

# **INDICATORS OF MATERIAL FLOWS: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK, USE AND ASSESSMENT OF TRENDS IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC**

## **1. Socio-economic metabolism**

*In order for an economic system to function and produce goods and services necessary for meeting human needs, it behaves similarly to a living organism. It absorbs substances from the surrounding environment and transforms them into products, but ultimately all the materials are transformed into some kind of waste and emitted back into the environment. The economic system above all absorbs fossil fuels, other mineral resources, biomass and water on the input side while emits emissions to the air, water and solid wastes on the output side. This flow of materials is referred to as an industrial or socio-economic metabolism (Baccini and Brunner, 1991; Fischer-Kowalski and Haberl, 1993; Ayres and Simonis, 1994).*

*The theory of socio-economic metabolism considers socio-economic system to be a sub-system of the environment connected to its surroundings through energy and material flows. These flows burden the environment and along with land use and other biological and social factors they belong to the key source of environmental problems. If the volume of these flows was reduced, a decrease in environmental pressure could be expected (Schmidt-Bleek, 1993; Bringezu et al., 2003; Weizsäcker et al., 2009).*

*Environmental pressure is already related to the extraction of mineral resources. The crude oil extraction involves leakages both during extraction phase and oil transportation. The negative impacts on the environment take place during the underground and surface extraction of minerals as well (Neužil, 2001). These impacts include air emissions (mostly of CO, CO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>3</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub>, NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, and PM), disturbance of water regimes and water contamination, land appropriation and contamination, direct disturbance of biotopes, noise, vibrations and changes in landscape. Other pressures are related to pre-processing of minerals – sorting, crushing, rinsing and drying.*

*Much bigger environmental burden is related to the consumption of mineral resources. It is besides others caused by the fact that while number of mineral resources entering the economic system is limited, the number of pollutants emitted due to the consumption of minerals has been growing (Spangenberg et al., 1999). Moreover, these pollutants enter the environment by huge number of gateways: each dumping place, each smokestack and each exhaust pipe presents such a gateway. Consumption of mineral resources contribute, for instance, to global climate change, depletion of stratospheric ozone, eutrophication, acidification, radioactive pollution, etc. (Giljum et al., 2005).*

*The environment is able, to some extent, to neutralize the environmental pressure imposed on it by human society in relation with the consumption of materials. If the rate of use of renewable resources is lower than the rate of their renewal, or wastes are emitted in such volumes, which can be absorbed by the environment, any severe damage to the environment should not take place (Bringezu and Bleischwitz, 2009). This rate is, however, often exceeded (World Resource Institute, 2005) and there is a problem with non-renewable resources. Their sustainable rate of use is difficult to determine, above all with respect to their maintenance for future generations.*

*So far, there has been a positive relation between meeting human needs and pressure exerted on the environment. When standards of living went up, this pressure was growing as well, even though it was often shifted abroad in the case of developed countries (import of resources or transfer of “dirty” industries to developing countries). The environment of developed countries was thus cleaned up (Giljum et al., 2009; Schütz et al., 2004). On the global level, however, the human society recorded an unprecedented growth in annual material and energy inputs and outputs over the 20th century (Krausman et al., 2009). As argued above, this was also accompanied with the growth of environmental pressure. Developed countries within their strategies of sustainable development therefore adopted a goal to break the relation between pressure exerted on the environment and economic growth, i.e. to meet human needs and improve the standard of living. This phenomenon is shortly called decoupling (from longer “decoupling of environmental pressure from economic growth”) (Fischer-Kowalski et al., 2011; OECD, 2002).*

## **2. Economy-wide material flow analysis, meaning and use of material flow indicators**

*Material flow analysis belongs among the methods, which allow for quantification of socio-economic metabolism and assessment of environmental pressures related to the use of materials. Nowadays, the attention is drawn to economy-wide material flow analysis (EW-MFA). EW-MFA was developed during the 1990s by various research institutes and organizations (principally the World Resources Institute, the*

Wuppertal Institute for Climate, Environment and Energy, the Department of Social Ecology at the Faculty for Interdisciplinary Studies of the University in Klagenfurt, Japanese National Institute for Environmental Studies, and Eurostat). Afterwards, EW-MFA was standardized in methodological guides of Eurostat (Eurostat, 2001, 2018).

