

Hidden Energy Flow indicator to reflect the outsourced energy requirements of countries

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ABSTRACT – Globalisation and the outsourcing of industrial manufacturing from developed to less developed countries has an increasing effect on the national energy balances of most developed economies. The current standard metric Total Primary Energy Supply of a country does not take into account the energy embodied in goods and services imported from other countries, leading to the perverse outcome of a country appearing to be more sustainable the more it outsources its energy-intensive industries. Academia has addressed this problem by suggesting the use of the Total Primary Energy Footprint as an additional metric, but there has not been a clear proposal put forward by academia to governments or international institutions about how to officially adopt Consumption-Based Accounting in the field of energy. This paper states that acknowledging the existence of embodied energy flows is indispensable when formulating new national and international energy policies for the transition towards energy systems that are socially and environmentally more sustainable. In this study, the Hidden Energy Flow indicator of 44 countries has been quantified using, for the first time, five different Global Multi-Regional Input-Output databases for the latest available year, 2011. The proposed indicator provides a percentage to be added to or subtracted from the Total Primary Energy Used value of a country, provided by the International Energy Agency, to get its real consumption-based energy requirement. This study demonstrates that, from 44 countries analysed, the ten most developed countries demand on average 18.5% more energy than measured by the International Energy Agency; the medium developed 24 countries demand 12.4% more, and the ten

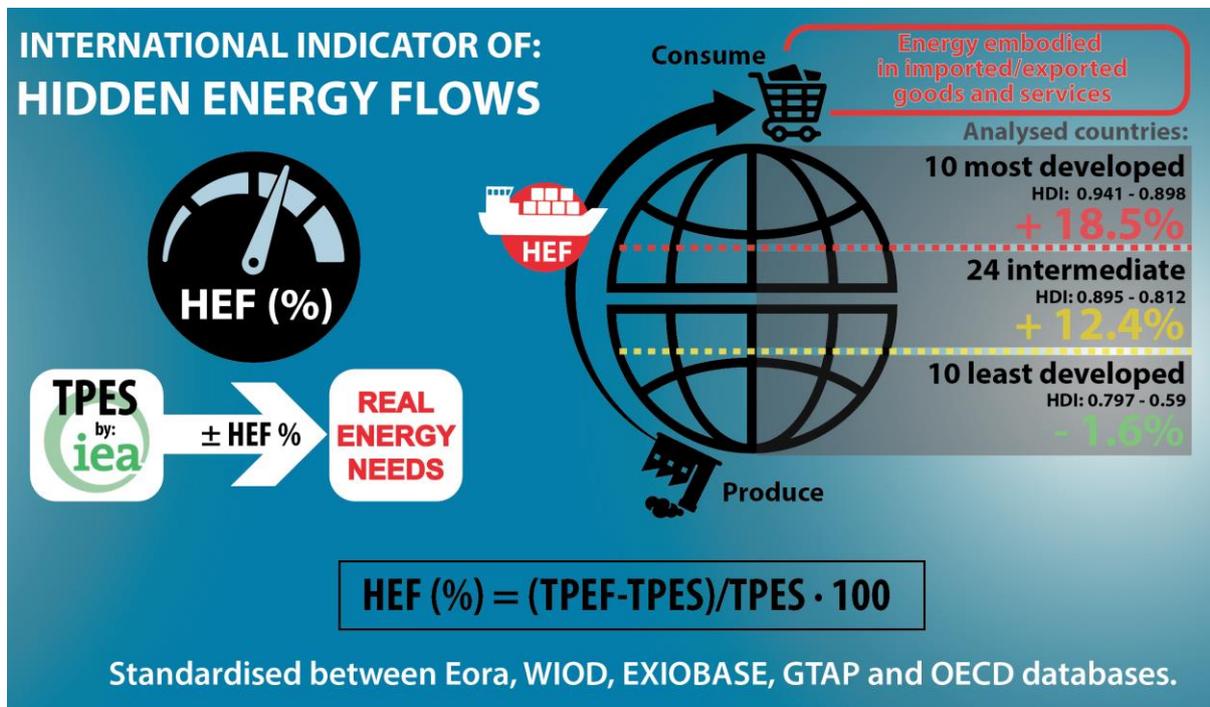
38 least developed countries demand 1.6% less. This means that most developed and medium developed
 39 countries displace their indirect energy consumption towards less developed countries in a hidden way.
 40 Furthermore, this research supports evidence that direct energy consumption in households is less
 41 relevant than the energy embodied in goods and services purchased by households, reaching 59.1% in
 42 the case of Switzerland, used as a reference among developed countries. The proposed Hidden Energy
 43 Flow indicator supports scientists, policymakers and citizens in the effort to focus the energy
 44 transition actions towards conducting the necessary energy consumption and production changes in
 45 the most effective way, improving energy justice and energy democracy.

46

47 **Key words:** hidden energy flow indicator; energy footprint; energy transition; consumption-based
 48 accounts; sustainability; energy justice;

49

50 **GRAPHIC ABSTRACT:**



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53

54 1. INTRODUCTION

55 In the current globalised era, high-income countries tend to outsource their heavy industry production
56 or even service management from lower-income countries, mainly to be competitive and make more
57 profit in internationalised markets. The value of world merchandise exports grew more than 260-fold
58 from 1948 (US\$59 billion) to 2016 (US\$15,464 billion) and, on average, exports made up 29% of a
59 country's gross domestic product in 2016 (Wiedmann and Lenzen, 2018). Thus, taking into account
60 the complexity of international production flows, traditional production-based energy measurement
61 systems (Production Based Accounts, PBA) are no longer able to provide a whole panorama of the
62 energy consumed by the inhabitants of a country as a result of their lifestyle. Therefore, the whole
63 international energy consumption panorama is now being reinterpreted with Consumption Based
64 Accounts (CBA). For some countries that have apparently been decreasing their energy consumption
65 in recent years (such as the United Kingdom or Switzerland), it has been detected that this is partial
66 interpretation due the outsourcing of their energy consumption (Hardt *et al.*, 2018) (Moreau and
67 Vuille, 2018) (Akizu-Gardoki *et al.*, 2018). According to Hardt et al. (Hardt *et al.*, 2018), most of the
68 energy reductions from structural changes in the UK are the result of offshoring production. In fact, in
69 the case of Switzerland, a “virtual decoupling” has been detected, meaning that, while a national
70 reduction in energy consumption is claimed, in reality, an increase in consumption is occurring when
71 taking into account the energy consumed outside national boundaries (Moreau and Vuille, 2018). The
72 same problematic virtual decoupling phenomenon has been detected in later analyses in 10 countries
73 for years 2000-2014: Australia, Canada, Czech Republic, Luxemburg, Norway, Netherlands, Romania,
74 Tajikistan, Slovakia and Switzerland (Akizu-Gardoki *et al.*, 2018). Similarly, countries that have
75 apparently had a high energy consumption increase in the last 20 years (such as China, India, Korea,
76 Russia, or Bulgaria) have been reported to use only part of that energy to satisfy their own needs and
77 part to provide goods and services to other countries (Moreau and Vuille, 2018), (Arto *et al.*, 2016).
78
79 This energy displacement between developed and developing countries generates a confusion when
80 examining the energy requirements for the achieved living standards, since most developed countries

81 seem to show that they need less energy than the quantity really needed in order achieve higher
82 development standards. This could generate confusions even when choosing the “most sustainable
83 countries of reference” and their respective energy policies to be followed, or to find out how much
84 energy per capita is required to achieve high standards of development.

85

86 The problem has been previously addressed in significant studies, and Total Primary Energy Footprint
87 (TPEF) data has been calculated for several countries for certain year periods, offering an alternative
88 to the PBA Total Primary Energy Supply (TPES) estimations. In the estimation of country footprints,
89 variations and errors in results have been detected due to different sectorial aggregations (Zhang,
90 Caron and Winchester, 2018), suggesting a non-aggregated use of data. However, the standardisation
91 of energy footprint data is lacking and there are discrepancies in results; thus, it is difficult to replace
92 the use of TPES data with TPEF data in an extensive and normalised way. This has been thoroughly
93 dealt with in CO₂ Consumption Based Accounts (CBA) (Moran and Wood, 2014), (Owen, 2017),
94 where Eora, GTAP and WIOD Databases are compared. GTAP and WIOD databases have also been
95 compared in Carbon Footprints, concluding similarities higher than 75-80% (Arto, Rueda-Cantuche
96 and Peters, 2014). Furthermore, although the CBA in policy applications have been considered
97 necessary to minimise their uncertainty and ensure their robustness (Rodrigues *et al.*, 2018), there is
98 an absence of comparative information in the energy sector at global level.

