

Economic analysis for management of water and aquatic environments

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Onema is a public agency operating under the supervision of the Ecology ministry. It was created by the 2006 Water law and launched in April 2007.

Onema is the main technical organisation in France in charge of developing knowledge on the ecology of aquatic environments and monitoring water status. Its mission is to contribute to comprehensive and sustainable management of water resources and aquatic ecosystems. The agency contributes to restoring water quality and attaining the goal of good chemical and ecological status, the objective set by the European Water framework directive. Onema, with a workforce of 900, is present throughout continental France as well as in the overseas territories in the framework of the national interbasin solidarity policy.

In carrying out its mission, Onema works closely with all stakeholders in the water sector.

This book was written with the valuable contribution of the Economics work group managed by the Water planning and economics office at the Water and biodiversity directorate of the Ecology ministry. The work group comprises economists from the Water agencies and personnel from the Sustainable-development division of the ministry. The work produced by the Water-agency economists constituted the starting point for this *Knowledge for action* book that we then filled out, developed and enhanced.

The Water-agency economists also drafted in 2013 an operational manual intended for people using social-economic data and analyses for sub-basin management plans (SBMP) and river contracts.

This book continues the *Knowledge for action* series of books that provides professionals in the water and aquatic-environment sector (scientists, engineers, managers, instructors, students, etc.) with information on recent research and science-advice work.

The book is available on the Onema site (www.onema.fr), in the Resources section, and at the national portal for « Water technical documents » (www.documentation.eaufrance.fr).





Foreword

The European water framework directive (WFD) adopted in the year 2000 boosted the use of economics for management of water resources and aquatic environments. The three main steps in WFD implementation, namely the river-basin characterisation reports on the status of water resources, the formulation of programmes of measures and analysis to justify exemptions to reaching good status in 2015, all call on economic assessments. Sub-basin management plans, prescribed by the Environmental code, also call heavily on economic analysis.

Whether the goal is to characterise in social-economic terms how water is used in a given area or to assess the costs and environmental impacts of a programme of measures or a project, economic analysis is now an integral part of the preparatory and formulation processes of public policy. Cost-recovery analysis, cost-effectiveness analysis and cost-benefit analysis are all assessment techniques that water specialists must use, on both the local and national levels, to comply with regulations and implement water-management policy in their area.

It is with the goal of facilitating, informing and assisting the decisions of water stakeholders that the National agency for water and aquatic environments collected in this book definitions, knowledge and a discussion of the economic-analysis techniques used to manage water and aquatic environments. The goal of this book is to assist in the operational implementation of economic analysis in the fields of water and aquatic environments.

Elisabeth Dupont-Kerlan
Onema general director

Preliminary remarks

For almost 15 years, economic assessment has played an increasingly important role in the management of water and aquatic environments. Environmental economic assessment, which is more social-economic than financial in nature, consists of analysing all the activities of economic agents (individuals, the State, companies, non-profit organisations, etc.) and their effects on society and the environment in order to determine the quantitative and qualitative consequences, both positive and negative.

Remarks on environmental economic assessments

Environmental economic assessment is a branch of economics that is part of both economic assessments and environmental economics. It deals with evaluating, in economic terms, the effects on the environment of certain activities in view of integrating that information into an overall analysis of a policy or project. The effects may be negative, e.g. the damage caused by environmental degradation, or positive, e.g. the advantages resulting from an improvement to the environment.

The activities analysed may:

- target environmental protection (preservation or restoration);
- concern economic activities, e.g. power generation, or construction of infrastructure, e.g. a highway, that have effects on the environment (positive and/or negative) and may require preventive or curative measures. In the environmental field and particularly concerning water and aquatic environments, economic analysis can contribute to solutions in three main ways:
 - it can demonstrate that hydrosystems are a natural capital and a source of goods and services;
 - it can present the services, whether potential or effective, provided by hydrosystems in economic terms and compare them with the costs required to safeguard those services. This approach is a means to contrast the costs and benefits to be expected from a planned project. The purpose of environmental economic assessment is thus to assign economic value to the potential environmental degradation or improvements which can then be compared to the cost of a project. For an SBMP (sub-basin management plan) or WFD implementation, the objective is not to assign systematically a price to each factor (which would in any case be difficult and produce uncertain results), but rather to stress the existence of these various values during discussions and decision-making processes;
 - it attempts to propose a balanced, long-term and efficient distribution of resources depending on the various needs.

Open negotiations are an essential step in the collective formulation of a project in that they take the public interest into account and do not reduce the choices to a set of optimisations.

Economic assessment contributes to the negotiation process by providing local stakeholders with useful information.

The use of economic assessments for management of water and aquatic environments was significantly boosted by the WFD and by the progressive development of SBMPs.

Economic assessment for the WFD and SBMPs

The European water framework directive, voted in December 2000, requires that the Member States reach ambitious environmental objectives for all water bodies in all the major river basins (river-basin districts as per the WFD).

The directive set four essential objectives:

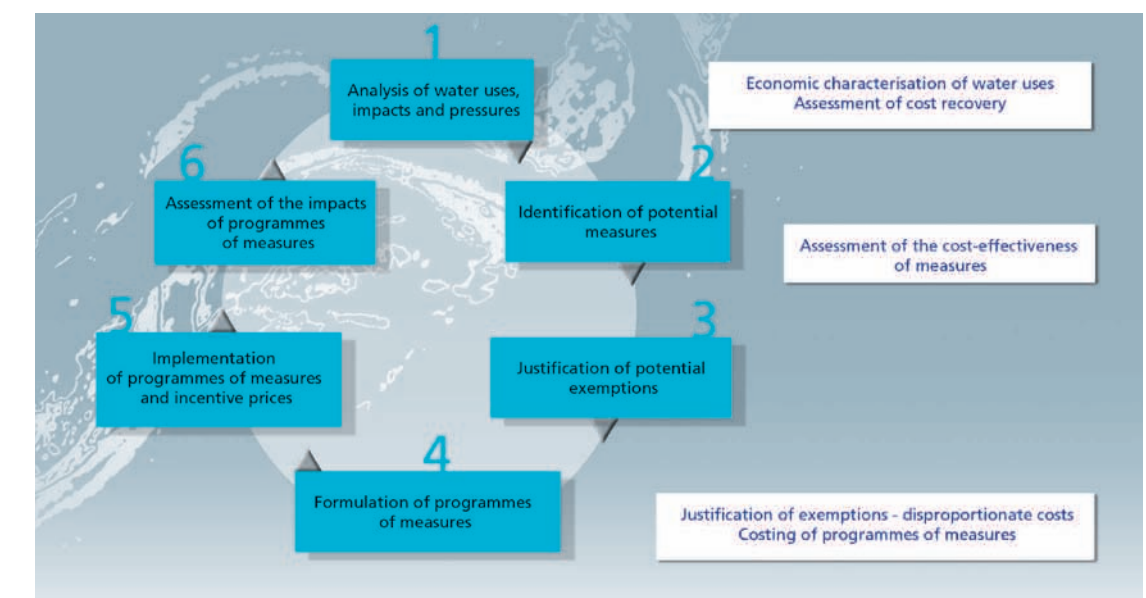
- no further deterioration of water resources;
- reaching good status or good potential of water bodies by 2015;
- reducing or eliminating pollution by priority substances;
- complete compliance with all standards in protected zones by 2015.

To reach these objectives in each river-basin district, it is necessary to characterise the pressures and impacts, run economic analysis of water uses (article 5), draft a water-management plan (article 13) and set up a programme of measures (article 11). In addition, participation by the public is mandatory (article 14).

Economic analysis plays a major role in WFD implementation. It serves as a decision-aid tool throughout the planning process because it can be used to:

- assess and contrast the economic value of water uses and the related issues;
- estimate the degree of cost recovery and the incentive value of price levels;
- determine the most cost-effective combinations of measures to achieve environmental objectives;
- justify exemptions for deadlines and/or objectives on the basis of disproportionate cost.

Economic assessments are thus part of a dynamic process that must be renewed for each WFD cycle.



The economic-analysis cycle in the WFD (source: Economics and the Environment – The Implementation Challenge of the Water Framework Directive, Common Implementation Strategy for the Water Framework Directive (2000/60/EC), Guidance document n°1, 2003).

Economic assessments are used during the three key steps in WFD planning.

1 Characterising water uses and assessing cost recovery by producing a report on water-related economic activities and informing on who pays what.

The purpose of this step is to inform on the issues involved in water management in the river basin by:

- describing water uses as well as their social and economic importance;
- studying potential changes in economic activities, in pressures on water resources and in the effects of current water policies;
- assessing cost recovery achieved by water and sanitation services.

This work is carried out in the process of drafting the report. When the necessary data do not exist, the goal is to identify the gaps and report on the work undertaken to eliminate them.

2 Preparing cost-effective programmes of measures to reach environmental objectives as inexpensively as possible.

This step represents the main contribution to the preparation of the river-basin management plan. Economic analysis serves to:

- select measures according to their cost-effectiveness ratio;
- roughly determine the cost of a programme of measures required to reach good status.

3 Justifying exemptions and final costing of the programme of measures to avoid exceeding financial limits.

During this step, economic analysis is used to justify any exemptions to objectives due to disproportionate costs. Cost-benefit analyses must be run. The ability of water stakeholders to pay is also assessed. The final cost of the programme of measures is then calculated and the funding conditions are set.

The applicable regulations stipulate that economic analysis must also play an important role in preparing SBMPs.

The Environmental code contains the following articles concerning economic aspects:

- article R 212-36 states that “the characterisation report for the SBMP must include:

1. An analysis of the existing aquatic environment;
2. A list of how water resources are used;
3. A presentation of the main possibilities for exploiting the resources given the foreseeable changes in rural and urban areas and in the economic situation, as well as the impact on the resources of the programmes mentioned in the second paragraph of article L. 212-5;
4. An assessment of the hydroelectric potential of each geographic area.”

- article R 212-46 states that “The plan for the development and sustainable management of water resources and aquatic environments must include:

1. A summary of the characterisation report required by article R. 212-36;
2. A presentation of the main issues involved in water management in the river sub-basin or set of sub-basins;
3. Definition of the general objectives selected to comply with the principles listed in articles L. 211-1 and L. 430-1, identification of the priority means to achieve those objectives, notably concerning optimum use of existing or planned infrastructure, and the schedule for their implementation;
4. Information on the deadlines and conditions under which the decisions on water issues made by the administrative authorities within the perimeter set by the plan must comply with said plan;
5. An estimate of the physical and financial means required to implement and monitor the plan.”

It follows that the economic assessments required during the preparation of an SBMP comprise five steps.

1 Draw up the list of the significant water uses and functions in the entire aquatic environment, plus the list of potential uses and those currently inhibited by the status of the water resources and the environment.

The potential impacts on the areas upstream and downstream of the SBMP perimeter, notably when the perimeter is only partially set, must not be neglected.

2 Provide information on the contents of the scenarios selected or proposed, concerning the action programmes and the water uses impacted positively and/or negatively.

Economic analysis requires that the objectives be presented in terms of well defined measures for subsequent costing.

3 Estimate the investment and operating costs of the action programmes for each scenario and list, without necessarily costing, the related expenses incurred by implementation of the measures and by the full extent of the uses made possible by the action programmes (e.g. the development of tourism following an increase in recreational uses).

4 Estimate the economic gains produced by the various scenarios and related programmes.

This calculation of the benefits consists of estimating the degree to which a scenario will or will not produce an improvement (or inhibit degradation) of the natural environment and the related water uses.

5 Finally, once the assessment has been carried out, it is necessary to draft a decision-aid report including summaries and scenario results (total costs and benefits for the period studied with discounted values) to serve as a basis for informed discussion during the preparation of the SBMP.

The purpose of this book

The purpose of this book is to provide information on the use of economic assessments for water management in order to clarify and better understand the issues involved. More precisely, it will attempt to answer the following questions:

- what are the actual components of the economic analyses?
- what work do they involve and what results may be expected?
- why are they necessary for WFD implementation or for the preparation of an SBMP?
- what are the best practices to be followed and the pitfalls to be avoided?

This book comprises five main parts:

- characterisation of water uses;
- assessment of costs;
- assessment of environmental impacts;
- cost recovery;
- disproportionate costs.

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Abstract

For almost 15 years, economic assessment has played an increasingly important role in water management. Environmental economic assessment, which is more social-economic than financial in nature, consists of analysing all the activities of economic agents (individuals, the State, companies, non-profit organisations, etc.) and their effects on society and the environment in order to determine the quantitative and qualitative consequences, both positive and negative.

The use of economic assessments for water management was significantly boosted by the launch of the WFD in December 2000 and by the progressive development of SBMPs.

Five aspects are presented here to provide information on the use of economic assessments for water management in order to clarify and better understand the issues involved.

1 Characterisation of water uses

Before launching economic studies to assess the consequences of a project or measure, it is first necessary to list the existing water uses in the given area. Characterisation of water uses is the term commonly employed for this description of water uses lying at the crossroads between economics and the natural environment. An economic characterisation of water uses consists of estimating the importance of water in the economy and the social-economic development of the studied river basin. The analysis must identify the significant water uses and study the basin dynamics in order to contribute to the formulation of a base scenario. It must also attempt to foresee any changes in the main economic and human activities that could impact on pressures and water quality. Study must be devoted to the probable changes in the main social-economic parameters such as the local policies implemented, growth rates of the main economic sectors, investments in the water sector, local population dynamics, etc. The listing of water uses in the area serves to integrate the local social-economic environment and the local water-management issues in the analysis. All the above elements are important factors in the discussions concerning action programmes and measures.

2 Assessment of costs

The first step in assessing the costs of a project or programme is to precisely list all the costs that must be taken into account and quantified. Frequently, it is also necessary to determine the unit costs and the extent of the planned measures in order to calculate the total implementation cost of the project or programme. This type of cost assessment is often used in more elaborate economic analyses such as cost-effectiveness, cost-benefit and cost-recovery analyses.

3 Assessment of environmental impacts

Once the costs of project implementation have been calculated, it is often necessary to estimate the environmental impacts of the project. This consists of identifying the environmental benefits and damages incurred by the project or measure. The point of the assessment of these impacts is to inform on the economic, social and environmental effects caused by the project or measure. An economic assessment indicating the value of an environmental good is based primarily on methods linking a value expressed in monetary terms (euros, dollars, etc.) with changes in the environmental status. The process of monetising does not mean that the environmental good, in this case the aquatic environment, becomes a marketable item that can be freely purchased or exploited. It provides a quantified assessment that can then be compared to economic values more commonly used in analysis such as costs and budgets. A number of different approaches to the economic assessment of environmental goods have been devised. Each sheds light on a particular aspect and is selected depending on the value to be calculated. For example, to determine market or option values, cost-based methods are employed. To calculate non market-related use values, revealed-preference methods are used. Finally, non-use values can be measured by stated-preference methods.

4 Cost recovery

The concept of cost recovery is explicitly mentioned in the WFD. Cost-recovery analysis must be carried out in the process of drafting the characterisation report for each river-basin district. A more simplified form of the analysis may also be carried out for an SBMP. The results can serve as true decision-aid tools in that they facilitate debate and inform on the economic issues in the area covered by the SBMP. Cost-recovery calculations consist of identifying and estimating all the economic flows resulting from the services pertaining to water use. The objective being that water users cover the costs incurred by their use of water as much as possible, primarily through the price paid for water,. The analysis must therefore indicate the degree to which each category of water-service users in fact pays for the water it consumes and discharges.

5 Disproportionate costs

The European water framework directive requires that the Member States reach environmental objectives for the status of all water bodies in the major river basins by 2015. The concept of disproportionate cost is used to justify exemptions in terms of deadlines or of the final status. It is therefore an important component in the formulation and planning of programmes of measures. However, the WFD did not indicate precisely just what the concept of disproportionate costs means and covers. Each Member State has attempted to better understand and more precisely define the concept by tracing its general outline and meaning, and by proposing the necessary economic-analysis methods. The approaches developed in France and the U.K. are presented and contrasted here.

Characterisation of water uses

- 14 ■ What is meant by “water uses”?
- 19 ■ Which water uses must be characterised and how should that be done?
- 22 ■ A simple way to characterise water uses in economic terms
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- 26 ■ Linking economic use with the natural environment
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- 33 ■ Foreseeing changes in uses to develop prospective scenarios

What is meant by “water uses”?

Before launching economic studies to assess the consequences of a project or measure, it is first necessary to list the existing water uses in the given area. Characterisation of water uses is the term commonly employed for this description of water uses lying at the crossroads between economics and the natural environment. However, the European water framework directive (WFD) and the related documents use other terms as well (water-related activities, water services) that must be precisely defined.

Water functions and purposes

The use of water is the act consisting of using certain characteristics of the water (which may be seen as a supply in economic terms) and certain functions to satisfy one or more needs (which may be seen as a demand in economic terms).

Water uses differ depending on whether the aquatic environment serves as:

- a means (transportation, transferral of materials, energy) ;
- an environment or space (for living, activities, protection).

The first type of use generally requires water flows whereas the second requires volumes.

The various water uses may be grouped according to the **purpose** involved.

Figure 1 lists characteristics, functions and purposes of water, with examples shown in Figure 2.

Figure 1

Water characteristics (SUPPLY)

- qualitative characteristics of aquatic environments
- quantitative characteristics of water
- physical characteristics of aquatic environments

Examples of FUNCTIONS

- cleansing
- dilution
- refrigeration
- energy
- supply of drinking water
- recreation
- ecological functions
- navigation
- watering of plants
- services for fauna and flora
- amenities
- flood protection

DEMAND expressed in terms of purposes

- agriculture (irrigation)
- industry (abstractions, hydroelectricity, nuclear power, sand and gravel mining)
- household use (drinking water, sanitation)
- recreation (boating, bathing, skiing, fishing)
- transportation (navigation, marinas)
- commercial fishing (professional fisheries, fish farming, shell fishing)
- tourism (boating, bathing, vacations on seashores, rivers, camping)
- real estate (use by local inhabitants, amenities, flood protection)
- ecosystems (observation, study areas, biodiversity)

Figure 2



a

a- b © C. Forst - Onema



b

Fishing and bathing are two recreational uses of water.

Water uses

Water uses concern both the economic sphere and the natural environment.

They may be defined directly in terms of the user's objectives, in which case a use is characterised with respect to the economic sphere because it corresponds to either production or consumption.

They may also be defined in terms of the impacts caused in the environment. Any use of water transforms its characteristics in the natural environment, a transformation that takes place between the abstraction and the discharge to the environment.

Water uses may be grouped in three main categories.

■ Water uses viewed from the economic standpoint

These uses correspond essentially to the objectives of economic entities:

- human consumption;
- other household uses (sanitary uses, air-conditioning, decoration);
- various types of production:
 - agriculture (plants), livestock farming (watering), fish farming, aquaculture,
 - industry (uses specific to products, to manufacturing processes, conditioning, conservation), including production of drinking water (though this is a special case),
 - energy,

- uses required for the production activity (consumption and hygiene of the workforce, maintenance, safety of facilities);

- transportation (navigable or raftable waterways);
- commerce and other services;
- public uses (public services), cultural uses (recreation, living conditions), rituals;
- security (fire, protection, defence).