The Czech Statistical Office focused on compilation of indicators of material input and material consumption. These are the best developed ones from the methodological point of view and are based on available data. Methodology for their compilation is described in the methodological chapter. Below is the summary of their possible uses (OECD, 2008):

### **Overall physical scale of the economy and total environmental pressure related to use of materials**

To study overall physical scale of the economy over time, it is advisable to refer to material flow indicators in absolute terms. These indicators are considered proxies for environmental pressure related to use of materials and energy.

### **Equity and equal resource sharing**

Relating material flow indicators to population allows for a comparison of material use and disposal of pollutants from the viewpoint of equity and equal resource sharing. Generally speaking, all people should have equal rights to consume natural resources and use the environment for assimilation of waste flows (Moldan (ed.), 1993).

### **Land use intensity**

Consumption of materials can be related to the area needed for materials production. This issue has above all been developed for renewable resources and is well-known as a concept of Ecological Footprint (Wackernagel et al., 1996) and Human Appropriation of Net Primary Production (Vitousek et al., 1986). For cities, area for production of consumed materials is always larger than the area of a particular city. This is caused by high population density and low share of bioproductive areas. For countries and regions, the situation may be reverse.

### **Efficiency of use of materials and decoupling of environmental pressure from economic growth**

Relating input and consumption material flow indicators to national account aggregates, such as gross domestic product (GDP), allows for measuring the efficiency by which an economic system transforms used materials into economic output. Such indicators reflect material productivity, i.e. the ratio of GDP over the material flow indicator, or material intensity, i.e. the ratio of the material flow indicator over GDP. These two measures are compatible with the inverse time development.

Assessment of material intensity and productivity is complementary to analysis of decoupling of environmental pressure from economic growth (see text above). Decoupling can be relative or absolute. When a relative decoupling occurs, there is a decrease in material consumption per unit of GDP, but the absolute material consumption is still growing. When an absolute decoupling occurs, the economy is growing while the absolute volume of resource consumption goes down. We should aim at absolute decoupling, as total environmental pressure is determined by absolute material consumption.

### **Shifting of environmental pressure between states and world regions**

Many industrialized countries have decreased their amounts of domestically extracted and processed materials by importing them from other countries. The shift of pressure related to extraction and processing of these materials has taken place between states and world regions mainly to the detriment of developing countries (Giljum et al., 2009; Schütz et. al., 2004). To capture these shifts, it is necessary to study physical import and export and related flows.

### **Foreign material dependency and material security**

Material flow indicators can be further used for monitoring of foreign material dependency. Economies fulfil their material demands partly from their own territory and partly by importing materials from other countries. The higher the share of import in domestic material input and domestic material consumption is, the more the economy is susceptible to incidental shortage of particular commodities abroad, increase in their price or to upheaval of other barriers to foreign trade.

### **Potential for future waste flows**

All input material flows, which are going to be accumulated in form of physical stocks, will change into waste flows sooner or later. Knowing the volume of physical stocks in particular cities, regions and states and their durability, one can model waste flows to come. This is useful for planning of capacities for waste treatment within the waste management plans both in short, medium and long-term perspective.

### **Use of renewable and non-renewable materials**

It is acknowledged internationally that the sustainable supply of materials should be based on renewable materials to a certain extent. This refers not only to scarcity of non-renewable materials but also to the fact that use of non-renewable materials is generally linked to comparatively higher negative impact on the

environment (EEA, 2006). This issue can be captured by input and consumption material flow indicators by monitoring ratios of renewable materials in particular indicators.

### **3. Assessment of development of selected material flow indicators in the Czech Republic in 2017-2022**

The used domestic extraction went up by 1.5% from 159.9 million tonnes to 162.3 million tonnes in 2017-2022 (Table 1). An increase was quite significant in 2017-2019 when used domestic extraction went up by 4.2% from 159.9 million tonnes to 166.7 million tonnes, but a decrease to 162 million tonnes occurred in 2020, which could be attributed to dampening of the economy due to ongoing COVID-19 pandemic. In 2021, however, used domestic extraction increased by 1.2% from 162 million tonnes to 163.9 million tonnes and it went down by 0.9% from 136.9 million tonnes to 162.3 million tonnes in 2022. It is meaningful to relate used domestic extraction to the area of the Czech Republic – it expresses pressure coming from the extraction of resources exerted on one unit of the country's area. This pressure increased from 2 028 tonnes per km<sup>2</sup> to 2 058 tonnes per km<sup>2</sup> in 2017-2022. The pressure covers structural changes of landscape related to extraction of non-renewable resources (moving of overburden, undermining) and pressures on biodiversity and land use in the case of extraction of renewable resources (above all when producing biomass in large-scale agro-ecosystems).