99

100 Given this context, the main goal of this paper is to generate a unified indicator of Hidden Energy
101 Flows using the latest reliable data currently available (2011). This study does not aim to emit an
102 ethical judgement of exporting or importing embodied energy, but rather to attain the ability to
103 measure net embodied energy in a standardised way, within a single indicator. The percentage
104 difference ($\pm\%$) between TPES (offered by the International Energy Agency, IEA) and TPEF
105 calculated by Global Multi-Regional Input-Output methodology (GMRIO) has been defined as
106 Hidden Energy Flows (HEF). The concept of HEF has its origins in the term Hidden Debt (between
107 developed and non-developed countries) in the frame of International Cooperation and coined by
108 Akizu *et al.* (Akizu *et al.*, 2017) (Akizu *et al.*, 2018). HEF allows us to understand the extent to which

109 a country's energy consumption according to the CBA deviates from traditional measurements of
110 energy consumption based on PBA. If countries are sincere and can recognise their energy
111 consumption, it may enhance global energy literacy and promote the transition towards socio-
112 environmentally lower-impact energy systems.

113

114 Thus, the specific aims of this paper are twofold. The first is to define a standardised HEF indicator,
115 in order to offer the amount of energy requirement that all of the 43 countries analysed and RoW (rest
116 of the world) have imported or exported embodied in products or services. This first novel
117 contribution is a tool to better understand global Energy Justice (Sovacool and Dworkin, 2015), since
118 it shows in precise numbers how developed countries are using the energetic resources of non-
119 developed ones in general, and how some of the developed countries are more dependent than others.
120 This first goal also provides a country more tools to disaggregate the Total Primary Energy
121 Consumption into different consumption categories, such as: energy consumed directly at homes,
122 energy consumed embodied in products and services, as well as transformation and losses; giving
123 more knowledge to the inhabitants of a country to decide where to start reducing energy consumption
124 and contributing to the Democratization of Energy (Burke and Stephens, 2017). The HEF indicator
125 will help academics, policymakers and even citizens to understand how much energy is needed when
126 consumption-based accounts are taken into account and standards of living can be reflected.

127

128 Secondly, this paper allows us to understand why five MRIO databases (Eora, WIOD, EXIOBASE,
129 OECD and GTAP) provide diverging results when calculating the average HEF for the year 2011.
130 This shows the need for further standardisation of GMRIO databases, since IO analysis is a relatively
131 new field in the environmental economic sector. In the incoming years, further standardisation could
132 provide direct and significant benefits in environmentally friendly policymaking.

133

134

135 **2. Literature review**

136 The following literature review contextualises this research within 34 relevant (cited) international
137 articles using “footprint” and “energy footprint” keywords, mainly using the ScienceDirect research
138 engine, which encompasses the Journal of Cleaner Production (classification of analysed papers in
139 Supplementary Material Table A.1). One of the first national Energy Ecological Footprint (EEF)
140 analyses was developed for China (Chen and Lin, 2008), integrating the CO₂ emissions from burning
141 fossil fuels within the corresponding bioproductive area. For the UK, the development of the first
142 empirical comparison of energy footprints embodied in trade (Wiedmann, 2009) clearly detected that
143 the use of National Footprint Accounts (NFA) was very restrictive, and Input-Output based models,
144 such as UK-MRIO were more comprehensive, robust, and offered results of higher relevance. The
145 first global energy footprint was calculated with the GTAP database (Chen and Chen, 2011) (Chen
146 and Chen, 2013), but inaccuracies due to differences in the Input-Output (IO) structure were
147 perceived (Arto *et al.*, 2016). The accuracy of the results for 39 countries in the period 1998 to 2008
148 was improved with the use of the WIOD database (Arto *et al.*, 2016). Accuracy analyses have also
149 been performed with the structural decomposition analysis of global energy footprints (Lan *et al.*,
150 2016), using the Eora dataset for 189 countries. Recent research has been carried out trying to detect
151 not only the final consumption activities in the economic system but also the intermediate production
152 of industries separately (Wu and Chen, 2017).

153

154 Owen *et al.* (2017) have made a footprint analysis for the UK, detecting the difficulties when
155 aggregating the TPES data for each of the five currently most used databases for the calculation of the
156 TPEF. Min and Rao (2017) have detected that uncertainty could be higher in over 20% of household
157 Energy Footprints at most income levels in the case studies of Brazil and India. Kucukvar *et al.* (2017)
158 have made one of the first footprint forecasts, just for the electric part of the energy sector for the UK
159 and Turkey, creating scenarios until 2050. Rocco *et al.* (2018) compared CBA energy consumption to
160 the Global Multi-Regional Input-Output (GMRIO) PBA in South Africa and Botswana, discovering
161 not only the relevance of empowering efficient local industries to decrease inland energy consumption,
162 but also the embodied exported energy in goods and services. The use of CBA has been considered
163 vital in Switzerland, where a “virtual decoupling” reality has been detected (Moreau and Vuille, 2018),

164 and the Decoupling Index has been analysed with the Eora database for 126 countries (Akizu-Gardoki
165 *et al.*, 2018), detecting some virtually decoupled countries and others that have really managed to
166 achieve decoupling (reducing energy consumption while increasing their HDI). In this context, it has
167 been argued that footprint accounts should be considered when evaluating the relationship between
168 resource consumption and welfare (Wiedmann and Lenzen, 2018). One prominent example of where
169 consumption-based accounting has been applied in a policy context is the inclusion of the material
170 footprint as an indicator for two Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs 8 and 12) (Allen *et al.*, 2016)
171 (Wiedmann and Lenzen, 2018). However, CBA has not been internationally recognised in national
172 energy consumption measurements thus far.

173

174 Furthermore, although global energy reduction has been deemed necessary to maintain the sustainable
175 use of resources (McGlade and Ekins, 2015), Kaltenecker *et al.* (2017) detected that global energy
176 consumption increased by 29.4% from 1995 to 2009, and may increase by 52.9% from 1995 to 2030.
177 Wu and Chen (Wu and Chen, 2017) found that overall, the energy use embodied in international trade
178 has reached 90% of global energy use, in which energy induced by final product trade is around 20%,
179 while the rest is induced by intermediate trade consumption. Furthermore, Wood *et al.* (2018) found
180 that the energy consumption displaced through trade rose from 20 to 29% during the 1995 to 2011
181 period. Chen *et al.* (2018) have found that embodied energy inflows and outflows for five world
182 economies (USA, CHN, JPN, RUS and IND) constitute more than 43.7% and 45.4% of total through-
183 flow, concluding that footprint accounting polarises countries according to their incomes.

184

185 Concern about direct and indirect energy use in households arose in the 1970s (Bullard and
186 Herendeen, 1975) (Hannon, 1981), where a 357 sector based Input-Output calculation was computed
187 to calculate the energy embodied in the goods and services of the US economy. The relevant indirect
188 energy consumption in national contexts was also identified in several other studies; in Norway it was
189 detected that, in 1973, approximately 23% of the energy was indirectly consumed among rich families,
190 and 13% by poor ones; and in New Zealand, when comparing the growth of income to the increase in
191 energy consumption (Herendeen, 1978) (Peet, Carter and Baines, 1985). Van Engelenburg *et al.* (1994)

192 proposed a method to calculate national energy footprints in ten steps. In the Netherlands, Vringer and
193 Blok (1995) calculated that indirect energy requirements were 54% of the total, and a further
194 disaggregation by sector was made in order to provide insights into understanding where to reduce
195 energy consumption. In Australia, Lenzen (1998) defined that 70% of the energy was consumed, on
196 average, in an indirect way by households during 1993-94. In 1999 it was found that in the
197 Netherlands, during the period from 1950 to 1995, the share of indirect energy consumption embodied
198 in goods in the total energy requirements fluctuated between 50% and 60% (Biesiot and Noorman,
199 1999), using a combined Life Cycle Assessment (LCA) and Input-Output Analysis. Similarly, in the
200 Netherlands it was found that, in 1990, 59% of energy consumption was indirect (Wilting, Biesiot and
201 Moll, 1999). It was also stated that direct consumption (41%) had a reduction potential of 55%, and
202 total consumption (direct plus indirect) had reduction potential of 59% (Wilting, Biesiot and Moll,
203 1999).

204

205 In this respect, cities were identified as places where indirect energy or energy embodied in the
206 consumption of goods and services by their residents is as important as direct energy use (Lenzen,
207 Dey and Foran, 2004), (Harris et al., 2020). Lenzen et al. also expressed the need to calculate global
208 impacts through Input-Output analysis and their origins in order to truly be able to act and “think
209 global”.

210

211 In Brazil, 11 cities were analysed, calculating the rate of direct and indirect energy consumption
212 embodied in goods and services in 1995-96, using Input-Output methodology (Cohen, Lenzen and
213 Schaeffer, 2005). According to that study, an average of 48.22 MWh/cap were consumed, of which 61%
214 was indirect. A similar study shows that, in India, indirect energy consumption was also higher than
215 direct consumption (Pachauri, 2004), being up to ten times higher in some households (Pachauri and
216 Spreng, 2002). A later study analysed how energy intensity and national expenditure were related in a
217 number of countries, arguing that, within footprint accounts, energy expenditure in households does
218 not apparently lead to sustainable energy management, in contrast with Kuznets theory (Lenzen *et al.*,
219 2006).

