

Syllabus_Energy Economics and Policy

Energy and Economy

Introduction to different forms of energy; Understanding energy-economy linkages; Accounting energy balance; Understanding energy intensity and efficiency; Tradeoffs between energy-environment, Role of globalization and urbanization on energy demand

Economics of Non-renewable Energy

Economics of coal, petroleum and natural gas; Pricing of exhaustible energies - theories and practical issues; Regulation of fossil fuels energy markets

Economics of Renewable Energy

Drivers and sources of renewable energy; Economics of renewable energy supply; Developing markets for renewable energies

Environmental Implications of Energy

Energy-economic growth-environment Interactions; Income inequality-energy-pollution linkages; Climate change and environmental Kuznets Curve; Pollution haven hypothesis; Analysis on energy mixclimate change-market failure; natural resources management, The Clean Development Mechanism

Current Energy Issues and Policies

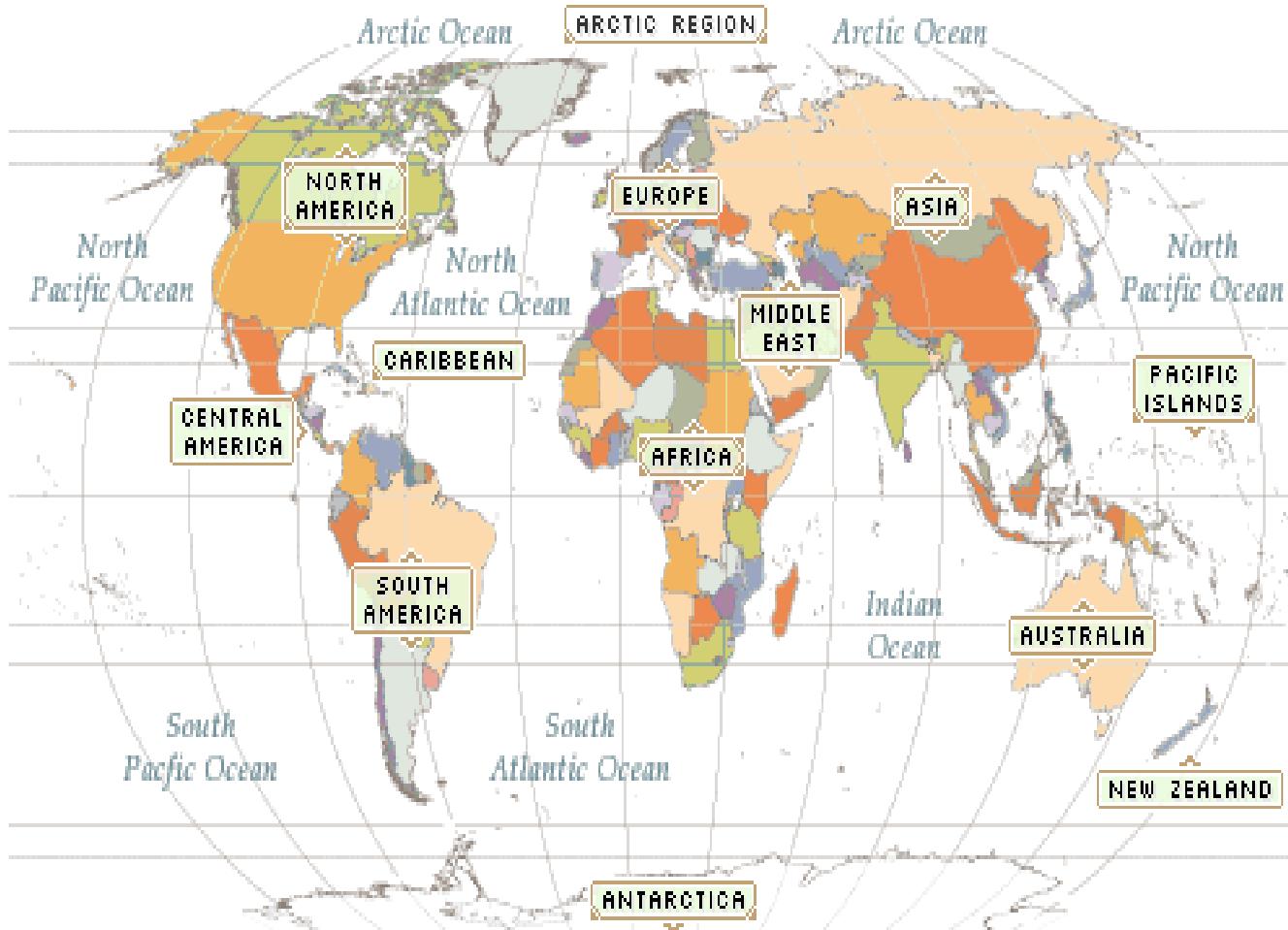
Current energy market trend and challenges; Energy policies in selected countries; Energy governance in India; Policy and institutional arrangement for energy efficiency and management in developing countries; Promoting clean energy usage for sustainable development goals

Suggested Readings

1. Griffin, J. M., & Steele, H. B. (2013). Energy economics and policy. Elsevier.
2. Tietenberg, T. Environmental and Natural Resource Economics, seventh edition, Addison Wesley, 2006
3. Munasinghe, M. and P. Meier, Energy Policy Analysis and Modelling. U.K.: Cambridge University Press, 1993
4. Ristinen, R. and J. Kraushaar, Energy and the Environment, John Wiley and Sons, 1998.
5. Wright, R.T., Environmental Science: Towards Sustainable Future, Pearson, Eleventh Edition, 2011

Country Maps: The Middle East

1. Bahrain
2. Cyprus
3. Egypt
4. Iran
5. Iraq
6. Israel
7. Jordan
8. Kuwait
9. Lebanon
10. Oman
11. Qatar
12. Saudi Arabia
13. Syria
14. Turkey
15. United Arab Emirates
16. Yemen



Map View: Robinson Projection

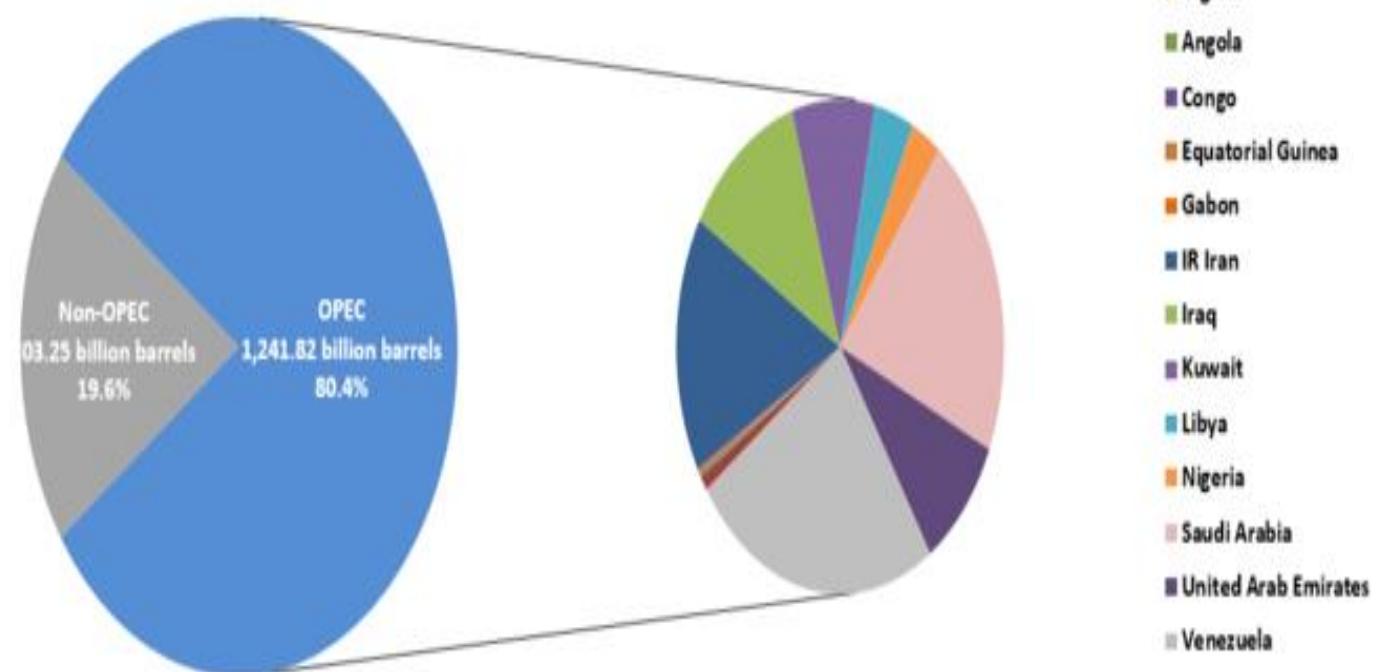


FIGURE 1.3 Map of the Middle East. Major oil pipelines are shown as broken lines. Major oil fields are indicated by small black spots of irregular shape.

Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC, 1960, Iraq)

1. Iran (1960)
 2. Iraq (1960)
 3. Kuwait (1960)
 4. Saudi (1960)
 5. Arabia (1960)
 6. Venezuela (1960)
 7. Qatar (1961)
 8. Indonesia (1962)
 9. Libya (1962)
 10. the United Arab Emirates (1967)
 11. Algeria (1969), Nigeria (1971)
 12. Ecuador (1973)
 13. Gabon (1975)
 14. Angola (2007)
 15. Equatorial Guinea (2017)
 16. Congo (2018)
- “any country with a substantial net export of crude petroleum, which has fundamentally similar interests to those of Member Countries, may become a Full Member of the Organization”
- Currently, the Organization has a total of 13 Member Countries

OPEC share of world Crude Oil Reserves, 2021



OPEC proven crude oil reserves , at end 2021 (billion barrels, OPEC share)

Venezuela	303.47	24.4%	United Arab Emirates	111.00	8.9%	Algeria	12.20	1.0%	Equatorial Guinea	1.10	0.1%
Saudi Arabia	267.19	21.5%	Kuwait	101.50	8.2%	Angola	2.52	0.2%			
IR Iran	208.60	16.8%	Libya	48.36	3.9%	Gabon	2.00	0.2%			
Iraq	145.02	11.7%	Nigeria	37.05	3.0%	Congo	1.81	0.1%			

Percentage of World Crude Oil Production by Country, 1860-1984

	United States	Russia	Indonesia	Mexico	Venezuela	Middle East	Africa	Other
1860	98							2
1865	92	2						6
1870	91	3						6
1875	91	5						4
1880	88	10						2
1885	60	34						6
1890	60	37						3
1895	51	44	1					4
1900	43	52	2					3
1905	63	25	4					8
1910	64	27	4	1				4
1915	65	14	3	8				10
1920	64	4	3	23				6
1925	71	5	2	12	2	3		5
1930	64	8	2	3	10	3		10
1935	60	9	2	2	9	4		14
1940	63	10	3	2	10	4		8
1945	66	6	1	2	12	7		6
1950	52	7	1	2	15	15		8
1955	45	9	2	2	14	19		9
1960	35	14	2	1	14	23	1	10
1965	27	16	2	1	12	25	6	11
1970	22	17	2	1	8	30	13	7
1975	16	18	2	1	4	36	16	7
1980	14	20	3	3	4	30	16	10
1984	16	22	3	5	3	20	6	25

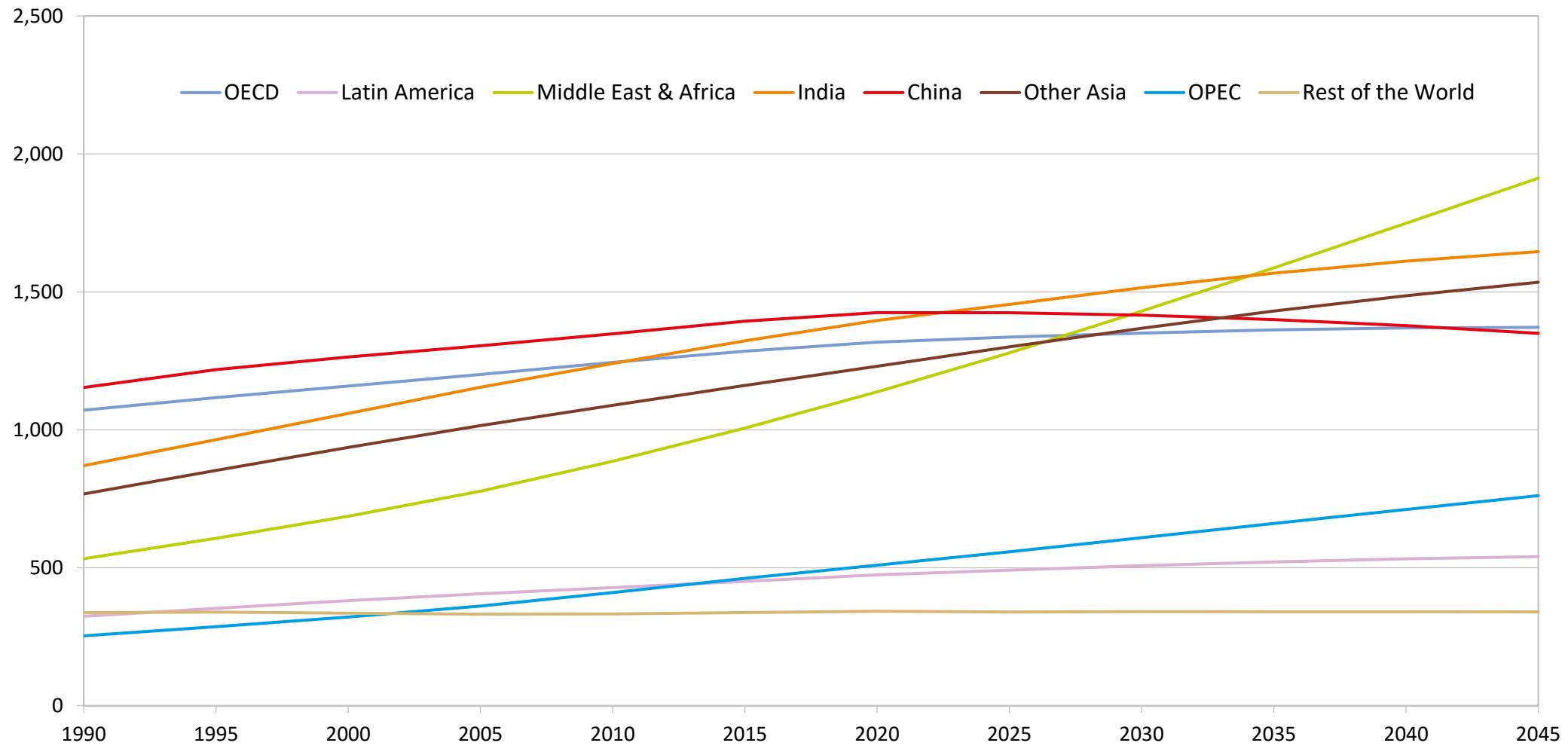
SOURCES: 1860-1920: U.S. Bureau of Mines; 1925-1965: Energy in the World Economy; 1970-1984: Monthly Energy Review.