Breakdown of used domestic extraction by groups of materials shows that the overall increase was caused by renewable resources, which went up by 26.9% from 38.1 million tonnes to 48.3 million tonnes over the whole period and by 11.2% from 43.5 million tonnes to 48.3 million tonnes in the crisis year of 2020. In 2021 and 2022, on the other hand, used domestic extraction of renewable resources decreased by 12.7% from 48.3 million tonnes to 42.2 million tonnes. Apart from biomass from agriculture, which increased by 2.9% from 26.6 million tonnes in 2017 to 27.4 million tonnes in 2022, an upward trend was especially visible for biomass from forestry, which went up by 29.4% from 11.4 million tonnes to 14.7 million tonnes. An increase above all occurred in 2018-2020, when biomass from forestry went up to 20.7 million tonnes, which could be associated with the ongoing bark beetle calamity. In 2021 and 2022, a drop occurred to above mentioned 14.7 million tonnes, which caused the overall decrease in used domestic extraction of renewable resources after 2020. A decrease was recorded also for two remaining groups of renewable resources in 2017-2022: biomass from hunting by 8.5% from 17.6 thousand tonnes to 16.1 thousand tonnes and biomass from other activities by 14.1% from 53.3 thousand tonnes to 45.8 thousand tonnes. It should be noted that absolute values of biomass from hunting and biomass from other activities were very low so they influenced the trend of production of renewable resources only insignificantly. Non-renewable resources recorded a decrease by 1.4% from 121.8 million tonnes to 120.1 million tonnes in 2017-2022 and the decrease was once again most significant in 2020 (by 7.8% from 123.2 million tonnes to 113.7 million tonnes). Fossil fuels contributed to this decrease, as their used domestic extraction went down by 21.5% from 44.2 million tonnes to 34.9 million tonnes in 2017-2022, as well as industrial minerals, which extraction decreased by 11.7% from 11.5 million tonnes to 10.1 million tonnes. On the other hand, the used domestic extraction of construction minerals increased in 2017-2022, including year 2020. It went up by 14% from 65.9 million tonnes to 75.1 million tonnes in total. The extraction of metal ores, which only included extraction of uranium ores, was totally suppressed and went down by 100% from 12 thousand tonnes in 2017 to zero in 2018.

Physical import recorded an increase by 1.5% from 78.5 million tonnes to 79.6 million tonnes in 2017-2022 and similarly as in the case of used domestic extraction the physical import grew in 2017-2019 (by 3.4% from 78.5 million tonnes to 81.1 million tonnes). After that, it dropped down by 9.9% to 73.1 million tonnes in 2020, which was a lower volume than in 2017, then it increased once again by 11% to 81.2 million tonnes in 2021, which was a volume somewhat higher than in 2019, and finally it went down by 2.1% to 79.6 million tonnes in 2022. This development indicated that ongoing COVID-19 pandemic influenced not only a consumption of domestic resources, but also a consumption of resources from import. Physical export recorded a growth by 4.2% from 71 million tonnes to 74 million tonnes in 2017-2022 and the volume of export was approximately the same in 2019 and 2020. The growth happened especially in 2017-2021 (by 10.6% from 71 million tonnes to 78.5 million tonnes), while there was a decrease by 5.8% to above mentioned 74 million tonnes (Table 2). Physical import can be viewed as a first indication of environmental pressure, which is shifted from importing countries to exporting ones – production of this import is related to environmental pressure in the exporting country (pressure from extraction of resources and production of commodities) and the driving force of this pressure is the importing country, which demands these commodities. Similarly, the physical export indicates shifts of environmental pressure from abroad to the Czech Republic. The shifts of environmental pressure from the Czech Republic to other countries as well as the shifts of environmental pressure from abroad to the Czech Republic were increasing in the monitored period.

