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ABSTRACT

The years after the end of the Cold War have brought dramatic changes to the existing security architecture. New threats have been posed and still greatly challenge all national or collective security systems. The transformation of defence systems, upgrading of other elements and parts of national security systems and the passing of new doctrinal and strategic documents were just a few important steps toward eliminating threats, however in many cases more sophisticated and indirect threats are arising. Among them is the question of energy security. Growing energy consumption on one side and scarce resources for energy production lead more and more into energy dependence. Energy has become vital for normal economic production and consequently for the well-being of nations. It has enormous consequences on many other fields of national security, like food security, environmental questions, and sustainable development... Because of these facts, the European Union (EU) began to deal with this new phenomenon by accepting general strategic documents, passing new policies on the issue, and imposing new directives and requirements on the Member States. But common actions of the EU in the area of energy security are still not possible. Many Member States deal with this issue through bilateral agreements that do not improve general energy security for the EU.

KEY WORDS: European Union, energy security, natural resources, consumption.

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POVZETEK

Leta po koncu hladne vojne so prinesla pretresljive spremembe v dotedanji varnostni strukturi. Pojavile so se nove grožnje, ki ostajajo izziv za vse nacionalne kot tudi kolektivne varnostne sisteme. Čeprav se pojavljajo še bolj specifične in posredne grožnje, so bili najbolj pomembni koraki kodpravi groženj spremembe nacionalnih obrambnih sistemov, nadgradnja različnih delov in elementov nacionalnih varnostnih sistemov ter sprejemanje novih doktrinalnih in strateških dokumentov. Ena izmed groženj je vprašanje energetske varnosti. Naraščajoča energetska potrošnja na eni strani in omejeni viri za proizvodnjo energije na drugi strani, vedno bolj vodijo v energetske odvisnosti. Energija je postala ključnega pomena za normalno gospodarsko proizvodnjo in posledično za blaginjo narodov. To ima velike posledice na številna druga področja nacionalne varnosti, kot so varnost hrane, okoljevarstvena vprašanja, trajnostni razvoj... Zaradi navedenih dejstev, se je Evropska unija (EU) začela ukvarjati s tem novim pojavom in sprejela splošne strateške dokumente, predlagala politike na tem področju ter za članice uvedla nove direktive in zahteve. Kljub temu skupno ukrepanje EU na področju evropske varnosti še vedno ni mogoče. Mnoge države članice se reševanje tematike lotevajo preko bilateralnih sporazumov, kar pa ne izboljšuje splošne energetske varnosti Evropske unije.

KLJUČNE BESEDE: Evropska unija, varnost, naravni viri, potrošnja

INTRODUCTION

Energy supply has never been as important as it is in modern society. The reason is to be found in the energy dependence of almost all social systems; therefore, it is not surprising that there is an ongoing and growing amount of annual energy consumption. Consequently, as it is normal in market economy, the price of energy grows accordingly and affects individuals financially. Therefore countries are trying to achieve the most stable, secure and above all cheapest energy supply. For most countries this is becoming a security issue, which leads to redefining geo-strategic concepts that in most cases also provide for the use of force to maintain energy security or to prevent other countries from obtaining an energy supply. It is even possible to identify situations of armed conflict between or within countries whose essential objective is energy security or access to or transport of an energy source.²

Energy security has a big impact on everyday life. It affects the operation of companies, where energy represents a basic fixed energy cost. This lowers the market competitiveness of enterprises due to higher prices of their products, while companies are forced to lower costs in other areas — usually at the expense of workforce. By reducing the purchasing power of the people, this has a direct implication on consumption and, consequently, demand, resulting in lower production. More directly, energy (in)security is obvious whenever the price of energy increases. This is exactly what is even more important in the context of the aforementioned decline in purchasing power.