220

221 Thus, measuring the embodied energy requirement and the corresponding emissions is deemed
222 necessary in order to accomplish an energy transition in affluent and urbanised societies, where direct
223 energy is less important than embodied energy (Lenzen, Wood and Foran, 2008), (Wiedenhofer,
224 Lenzen and Steinberger, 2011), (Vetóné Móznér, 2013), (Caro et al., 2017). A later study confirms
225 that indirect energy is higher in urban areas than in rural areas, such as in the eastern Australian area,
226 where indirect energy is 74% in the former and 67% in the latter (Wiedenhofer, Lenzen and
227 Steinberger, 2013).

228

229 3. METHODOLOGY AND DATA

230

231 3.1. Methodology

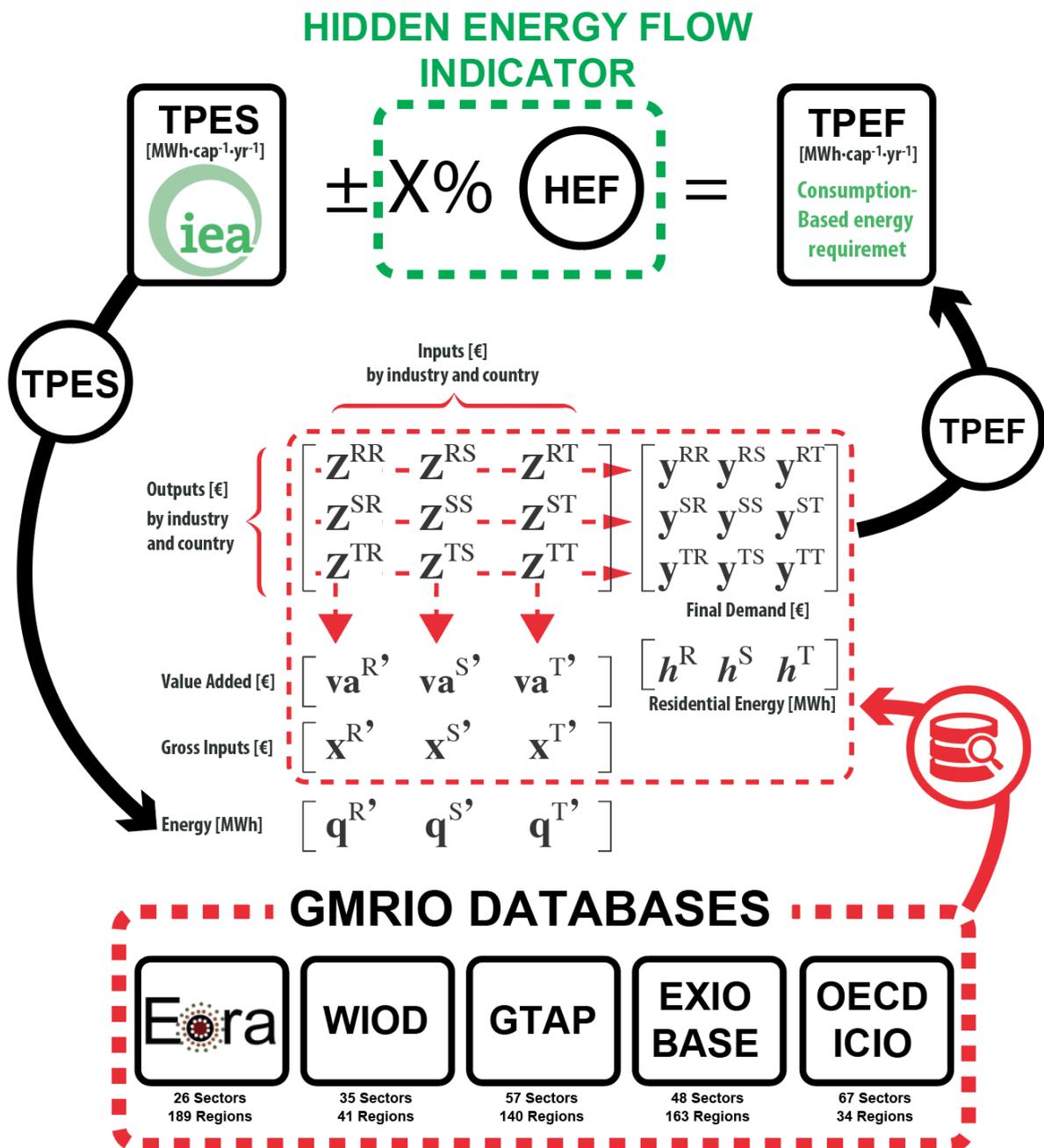
232 Environmentally Extended Global Multi-Regional Input-Output analysis (EE-GMRIO) has been
233 widely used to calculate the environmental footprints of nations (Wiedmann and Lenzen, 2018)
234 (Owen *et al.*, 2017), (Oita *et al.*, 2016), (Lenzen, Pade and Munksgaard, 2004), (Wiedmann et al.,
235 2007), (Kulionis and Wood, 2020), (Chen et al., 2020). In our case, we use this method to assess the
236 energy footprint of countries (TPEF) by combing GMRIO data and the original data from the IEA on
237 the energy consumption of countries (defined as TPES). The relation between the two has been
238 defined as the Hidden Energy Flows (HEF) of a country and is given as a percentage to add to or
239 subtract from the TPES in order to obtain the consumption-based reality of a country (Eq. 1). Since
240 the obtained results have some variations across all of the 5 databases, an average value has been
241 obtained in order to define the HEF of a country (Eq. 2), and the typical deviation has also been
242 reflected so as to understand the accuracy of a certain country's HEF.

$$243 \quad (Eq. 1) \quad HEF (\%) = (TPEF - TPES) / TPES \cdot 100$$

$$244 \quad (Eq. 2) \quad \overline{HEF} = (HEF_{WIOD} + H_{Eora} + H_{EXIOBASE} + H_{GTAP} + H_{OECD}) \cdot 1/5$$

245

246 Figure 1 summarises the GMRIO framework, where \mathbf{Z}^{RS} denotes a sub-matrix of intermediate
 247 deliveries from country R to country S , with destination industries in columns and delivering
 248 industries in rows; \mathbf{y}^{RS} denotes the final demand of country S for goods and services produced by
 249 country R ; \mathbf{x}^R is the vector of gross output by industry in country R ; \mathbf{va}^R represents the vector of
 250 value added by industry in country R ; \mathbf{q}^R denotes the vector of energy use added by industry in
 251 country R ; and \mathbf{h}^R is the vector of direct energy consumption by households in country R .



GMRIO DATABASES

26 Sectors
189 Regions

WIOD
 35 Sectors
41 Regions

GTAP
 57 Sectors
140 Regions

**EXIO
BASE**
 48 Sectors
163 Regions

**OECD
ICIO**
 67 Sectors
34 Regions

252

253

Figure 1: The creation of a standardised HEF indicator is the aim of this research, in order to obtain TPEF directly from

254 IEA data. Countries and their inhabitants would be able to know the average amount of energy embedded in
 255 imported/exported products and services. This figure shows HEF calculations for three regions R, S and T, and it has
 256 adapted in our algorithm to the number of regions and industrial sectors used in each of the five databases.

257

258 The relation between \mathbf{x} , \mathbf{Z} and \mathbf{Y} is defined by the accounting equation:

259
$$(Eq. 3) \quad \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{Z}\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{Y}\mathbf{j}$$

260 Where \mathbf{i} and \mathbf{j} are column summation vectors of appropriate dimension (vectors of ones).

261 For any country R, the production-based energy consumption (which is equal to the TPES) can be
 262 expressed as the sum of the energy consumption of all the industries in country R plus the direct
 263 energy consumption by households:

264
$$(Eq. 4) \quad TPES^R = \mathbf{q}^R \mathbf{i} + h^R$$

265 From Eq. 3, the input coefficients are obtained as:

266
$$(Eq. 5) \quad \mathbf{A}^{RS} = \mathbf{Z}^{RS} (\hat{\mathbf{x}}^R)^{-1}$$

267 where $(\hat{\mathbf{x}}^R)^{-1}$ denotes the inverse of a diagonal matrix of total outputs in country R.

268 Likewise, the energy coefficients (\mathbf{c}^R) for country R are defined as:

269
$$(Eq. 6) \quad \mathbf{c}^R = (\hat{\mathbf{x}}^R)^{-1} \mathbf{q}^R$$

270 Eq. 3 can now be written as a standard input-output model as:

271
$$(Eq. 7) \quad \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{Y}\mathbf{j}$$

272 The solution to the this model is given by:

273
$$(Eq. 8) \quad \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{L}\mathbf{Y}\mathbf{j}$$

274 where $\mathbf{L} \equiv (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})^{-1}$ denotes the so-called Leontief inverse. From Eq. 6 and 8, the energy
 275 consumption by industry can be calculated as:

276
$$(Eq. 9) \quad \mathbf{q} = \hat{\mathbf{c}}\mathbf{L}\mathbf{Y}\mathbf{j}$$

277 Finally, operating in Eq. 9 and adding the energy directly used by households, we can derive the
 278 expression for the TPEF of country R as:

279
$$(Eq. 10) \quad TPEF^R = \mathbf{c}'\mathbf{L}\mathbf{y}^R + h^R$$

280 where \mathbf{y}^R is a column vector that represents the domestic final demand of country R for final goods
281 produced domestically (\mathbf{y}^{RR}) and imported ($\mathbf{y}^{SR}, \mathbf{y}^{TR}$).