The growth of physical import in 2017-2021 was mostly caused by non-metallic minerals, which went up by 27% from 8.3 million tonnes to 10.6 million tonnes. Other groups of materials grew only mildly, and biomass even went slightly down. A decrease in physical import in 2022 was mostly caused by metal ores, which

went down by 8.1% from 22.9 million tonnes to 21 million tonnes. An increase in total physical export was determined by biomass above all, which went up by 22.2% from 26.9 million tonnes to 32.9 million tonnes over the whole monitored period. An increase by 13.1% from 32.1 million tonnes to 36.3 million tonnes occurred even in 2020 in the case of biomass while there was a decrease by 9.4% from 36.3 million tonnes to 32.9 million tonnes in 2021 and 2022. An increase of physical export was recorded also for other groups of materials with the exception of fossil fuels, which export declined over the whole monitored period (by 23% from 11 million tonnes to 8.5 million tonnes in total), and metal ores, which went down by 4.7% from 18 million tonnes to 17.1 million tonnes. The highest increase occurred in the case of waste export in the relative terms, as it went up more than 8 times from 151 tonnes to 1 275 tonnes. Similarly to used domestic extraction of biomass from hunting and biomass from other activities, however, the absolute mass of waste was very small and influenced the total volume and trend of physical import (and also of physical export) only insignificantly.

Both DMI and DMC indicators increased by 1.5% from 238.4 million tonnes to 242 million tonnes and by 0.4% from 167.4 million tonnes to 168 million tonnes, respectively, in 2017-2022. Considering that the population of the Czech Republic grew approximately by 170 thousand over the monitored period (Czech Statistical Office, 2023), DMI remained at the similar level expressed in per capita terms while DMC decreased a bit from 15.8 tonnes per capita to 15.6 tonnes per capita. DMI and DMC in absolute values recorded a growth between 2017 and 2019, then a decrease in 2020, a growth again in 2021 and finally a slight decrease for DMI and a slight growth for DMC in 2022 (Table 3).

DMI and DMC can be understood as proxies for total environmental pressure related to use of materials in the Czech Republic (pressure related to extraction of raw materials, their processing and output waste flows). The DMC indicator represents pressure, which is driven by the consumption in the Czech Republic while the DMI also comprises pressure, which is driven by consumption in the countries the Czech Republic exports to. The DMC indicator is further interpreted as a waste potential, because all consumed materials will turn into waste eventually. This shows the linkage between input and output indicators of material flows and the fact that the only way to effectively decrease output material flows is to reduce material consumption. DMI and DMC increased in the monitored period, it means that there was an increase in environmental pressure driven by consumption in countries we export to, as well as an increase in environmental pressure related to material consumption in the Czech Republic. At the same time, the potential for waste flows in the years to come went up.

Non-metallic minerals are the most significant material group of DMI in absolute values (their share in DMI was 36% in 2017 and 39.5% in 2022). DMI of non-metallic minerals had a similar trend as total DMI, i.e. an increase by 6.9% from 85.7 million tonnes to 91.7 million tonnes in 2017-2019, then a decrease by 0.9% from 91.7 million tonnes to 90.9 million tonnes in 2020, an increase by 6.7% from 90.9 million tonnes to 97 million tonnes in 2021 and finally a decrease by 1% from 97 million tonnes to 96 million tonnes in 2022. A similar trend was recorded also for metallic minerals and other unspecified products. On the other hand, biomass went up both in 2017-2019 and 2020 (by 18% from 52.1 million tonnes to 61.5 million tonnes in total) and then recorded a decrease by 8.6% from 61.5 million tonnes to 56.2 million tonnes in 2021 and 2022. Fossil fuels were decreasing in both 2017-2019 and 2020 (by 21.4% from 72.3 million tonnes to 56.8 million tonnes in total) while they grew by 10.4% from 56.8 million tonnes to 62.7 million tonnes in 2021 and 2022. A growth in the case of DMC was above all caused by non-metallic minerals in 2017-2019, which increased by 6.6% from 75.5 million tonnes to 81.6 million tonnes in this period. A decrease of DMC in 2020 was especially caused by a decrease of fossil fuels by 18.3% from 59.7 million tonnes in 2019 to 48.7 million tonnes in 2020. A growth in DMC in 2021 and 2022 can be above all attributed to non-metallic minerals, which increased by 6.3% from 81.4 million tonnes to 86.5 million tonnes, and partly to fossil fuels, which went up by 11.2% from 48.7 million tonnes to 54.2 million tonnes. Waste constitutes a special item, which fluctuated quite a lot both in the case of DMI and DMC, but their volume was very small in absolute values and thus influenced the total trend of the indicators only insignificantly. Since physical export of waste was higher compared to physical import of waste in 2020 and 2021, DMC indicator showed a negative value for this material group in these years (Tables 4 and 5).