Percentage of Government Owned Oil Production for Selected Years in OPEC Countries

Country	1970	1972	1974	1976	1978	1980
Saudi Arabia	.9	.7	58.5	58.7	58.7	97.7
Iran	4.5	5.0	96.2	96.2	94.6	100
Kuwait	1.2	1.2	55.1	90.6	94.1	90.6
Iraq	0	53.8	77.2	100	100	100
Libya	0	3.6	60.7	64.2	65.7	67.5
U.A.E.	0	0	49.5	62.1	64.4	64.4
Venezuela	1.2	1.9	2.5	100	100	100
Qatar	0	0	60.0	78.5	99.4	100
Nigeria	0	0	54.9	55.1	54.9	71.1
Indonesia	11.7	16.2	30.5	36.6	44.6	45.7
Algeria	14.6	76.9	88.2	90.5	89.1	93.7
Ecuador	—	1.3	25.4	25.5	62.9	62.7
Gabon	0	0	0	0	0	0

SOURCE: OPEC Annual Statistical Yearbook.

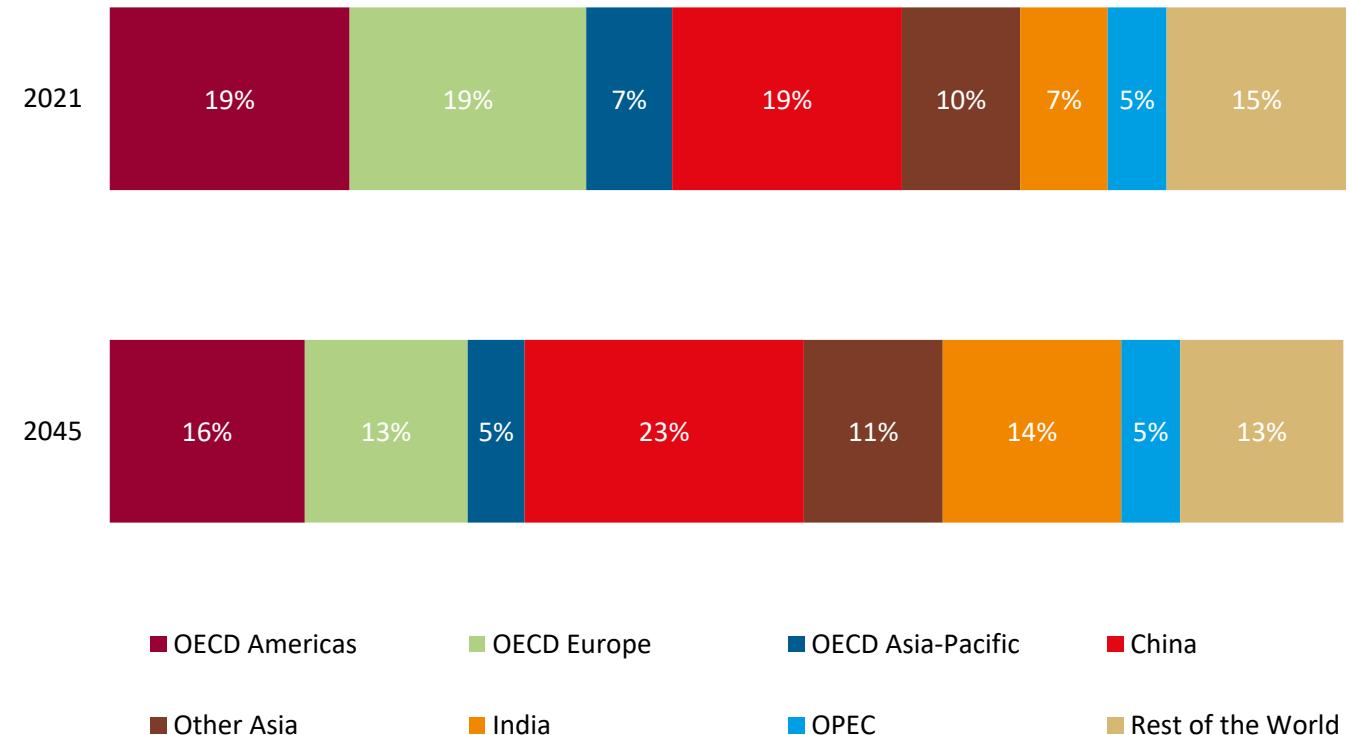
World population trends, 1990-2045 (Millions)



Source: UN, OPEC

Distribution of the global economy, 2021 and 2045 (%)

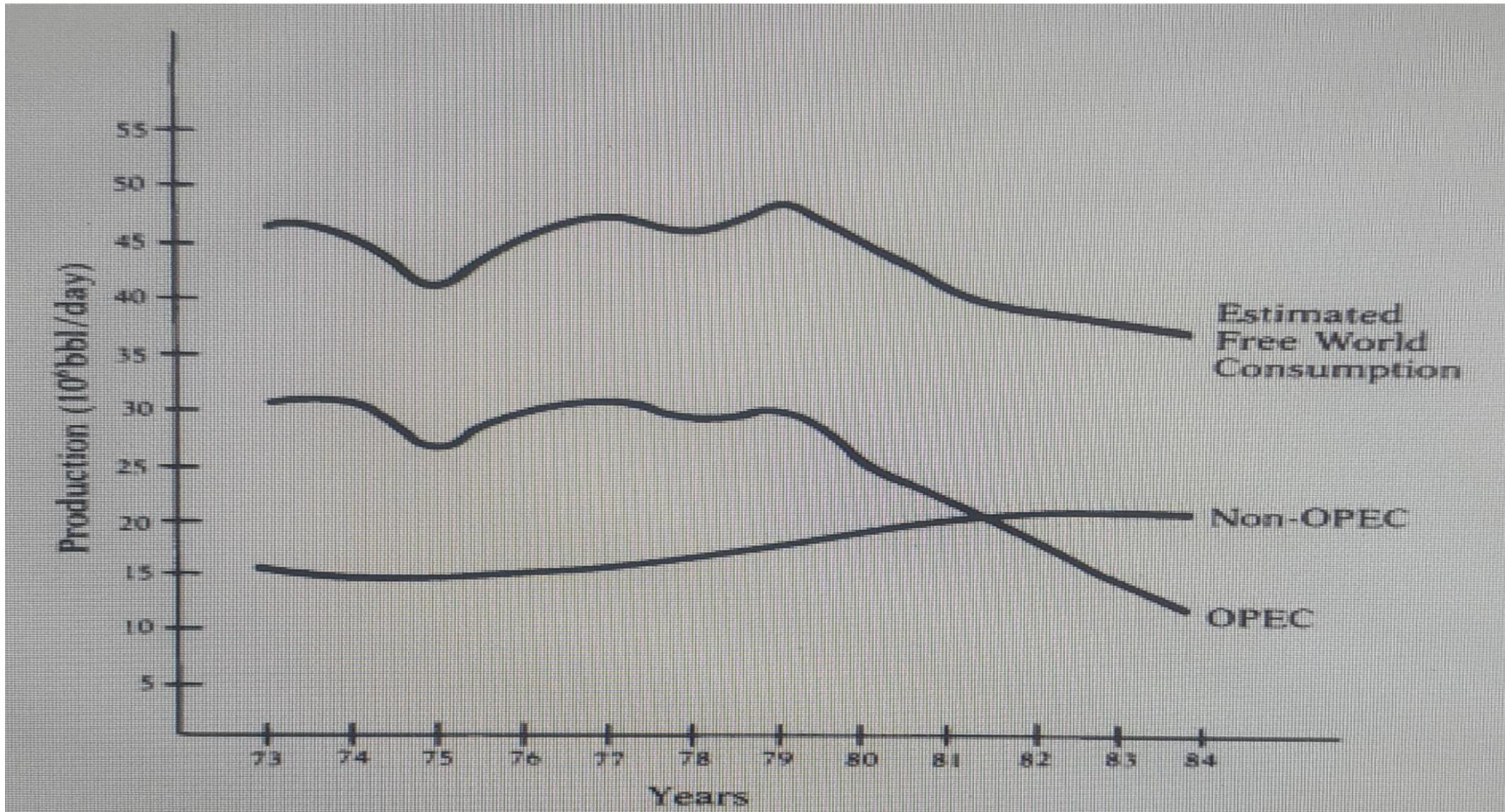
	2045	2021
OECD Americas	15.81%	19.45%
OECD Europe	13.21%	19.18%
OECD Asia-Pacific	4.62%	6.96%
China	22.63%	18.63%
Other Asia	11.25%	9.58%
India	14.47%	7.10%
OPEC	4.78%	4.78%
Rest of the World	13.23%	14.60%



Implications for OPEC

- Urbanised Asia is the key to growth of OPEC region.
- Growth performance in OPEC appears to be stagnant.
- It is a concern for OPEC if no growth in long-run.
- Resources depletion or low oil generation could be a reason for no growth.
- The countries in OPEC region may think of oil diversification for society welfare.
- Massive renewable energy investment is required on the ground of environmental quality and domestic consumption.

CHANGING PUBLIC PERCEPTIONS OF THE "ENERGY PROBLEM"



Real U.S. and World Crude Oil Prices, 1955-1982 [PRE-AND POST-OPEC]

- Rising energy price started in 1973
- We still live in a world of high-priced oil
- It is due to higher demand for oil
- Oil supply disruption in OPEC region
- Price escalations due to labour problems in oil fields interrupted production

Year	Real U.S. Price (\$/bbl)	Real World Price (\$/bbl, hereafter barrel)
1955	2.97	1.75
1965	2.70	1.43
1970	2.50	1.21
1971	2.37	.94
1972	2.34	1.14
1973	2.26	1.23
1974	2.53	1.89
1975	3.85	6.15
1976	4.10	5.73
1977	4.05	6.02
1978	4.06	6.27
1979	3.96	5.85
1980	5.00	7.98
1981	7.52	11.22
1982	10.02	11.07

Source: Griffin, J.M. & Steele, H. B. (1986). Energy Economics and Policy. Page no. 16

“Energy problem” becomes a history

- Increasing oil consumption is stable.
- Gap between oil demand and supply is higher.
- Energy problem occurs with **supply uncertainty**.
- OPEC monopoly action of reducing oil supply drives such gap, resulting for **oil price rise**.
- Poor economies can not create pressure on OPEC in reducing oil price.
- Because poor economies are beneficiary of remittances, commodity export and oil import.
- Cartel formation among poor economies may not be effective due to their insignificant share of import.

Way out for “energy problem”

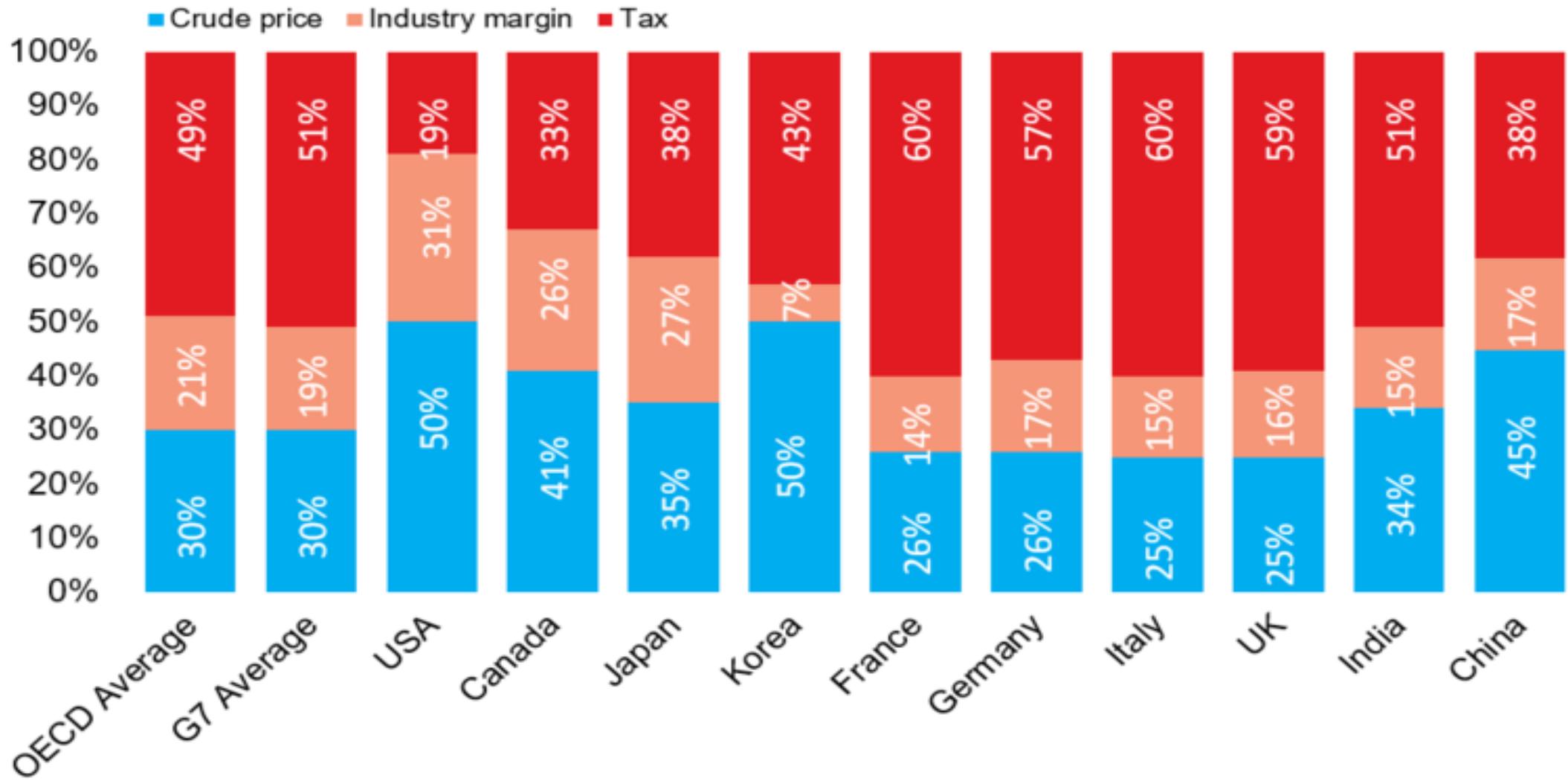
- Monopoly action of OPEC region is checked with oil supply reduction.
- Accept the energy issue with public opinion.
- So public opinion matters a lot.
- Reduce oil dependency.
- Energy diversification may be an option for solving energy problem.
- Easy option for advanced economies due to wealth reserve.
- Poor economies may think of energy efficiency.