■ Water uses viewed from the environmental standpoint

These uses may be divided into two subcategories:

- **extractive uses** that remove water from the natural environment and where the abstraction and return to the environment are distant in time and space;
- **in situ uses** that do not remove water from the natural environment, but use on-site some of its functional characteristics.

■ Water neutralisation

Water neutralisation consists of efforts to mitigate potential damage and/or eliminate problems (see Figure 3).

Neutralisation work is defined by the **objectives pursued**:

- safety of life and property (flood control);
- land use, construction, development (evacuation of rainwater);
- underground installations (dewatering);
- agricultural production (drainage);
- mining (mine drainage);
- transportation and communications security (flood control, evacuation of rainwater).

Neutralisation removes water from the natural environment or modifies its regime. These efforts to control the environment have economic value, but are not water uses.

Figure 3



a © M. Bramard - Onema

Floods.



b © M. Carrouee - Onema

Flood control and evacuation of rainwater are defined as water neutralisations.

Water services

In the WFD, there is also the notion of “water services”, notably in view of cost recovery. Water services are water uses characterised by the existence of installations for water abstraction, storage, treatment and discharge, e.g. for irrigation, production of drinking water, hydroelectric generation, etc.

The 22 April 2004 instructions concerning the analysis of water tariffs and cost recovery of services in compliance with WFD article 9 notes however that:

“The notion of “service” is extensive because it implicitly includes, absent any contrary indications in article 2-38, public and private services for third parties or for the provider itself, characterised by the presence of installations (abstraction, storage, discharge) and likely to influence significantly the status of water bodies.”

The definition of water services is developed further a bit later in this document, in the chapter on cost recovery.

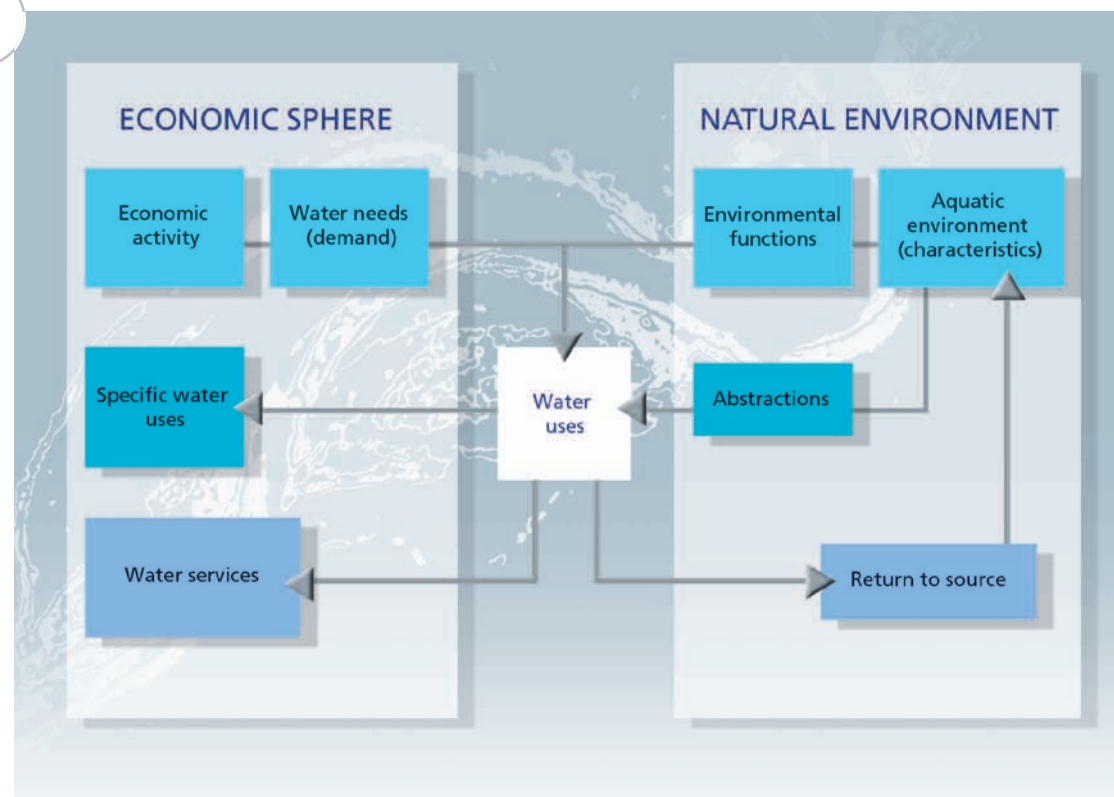
Water activities

This term is mentioned a number of times in the WFD, but never defined. It designates both human activities having an impact on water status and economic activities (see Figure 4).

The notion of “activity” is thus wider than that of “use” because there are certain activities that do not have any significant impact on water status and are not “services” in the WFD sense, nor “uses”, e.g. recreational activities and fishing. This distinction is not systematic and must be based on case by case analysis. For example, fishing in itself does not have a significant impact on water status, however overfishing may.

Analysis of water activities must be included in studies to characterise uses. This is the means to determine the relative economic importance of the activities and to assess, at a later time, the social and economic impact of programmes of measures and action plans on the activities.

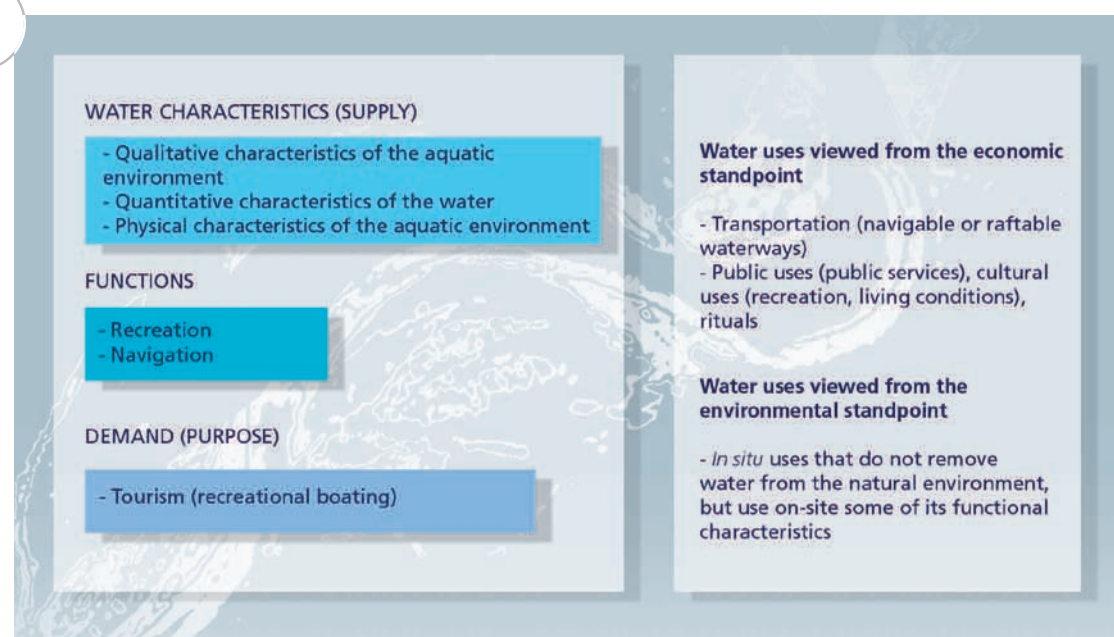
Figure 4



Water uses, interaction between the natural environment and the economic sphere.
Source: the Water agencies.

The purpose of the work to characterise water uses in a given area may, in some cases, be to describe the economic activities, or in others to describe water services, uses or functions. For example, characterisation of recreational boating (see Figure 5) concerns the economic activities pertaining to recreational boating in the area (or beyond if applicable) analysed using certain indicators providing information on its significance.

Figure 5



An example of elements characterising recreational boating.
Source: the Water agencies.

Which water uses must be characterised and how should that be done?

An economic characterisation of water uses consists of estimating the importance of water in the economy and the social-economic development of the studied river basin. The analysis must identify the significant water uses and study the basin dynamics in order to contribute to the formulation of a base scenario. It must also attempt to foresee any changes in the main economic and human activities that could impact on pressures and water quality. Study must be devoted to the probable changes in the main social-economic parameters such as the local policies implemented, growth rates of the main economic sectors, investments in the water sector, local population dynamics, etc.

Identification of uses clarifies the local objective. Listing water uses in the area serves to integrate the local economic environment and the local water-management issues in the analysis. In this sense, it constitutes an aid in thinking through problems and decision-making. Listing of uses also provides information on the social acceptance of measures and/or their compatibility with local, traditional or cultural uses that are not necessarily perceived from the start. It can thus help in adjusting objectives.

Identification of uses helps in shifting from "desirable" to "feasible". Inclusion of economic data in the analysis is the means to shift from the first step in the work devoted to the technical selection of measures (the "desirable") to a second step consisting of finalising the proposal, taking into account social-economic aspects (the "feasible").

All the above elements are **important factors in the discussions concerning programmes of measures and action plans**. The database containing the geographic data on uses assists in determining the areas concerned by a given use. It also lists the economic participants that should be consulted for discussions on the compatibility of the proposed environmental objectives and the related social-economic issues.

This type of economic analysis is thus the means to describe:

- the importance of water in the river basin;
- the main economic players influencing the pressures on and the uses of water;
- how the economic players will evolve over time and how they will influence pressures;
- how supply and demand for water will evolve over time and the problems that may emerge.

The water uses to be listed and characterised may be determined on the basis of existing typologies. The geographic location of economic uses in the basin and the assessment of the link between those uses and the chances of achieving the environmental objectives together constitute a key factor in the system intended to carry out the economic analyses. **It was with that in mind that, in the Rhône-Méditerranée-Corse basin, the local groups were asked to inventory the uses in the basin according to their relative importance (major, long-standing, emerging, inexistent)** and using a fairly complete list of known uses in the basins, broken down into groups (see Box and Figure 6).



Example of a typology to assist in the geographic location of water uses

Agriculture

- Large-scale, irrigated farming
- Farm irrigation
- Other large-scale farming
- Wine growing - orchards
- Livestock
- Forestry
- Vegetable farming

Industry

- Mechanics - surface treatment - naval repair
- Paper - cardboard - publishing
- Food industry (except bottled water)
- Dry-cleaning - printing - textiles
- Chemicals - petrochemicals
- Trades - artisans
- Wood sector

Energy

- Hydroelectricity
- Nuclear
- Thermal power

Mining and abstractions

- Sand and gravel mining
- Production of bottled water
- Salt production, salt marshes
- Watering for aesthetic purposes (public, private)

Navigation

- Commercial navigation on rivers
- Recreational navigation on rivers
- Maritime commercial navigation and trading ports
- Maritime recreational navigation and marinas

Urbanisation and infrastructure

- Transport of untreated water (canals)
- Soil sealing (flooding)
- Transportation networks and infrastructure
- Industrial port zones
- Building in the floodplain of a river
- Sanitation
- Supply of drinking water (networks)

Fishing

- Fish farming
- Shell fishing
- Freshwater commercial fishing
- Maritime commercial fishing
- Freshwater recreational fishing
- Recreational fishing in littoral zones (on foot and otherwise)
- Fishing ports

Water-related sports and recreational activities

- Diving, bathing, water games (requiring bathing-quality water)
- Canoeing, kayaking, rowing
- Motor boating, sailing, windsurfing
- Caving, canyoning

Tourism and recreational activities in aquatic environments

- Golf courses (watering, treatment)
- Winter sports, skiing (snow making)
- Hunting
- Powerboating (jet ski, water skiing, etc.)
- Non-aquatic tourism (rural tourism in contact with the hydrosystem)
- Tourism in general
- Campgrounds
- Water cures, thalassotherapy, balneotherapy

Non-commercial uses

- Observation (plants, birds, whales, etc.)
- Walking, hiking, snorkelling
- Contribution to real-estate value

Functions of environments in good condition

- Water resources (local)
- Additional self-cleansing (and dilution)
- Flood mitigation (retention systems, resource regulation)
- Self-regulation of sediment (fewer interventions)
- Biological richness (biodiversity)

Source: Rhône-Méditerranée-Corse water agency

Figure 6



Walking, recreational boating and recreational fishing are free-time activities taken into account when characterising water uses.

a © V. Marty - Onema
b © F. Weingerther - Onema
c © M. Bramard - Onema

A simple way to characterise water uses in economic terms

It is not always easy to initiate an in-depth study on uses. It is preferable that each type of use be characterised precisely, however, a two-level approach is also possible. Depending on the available means and resources, one option can be to reserve a detailed description for the main water uses in an area (e.g. for agricultural and industrial use). Less important uses (from an economic standpoint), for example water cures, may receive less in-depth study.

The example below presents a simplified method used in the Rhône-Méditerranée basin to collect basic information for the WFD characterisation process.

A list to assist in the geographic location of economic factors

The list to assist in the geographic location of economic factors may be used to inventory the various uses in a river basin and to distinguish whether those uses are major, established, emerging or inexistent. The type of link between the listed use and the environmental objective is also noted. The goal is to determine whether the use does not depend on good status, or whether the use is dependent on or benefited by good status.

What are the criteria determining whether a use is major, established, emerging or inexistent?

- **A use is considered “inexistent or marginal”** if it is not present (or very limited) in the basin and if it is not emerging. The term “not emerging” means there are no plans to create an activity involving the use or the conditions that would enable the use to emerge.
- **A use is considered “emerging”** if it does not yet exist in the basin, but there are plans to launch an activity involving the use or to create, in the near future, the conditions that would enable the use to emerge. A use may also be considered emerging if it already exists, but is marginal (or only recently launched), though projected to grow in the years to come in numbers of users, direct and indirect jobs, volumes of water needed, participants, etc.
- **A use is considered “established”** if it is sufficiently well set up in terms of quantities, duration, quality, cultural and traditional aspects, or if its local impact is strong, e.g. snow making, highways, golf courses, etc. The local group running the survey may conclude that a use is established if a number of criteria exist, but are not sufficient for “major” status. This decision should be made by the local experts.
- **A use is considered “major”** if it is an important factor in the economic and/or social landscape of the given area.

Using the above terms, it is possible to fill out the list to assist in the geographic location of economic factors and indicate the link with good status, as shown in Table 1 for the Rhône-Méditerranée river basin.

Tableau

1

List to assist in the geographic location of economic factors
(Source: Rhône-Méditerranée-Corse water agency).

Established uses		Link with good water status
Agriculture	Livestock farming	INDEPENDANT
	Forestry	INDEPENDANT
	Vegetable farming	DEPENDANT
Industry	Trades - artisans	INDEPENDANT
	Mechanics - surface treatment	INDEPENDANT
Mining and abstractions	Watering for aesthetic purposes (public, private)	DEPENDANT
	Sand and gravel mining	INDEPENDANT
Urbanisation and infrastructure	Supply of drinking water	DEPENDANT
	Soil sealing (flooding)	INDEPENDANT
	Sanitation	DEPENDANT
	Building in the floodplain of a river	INDEPENDANT
Fishing	Freshwater recreational fishing	BENEFITED
Water-related sports and recreational activities	Diving, bathing, water games	BENEFITED
	Caving, canyoning	INDEPENDANT
Tourism and recreational activities in aquatic environments	Hunting	BENEFITED
	Non-aquatic tourism	BENEFITED
Non-commercial uses	Observation	BENEFITED
	Walking, hiking	BENEFITED
Major uses		Link with good water status
Agriculture	Wine growing - orchards	DEPENDANT
Industry	Food industry	DEPENDANT
Urbanisation and infrastructure	Transportation networks and infrastructure	INDEPENDANT
	Transport of untreated water (canals)	DEPENDANT

Detailed characterisation of water uses

For detailed characterisation, it is necessary to collect a number of economic indicators and data. They serve to describe the economic importance of the use on the local level and to compare it to other uses and/or to the same use on a different geographic scale. The value of this work lies in shifting from the simplified approach (is the use important in the area?) to a more complex set of questions (does use A have greater economic impact than use B?, is the use in the studied area of importance on the regional and national level?, etc.).

Examples of representative data on economic issues in the Rhône-Méditerranée basin

Table 2 presents examples of the economic data that may be collected. The complete table may be found in the Annexe to this document. Of course, the accuracy of the collected data will depend of each use, on the access to the data (on or off site, existing databases, surveys, etc.), on the cost (fee or free, negotiated under certain conditions, etc.), and on the level at which it exists (town, farm, industrial company, professional association, etc.). It is preferable to collect chronological series of data rather than for a given year in order to estimate future trends.

Figure 7



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Fishing and tourism along the coast are important factors in the local economy.

Tableau 2

Detailed economic characterisation of water-related activities and uses
(Source: Rhône-Méditerranée-Corse water agency).

Activities - Uses	Economic characterisation
Irrigation	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ The RMC basin has the highest percentage of crop irrigation. The basin represents 16% of the usable farm area in France, but 20% of the irrigated land with approximately 375 000 hectares (i.e. 8% of the usable farm land in the basin).■ Irrigation is extensively used. The basin comprises 22% of French farms, but 35% of the farms using irrigation. A total of 25% of farms in the basin use irrigation, compared to 15% nationally.
Energy and petrochemical industries	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ The Rhône-Alpes region is the source of 21% of the primary energy in France and a quarter of the electricity.■ In terms of nuclear power, the Rhône-Alpes region is the foremost French region with 30% of the total nuclear capacity and 24% of the electricity produced in nuclear plants.■ The PACA region is home to 30% of French oil-refining capacity.
Sanitation and supply of drinking water	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Percentage of the population whose water is directly managed by the local government: 28%■ Percentage of the population for which water management is delegated by the local government: 72%■ Number of customers for drinking water: 5 381 790■ Volume of drinking water billed: 1 148 million cubic metres■ Length of drinking-water networks approximately 150 000 km■ Length of sanitation networks approximately 70 000 km■ Drinking-water production units: 437■ Wastewater-treatment plants: 4 315■ Non-collective sanitation units: approximately 1 million■ Jobs in the water sector: over 120 000 in France and approximately 30 000 in the basin
Production of bottled drinking water	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ 3 700 million litres of bottled water were produced in 2002 in the river-basin district (40% of total French production).■ The basin represents 33% of the companies and 44% of the jobs in the table-water sector in France.
Energy	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Two-thirds of French hydroelectric generation are located in the basin.■ A quarter of French nuclear generation is located in the basin.
Golf courses	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Of the 531 courses in France in 2002, over 150 were located in the basin, including 57 in the Rhône-Alpes region and 53 in the PACA region, the two regions having the most courses in France.■ A high-end, 18-hole golf course has an average consumption of 5 000 cubic metres per day, which corresponds to that of a town of 12 000 inhabitants.■ The total water consumption for the irrigation of golf courses in 2002 amounted to 36 million cubic metres, equivalent to the annual consumption of a town of 500 000 inhabitants.