Share of renewable resources (biomass) in DMI went up from 21.9% to 23.2% while it decreased in DMC from 15.1% to 13.9% over the monitored period. Taking into account that consumption of renewable resource is usually related to lower environmental impacts, this trend can be considered favourable for DMI and unfavourable for DMC. In addition, a decrease in the share of fossil fuels is favourable, since consumption of fossil fuels is related to emissions of greenhouse gases, which contributes to global climate change. The share of fossil fuels in DMI and DMC went down from 30.3% to 25.9% and from 36.6% to 32.3%, respectively, in 2017-2022.

Material intensity expressed as DMI to GDP ratio went down by 4.7% from 47.8 kg per 1 000 CZK to 47.3 kg per 1 000 CZK, material intensity expressed as DMC to GDP ratio decreased by 5.8% from 33.6 kg per 1 000 CZK to 31.6 kg per 1 000 CZK in 2017-2022. Material productivity expressed as GDP per DMI and

DMC, which time development is an inverse of the time development of material intensity, went up by 4.9% from 20.9 kg per 1 000 CZK to 22 kg per 1 000 CZK in the case of DMI and by 6.1% from 29.8 kg per 1 000 CZK to 31.6 kg per 1 000 CZK in the case of DMC (Tables 4 and 5). It can be assumed from the decrease in material intensity and the increase in material productivity that the efficiency by which an economic system transformed used materials into economic output was growing and that there was a decrease of environmental pressure per unit of GDP. This was allowed by implementation of modern technologies, changes in structure of the economy and by an increase in recycling. Moreover, it is also possible to assume a growing competitiveness due to decrease in production costs related to purchasing of raw materials and other materials needed for production. There is currently a discussion if GDP is a proper indicator to calculate material intensity and productivity. In order to maintain consistency an indicator should be used, which contains similar items in monetary units that are comprised in material flow indicators in physical units. Alternative indicators to GDP, which are mentioned in these discussions, include, for instance, economic output or GDP plus import for DMI and GDP plus import minus export for DMC (OECD, 2008; Hirschnitz-Garbers et al., 2014).

DMI and DMC indicators can be represented in a single graph together with GDP, when an index value of 100 is attributed to all indicators for the starting year and the percentage change of this index is shown for the following years. This allows for expression of decoupling of environmental pressure (represented by DMI and DMC, respectively) from economic growth (represented by GDP) (Graph 10), which is mentioned in the previous chapter. There was a relative decoupling in the Czech Republic in 2017-2022 in the case of DMI and DMC: both indicators increased over the whole period, but GDP went up even more than DMI and DMC. A notable development occurred in 2020 when DMI decreased less than GDP (by 5.1% while GDP decreased by 5.8%). It means that there was no decoupling in the case of DMI in this year. On the other hand, DMC recorded a relative decoupling, since this indicator decreased more than GDP (by 7.5% as compared to 5.8%). It can be claimed that it is necessary to achieve an absolute decoupling for an absolute reduction of environmental pressure.

The PTB indicator decreased by 24% from 7.5 million tonnes to 5.7 million tonnes over the whole monitored period 2017-2022. A decrease by 33.7% from 7.5 million tonnes to 5 million tonnes occurred in 2017-2019, but next pronounced decrease to -3 million tonnes followed in 2020. This drop was caused by the fact that physical import went significantly down this year, but physical export stagnated. Since the volume of physical export was higher compared to physical import, PTB is negative in 2020. In 2021 and 2022, physical import again reached a higher level than physical export, which was the reason why physical trade balance became positive again. In per capita expression, PTB ranged from -284.7 kilograms to 705.1 kilograms per capita (Table 6). The PTB indicator indicates whether there are shifts of environmental pressure from the Czech Republic abroad and vice versa. It is possible to assume from the positive values that, with the exception of 2020, there was a net export of environmental pressure (the pressure exerted by the Czech Republic abroad by import was bigger than the pressure exerted on the Czech Republic by foreign countries by their export). This fact could be controversial from the viewpoint of sustainable development. The PTB indicator further shows foreign material dependency of the Czech Republic. When PTB shows high positive values, the country may encounter problems if there is a scarcity or a steep increase in prices of commodities on international markets.

