



# NOTA DI LAVORO

100.2015

---

## The Impacts of Exogenous Oil Supply Shocks on Mediterranean Economies

---

**Andrea Bastianin**, University of Milan and FEEM  
**Marzio Galeotti**, University of Milan and IEFE-  
Bocconi  
**Matteo Manera**, University of Milan-Bicocca and  
FEEM

## Energy: Resources and Markets

Series Editor: Matteo Manera

### The Impacts of Exogenous Oil Supply Shocks on Mediterranean Economies

By Andrea Bastianin, University of Milan and FEEM

Marzio Galeotti, University of Milan and IEFE-Bocconi

Matteo Manera, University of Milan-Bicocca and FEEM

#### Summary

The security of energy supply is a key geopolitical factor in the relationship between the European Union and the southern neighborhood countries of the Middle East and North Africa region. We study the response of eight Mediterranean economies to exogenous oil supply shocks. We focus on the effects on economic activity - as measured by real Gross Value Added - for the whole economy, as well as for selected industries. We show that there are clear patterns characterizing the response of different economies to an unexpected reduction in global oil production. The main determinants of these patterns are the degree of energy intensity and energy dependence of the country, as well as the composition of its Gross Value Added.

**Keywords:** Oil Supply Shocks, Mediterranean, Growth

**JEL Classification:** C22, E32, Q43, Q41

*The first author gratefully acknowledges financial support from the Italian Ministry of Education, Universities and Research (MIUR) research program titled "Climate change in the Mediterranean area: scenarios, economic impacts, mitigation policies and technological innovation" (PRIN 2010-2011, prot. n. 2010S2LHSE-001).*

*Address for correspondence*

Andrea Bastianin

University of Milan

Department of Economics, Management and Quantitative Methods

Via Conservatorio, 7

20122 Milan

Italy

E-mail: andrea.bastianin@unimi.it

The opinions expressed in this paper do not necessarily reflect the position of  
Fondazione Eni Enrico Mattei

Corso Magenta, 63, 20123 Milano (I), web site: [www.feem.it](http://www.feem.it), e-mail: [working.papers@feem.it](mailto:working.papers@feem.it)

# The impacts of exogenous oil supply shocks on Mediterranean economies

Andrea Bastianin

University of Milan and FEEM

Marzio Galeotti

University of Milan and IEFE-Bocconi

Matteo Manera

University of Milan-Bicocca and FEEM

October, 2015

**Abstract:** The security of energy supply is a key geopolitical factor in the relationship between the European Union and the southern neighborhood countries of the Middle East and North Africa region. We study the response of eight Mediterranean economies to exogenous oil supply shocks. We focus on the effects on economic activity - as measured by real Gross Value Added - for the whole economy, as well as for selected industries. We show that there are clear patterns characterizing the response of different economies to an unexpected reduction in global oil production. The main determinants of these patterns are the degree of energy intensity and energy dependence of the country, as well as the composition of its Gross Value Added.

**Key Words:** Oil supply shocks, Mediterranean, Growth.

**JEL Codes:** C22, E32, Q43, Q41.

*Acknowledgments:* the first author gratefully acknowledges financial support from the Italian Ministry of Education, Universities and Research (MIUR) research program titled “Climate change in the Mediterranean area: scenarios, economic impacts, mitigation policies and technological innovation” (PRIN 2010-2011, prot. n. 2010S2LHSE-001).

*Corresponding author:* Andrea Bastianin, University of Milan, Department of Economics, Management and Quantitative Methods, Via Conservatorio 7, 20122 Milan, Italy. Email: andrea.bastianin@unimi.it.

# 1 Introduction

Three continents - Europe, Asia and Africa - and twenty one sovereign countries border the Mediterranean Sea.<sup>1</sup> As of 2014 the total population living in Mediterranean countries represents 6.7% of world total (The World Bank - World Development Indicators) and, taken together, economies in this area account for 11.9% of world Gross Value Added, GVA (United Nations Statistics Division - National Accounts Main Aggregates database).

Countries with coastlines on the Mediterranean Sea are very heterogeneous and have distinct cultural and historical backgrounds. Moreover, a divide exists within the area between countries on the north and south shore of the Mediterranean basin.

According to the World Bank's classification, these countries range from lower-middle-income (with per capita Gross National Income, GNI, between \$1046 and \$4125 in 2014) to high income (with per capita GNI of more than \$12736 in 2014). High income countries are concentrated on the northern region of the basin, while the Middle East and North Africa region hosts the majority of lower- and upper-middle income economies.<sup>2</sup>

The north and south shores of the Mediterranean sea differ also in terms of their degree of energy dependence. The World Bank's World Development Indicators show that in 2011, with the exception of Algeria, Egypt, Libya and Syria that were net energy exporters, the remaining Mediterranean countries were heavily dependent on imported energy. For these countries net energy imports - estimated as primary energy before transformation to other end-use fuels, less production - were in the range 22% (for Tunisia) to 100% (for Malta) of energy use in 2011.

---

<sup>1</sup>These are: Albania, Algeria, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Croatia, Cyprus, Egypt, France, Greece, Israel, Italy, Lebanon, Libya, Malta, Montenegro, Morocco, the Principality of Monaco, Slovenia, Spain, Syria, Tunisia and Turkey. Moreover, other entities with a coastline on the Mediterranean sea include: the British overseas territory of Gibraltar, the Spanish autonomous cities of Ceuta and Melilla, the State of Palestine and the self-declared Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus.

<sup>2</sup>Lower-middle-income economies are: Egypt, Morocco and Syria. Upper-middle-income countries, with per capita GNI in the range \$4126 - \$12736 in 2014, are: Albania, Algeria, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Lebanon, Libya, Montenegro, Tunisia, Turkey. Croatia, Cyprus, France, Greece, Israel, Italy, Malta, Slovenia, Spain and the Principality of Monaco are classified as high income countries.

These differences explain why energy integration is high in the policy agenda of Mediterranean countries. In particular, the relationship between the European Union (EU) and countries in the Middle East and North Africa region are strategically important for providing a secure supply of energy to EU member states, whose economies are highly dependent on imported crude oil and natural gas.

In March 2011 the European Commission announced its commitment to establishing an “EU-South Mediterranean Energy Community” aimed at “*promoting a real and reliable convergence of South Mediterranean partners’ energy policies and EU policy*” (the European Commission, 2011, p. 10). Tholens (2014) thoroughly discusses the EU-South Mediterranean Energy Community.

Since the security of energy supply is a key geopolitical factor in the relationship between the EU and South Mediterranean neighborhood countries, we study the response of eight economies, representative of the heterogeneity that characterizes the Mediterranean area, to exogenous oil supply shocks for the period 1973-2013. We focus on the effects on economic activity - as proxied by real Gross Value Added - for the whole economy, as well as for selected industries.

Exogenous oil supply shocks are estimated with the method due to Kilian (2008b). To measure shocks to the supply of crude oil Kilian (2008b) considers the difference between the observed and a counterfactual level of crude oil production to proxy the shortfall associated with strifes in Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) member states.

Results in Kilian (2008b,a) highlight that for the U.S. and most G7 economies exogenous shocks to the production of crude oil cause a temporary reduction in real Gross Domestic Product. Our findings are in line with those of Kilian (2008b,a): we show that most net energy importers experience a temporary reduction in the growth rate of GVA. Moreover, we illustrate that there are some patterns characterizing the response of different economies to an unexpected reduction in global oil production. The main determinants underlying these patterns are the degree of energy intensity and energy dependence of the country, as well as the composition of its GVA.

There are other measures of exogenous shocks to the supply of crude oil available in the literature. Notably, Hamilton (1996) introduced a proxy known as net oil price increase. The

idea underlying Hamilton's proposal is that since some of the major price increases in the 1970's were driven by exogenous political events in OPEC countries, the net price increase relative to the recent past can capture the price changes during those episodes. There are two problems with this and other price-based measures of exogenous oil supply disruptions. First, now the consensus view among academics and practitioners is that since the early 1970's the price of crude oil has been endogenous to global macroeconomic conditions; second, there are episodes when the net oil price increase measure fails to capture exogenous oil supply shocks and other instances when, on the contrary, the proxy suggests an increase that is not the result of a production shortfall, but is due to demand side pressures. For more details see Kilian (2008b,a) and references therein.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes the dataset and the econometric methods used in the empirical analysis, Section 3 discusses key statistics for Mediterranean countries; results are illustrated in Section 4, while Section 5 concludes.