Total World Crude Oil Reserves by Region in 1975 and 1984, in Billions of Barrels of Proved Reserves

OPEC areas:		
Saudi Arabia	152	169
Other Middle East	208	201
Other OPEC	90	81
Total OPEC	450	451
North America	40	82
Western Europe	25	23
Rest of Noncommunist World	40	29
Total Non-OPEC	105	134
Total, All Noncommunist Areas	555	585
Communist Areas	103	85
Total World	658	670

SOURCE: *Oil and Gas Journal, Year-end Summary Issues, 1975 and 1984.*

Who gets what from a litre of oil in 2021



https://www.opec.org/opec_web/en/data_graphs/333.htm

WHY ENERGY ECONOMICS AND POLICY?

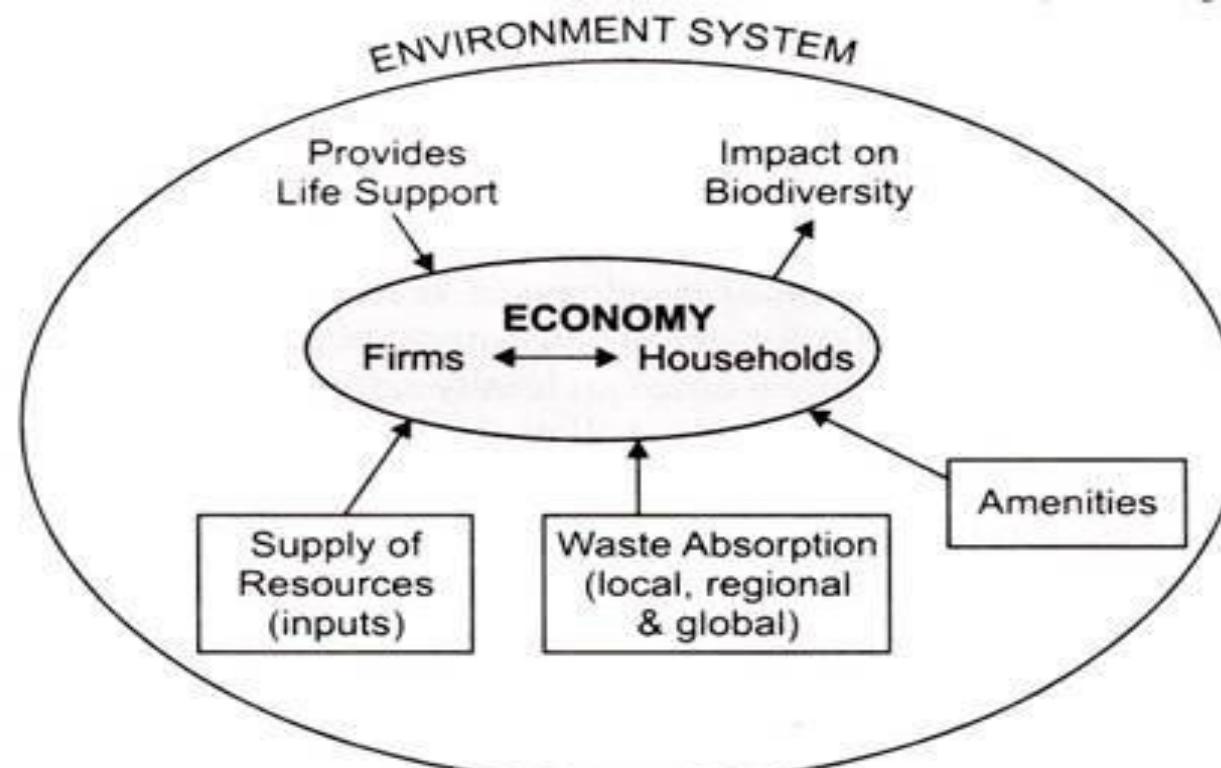
□ THE DIMENSIONS OF THE ENERGY PROBLEM

- Arab Oil Embargo between 1973-1983 [Currently 13 member countries]
- OPEC Monopoly
- Oil prices hike in 1973: energy crisis
- Inflation & unemployment in Non-OPEC countries
- Environmental threat in Non-OPEC countries

The Role of Energy in Economic Development

□ Role of Energy

- Energy is an input in economic activities.
- Energy consumption matters for households, firms and governments.
- Energy is the driver of economic growth (*energy-led economic growth hypothesis, Apergis and Tang, 2013*).



<https://adamasuniversity.ac.in/man-economy-and-nature-why-study-environmental-economics/>

Fig. 56.1. Economy–environment linkages or relations

Causality Results (Apergis and Tang, 2013; Energy Economics Journal)

- Validity of energy-led growth hypothesis for 85 countries (developed, developing and less developing)
- Though results are mixed among countries, but we do find a systematic pattern.
- Energy-led growth hypothesis remains valid at least in the 46 out of 85 selected countries.
- Both developed and developing countries are more likely to support the energy-led growth hypothesis compared to the less developed economies.
- Energy conservation policies should only focus on low income countries as these policies may not retard the process of economic growth

Causality Results

No	Countries	Income group	Energy consumption Granger-causes economic growth		
			Bivariate model	Trivariate model	Multivariate model
1.	Algeria	Upper middle			✓
2.	Argentina	Upper middle	✓	✓	✓
3.	Australia	High	✓	✓	✓
4.	Austria	High	✓	✓	✓
5.	Bangladesh	Low			✓
6.	Belgium	High	✓	✓	✓
7.	Benin	Low			✓
8.	Bolivia	Lower middle		✓	✓
9.	Brazil	Upper middle	✓	✓	✓
10.	Brunei	High			✓
11.	Cameroon	Lower middle			✓
12.	Canada	High	✓	✓	✓
13.	Chile	Upper middle	✓	✓	✓
14.	China	Lower middle			✓
15.	Colombia	Upper middle	✓	✓	✓
16.	Congo dem. Rep	Low			✓
17.	Congo Rep.	Lower middle	✓	✓	✓
18.	Costa Rica	Upper middle			✓
19.	Cote d'Ivoire	Lower middle			✓
20.	Cuba	Upper middle	✓	✓	✓
21.	Cyprus	High			✓
22.	Denmark	High	✓	✓	✓
23.	Dominican Republic	Upper middle	✓		✓
24.	Ecuador	Lower middle	✓	✓	✓
25.	Egypt	Lower middle			✓
26.	El Salvador	Lower middle	✓	✓	
27.	Finland	High	✓	✓	✓
28.	France	High		✓	✓
29.	Gabon	Upper middle		✓	
30.	Germany	High			✓
31.	Ghana	Low		✓	✓
32.	Greece	High	✓	✓	✓
33.	Guatemala	Lower middle		✓	✓
34.	Honduras	Lower middle			✓
35.	Hong kong	High	✓	✓	✓
36.	Hungary	High			
37.	Iceland	High	✓		✓
38.	India	Lower middle	✓	✓	✓
39.	Indonesia	Lower middle	✓	✓	✓
40.	Iran	Upper middle	✓	✓	✓
41.	Ireland	High	✓		✓
42.	Israel	High		✓	✓
43.	Italy	High	✓	✓	✓
44.	Jamaica	Upper middle			✓
45.	Japan	High	✓	✓	✓

46	Jordan	Lower middle	✓		✓
47	Kenya	Low	✓	✓	✓
48	Korea	High	✓	✓	✓
49	Luxembourg	High			✓
50	Malaysia	Upper middle	✓	✓	✓
51	Malta	High			✓
52	Mexico	Upper middle	✓	✓	✓
53	Morocco	Lower middle			
54	Nepal	Low			✓
55	Netherland	High		✓	✓
56	New Zealand	High			
57	Nigeria	Lower middle			✓
58	Norway	High	✓	✓	✓
59	Oman	High	✓	✓	✓
60	Pakistan	Lower middle	✓	✓	✓
61	Panama	Upper middle		✓	
62	Paraguay	Lower middle	✓	✓	✓
63	Peru	Upper middle	✓	✓	✓
64	Philippines	Lower middle	✓	✓	✓
65	Portugal	High	✓		✓
66	Saudi Arabia	High	✓	✓	✓
67	Senegal	Lower middle		✓	
68	Spain	High	✓	✓	✓
69	Sri Lanka	Lower middle			
70	Sudan	Lower middle			✓
71	Sweden	High		✓	✓
72	Switzerland	High		✓	
73	Syrian Arab Rep	Lower middle		✓	✓
74	Thailand	Lower middle	✓	✓	✓
75	Togo	Low			
76	Trinidad and Tobago	High			
77	Tunisia	Lower middle	✓	✓	✓
78	Turkey	Upper middle	✓	✓	✓
79	UAE	High	✓	✓	✓
80	UK	High	✓	✓	✓
81	USA	High	✓	✓	✓
82	Uruguay	Upper middle	✓	✓	✓
83	Venezuela	Upper middle	✓	✓	✓
84	Zambia	Low			✓
85	Zimbabwe	Low			

The services that environment provides

- Flow resources
 - Stock resources
- ✓ Flow resources: no link between current use and future availability
- Solar radiation-if a roof has a solar water heater on it, amount of water heating today
 - Same water heating can be done tomorrow
 - Renewable resources-biotic, plant & animal populations
 - Capacity to grow over time via biological reproduction

✓ Stock resources: current use does affect future availability

- stocks of minerals-coal, oil [non-renewable-abiotic]
- Don't have capacity to grow over time
- No positive constant rate of use
- Exhaustible or depletable resources
- Resources are exhaustible if harvested too long exceeding their generation capacities
- If harvest exceeds natural growth, unsustainable resources or declining stock size
- No natural reproduction except geological timescales

Renewable & exhaustible resources

- How they are managed?
- How they should be managed?

❖ Renewable resource:

- It regenerates itself
- Examples-fish and trees
- Fishery-catch a number of fish and leave the rest to grow naturally
- Fish stock does not die with reproduction

❖ Exhaustible resource [Gray, 1914; Hotelling, 1931]:

- It is fixed in overall quantity
- Usage in a given time is less available for other time
- Does not have regenerating capability
- Examples-coal and oil [fossil fuels] & minerals

❖ Management Issue:

- Fish & trees are exhaustible if not managed in a sustainable way.

Advantages of Renewable and Non-Renewable Energies

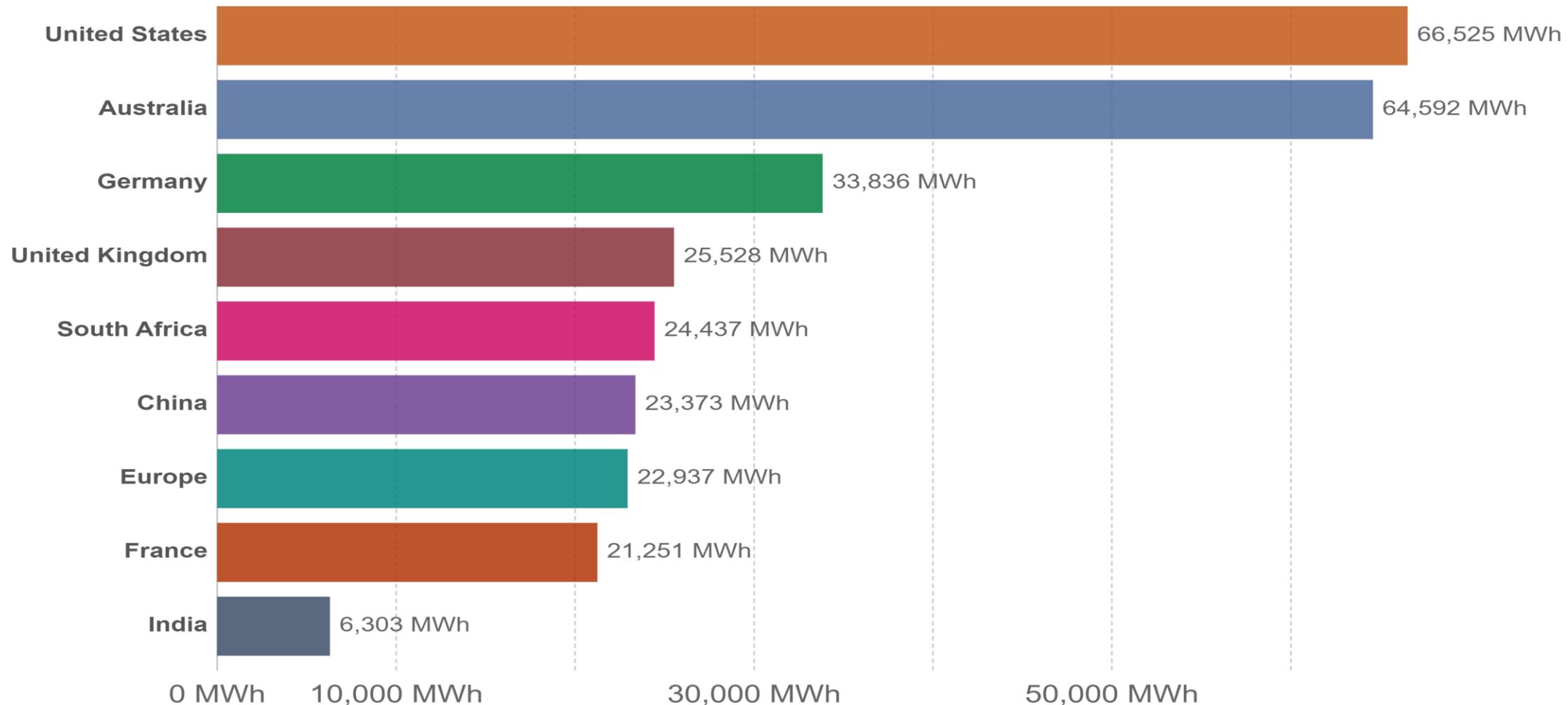
Renewable Energy	Non-Renewable Energy
✓ Operating cost is low.	✓ It is affordable and easily available.
✓ Environmental Friendly.	✓ Easy to use and more reliable in the short-run.
✓ Clean energy and more can be produced in the long-run.	✓ More can be produced in the short-run.
✓ Produces Low carbon emissions and stimulates green economy.	✓ known for its quick exploration.
✓ Infinite	✓ Expandable in response to human effort