Looking at the PTB material categories, fossil fuels and metal ores recorded the most positive values, but positive values were also recorded for other unspecified products. These commodities have to be imported, because their sources are either insufficient in the Czech Republic or their mining is not profitable. PTB of fossil fuels grew by 13.1% in 2017-2022, PTB of metal ores decreased by 13.1% while PTB of other unspecified products decreased by 65.9%. On the other hand, PTB of biomass recorded significantly negative values, which further decreased by 44.3% between 2017 and 2022. Physical trade balance was negative also for non-metallic minerals with the exception of 2021 and 2022 and for waste in 2020-2022.

DMI and DMC are internally inconsistent indicators, as one of their parts – used domestic extraction – is accounted for in terms of raw materials while physical import and export are accounted for in terms of products. It can therefore happen that a country decreases its material consumption measured by DMI and DMC by ceasing manufacturing of some products from domestic raw materials and importing them from abroad. It can be allowed by the fact that the weight of raw materials, which needs to be extracted for manufacturing and which is accounted for under used domestic extraction, is always higher than the weight of manufactured products, which are parts of physical import and export. This is true because a part of extracted raw materials is transformed into waste flows already during manufacturing and a part is used for covering energy needs of manufacturing. In order to overcome these distortions in measuring material consumption new indicators have currently been under development, which include imported and exported products in terms of all raw materials needed for their manufacturing, i.e. in terms of raw material equivalents (RME). These indicators are called Raw Material Input (RMI), which is calculated as a sum of used domestic extraction and raw material equivalents of import, and Raw Material Consumption (RMC), which is calculated as used domestic extraction plus raw material equivalents of import minus raw material

equivalents of export. RMC is also called Material Footprint (MF) and belongs to the same group of indicators as Carbon Footprint (CF) and Ecological Footprint (EF). RME of import and export can be used also for calculation of physical trade balance and evaluation of shifts of environmental pressures between countries, which is more precise than using PTB based on the simple weight of import and export.

Methodology of calculation of raw material equivalents of import and export has still been under development by various international institutions and research organizations. Eurostat is currently the most advanced as regards implementation of the standardized approach for calculation, as it has been involved in this kind of research since 2009. Eurostat developed a model calculating RME, RMI and RMC for the European Union as a whole. It also developed a country tool based on this model, which allows for an estimation of raw material equivalents for particular EU countries. This is the reason why, in 2018, Eurostat could include data entries on physical import and export in terms of RME into a questionnaire by which it collects data on material flows from EU countries. This part of the questionnaire, however, is voluntary for the time being. Details on the Eurostat RME project, material consumption in the EU in terms of RME and about the country tool can be found at [https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=Material\\_flow\\_accounts\\_statistics\\_-\\_material\\_footprints#Accounting\\_for\\_trade\\_flows\\_in\\_terms\\_of\\_raw\\_materials\\_equivalents](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=Material_flow_accounts_statistics_-_material_footprints#Accounting_for_trade_flows_in_terms_of_raw_materials_equivalents).

The country tool was also used by the Czech Statistical Office in 2023, which delivered the first official estimation of the raw material equivalents of import and export for the Czech Republic ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/env\\_ac\\_rme/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/env_ac_rme/default/table?lang=en)). The results show that raw material equivalents of import and export, respectively, are approximately 2.5 times higher in the Czech Republic compared to the simple weight of imported/exported commodities. The largest part of raw material equivalents of import was composed of metal ores in 2020 while raw material equivalents of export was dominated by fossil fuels. The second position was held by fossil fuels followed by non-metallic minerals for raw material equivalents of import and by non-metallic minerals followed by biomass for raw material equivalents of export. The smallest part of raw material equivalents was biomass for import and metal ores for export. Due to increase in weight of raw material equivalents of import compared to the simple weight of import, RMI indicator was by 43.9% higher compared to DMI indicator. On the other hand, RMC only was by 8.6% higher compared to DMC, as an increase in raw material equivalents of import and export was partly cancelled out during the calculation of RMC.