## 2 Data and methods

### 2.1 Measuring exogenous oil supply shocks

We measure exogenous shocks to the supply of crude oil in OPEC member countries using the approach of Kilian (2008b). The author has developed a proxy of supply shocks based on the difference between the observed and a counterfactual crude oil production level in countries where a geo-political event - such as a war - has led to a production shortfall.

The counterfactual path is defined as the level of production that would have been observed in the absence of the exogenous event responsible for the crude oil production shortfall. It is obtained by extrapolating the pre-event production level based on the average growth rate of production in countries not hit by the geo-political event. Exogenous crude oil production shortfalls are then aggregated over countries, expressed as a percent of world crude oil production and first differenced.

Since the series developed by Kilian (2008b) ends in September 2004, we rely on its updated version due to Bastianin and Manera (*forthcoming*) that spans January 1973 until

December 2013 and hence includes the crude oil production shortfall due to the Libyan Civil War of 2011. The counterfactual for Libya starts in February 2011 and is based on the average growth rate of production in Algeria, Angola, Ecuador, Nigeria, Qatar, United Arab Emirates<sup>3</sup>. During 2011 the shortfall due to the Libyan Civil War was over 1.5 millions barrels per day.

The Kilian's measure of exogenous oil supply shocks is based on monthly production data available from the Energy Information Administration's Monthly Energy Review and its construction follows the details in Kilian (2008b,a). The variable, suitably aggregated at annual sampling frequency, is shown in Figure 1. As it can be seen the production shortfall associated with the Libyan Civil War represents a trough corresponding to -1.6% of world crude oil production. Compared to previous episodes, the magnitude of this shortfall is small: for instance, in 2002 civil unrest in Venezuela have led to a shortfall equivalent to -3% of world oil production.

**[Fig. 1 about here]**

## **2.2 Macroeconomic aggregates**

There are twenty one countries with coastlines on the Mediterranean sea, however data starting in the 1970's are available only for a subset of these economies. Having this decade in our sample is important because some of the most severe oil price shocks are associated with turmoils in OPEC member countries during this time period (see e.g. Hamilton (2003)).

Thus due to lack of data the Principality of Monaco and four countries of the former Yugoslavia have been dropped from the dataset. Moreover, we have also excluded countries such as Albania, Cyprus, Lebanon, Malta and Tunisia, Syria where conflicts and political

---

<sup>3</sup>As of August 2015 OPEC members include: Algeria, Angola, Ecuador, Iran, Iraq, Kuwait, Libya, Nigeria, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates and Venezuela. This list is different from that in Kilian (2008b,a): Angola joined OPEC in 2007, while Ecuador suspended its membership from December 1992 until October 2007. Notwithstanding small numerical discrepancies, Alquist and Coibion (2014) show that the correlation between the original Kilian (2008b) measure and the updated series of Bastianin and Manera (*forthcoming*) is very close to one.

turmoils have generated structural breaks and outliers in the series. Algeria and Libya have been dropped because being members of OPEC, the supply shocks measure is not exogenous to their economies. This leave us with a total of eight economies: Egypt, France, Greece, Israel, Italy, Morocco, Spain, Turkey.

Gross Value Added (GVA) for these eight countries has been sourced from the National Accounts Main Aggregates database, maintained by the Economic Statistics Branch of the United Nations (UN) Statistics Division. This database consists of annual time series of national accounts aggregates of all UN Members States from 1970 onward. Variables are based on the official data reported to the UN Statistics Division through an annual questionnaire.

The same database also provides Value Added (VA) by kind of economic activity. In particular we analyze the impact of exogenous oil supply shocks on the VA for the following industries: Agriculture, hunting, forestry, fishing (ISIC A-B), Mining, Manufacturing, Utilities (ISIC C-E), Construction (ISIC F) Wholesale, retail trade, restaurants and hotels (ISIC G-H) and Transport, storage and communication (ISIC I)<sup>4</sup>.

All variables expressed in US dollars at constant 2005 prices and cover the period 1970-2013.

### 2.3 Econometric specification

Let  $Y_t$  be either GVA or one of series measuring VA by kind of economic activity for a given Mediterranean country and let  $y_t \equiv \log(Y_t)$ . Then we define its percentage growth rate as  $\Delta y_t = 100 \times (y_t - y_{t-1})$ . To study the effects of exogenous oil supply shocks,  $x_t$ , on growth we use the following model:

$$\Delta y_t = \alpha + \sum_{j=0}^5 \beta_j x_{t-j} + \varepsilon_t \quad (1)$$

where the error term  $\varepsilon_t$  might be serially correlated. The model is estimated with

---

<sup>4</sup>A sixth category - Other Activities (ISIC J-P) - is also available, but we decided not to consider it in the empirical analysis in that it includes highly heterogeneous industries with a low degree of energy intensity, such as: information and communication, financial and insurance activities, real estate activities, professional, scientific and technical activities, administrative and support service activities, public administration and defense and education.



the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) estimator, while inference is based upon standard errors computed with block-bootstrap methods, so as to deal with the possibility of serial correlation in the error term<sup>5</sup>.

In the Distributed Lag (DL) model in equation (1) the OLS estimate of  $\beta_h$  corresponds to the impulse response estimate at horizon  $h$  and the lag order of the model, set to five years, represents the the maximum horizon of the impulse response function. While  $\hat{\beta}_h$  is the estimated response of real GVA (or VA) growth to a unit change in  $x_t$  at horizon  $h$ , the level response for GVA (or VA) can be obtained by cumulating the OLS estimates of  $\beta_h$ . Therefore, the estimated level response of GVA (or VA) to a unit change in  $x_t$  at horizon  $h$  is  $\sum_{j=0}^h \hat{\beta}_j$

Model (1) rests on the assumption that  $x_t$  is pre-determined with respect to macroeconomic conditions in a given country. Pre-determinedness of  $x_t$  implies that there is no instantaneous feedback from the level of economic activity in Mediterranean countries to crude oil production in OPEC countries. This working hypothesis has been extensively used in the literature and is also empirically supported by the results in Kilian and Vega (2011).

An AutoRegressive DL (ARDL) model represents the main alternative to model (1). While both the DL and the ARDL specifications are based on the assumption that  $x_t$  is pre-determined, the ARDL model is more restrictive in that it requires our measure of oil supply shocks to be strictly exogenous. Moreover, the use of an ARDL model rests on the additional assumption that data are well approximated by a linear Vector Autoregressive model, while equation (1) relaxes this constraint (see Kilian, 2008a).

### 3 Growth and energy in Mediterranean countries

Per capita real GVA in 2011 for the Mediterranean countries in our panel is shown in the last column of Table 1. As it can be seen, the north-south divide discussed in the Introduction is apparent also for the economies in our sample: Egypt and Morocco have the lowest per

---

<sup>5</sup>The bootstrap procedure is based on blocks of two consecutive observations and has been implemented with the routines attached to Kilian (2009).

capita GVA, while EU countries have the highest levels of per capita GVA. Columns headed (a-e) in Table 1 illustrate how GVA is distributed across industries. We can notice that North African countries have the highest share of GVA produced in the agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing branch of economic activity. Moreover, we see that for Egypt - that, according to Figure 2, in 2011 was the only net energy exporter in the sample - the highest share of GVA is associated to the mining, manufacturing and utility branch, that includes the petroleum industry.

### **[Table 1 about here]**

The degree of energy dependency, namely the extent to which an economy relies upon imports in order to meet its energy needs, is an important factor in explaining how different countries experience oil supply shocks. Energy dependency in 2011 is shown in Figure 2 and is given by net energy imports as a percentage of energy use. Net energy imports are estimated as energy use less production and are both measured in oil equivalents. A negative value, such as -14% for Egypt, indicates that the country is a net exporter. It is apparent that Morocco and France are respectively the most and the least energy dependent countries among net importers. Italy follows Morocco with 81% of energy derived from imports.