Dis-advantages of Renewable and Non-Renewable Energies

Renewable Energy	Non-Renewable Energy
✓ Expensive in the short-run, and less reliable and becomes affordable in the long-run.	✓ Eventually run out, becomes scarce and also becomes expensive.
✓ Not effective of producing energy in massive scale, particularly in the short-run.	✓ Threatening to the natural environment.
✓ It can be noisy and requires more space.	✓ Dirty Energy.
✓ Finite at a given time	✓ Finite

Fossil fuel consumption per capita, 2019

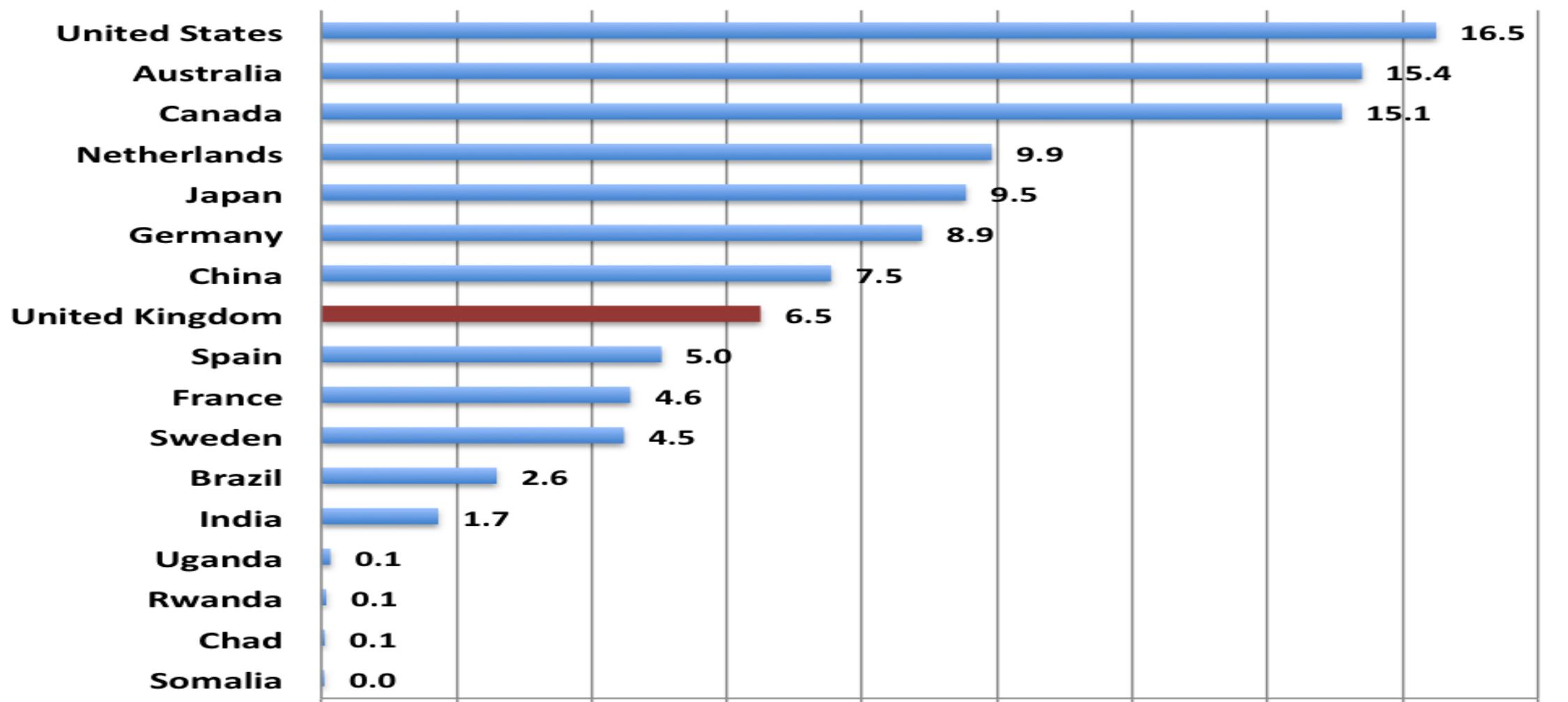
Fossil fuel consumption per capita is measured as the average consumption of energy from coal, oil and gas per person.



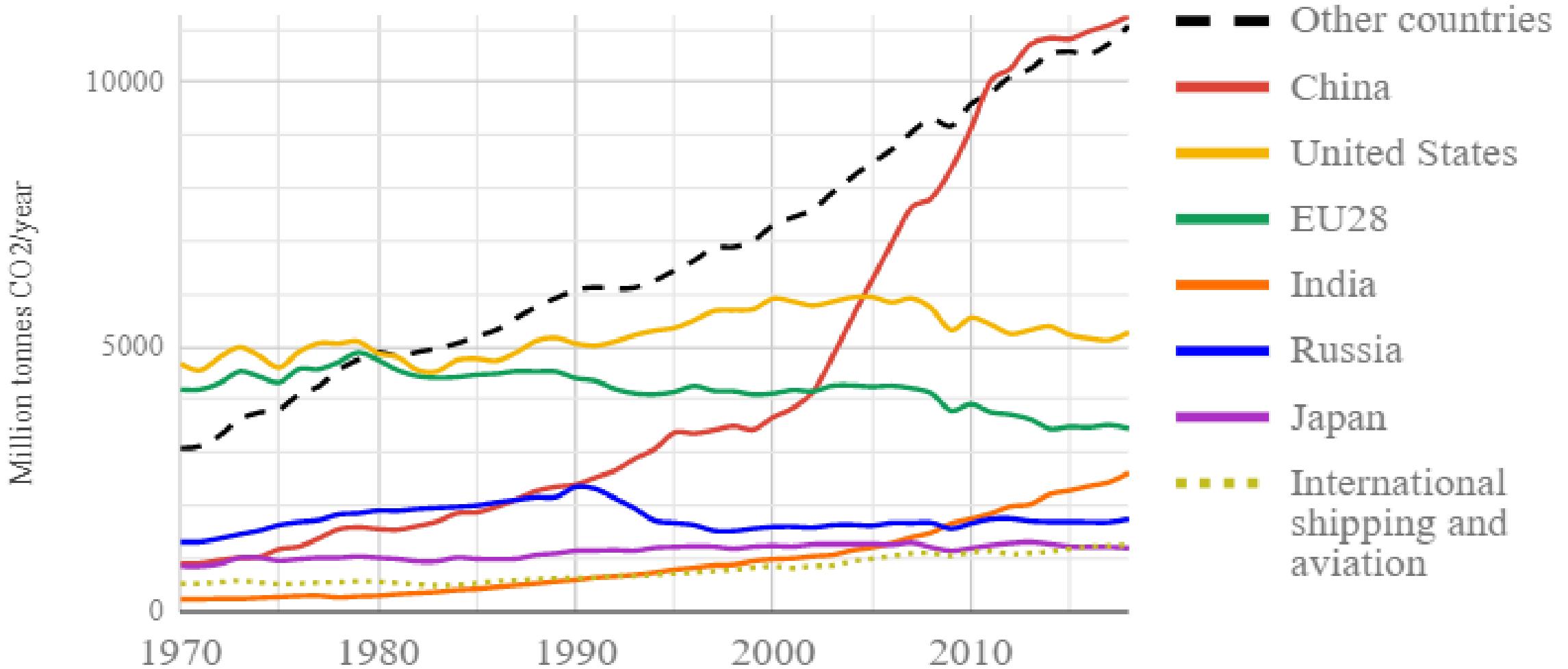
Source: Our World in Data based on BP Statistical Review of World Energy

OurWorldInData.org/energy • CC BY

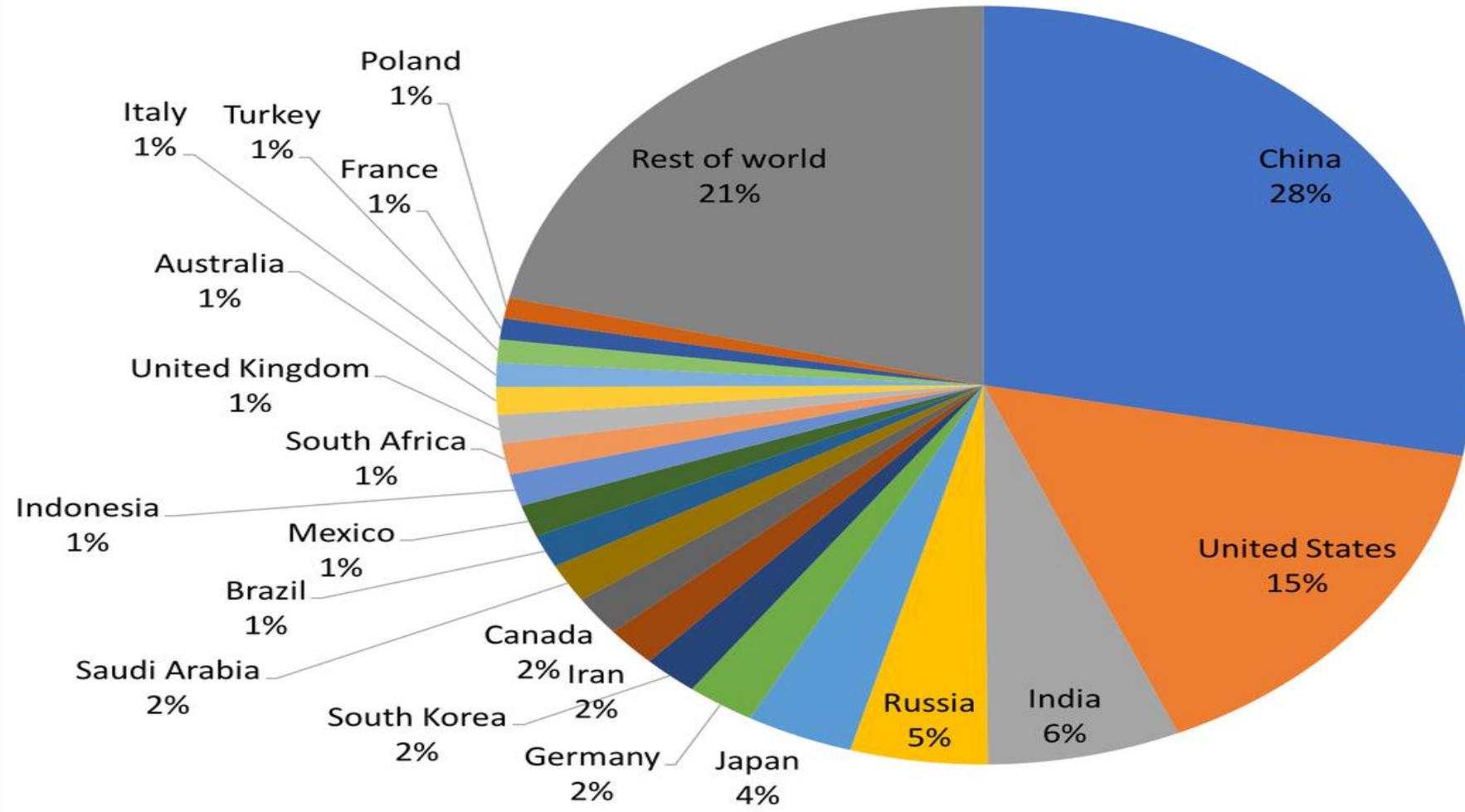
CO2 emissions per capita



World fossil carbon dioxide emission 1970-2018



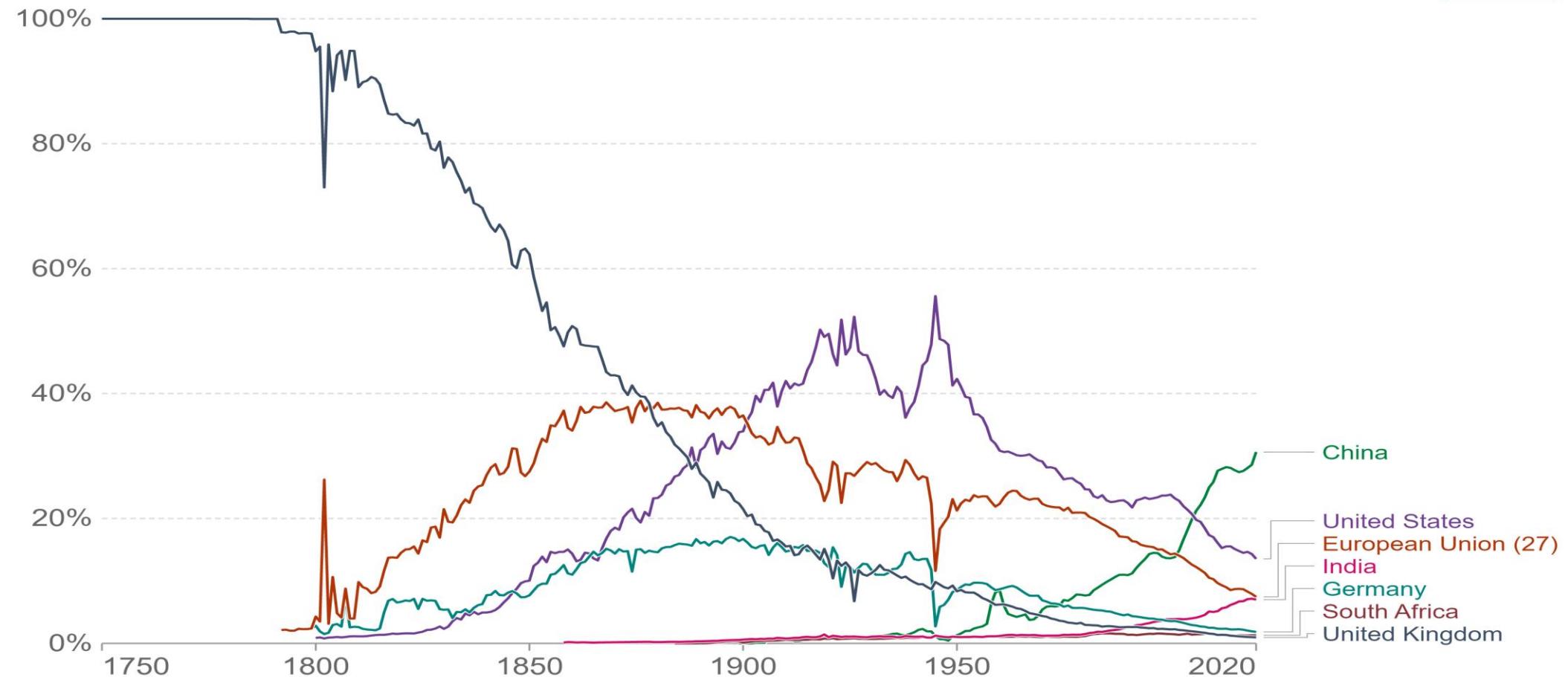
Share of global carbon dioxide emissions from fuel combustion (2015)