Linking economic use with the natural environment

It is also necessary to position the studied use with respect to the natural environment and to characterise the interaction between the economic sphere and the natural environment:

- how is water in fact utilised in the framework of a given use?;
- what demands are made by the use in terms of the quality and available quantities of water resources and natural environments?;
- what pressures does the use place on water resources and/or on aquatic environments? (see Figure 8).

Figure 8



a © G. Parfait - Onema
b © M. Bramard - Onema

Dams must be taken into account when characterising uses given the pressures they create and the activities that they modify or make possible.

Finally, given the relative rarity of water resources, it is important to identify as early as possible the potential for conflict between uses. Tables 3 and 4 provide basic data on these issues for each type of use. The information provided here is very general and must be filled out by the local experts.

Tableau 3

Links between uses and natural environments (Source: the Water agencies).

Activities - Uses	Water uses	Main requirements weighing on water resources	Main pressures weighing on water resources and/or aquatic environments	Potential conflicts concerning water uses
Agriculture	Factor of production for irrigation and watering of livestock, cleaning of production sites and products (e.g. cheese).	Available quantities.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Direct pressure on water resources due to abstractions from surface and groundwater, organic and toxic pollutants, mainly nonpoint source (livestock effluents, fertilisers and plant-protection treatments, effluents from wine-growing installations, etc.). - Physical pressure on the environment caused by irrigation canals, water transfers, upland reservoirs, draining, etc. 	Resource sharing during periods of high demand with other uses, e.g. drinking-water suppliers and industry, and taking into account the needs of aquatic environments and species.
Sanitation and supply of drinking water	Consumption for various household uses.	Physical-chemical and microbiological quality (suitability for drinking water), available quantities.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Direct pressure on water resources due to abstractions from surface and groundwater, primarily organic pollution (discharges from wastewater-treatment plants). - Physical pressure on the environment caused by soil sealing (urbanisation, communication infrastructure, flood prevention, etc.). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Resource sharing during periods of high demand with other uses, e.g. agriculture and industry. - Use for drinking water put into question by the pollution caused by other uses (leading to a halt in abstractions or to additional treatments).
Production of bottled drinking water	Raw material.	Naturally drinkable, special physical-chemical composition that is stable over time, available quantities.	Direct pressure on water resources through abstractions of groundwater.	Except in exceptional cases of mineral water that participates significantly to the balances ensuring the functioning and good status of neighbouring environments, the potential is for indirect conflict with other sectors, e.g. the drinking-water sector.
Water cures	Raw material.	Naturally drinkable, special physical-chemical composition (therapeutic properties) that is stable over time, available quantities.	Direct pressure on water resources through abstractions of groundwater.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Rare cases of massive abstractions producing significant imbalances in groundwater and/or in linked surface water bodies (very rare). - Conflicts may concern the use of water resources or heat resources.
Energy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Factor of production, the driving force for hydroelectricity. - Thermal exchange, used for cooling nuclear power plants. 	Sufficient hydrological regime (quantity and discharge).	Physical pressure on water resources through abstractions (reservoirs, dams, hydropumping, etc.), discharges of warm water from power plants.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Breaks in hydraulic continuity and need to maintain sufficient discharge downstream of dams can lead to conflict with fishing groups, aquatic recreational activities, etc. - Mortality of migratory fish during downstream migration when passing through turbines.
Golf courses	Factor of production used to water greens.	Available quantities.	Direct pressure on water resources through abstractions and pollution caused by fertilisers and plant-protection products.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Potential conflict with all users and uses requiring high-quality water. - Conflict with other recipients of local water sources is possible if the volumes consumed (always high per surface unit) are significant compared to potential uses elsewhere. - Tensions, during periods of restricted use, with uses for drinking water and irrigation.

A different type of typology is possible. It is structured around the links between activities, the corresponding pressures and the uses potentially harmed.

Tableau 4 Another typology for links between uses and the environment.

Activities - Sources	Pressures	Uses harmed
Industry, agriculture, fish farming, nuclear power plants, golf courses, supply of drinking water	Abstractions	Supply of drinking water, agriculture, industry, recreational fishing, ecological heritage, nuclear power plants, white-water sports and kayaking, recreational boating, shipping, bathing
Industry, slaughter houses/rendering, dairy/cheese industry, fish farming, sanitation, sealed surfaces, recreational boating	Oxidisable matter	Supply of drinking water, bathing, recreational fishing, ecological heritage
Industry, livestock farming, crop farming, dams (emptying), sealed soils	Heavy metals	Supply of drinking water, recreational fishing, ecological heritage, fish farming, shell fishing, fishing on foot
Industry, crop farming, sealed surfaces, recreational boating	Micropolluants	Supply of drinking water, recreational fishing, ecological heritage, fish farming, shell fishing, fishing on foot
Livestock farming, crop farming, sanitation	Nitrates and marine eutrophication	Supply of drinking water, river navigation, recreational fishing, ecological heritage
Livestock farming, crop farming, fish farming, dams (releases), sanitation	Phosphates, continental eutrophication	Supply of drinking water, river navigation, recreational fishing, ecological heritage
Fish farming, sanitation	Ammonium salts	Supply of drinking water, recreational fishing, ecological heritage
Livestock farming, sanitation, sealed surfaces	Bacterial pollution	Supply of drinking water, bathing
Sand and gravel mining, crop farming, fish farming, sealed surfaces	Suspended matter	Recreational fishing, ecological heritage, coastal fishing (drop in coastal-ecosystem productivity)
Sand and gravel mining, nuclear power plants, hydroelectric plants, dams, weirs, embankments	Warming and continental eutrophication	Recreational fishing, ecological heritage, supply of drinking water, river navigation
Sand and gravel mining, supply of drinking water, crop farming, sealed surfaces	Modification of the hydrological regime	Supply of drinking water, regional development, wetland functions, ecological heritage
Sand and gravel mining	Exposure of the water table, vulnerability to accidental pollution	Supply of drinking water
Sand and gravel mining	Damage to the landscape	Tourism, real-estate market
Sand and gravel mining, crop farming, golf courses, camp grounds, infrastructure, urbanisation, etc.	Destruction of wetlands	Supply of drinking water, ecological heritage, wetland functions
Fish farming, dams, weirs, embankments	Difficult passage	Recreational fishing (migratory fish), ecological heritage, white-water sports and kayaking
Hydroelectric plants	Variations in discharge	Recreational fishing, ecological heritage, bathing, white-water sports and kayaking
White-water sports, kayaking	Disturbances to wildlife	Ecological heritage
Tourism, river transport of goods	Pressure on river morphology	Ecological heritage, recreational fishing, wetland functions

Source: the Water agencies.

For the more complex cases, it may be necessary to sub-contract a specific study on one or more uses, on the interactions and/or the impact on the environment. In this case, it is best to contact the Water agencies which can help with the study, either by funding it if the issue is of major importance in the river basin or by providing assistance in drafting the technical specifications for the study.

■ Description of the economic players in the area covered by the St-Brieuc SBMP

The economic activities in the area covered by the SBMP (sub-basin management plan) for the St-Brieuc bay are characterised by their great diversity. The current economic importance of the various sectors covered by the SBMP (jobs, sales, added value) is presented in Table 5.

Tableau 5 Economic importance of business sectors in the area covered by the St-Brieuc SBMP. (Source: Saint-Brieuc SBMP).

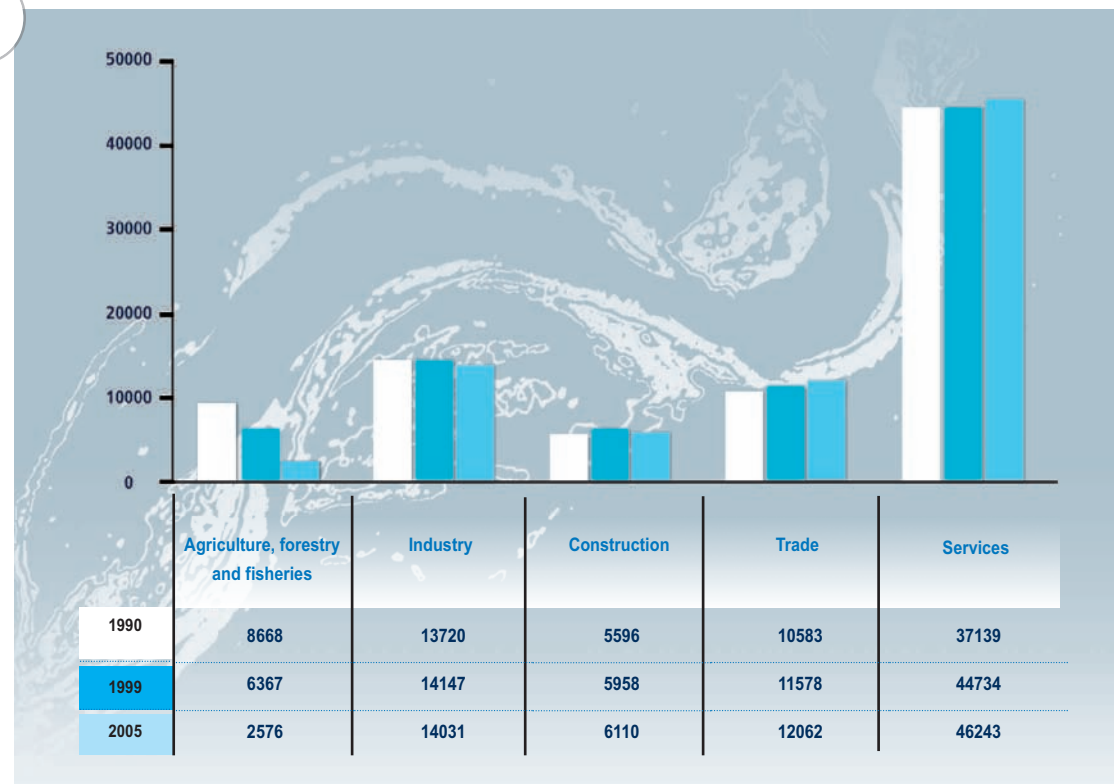
Business sector	Activity	Jobs (direct and indirect)	% total employment	Sales (€ million)	% total sales	Gross added value (€ million)	% total added value
Agriculture		4200	6%	225	3%	130	3%
	Food industry	4400	6%	1200	17%	190	
	Other industry	6500	8%	950	14%	310	
	Subtotal	10900	14%	2150	31%	500	12%
Construction		5600	7%	470	7%	390	10%
Trade and services	Tourism	2900	4%	130	2%		
	Others	52400	68%	3920	56%		
	Subtotal	55300	72%	4050	58%	3000	75%
Littoral sector	Sea fishing	500	1%	30	0%		
	Shell fishing	140	0%	8	0%		
	Recreational boating	200	0%	40	1%		
	Subtotal	840	1%	78	1%		
Total		76840	100%	6973	100%	4020	100%

The main business sectors in the area are:

- the tertiary sector with trade and services, representing 72% of total jobs and 75% of gross added value;
- the industrial sector, representing 14% of total jobs and almost one-third of total sales. The food industry represents almost 40% of all industrial jobs and 55% of industrial sales;
- the construction sector, representing 7% of total jobs;
- agriculture, with approximately 4 200 direct and indirect jobs (6% of total jobs).

Figure 9 shows the evolution in jobs for each major business sector between 1990 and 2005 in the St-Brieuc job basin (which comprises 125 towns and 210 187 inhabitants, whereas the St-Brieuc SBMP covers only 68 towns and 196 500 inhabitants).

Figure 9



Evolution of jobs in the Saint-Brieuc job basin.
(Source: INSEE data)

The data for the major business sectors reveal two stable trends over the 15-year period, i.e. a continuous drop in agricultural jobs (stronger in the St-Brieuc region than in the rest of Brittany between 1999 and 2005) and a regular increase in the tertiary sector (trade and services). In the industrial sector, the GREF Bretagne data reveal a drop in food-industry jobs between 1999 and 2005 in the St-Brieuc region whereas they were stable in the Brittany as a whole. Jobs in the rest of the industrial sector remained stable from 1999 to 2005.

Drafting a summary document to facilitate communication

Work to summarise the data is required in view of sharing the results on use characterisation with the various local stakeholders. One method is to create a geo-economic typology combining the economic issues and a consistent set of clearly defined areas in the river basin. The goal is not only to summarise the analyses carried out, but to present a diagnosis that can be used as a backdrop to inform the discussions and debates (see Figure 10).

Figure 10



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b © F. Cichy - Onema

The step involving the feedback and all communication concerning the results of the economic analysis is fundamental in providing factual substance and in clarifying the debates between stakeholders.

This information draws attention to the uses **generating high sales**, but that are also the source of **high pressures** on water resources and/or aquatic environments, and that also impact negatively on **other activities** ("sensitive" uses).

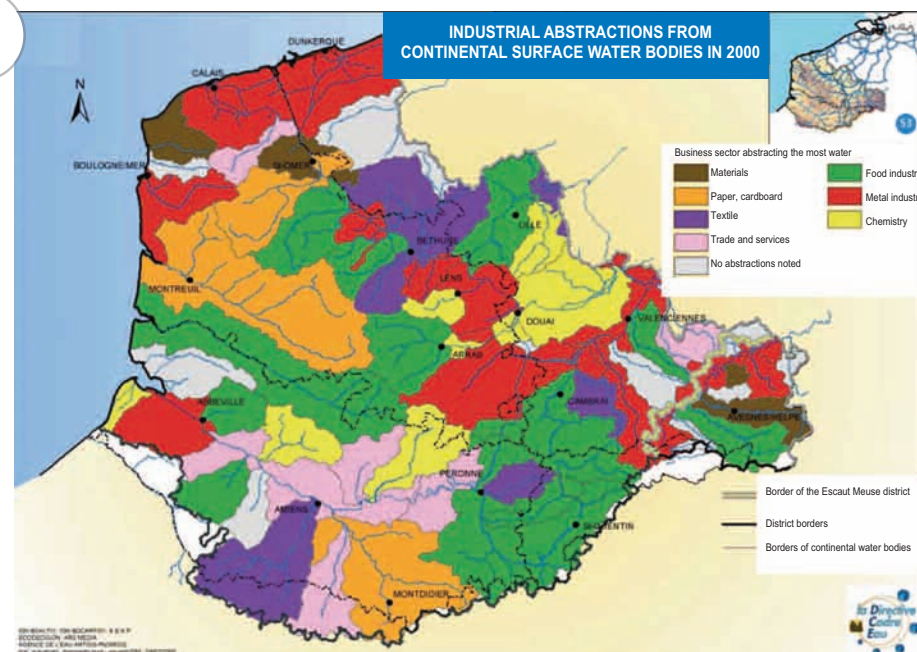
When speaking of important/major economic activities, that may mean:

- an activity causing damage and thus likely to fall in economic importance if environmental policy is implemented;
- an activity sensitive to the quantity and quality of water resources and thus likely to rise in economic importance if environmental policy is implemented;
- an activity that could both gain and lose depending on the policies implemented.

The relative importance of the various economic sectors may vary depending on whether they are considered on the local or river-basin scale. An important/major sector may be considered dominant locally (e.g. for a given water body), but that is not necessarily the case on the river-basin scale. A sector may be totally absent locally, but nonetheless remain an important/major sector for the river basin as a whole.

Practically speaking, the summary document can be structured by comparing the local business sectors with the characterisation of uses for several other areas in the river basin. The use of maps is advised for the presentation of data (see Figure 11).

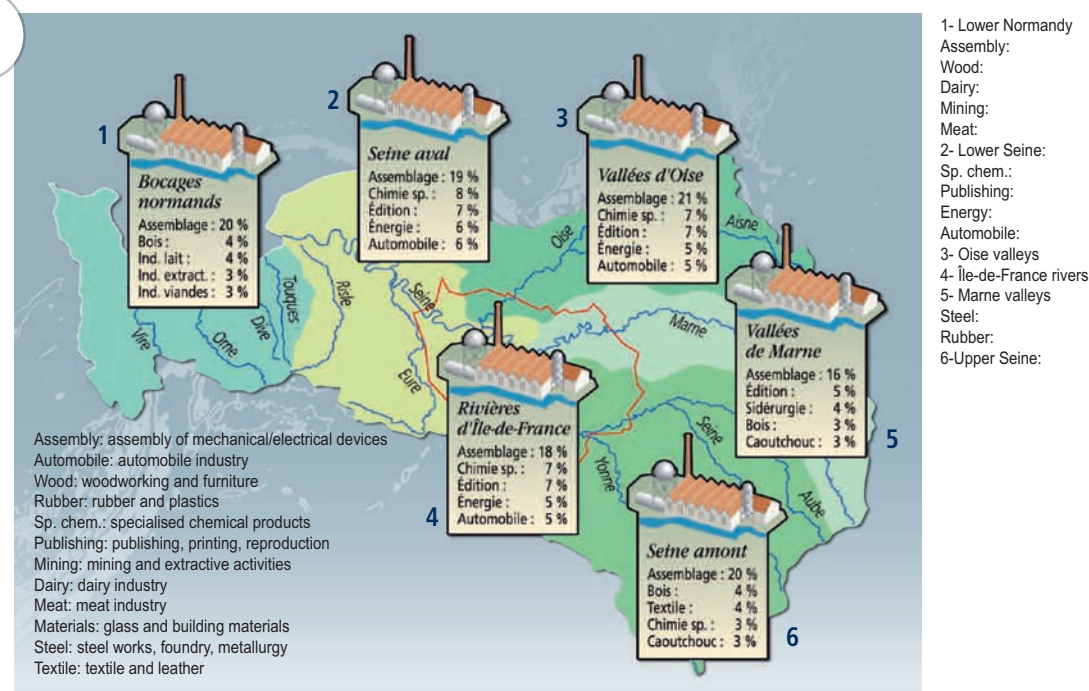
Figure 11



Main industrial abstractions by surface water body (2000).

Source: Characterisation process for the Escaut-Meuse district, Artois-Picardie water agency.

Figure 12



Main industries with respect to jobs.

Source: WFD characterisation process, Seine-Normandie water agency.

Foreseeing changes in uses to develop prospective scenarios

When formulating management plans and programmes of measures, it is important to make sure that any changes in uses over the next 9 to 15 years are correctly taken into account in the analysis of the future situation and in selecting the environmental measures to be taken.

The preparation of a **prospective scenario**, describing what would occur in the river basin if no measures and action are taken, is considered essential in order to:

- assess the possible **deficit in water status compared to the environmental objectives**, that would result from the potential trends if no specific measures or action are taken;
- identify the main **water needs over the long term** and the solutions required in terms of the water policy for the river basin;
- formulate a programmes of measures in response to the **pressures present in the area**;
- run the **cost-recovery calculations** for services provided (this requires a long-term forecast of water supply and demand, and of the necessary investments).