Due to these facts, energy security is becoming an increasingly important element of national (in)security, which some authors identify as a reason for a new type of war — the war for resources.² This is not surprising, since energy (in)security is directly linked to economic stability. In this regard energy (in)security, coupled with the economic crisis (in some countries we can even talk about recession), poses a remarkable destabilizing moment for the whole of society. Strategically planned energy policy inevitably leads to energy security and creates a positive economic environment. Moreover, rational risk management in the energy sector can be used to address numerous environmental issues associated with energy deficiency.

The energy issue is extremely important in the EU, as demand and need for energy supply is constantly increasing, causing exceptional dependence on energy imports, which is currently at 50% and expected to increase to 65% by 2030, assuming unchanged energy production in the EU.³ Even more alarming is the fact that the EU imports from a small group of countries or even from a single country.⁴ The EU realizes that its energy market is unbalanced, and therefore strategic objectives were formed within European energy policy that will seek to achieve a less energy-dependent future. These objectives are: limiting external vulnerability to imports of oil and natural gas exploration and exposure to rising prices of hydrocar-

² Engdahl (William) connects many modern conflicts and USA foreign policy in Middle East, Northern Africa and Central Asia to the phenomena of Oil Wars (Vojne za nafto: za vslo nafto, vsepovsod, Založba Ciceron, Mengeš, str. 15).

³ In this article we use the term “EU” as an association of 27 members, thus before Croatia joined the EU.

⁴ The EU imports natural gas and oil from the Russian Federation, Algeria, Libya and Norway. Imports of these two fuels will increase by 93% (in the case of oil) and 84% (for gas) by 2030 (Government of the Republic of Slovenia RS; Doma v Evropi 2013).

bons and creating a more competitive energy market. In addition, the EU is committed to further mitigate its dependence through closer cooperation in the field of investment and technology transfer and increasing solidarity among Member States in the event of an energy crisis in an individual State or group of States (Budna, 2013: 21).

EU SECURITY: FACTS AND FIGURES

EU institutions are becoming more aware of the importance of energy security. Therefore, the European Commission and the International Energy Agency formed a clear definition of energy security: it is the provision of reasonably priced, reliable and environmentally friendly energy (Kraenner-Müller, 2007, p.xi). Over the next four years this was expanded by the European Commission to include two additional aspects: energy must be founded on the principle of sustainability and accessible to all (European Commission 2011, 2). Savacool (2011, 8-9) categorises these features of energy security into four most essential elements: availability, reliability, affordability and sustainability.⁵ At the same time, the multidimensionality of the concept of energy security should not be overlooked. Baumann (2008, 4-5) defines four main dimensions of energy security, which may overlap and complement each other: the dimension of internal policies⁶,

⁵ **Availability:** all energy consumers are able to access sufficient quantities of energy. This is enabled by large energy markets, where consumers can buy and bidders sell energy under acceptable conditions. A prerequisite is a sufficient amount of physical energy, which is enabled by the appropriate infrastructure, investments and technology. Regulators and a legal framework that control and support all these processes are also essential. **Reliability:** elimination of various disruptions of supply, which is only possible through diversity of sources of supply (such as various energy technologies), diversification of supply routes (breaking one of them does not mean disruptions), the ability to deal with failures, reducing energy needs (new and better technologies etc.) to relieve infrastructure, rapid recovery and reimbursement in the event of errors and providing timely and accurate information to the market. **Affordability** means both low and fair prices in relation to income, as well as stable prices that do not fluctuate; consumers are informed about changes in prices with arguments and in a timely manner. **Sustainability** means ensuring the lowest possible social, environmental and economic damage that may result from energy infrastructure (pollution, which affects both the environment and human health) (Sovacool, 2011: 9).

⁶ **Internal policies** means primarily the appropriate construction and maintenance of energy infrastructure, which prevents any disruption in the distribution of energy in particular; contingency planning, which increases the resistance of the power system in an emergency situation (planning, priority care, alternative sources, management of inventory etc.); providing energy efficiency that delivers savings in energy consumption, reduces the burden on the energy system and consequently reduces energy dependence and decision-making on energy sources, providing strategic direction for development of consumption of affordable and most local energy sources (Baumann 2008: 6-7).

the economic dimension⁷, the geopolitical dimension⁸ and the dimension of security policy.⁹ A more detailed overview allows the conclusion: if all four dimensions are well coordinated, there should be no difficulties in successfully providing energy security.