### **[Fig. 2 about here]**

How an oil supply shock impacts on a country's economy is influenced not only by its reliance on imported energy, but also depends on the the quantity of energy required per unit output. Energy intensity in 2011 and its difference in the 1981-2011 period are shown in Figure 3. Egypt, Morocco and Turkey are the countries with the highest degree of energy intensity. However, while the economy of Morocco now requires less energy per unit output than in 1981, both in Egypt and Turkey the production of goods and services has become more energy intense. With the exception of Greece, the remaining countries have experienced a reduction in energy intensity, with France leading the group of virtuous economies.<sup>6</sup>

---

<sup>6</sup>The impact of oil supply shocks in different industries is also expected to depend on the level of energy intensity, however we were not able to find energy intensity data at this level of disaggregation.

[Fig. 3 about here]

## 4 Results

### 4.1 Model selection

Model (1) allows for a contemporaneous feedback from the Kilian's measure of oil supply shocks,  $x_t$ , to the growth rate of GVA or VA by kind of economic activity,  $\Delta y_t$ .

Each cell of table 2 shows the  $p$ -value of the test of the null hypothesis  $H_0 : \beta_0 = 0$ ; that is, the test for the exclusion of the contemporaneous effect of the exogenous oil supply shock from model (1).

When the dependent variable of equation (1) is real GVA growth,  $p$ -values lie above 74% for all countries but Israel, thus suggesting that in seven cases, out of eight, the contemporaneous value of the Kilian's measure of oil shocks can be excluded from the model.

When  $\Delta y_t$  corresponds to real VA growth for a given branch of economic activity in one of the Mediterranean countries in our panel,  $p$ -values range from 9.1% to 99.8%.

All in all, tests for the exclusion of the contemporaneous value of the Kilian's measure of exogenous oil supply shock shown in Table 2 lead to the conclusion that  $x_t$  can be safely dropped from the regression equation in all cases.

[Table 2 about here]

### 4.2 The impacts of oil supply shocks on real GVA

The response of real GVA growth to a permanent 1% reduction in global crude oil production is presented in Figure 4. The second and third columns in the top panel of Table 3 show the date and the magnitude of the trough of the response of real GVA growth. The date of the trough is the number of years that it takes to the estimated impulse response function to reach its minimum, after an oil supply shock has hit the economy of a given country. The corresponding information for the level of real GVA is shown in the bottom panel of Table 3 and in Figure 5.

Egypt experiences a temporary reduction in real GVA growth the first year after the oil supply shock. However, Table 3 shows that the -0.2% variation in real GVA is statistically indistinguishable from zero. A joint inspection of Figures 4-5 highlights that neither the growth rate, nor the level of real GVA in Egypt react, in a statistically significant manner, to a permanent 1% reduction in global oil production. Egypt has two peculiarities: it is the only net energy exporter and it has the most energy intense economy in our panel of Mediterranean countries. Our results, seem therefore to suggest that for this country the benefits of not depending on imported crude oil are greater than the costs of having a very energy intense economy. The balance of these two effects is to render the impact of oil supply shocks on the economy negligible.

**[Fig. 4 and 5 about here]**

Results for Morocco, the only other North African country, look completely different from those for Egypt. As of 2011 Morocco was importing 96% of the energy used in the country and in that year it was second only to Egypt in terms of energy intensity, notwithstanding a decreasing trend from 1981 to 2011. These two factors can probably explain the long-lasting reduction in real GVA growth observed in Figure 4. The variation of real GVA reaches its minimum, -0.67%, a year after the economy was hit by the oil supply shock and remains statistically significant for three years, using the one-standard error bands. The bottom panel of Table 3 and Figure 5 show that there is a reduction also in the level of real GVA. The response of real GVA gets to a minimum, -2%, five years after the exogenous oil supply disruption and is statistically significant using the one-standard error bands.

For all EU member countries - France, Greece, Italy, Spain - an unexpected reduction in global oil production leads to a temporary reduction in real GVA growth two years after the shock that, in all cases, is also statistically significant, using the one-standard error bands. This suggests that there are similarities among these countries possibly due to factors, such as the influence of a common monetary policy, that tie them together.

France, that has the lowest degree of energy intensity (about 5000 Btu per 2005 U.S. dollars) and is the least energy dependent country among net energy importers (it imports 46% of its energy), experiences the smallest reduction in growth, -0.16%. Italy and Spain

are similar in terms of energy dependence, in 2011 both imported over 75% of the energy they used, and respond to an oil supply shock with a reduction in real GVA growth close to -0.4% in the second year. This negative effect on growth is in both cases statistically significant using the two-standard error bands. The effect of a production disruption on the real GVA growth of Greece, that imports 64% of its energy, is -0.27%.

As we have seen, EU member countries experience oil supply shocks in a similar fashion: they all record a negative and statistically significant effect on real GVA growth two years after the shock. Interestingly, the negative impact on growth increases with the degree of energy dependency of the economy.

As it can be seen in Figure 4 and 5, the responses of Turkey and Israel are never statistically distinguishable from zero. However, we can observe that Turkey, like EU countries, experiences the maximum reduction of real GVA growth two years after the oil supply shock.

**[Table 3 about here]**

### **4.3 The impacts of oil supply shocks on real VA for selected industries**

Studying the impacts of a disruption in global oil production on the level and the growth rate of real VA in a different of branches of economic activity might help disentangling how Mediterranean countries experience oil supply shocks.<sup>7</sup>

The top panel of Table 3 shows that in Egypt the only industries that exhibit a temporary and statistically significant (using the one-standard error bands) reduction of real VA growth are the mining, manufacturing and utilities (MMU, henceforth) industries and the branch that includes touristic activities, retail and wholesale trade (TRW henceforth), see columns (b) and (d). In the first case the trough, -1.15%, is reached two years after the shock, while in the second case it takes only one year to reach the minimum. However, looking at column (b) in the bottom panel of Table 3, we see that the response of the level of real VA in the

---

<sup>7</sup>To conserve space impulse responses are shown in the Appendix.

MMU industries is never statistically distinguishable from zero.

In Morocco, where agriculture accounts for 15% of real GVA, there is a disproportionate response of the real VA growth in this branch of economic activity, that records a statistically significant trough of -3% one year after the shock. The MMU industries experience a -0.3% reduction in the real VA growth two years after the crude oil production disruption, while the TRW industries feature a -0.4% growth decline one year after the shock. In both cases the response is statistically significant using the one-standard error bands.

There are patterns that characterize the responses of real VA growth in the MMU industries: with the exception of Greece, the trough is always recorded two years after the shock. Moreover, using the one-standard error bands, the negative effect of an oil supply shock on the growth rate of real VA in this branch of economic activity is statistically significant for all EU countries, except Greece. Lastly, we notice that in the case of France, Spain and Italy the response of the level of VA in the MMU industries is negative and statistically significant (using the one-standard error bands) up to five years after the oil supply shock.

Column (d) in panel *a* of Table 3 illustrates that oil supply shocks have negative and often statistically significant effects on the TRW industries in most Mediterranean countries.

Lastly, we see from column (e) that the transportation sector is negatively affected by a shock to the supply of crude oil. The magnitude of the (statistically significant) responses range from -0.3% for Spain up to -0.6% for France.

## 5 Conclusions

The relationship between the EU and countries in the South Africa and Middle East region of the Mediterranean sea are strategically important for energy firms operating in the area as well as for the energy security of net energy importers.

In this paper we have shown that the degree of energy intensity and energy dependence influence how Mediterranean economies react to an unexpected reduction in global crude oil production. The response of real GVA growth is negative and often statistically significant for net energy importers, while for net energy exporters (i.e. Egypt) it is not distinguishable

from zero. This result holds for the economy as a whole, as well as for selected industries.

In the case of EU countries, there are many similarities: the effect of an oil supply shock increases with the degree of energy dependency and countries experiences shocks with same timing.

These results suggest that initiatives aimed at strengthening the collaboration between the EU and other Mediterranean countries, net energy exporters in particular, might be crucial for improving the energy security of the region. Beyond the energy security target, integration efforts such as the development of the “EU-South Mediterranean Energy Community” might help countries in the area to reach other goals such as the design common environmental policy.

