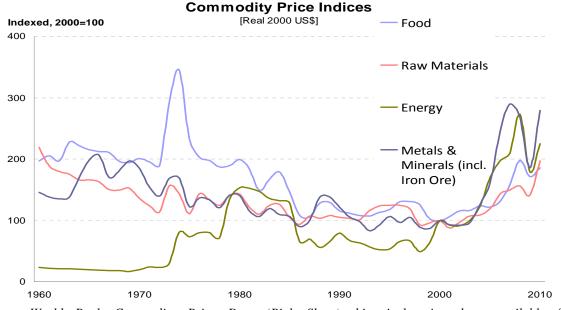
¹ "Macroeconomic modelling of sustainable development and the links between the economy and the environment", GWS et al for the Commission, (2011)

² Oakdene Hollins "Further Benefits of Business Resource Efficiency", 2011

 ³ Distelkamp, M., Meyer, B., Wolter, M.I. (2005) in: Aachener Stiftung Kathy Beys (Hrsg.) Ressourcenproduktivität als Chance, and MaRess Final Report, Wuppertal et al 2010, referencing others
⁴ McKinsey (2011) Resource Revolution: Meeting the world's energy, materials, food, and water needs

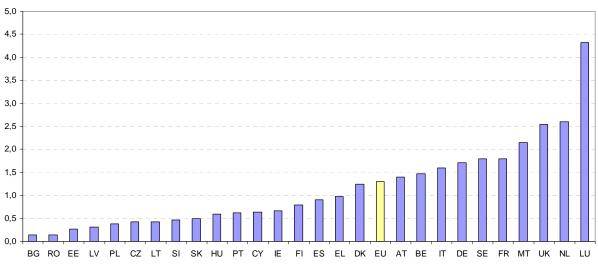
⁵ "Implementing EU waste legislation for green growth" BIO et al for the Commission, (2011)





Source: World Bank Commodity Price Data (Pink Sheet), historical price data, available from <u>http://blogs.worldbank.org/prospects/globalcommodity-watch-march-2011</u>

At the same time, there is room to improve our resource efficiency. This is evidenced, for example, by the big differences between countries in their resource productivity – the GDP they can generate per 'unit' of resources. Clearly, there is room for best practice to be shared, and for countries to improve their performance.



Resource productivity (GDP/DMC) (EUR/kg), 2007

6

Stimulating new innovations in resource efficiency will boost productivity and also international competitiveness. The global market for eco-industries is estimated at roughly EUR 1.15 trillion a year in 2010. There is broad consensus that the global market could almost double, with the average estimate for 2020 being around EUR 2 trillion a year.⁶ The EU-27 has a strong export position vis-à-vis nearly all of the world's largest economies.

Source: ESTAT, 2011

[&]quot;The number of Jobs dependent on the Environment and Resource Efficiency", Ecorys et al (2012)

Risks associated with resource use

As well as prices increasing, they are becoming more volatile and supply is becoming riskier. We are heavily dependent on material imports to Europe, making us vulnerable to supply shocks. There is an on-going shift in Europe to resource imports: by 2030 two thirds of resource use will be either imports or use outside the EU. The result is that the European economy faces a risk associated with resource use, which it needs to manage.

Matrix of risks associated with future European resource use

| | | Iron & steel | Other metals | Construction minerals | Industrial minerals |
|----------------------------|--|--|---|--|--|
| Availability | Geological availability | Iron production is energy intensive, but usable deposits of iron ore are geographically widespread | Rare earths: widespread resources in all continents | In some EU countries limited geological availability and topographical accessibility | Most industrial minerals are abundantly available in the earth crust, so generally low risk |
| | Ecological availability | | | | |
| Technology | Extraction technologies | | | | |
| | Substitution and recycling options | Increasing options to substitute iron and steel; increasing shares of scrap iron | Rare earths: limited recycling options | Potentials to recycle are high; shares in practice very different | Limited substitutability; unavailable for recycling, although indirect recovery (e.g. feldspar in glass) |
| Economic and policy issues | Economic availability | | | Restrictions due to competition for land | |
| | Power concentration | 3 biggest iron ore producers control 75- 80% of global supplies | High market concentration for some critical metals (e.g. antimony, gallium, germanium, indium, rare earths, tungsten largely from China) | | High supply concentration for certain minerals (e.g. graphite); Barriers to trade |
| | Import dependency | High but not critical EU dependency on imported iron ore | Europe is 100% import dependent for many rare metals (e.g. rare earths) | | High import dependency related to some IndM (e.g. phosphorous) |
| | Resource prices | Still among the cheapest metals, but expected future price increases may have economic impacts | Metals industry depends on several energy sources, most importantly electricity | Increase in the long run if spatial planning policies are not implemented | Global demand trends lead to price rise for certain IndM |
| | Economic vulnerability | Very high economic importance, as almost all industrial sectors depend on iron; EU is second largest manufacturer of iron and steel in the world | High importance of rare metals for many low- carbon technologies; Dependency of modern technology on aluminium, lead, copper | Sensitive to transport costs, have to be sourced locally | High importance in a wide range of industries; many IndM cannot be substituted |
| Environment | Environmental impacts | Globally, primary iron & steel production have the largest negative env. impacts of all metals (sector with very high energy intensity) | Mining of critical metals often causes considerable environmental burden, but their use in low- carbon may also bring environmental benefits | Landscape and habitat disruption. Emissions related to extraction, transport, processing and deposit | Related to extraction, transport, processing and deposit |
| | Risks of natural catastrophes | Japan is the largest global supplier of iron and steel; 5 Japanese mills are located in Tsunami affected areas | | | |