The primary focus of EU action in the field of energy security is to provide a reliable energy supply while ensuring the competitiveness and the decarbonisation of energy production, which indirectly leads to a reduction of the carbon footprint of companies in the area. Such strategic thinking of the EU should lead to economic progress and well-being for all citizens. However, the objectives will not be reached easily. The increase in the energy dependence of the EU should be at its highest by 2020, when energy imports will amount to around 56%. Then a gradual decline should be expected due to increased energy efficiency, more renewable energy sources and the implementation of the EU 2020 strategy (European Commission, 2008: 19). All this is necessary because the EU produced only 7% of the world's energy, or 813 Mtoe¹⁰, in 2009, and the energy produced has continuously decreased since 2000 (Eurostat, 2012: 539). This is undoubtedly due to depleted stocks of raw materials in Europe and cost-ineffective use of remaining stocks. As a result, there are changes that the structure of energy products in the production of energy, in particular, is characterized by the reduction of the share of fossil fuels. Thus coal in 2000 accounted for 22.6% of total fossil fuels, and in 2011 only 20.8%, while the share of oil in the same period fell from 18.4% to 10.6%. The least decline was recorded in natural gas, from 22.1% to 17.5%. All this was possible only because of increased production of energy from renewable sources — from 10.3% to 20.2% within the same timeframe (Eurostat, 2013). The decrease in energy produc-

⁷ The economic dimension refers mainly to three elements: the existence of the energy market, international trade and energy and technology. The first provides an affordable and reliable energy supply, the second represents the possibility of providing sufficient quantities of energy to energy-dependent countries, while the technological solutions should bring greater rationality and seek alternative and environmentally friendly solutions for energy management (Baumann 2008: 6-7).

⁸ It is the creation of transnational networks to enable countries to successfully deliver energy security. This area, in particular, means the establishment of new relationships between international corporations and countries, particularly in terms of increasing the role of the countries. Practices of corporations often even trigger energy hazards, since they are consequently dependent on energy prices, seeking greater profit (Baumann 2008: 7).

⁹ The dimension of security policy relates to the preparation of plans and procedures, in case the energy infrastructure is at risk (of natural and technological disasters, terrorist or criminal groups' attacks or war) (Baumann 2008: 6-7).

¹⁰ Million tonnes of oil equivalent.

tion in the EU has unfortunately not been followed by a decrease in consumption. In the same timeframe, between 2000 and 2011, there has been a fluctuation in energy consumption, particularly in the period of 2009-2011. Detailed insight into the dynamics of energy consumption across EU Member States can identify the reason, as it implies a direct correlation between the national economy (the economic crisis) and energy consumption (Eurostat, 2013).

Total gross inland consumption of primary energy in the EU-27 Mtoe¹¹ (2000-2011)

Year	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
EU-27	1.724	1.763	1.758	1.799	1.820	1.824	1.825	1.808	1.801	1.702	1.759	1.697

Source: Eurostat (2013).

The structure of energy consumption should also be noted, as it follows the reduction in consumption of non-renewable resources (with the exception of natural gas). The share of solid fuels fell from 18.6% to 16.8% between 2000 and 2011, and the share of oil and petroleum products fell from 38.3% to 35.2%. At the same time, the share of renewable energy rose in gross consumption from 5.6% in 2000 to 10.0% in 2011, although there are enormous differences between individual EU Member States — a 46.8% share in Sweden, while Malta had only 0.4% (Eurostat, 2013).

Total gross energy consumption in the EU-27 Mtoe by fuel (2000 and 2011)

	2000	Delež v %	2011	Delež v %
EU-27	1.724,9	100	1.697,7	100
Solid fuel	320,8	18,6	285,5	16,8
Oil and products	661,4	38,3	597,9	35,2
Natural gas	393,7	22,8	397,5	23,4
Nuclear power	243,8	14,1	234	13,8
Renewable energy	96,8	5,6	169	10
Other	8,4	0,6	13,8	0,8

Source: Eurostat (2013).