From a methodological point of view, we believe that the use of regression techniques that allow to combine data at different sampling frequencies, such as annual data for real VA and monthly data for the Kilian’s measure, might prove useful to exactly pin down the timing with which oil supply and price shocks hit the economy. Extension of the present analysis using the Mixed Data Sampling regression approach of Ghysels et al. (2007) is left for future work.

## References

- Alquist, R. and Coibion, O. (2014). Commodity-price comovement and global economic activity. NBER Working Papers 20003, National Bureau of Economic Research.
- Bastianin, A. and Manera, M. (forthcoming). How does stock market volatility react to oil price shocks? *Macroeconomic Dynamics*.
- European Commission (2011). A partnership for democracy and shared prosperity with the Southern Mediterranean. COM(2011) 200 final, Brussels, 8 March 2011.
- Ghysels, E., Sinko, A., and Valkanov, R. (2007). MIDAS regressions: further results and new directions. *Econometric Reviews*, 26(1):53–90.
- Hamilton, J. D. (1996). This is what happened to the oil price-macroeconomy relationship. *Journal of Monetary Economics*, 38(2):215–220.

- Hamilton, J. D. (2003). What is an oil shock? *Journal of Econometrics*, 113(2):363–398.
- Kilian, L. (2008a). A comparison of the effects of exogenous oil supply shocks on output and inflation in the G7 countries. *Journal of the European Economic Association*, 6(1):78–121.
- Kilian, L. (2008b). Exogenous oil supply shocks: how big are they and how much do they matter for the U.S. economy? *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 90(2):216–240.
- Kilian, L. (2009). Not all oil price shocks are alike: disentangling demand and supply shocks in the crude oil market. *American Economic Review*, 99(3):1053–1069.
- Kilian, L. and Vega, C. (2011). Do energy prices respond to U.S. macroeconomic news? A test of the hypothesis of predetermined energy prices. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 93(2):660–671.
- Tholens, S. (2014). An EU-South Mediterranean Energy Community: the right policy for the right region? *The International Spectator*, 49(2):34–49.



## Tables and Figures

Table 1: Per-capita real Gross Value Added and its components in 2011.

Country	VA by kind of economic activity as % of GVA					per capita GVA
	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)	
Egypt	12.60	32.33	5.97	14.79	13.54	1512
France	1.94	14.77	4.87	16.09	8.43	32336
Greece	4.24	10.31	4.77	18.94	7.82	18317
Israel	1.51	18.45	5.29	9.74	15.40	21296
Italy	2.29	18.92	4.93	17.16	8.50	27234
Morocco	15.83	18.35	6.91	12.50	7.91	2362
Spain	3.22	17.18	7.71	18.21	9.20	23599
Turkey	9.00	23.33	4.89	16.08	15.35	7060

*Notes:* columns (a-e) show real Value Added (VA) by kind of economic activity as a percentage of Gross Value Added (GVA), while the last column displays per-capita real GVA in 2011 (in 2005 US dollars). VA is available for the following industries: (a) Agriculture, hunting, forestry, fishing, (b) Mining, Manufacturing, Utilities, (c) Construction, (d) Wholesale, retail trade, restaurants and hotels, (e) Transport, storage and communication. The row sum of percentages in columns (a-e) is not equal to 100 in that the contribution of “Other activities” to GVA is not shown. Source: United Nations, Statistics Division - National Accounts Main Aggregates.

Table 2: Test for the exclusion of the contemporaneous exogenous oil supply measure.

Country	VA by kind of economic activity					GVA
	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)	
Egypt	0.4583	0.9841	0.1920	0.4932	0.5688	0.8789
France	0.2297	0.9614	0.3340	0.6143	0.7407	0.7476
Greece	0.8839	0.7390	0.0910	0.8870	0.9204	0.8592
Israel	0.8090	0.1532	0.1115	0.5837	0.2206	0.0844
Italy	0.4224	0.9293	0.3842	0.5341	0.9980	0.9213
Morocco	0.6575	0.6773	0.0952	0.6421	0.9702	0.9125
Spain	0.2946	0.5772	0.8990	0.7317	0.2469	0.8025
Turkey	0.6139	0.3936	0.6646	0.6720	0.6730	0.8308

*Notes:* the table shows  $p$ -values of the tests for the exclusion of the contemporaneous exogenous oil supply measure from equation 1. This corresponds to testing  $H_0 : \beta_0 = 0$  in  $\Delta y_t = \alpha + \sum_{j=0}^5 \beta_j x_{t-j} + \varepsilon_t$ . In columns 2-6 the dependent variable is the percentage growth rate of real VA in the following industries: (a) Agriculture, hunting, forestry, fishing, (b) Mining, Manufacturing, Utilities, (c) Construction, (d) Wholesale, retail trade, restaurants and hotels, (e) Transport, storage and communication. The last column shows  $p$ -values when the dependent variable is the percentage growth rate of real GVA. Standard errors have been computed using 20000 block bootstrap samples (with a block size of 2 years), so as to account for possible serial correlation in the error term.

Table 3: Magnitude and dates of troughs of real GVA (VA) growth and real GVA (VA) response to a 1% exogenous oil supply shock.

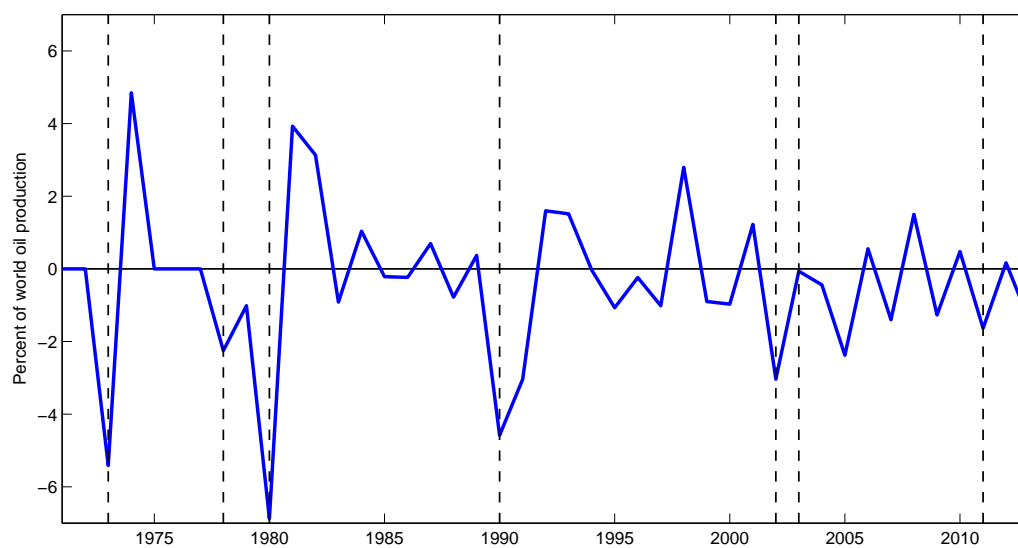
Panel a. Real GVA and real VA growth												
Country	GVA growth		VA growth									
	t	%	(a)		(b)		(c)		(d)		(e)	
			t	%	t	%	t	%	t	%	t	%
Egypt	1	-0.20	5	-0.22*	2	-1.15*	1	-0.35	1	-0.56*	2	-0.61
France	2	-0.16*	3	-0.99**	2	-0.45**	3	-0.42*	2	-0.42**	4	-0.61**
Greece	2	-0.27*	4	-0.37	4	-0.26	2	-1.46*	4	-0.78*	1	-0.28
Israel	4	-0.13	3	-1.05*	2	-0.04	5	-1.44*	3	-0.12	4	-0.56*
Italy	2	-0.41**	5	-0.13	2	-0.94**	4	-0.33*	2	-0.34*	4	-0.44*
Morocco	1	-0.67*	1	-3.07*	2	-0.33*	5	-0.26	1	-0.42*	3	-0.02
Spain	2	-0.37**	1	-0.80*	2	-0.63**	2	-0.77*	2	-0.23*	2	-0.31*
Turkey	2	-0.10	4	-0.41*	2	-0.21	2	-0.86*	2	-0.06	2	-0.06