282

283

284 **3.1. Data and standardisation**

285 Energy data have been drawn from the IEA database (International Energy Agency, 2019) and
286 economic data have been extracted from five databases: Eora 26 (Lenzen *et al.*, 2012a), with 189
287 countries and 26 industrial sectors; WIOD (Timmer *et al.*, 2015), with 43 countries and 57 industrial
288 sectors; EXIOBASE (Tukker *et al.*, 2009), (Tukker *et al.*, 2013), (Stadler *et al.*, 2018) with 44 regions
289 and 163 sectors; GTAP, with 140 regions and 57 sectors (Huff, McDougall and WALMSLEY, 2000)
290 (Narayanan, Aguiar and McDougall, 2015); and OECD, with 64 regions and 34 sectors (OECD,
291 2015). The year 2011 has been used to calculate the HEF indicator since EXIOBASE database has the
292 latest release of that year.

293

294 All the GMRIO databases have been standardised using a concordance matrix that map the sectors
295 and regions of different GMRIO models into our defined sector and regional classification within 17
296 sectors (Supplementary Material Tables B.1 to B.5) (Eq.11). Also, the regions have been standardised,
297 converting them into 43 regions plus the rest of the world (RoW) grouped into a 44th one. Similar
298 aggrupation methods among MRIO databases have been used with sectors 18 and 19 (Owen *et al.*,
299 2014).

300

$$301 \quad (Eq.11) \quad \mathbf{GMRIO}_{(17 \times 17 \text{ DIMENSION})} = \text{Concordance Matrix} \cdot \mathbf{GMRIO}_{(ij \text{ DIMENSION})}$$

302

303 Later on, IEA energy consumption data (TPES), also known as satellite data, has been converted from
304 the original TPES values to the 17 industrial sectors of our IO matrix. During the standardization
305 process, firstly a direct concordance was used to extract TPES from IEA (Supplementary Material
306 Tables C.1). Nevertheless, authors have realised that making these assumptions transportation sector
307 was not properly disaggregated to take into account residential use of fuel, and also non-resident

308 inhabitants' consumption in other countries was not faced. To solve this problem, satellite data from
309 EXIOBASE database (denominated as Net Energy Use, NEU) has been used (Eq.12) developed by
310 Usubiaga-Liaño et al. (Usubiaga - Liaño et al., 2020). Thus, identical satellite data has been used in
311 the different algorithms of five databases in order to calculate the TPEF and respective HEF.

312

$$(Eq.12) \quad Q_{NEU_17_SECTOR} = Concordance\ Matrix \cdot Q_{NEU_163_SECTOR}$$

314

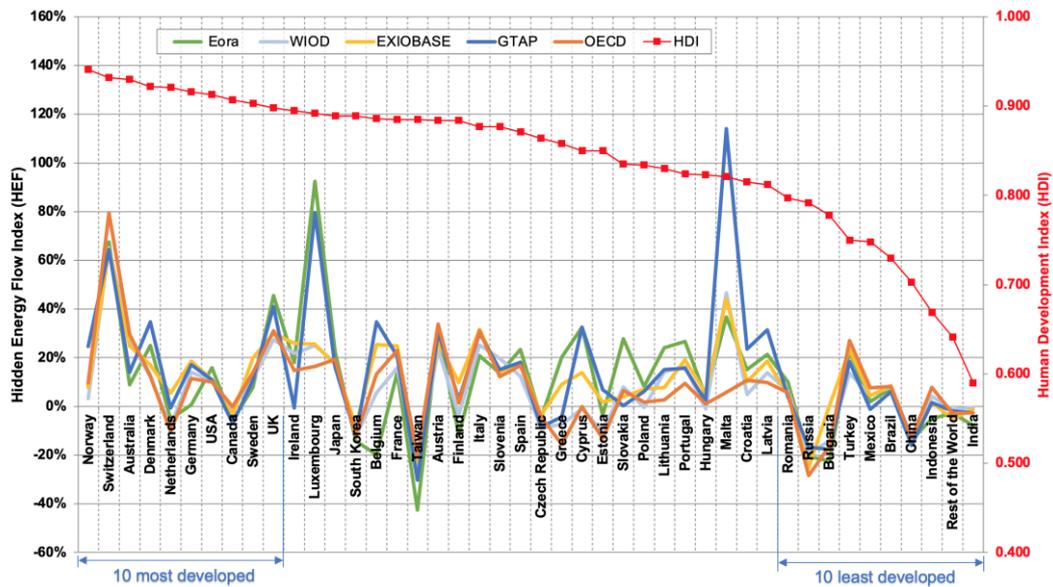
315

316 **4. RESULTS**

317 The main result of this paper has been obtaining the HEF from the five most relevant databases
318 (Figure 2), which provides the possibility to standardise the HEF for year 2011 (Figure 3). This allows
319 to obtain for all the countries their energy footprint value from the TPES, integrating a new global
320 consumption reality based on CBA.

321

322 Figure 2 shows the HEF values for the 43 countries analysed and for RoW. These values have also
323 been compared to the achieved HDI values of each country. Countries have been organised along the
324 X axis from the highest HDI value to the lowest. We can see that, in general, the most developed
325 countries have a higher HEF than less developed ones. The results show that the ten most developed
326 countries demand on average a Hidden Energy Flow of + 18.5% (on average 8.98 MWh·cap⁻¹), while
327 for the medium developed 24 countries the average HEF is + 12.4 % (on average 5.19 MWh·cap⁻¹),
328 and the ten least developed countries have an average HEF of -1.6% (on average -1.34 MWh·cap⁻¹).
329 This means that the ten least developed countries are feeding the embodied energy requirements of the
330 most and even medium developed ones. It must be said that, although a general trend has been
331 observed, countries such as NDL, DEU, USA and CAN have a lower HEF than other countries with
332 similar HDI values.



333
334 *Figure 2: HEF comparison between the analysed five GMRIO databases.*

335

336 Variations in the results point to the need for the homogenisation of the GMRIO databases. In this

337 research, a deviation of over 30% has been detected in two countries (MLT 40% and LUX 35%),

338 between 10% and 21% in twelve countries (BEL, CYP, GRC, SVK, IRL and DNK), and the

339 remaining 36 countries have a standard deviation of less than 10%. As a result, the footprint accounts

340 in the energy field could be accurate enough to start including them in national and international

341 policies. Nevertheless, divergences in the economic data of GMRIO databases are still significant.

342 These variations coincide with those previously detected by Moran and Wood (Moran and Wood,

343 2014), whose sensitivity analysis within a harmonised carbon footprint satellite account obtained a

344 positive view, reporting differences of less than 10% in most major economies among Eora, WIOD,

345 EXIOBASE and GTAP databases. Taking all of this into account, our research confirms that reducing

346 uncertainty in MRIO analyses is relevant work for the future standardisation of results (Rodrigues *et*

347 *al.*, 2018).