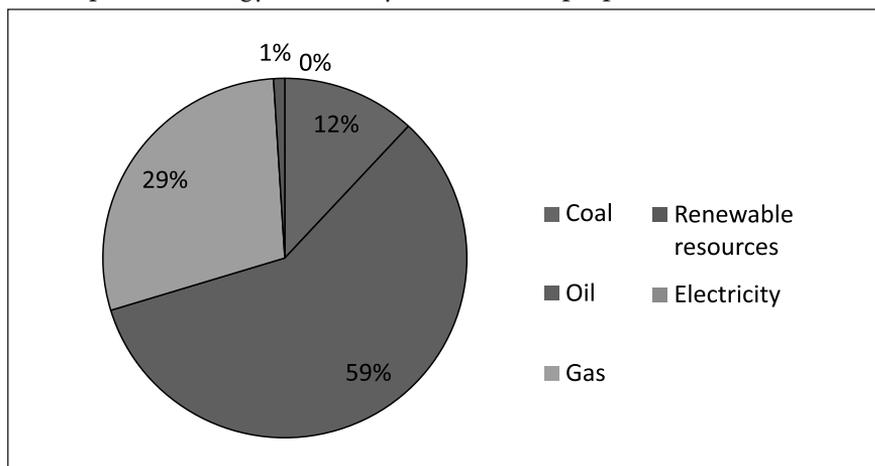
These differences between the produced and consumed energy within the EU and the structure of the energy should also be observed through the prism of the available stock of EU energy supplies (reserves). Although there is no transparent and uniform methodology for determining reserves, a report of the European Commission (2008: 23) states: the fact is that the reserves of energy resources (especially fossil fuels) are reduced, and at the same time energy

¹¹ Million tonnes of oil equivalent.

resources are still relatively abundant but concentrated in a small number of countries. Thus, British Petroleum (2012: 6) estimated that the reserves of EU oil decreased from 8.800 million barrels in 2001 to 6.700 million in 2011. This is only 0.4% of the world's oil reserves. Similarly, the EU holds only 6.5% of the world's coal reserves, and 90% of them are of poor quality (mostly lignite). The EU holds only 1% of global reserves of natural gas, of which the majority are in the Netherlands, the UK, Poland, Romania and Italy (British Petroleum, 2012: 20).

EU Member States are therefore characterized by continuous reduction of all types of fossil fuels (which at the very beginning did not represent a significant share of world reserves), and essential imports of energy products, resulting in dependence on global energy markets. Data show that from 2000 to 2006, energy imports in the EU were increasing, after which there was a decline in imports, which could be explained by increased production of energy from renewable sources and the stabilisation of energy consumption in general in the EU. Despite this stabilisation, the gap is still huge — while the EU imports 1.433,1 Mtoe of energy, it exports only 493.4 Mtoe. There is a huge 939.7 Mtoe of energy deficit or net energy imports in the EU (Eurostat, 2013). The internal structure of the energy dependence of the EU draws attention primarily to two areas: about 60% of oil and oil products and 30% of natural gas are imported (European Commission 2012: 37-38).

Net imports of energy sources by 2010 in their proportions



Source: Evropska komisija (2012: 37-38).

The EU's energy dependency increased from 47% to 54% from 2000 to 2011. The only energy-independent country is Denmark, which generates 9% of excess energy and is the only European net energy exporter. Among the most dependent countries are Malta (100%), Luxembourg (97%), Cyprus (93%), Ireland (89%), Lithuania (81%) and Italy (81%). In the last 10 years energy dependence decreased in 18 countries, while in eight countries it has increased, including in the two largest European economies, which contribute most to the overall energy consumption and consequent dependence: the UK and Germany. Above all, this applies to the former, which in the year 2000 was even a net exporter but now shows an import dependency of 36% (Eurostat, 2013).