Panel b. Real GVA and real VA												
Country	GVA		VA									
	t	%	(a)		(b)		(c)		(d)		(e)	
			t	%	t	%	t	%	t	%	t	%
Egypt	2	-0.25	5	-0.22	2	-1.12	1	-0.35	1	-0.56*	3	-1.15
France	5	-0.56*	1	-0.83*	5	-1.05*	5	-1.15*	5	-1.33**	5	-1.39**
Greece	4	-0.53	4	-0.12	4	-0.38	5	-2.89	5	-2.06*	5	-0.82
Israel	5	-0.21	3	-0.82	2	0.76	1	4.08**	1	0.04	4	-1.19*
Italy	5	-0.86**	5	0.10	5	-1.56*	5	-0.10	5	-0.55*	5	-1.23*
Morocco	5	-2.14*	5	-9.33*	4	-0.79*	1	0.29	5	-1.12*	1	0.14
Spain	5	-1.29**	5	-2.42*	5	-1.80**	5	-3.06**	5	-0.52*	5	-0.73*
Turkey	4	0.05	5	-0.77	2	0.24	5	-0.86	2	0.28	2	0.12

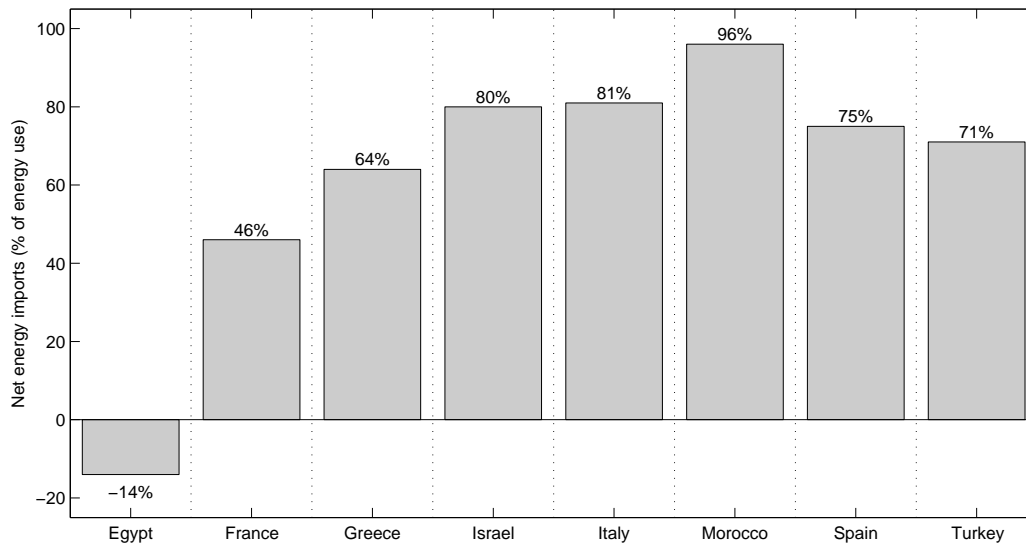
Notes: Columns headed with a “t” (“%”) denote the date (magnitude) of the trough of the response of real GVA growth (Panel a) and real GVA (Panel b) to a 1% permanent reduction in world oil production. Columns headed (a-e) denote the following industries: (a) Agriculture, hunting, forestry, fishing, (b) Mining, Manufacturing, Utilities, (c) Construction, (d) Wholesale, retail trade, restaurants and hotels, (e) Transport, storage and communication. “\*” (“\*\*”) denotes that the response is statistically significant using the one- (two-) standard error bands.

Figure 1: Measure of exogenous oil supply shocks: 1971-2013.



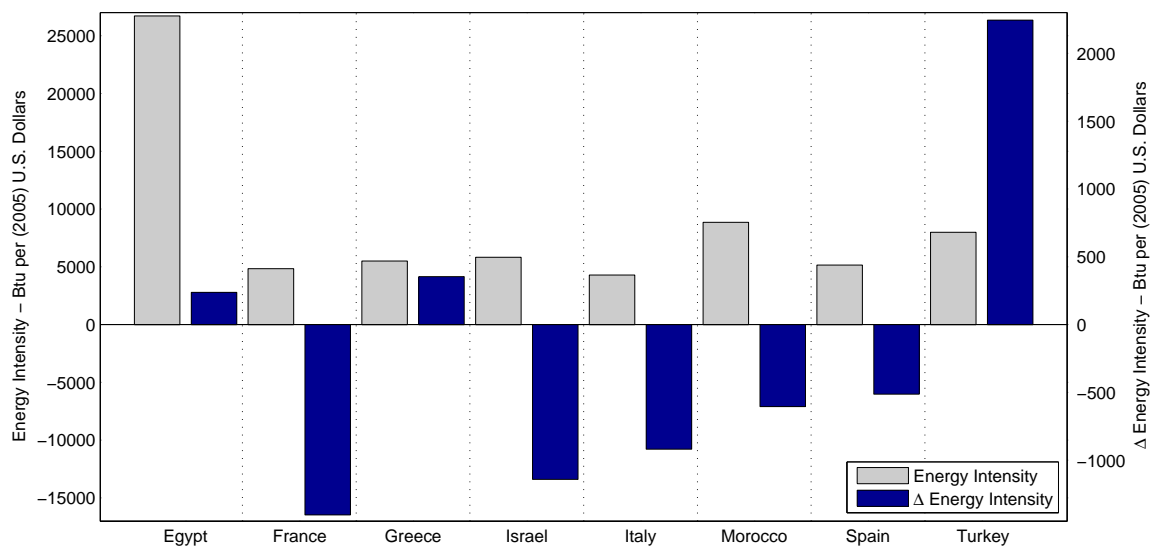
*Notes:* the figure shows the measure of exogenous oil supply shocks due to Kilian (2008b) and extended by Bastianin and Manera (*forthcoming*) to include the production shortfall associated to the Libyan Civil War of 2011. The first five vertical dashed lines identify key oil dates shown in Table 1 of Kilian (2008a), while the last line is drawn in correspondence of February 2011, when the Libyan Civil War began. The remaining key oil dates are: October 1973 (Yom Kippur War and Arab oil embargo), October 1978 (Iranian revolution), September 1980 (Iran-Iraq War), August 1990 (Persian Gulf War), December 2002 (Civil unrest in Venezuela) and March 2003 (Iraq War).

Figure 2: Energy dependency in 2011: net energy imports (% of energy use).



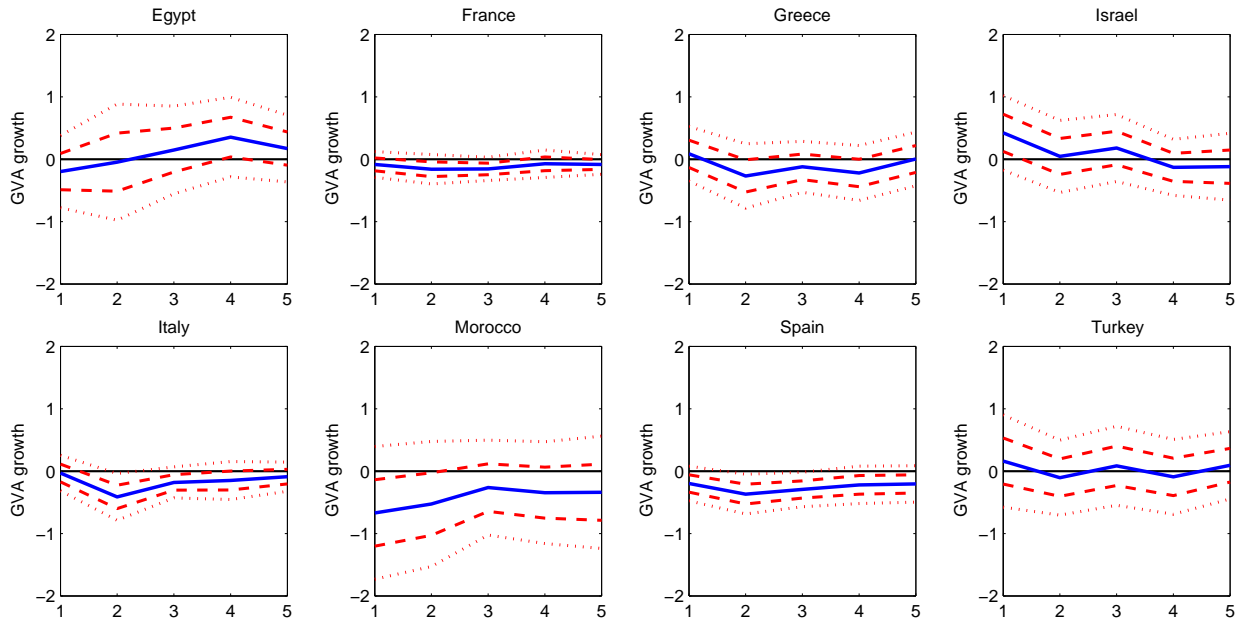
Notes: energy dependency is given by net energy imports as a percentage of energy use. Net energy imports are estimated as energy use less production and are both measured in oil equivalents. A negative value indicates that the country is a net exporter. Source: The World Bank - World Development Indicators (<http://wdi.worldbank.org/table/3.8>).