Data: IEA

Image: Union of Concerned Scientists

Annual share of global CO₂ emissions



Source: Our World in Data based on the Global Carbon Project

Note: This is measured as each country's emissions divided by the sum of all countries' emissions in a given year plus international aviation and shipping (known as 'bunkers') and 'statistical differences' in carbon accounts.

OurWorldInData.org/co2-and-other-greenhouse-gas-emissions • CC BY

Who emits the most CO₂?

Global carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions were 36.2 billion tonnes in 2017.

Asia

19 billion tonnes CO₂
53% global emissions

China

9.8 billion tonnes CO₂
27% global emissions

Japan
1.2 billion tonnes
3.3%

Saudi Arabia
635 million tonnes
1.8%

Thailand
331M tonnes
0.9%

UAE
232M tonnes
0.6%

Pakistan
199M tonnes
0.55%

Canada
573M tonnes
1.6%

Mexico
490M tonnes
1.4%

Russia
1.7 billion tonnes
4.7%

Turkey
439M tonnes
1.2%

Iran
672 million tonnes
1.9%

South Korea
616 million tonnes
1.7%

Kazakhstan
293M tonnes
0.8%

Vietnam
269M tonnes
0.7%

Iraq
194M tonnes
0.54%

South Africa
456M tonnes
1.3%

Nigeria
400M tonnes
1.1%

Brazil
398M tonnes
1.1%

Australia
414M t
1.1%

Iran
672 million tonnes
1.9%

Indonesia
489-million tonnes
1.4%

Taiwan
272M tonnes
0.8%

Philippines
269M tonnes
0.7%

Egypt
219M tonnes
0.6%

Algeria
170M tonnes
0.4%

Argentina
169M tonnes
0.5%

Venezuela
168M tonnes
0.4%

International aviation
& shipping
1.15 trillion tonnes
3.2%

Malaysia
255M tonnes
0.7%

Kuwait
200M tonnes
0.5%

Liberia
194M tonnes
0.5%

Angola
170M tonnes
0.4%

Chile
150M tonnes
0.4%

Peru
140M tonnes
0.4%

Colombia
130M tonnes
0.4%

Uruguay
120M tonnes
0.3%

Oceania
0.5 billion tonnes CO₂
1.3% global emissions

Shown are national production-based emissions in 2017. Production-based emissions measure CO₂ produced domestically from fossil fuel combustion and cement, and do not adjust for emissions embedded in trade (i.e. consumption-based).

Figures for the 28 countries in the European Union have been grouped as the 'EU-28' since international targets and negotiations are typically set as a collaborative target between EU countries. Values may not sum to 100% due to rounding.

Data source: Global Carbon Project (GCP).

This is a visualization from OurWorldInData.org, where you find data and research on how the world is changing.

Licensed under CC-BY by the author Hannah Ritchie.

North America

6.5 billion tonnes CO₂
18% global emissions

USA

5.3 billion tonnes CO₂
15% global emissions

Europe

6.1 billion tonnes CO₂
17% global emissions

EU-28

3.6 billion tonnes CO₂
9.8% global emissions

Canada

573M tonnes
1.6%

Mexico

490M tonnes
1.4%

South Africa

456M tonnes
1.3%

Nigeria

400M tonnes
1.1%

Brazil

398M tonnes
1.1%

Australia

414M t
1.1%

Argentina

169M tonnes
0.5%

Venezuela

168M tonnes
0.4%

Oceania

0.5 billion tonnes CO₂
1.3% global emissions

Africa

1.3 billion tonnes CO₂
3.7% global emissions

South America

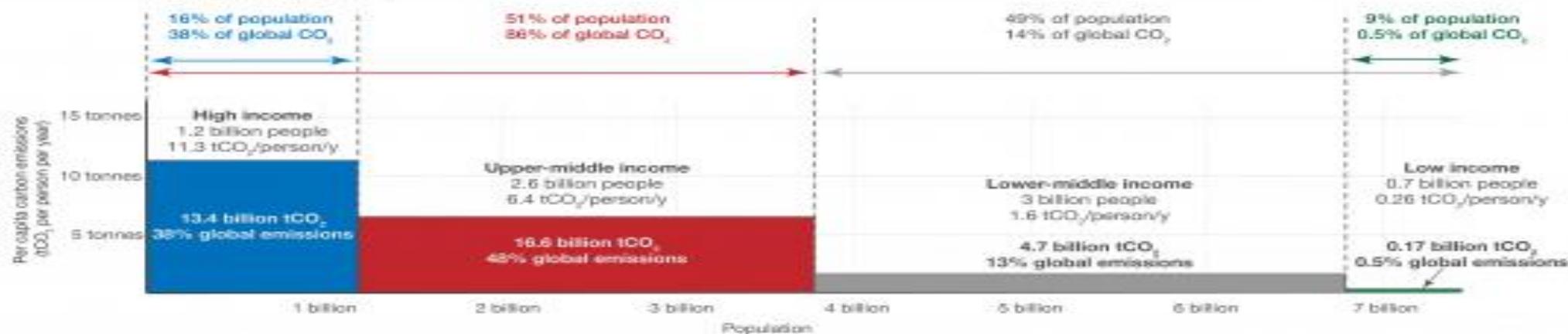
1.1 billion tonnes CO₂
3.2% global emissions

Global CO₂ emissions by income and region

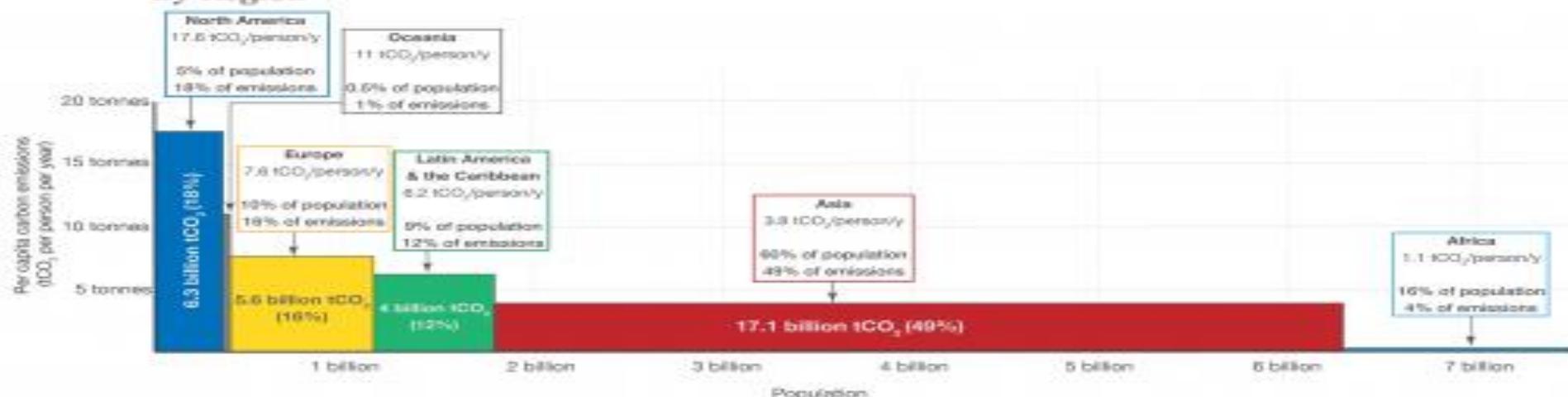
Breakdown of global carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions in 2016 by World Bank income group (top) and world region (bottom). This is shown based on average per capita emissions (y-axis) and population size (x-axis), with the area of the box representing total annual emissions in 2016.

- Emissions represent domestic production (not accounting for embedded emissions in traded products), and do not include cross-boundary emissions such as international aviation & shipping.
- Aggregation by income is based on the total emissions of countries within each of the World Bank's income groupings. It reflects average national incomes rather than the distribution of incomes within countries. E.g. 'Low income' reflects the total emissions of all countries defined as low income, rather than the emissions of global individuals defined as low income. If defined on the basis of individuals (without country contexts), the global inequality would be even larger.

By Income Group



By Region



Global Pollution Inequalities

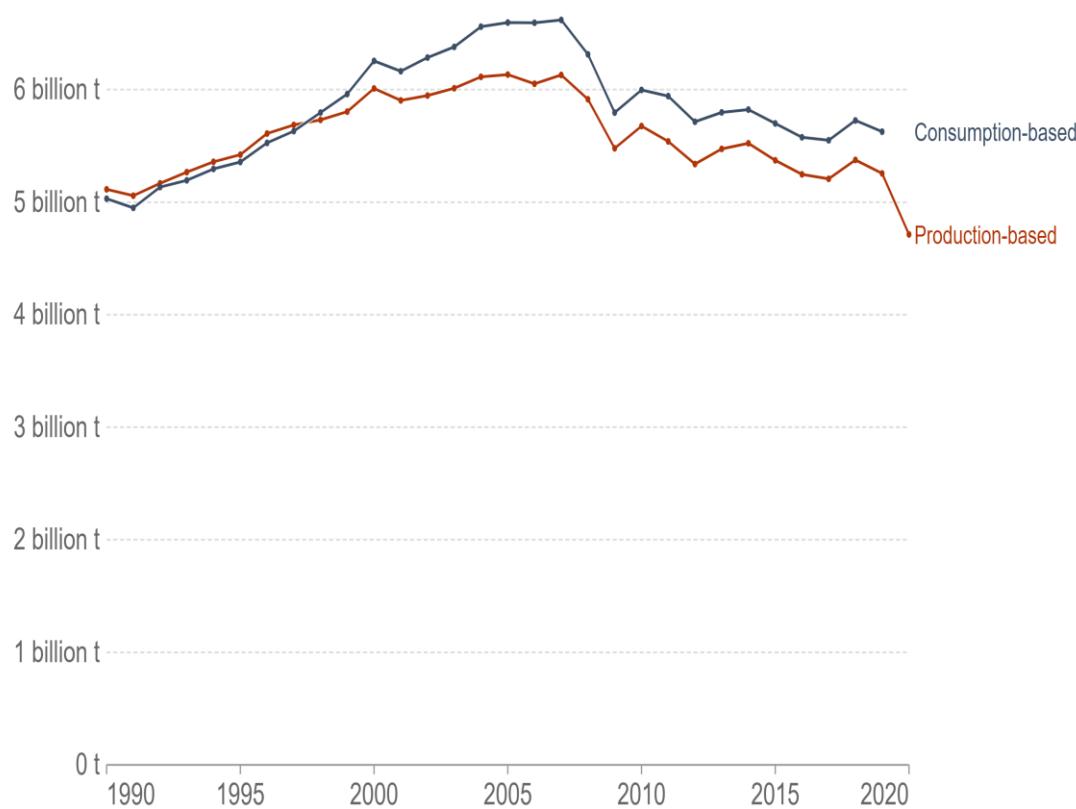
Income or regional group	Share of population (%)	Share of production-based CO ₂ emissions (%)	Share of consumption-based CO ₂ emissions (%)
High income [83 countries]	16%	39%	46%
Upper-middle income [56 countries]	35%	48%	41%
Lower-middle income [50 countries]	40%	13%	13%
Low income [28 countries]	9%	0.4%	0.4%
North America [40 countries]	5%	17%	19%
Europe [50 countries]	10%	16%	18%
Latin America & the Caribbean [33 countries]	9%	6%	6%
Asia [50 countries]	60%	56%	52%
Africa [57 countries]	16%	4%	3%
Oceania [23 countries]	0.5%	1.3%	1.3%

High Income Countries

Production vs. consumption-based CO₂ emissions, United States

Annual consumption-based emissions are domestic emissions adjusted for trade. If a country imports goods the CO₂ emissions needed to produce such goods are added to its domestic emissions; if it exports goods then this is subtracted.