IMPLEMENTATION OF ENERGY SECURITY IN THE EU

It could be argued that the entire EU member countries cooperation regarding energy is actually based on a common energy policy. It started with the establishment of the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC) and EURATOM (close mutual cooperation in the field of nuclear energy), which has raised the issue of energy, as it is the prerequisite for economic production and development. However, at least in the initial period, the focus was on establishing an effective internal market by the principle of liberalization. The turn of the millennium indicated the necessity of upgrading such thinking towards the creation of a common energy policy of the Member States. In 2000, the European Commission also launched the publication of the Green Paper towards a European strategy for the security of energy supply. It was upgraded in the form of new legislation and the creation of an independent energy chapter in the Treaty of Lisbon (Baumann and Simmerl, 2011: 4-6).

Today, the EU energy issue is addressed at three basic levels. The first is the establishment and functioning of the internal energy market. Energy security represents a second level, and the third is an ecological perspective focusing on the development of a low-carbon economy.

The EU's legal foundations in the energy field date back to the Maastricht Treaty, which empowered EU authorities to modernize and improve cross-border energy infrastructure. The Maastricht Treaty also ensured the EU's jurisdiction over environmental guide-

lines, which are still a blueprint for an ambitious EU program on climate change known as 20/20/20 (Buchan, 2010: 358). The adoption of the Lisbon Treaty has significantly expanded the EU's powers in the field of energy. The Lisbon Treaty changed the two previous EU legal acts, namely the Treaty on European Union and the Treaty establishing the European Community, adding a new article on energy in the EU, which requires the establishment of a functioning energy market, reliability of energy supply in the EU, promotion of energy efficiency and energy saving, the development of new and renewable energy sources and promotion of the interconnection of energy networks. It also clearly defined the competence of individual EU bodies, in particular, the role of the Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions (a consolidated version of the Treaty on European Union and the Treaty on the Functioning of the EU, Leaf of Fundamental Rights, 2012: 177). The powers of the energy sector are delineated primarily by the Council of the EU (Committee for Transport, Telecommunications and Energy), the European Parliament (Committee on Industry, Research and Energy), European Commission (Energy), the European Economic and Social Committee (transport, energy, infrastructure and the information society) and the Committee of the Regions (Commission for Environment, Climate Change and Energy). Indirectly the European Investment Bank as well as at least four European agencies (EUR-ATOM; the European company ITER, Fusion for Energy; ACER, the Agency for the Cooperation of Energy Regulators; and the Executive Agency for Competitiveness and Innovation) are also involved.

The European Council, which has no legislative role but gives general guidelines and priorities in the EU, adopted a report in May 2013 focusing on the role and importance of energy security. The guideline in the report is that by 2015 an internal energy market should be in place and, consequently, the energy infrastructure that enables such a market. It is necessary to make investments in new technologies for energy production from renewable sources, as well as to create incentives for energy efficiency and diversification of energy supply and consumption in the EU (European Council, 2013). A more important role is held by the Council of Europe, which through the Committee on Transport, Telecommunications and Energy directly influences legislation in this area and basically just follows the above guidelines and implements them in close cooperation with the European Commission. An example is the recommendations of the Euro-

pean Commission (COM 2012 663 and COM 2013 253) that relate to the creation of an internal energy market and the development of new technologies and innovations in the field of acquisition as well as energy consumption (EU Council, 2013: 18-19).

The European Parliament is very active through the Committee on Industry, Research and Energy (ITRE), The parliament has also adopted a resolution on an energy plan for 2050, which inter alia aims to increase energy efficiency and energy savings — existing buildings are to consume up to 80% less energy, as building heating and cooling alone amount for 45% of all energy consumption in the EU. The European Parliament fights against energy poverty, as 10% of a family's budget is spent on energy needs (European Parliament, 2013). In the field of energy security, the resolution on the current challenges and opportunities for renewable energy sources in the internal European energy market was adopted. In the opinion of the European Parliament it is possible to increase the EU's energy security and, consequently, to ensure Europe's competitiveness in the global market (European Parliament, 2013b).