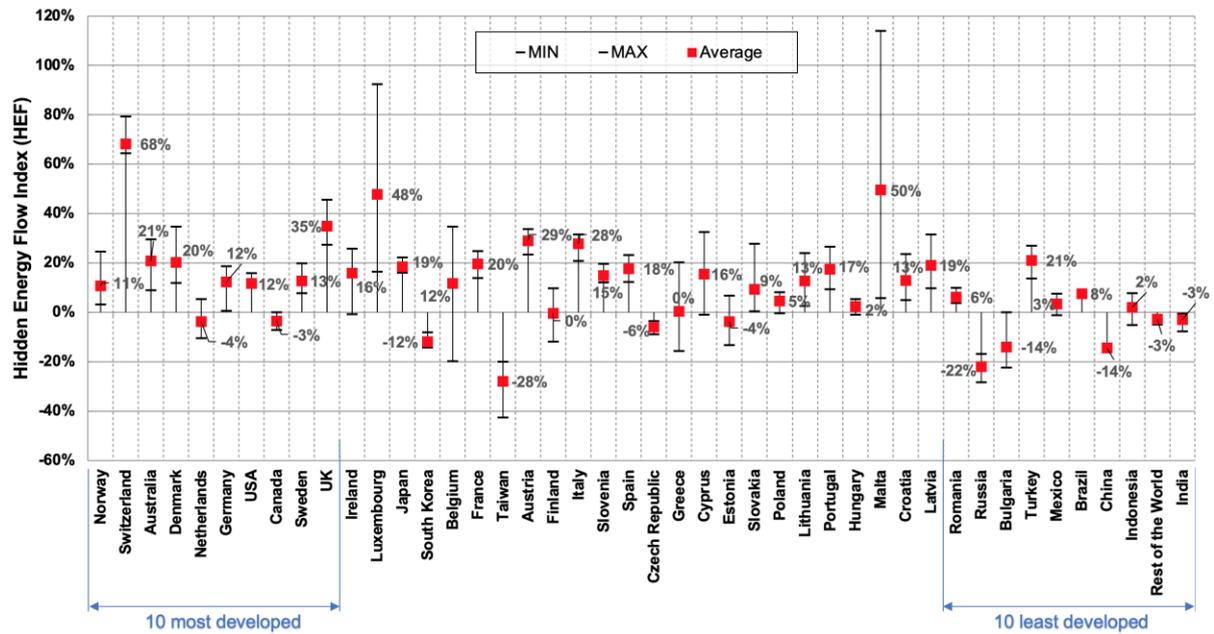
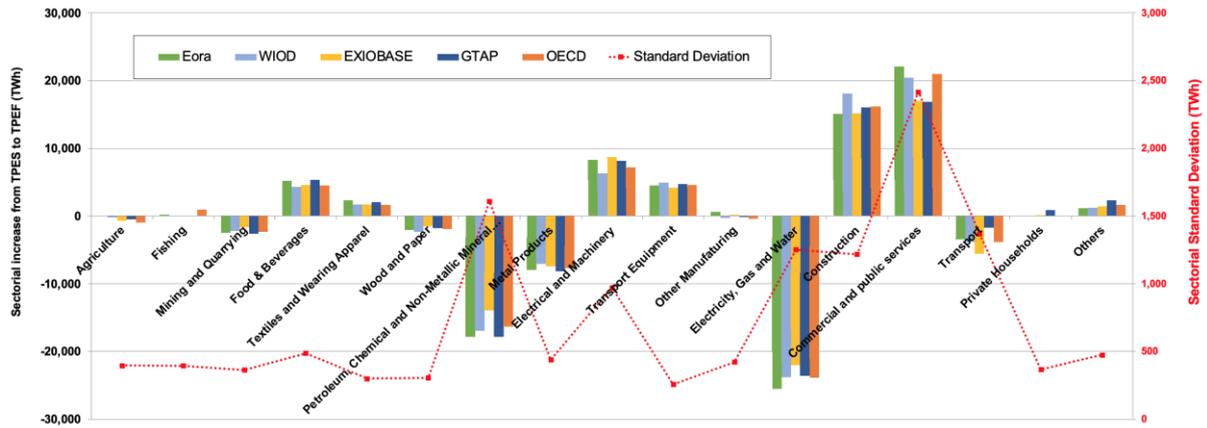


Figure 3: Average HEF for year 2011 from the five databases considered and their deviation. This HEF percentage can convert the TPES values into TPEF values.

The sectorial difference between TPEF and TPES in each sector has also been calculated (Figure 4). This allows us to understand firstly that in all data bases, sectors that have higher footprint than the supply are the Commercial and public services, Construction, Electricity and Petrochemical sectors. Secondly, Figure 4 shows that the major variations among databases occur in the sector defined as Commercial and public services where higher uncertainty is cumulated (with a total deviation of 11,000 TWh), followed by the Commercial and Public Service sector (2,417 TWh). To a lesser extent, the Petrochemical sector also display significant differences (1,608 TWh), as does the Electricity and Construction sectors (1,251 and 1,217 TWh). These are the sectors that most need to be standardised across the five different databases analysed.



363
 364 *Figure 4: Comparison of TPEF minus TPES by sector across GMRIO databases. The secondary axis provides the*
 365 *standard deviation of each sectorial difference.*
 366

367 **4.1 INCLUDING HEF RESULTS IN A COUNTRY'S REALITY**

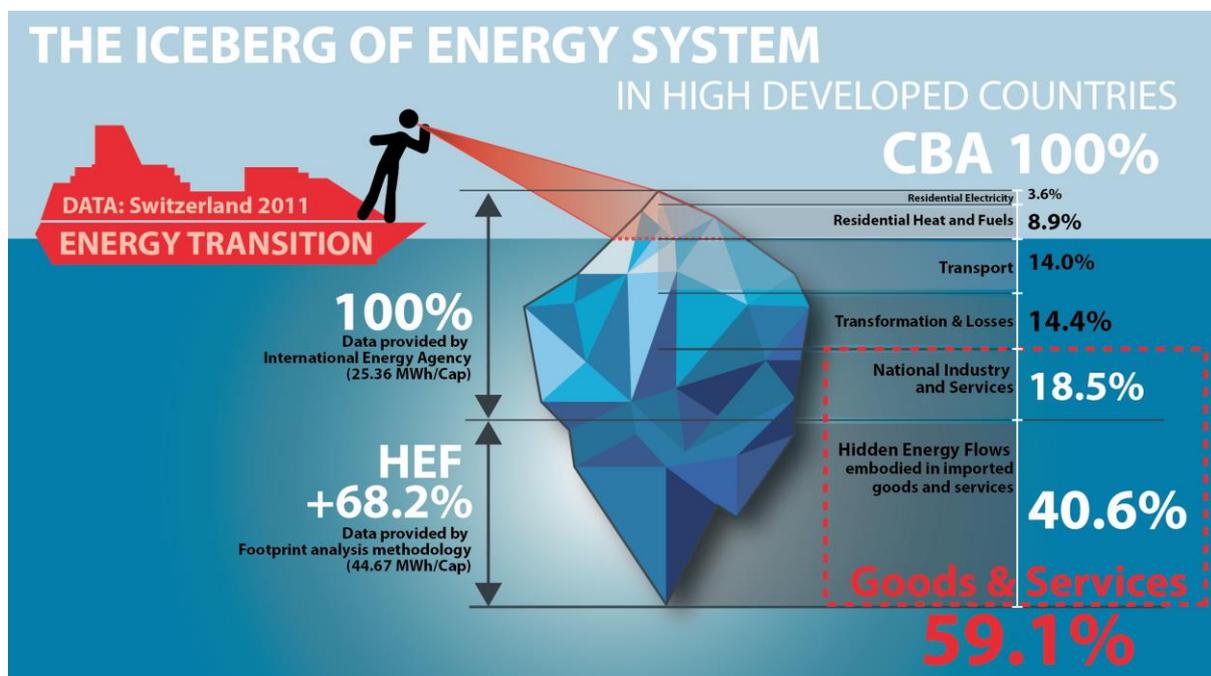
368 In order to show how the HEF indicator can modify our perception of the national energy
 369 consumption reality, the country with the highest HEF rate has been analysed. Switzerland, with a
 370 +68% HEF is the country with the highest energy consumption embodied in imported products and
 371 services. This converts its national average energy consumption from the 25.36 MWh/cap declared by
 372 the IEA into 44.67 MWh/cap in year 2011. This means that, to maintain the average consumption
 373 quality and life standards in Switzerland, almost double the nationally measured energy is required.
 374 Furthermore, this does not take into account the energy consumed in other countries in tourism travels
 375 (Lenzen et al., 2018).

376
 377 To further illustrate these proportions, Figure 5 shows the national energy use reality according to the
 378 CBA. Now it can be observed that the energy consumed at homes in terms of electricity only accounts
 379 for 3.6% of the national energy consumption, and the residential thermal consumption represents 8.9%
 380 of the TPEF. A further 14.0% of total consumption derives from the transportation sector. However,
 381 when citizens try to reduce energy consumption, the maximum effort is placed on the energy
 382 consumed at homes, especially in electric form. Nevertheless, 59.1% of the energy consumption
 383 corresponding to a person is hidden in consumed goods and services, thus related to material lifestyle

384 and to the material consumption model of the Swiss population. Lastly, 14.4% of the consumption is
 385 due to the transformation and losses of the current fossil fuel based and centralised energy system.

386

387 In this paper we would like to define this phenomenon as the “iceberg phenomenon”, and we might
 388 view the national energy transition strategy as a “cruise ship”. In order to avoid our cruise possibly
 389 colliding with the iceberg, we have to fully visualise the challenge that we face of reducing energy
 390 consumption. As inhabitants of a country, we normally try to change what we understand as energy:
 391 the energy at home, especially electricity. Meanwhile, however, we are not able to see the energy
 392 hidden behind the current material consumption model, 40.6% of which is actually consumed outside
 393 the national boundaries.



394

395 **Figure 5:** The “iceberg effect” in the current energy transition, using energy consumption data from Switzerland in 2011
 396 and integrating the Hidden Energy Flows (HEF). It can be seen that only 11.1% of energy is consumed in homes, (and just
 397 3.2% in the form of electricity) whereas 63.7% is consumed in the form of products and services.

398

399 Attempts to reduce electricity consumption in households are easily perceived by citizens, since these
 400 directly impact their electricity bill; therefore, society is driven to act on these. Nevertheless,
 401 switching to low-energy consumption appliances, such as energy-efficient bulbs, refrigerators,
 402 washing machines, televisions, etc. could actually increase the global Total Primary Energy Footprint

403 (TPEF), since producing these goods corresponds to 59.1% of the “iceberg”, despite the aim to reduce
404 the 3.6%.