Our World
in Data



Source: Global Carbon Project

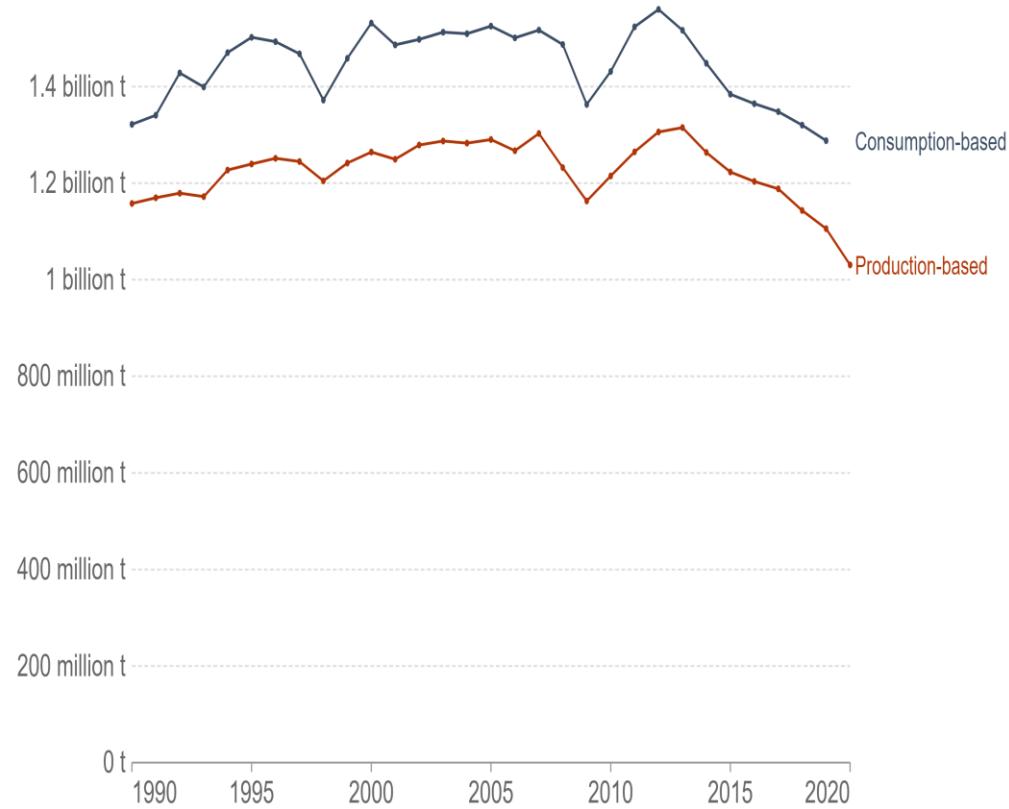
Note: This measures CO₂ emissions from fossil fuels and cement production only – land use change is not included.

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Production vs. consumption-based CO₂ emissions, Japan

Annual consumption-based emissions are domestic emissions adjusted for trade. If a country imports goods the CO₂ emissions needed to produce such goods are added to its domestic emissions; if it exports goods then this is subtracted.

Our World
in Data



Source: Global Carbon Project

Note: This measures CO₂ emissions from fossil fuels and cement production only – land use change is not included.

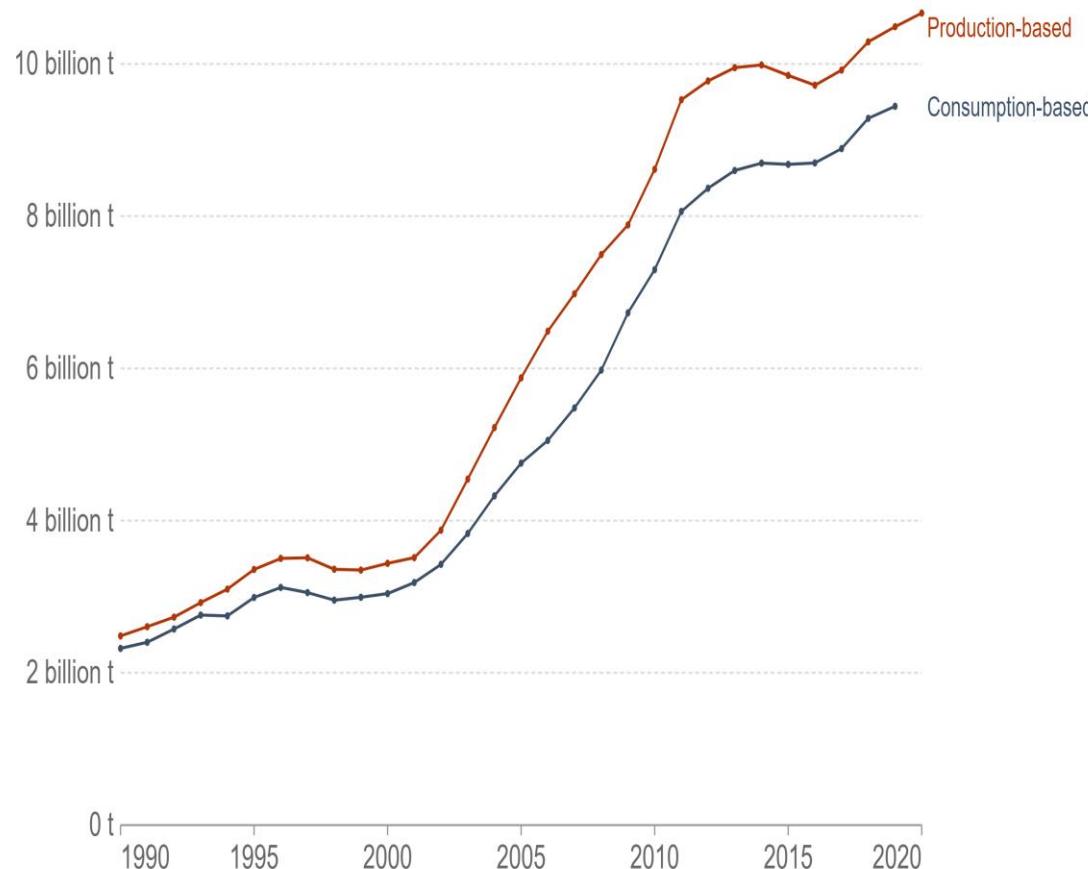
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Upper-Middle Income Countries

Production vs. consumption-based CO₂ emissions, China

Annual consumption-based emissions are domestic emissions adjusted for trade. If a country imports goods the CO₂ emissions needed to produce such goods are added to its domestic emissions; if it exports goods then this is subtracted.

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Source: Global Carbon Project

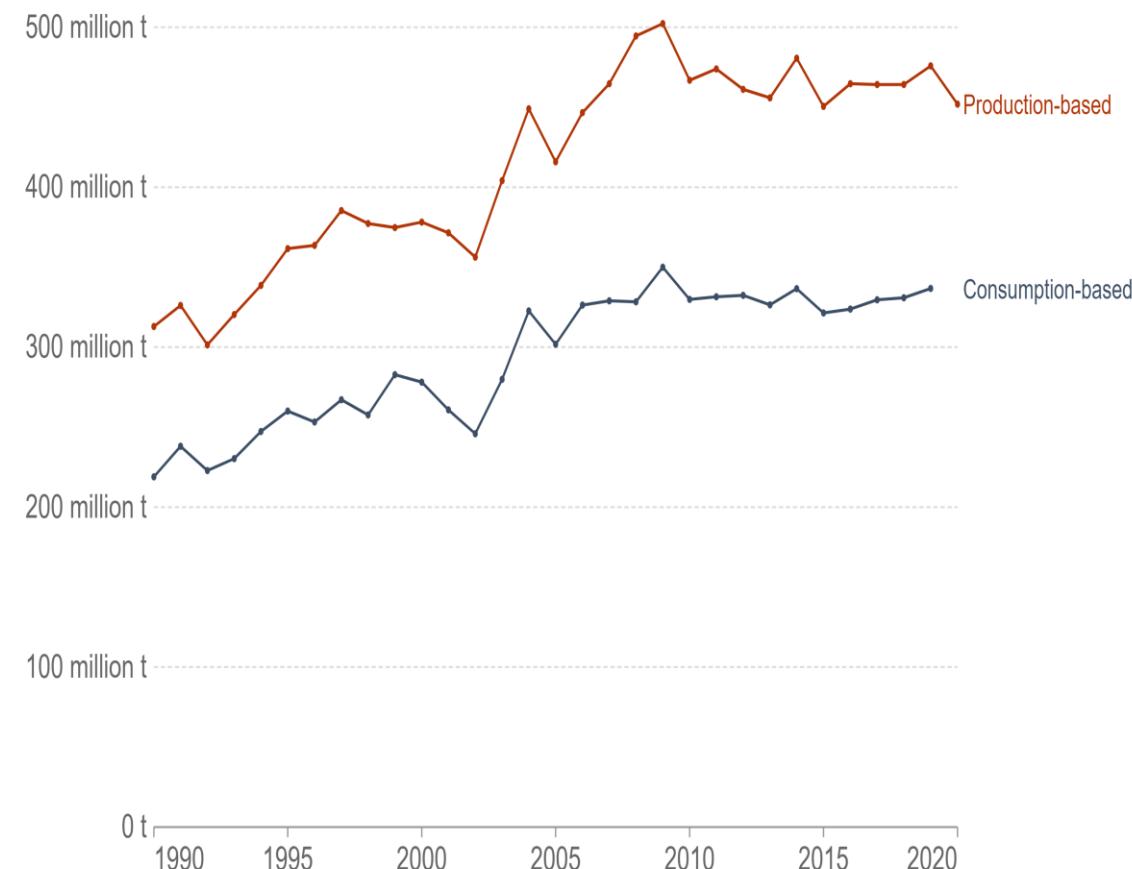
Note: This measures CO₂ emissions from fossil fuels and cement production only – land use change is not included.

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Production vs. consumption-based CO₂ emissions, South Africa

Annual consumption-based emissions are domestic emissions adjusted for trade. If a country imports goods the CO₂ emissions needed to produce such goods are added to its domestic emissions; if it exports goods then this is subtracted.

Our World
in Data



Source: Global Carbon Project

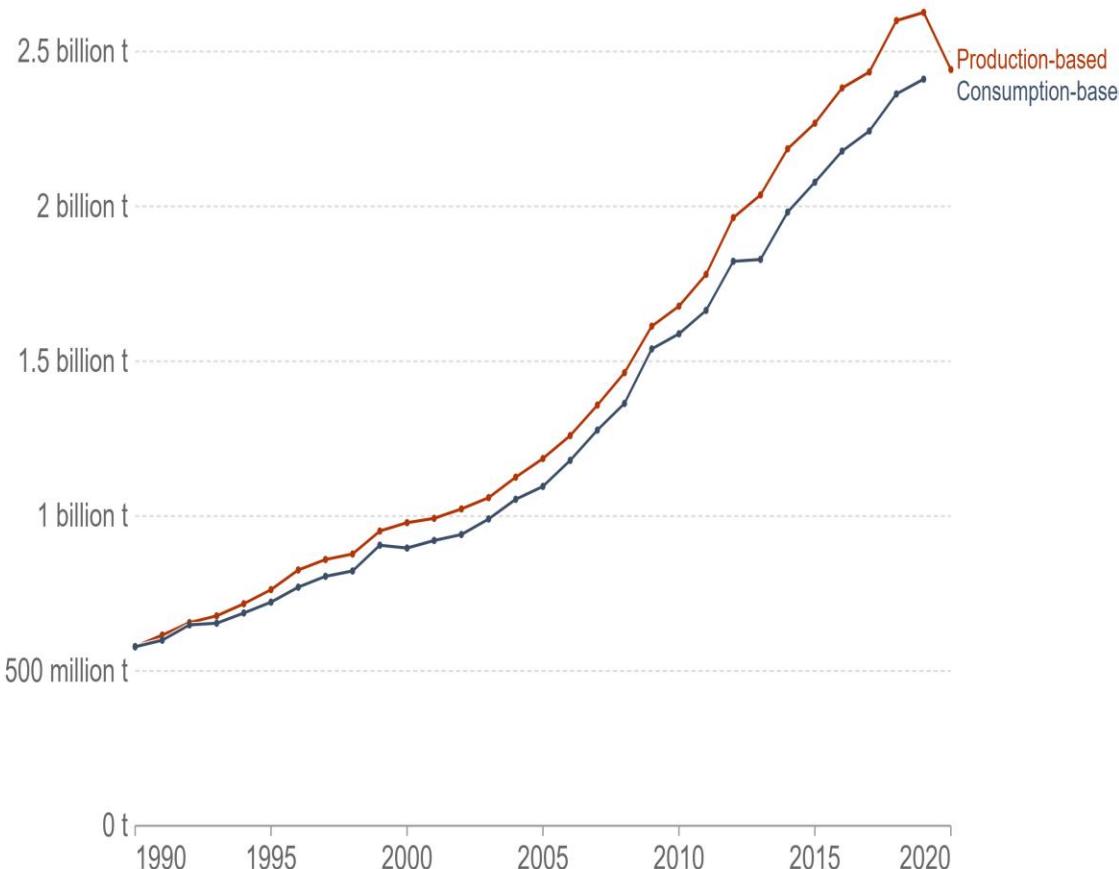
Note: This measures CO₂ emissions from fossil fuels and cement production only – land use change is not included.

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Lower-Middle Income Countries

Production vs. consumption-based CO₂ emissions, India

Annual consumption-based emissions are domestic emissions adjusted for trade. If a country imports goods the CO₂ emissions needed to produce such goods are added to its domestic emissions; if it exports goods then this is subtracted.