Figure 3: Energy intensity in 2011 and change in energy intensity 1981-2011.



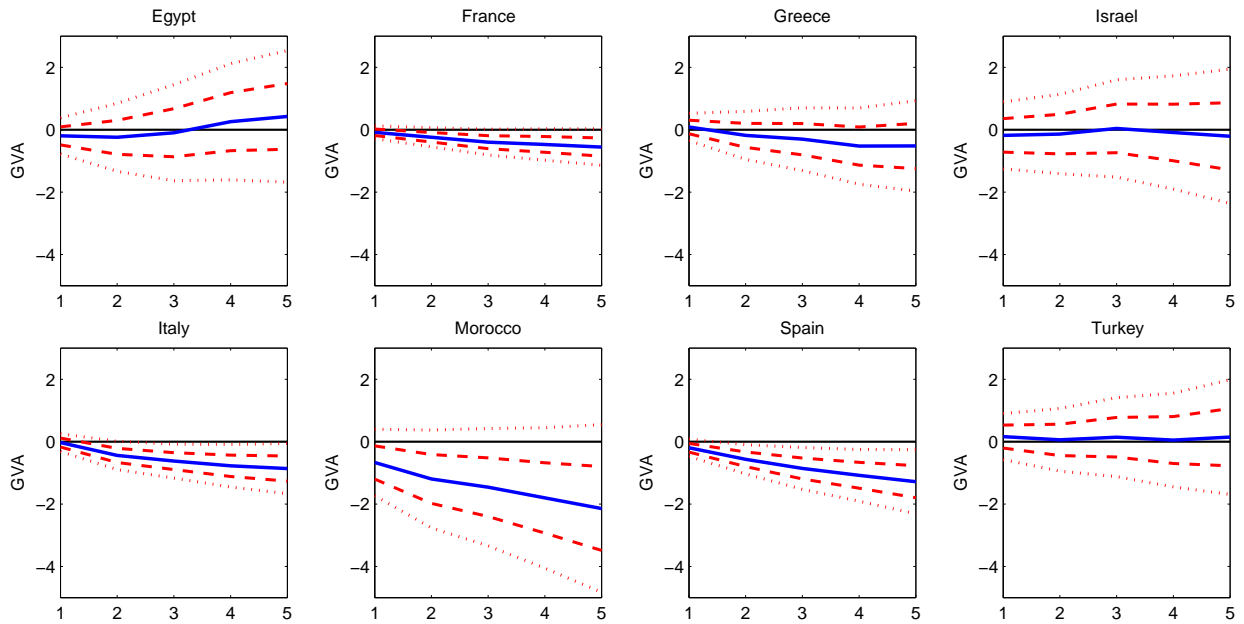
Notes: Energy intensity in 2011 (left axis) is given by total primary energy consumption per dollar of GDP and is expressed in BTU per (2005) U.S. Dollars. The difference in energy intensity between 1981 and 2011 (right axis) is denoted as  $\Delta$  Energy Intensity. Source: EIA - International Energy Statistics.

Figure 4: Response of GVA growth to a 1% exogenous oil supply shock.



Notes: the continuous lines are the responses of GVA growth to a 1% permanent oil supply shock estimated from a distributed lag model of order 5. Dashed (dotted) lines are the one- (two-) standard error bands. These have been computed using 20000 block bootstrap samples (with a block size of 2 years), so as to account for possible serial correlation in the error term.

Figure 5: Response of GVA to a 1% exogenous oil supply shock.



Notes: the continuous lines are the responses of GVA to a 1% permanent oil supply shock estimated from equation (1). Dashed (dotted) lines are the one- (two-) standard error bands. These have been computed using 20000 block bootstrap samples (with a block size of 2 years), so as to account for possible serial correlation in the error term.

## NOTE DI LAVORO DELLA FONDAZIONE ENI ENRICO MATTEI

### Fondazione Eni Enrico Mattei Working Paper Series

Our Note di Lavoro are available on the Internet at the following addresses:

<http://www.feem.it/getpage.aspx?id=73&sez=Publications&padre=20&tab=1>  
[http://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/JELJOUR\\_Results.cfm?form\\_name=journalbrowse&journal\\_id=266659](http://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/JELJOUR_Results.cfm?form_name=journalbrowse&journal_id=266659)  
<http://ideas.repec.org/s/fem/femwpa.html>  
<http://www.econis.eu/LNG=EN/FAM?PPN=505954494>  
<http://ageconsearch.umn.edu/handle/35978>  
<http://www.bepress.com/feem/>