The main thrust of this work lies in identifying the **driving forces** (planned investments in the water sector, demographics, current economic policies, new technologies, land-use policies, climate change, etc.) operating on the various geographic levels in the area and in foreseeing the resulting changes in terms of pressures, impacts and water status.

The general method proposed here to identify and characterise the driving forces is made up of four steps.

- 1) **Extrapolate** the current trends of parameters and driving forces.
- 2) Integrate into the parameters and driving forces any **changes that are certain**, given implementation of the European directives in the water sector (Bathing directive, Urban wastewater-treatment directive, Nitrates directive, etc.).
- 3) Integrate any **uncertain changes**, selecting the most probable outcomes.
- 4) Propose an array of scenarios diverging from the base prospective scenario, e.g. on the basis of best-case and worst-case hypotheses.

The available means to produce a relevant set of scenarios include many possibilities, including statistical analysis of past data, economic and environmental modelling, study of planning documents including those for each business sector and discussions with important stakeholders.

The prospective scenario covering the Seine-Normandie basin for the WFD characterisation process

The purpose of preparing a prospective scenario for each river-basin district by 2015 is to foresee changes in pressures weighing on water and the resulting environmental status, if current policies are pursued. The scenario should indicate the main issues and assist in formulating water policy for the river basin, notably by supplying information for the discussions, foreseen by the WFD, between the participants in water policy in the basin. The work entails a prospective analysis of changes in human activities (see Figure 13), an estimate on the point-source discharges of macropollutants (organic matter, nitrogen and phosphorus) in rivers and a calculation of the resulting water quality.

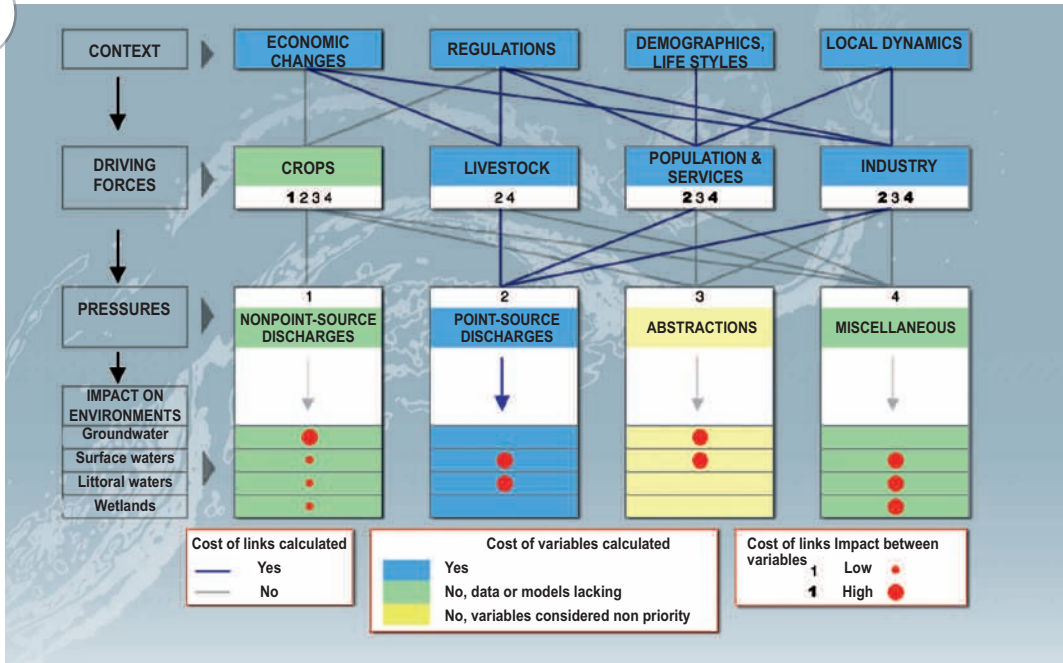
Initially, the objective is to describe a reference hydrological and social-economic system and then to identify the main variables characterising the environmental status and the human activities influencing the status and its evolution.

The technical-social-economic system determining any changes in water quality may be broken down into four levels:

- the **context**, consisting of the main factors behind the driving forces, notably demographics, local development, regulations and the economic situation;
- the **driving forces**, the human activities influenced by the context and causing the pollution and other pressures are grouped according to the four types of stakeholders involved (population and services, industry, crop farming and livestock farming);
- the **pressures** weighing on the environment, i.e. the consequences of the driving forces producing an impact on the environment, e.g. discharged pollutants, abstractions and physical damage;
- the **environmental status** resulting from the pressures, taking care to distinguish the type of environment (rivers, groundwater, littoral waters and estuaries).

The links between these four levels in the system are presented in Figure 13.

Figure 13



Technical-social-economic system determining the evolution of water quality and used as the baseline for the prospective scenarios.
Source: Preparation of the prospective scenario in 2004, Seine-Normandie water agency.

In addition to these links are many interdependent relationships within each category and the dynamics specific to each element. For example, changes in industrial activity depend in part on the creative capacity of companies (internal dynamics), but also on the presence of high-quality labour (interdependence between driving-force variables).

This set of links, though simplified in the diagram, would still appear fairly complex. However, an analysis of the impact of the various factors revealed certain key aspects:

- the environment is more or less sensitive (more or less reactive, more or less rapidly) to variations in the pressures weighing on it;
- the pressures resulting from driving forces depend mainly on two characteristics of the forces, i.e. their quantity and the policy to reduce the pressures);
- the national economic environment, itself largely dependent on the world situation, is a fundamental variable in explaining variations in the driving forces, notably economic activities and migratory flows;
- demographics and life styles influenced by values, but also by constraints such as the types of employment, will have a decisive impact on both the national economy and on the temporary and/or permanent migratory flows within the country.

Figure 14



Crop farming was one of the driving forces studied when formulating a prospective scenario for the Seine-Normandie river basin.

a © M. Bramard - Onema
b © P. Bossard - Onema

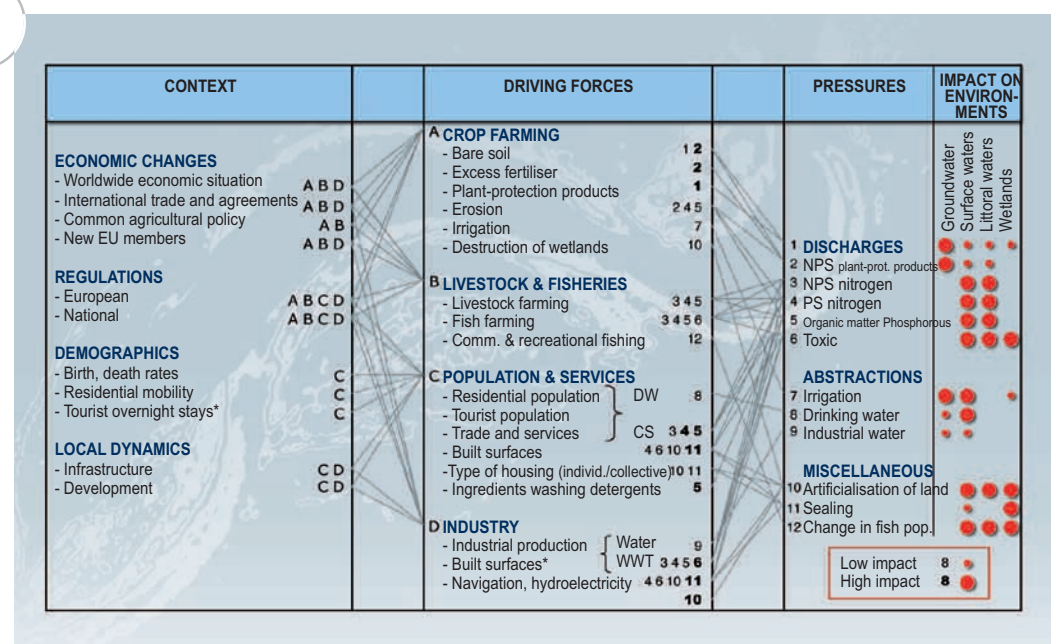
During a second stage, the actual prospective analysis was carried out starting with a complete review of the available literature and three prospective workshops on the sectors causing pollution (population & services, industry, agriculture). Experts from a number of fields (the State, local governments, scientists, representatives of the various professions) contributed to the workshops. This work served to:

- highlight the most important variables in terms of the driving forces and the context;
- study the recent trends in these main variables;
- look at the possible futures in terms of both a continuation of current trends and probable shifts;
- formulate a prospective scenario comprising three versions based on consistent, but divergent sets of trends in variables. Three versions were deemed necessary due to uncertainty concerning the decisive variables.

In preparing the prospective analysis, the entire technical-social-economic system (see Figure 15) impacting water quality was taken into account. However, to assess the trends in pressures and in water quality, the scope was limited to direct, point-source discharges in rivers of macropollutants (organic matter, nitrogen and phosphorus). This was because these discharges are monitored (fees) and geo-located, numerical data are available. Two main reasons contributed to the decision to reduce the scope of the simulation with respect to the entire hydrological and social-economic system determining water quality:

- the difficulty in obtaining basin-wide data and/or models made it impossible to take into account nonpoint-source pollution, notably by pesticides and nitrates (a simplified assessment was carried out for the latter), toxic discharges to surface waters, “artificialisation” of the environment, soil sealing (however, its impact on rainwater run-off was taken into account) and modifications in fish populations;
- abstractions were not addressed because their impact basin-wide was deemed less important than that of the discharges, even if they can constitute a non-negligible pressure locally.

Figure 15



Aspects of the technical-social-economic system taken into account for the simulation of pressures and water quality.

Source: Preparation of the prospective scenario in 2004, Seine-Normandie water agency.

The aspects covered constitute a coherent set capable of providing an image of foreseeable trends that is not complete, but is nonetheless valid, at least initially, given the often preponderant impact of macropollutant discharges on the quality of surface water.

In addition to the dynamics specific to the various stakeholders, notably their demographics, two factors stood out in the characterisation of the possible trends in context, driving forces and pressures.

■ The economic situation

The long-term trend of the economic situation is the same for all three versions, i.e. a slowing average growth rate (1.76% on average for the years 1990 to 2000), compared to the rates observed in France over the previous decades (3.2% on average for the years 1970 to 1980 and 2.35% for the years 1980 to 1990). However, there are also strong annual fluctuations in economic growth rates. For example, for a given average growth rate over 15 to 20 years, GDP growth can be virtually stable or it can rise rapidly over a few years, then stagnate.

■ Actions by stakeholders to protect water resources

Protection of water resources involves many stakeholders having different powers/responsibilities and variable capacity to modify their position. The overall results of protection efforts may be reduced by just one participant making less effort. In general, the prospective scenario assumes that policies will be implemented within the deadlines. However, delays have already been noted and the difficult economic conditions may hinder some stakeholders in fulfilling their obligations.

Given the above, three versions of the prospective scenario were formulated:

- one version based on a continuation of the long-term trends and that sees the recent shifts in the factors as “background noise” and not as signalling long-lasting changes, i.e. a “steady” version;
- a version seeing certain recent trends as major shifts in the future development of pressures. This version is hereinafter called the “better” version for water protection;
- a version combining the social-economic assumptions of the “steady” version with an assumption of lesser effort on the part of stakeholders to protect water resources, called the “worse” version.

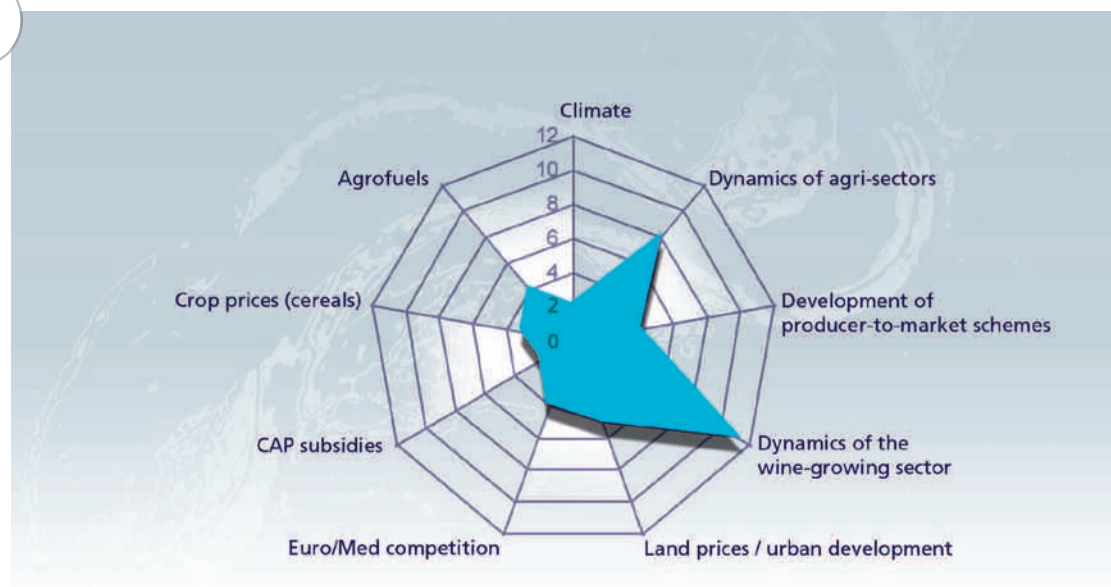
Formulating the prospective scenario for the Hérault SBMP

The prospective scenario for changes in demand for water by farmers was based on a series of meetings in June and July 2007 with some 15 stakeholders involved in water management and from the agricultural sector in the area covered by the study. Factors of change were identified prior to the meetings, on the basis of earlier prospective studies, and presented to the stakeholders. The discussions were an occasion to learn their opinions on the trends noted for the factors and, in some cases, to identify other factors, then to list the factors by order of importance.

The subsequent steps of the process were based on the results of the discussions. Generally speaking, there were a number of possible trends for each factor.

In the opinion of the participants, the factor “abstractions for vineyard irrigation” was the most important for future abstractions for irrigation in the area, as shown in Figure 16. Using this information, three scenarios were devised, one “trend” scenario corresponding to the most probable future situation and two scenarios corresponding to greater and more divergent change. These scenarios were then “translated” into numerical projections on the future surface areas for different irrigated crops.

Figure 16



Main factors of change according to the participants in the study.
Source: Hérault SBMP.

Assessment of costs

- 40 ■ Which costs must be assessed?
- 43 ■ Assessing the costs of a project or measure
- 45 ■ Managing uncertainty in WFD economic assessments and presenting uncertainty to political decision-makers
- 50 ■ Special cost-calculation techniques - cost-effectiveness, cost-benefit and cost-recovery analyses

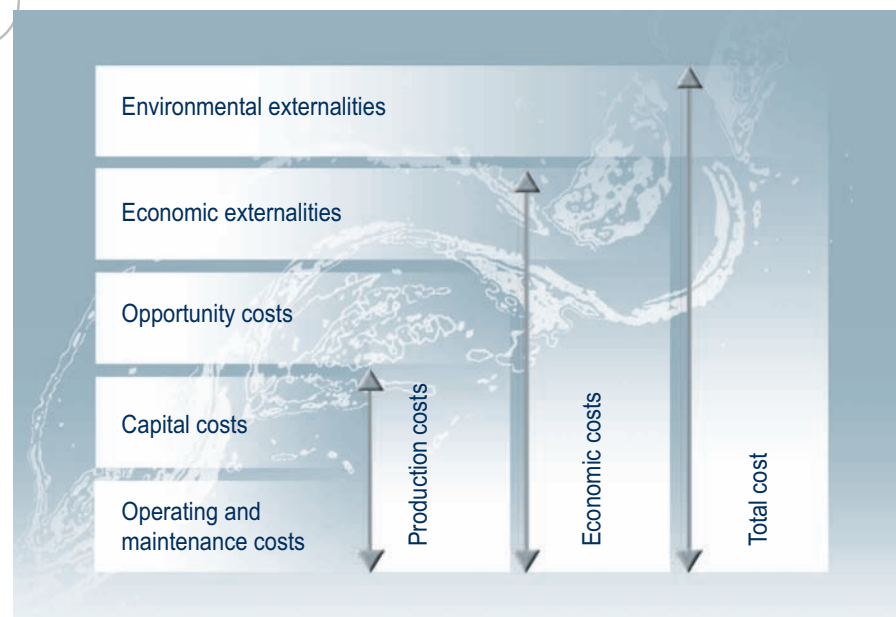
Which costs must be assessed?

The first step in assessing the costs of a project or programme is to precisely list all the costs that must be taken into account and quantified. Frequently, it is also necessary to determine the unit costs and the extent of the planned measures in order to calculate the total implementation cost of the project or programme. This type of cost assessment is often used in more elaborate economic analyses such as cost-effectiveness, cost-benefit and cost-recovery analyses.

The overall cost comprises a number of components listed in Figure 17.

Figure

17



The various components of the total cost.

Production costs

Production costs consist of the capital costs and the operating and maintenance costs.

- Operating and maintenance costs comprise all the expenses incurred by the operation of an infrastructure or a company. The main operating costs include payroll expenses, the purchase of raw materials, other external procurement (energy, transport, etc.), taxes, fees and depreciation of tangible assets.
- Capital costs include consumption of fixed capital, the cost of new investment and the opportunity cost of capital.

Consumption of fixed capital is defined as the theoretical value of the investment required each year to replace infrastructure. It is calculated taking into account:

- fixed capital expressed in physical quantities (capacity of reservoirs, lengths of networks, number of connections, number of treatment plants);
- the unit cost assigned to each type of installation or each characteristic entity;
- the assumed service life of each type of asset.

The cost of new investments includes not only the work to produce the new facilities, but also the cost of all preliminary studies. These costs are generally borne over a number of years.

The opportunity cost of capital corresponds to the estimated financial return that would have been gained had other investments been made, i.e. it is the profit that would have been produced if the capital had been spent on a different use. The opportunity cost is the economic expression of the consequences of a choice made, of a selection between competing solutions.

Economic costs

Economic costs consist of the production costs, opportunity costs and economic externalities.

In general terms, the opportunity cost corresponds to the value of the opportunity lost because one use of available resources was preferred over another, in cases where the resource is limited. In situations where a number of choices are possible, the opportunity cost represents the loss incurred when a decision is made to devote resources to one use and not to another. In the water field, the cost of the resource represents an opportunity value.

Irrigation and hydroelectricity as an example of resource opportunity cost

In Provence, vast quantities of water are drawn from the Verdon and Durance Rivers to irrigate fruit and vegetable crops. The water not used for irrigation serves to generate electricity in hydroelectric plants. There is therefore competition between tomatoes and kilowatts. If farmers are allowed to pay a lower price, they are encouraged to consume additional quantities of water that produce less value than if used for electrical generation, with as a result a waste of resources.