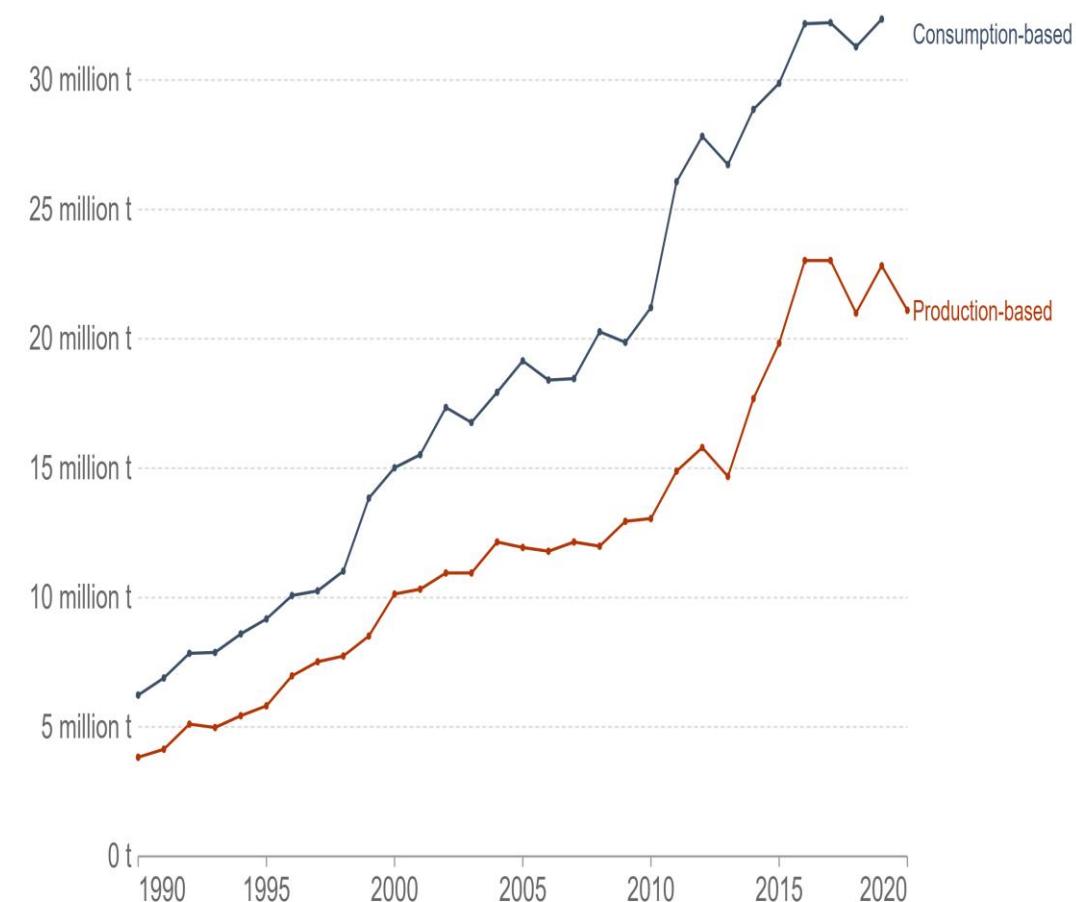
Source: Global Carbon Project

Note: This measures CO₂ emissions from fossil fuels and cement production only – land use change is not included.

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Production vs. consumption-based CO₂ emissions, Sri Lanka

Annual consumption-based emissions are domestic emissions adjusted for trade. If a country imports goods the CO₂ emissions needed to produce such goods are added to its domestic emissions; if it exports goods then this is subtracted.



Source: Global Carbon Project

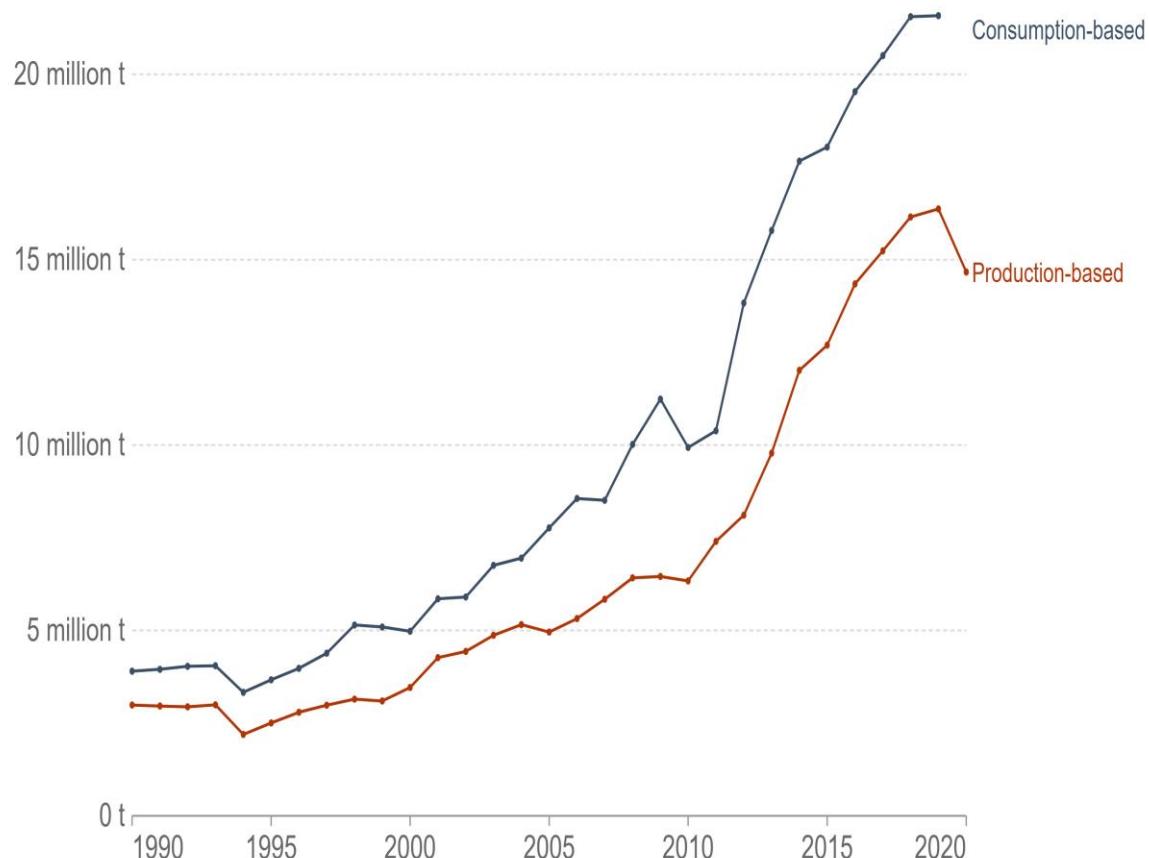
Note: This measures CO₂ emissions from fossil fuels and cement production only – land use change is not included.

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Low Income Countries

Production vs. consumption-based CO₂ emissions, Ethiopia

Annual consumption-based emissions are domestic emissions adjusted for trade. If a country imports goods the CO₂ emissions needed to produce such goods are added to its domestic emissions; if it exports goods then this is subtracted.



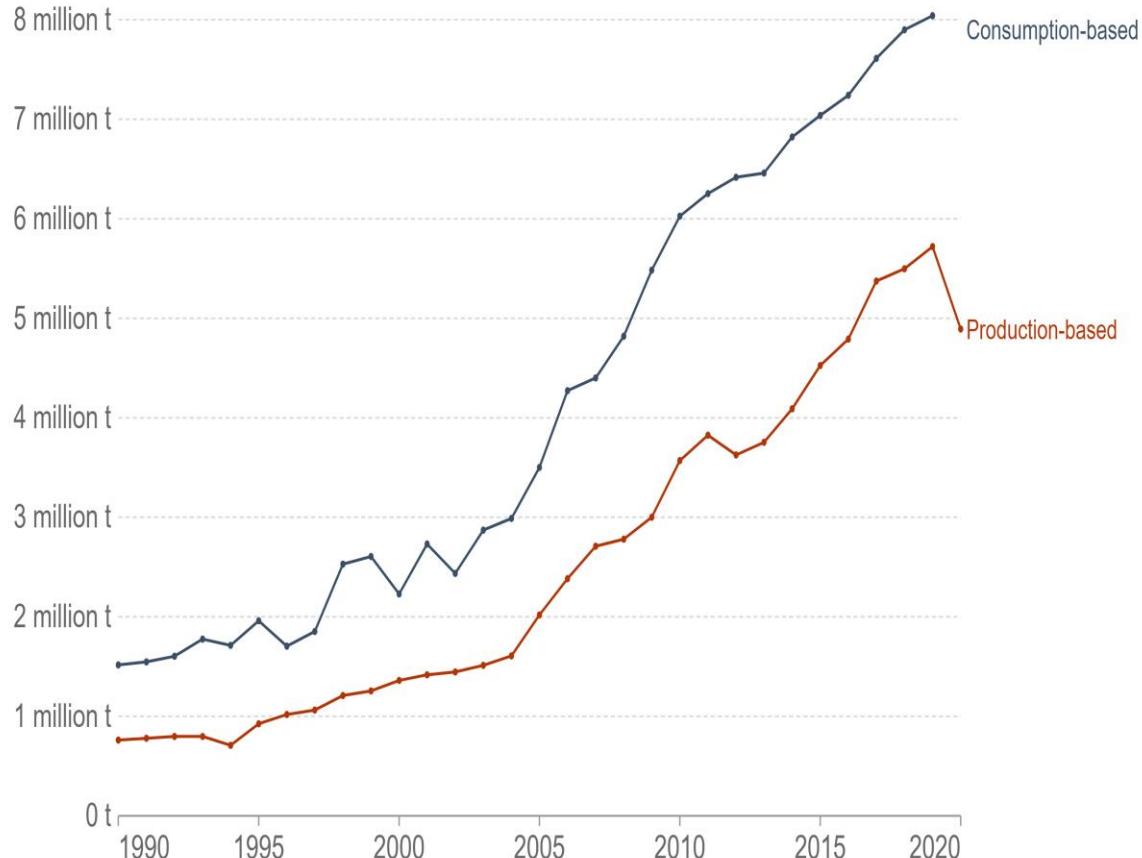
Source: Global Carbon Project

Note: This measures CO₂ emissions from fossil fuels and cement production only – land use change is not included.

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Production vs. consumption-based CO₂ emissions, Uganda

Annual consumption-based emissions are domestic emissions adjusted for trade. If a country imports goods the CO₂ emissions needed to produce such goods are added to its domestic emissions; if it exports goods then this is subtracted.



Source: Global Carbon Project

Note: This measures CO₂ emissions from fossil fuels and cement production only – land use change is not included.

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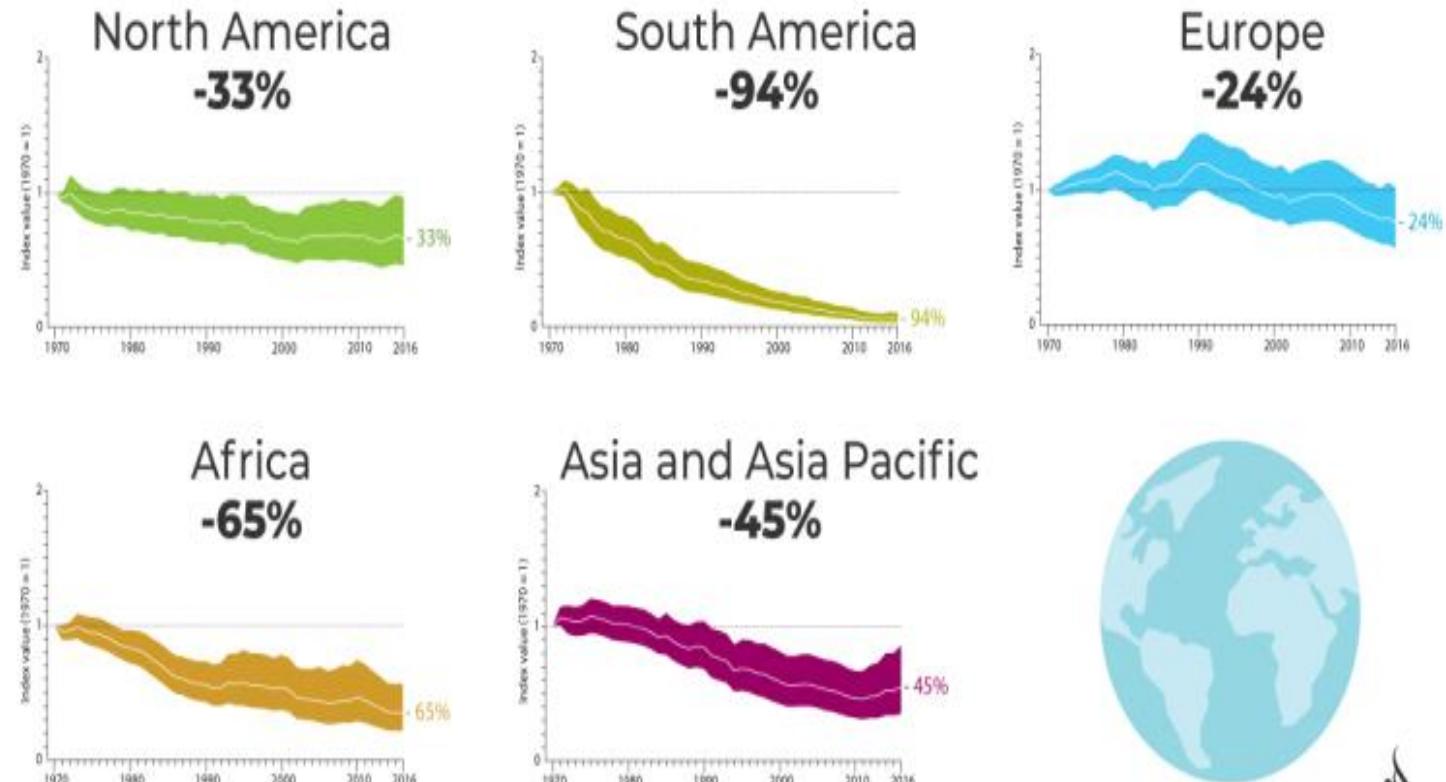
❑ Environmental Consequences

- Planet is becoming hotter because of fossil fuels extraction and usage.
- Excessive energy usage creates “anthropogenic carbon emissions”.
- Pollution level in the atmosphere is increasing due to “human activities”.
- Environmental change caused by “people”.

- ✓ Growing economic growth with massive fossil fuels consumption accounts for the depreciation of the natural assets.
- ✓ Then sustainable development will be at risk if planetary system is destroyed.
- ✓ The life would also cease to exist.
- ✓ We need to protect the health of natural assets as nature is our home.