The European Commission, which constitutes the largest bureaucratic apparatus of the EU and represents the interests of the EU as a whole (by proposing common positions, monitoring and preparing materials for the European Parliament and the European Council) has a separate directorate devoted to energy, which is led by the Commissioner for Energy). The Commission's opinion is not entirely indifferent when representing the EU's achievements in the field of energy. In particular, the implementation of energy policy is simply too slow and takes too much time. The European Commission believes that this is due to the financial resources of Member States and the rigidity of national energy policies (European Commission, 2013: 3-4). This makes it all the more important to include some other indirect instruments and bodies in energy security. In particular, this applies to the Committee of the Regions and the European Investment Bank (EIB). The first draws attention in particular to the significantly more efficient use of cohesion funds, which could allow an important source for the direct implementation of projects at the level of regions, municipalities and cities of the Member States, which is often impossible due to lengthy procedures at the national level (Committee of the Regions, 2013). The other source providing resources is undoubtedly the EIB, which follows the strategy of 20/20/20 and especially supports the technology to

reduce the carbon footprint. In 2012 the EIB ensured 21% of its €55 billion plus €4.4 billion for energy efficiency and an additional €1 billion for projects that increase resistance to energy changes (EIB, 2013: 23-24).

CHALLENGES AND STRATEGIES IN THE FIELD OF EUROPEAN ENERGY SECURITY

EU energy security is a major challenge for the institution of the EU as well as Member States. The aim — the creation of a single, competitive, low-carbon, energy-efficient energy market which will as far as possible be based on renewable energy sources — is actually a key project for the EU and its Member States (manifest through various projects, acceptance of new sectoral legislation and strategies). The first such example is the establishment and functioning of the European Energy Programme for Recovery (EPR) in 2009. Since then €4 billion has been provided, which supported 59 projects, including 44 projects in the field of transport infrastructure for natural gas and electricity, nine wind offshore projects and six carbon capture and storage projects. Another example of direct stimulation of changes in the energy sector in the EU is the Intelligent Energy Europe (IEE) program, which has been operating since 2003 and provides assistance to organizations wishing to improve energy sustainability. It works in the field of renewable energy, energy efficiency in buildings, industry and transport products. The program had a budget of €730 million and concluded in 2013 (European Commission, 2013).

Perhaps the most important strategic direction is a strategy of 20/20/20, which is based on the reduction of greenhouse gas emissions by 20% compared to 1990 levels, raising the share of electricity produced from renewable sources to 20% of EU final energy consumption and a 20% improvement in energy efficiency the EU. Although the norms of the strategy were set out in 2007, they were legally and formally enacted only with a so-called environmental and energy package in 2009. The essential message of this strategy is complementary environmental issues and economic development, as the European Commission estimates an increase to 20% of energy consumption from renewable sources will result in an additional 417,000 jobs, while the 20% increase in energy efficiency leads to 400,000 jobs (European Commission, 2012). Another somewhat less directly binding document in the field of increasing energy security

is Energy Strategy 2020, which focuses on reducing greenhouse gas emissions by an ambitious 80-95% by 2050. The objectives are to be achieved through increased energy efficiency, building pan-European integrated energy market, enhancing safety and reliability in the field of energy, even more intensive investment in energy technology and innovation and through partnerships to deepen cooperation with other European energy markets at the global level (European Commission, 2010: 6-20). On the way to implementing these goals, a Green Paper was issued in 2013 — a framework for climate and energy policy by 2030, which represents corrections due to exceptional circumstances, namely the economic crisis in Europe. The document points out the connection between energy security and economy and calls on Member States to analyse the current actions within the 20/20/20 strategy, but preliminary findings indicate incomplete awareness of the close interaction between economic development and energy security (European Commission, 2013: 2-3).