## Použitá literatura / References

1. Ayres, R. U., Simonis, L. (1994): Industrial metabolism: Restructuring for sustainable development. UNU Press, Tokyo.
2. Baccini, P., Brunner, P., H. (1991): Metabolism of the anthroposphere. Springer Verlag, Berlin, New York, Tokio.
3. Bringezu, S., Bleischwitz, R. (2009): Sustainable resource management. Global trends, visions and policies. Greenleaf Publishing, Sheffield.
4. Bringezu, S., Schütz, H., Moll, S. (2003): Rationale for and interpretation of economy-wide material flow analysis and derived indicators. *Journal of Industrial Ecology* 2 (7): 43-64.
5. Czech Statistical Office (2023): Czech demographic handbook – 2022. Czech Statistical Office, Prague.
6. Czech Statistical Office, yearly national accounts, internet application: <http://dw.czso.cz/pls/rocenka/rocenka.indexnu>
7. EEA (2006): Sustainable use and management of natural resources. European Environment Agency, Copenhagen.
8. Eurostat (2001): Economy-wide material flow accounts and derived indicators. A methodological Guide. Eurostat, Luxembourg.
9. Eurostat (2018): Economy-wide material flow accounts handbook. Eurostat, Luxembourg.
10. Fischer-Kowalski, M., Haberl, H. (1993): Metabolism and colonization. Modes of production and the physical exchange between societies and nature. *Innovation: The European Journal of Social Sciences* 6 (4): 415-442.
11. Fischer-Kowalski, M., Weizsäcker, E.U., Ren, Y., Moriguchi, Y., Crane, W., Krausman, F., Eisenmenger, N., Giljum, S., Hennicke, P., Romeo Lankao, P., Siriban Manalang, A., Sewerin, S., 2011. Decoupling Natural Resource Use and Environmental Impacts from Economic Growth. A Report of the Working Group on Decoupling to the International Resource Panel. United Nations Environment Programme, Geneva.
12. Giljum, S., Hinterberger, F., Bruckner, M., Burger, E., Frühman, J., Lutter, S., Pirgmaier, E., Polzin, C., Waxwender, H., Kernegger, L., Warhurst, M. (2009): Overconsumption? Our use of the world's natural resources. Sustainable Europe Research Institute, GLOBAL 2000. Friends of the Earth Europe, Vienna.
13. Giljum, S., Hak, T., Hinterberger, F. and Kovanda, J. (2005): Environmental governance in the European Union: strategies and instruments for absolute decoupling. *Int. J. Sustainable Development* 8 (1/2): 31–46.
14. Hirschnitz-Garbers, M., Srebotnjak, T., Gradmann, A., Lutter, S., Giljum, S. (2014): Further development of material and raw material input indicators – Methodological discussion and approaches for consistent data sets. Input paper for expert workshop. Ecologic Institute and WU Wien, Berlin.
15. Krausmann F., Gingrich S., Eisenmenger N., Erb KH., Haberl H., Fischer-Kowalski M. (2009): Growth in global materials use, GDP and population during the 20th century. *Ecological Economics* 68: 2696–705.
16. Moldan, B. (ed.) (1993): UN Conference on the environment and development. Documents and commentaries. Management Press, Prague.
17. Neužil, M. (2001): Influence of underground mining on the environment. *Reporter of EIA* VI, 3, s. 5-9.
18. OECD (2002): Indicators to measure decoupling of environmental pressures from economic growth. OECD, Paris.
19. OECD (2008): The OECD guide: Measuring material flows and resource productivity. OECD, Paris.
20. Schmidt-Bleek, F. (1994): *Wieviel Umwelt braucht der Mensch? MIPS – Das Mass für ökologisches Wirtschaften*. Birkhäuser Verlag, Berlin, Basel, Boston.

21. Schütz, H., Moll, S., Bringezu, S. (2004): Globalisation and the shifting environmental burden. Material trade flows of the European Union. Wuppertal Papers 134, Wuppertal.
22. Spangenberg, J. H., Femia, A., Hinterberger, F., Schütz, H. (1999): Material flow-based indicators in environmental reporting. European Environment Agency, Copenhagen.
23. Vitousek, P., M., Ehrlich, P., R., Ehrlich, A., H., and Matson, P., A. (1986): Human appropriation of products of photosynthesis. *Bioscience* 36: 368-373.
24. Wackernagel, M. et. Rees, W. (1996): Our ecological footprint. Reducing human impact on the Earth. Gabriola Island, BC, New Society Publishers.
25. Weizsäcker, E.U., Hargroves, K., Smith, M.H., Desha, C., Stasinopoulos, P. (2009): Factor five. Transforming the global economy through 80% improvements in resource productivity. Earthscan, London.
26. World Resource Institute (2005): Millennium ecosystem assessment. Ecosystems and human well-being: Synthesis. Island Press, Washington, D.C.