### NOTE DI LAVORO PUBLISHED IN 2015

ERM	1.2015	Elena Verdolini, Laura Diaz Anadon, Jiaqi Lu and Gregory F. Nemet: <a href="#">The Effects of Expert Selection, Elicitation Design, and R&amp;D Assumptions on Experts' Estimates of the Future Costs of Photovoltaics</a>
CCSD	2.2015	James Lennox and Ramiro Parrado: <a href="#">Capital-embodied Technologies in CGE Models</a>
CCSD	3.2015	Claire Gavard and Djamel Kirat: <a href="#">Flexibility in the Market for International Carbon Credits and Price Dynamics Difference with European Allowances</a>
CCSD	4.2015	Claire Gavard: <a href="#">Carbon Price and Wind Power Support in Denmark</a>
CCSD	5.2015	Gunnar Luderer, Christoph Bertram, Katherine Calvin, Enrica De Cian and Elmar Kriegler: <a href="#">Implications of Weak Near-term Climate Policies on Long-term Mitigation Pathways</a>
CCSD	6.2015	Francisco J. André and Luis M. de Castro: <a href="#">Incentives for Price Manipulation in Emission Permit Markets with Stackelberg Competition</a>
CCSD	7.2015	C. Dionisio Pérez Blanco and Thomas Thaler: <a href="#">Water Flows in the Economy. An Input-output Framework to Assess Water Productivity in the Castile and León Region (Spain)</a>
CCSD	8.2015	Carlos M. Gómez and C. Dionisio Pérez-Blanco: <a href="#">Simple Myths and Basic Maths about Greening Irrigation</a>
CCSD	9.2015	Elorri Igos, Benedetto Rugani, Sameer Rege, Enrico Benetto, Laurent Drouet, Dan Zachary and Tom Haas: <a href="#">Integrated Environmental Assessment of Future Energy Scenarios Based on Economic Equilibrium Models</a>
ERM	10.2015	Beatriz Martínez and Hipòlit Torró: <a href="#">European Natural Gas Seasonal Effects on Futures Hedging</a>
CCSD	11.2015	Inge van den Bijgaart: <a href="#">The Unilateral Implementation of a Sustainable Growth Path with Directed Technical Change</a>
CCSD	12.2015	Emanuele Massetti, Robert Mendelsohn and Shun Chonabayashi: <a href="#">Using Degree Days to Value Farmland</a>
CCSD	13.2015	Stergios Athanassoglou: <a href="#">Revisiting Worst-case DEA for Composite Indicators</a>
CCSD	14.2015	Francesco Silvestri and Stefano Ghinoi: <a href="#">Municipal Waste Selection and Disposal: Evidences from Lombardy</a>
CCSD	15.2015	Loïc Berger: <a href="#">The Impact of Ambiguity Prudence on Insurance and Prevention</a>
CCSD	16.2015	Vladimir Otrachshenko and Francesco Bosello: <a href="#">Identifying the Link Between Coastal Tourism and Marine Ecosystems in the Baltic, North Sea, and Mediterranean Countries</a>
ERM	17.2015	Charles F. Mason, Lucija A. Muehlenbachs and Sheila M. Olmstead: <a href="#">The Economics of Shale Gas Development</a>
ERM	18.2015	Anna Alberini and Charles Towe: <a href="#">Information v. Energy Efficiency Incentives: Evidence from Residential Electricity Consumption in Maryland</a>
CCSD	19.2015	ZhongXiang Zhang: <a href="#">Crossing the River by Feeling the Stones: The Case of Carbon Trading in China</a>
CCSD	20.2015	Petterson Molina Vale: <a href="#">The Conservation versus Production Trade-off: Does Livestock Intensification Increase Deforestation? The Case of the Brazilian Amazon</a>
CCSD	21.2015	Valentina Bosetti, Melanie Heugues and Alessandro Tavoni: <a href="#">Luring Others into Climate Action: Coalition Formation Games with Threshold and Spillover Effects</a>
CCSD	22.2015	Francesco Bosello, Elisa Delpiazzi, and Fabio Eboli: <a href="#">Macro-economic Impact Assessment of Future Changes in European Marine Ecosystem Services</a>
CCSD	23.2015	Maryse Labriet, Laurent Drouet, Marc Vielle, Richard Loulou, Amit Kanudia and Alain Haurie: <a href="#">Assessment of the Effectiveness of Global Climate Policies Using Coupled Bottom-up and Top-down Models</a>
CCSD	24.2015	Wei Jin and ZhongXiang Zhang: <a href="#">On the Mechanism of International Technology Diffusion for Energy Technological Progress</a>
CCSD	25.2015	Benjamin Michallet, Giuseppe Lucio Gaeta and François Facchini: <a href="#">Greening Up or Not? The Determinants Political Parties' Environmental Concern: An Empirical Analysis Based on European Data (1970-2008)</a>
CCSD	26.2015	Daniel Bodansky, Seth Hoedl, Gilbert Metcalf and Robert Stavins: <a href="#">Facilitating Linkage of Heterogeneous Regional, National, and Sub-National Climate Policies Through a Future International Agreement</a>
CCSD	27.2015	Giannis Vardas and Anastasios Xepapadeas: <a href="#">Time Scale Externalities and the Management of Renewable Resources</a>
CCSD	28.2015	Todd D. Gerarden, Richard G. Newell, Robert N. Stavins and Robert C. Stowe: <a href="#">An Assessment of the Energy-Efficiency Gap and Its Implications for Climate Change Policy</a>
CCSD	29.2015	Cristina Cattaneo and Emanuele Massetti: <a href="#">Migration and Climate Change in Rural Africa</a>
ERM	30.2015	Simone Tagliapietra: <a href="#">The Future of Renewable Energy in the Mediterranean. Translating Potential into Reality</a>
CCSD	31.2015	Jan Siegmeier, Linus Mattauch, Max Franks, David Klenert, Anselm Schultes and Ottmar Edenhofer: <a href="#">A Public Finance Perspective on Climate Policy: Six Interactions That May Enhance Welfare</a>
CCSD	32.2015	Reyer Gerlagh, Inge van den Bijgaart, Hans Nijland and Thomas Michielsen: <a href="#">Fiscal Policy and CO2 Emissions of New Passenger Cars in the EU</a>
CCSD	33.2015	Marie-Laure Nauleau, Louis-Gaëtan Giraudet and Philippe Quirion: <a href="#">Energy Efficiency Policy with Price-quality Discrimination</a>

CCSD	34.2015	Eftichios S. Sartzetakis, Anastasios Xepapadeas and Athanasios Yannacopoulos: <a href="#">Regulating the Environmental Consequences of Preferences for Social Status within an Evolutionary Framework</a>
CCSD	35.2015	Todd D. Gerarden, Richard G. Newell and Robert N. Stavins: <a href="#">Assessing the Energy-efficiency Gap</a>
CCSD	36.2015	Lorenza Campagnolo and Fabio Eboli: <a href="#">Implications of the 2030 EU Resource Efficiency Target on Sustainable Development</a>
CCSD	37.2015	Max Franks, Ottmar Edenhofer and Kai Lessmann: <a href="#">Why Finance Ministers Favor Carbon Taxes, Even if They Do not Take Climate Change into Account</a>
CCSD	38.2015	ZhongXiang Zhang: <a href="#">Carbon Emissions Trading in China: The Evolution from Pilots to a Nationwide Scheme</a>
CCSD	39.2015	David García-León: <a href="#">Weather and Income: Lessons from the Main European Regions</a>
CCSD	40.2015	Jaroslav Mysiak and C. D. Pérez-Blanco: <a href="#">Partnerships for Affordable and Equitable Disaster Insurance</a>
CCSD	41.2015	S. Surminski, J.C.J.H. Aerts, W.J.W. Botzen, P. Hudson, J. Mysiak and C. D. Pérez-Blanco: <a href="#">Reflections on the Current Debate on How to Link Flood Insurance and Disaster Risk Reduction in the European Union</a>
CCSD	42.2015	Erin Baker, Olaitan Olaleye and Lara Aleluia Reis: <a href="#">Decision Frameworks and the Investment in R&amp;D</a>
CCSD	43.2015	C. D. Pérez-Blanco and C. M. Gómez: <a href="#">Revealing the Willingness to Pay for Income Insurance in Agriculture</a>
CCSD	44.2015	Banchongsan Charoensook: <a href="#">On the Interaction between Player Heterogeneity and Partner Heterogeneity in Two-way Flow Strict Nash Networks</a>
CCSD	45.2015	Erin Baker, Valentina Bosetti, Laura Diaz Anadon, Max Henrion and Lara Aleluia Reis: <a href="#">Future Costs of Key Low-Carbon Energy Technologies: Harmonization and Aggregation of Energy Technology Expert Elicitation Data</a>
CCSD	46.2015	Sushanta Kumar Mahapatra and Keshab Chandra Ratha: <a href="#">Sovereign States and Surging Water: Brahmaputra River between China and India</a>
CCSD	47.2015	Thomas Longden: <a href="#">CO<sub>2</sub> Intensity and the Importance of Country Level Differences: An Analysis of the Relationship Between per Capita Emissions and Population Density</a>
CCSD	48.2015	Jussi Lintunen and Olli-Pekka Kuusela: <a href="#">Optimal Management of Markets for Bankable Emission Permits</a>
CCSD	49.2015	Johannes Emmerling: <a href="#">Uncertainty and Natural Resources - Prudence Facing Doomsday</a>
ERM	50.2015	Manfred Hafner and Simone Tagliapietra: <a href="#">Turkish Stream: What Strategy for Europe?</a>
ERM	51.2015	Thomas Sattich, Inga Ydersbond and Daniel Scholten: <a href="#">Can EU's Decarbonisation Agenda Break the State-Company Axis in the Power Sector?</a>
ERM	52.2015	Alessandro Cologni, Elisa Scarpa and Francesco Giuseppe Sitzia: <a href="#">Big Fish: Oil Markets and Speculation</a>
CCSD	53.2015	Joosung Lee: <a href="#">Multilateral Bargaining in Networks: On the Prevalence of Inefficiencies</a>
CCSD	54.2015	P. Jean-Jacques Herings: <a href="#">Equilibrium and Matching under Price Controls</a>
CCSD	55.2015	Nicole Tabasso: <a href="#">Diffusion of Multiple Information: On Information Resilience and the Power of Segregation</a>
CCSD	56.2015	Diego Cerdeiro, Marcin Dziubinski and Sanjeev Goyal: <a href="#">Contagion Risk and Network Design</a>
CCSD	57.2015	Yann Rébillé and Lionel Richafort: <a href="#">Networks of Many Public Goods with Non-Linear Best Replies</a>
CCSD	58.2015	Achim Hagen and Klaus Eisenack: <a href="#">International Environmental Agreements with Asymmetric Countries: Climate Clubs vs. Global Cooperation</a>
CCSD	59.2015	Ana Mauleon, Nils Roehl and Vincent Vannetelbosch: <a href="#">Constitutions and Social Networks</a>
CCSD	60.2015	Adam N. Walker, Hans-Peter Weikard and Andries Richter: <a href="#">The Rise and Fall of the Great Fish Pact under Endogenous Risk of Stock Collapse</a>
CCSD	61.2015	Fabio Grazi and Henri Waisman: <a href="#">Agglomeration, Urban Growth and Infrastructure in Global Climate Policy: A Dynamic CGE Approach</a>
CCSD	62.2015	Elorri Igos, Benedetto Rugani, Sameer Rege, Enrico Benetto, Laurent Drouet and Dan Zachary: <a href="#">Combination of Equilibrium Models and Hybrid Life Cycle-Input-Output Analysis to Predict the Environmental Impacts of Energy Policy Scenarios</a>
CCSD	63.2015	Delavane B. Diaz: <a href="#">Estimating Global Damages from Sea Level Rise with the Coastal Impact and Adaptation Model (CIAM)</a>
CCSD	64.2015	Delavane B. Diaz: <a href="#">Integrated Assessment of Climate Catastrophes with Endogenous Uncertainty: Does the Risk of Ice Sheet Collapse Justify Precautionary Mitigation?</a>
CCSD	65.2015	Jan Witajewski-Baltvilks, Elena Verdolini and Massimo Tavoni: <a href="#">Bending The Learning Curve</a>
CCSD	66.2015	W. A. Brock and A. Xepapadeas: <a href="#">Modeling Coupled Climate, Ecosystems, and Economic Systems</a>
CCSD	67.2015	Ricardo Nieva: <a href="#">The Coalitional Nash Bargaining Solution with Simultaneous Payoff Demands</a>
CCSD	68.2015	Olivier Durand-Lasserve, Lorenza Campagnolo, Jean Chateau and Rob Dellink: <a href="#">Modelling of Distributional Impacts of Energy Subsidy Reforms: an Illustration with Indonesia</a>
CCSD	69.2015	Simon Levin and Anastasios Xepapadeas: <a href="#">Transboundary Capital and Pollution Flows and the Emergence of Regional Inequalities</a>
CCSD	70.2015	Jaroslav Mysiak, Swenja Surminski, Annegret Thieken, Reinhard Mechler and Jeroen Aerts: <a href="#">Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction – Success or Warning Sign for Paris?</a>
CCSD	71.2015	Massimo Tavoni and Detlef van Vuuren: <a href="#">Regional Carbon Budgets: Do They Matter for Climate Policy?</a>
CCSD	72.2015	Francesco Vona, Giovanni Marin, Davide Consoli and David Popp: <a href="#">Green Skills</a>
CCSD	73.2015	Luca Lambertini, Joanna Poyago-Theotoky and Alessandro Tampieri: <a href="#">Cournot Competition and "Green" Innovation: An Inverted-U Relationship</a>
ES	74.2015	Michele Raitano and Francesco Vona: <a href="#">From the Cradle to the Grave: the Effect of Family Background on the Career Path of Italian Men</a>
ES	75.2015	Davide Carbonai and Carlo Drago: <a href="#">Positive Freedom in Networked Capitalism: An Empirical Analysis</a>
CCSD	76.2015	Wei Jin and ZhongXiang Zhang: <a href="#">Levelling the Playing Field: On the Missing Role of Network Externality in Designing Renewable Energy Technology Deployment Policies</a>
ERM	77.2015	Niaz Bashiri Behmiri and Matteo Manera: <a href="#">The Role of Outliers and Oil Price Shocks on Volatility of Metal Prices</a>
CCSD	78.2015	Jan Witajewski-Baltvilks, Elena Verdolini and Massimo Tavoni: <a href="#">Directed Technological Change and Energy Efficiency Improvements</a>