GLOBAL BIODIVERSITY LOSS

Biodiversity is declining at different rates in different places, with the largest losses occurring in tropical areas

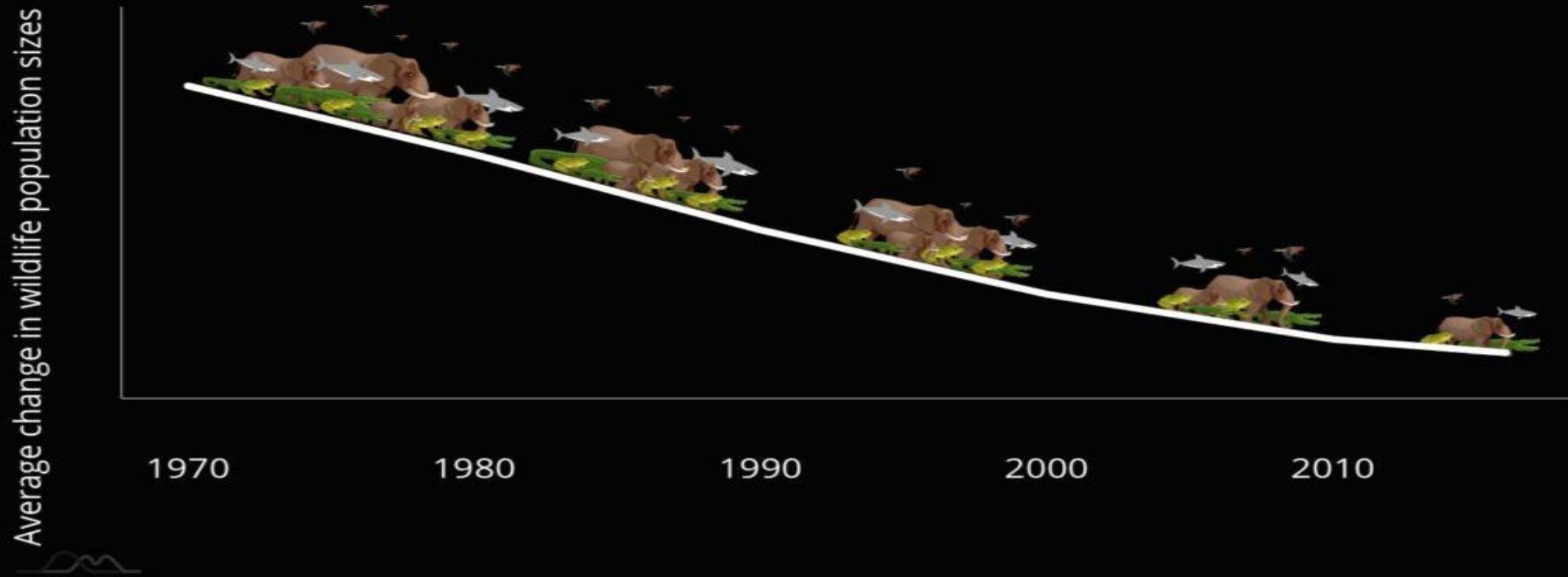


Source: WWF Living Planet Report (2020)



THE LIVING PLANET INDEX

The population sizes of mammals, birds, fish, amphibians and reptiles have seen an alarming average drop of 68% since 1970.



Interaction Between the Capitals

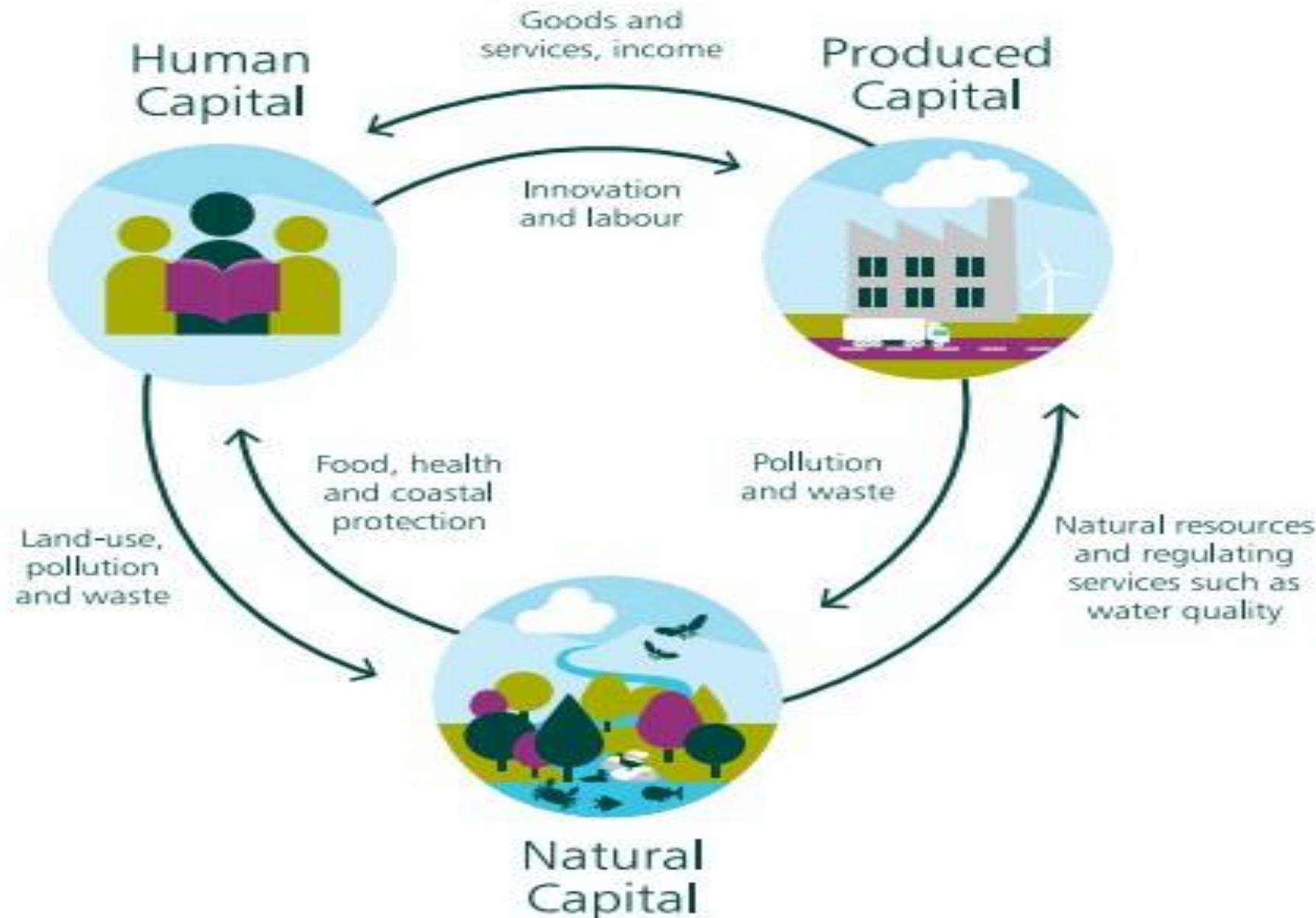


Figure 4.8 Global Wealth Per Capita, 1992 to 2014

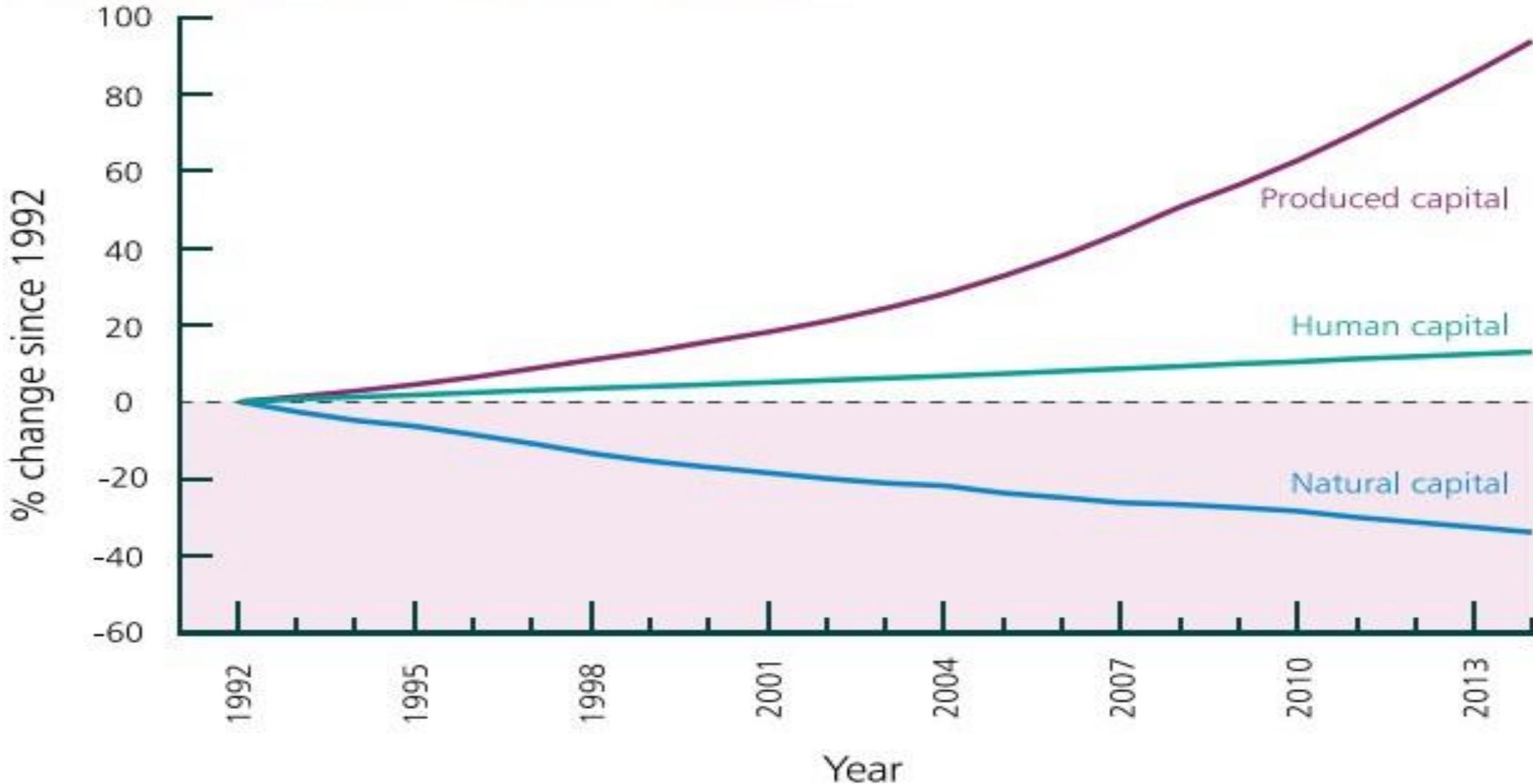
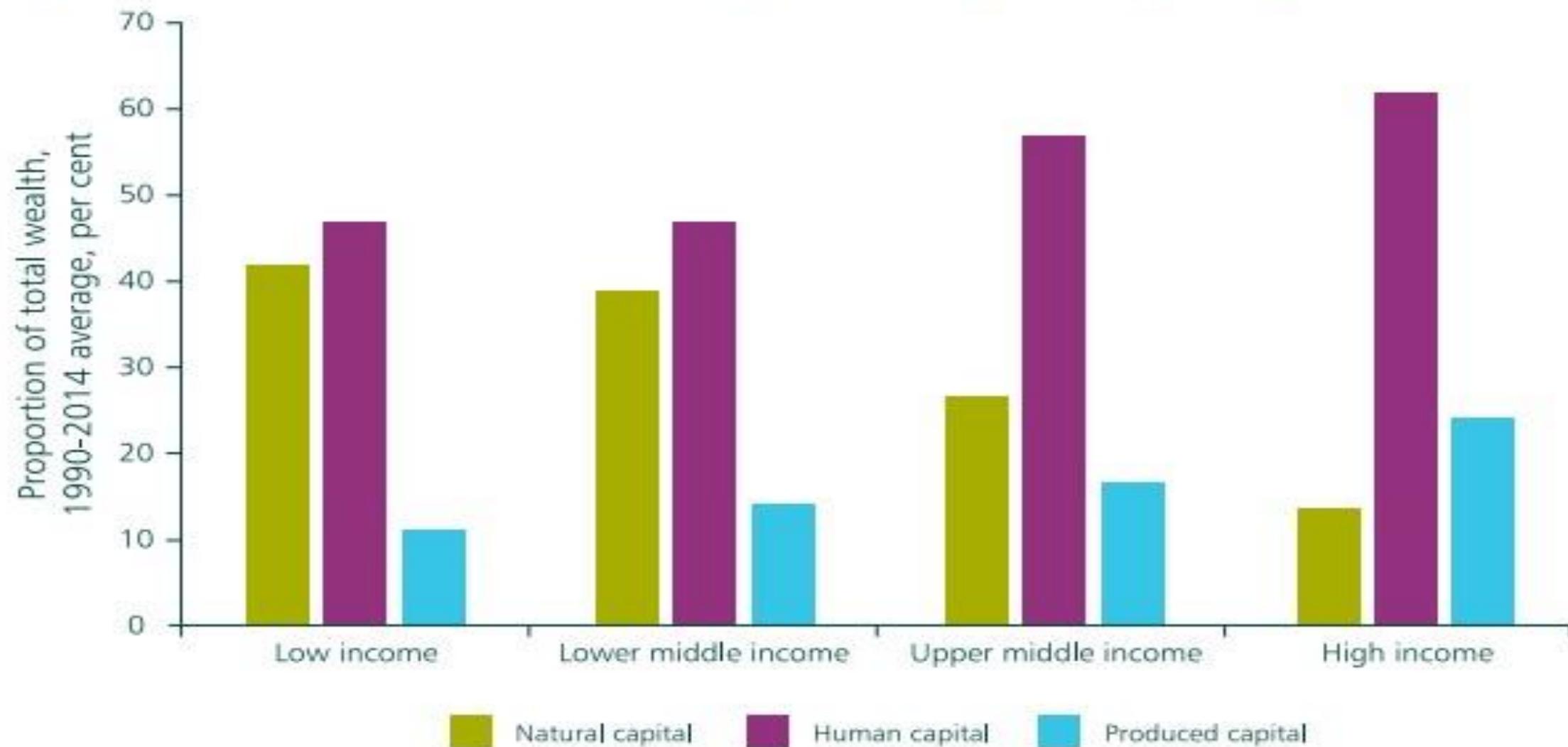


Figure 14.3 Inclusive Wealth of Countries by Income Group and Capital Type



Source: Based on Managi and Kumar (2018) and Review calculations.