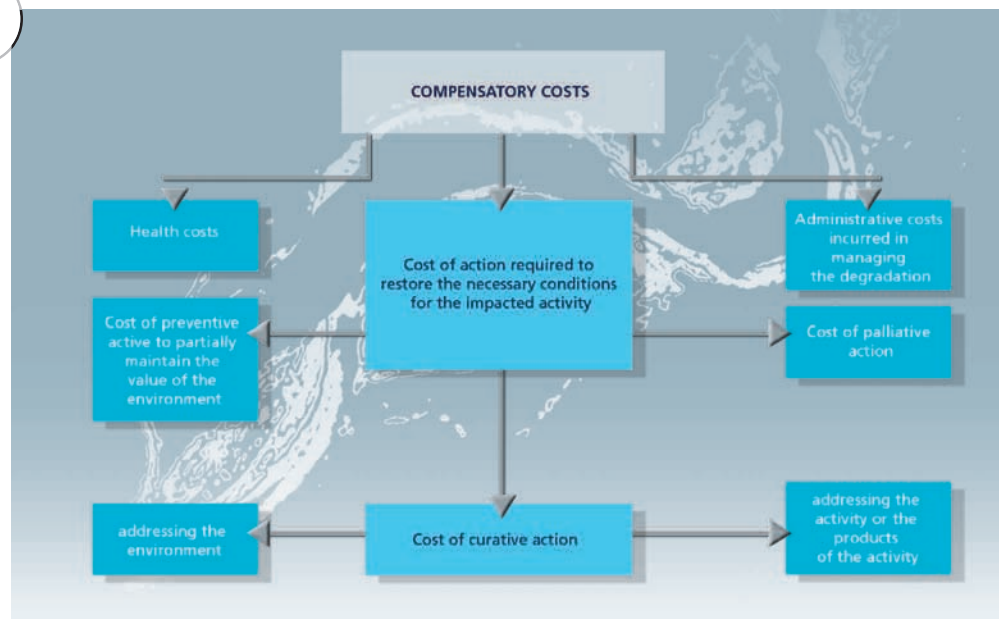
It is by making farmers pay a price equal to the value of the electricity not produced that the best distribution between the two competing uses can be ensured. The last cubic metre of water used will then produce as much value in terms of tomatoes as kilowatts.

Economic externalities correspond to the costs incurred by one activity to the detriment of another and not compensated or assumed by the entity generating those costs. Some compensatory costs represent negative economic externalities. For example, the "polluter pays" principle is a means to have the external costs of pollution paid by the entities causing the pollution.

Compensatory costs as an example of economic externalities

Compensatory costs are “observed excess costs imposed on a water user following degradation of an aquatic environment and/or water resources by another water user. Compensatory costs correspond to an outlay in response to a degradation (or a clear threat) to return to and theoretically maintain the initial status or an equivalent resource activity” (Analysis of compensatory costs in France and Europe for the WFD by Onema-Actéon-Ecodécision).

Figure 18



Analysis of compensatory costs in France and Europe for the WFD by Onema-Actéon-Ecodécision.

Total cost

The economic cost and the environmental externalities together represent the total cost.

The environmental externalities correspond to all the impacts, both positive and negative, caused by human activities on the environment and ecosystems. Concerning the impacts on resources that do not have a market price, as is often the case with environmental resources, it is necessary to assess and quantify the impacts in order to ensure that the cost is borne by the responsible entity. The concept of negative environmental externalities (environmental damage or costs) will be developed in the next chapter.

Assessing the costs of a project or measure

In the various economic analyses that are carried out in preparing an SBMP (sub-basin management plan) or for the WFD, the costs that must be assessed may vary.

For example, for an SBMP, the costs listed below are worth studying:

- the cost of new investments;
- consumption of fixed capital;
- operating and maintenance costs related to new investments.

On the other hand, there is no point in calculating the opportunity costs.

Finally, the economic and environmental externalities may be assessed as needed. For example, it may be worthwhile to list the compensatory costs in order to study the budgetary impact of a project on the local stakeholders.

WFD article 9 requires cost-recovery analysis taking into account “the costs of water services, including environmental and resource costs”. That means it is necessary to study the total cost of water services and not only the production costs or the economic costs of the services.

Once the SBMP scenarios or the WFD programmes of measures have been turned into actual projects, the assessment of their cost begins. In general, the goal is to solve the following equation:

$$C = Q * P$$

where

C = the total cost of the project or measure.

Q = the number of units involved, e.g. the number of population equivalents concerned by a project to reduce carbon pollution.

P = the unit cost of implementing the project or measure, e.g. the cost per population equivalent of treating the carbon pollution.

Consequently, there are two studies that must be carried out and that may be totally distinct:

- the first consists of determining the number of units (Q);
- the second attempts to set the unit cost (P) best suited to the characteristics of the study perimeter.

The study on Q may consist simply of listing the units concerned by the given project within the perimeter set for the assessment, e.g. the number of population equivalents. These data are available in more or less detail depending on the situation, e.g. per administrative sector, per area served by a collection system, etc.). In some cases, this may not be possible because the information on the desired units is not available, e.g. for confidentiality reasons. In this case, calculation of Q is no longer an inventory, but becomes an estimate on a case-by-case basis taking into account the data collected and using corrective coefficients.

The study on P consists of obtaining, from other studies or from experts, a value for the unit cost in situations as close as possible to that studied. In any case, P is determined using more or less rough estimates that must be refined and that should be clearly explained in the report on the assessment results.

In addition, the interaction between the two factors must be adapted to the operational conditions. The type of data (degree of detail, dates, etc.) for one of the factors in the equation (P or Q) is an important aspect in determining the other factor. For example, processing of the data selected to calculate Q may depend on the value of P, and vice versa. This means that the two studies must be carried out on an iterative basis, always taking into account the situation for the other factor.

Project sizing is often a source of data-aggregation difficulties. For example, it is very common to estimate the unit cost of a project, e.g. the cost of renaturalising a kilometre of river or the cost of water-treatment capacity for 100 population equivalents. However, it is much more difficult to determine the number of kilometres of river that must be renaturalised or the number of population equivalents that must be treated to reach the good-status objective. In other words, there is real difficulty in sizing measures due to the remaining uncertainty concerning their impacts (dose-response analysis) and the effects of data aggregation on their effectiveness.

To make progress, it is indispensable to:

- accept the uncertainty, discuss it and propose sizing solutions indicating the selected assumptions;
- continue with efforts to determine unit costs by developing more detailed typologies than those currently available in order to produce more realistic total costs. That is the purpose of the cost observatories that the Water agencies are in charge of setting up.

Managing uncertainty in WFD economic assessments and presenting uncertainty to political decision-makers

The WFD set environmental objectives for all water bodies that must be reached by 2015. If it is unlikely that a water body will reach the set objectives by 2015, the WFD requires that measures be implemented. An economic assessment serves to describe, formulate and select the necessary measures.

Uncertainty is an unavoidable factor when running the economic assessments required by the WFD. There may be uncertainty about:

- the amount of quality that a water body must gain in order to achieve the good-status objectives;
- the effectiveness of a measure or combination of measures;
- the cost of a measure or combination of measures;
- the benefits of a measure or combination of measures;
- the relative importance of the factors contributing to a pressure;
- the time required for a measure or combination of measures to produce the expected improvement in quality.

It is therefore indispensable for an economist to:

- correctly manage uncertainty during economic assessments;
- take uncertainty into account when presenting the results of an economic assessment to decision-makers.

The goal is not to reduce uncertainty, but to correctly manage it and to provide decision-makers with concise and actionable information on its implications. It is important to remember that any attempt to reduce uncertainty must be proportionate to the importance of the decision to be taken and the consequences of an incorrect decision.

Using an example of a cost-benefit analysis (CBA), this section discusses how to take uncertainty into account and how to present the uncertainty inherent in a CBA. In this case study (see the Tables on the following pages), economists use CBA to assess three measures:

- measure 1 = management of development work;
- measure 2 = creation of wetlands;
- measure 3 = depollution of an old mine site.

Three values are provided for the costs of each measure (high, medium, low) to indicate the uncertainty of the assessments (see Table 7, page 47). A few costs not related to water and concerning implementation of the measures are also listed and quantified (see Table 8, page 47). In this example, the first measure would result in the elimination of a public road, which would in turn reduce recreational activities and the number of visitors. This reduction was calculated under the heading of costs not related to water. A few benefits, both related and not related to water, concerning implementation of the measures are also listed (see Table 6, page 46). Some are quantified with cost data, but others can only be evaluated qualitatively given the uncertainty.

In this example, all costs are identified and quantified, but only some of the benefits could be quantified. It is often difficult to cost all the identified benefits given the uncertainty inherent in this type of assessment. That is why the cost-benefit ratio only partially reflects the overall effects of measures (see Table 9, page 47).

Tableau 6 Assessment of benefits.

Measures	Main category	Secondary category	Type	Description	Present value (best estimate)
Water-related benefits	Production	Commercial fishing			
		Recreational fishing			
		Water-related products			
		Energy production			
		Abstraction			
	Visitors	Informal recreational activities on the banks			
		Bathing		More frequent visits by current visitors and perhaps new visitors	57 148 £
		Fishing		Major uncertainty concerning the effects of a reduction in metals and other pressures on fishing	863 202 £
		Other visitors with specific activities		Low potential advantage to be drawn from an increase in the numbers of these visitors	19 596 £
		Education and research			
	Other advantages	Navigation			
		Amenities			
	Ecosystem services	Physical	Flood/storm protection	Limited advantage from flood protection for neighbouring properties	217 518 £
			Water regulation		
		Chemical	Preservation of wetlands	Major advantage from increase in size of wetlands and salt marches	Not calculated
			Wastewater treatment		
		Biological	Nutrient recycling		
			Nursery/feeding zones for fish	Limited advantage, already partially taken into account in recreational fishing	Not calculated
Benefits not related to water	Non-use	Non-use	Biodiversity/habitat reserve	Major advantage from the improvement of a listed SPZ	Not calculated
				Major advantage in that the improvement will affect a nationally and internationally important site	5 150 082 £
	Soil quality			Cleaning of the mining sites would improve water and soil quality	Not calculated
	Ecosystem services	Chemical	Carbon sequestration	Limited advantage	104 084 £
TOTAL					6 411 630 £

Tableau 7 Cost of measures.

Measures	Adjusted (non recurrent) financial costs (present value)		
	Low	Medium	High
Natural techniques to develop Whitton Ness	5.0 M£	6.5 M£	8.0 M£
Creation of wetlands	2.1 M£	2.8 M£	3.0 M£
Depollution of an old mine site	1.2 M£	2.3 M£	3.1 M£
Total	8.3 M£	11.6 M£	14.1 M£

M£ = millions of pound sterling

Tableau 8 Costs not related to water.

Costs not related to water	
Reduction in recreational activities due to loss of public road following development project with no replacement	276 557 £

Tableau 9 Summary of CBA (cost-benefit analysis) results.

Cost (present value)	11 876 557 £	Other costs not quantified	Cost of amenities and landscape not quantified
Benefit (present value)	6 411 630 £	Other benefits not quantified	This includes non-use (Ramsar). Some benefits were not quantified.
Net present value	5 464 927 £	Cost-benefit ratio	0.54

How can economists present the uncertainty affecting CBA results in a completely transparent manner? Is it possible to provide decision-makers with useful results without masking the difficulties created by the uncertainty?

It is necessary to achieve a common understanding on uncertainty with the local stakeholders and experts in order to present it correctly. The use of graphs indicating “tipping points” (see below) can also help in providing better information on uncertainty.

Qualitative assessments to the rescue?

During a cost-benefit analysis, it is often more difficult to analyse the benefits than the costs. To avoid neglecting or underestimating benefits that may be difficult to cost or even to quantify, qualitative assessment is often proposed. It can indicate whether the value of the expected benefit is high, medium or low, positive or negative, known or negligible. The level of confidence in the assessment is also indicated qualitatively (high, medium, low).

Of course, this type of assessment is easier to carry out than a quantitative assessment, however it may incur other difficulties. For example, if the results of the benefit assessment are expressed in both monetary and qualitative terms, it may be more difficult to draw conclusions shared by an entire group. It is also difficult to calculate together benefits that have been assessed quantitatively and qualitatively. Finally, attempts to compare benefits assessed quantitatively and/or qualitatively with monetary costs are very difficult and sometimes impossible. That is why efforts to manage uncertainty by mixing qualitative and quantitative assessments do not always produce a clear set of conclusions and do not necessarily simplify discussions with stakeholders.

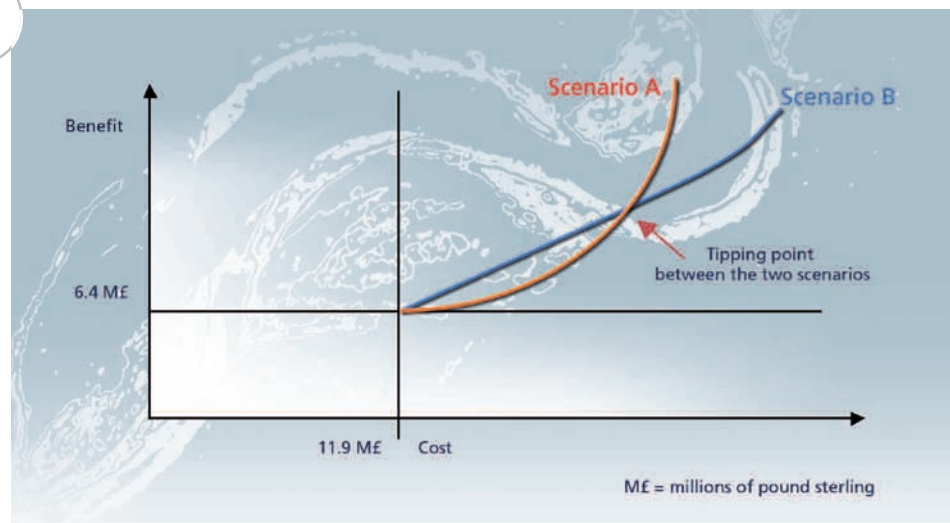
Graphs indicating “tipping points” to help in providing better information on uncertainty

One technique used to manage uncertainty consists of identifying “tipping points”. They correspond to the values at which one scenario (measure, policy, etc.) becomes more favourable than another scenario. Even though this technique does not provide any information on the statistical confidence level, tipping points can help decision-makers in ascertaining the robustness of the analysis.

This technique can be very useful in presenting the uncertainty concerning cost and benefit assessments to a group of people having varying degrees of scientific and technical knowledge. Simple and clear graphs can highlight the key values and the ranges of assessment data, thus facilitating discussions. Using this technique, an economic assessment makes a substantial contribution to launching the discussion and arriving at a decision, thus fulfilling its mission.

The graph in Figure 19 shows an example of this technique with data drawn from the CBA presented above. In addition to the costs and benefits already assessed in the CBA, two scenarios are also compared.

Figure 19



The tipping point is where the lines representing the scenarios cross.

Discussions with stakeholders and joint analysis to manage uncertainty

In the example above, the use of ranges for the assessments (high and low values) can be of use in presenting the cost and benefit data. They indicate the areas where costs and benefits reach similar values, i.e. where there must be discussion and negotiation with and between the local stakeholders.

The CBA results are one factor among many in the process of making a decision and should not be the sole factor in determining whether a project is approved or not.

Experts and local stakeholders should be brought into the assessment process as early as possible because their participation is a pragmatic means to manage uncertainty while creating a common understanding of the issues. They can further contribute by providing very precise knowledge concerning the costs and benefits of measures for projects specific to a given site. The sharing of information on uncertainty is also a means to limit risks. Making different groups of people aware of uncertainties is in fact a collective means of managing uncertainty. It is a necessary step in the plan to manage uncertainty over the long term, which should also include a monitoring system and the creation of a database.

Summary of the principles and techniques proposed to manage uncertainty

During WFD implementation, economists must confront uncertainty when carrying out economic assessments and when presenting the results to decision-makers. Among other aspects, uncertainty stands out in that it entails difficulties in terms of both the methods employed and communicating the results. The purpose of an economic assessment is to inform the decision-making process.

There are no generic or “ready-made” solutions when dealing with uncertainty. However, there are a number of principles and techniques that, when used correctly and depending on the circumstances, can help in managing uncertainty.

- Encourage discussions and the participation of local experts and stakeholders to ensure that local knowledge is taken into account in the assessment in order to reduce uncertainty.
- Work on the water-body scale to reduce the economic and scientific uncertainty.
- Assess advantages qualitatively when quantification is too difficult, that will stimulate discussion.
- Provide assessment results in the form of value ranges to express the uncertainty concerning advantages, costs and the effectiveness of measures. Point out situations where the estimated values are equal in order to stimulate discussion.
- Use graphs showing the tipping points between various scenarios to draw the attention of decision-makers to zones of uncertainty that require further discussion.

Special cost-calculation techniques – cost-effectiveness, cost-benefit and cost-recovery analyses

When the costs of measures and consequently of the various scenarios and programmes have been determined, the data is generally used in different types of analyses. These analysis techniques are fairly well known, however expert knowledge is required to implement them correctly.

The three main analysis techniques used in the water and aquatic-environment fields are presented here. They are part of the WFD-implementation process and may be of use in preparing an SBMP.

Cost-effectiveness analysis

Cost-effectiveness analysis (CEA) is used to select the various options or measures required to attain a goal at the least possible cost. This type of analysis serves to rank the available projects or measures according to their effectiveness in reaching the set environmental objective.

The purpose of CEA is to ensure that the limited financial resources of the stakeholders and funding parties are put to the best possible use. Consequently, it is a means to reduce the cost required to achieve the set objective. Contrary to cost-benefit analysis (CBA), the point is not to determine the monetary value of the benefits produced by reaching the objective. Cost-effectiveness analysis cannot inform on the relevance or the utility of a project, nor can it serve to select the best project on the basis of the expected benefits. CEA can, however, assist in selecting the least expensive set of projects or measures capable of attaining the set goal.

WFD Annex III states:
“The economic analysis shall contain enough information in sufficient detail [...] in order to [...] make judgements about the most cost-effective combination of measures in respect of water uses to be included in the programme of measures under Article 11 based on estimates of the potential costs of such measures.”

For example, concerning the reduction of priority substances (Art. 16), the WFD recommends using cost-effectiveness criteria to determine the best combination of measures to reduce and progressively eliminate this type of pollution.

Cost-effectiveness analysis is also a valuable tool in preparing an SBMP. In this context, the difficulty lies in jointly selecting the technical means, i.e. the measures capable of reaching the environmental objectives, and setting the economic parameters, via the economic assessment of the measures which are not always precisely defined by the experts, either because their scope is too vast to the point that they represent a general direction or an overall objective to be reached, or because it is very difficult to size them (number of hectares, of population equivalents, of tons, etc.).