405

406 Following the ETH researchers’ advice to emit a maximum of 1 tCO₂-eq emissions per person and
407 year, the Swiss government have established a target to reduce the national average energy
408 consumption to 17.5 MWh per capita per annum (equivalent to 2000 watts, during 365 days a year
409 and 24 hours per day, called the “2000 Watt society”) as a sustainable amount (Stulz et al., 2011).
410 Nonetheless, this goal has not been achieved. In fact, the energy consumed in the country has been
411 increasing in a hidden way. The HEF indicator helps to track energy consumption in a global context,
412 and it could be especially helpful in a city context, as cities consume high amounts of energy
413 embedded in goods and services (Villamor et al., 2020).

414

415 **5. DISCUSSION**

416 These results bring us to conclude that, in order to transition towards a sustainable energy model,
417 there is a profound need to change our current material lifestyle, due to its significant energy and
418 socio-environmental costs. This affirmation has been made in the past (Baynes *et al.*, 2011)
419 (Wiedenhofer, Lenzen and Steinberger, 2011) (Wiedenhofer, Lenzen and Steinberger, 2013) (Zhang,
420 Lahr and Bi, 2016) (Lenzen, 2016), but we consider that HEF indicators provide solidity. An
421 international HEF indicator comparing 44 countries by the same standards, goes beyond previous
422 country-based analyses where individual countries or couples of countries were analysed (Owen et al.,
423 2017) (Min and Rao, 2017) (Kucukvar et al., 2017) (Rocco et al., 2018) (Moreau and Vuille, 2018)
424 (Wilting, Biesiot and Moll, 1999). We also consider that the results of our broad international study
425 could be further analysed in city-based models within a nation and we support city-based studies to
426 better define different national realities, such as was already attempted in the research developed by
427 Cohen et al. (2005).

428

429 These results also support the theory that social aspect of the energy transition will gain importance
430 over technological efficiency (Morris and Jungjohann, 2017). There is a huge energy reduction
431 capacity in changing the current material consumption system, especially in developed countries. In
432 fact, trying to change the current energy system by increasing the purchase of efficient high-tech
433 appliances (a reflection of our current consumerist society) may produce a confusing placebo effect
434 among citizens, and even contribute to perpetuating our old unfair energy system. In this context,
435 claims like that regarding degrowth (Weiss and Cattaneo, 2017) could be relevant when approaching a
436 low energy consumption system, where the iceberg phenomenon will be taken into account.

437

438 It is clear that the current energy model needs to be transformed. It is environmentally unsustainable
439 (Inman, 2008) (Gies, 2017), socially unfair (Sovacool *et al.*, 2016) (Eisenstein, 2017), and further
440 economic losses and crises have been forecast (Hsiang *et al.*, 2017) (Fouquet, 2017) (Inman, 2013).
441 Politicians, scientists and citizens are aware of this, which begs the question: how can we implement
442 the transition towards a sustainable energy model? Citizens in the Global North, in general, and
443 particularly citizens living in large cities (Lenzen, Wood and Foran, 2008), are historically responsible
444 for this situation, and are now at the centre of providing responses to be able to create a socio-
445 environmentally stable panorama.

446

447 In order to bring about a deep energy transition, the recognition of the “real” global consumption-
448 based energy demand of countries is essential. Current statements defining energetically sustainable
449 countries as an example to be followed could be contradictory because of the lack of integrating HEF,
450 such as: “The Danish economy since the 1980s has grown by around 80% while maintaining constant
451 energy consumption and, at the same time, decreasing CO₂ emission by 34%.” (Wang *et al.*, 2017);
452 “An active Danish energy policy that focuses on energy efficiency, energy diversification and the
453 development of renewable energy has resulted in a resilient energy system in Denmark [...]” (Hertel
454 *et al.*, 2015); “The German *Energiewende* constitutes a major challenge for the energy supply system.”
455 (Uhlig, Neusel-Lange and Zdrallek, 2014); or “The energy sector is at the core of any modern
456 economy, and Germany serves as an international showcase for the transition of a large industrialised

457 economy to a low-carbon energy system.” (Rommel *et al.*, 2018). These statements could be
458 misleading when visualising only the consumption-based total energy requirement of countries.
459 Overlooking the energy embodied in imported goods and services could generate erroneous
460 “reference countries” to be followed in coming years (Akizu-Gardoki *et al.*, 2018) for the creation of
461 a sustainable energy system. Some previous examples, such as the case of Denmark, have already
462 been criticised in footprint-based accounts (Munksgaard, Pedersen and Wien, 2000) (Wier *et al.*, 2001)
463 (Wier *et al.*, 2003).

464

465 In the process of finding sustainable energy system reference countries, or being able to understand
466 the full reality of our own country outside the illusion of the iceberg phenomenon, Figure 3 (as well as
467 Supplementary Material Table D.1) offers the HEF percentage to convert the TPES value into the
468 TPEF and also into absolute value per country in MWh·cap⁻¹, thus a consumption-based energy
469 requirement comparison can be made. Attempts to introduce CBA-based policies instead of the
470 traditional CBA have already been considered in previous works, especially in the Climate Change
471 Mitigation and Adaptation field (Filho and Leal-Arcas, 2018) (Karakaya *et al.*, 2019), and these works
472 also support the idea that CBA indicators (such as HEF) could be introduced into national policies to
473 better shape environmental and social policies.

474

475 Being conscious of the Hidden Energy Flows among countries not only provides a new energy reality
476 for a given country, as shown in Figure 5, but also helps to understand how developed countries are
477 using the energetic resources of non-developed countries. Thus, the acknowledgment of HEF can also
478 trigger international solidarity towards fairer and more proportionate payment for the energy that
479 developed countries consume in non-developed ones. Furthermore, international cooperation to
480 improve the energy efficiency of developing countries could become a common interest. Measuring
481 the energy consumed in other countries will be the first step towards the recognition of a country’s
482 responsibility in socio-environmental impacts, and towards a shared responsibility between Global
483 North and Global South countries to reduce said impacts. The new energy model not only needs to be

484 environmentally sustainable, but also socially fair and equitable, based on the democratic
485 management of resources.

486

487

488 **6. CONCLUSIONS**

489 Consumption-Based Accounts (CBA) have been suggested to be a complementary indicator to
490 address the current environmental and climate change mitigation policies (Afionis et al., 2017),
491 (Kander et al., 2015), (Steininger et al., 2016). United Nations has considered it a strategic tool to link
492 global economies to their respective environmental impacts (United Nations, 2018). Following in this
493 line of research, our Hidden Energy Flow indicator (HEF) provides a clear example of where the
494 relevance of CBA can directly help to generate changes in future policymaking and practices in
495 cleaner national and international production systems.

496

497 This research shows how developed countries depend on the energy consumed in non-developed
498 countries (consuming on average 18.5% more energy than that declared). The integration of Hidden
499 Energy Flows in the national accounts gives a country the possibility to understand the same energy
500 consumption reality from a different perspective, where the energy embodied in products and services
501 gains relevance, and energy consumed at homes loses magnitude (energy embodied in products and
502 services can reach up to 59.1% of the energy consumed country wide).

503

504 This research shows for the first time how the TPES data provided by the International Energy
505 Agency can be adjusted to the Consumption-Based Accounts with the use of HEF, overcoming the
506 current individual countries' footprint analysis or non-uniformised studies. The limitations of this
507 study lie in the degree of accuracy of the indicator, which depends on the lack of uniformisation of the
508 currently most relevant five global GMRIO databases (even though most of the countries analysed, 36
509 out of 44, 82%, have a standard deviation of under 10%). It has also been detected that these

510 differences are mainly generated in four sectors: “Commercial and Public Services”, “Petroleum,
511 Chemical and Non-Metalic Mineral”, “Electric, Gas and Water”, and “Transport”.

512

513 Shifting the focus from changes in residential electricity consumption to the whole energy
514 consumption panorama could boost the necessary energy transition towards a low socio-
515 environmental impact and sustainable energy model, acting directly upon the current consumerist
516 consumption model. Having the HEF data available, countries could adapt their international energy
517 policies in order firstly to reduce their energy dependency, and secondly to start promoting a
518 responsibility campaign for the socio-environmental impacts underlying the indirect energy
519 consumption. This can lead to modifying not only the consumption attitudes of citizens but also the
520 industrial production system on an international scale, going one step forward from the current
521 literature, firstly going beyond national IO analysis and secondly going beyond the individual
522 GMRIO analysis.

523

524 The potential international collaboration between countries has been discussed in great depth in the
525 climate policy arena, but it is difficult to implement specific changes in the international field. In this
526 respect, the HEF indicator could be a small but firm and tangible contribution to the field. HEF offers
527 a real panorama of the complex energy dependencies and corresponding responsibilities, where
528 countries could have the freedom to act according to their available resources and ethical values. This
529 will boost the achievement of “Goal 12”, enhancing sustainable consumption patterns among
530 countries (UN, 2015); “Goal 7” of SDG, promoting insights to reach a sustainable energy system for
531 all individuals; and “Goal 10” of the SDG, nurturing the reduction of global inequality.