ES	79.2015	David Cuberes and Rafael González-Val: <a href="#">The Effect of the Spanish Reconquest on Iberian Cities</a>
CCSD	80.2015	Isabella Alloisio, Alessandro Antimiani, Simone Borghesi, Enrica De Cian, Maria Gaeta, Chiara Martini, Ramiro Parrado, Maria Cristina Tommasino, Elena Verdolini and Maria Rosa Virdis: <a href="#">Pathways to Deep Carbonization in Italy</a>
CCSD	81.2015	Yonky Indrajaya, Edwin van der Werf, Hans-Peter Weikard, Frits Mohren and Ekko C. van Ierland: <a href="#">The Potential of REDD+ for Carbon Sequestration in Tropical Forests: Supply Curves for carbon storage for Kalimantan, Indonesia</a>
ES	82.2015	Carlo Drago, Roberto Ricciuti, Paolo Santella: <a href="#">An Attempt to Disperse the Italian Interlocking Directorship Network: Analyzing the Effects of the 2011 Reform</a>
CCSD	83.2015	Joseph E. Aldy: <a href="#">Policy Surveillance in the G-20 Fossil Fuel Subsidies Agreement: Lessons for Climate Policy</a>
CCSD	84.2015	Milan Ščasný, Emanuele Massetti, Jan Melichar and Samuel Carrara: <a href="#">Quantifying the Ancillary Benefits of the Representative Concentration Pathways on Air Quality in Europe</a>
CCSD	85.2015	Frédéric Branger and Misato Sato: <a href="#">Solving the Clinker Dilemma with Hybrid Output-based Allocation</a>
ERM	86.2015	Manfred Hafner and Simone Tagliapietra: <a href="#">The Role of Natural Gas in the EU Decarbonisation Path</a>
CCSD	87.2015	Cristina Cattaneo and Giovanni Peri: <a href="#">The Migration Response to Increasing Temperatures</a>
CCSD	88.2015	Maximilian Schumacher and Lion Hirth: <a href="#">How much Electricity do we Consume? A Guide to German and European Electricity Consumption and Generation Data</a>
CCSD	89.2015	Lorenza Campagnolo, Carlo Carraro, Fabio Eboli, Luca Farnia: <a href="#">Assessing SDGs: A new methodology to measure sustainability</a>
CCSD	90.2015	Carlo Reggiani, Francesco Silvestri: <a href="#">Municipal Waste Collection: Market Competition and the EU policy</a>
ERM	91.2015	Maryam Ahmad, Matteo Manera, Mehdi Sadeghzadeh: <a href="#">Global Oil Market and the U.S. Stock Returns</a>
CCSD	92.2015	Mattia Amadio, Jaroslav Mysiak, Lorenzo Carrera, Elco Koks: <a href="#">Improving Flood Damage Assessment Models in Italy</a>
CCSD	93.2015	Sabine Fuss, Claudine Chen, Michael Jakob, Annika Marxen, Narasimha D. Rao, Ottmar Edenhofer: <a href="#">Could Resource Rents Finance Universal Access to Infrastructure? A First Exploration of Needs and Rents</a>
CCSD	94.2015	Michael Jakob, Claudine Chen, Sabine Fuss, Annika Marxen, Narasimha Rao, Ottmar Edenhofer: <a href="#">Using Carbon Pricing Revenues to Finance Infrastructure Access</a>
CCSD	95.2015	ZhongXiang Zhang: <a href="#">Making China the Transition to a Low-Carbon Economy: Key Challenges and Responses</a>
CCSD	96.2015	Roberto Iacono: <a href="#">The Basilicata Wealth Fund: Resource Policy and Long-run Economic Development in Southern Italy</a>
CCSD	97.2015	Francesco Bosello, Shouro Dasgupta: <a href="#">Development, Climate Change Adaptation, and Maladaptation: Some Econometric Evidence</a>
CCSD	98.2015	Valentina Bosetti, Giacomo Marangoni, Emanuele Borgonovo, Laura Diaz Anadon, Robert Barron, Haewon C. McJeon, Savvas Politis, Paul Friley: <a href="#">Sensitivity to Energy Technology Costs: A Multi-model Comparison Analysis</a>
ERM	99.2015	Andrea Bastianin, Francesca Conti, Matteo Manera: <a href="#">The Impacts of Oil Price Shocks on Stock Market Volatility: Evidence from the G7 Countries</a>
ERM	100.2015	Andrea Bastianin, Marzio Galeotti, Matteo Manera: <a href="#">The Impacts of Exogenous Oil Supply Shocks on Mediterranean Economies</a>