Example of a cost-effectiveness analysis

The water resources of the towns of Patay and Coinces, in the Beauce region, did not meet drinking-water standards due to high levels of nitrates and pesticides. The pollution was caused by intensive farming activities within the water-table perimeter.



The situation could be improved by preventive measures (which have a cost) or by technical corrective measures. Three different solutions were proposed to the two towns.

- Project A proposed drawing water from a new resource via a connection to an abstraction created in the town of Coinces.
- Project B proposed drawing water from a new resource via a connection to an abstraction created in the neighbouring town of Villeneuve-sur-Cosnie.
- Project C consisted of a physical-chemical treatment of the available resource to reduce the level of nitrates and pesticides.

The planned duration of projects A and B, i.e. drawing on a new resource, was 30 years. Project C, which involved treating the polluted water, was designed to last 15 years. However, its total cost over 30 years will be calculated.

For each project, the investment costs and annual operating costs were determined.

	Projet A	Projet B	Projet C
Investment	730 000 €	370 600 €	890 000 €
Operations	18 000 €	12 000 €	17 000 €

For project C, the investment costs were doubled in order to compare the three projects over the 30-year period.

The projects were ranked according to their net present value (NPV). The NPV is equal to the total revenues (unit price x volume sold) minus the initial investment and minus the expenses (operation), all discounted at an annual rate of 8% over the life of the project (30 years).

NPV_n =
$$\frac{\text{Revenue} - \text{Investment} - \text{Operating costs}}{(1+8\%)^n}$$

The selected project is the one having the highest NPV.

In the water field, the “impact on the water price” criterion (project cost / distributed volume) is often a useful data point. It translates the impact of a project into the cost per cubic metre of water. Presented in this manner, the results are easier to present and to understand for public decision-makers and water users.

The total cost of the projects (investment + operation) was compared with the revenue derived from the sale of 150 000 cubic metres per year, i.e. the costs of each project were divided by the 150 000 cubic metres distributed to consumers.

For a discount rate of 8%, project B is more cost effective than projects A and C.

Discount rate	Projet A	Projet B	Projet C
8%	0.66 €/m ³	0.35 €/m ³	0.94 €/m ³

Study by the Loire-Bretagne water agency.

Cost-benefit analysis

Cost-benefit analysis (CBA) compares all the benefits to all the costs of a given project and its options, taking notably into account the impacts that are not calculated in monetary terms (which is often the case for the environment).

It is a very useful decision-aid tool that can compare the different versions of a project and assess their relevance. Depending on the cost-benefit ratio, it is possible to determine whether the project is profitable or not. For example, it is possible to calculate the costs of restoring the ecological quality of the Alsatian water table and to assess the corresponding benefits.

Practically speaking, CBA results differ depending on whether the assessed benefits are marketable or not, e.g. environmental improvements such as reducing water pollution, etc. In the latter case, the analysis will require the use of appropriate techniques to monetise the expected non-market benefits.

Consequently, this type of analysis requires:

- precise definition of the required measures;
- an estimate of the costs and benefits of the measures;
- the distribution of costs and benefits over time (for discounting purposes);
- an assessment of the measures taking into account the present value of the cost-benefit ratios and a sensitivity analysis.

CBA is not a means to calculate the financial profitability of a measure, but an assessment of its overall value and economic relevance for the local government. In other words, the results are not intended solely for the project promoter, but for all stakeholders.

In determining the costs and benefits, CBA goes beyond a calculation of the financial aspects. The objective is to take into account all social and environmental costs and benefits, including non-economic effects, goods and services, which by definition do not have a price. To express their value in monetary terms, it is therefore necessary to produce fictive prices calculated using hypothetical methods. The results are only as good as the underlying assumptions, which sets certain limits to this type of assessment.

The main weak point of CBA is that the assessment of costs is based on measures whereas that of benefits looks at human uses that are directly linked to the status of a hydrosystem. The problem is that hydrosystems provide services on very large scales. It is sometimes difficult to see these services as being of direct use, even though they are, of course, of value for water management in a river basin (protection of groundwater, supply during low-flow periods, flood control), but also for protection of biodiversity on smaller scales, e.g. a network of natural zones, etc. Because CBA has difficulties in determining the best scale for its application, it has certain limits as a decision-aid tool in formulating policy.

Cost-benefit analysis also has limits in terms of the method. Because it attempts to express all the consequences and impacts of a project in monetary terms, it must call on fictive economic situations, either by inventing a market where none exists or by simulating a change in the environment. Both the persons running the assessment and those using the results must be aware of these limitations. In almost all cases, they are accompanied by practical difficulties pertaining to the availability of data. This has to do with the fact that the data required for the CBA cannot always be obtained in the suitable format. For this reason, the analysis consists, to a large extent, in manipulating data that are incomplete, fragmented, lacking in detail or lacking in scope. Extrapolations, interpolations, simplifications and working assumptions are the inevitable ingredients of economic assessments in the environmental field in general and the water-management field in particular, even if sensitivity analysis of these parameters can be used to limit the uncertainty to a certain degree.

Consequently, even though the basic principle behind cost-benefit analysis is fairly simple (compare discounted costs over time to discounted benefits over the same time span), the actual analysis implies a large amount of work to simplify the parameters and correctly define the hypotheses. In the end result, the quality of an assessment depends on its capacity to inform and facilitate discussions. That requires a high level of transparency concerning the method and understandable terminology.

That also means that the calculations and results should not be seen as a decision in and of themselves, but as a basis for discussion, further reflection and negotiations.

■ Cost-benefit analysis in the WFD and SBMPs

CBA is one of the basic techniques used in preparing WFD programmes of measures, i.e. to estimate and compare the costs of measures with the corresponding environmental benefits, in order to justify possible exemptions concerning the deadline or the overall objective for a water body (see the chapter on disproportionate costs).

This type of analysis could also be used in preparing SBMPs, but they are expensive. Feedback on CBA use for SBMPs has shown that it can be implemented in a simplified form, for example by listing all the costs and benefits corresponding to different scenarios, without necessarily having to monetise all the data. In this case, CBA corresponds to a multi-criteria analysis.

CBA may be a means to mobilise stakeholders and to impulse the creation of scenarios for the SBMP. It can also show that the foreseen financial resources are not sufficient to meet the set objectives.

However, a negative cost-benefit value does not necessarily mean that the objectives are overly ambitious. It could simply be because the monetary value of some benefits is difficult to calculate. In addition, other criteria (environmental, sociological, etc.) may exist, even though it is difficult to assess them quantitatively.

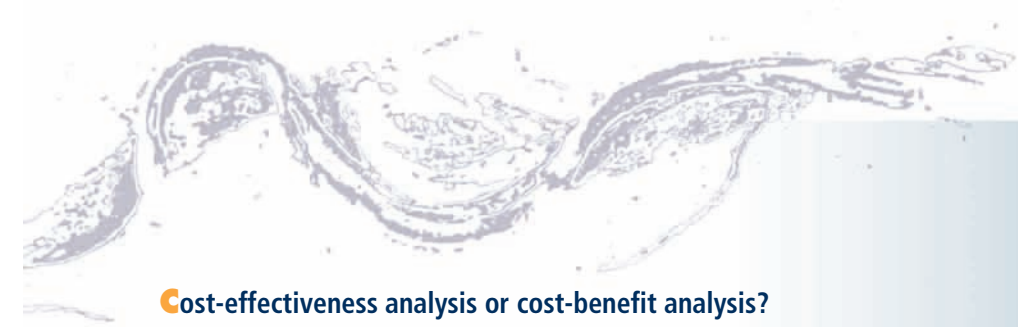
The difficulties commonly observed and reported are the following:

- difficulty in identifying all the benefits. Some benefits are unknown or not easy to quantify (margin of error, no reference points);
- difficulty in fully distinguishing the link between water and the local area. In some cases, the link is too technical to enable easy identification;
- the scope of the analysis appears too vast and open-ended;
- difficulties arise for SBMPs in less populated and/or less touristic areas;
- some benefits depend on other measures that fall well outside the scope of the SBMP.

On the whole, CBA is not particularly well suited to the scale on which SBMPs are formulated, but it can be used in specific cases for certain subjects.

Consequently, it is not necessarily useful to carry out a complete cost-benefit analysis for an SBMP. On the other hand, it may be worthwhile to:

- implement CBA techniques, e.g. by collecting data on economic issues in the area (the study for the SBMP for the Gironde estuary to select the rivers in which fish-passability issues were the most pressing produced an estimate on the value of fishing activities in the estuary (45 million euros), which was of great use to the concerned stakeholders because their role in the local economy had never been mentioned previously;
- run precisely targeted cost-benefit analyses (specific topics in each area);
- run cost-effectiveness analyses because they can avoid the difficulties involved in assessing benefits and can serve to compare different versions of projects.



Cost-effectiveness analysis or cost-benefit analysis?

To reach the set objectives, a number of measures or projects are generally possible. These measures or projects may complement each other or they may be exclusive. They differ in terms of their costs (market and non-market), their benefits (market and non-market), their deadlines, geographic locations, contributions to reaching the set objectives and their redistributive effects.

Cost-effectiveness analysis implies comparing the costs of various measures or projects required to attain a given environmental objective, e.g. a reduction of a pollutant to a given level in a water resource. For an SBMP, this type of analysis is suitable when the goal is to compare the costs of several technical options or scenarios in view of a given objective. For WFD implementation, these analyses are carried out during the formulation of the programmes of measures in order to select the most cost-effective measures to achieve good status for a water body.

Cost-benefit analysis is a decision-aid tool designed to assess projects through comparison of their costs and benefits. If the project produces a net gain, it can be approved. Different projects can also be ranked according to the level of net gains that they produce. There are two possible cases. The purpose of CBA can be to compare:

- a base scenario, which extrapolates the current situation into the future, with an alternative scenario in order to judge the usefulness of implementing the latter;
- a number of scenarios in order to select the best one, without necessarily comparing them to a base scenario.

It is clear that CBA deals with general guidelines and, for an SBMP, serves in particular to analyse alternative measures having different effects on resource quality. For WFD implementation, CBA is used to justify exemptions in terms of deadlines or of the final status (see the chapter on the analysis of disproportionate costs).

Finally, CBA differs from CEA in that it requires that all costs and all project impacts (both positive and negative) be expressed in monetary terms in order to allow comparisons.

Cost-recovery analysis

Cost-recovery analysis, a concept explicitly mentioned in the WFD, must be carried out in the process of drafting the characterisation report for each river-basin district. The analysis must indicate the degree to which each category of water-service users in fact pays for the water it consumes and discharges. The WFD does not impose a specific level of cost recovery and leaves the Member States with a certain degree of leeway, notably by providing the possibility of taking into account the social, environmental and economic impacts of cost recovery.

This type of analysis is presented in detail in the chapter titled “Cost recovery or the water economic cycle”.

Assessment of the environmental impacts of a project or measure

- 58 ■ Assessment of the environmental impacts of a project or measure
- 61 ■ Methods to assess the impact of a project or measure
- 66 ■ Operational implementation of the assessment on the environmental benefits and damages incurred by a project or measure
- 74 ■ When should the environmental impacts of a project or measure be assessed?
- 77 ■ Conclusion

Assessment of the environmental impacts of a project or measure

Once the costs of project implementation have been calculated, it is often necessary to estimate the environmental impacts of the project. But how should an economic assessment be carried out on the environmental benefits and damages, which are, by definition, difficult to estimate in monetary terms? What value can be assigned to environmental assets or to the services rendered by the environment? What methods are available to carry out these assessments? At what point during the WFD cycle or during SBMP implementation should they be run?

Defining and assessing the various impacts of a project

For an SBMP or the WFD, it may be necessary to assess the environmental impacts of a project or measure. This consists of identifying the environmental benefits and damages incurred by the project or measure. The point of the assessment of these impacts is to inform on the economic, social and environmental effects caused by the project or measure. For example, the ecological consequences of a project may be defined as the impact of the project on the balance or the functioning of the environment or the ecological system. The consequences are thus all the effects of the project on ecosystem services, on environmental regulation (climate, soil formation, water cycle), on services provided by species (pollination, balance between fauna and flora), and on biodiversity and the gene pool.

The social effects of an environmental project reflect the consequences of the project on cultural, recreational, scientific and educational habits, as well as the benefits for human health and quality of living provided by the environment.

To determine the economic impact of an environmental project, it is necessary to assess all the economic consequences of the project in terms of jobs, the production of market natural goods and, more generally, the effects of the project on local development.

The approach to the impacts of a project will differ depending on the type of benefits and damages that must be quantified. Depending on the specific analysis selected, the value assigned to the consequences of a project (and the final assessment of the project) may vary considerably. **This variation in the assessment of impacts is not a problem as long as the evaluation criteria are clearly presented with the results.**

Some of the impacts listed in Table 10 are easy to quantify and can be translated into monetary terms and financial totals. That is notably the case for the economic impacts. On the other hand, it is much more difficult to set a price for ecological impacts, e.g. the “value of flagship species”.

Tableau

10

An example of impact assessment on the Sainte-Victoire site (Source: Credoc, 2008).

Type of impact	Notable elements	Quantification and valuation
Economic impacts	<p>Jobs created by the local board and by its partners in the economic sectors stimulated by environmental protection.</p> <p>Creation of skills in forest management (prevention of forest fires) and sustainable management of natural areas.</p> <p>Economic benefits for:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">- the forestry industry- agrosylvopastoralism- hunting- the wine-growing sector- real estate <p>Potential benefits via specific labels for tourism businesses.</p> <p>Benefits derived from cooperation with farmers and hunters.</p>	<p>Number of full-time equivalent jobs: direct jobs, indirect jobs, derived jobs.</p> <p>Number of work days (calculated using the average price for consulting businesses) put into creating a methods guide on fire-prevention projects, a guide on development work in natural areas, etc.</p> <p>Revenues from sale of wood from the site.</p> <p>Revenues of business units on the site.</p> <p>Average price for one hectare of a reference hunting ground, multiplied by the number of hectares set aside for hunting on the site.</p> <p>Change in revenues of the cooperative following granting of the Sainte-Victoire label.</p> <p>Calculation (hedonic-pricing method) of the impact of the “proximity to and/or view of the Sainte-Victoire mountain” criterion on real-estate prices.</p> <p>Increase in the average price of a rental in a rural vacation apartment benefiting from the “Grand Site” label.</p> <p>Subsidies received by hunting associations for the development of cover crops (for game animals).</p> <p>Territorial agro-environmental subsidies received by farmers.</p>
Ecological impacts	<p>Oxygen supply and carbon sequestering by biomass.</p> <p>Prevention of fires.</p> <p>Value of flagship species.</p>	<p>Market value per ton of carbon per hectare of forest on the site.</p> <p>Avoidance cost calculated using the average cost of fire per hectare on the site (using the 1989 fire as the reference value) or</p> <p>Replacement cost based on the cost of fighting a fire if one occurs.</p> <p>Average willingness to pay to preserve site flagship species (further information required).</p>
Social impacts	<p>Value of the Cézanne heritage.</p> <p>Value of the vernacular historical heritage, of the palaeontological heritage and of the site landscape.</p> <p>Value of recreational uses (climbing, paragliding, hiking).</p> <p>Value of the local living conditions.</p> <p>Creation of a collective transportation system around the site.</p>	<p>Approach via willingness to pay for all aspects of the social value of the site or</p> <p>Approach specifically targeting the Cézanne heritage (the value of the Cézanne paintings showing the Sainte-Victoire mountain).</p> <p>Approach via willingness to pay for all aspects of the social value of the site or</p> <p>Value of a set of dinosaur eggs (based on the market value of dinosaur eggs).</p> <p>Approach via willingness to pay for all aspects of the social value of the site or</p> <p>Average cost accepted by individuals to access the site (cost of travel).</p> <p>Approach via willingness to pay for all aspects of the social value of the site.</p> <p>Annual gas savings achieved by inhabitants using the shuttles.</p>

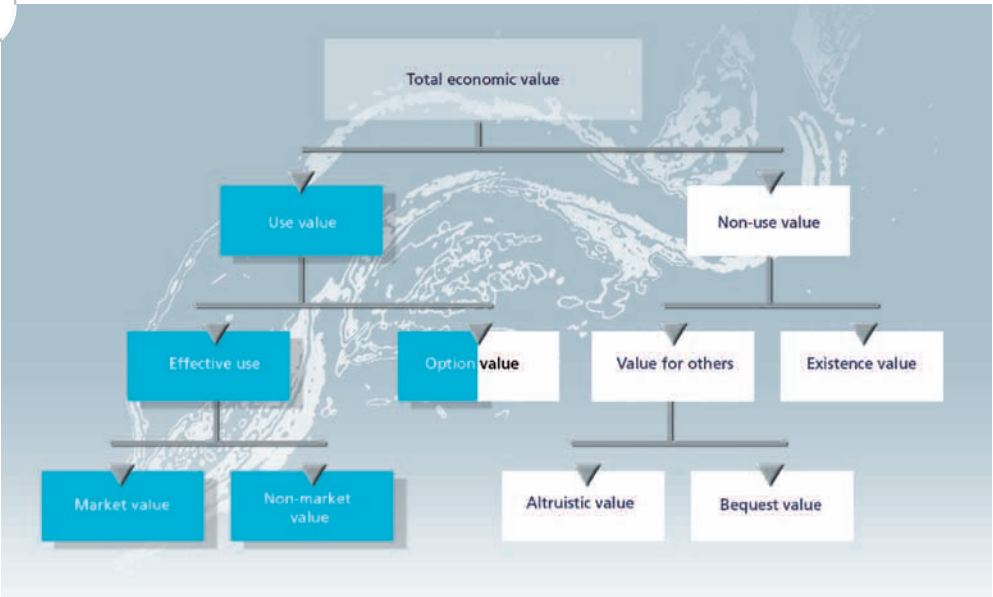
Total economic value (TEV)

How can the value of an environmental asset be assessed? What is meant by the value of an environmental good or service? To answer these questions, it is first necessary to define the notion of total economic value.

In environmental economics, the total economic value (TEV) is a theoretical concept used to define the value of an environmental good or service. TEV is made up, on the one hand, of the use value, and on the other, of the non-use value, as shown in Figure 20.

The use value of an environmental good corresponds to its effective and real use, e.g. a visit to a nature park,

Figure 20



The components of total economic value. Source: The theory of total economic value.

or to its planned and possible use, e.g. a planned visit to a nature park. The use value may or may not be set by an existing market. For example, use of water as drinking water has a price, i.e. the price paid by the user of the service. In this sense, the value of the water use is determined by a market. On the other hand, a walk in a wetland area to observe the fauna and flora is a use whose value is not set by a market (no market price).

In cases where a use is possible (option value), it is deemed to be offset to the future. The option value is therefore a type of use value, but postponed to a later time.

Non-use value corresponds to the value assigned by people to an environmental good or service that they do not effectively use, that they in fact cannot use or that it would be impossible to use. In most assessments, this value is declared by the persons questioned and is highly subjective.