532

533 As future research lines for this study, and to further contribute to understanding a consumption-based
534 energy reality, city-based national studies could be performed in order to provide individual citizens
535 with more specific data. Currently, GMRIO methodology displays difficulties for city-level
536 application, but current research efforts are focused to overcome this challenge. Furthermore, we
537 consider it interesting to take steps towards increasing the number of countries where a HEF indicator

538 could be obtained, as well as updating the analysis year, since some databases are still only able to
539 provide accurate data for 2011.

540

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551

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816 **SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL**

817 A) Classification of the literature review:

818 *Table A.1: Classification of the 34 papers analysed.*

	Energy Ecological Footprint	Types of IO			Types of MRIO database			
		IO	National MRIO	International MRIO	EORA	WIOD	GTAP	Others
(Chen and Lin, 2008)			x					
(Wiedmann, 2009)			x					
(Chen and Chen, 2011) (Chen and Chen, 2013)				x			x	
(Arto <i>et al.</i> , 2016)				x		x		
(Lan <i>et al.</i> , 2016)	x			x	x			
(Min and Rao, 2017)	x							
(Kucukvar <i>et al.</i> , 2017)	x							
(Owen <i>et al.</i> , 2017)	x		x					
(Rocco <i>et al.</i> , 2018)				x				
(Moreau and Vuille, 2018)			x					
(Akizu-Gardoki <i>et al.</i> , 2018)	x			x	x			
(Wiedmann and Lenzen, 2018)								x
(Allen <i>et al.</i> , 2016)				x				
(Wu and Chen, 2017)	x			x				
(Kaltenegger <i>et al.</i> , 2017)	x			x				
(Wood <i>et al.</i> , 2018)	x							
(Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2018)	x			x				
(Bullard and Herendeen, 1975) (Hannon, 1981)	x	x						
(Herendeen, 1978) (Peet, Carter and Baines, 1985)	x	x						
(van Engelenburg <i>et al.</i> , 1994)								
(Vringer and Blok, 1995)	x	x						
(Lenzen, 1998)	x	x						
(Biesiot and Noorman, 1999), (Wilting, Biesiot and Moll, 1999)	x	x						
(Lenzen, Dey and Foran, 2004)	x				x			
(Lenzen, Wood and Foran, 2008), (Wiedenhofer, Lenzen and Steinberger, 2011)	x				x			
(Wiedenhofer, Lenzen and Steinberger, 2013)	x				x			
(Harris <i>et al.</i> , 2020)								x
(Vetóné Móznér, 2013)								x
(Caro <i>et al.</i> , 2017)								x

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821 B) Concordance matrix for unification of the selected five GMRIO databases

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Table B.1: Unification from WIOD to the 17 standardised sectors.

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
		Agriculture	Fishing	Mining and Quarrying	Food & Beverages	Textiles and Wearing Apparel	Wood and Paper	Petroleum, Chemical and Non-Metallic	Metal Products	Electrical and Machinery	Transport Equipment	Other Manufacturing	Electricity, Gas and Water	Construction	Commercial and public services	Transport	Private Households	Others
1	A01	Crop and animal production, hunting and related service activities	1															
2	A02	Forestry and logging		1														
3	A03	Fishing and aquaculture			1													
4	B	Mining and quarrying				1												
5	C10-C12	Manufacture of food products, beverages and tobacco products					1											
6	C13-C16	Manufacture of textiles, wearing apparel and leather products						1										
7	C17	Manufacture of wood and of products of wood and cork, except furniture; manufacture of articles of straw and plaiting materials							1									
8	C17	Manufacture of paper and paper products								1								
9	C18	Printing and reproduction of recorded media									1							
10	C19	Manufacture of coke and refined petroleum products										1						
11	C20	Manufacture of chemicals and chemical products											1					
12	C21	Manufacture of basic pharmaceutical products and pharmaceutical preparations												1				
13	C22	Manufacture of rubber and plastic products													1			
14	C23	Manufacture of other non-metallic mineral products														1		
15	C24	Manufacture of basic metals															1	
16	C25	Manufacture of fabricated metal products, except machinery and equipment																1
17	C26	Manufacture of computer, electronic and optical products																1
18	C27	Manufacture of electrical equipment																1
19	C28	Manufacture of machinery and equipment n.e.c.																1
20	C29	Manufacture of motor vehicles, trailers and semi-trailers																1
21	C30	Manufacture of other transport equipment																1
22	C31-C32	Manufacture of furniture; other manufacturing																1
23	C33	Repair and installation of machinery and equipment																1
24	C34	Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply																1
25	C35	Water collection, treatment and supply																1
26	E37-E39	Waste collection, treatment and disposal activities; materials recovery, remediation activities and other waste management services																1
27	F	Construction																1
28	G45	Wholesale and retail trade and repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles																1
29	G46	Wholesale trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles																1
30	G47	Retail trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles																1
31	H49	Land transport and transport via pipelines																1
32	H50	Water transport																1
33	H51	Air transport																1
34	H52	Warehousing and support activities for transportation																1
35	H53	Postal and courier activities																1
36	I	Accommodation and food service activities																1
37	J58	Publishing activities																1
38	J59-J60	Television programme production, sound recording and music publishing activities; programming and broadcasting activities																1
39	J61	Telecommunications																1
40	K62-J63	Computer programming, consultancy and related activities; information service activities																1
41	K64	Financial service activities, except insurance and pension funding																1
42	K65	Insurance, reinsurance and pension funding, except compulsory social security																1
43	K66	Activities auxiliary to financial services and insurance activities																1
44	L68	Real estate activities																1
45	M70-M71	Legal and accounting activities; activities of head offices, management consultancies activities																1
46	M71	Architectural and engineering activities; technical testing and analysis																1
47	M72	Scientific research and development																1
48	M73	Advertising and market research																1
49	M74-M75	Other professional, scientific and technical activities; veterinary activities																1
50	N	Administrative and support service activities																1
51	N84	Public administration and defence; compulsory social security																1
52	P85	Education																1
53	Q	Human health and social work activities																1
54	R-S	Other service activities																1
55	T	Activities of households as employers; undifferentiated goods- and services-producing activities of households for own use																1
56	U	Activities of extraterritorial organizations and bodies																1

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Table B.2: Unification from Eora to the 17 standardised sectors.

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
		Agriculture	Fishing	Mining and Quarrying	Food & Beverages	Textiles and Wearing Apparel	Wood and Paper	Petroleum, Chemical and Non-Metallic	Metal Products	Electrical and Machinery	Transport Equipment	Other Manufacturing	Electricity, Gas and Water	Construction	Commercial and public services	Transport	Private Households	Others
1	Agriculture	1																
2	Fishing		1															
3	Mining and Quarrying			1														
4	Food & Beverages				1													
5	Textiles and Wearing Apparel					1												
6	Wood and Paper						1											
7	Petroleum, Chemical and Non-Metallic Mineral Products							1										
8	Metal Products								1									
9	Electrical and Machinery									1								
10	Transport Equipment										1							
11	Other Manufacturing											1						
12	Recycling												1					1
13	Electricity, Gas and Water													1				
14	Construction														1			
15	Maintenance and Repair															1		
16	Wholesale Trade																1	
17	Retail Trade																	1
18	Hotels and Restaurants																	1
19	Transport																	1
20	Post and Telecommunications																	1
21	Financial Intermediation and Business Activities																	1
22	Public Administration																	1
23	Education, Health and Other Services																	1
24	Private Households																	1
25	Others																	1
26	Re-export & Re-import																	1

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Table B.3: Unification from EXIOBASE to the 17 standardised sectors.

	Agriculture	Manufacturing	Construction	Energy	Transport	Information and communication	Trade	Health and social work	Education	Government	Other	Waste
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Table B.4: Unification from GTAP to the 17 standardised sectors

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
		Agriculture	Fishing	Mining and Quarrying	Food & Beverages	Textiles and Wearing Apparel	Wood and Paper	Petroleum, Chemical and Non-Metal	Metal Products	Electrical and Machinery	Transport Equipment	Other Manufacturing	Electricity, Gas and Water	Construction	Commercial and public services	Transport	Private Households	Others
1 PDR	Paddy rice	1																
2 WHT	Wheat	1																
3 GRO	Cereal grains nec	1																
4 V.F	Vegetables, fruit, nuts	1																
5 OSD	Oil seeds	1																
6 C.B	Sugar cane, sugar beet	1																
7 PFB	Plant-based fibers	1																
8 OCR	Crops nec	1																
9 CTL	Bovine cattle, sheep and goats, horses	1																
10 QAP	Animal products nec	1																
11 RMK	Raw milk	1																
12 WOL	Wool, silk-worm cocoons	1																
13 FRS	Forestry	1																
14 FSH	Fishing		1															
15 COA	Coal			1														
16 OIL	Oil			1														
17 GAS	Gas			1														
18 OMN	Minerals nec			1														
19 CMT	Bovine meat products				1													
20 OMT	Meat products nec				1													
21 VOL	Vegetable oils and fats				1													
22 MIL	Dairy products				1													
23 PCR	Processed rice				1													
24 SGR	Sugar				1													
25 OFD	Food products nec				1													
26 B.T	Beverages and tobacco products				1													
27 TEX	Textiles				1													
28 WAP	Wearing apparel				1													
29 LEA	Leather products				1													
30 LUM	Wood products					1												
31 PPP	Paper products, publishing					1												
32 P.C	Petroleum, coal products						1											
33 CRP	Chemical, rubber, plastic products						1											
34 NMM	Mineral products nec						1											
35 I.S	Ferrous metals							1										
36 NFM	Metals nec							1										
37 FMP	Metal products							1										
38 MVH	Motor vehicles and parts								1									
39 OTN	Transport equipment nec								1									
40 ELE	Electronic equipment									1								
41 OME	Machinery and equipment nec									1								
42 OMF	Manufactures nec										1							
43 ELY	Electricity											1						
44 GDT	Gas manufacture, distribution											1						
45 WTR	Water											1						
46 CNS	Construction												1					
47 TRD	Trade													1				
48 OTP	Transport nec														1			
49 WTP	Water transport															1		
50 ATP	Air transport																1	
51 CMN	Communication																	1
52 OFI	Financial services nec																	1
53 ISR	Insurance																	1
54 OBS	Business services nec																	1
55 ROS	Recreational and other services																	1
56 QSG	Public Administration, Defense, Education, Health																	1
57 DWE	Dwellings																	1

Table B.5: Unification from OECD to the 17 standardised sectors.