| | | Fossil fuels | Agriculture | Wood | Fish |
|----------------------------|--|--|--|---|---|
| Availability | Geological availability | Resources will be diminishing in the medium-term | Critical availability of phosphorous | | |
| | Ecological availability | | Critical availability of land and water | European forests are generally well managed; continuous deforestation outside the EU due to land use change | Overfishing leads to collapsing fish stocks in the EU (and globally) |
| Technology | Extraction technologies | Become more complex and more expensive | | | |
| | Substitution and recycling options | High dependence on FF in energy supply. After combustion not available for recycling | | | Limited substitution in aquaculture production of fish |
| Economic and policy issues | Economic availability | | | | |
| | Power concentration | Supply is highly concentrated | Future economically viable phosphorus reserves are concentrated in China and Morocco | | |
| | Import dependency | High dependency on imports (50%) will increase | High import dependency on phosphorus and crops for feed | | Rising import dependency |
| | Resource prices | Long-term price rise; price volatility and shocks | Rising food prices | Higher future prices due to increasing use of timber for energy and construction and growing global demand | |
| | Economic vulnerability | Dependence on ff in energy supply, transport and industrial processing; increasing demand | | | Negative impacts on fishery industries; fleets become increasingly economically unviable; employment is endangered |
| Environment | Environmental impacts | Fossile based emissions induce global warming | Climate impacts; soil degradation; water scarcity; biodiversity loss, etc. | Loss of forests due to conversion in agricultural land; climate change impacts | Biodiversity loss, destruction of vulnerable habitats, decreasing stability and water quality |
| | Risks of natural catastrophes | | Reduced yields/harvests due to environmental impacts (climate change!) | Increasing intensity and frequency of extreme weather events due to climate change | |

Resource efficiency and job retention and creation

Around 2.7 million people worked in the EU-27 eco-industry in 2008 which represented 0.81% of the total workforce (people age 15 - 64). In 2012, with extrapolation from reported figures, the total number of people working in eco-industries is around 3,4 million. The average annual growth (2000 - 2008) in eco-industry jobs is approximately 2,7 %. Overall, the general trend is therefore of a growing number of 'green jobs', with many more in jobs outside the eco-industry but dependent on the environment as an input.⁷

New technologies, such as nanotechnology, have also the potential to contribute to resource efficiency, growth and job creation, if the associated potential risks are adequately addressed.

7

The number of jobs dependent on the environment and resource efficiency improvements", Ecorys, 2012 (<u>http://ec.europa.eu/environment/enveco/jobs/pdf/jobs.pdf</u>).

Not surprisingly, the evidence is that improving resource efficiency leads to job creation. For example, as part of its action to combat climate change, the EU has committed to increase the share of energy from renewable sources to 20% by 2020. It is estimated that meeting this target under an accelerated deployment strategy will provide up to an additional 410,000 jobs and boost up to GDP by $0.24\%^8$.

The new employment package "Towards a job rich recovery", proposes exploiting the big job potential areas for the future such as the green economy, where it identifies that over 20 million jobs could be created between now and 2020^9 .

 ⁸ "The impact of renewable energy policy on economic growth and employment in the EU", Employ-RES, 2009
⁹ <u>http://europa.eu/rapid/pressReleasesAction.do?reference=MEMO/12/252</u>