The existence value represents the value a person assigns to an environmental good that the person does not use and does not intend for use, either by himself or herself or by other persons. This could be the case, for example, of the value assigned to saving a wetland even if the person has no intention of using the environmental good.

The altruistic value corresponds to the desire to preserve an environmental good for the present generation, whereas the bequest value represents the desire to preserve an environmental good for future generations.

It must be said, however, that these distinctions remain relatively theoretical. Practically speaking, it is difficult to distinguish the various types of values, particularly given that a single person may have many reasons to assign value to an environmental good or service.

Different economic methods may be used to roughly calculate one or more of the above values simultaneously. However, the methods must be correctly selected for the type of value to be determined.

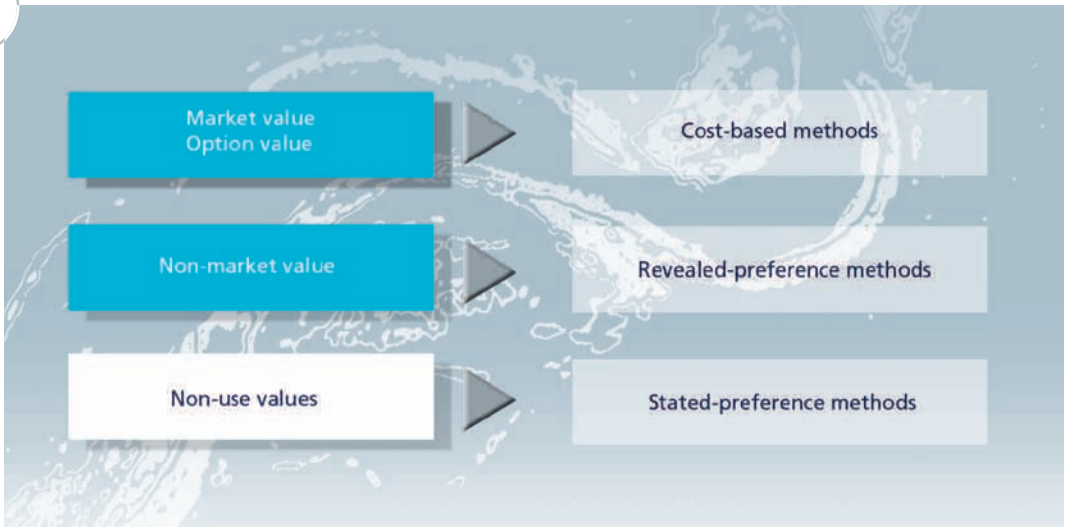
Methods to assess the impact of a project or measure

An economic assessment indicating the value of an environmental good is based primarily on methods linking a value expressed in monetary terms (euros, dollars, etc.) with changes in the environmental status. The process of monetising does not mean that the environmental good, the aquatic environment, becomes a marketable item that can be freely purchased or exploited. It provides a quantified assessment that can then be compared to economic values more commonly used in analysis such as costs and budgets.

Different methods for the economic assessment of environmental goods have been developed and are currently used. Each provides a particular type of information. Distinctions are generally made between three types of methods depending on the type of value to be determined.

For example, to determine market or option values, cost-based methods are employed. To calculate non market-related use values, revealed-preference methods are used. Finally, non-use values can be measured by stated-preference methods.

Figure 21



Assessment methods for the various values.

Cost-based methods

Market values and market-based option values are assessed using methods based on observed costs, e.g. the avoided-cost method, substitute-cost method, replacement-cost method. This type of method is relatively easy to use. In general, the objective is to determine the value of certain environmental goods or services by estimating the costs that would be incurred if the goods or services were no longer available or if their quality were damaged.

For example, the loss of a wetland or damage to it would lead to:

- an increase in flood risks, because wetlands absorb flood waters and thus avoid flood damage (avoided costs);
- a reduction in the self-cleansing of wastewater by the natural environment. The disappearance of the wetland would require the construction of additional wastewater-treatment plants or the resizing of existing plants, which would represent considerable additional costs (substitution costs);
- a reduction in biodiversity which would require, for example, the reintroduction of the species removed from the environment to “re-establish” the quality of the damaged ecosystem (replacement costs).

For a study on Alsatian groundwater during the preparation of the WFD programmes of measures, the avoided-cost method revealed that if the regulatory thresholds for sodium chloride (salt) were reached by 2015 in Alsatian groundwater bodies, investment and water-treatment costs of between 5.7 and 6.8 million euros could be avoided.

Table 11 presents the results of assessments using cost methods to determine the economic impacts of pollution in water resources for consumers of drinking water.

Tableau 11 Use of cost-based methods to assess the economic impacts of water pollution.

Treatment costs for water resources intended for drinking water	Minimum unit price	Maximum unit price	Study site	Sources
Treatment for eutrophication (abstraction from a river)	0.13 €/m3	0.21€/m3	Loire-Bretagne basin	Loire-Bretagne water agency
Treatment for nitrates (abstraction from a river)	0.22€/m3		Seine-Normandie basin	Seine-Normandie water agency
Treatment for pesticides (abstraction from a river)	0.06€/m3		Seine-Normandie basin	Seine-Normandie water agency
Treatment for nitrates	0.4€/m3	0.6€/m3		Ecology ministry (CGDD)
Treatment for pesticides	0.06€/m3	0.2€/m3		Ecology ministry (CGDD)

(Sources: Water agencies and CGDD, E&D no. 52, <http://www.developpement-durable.gouv.fr/Couts-des-principales-pollutions.html>).

Revealed-preference methods

To calculate non market-related use values, revealed-preference methods may be implemented. They consist of estimating the value of, for example, bathing by referring to an existing and relevant market, for example, the real-estate market.

The objective is to deduce the value of environmental goods and services on the basis of decisions effectively made by individuals. The basic technique used by these methods is to observe the behaviour of environmental users (fishermen, walkers, industrial companies using water as a raw material, etc.), on the assumption that their behaviour indicates their preferences and thus the value that they assign to the environment.

In other words, these methods “reveal” the value of the environmental good or service via an estimation using an existing market.

■ Method based on market prices

This method deduces the value of environmental goods and services on the basis of their market price. For example, if problems involving water pollution lead to the closing of a fish-canning factory, the loss of revenue caused by the closing and the possible impacts of increases in fish prices on markets for consumers may be used to calculate the benefits of a return to high-quality water.

■ Method based on productivity

This method is used when an environmental good (water, wood, etc.) enters into the production of another object sold on a market. For example, water quality influences the productivity of irrigated crops or the treatment costs of services providing drinking water. The economic benefits drawn from higher quality water may be roughly calculated by measuring the increase in revenue due to greater agricultural productivity or to a drop in costs to provide drinking water.

■ Hedonic-pricing method

This method assesses the value of an ecosystem or of an environmental service based on its direct influence on the price of certain objects. It is based on the idea that the price of some objects, e.g. housing, depends on many characteristics, some of which may be environmental. In general, economists study the variations in real-estate prices assumed to indicate an implicit value of the environmental component, for example, proximity to a nature park.

■ Travel-cost method

The travel-cost method estimates the economic value of a recreational site on the basis of the costs accepted by site users to travel to the site. The travel costs incurred by the visitors are interpreted as the expression of their willingness to pay to visit the site.

Stated-preference methods

Many of the services provided by an ecosystem, for example a walk in the woods or the pleasure of fishing, cannot be purchased or sold on a market. It is also impossible to roughly calculate their value based on existing market sales of other goods or services, as is the case for the revealed-preferences methods (travel-cost method, hedonic-pricing method). In order to determine the non-use value of an environmental good or service, stated-preference methods are used, e.g. the contingent-valuation and joint-evaluation methods.

■ Contingent-valuation method

This method uses declarative questionnaires and surveys on the population concerned by a project to assess how much households would be willing to pay for a given improvement in the environment. This willingness to pay for an improvement in environmental quality is then used to calculate the monetary value of the environment (see Figure 23).

AN EXAMPLE OF CONTINGENT VALUATION ON THE LOWER GARDON RIVER

METHOD

- Telephone survey
- Travel-cost method
- Contingent-valuation method to estimate the advantages of restoring the Gardon River to good status
- Cost-benefit analysis to determine the degree to which good status is reached

OBJECTIVES

- **Assess** the value of recreational activities on the lower Gardon River
- **Quantify** the benefits in order to compare them to the costs of measures required to reach good ecological status of the river
- The **analysis** serves as a decision-aid tool

RESULTS

- The value assigned to their recreational activity was estimated on the basis of the maximum entry fee that they would be willing to pay to continue that activity (travel-cost method):
19.30 euros for walkers, 12.80 for fishermen, 12.60 for kayakers, 12.00 for bathers (values per visit and per person).
- The total amounted to 45 million euros per year.
- These data were then extrapolated to calculate the advantage derived from restoring good status in the lower Gardon River. The result was 2.8 million euros.
- This analysis showed that the benefits to be drawn from restoring the river were higher than the costs (net sum resulting from revenues minus the costs of measures).

Source: *Espaces naturels, revue des professionnels de la nature*, no. 30, April 2010.

In general, contingent-valuation analysis comprises three main steps.

First, it is necessary to structure the survey questionnaire. The elements that must be determined are the population to be surveyed and the type of questions (telephone survey, postal survey). It is necessary to define the hypothetical scenario studied during the survey and the payment systems targeted by the questionnaire (income taxes, sales taxes, entry fees, etc.). It is also necessary to select the social-economic parameters used to differentiate the surveyed population (age, income, profession, etc.).

The second step consists of selecting the method used to have people declare their preferences. There are a number of possibilities:

- using an auction system (the proposed values increase throughout the questionnaire);
- using an open question (no proposed values, answers are totally open);
- using a bank card (semi-open question with a proposed value);
- using a closed question (only one value proposed).

Finally, in the third step, the collected data is analysed. This step comprises a descriptive phase and an explicative phase:

- via statistical analysis, the descriptive phase indicates user willingness to pay;
- via econometric analysis, the explicative phase identifies the key variables determining user willingness to pay.

Joint-evaluation method

Similar to contingent valuation, joint evaluation is a stated-preference method used to estimate both use and non-use values assigned to an environmental good. The joint-evaluation method, also called the experimental-choice or the contingent-choice method, is used to determine the **value of an ecosystem or a service provided by the environment based on a choice between virtual situations**.

The persons interviewed must make choices and set priorities among different characteristics of the ecosystem and/or the services it provides. Each choice is linked to a cost or to other monetary/economic attributes. It is on the basis of the choices made by the interviewed persons that the value attributed to the ecosystem can be determined.

To encourage the interviewed persons to make choices between the various scenarios presented, the environmental good to be evaluated is geographically situated. The good is presented in its current and future (hypothetical) state and the restoration possibilities of the good are listed (following the hypothetical degradation).

An example of the joint-evaluation method used for the Brenne ponds is presented in Figure 24.

Figure 24

D1 – Quel scénario aurait votre préférence en tenant compte de la contribution financière à payer tous les ans (Jeux 1) ?
Expliquer les scénarios à l'aide des textes ci-dessous, en les montrant à la personne interrogée. Cocher le choix effectif par le répondant.

	Scénario de base	Scénario A	Scénario B
Espèces connues	Faible 	Moyen 	Moyen
Espèces mal connues	Faible 	Faible 	Fort
Habitats naturels	Habitats Dégrados ⇒ Reproduction ⇒ Repos ⇒ Nourrissage	Habitats de qualité ⇒ Reproduction ⇒ Repos ⇒ Nourrissage	Habitats Dégrados ⇒ Reproduction ⇒ Repos ⇒ Nourrissage
Services rendus par les étangs	Fonctionnement des étangs perturbé ⇒ Services naturels	Fonctionnement des étangs perturbé ⇒ Services naturels	Fonctionnement des étangs perturbé ⇒ Services naturels
Contribution financière	0 € / personne / an	45 € / personne / an	30 € / personne / an
Choix	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Contribution financière: 0 € / personne / an 45 € / personne / an 30 € / personne / an

Choix: ☐ ☐ ☐

Joint-evaluation method used for the Brenne ponds. The available choices comprise three scenarios incorporating different biodiversity characteristics. Each scenario also includes different financial contributions.

Operational implementation of the assessment on the environmental benefits and damages incurred by a project or measure

Implementation of an assessment method is not the only element in the procedure. Beforehand, it is necessary to determine whether it is a good idea to take existing values obtained from other studies and use them for the assessment.

After the assessment, the results must be extrapolated to the entire population concerned by the given ecosystem and the services it provides. The time factor must also be taken into account (using the discount rate) because the benefits drawn from the services provided by the environment are not limited to a single year. Implementation of economic-assessment methods for environmental goods therefore requires particular care in ensuring that the monetary values obtained are robust, relevant and can be used at some later time.

Benefit transfer and aggregation of data for entire areas

Benefit transfer means that the results of a prior study on a given site are transferred to another site. In this manner, the costs that would be incurred by launching a new study can be avoided. The transfer may also be the first step in a more extensive study on the new site.

To date, transfer methods remain fairly rudimentary. The simplest and most common method is to use unit values expressed per cubic metre of water, per household, per hectare, etc., drawn from previous studies. Consequently, a change in the status of an environment can be linked to a unit value corresponding to the non-market benefits that may be expected following the change.

Three types of transfer have been identified, in increasing order of precision and difficulty:

- **simple-value transfer.** The average unit value drawn from an existing study is taken without adjustment and used “as is” for the new site;
- **adjusted-value transfer.** The average unit value drawn from an existing study is adjusted taking into account the differences between the sites, e.g. the differences in income between inhabitants living on the two sites;
- **value-function transfer.** Some methods call on statistical models to describe the relationship between the unit value and explanatory variables such as the age of the population, income levels, etc. Value-function transfer consists of transferring the explanatory model linked to the unit value produced by the prior study to the new site.

To determine the total value of an environmental good, it is necessary to aggregate the transferred unit values. The precision of the unit-value aggregation is enhanced by clearly identifying and determining the population concerned by the study, i.e. the persons potentially affected by a change in the quality of the environment. It is then necessary to select the sample group that, given its social-economic characteristics and behaviour, is as representative as possible of the identified population.

Once the sample group has been selected, aggregation consists of extrapolating the value found for the sample to the population as a whole. The result is the estimated total value of the environmental good. In some cases, it may be necessary to modify the sample group in order to improve its representativeness.

Procedure to estimate the value of an environmental good or service

■ Determine the unit values

Most methods proceed by **first determining unit values corresponding to a marginal change in certain environmental goods or services**, e.g. the value of an environmental change calculated per cubic metre of water, per household, per protected hectare, etc.

Unit values may be calculated using a three-step process recommended by the Ecology ministry.

25

Figure

THREE-STEP PROCESS FOR UNIT VALUES

1

First, carry out a **qualitative assessment of the uses** concerned by a change in the natural environment (see chapter one of this book).

2

Secondly, **use unit values from prior studies** to roughly calculate financial volumes that are imprecise, but sufficient to provide a general idea of the amounts in play. Reference unit values are available on the economie.eaufrance.fr site for the water sector or on the EVRI database site (see box below) for environmental assessments in general. The database contains a number of environmental-valuation studies and may be consulted on-line.

3

Finally, to obtain reference unit values better suited to the actual case, **it may be necessary to use on site a method specifically adapted to the context** and to the environmental impact studied.

Unit values may be determined in three successive steps.



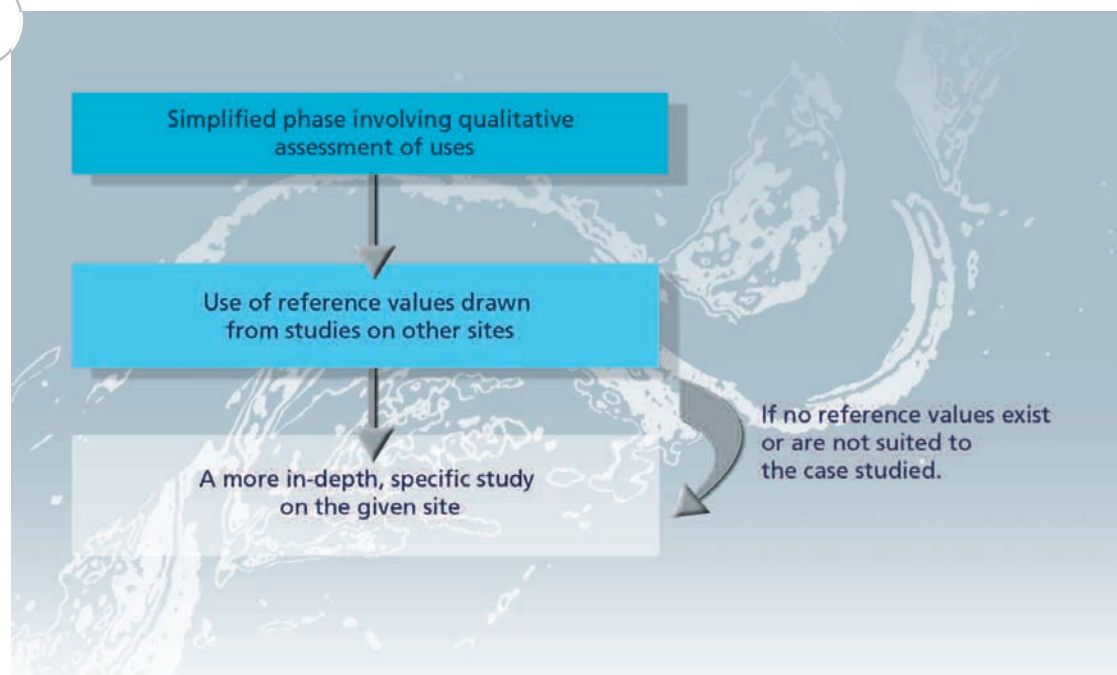
The EVRI database for the development of benefit transfer

The EVRI (Environmental Valuation Reference Inventory) database is a storehouse of environmental valuation studies.

It was developed in the beginning of the 1990s by the Canadian and U.S. environmental agencies (Environment Canada and the Environmental Protection Agency), primarily to identify alternate solutions for on-site environmental-assessment studies because the latter are often long and costly. The main goal of the EVRI database is to encourage benefit transfer. It has continued to be developed in the form of an internet site (www.evri.ca). In 2011, the site held almost 3 500 studies, including 50% from North America and 30% from Europe. Most of the studies stored in the database concern water or fauna. Since October 2002, France has been a member country with Canada, the United Kingdom, the United States and Australia.

The agreement signed between France and Environment Canada means that all French citizens may freely access the database. A registration is required prior to obtaining access.

Figure 26



Position of on-site assessment in the overall procedure.
Source: the Water agencies.