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
		Agriculture	Fishing	Mining and Quarrying	Food & Beverages	Textiles and Wearing Apparel	Wood and Paper	Petroleum, Chemical and Non-Metal	Metal Products	Electrical and Machinery	Transport Equipment	Other Manufacturing	Electricity, Gas and Water	Construction	Commercial and public services	Transport	Private Households	Others
1 C01T05AGR	Agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing	0.5	0.5															
2 C10T14MIN	Mining and quarrying			1														
3 C15T19FOD	Food products, beverages and tobacco				1													
4 C17T19TEX	Textiles, textile products, leather and footwear					1												
5 C23WOD	Wood and products of wood and cork						1											
6 C21T22PAP	Pulp, paper, paper products, printing and publishing							1										
7 C23PET	Coke, refined petroleum products and nuclear fuel								1									
8 C24CHM	Chemicals and chemical products									1								
9 C25RBP	Rubber and plastics products										1							
10 C26NMM	Other non-metallic mineral products											1						
11 C27MET	Basic metals												1					
12 C28FMB	Fabricated metal products													1				
13 C29MEQ	Machinery and equipment, nec														1			
14 C30T33XCEQ	Computer, electronic and optical equipment															1		
15 C31ELO	Electrical machinery and apparatus, nec																1	
16 C34MTR	Motor vehicles, trailers and semi-trailers																	1
17 C35TRO	Other transport equipment																	1
18 C36T37OTM	Manufacturing nec, recycling																	1
19 C40T41EGW	Electricity, gas and water supply																	1
20 C45CON	Construction																	1
21 C50T52WRT	Wholesale and retail trade, repairs																	1
22 C55HTR	Hotels and restaurants																	1
23 C60T63TRN	Transport and storage																	1
24 C64PTL	Post and telecommunications																	1
25 C81S7FIN	Financial intermediation																	1
26 C70PEA	Real estate activities																	1
27 C71RMO	Renting of machinery and equipment																	1
28 C72ITS	Computer and related activities																	1
29 C73T74OBZ	R&D and other business activities																	1
30 C75GOV	Public admin. and defence, compulsory social security																	1
31 C80EDU	Education																	1
32 C85HTH	Health and social work																	1
33 C90T93OTS	Other community, social and personal services																	1
34 C95PVH	Private households with employed persons																	1

838 D) HEF indicator results for the 5 databases analysed and the average.

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840 *Table D.1: HEF indicator for year 2011, for the 5 databases analysed, the average maximum and*

841 *minimum for each country, the standard deviation and the corresponding HDI of countries.*

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Country	Code	Eora	WIOD	EXIOBASE	GTAP	OECD	HEF (%) Average	HEF (MWh/Cap)	MAX	MIN	ST.DEV	HDI
Norway	NOR	9%	3%	8%	25%	10%	11%	8.09	25%	3%	8%	0.941
Switzerland	CHE	68%	65%	65%	64%	79%	68%	27.49	79%	64%	6%	0.932
Australia	AUS	9%	27%	25%	14%	30%	21%	14.13	30%	9%	9%	0.930
Denmark	DNK	25%	12%	17%	35%	13%	20%	10.12	35%	12%	10%	0.922
Netherlands	NLD	-5%	-8%	5%	-1%	-10%	-4%	-2.61	5%	-10%	6%	0.921
Germany	DEU	1%	14%	19%	17%	11%	12%	6.43	19%	1%	7%	0.916
USA	USA	16%	11%	11%	11%	10%	12%	9.83	16%	10%	2%	0.913
Canada	CAN	-6%	-1%	-3%	-7%	0%	-3%	-3.16	0%	-7%	3%	0.907
Sweden	SWE	8%	11%	20%	11%	14%	13%	7.38	20%	8%	5%	0.903
UK	GBR	46%	27%	30%	41%	31%	35%	12.10	46%	27%	8%	0.898
Ireland	IRL	18%	22%	26%	-1%	15%	16%	7.24	26%	-1%	10%	0.895
Luxembourg	LUX	92%	25%	26%	80%	16%	48%	41.28	92%	16%	35%	0.892
Japan	JPN	22%	18%	17%	16%	19%	19%	8.55	22%	16%	2%	0.889
South Korea	KOR	-14%	-12%	-8%	-12%	-12%	-12%	-7.55	-8%	-14%	2%	0.889
Belgium	BEL	-20%	6%	25%	35%	13%	12%	5.06	35%	-20%	21%	0.886
France	FRA	14%	16%	25%	21%	23%	20%	9.19	25%	14%	5%	0.885
Taiwan	TWN	-42%	-24%	-23%	-30%	-20%	-28%	-17.46	-20%	-42%	9%	0.885
Austria	AUT	31%	23%	27%	31%	34%	29%	13.40	34%	23%	4%	0.884
Finland	FIN	-12%	-3%	10%	3%	1%	0%	-0.24	10%	-12%	8%	0.884
Italy	ITA	21%	25%	32%	30%	31%	28%	9.06	32%	21%	5%	0.877
Slovenia	SVN	14%	20%	14%	15%	12%	15%	6.36	20%	12%	3%	0.877
Spain	ESP	23%	12%	18%	18%	17%	18%	5.85	23%	12%	4%	0.871
Czech Republic	CZE	-5%	-9%	-3%	-8%	-4%	-6%	-3.02	-3%	-9%	3%	0.864
Greece	GRC	20%	-7%	9%	-4%	-16%	0%	0.22	20%	-16%	14%	0.858
Cyprus	CYP	32%	-1%	14%	33%	0%	16%	6.90	33%	-1%	17%	0.850
Estonia	EST	-4%	-11%	2%	7%	-13%	-4%	-1.91	7%	-13%	8%	0.850
Slovakia	SVK	28%	8%	4%	0%	7%	9%	3.49	28%	0%	11%	0.835
Poland	POL	8%	0%	7%	6%	2%	5%	1.46	8%	0%	4%	0.834
Lithuania	LTU	24%	14%	8%	15%	3%	13%	4.22	24%	3%	8%	0.830
Portugal	PRT	27%	16%	19%	16%	9%	17%	4.63	27%	9%	6%	0.824
Hungary	HUN	4%	-1%	5%	2%	1%	2%	0.71	5%	-1%	2%	0.823
Malta	MLT	37%	47%	44%	114%	6%	50%	17.61	114%	6%	40%	0.821
Croatia	HRV	15%	5%	10%	24%	11%	13%	3.22	24%	5%	7%	0.815
Latvia	LVA	21%	14%	19%	32%	10%	19%	6.18	32%	10%	8%	0.812
Romania	ROU	10%	6%	5%	4%	6%	6%	1.30	10%	4%	2%	0.797
Russia	RUS	-21%	-19%	-25%	-17%	-28%	-22%	-12.80	-17%	-28%	5%	0.792
Bulgaria	BGR	-22%	-14%	0%	-18%	-16%	-14%	-4.25	0%	-22%	8%	0.778
Turkey	TUR	23%	14%	23%	18%	27%	21%	3.95	27%	14%	5%	0.750
Mexico	MEX	2%	5%	4%	-1%	8%	3%	0.65	8%	-1%	3%	0.748
Brazil	BRA	7%	8%	9%	6%	8%	8%	1.23	9%	6%	1%	0.730
China	CHN	-14%	-15%	-14%	-16%	-13%	-14%	-3.51	-13%	-16%	1%	0.703
Indonesia	IDN	-5%	4%	2%	2%	8%	2%	0.20	8%	-5%	5%	0.669
Rest of the World	ROW	-3%	-1%	-5%	-2%	-3%	-3%	-0.01	-1%	-5%	1%	0.641
India	IND	-8%	0%	-1%	-3%	-3%	-3%	-0.20	0%	-8%	3%	0.590

843