ENERGY SECURITY AS AN IMPORTANT STEP TO POSTCONFLICT RESOLUTION

Although the article is focused on the energy security in the EU, at this point, in terms of energy it has to be mentioned a strategically important part of the Europe - Western Balkan region. Known as unstable region when discussing security, energy supply is even more important issue to be discussed. Energy security is crucial for sustaining economic development in Balkan region, but the region is facing some significant energy challenges. These challenges include an over-dependence on the utilization of oil and coal in electricity generation; high dependency on oil and gas imports; a severe lack of energy efficiency; under-development of the renewable energy sector; a lack of market integration; and a lack of interconnectors across the region. The main priority of the region is to put into place the government and private institutions, infrastructure and internal policies that can ensure energy security and provision of available, reliable, affordable and sustainable energy (CSIS-EKEM Policy Report, 2010: I). Energy policy in the Western Balkans region is directed by the Energy Community (the “Treaty”¹²), which entered into force in July 2006, signed between the European Union and the countries of the Western

¹² The Treaty establishing the Energy Community was signed on 25 Oct 2005 in Athens by the European Community and then nine Contracting Parties from South East Europe. Following ratification, the Treaty entered into force on 1 Jul 2006.

Balkans region. The Treaty establishes the Energy Community, which extends the EU internal energy (electricity and gas) market to South East Europe and beyond. The Treaty provides the framework for facilitating investments in the energy systems, promoting energy security for the entire region, direct the necessary reforms, promotes investments, it makes a significant contribution to security of supply in the wider Europe and contribute to improving the state of the environment (The Western Balkans Investment Framework, 2014: 1).

The EU and the Western Balkan countries are facing some common challenges as increasing energy efficiency, reducing import dependency, expanding renewable energy sources and integrations of markets. “Integration and reform, the main themes underpinning the Energy Community Treaty, are also the keys to enhanced energy security in the Western Balkans at both national and regional levels. In this context, public authorities should: Strengthen tools for energy security, including policies and programmes to support the diversification of energy sources and imports, and enhance energy efficiency; pursue commercial development of renewable energy sources, particularly biomass (agriculture and wood waste), solar water heaters and small hydropower. Develop institutions and systems for emergency and crisis management in line with EU standards, including the development of emergency oil stocks. Ensure that policy is in place for a ‘supplier of last resort’ once electricity and gas markets are liberalized” (The International Energy Agency, 2008: 23). For this reason it would be more and necessary to address energy security issues in the process of post conflict reconstruction or at least this aspect shouldn’t be underestimated for energy supply of former regions burdened with conflict past may hinder its development.

CONCLUSIONS

In discourse on European energy security there are a lot of in-depth consolidation of European and transnational attempts. But it remains an area of safety (even though energetic) which cannot be considered separately from the national interests of EU Member States, despite the formal abolition of the three-pillar system with the adoption of the Lisbon Treaty in 2009. On the contrary, energy policy seems to remain within the domain of bilateral interests and consequent arrangements. Significant changes are not expected in the future.

But the formation of mutual cooperation between the EU Member States on the internal energy market, energy infrastructure upgrades and progress in reducing the EU's energy dependency, mainly due to increasing amounts of energy from renewable sources, is a breakthrough. Yet we cannot hope for a significant reduction in energy dependence in global energy markets. The reason lies in the structure of energy consumption, which is based primarily on two energy commodities — oil and petroleum products and natural gas — which is especially true for the entire European economy. And here lies the important interaction between the economic crisis and energy security. Instead of additional investments in innovative technologies, the prices for greenhouse gas emissions have fallen to around €3 for a metric tonne, so the instrument of indirect financing of new technologies and, consequently, greater energy security no longer produces results. Member States' own resources are diverted to the recapitalization of the banks and direct incentives for the national economy and social transfers, which in the long run undoubtedly causes even greater energy vulnerability and, indirectly, the economy does not provide a stimulating and above all safe environment. Thus, a closed loop and non-strategic thinking among the Member States of the EU in many ways hamper the implementation of urgent energy strategies prepared by the European Commission.

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