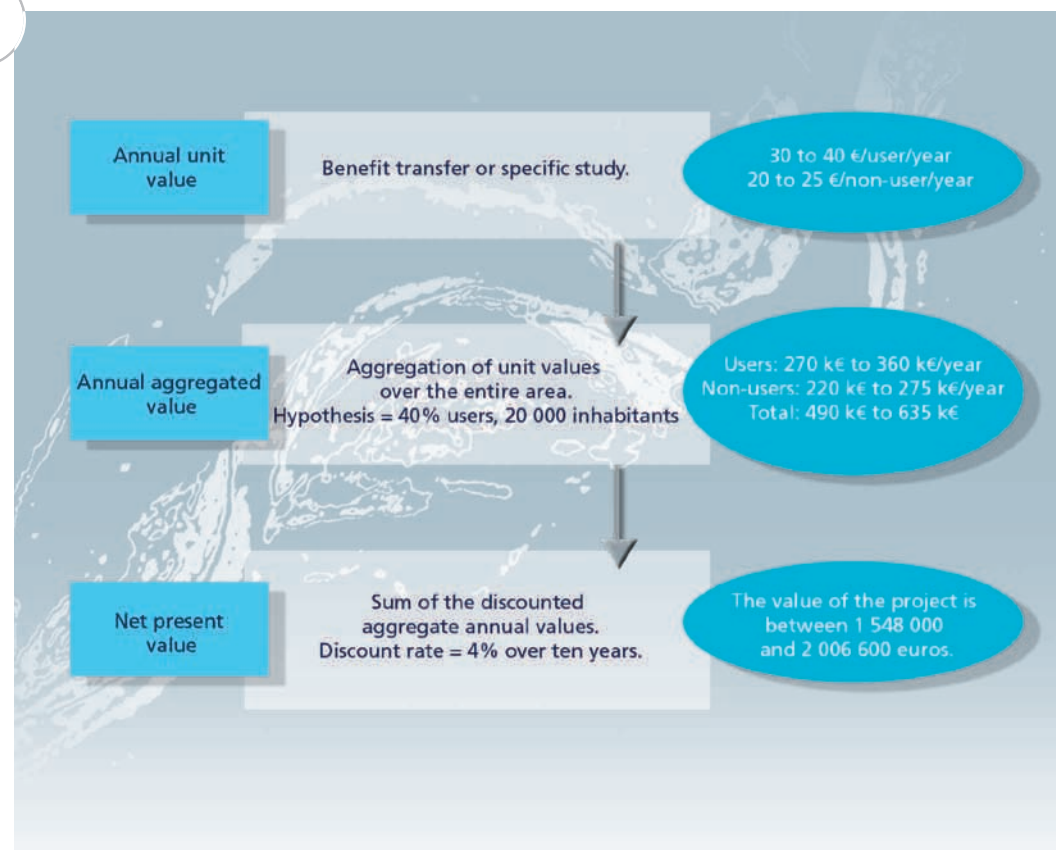
■ Aggregation of the unit values

Once the **unit values have been determined**, it is necessary to proceed with their **aggregation** over the entire population to learn the total benefits produced by conserving or restoring environmental quality.

Calculation of the distribution of benefits over time also requires particular care and the use of a discount rate.

Figure 27 recapitulates the steps involved in the aggregation of unit values.

Figure 27



Steps leading to an estimate of the total value of an environmental good, based on unit values.
Source: the Water agencies.

Example of an assessment of the environmental services rendered by wetlands

An environmental economic assessment of wetlands is based on assigning a market value to the functions and services provided by these environments (see the *Zones humides* journal, no. 66, fourth quarter 2009). However, this type of valuation requires that the services rendered concern a use and/or are of use to users. For this reason, the assessment is anthropocentric, i.e. a service that does not concern a use and/or is not of use to users would have no value or a negligible value.

In French studies, a number of methods have been implemented to determine these values, notably direct market assessment based on prices, the avoided-cost method, the travel-cost method and contingent-valuation methods (see Table 12).

Tableau 12

Value in euros²⁰⁰⁸/hectare/year of the main services provided by wetlands as indicated by the various methods.

	Average economic value found by 15 French studies	Average economic value found by the meta-analysis by Brander <i>et al.</i> (2003) on the basis of 89 sites
Water purification	15 – 11300 (4)	272
Supply of water during low-flow periods	45 – 150 (3)	42
Flood control	37 – 617 (6)	438
Recreational activities		
Fishing	80 – 120 (2)	353
Hunting	230 – 330 (2)	116
Navigation / boating	15 (1)	not assessed
Canoeing/kayaking	28 (1)	not assessed
Social value	200 – 1600 (7)	392
Total services provided (€ ²⁰⁰⁸ /ha/year)	650 – 1416 * 907 – 3132 **	1613

() The number in parentheses indicates the number of studies on which the data is based.

* These values represent the total services provided by the wetland.

** Given the great variability in the water-purification service, the value was replaced by the average (272 €) produced by the meta-analysis undertaken by Brander *et al.*

CGDD, E&D no. 23 (June 2010, <http://www.developpement-durable.gouv.fr/Evaluation-economique-des-services.html>) and LPS no. 62 (September 2010, <http://www.developpement-durable.gouv.fr/L-evaluation-economique-des.html>).

The report titled “Approche économique de la biodiversité et des services liés aux écosystèmes : contribution possible à la décision publique” (B. Chevassus-au-Louis, J.M. Salles and J.L. Pujol, 2009) analyses the methods used to assess the economic value of biodiversity and ecosystem services (see Figure 28). The authors also test the reference values used for social-economic assessments of public investment. In France, some work has used the willingness-to-pay approach. The results of the studies are presented in Tables 13 and 14.

Tableau 13

Assessment of the willingness to pay to preserve wetlands.

Site	Methods used	Willingness to pay per year x households (average willingness to pay)	Size of population concerned by measure	Surface area of the studied wetland	Willingness to pay / ha / year
Der Lake	Contingent valuation	30-33 €	117 000 inhabitants, i.e. 46 600 households	4 800 ha	291-320 €
Orne estuary	Contingent valuation	30-66 €	13 500 inhabitants, i.e. 5 400 households	900 ha	179-394 €
Erdre marshes	Choice experiments	34 €	56 000 inhabitants, i.e. 22 555 households	2 500 ha	307 €
Seine estuary	Choice experiments	18-46 €	1.17 million inhabitants, i.e. 500 000 households	14 000 ha	659-1 652 €

Figure 28



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Example of a wetland.

Tableau 14

Assessment of the services rendered by wetlands.

In euros	Cotentin and Bessin		Bassée		Oise	
	Minimum	Maximum	Minimum	Maximum	Minimum	Maximum
Regulatory services						
Absorption of flood waters			210	3840	110	370
Groundwater recharging	190	370	35	70	35	35
Water purification	830	890	475	1420	315	560
Climate regulation	1800	1800	1800	1800		
Productive services						
Agriculture	585	750	285	305	285	305
Shell fishing	120	120				
Forestry			75	270	75	270
Cultural services						
Hunting	170	340	100	155	60	80
Recreational fishing	165	230	130	160	80	90
Educative and scientific value	10	15	490	540		
Aesthetic and recreational value	290	1170	Negligible	Negligible	Negligible	Negligible
Total use value	2100	3500	900	4300	700	1200
Biodiversity (non-use)	225	870	470	2360	440	2230
Total economic value	2400	4400	1300	6700	1200	3400

CGDD, Economic assessment of services rendered by wetlands, in *Études & documents* no. 49, September 2011.

Recommendations for studies to assess an environmental good or service

Figure 29 lists the steps for an assessment of an environmental good or service. For each step, practical recommendations are provided.

Figure 29



The steps for an assessment of an environmental good or service.
Source: the Water agencies.

In addition to the recommendations listed above, Table 15 recapitulates the various assessment methods that can be used, depending on the values and types of impacts to be assessed.

Tableau 15 Methods to assess different values on a site.

Type of value	Components of the value to be assessed	Available analysis methods
Economic value	Jobs Production Local development Skills	Budgetary analysis* Input/output analysis** Activity-systems analysis***
Ecological services	Environmental services Services provided by species Protection against hazards Biodiversity, genetic heritage	Avoided costs Replacement costs Opportunity costs
Social value	Value of heritage Scientific and educational uses Recreational uses Health and quality of life	Joint evaluation Contingent valuation Travel costs Hedonic pricing

* Budgetary analysis consists of an accounting examination of the revenue and expenses of the environmental-management organisation.
** Input/output analysis requires highly detailed territorial statistics. It attempts to model the economic functioning of the territory and particularly the flows of wealth transiting from one economic compartment to another.
*** Activity-systems analysis measures the positive impact on the economy (improved productivity, quality) of the availability of goods produced by ecosystems (wood, fresh water, etc.).

When should the environmental impacts of a project or measure be assessed?

Assessment of environmental impacts in the WFD programming cycle

In the process of implementing the WFD, economic analyses are carried out at a number of key steps during the preparatory cycle for the management plans of each river basin, as is shown in Figure 30.

Figure 30 Economic analysis during the key phases of WFD implementation.



Source: Maria Salvetti.

For the WFD characterisation process, the economics of water uses and cost recovery of water services must be analysed.

Economic analysis is also required during the process of identifying the heavily modified and artificial water bodies.

Finally, during formulation of the programmes of measures, cost-effectiveness and cost-benefit analyses should be carried out.

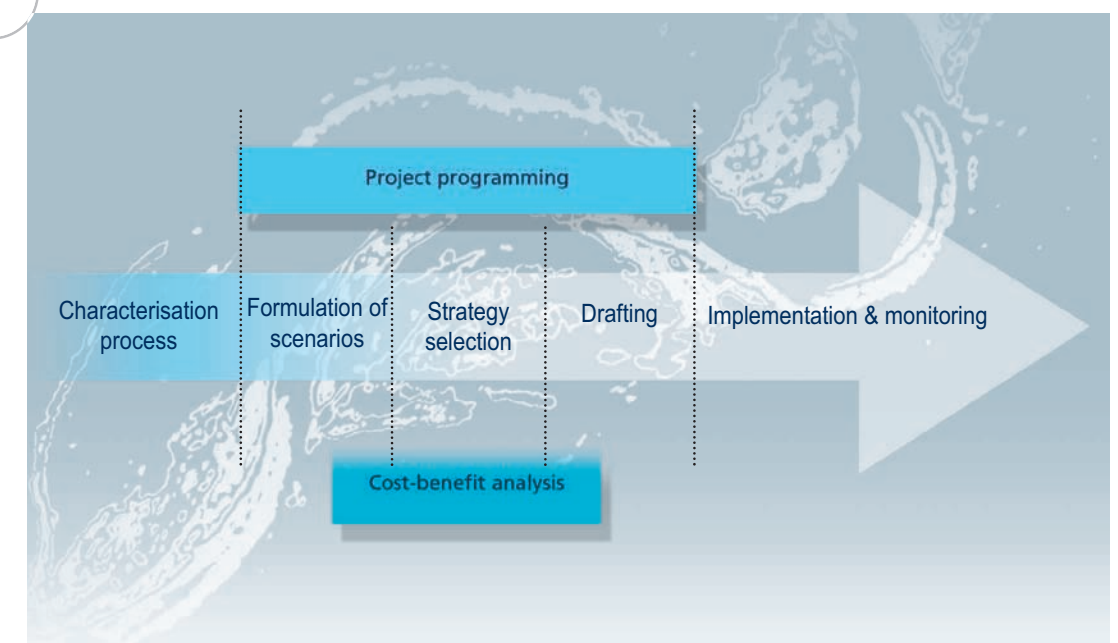
The assessment of environmental benefits and damage is carried out primarily during the phase in which the programmes of measures are drafted. This is because it is during this phase that the disproportionate-cost analyses are done (see the chapter titled "Disproportionate costs - a special type of assessment") in view of justifying exemptions from WFD requirements. The disproportionate-cost analyses include cost-benefit analyses during which the benefits and damages incurred by the various measures are studied and quantified.

It should be noted, however, that the environmental benefit and damage assessments can also be carried out during the identification of the heavily modified and artificial water bodies.

Assessment of environmental impacts during SBMP preparation

For an SBMP, assessment of environmental impacts occurs essentially during the strategy-selection phase (see Figure 31). Collection and processing of the data required for this phase are however closely linked to the characterisation phase.

Figure 31 Assessment of environmental impacts during SBMP preparation.



Source: the Water agencies.

Tableau 16 Experience feedback on environmental benefits and damage assessment during SBMP preparation (Source: the Water agencies).

Issue	Difficulties to be avoided (negative feedback)	Needs expressed	Advantages expressed
Integration of analysis in SBMP procedure	Poor integration of analysis in overall SBMP planning.	Need to simplify procedures (accelerate SBMP preparation).	
	Economic analyses carried out separately, in parallel.	Run the analysis when project participants are ready (i.e. the political decisions concerning the project have been made).	
Data acquisition and processing	Benefits unknown or difficult to quantify (margin of error, no reference points).	Improve access to data.	
	Difficulty in determining the effectiveness of measures and consequently in calculating the avoided costs.	Improve knowledge on effectiveness of measures. Improve links between perception of the territory and the issues.	
	Links between water and the area as a whole may be too technical.		
Analysis scale	Open-ended possible advantages (where does the analysis stop?).	Focus analyses on issues and on each area.	Shed light on underlying economic issues.
	Less populated, less touristic SBMP area.	A "collectively ready" project, i.e. advantages identified for the area, beneficiaries identified, contributors identified, political guidelines set (plan for area).	Highlight the economic value for the area.
	Benefits depend on other measures that fall well outside the scope of the SBMP.		
Debates	Difficulty in perceiving the collective objective.	Need for a forward-looking debate with the local stakeholders.	Provide an alternative to the existing debate.
		Support for political decisions.	Clarify the advantages and the costs.
		Enhance definition of projects in the economic analysis.	Confirm or contradict the economic analyses presented by each stakeholder.
Objectives	Confusion between assessment and budget. Numerous misunderstandings and difficulty in grasping concepts.	Send a message to the local water commission.	Clarify the underlying economic issues, justify the option to be debated for the SBMP.
			Strengthen SBMP legitimacy.

Conclusion

As a conclusion, Table 17 recapitulates the resources required to implement the main methods used to assess environmental impacts, each with their specific advantages and disadvantages.

Tableau 17 Methods to assess the environmental impacts of a project or measure (Source: the Water agencies).

Method	Type of information used	Cost	Skills required	Advantages	Disadvantages
Avoided costs	Technical information	+	Economist Technical expert	Intuitive method, easy to understand.	Provides no information on non-use values.
Contingent valuation	Sample group of people must be interviewed (if postal or telephone survey)	+++	Ecologist Sociologist Statistician Economist	Provides information on non-use values. Can be used to assess all types of goods and services.	Based on answers and hypothetical situations. Higher cost than other methods.
Hedonic pricing	Data on real-estate sales	++	Economist Person with knowledge on real-estate sales Statistician	Suited to assessing changes in environmental quality. Based on choices and real situations.	Provides no information on non-use values. Difficulty in finding suitable real-estate data. Caution concerning effects of inflation.
Travel costs	Sample group of people must be interviewed (if postal or telephone survey) Data on frequency of visits to studied site, on travel costs (bus tickets, etc.)	+++	Statistician Economist	Suited to assessing the recreational value of a site. Based on choices and real situations.	Provides no information on non-use values. The existence of substitute sites and multiple-purpose visits complicates the assessment.

Cost recovery or the water economic cycle

80 ■ Scope of cost-recovery analysis

85 ■ Calculating cost recovery

Scope of cost-recovery analysis

The concept of cost recovery is explicitly mentioned in the WFD. Cost-recovery analysis must be carried out in the process of drafting the characterisation report for each river-basin district. A more simplified form of the analysis may also be carried out for an SBMP. The results can serve as true decision-aid tools in that they facilitate debate and inform on the economic issues in the area covered by the SBMP.

WFD article 9 requires that cost recovery be analysed in each river basin:

“Member States shall take account of the principle of recovery of the costs of water services, including environmental and resource costs, having regard to the economic analysis conducted according to Annex III, and in accordance in particular with the polluter pays principle.”

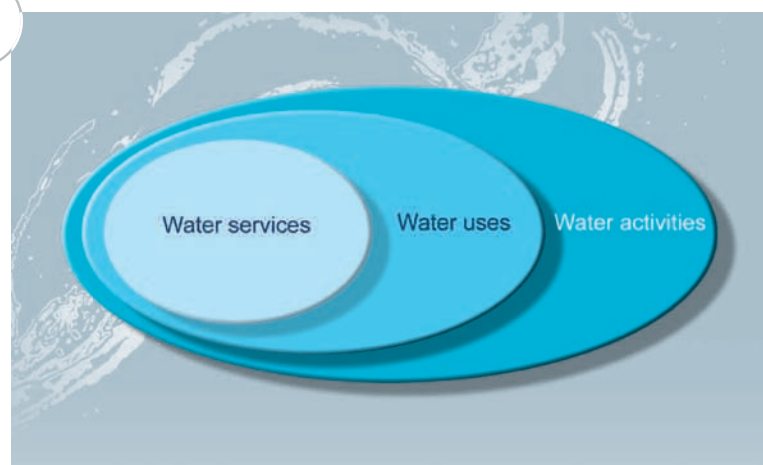
The objective being that water users cover as much as possible the costs incurred by their use of water, primarily through the price paid for that water. The analysis must therefore indicate the degree to which each category of water-service users in fact pays for the water it consumes and discharges. The directive does not set a specific level of cost recovery. It provides the Member States with a certain degree of leeway, notably by providing the possibility of taking into account the social, environmental and economic impacts of cost recovery.

Definition of water services

The 22 April 2004 instructions concerning the analysis of water tariffs and cost recovery of services, in compliance with WFD article 9, provides in their Annex I definitions of the terms “water activities”, “water uses” and “water services”.

The three sets of items are nested, as shown in Figure 32.

Figure 32



Water services. Source: Wateco guide, p.74.

Water activities

“The largest set is that of water activities.” This may include, for example, bathing, irrigation (Figure 33), water distribution, fishing, etc.

By characterising water activities in a river-basin district, it is possible to determine their economic importance, as seen in the previous chapter.

Figure 33



a- b © M. Bramard - Onema

Irrigation is an example of a water activity.
(a) Sprinkler irrigation system for crops. (b) Irrigation via a central-pivot system with drop sprinklers.

Water uses

Water uses include “services” defined by WFD article 2-38 and other activities *“having a significant impact on the status of water”* (art. 2-39). They are identified in WFD Annex II (sections 1.4 and 2.1).

Water services

Water services are characterised by the existence of installations for water abstraction, storage, treatment and discharge (see Figure 34).

“The notion of “service” est extensive because it implicitly includes, absent any contrary indications in article 2-38, public and private services for third parties or for the provider itself, characterised by the presence of installations (abstraction, storage, discharge) and likely to influence significantly the status of water bodies.”

WFD article 2-38

“Water services” means all services which provide, for households, public institutions or any economic activity:

- (a) abstraction, impoundment, storage, treatment and distribution of surface water or groundwater,
- (b) waste-water collection and treatment facilities which subsequently discharge into surface water.

The French position, presented in the 2004 instructions, was therefore to take into account in the analysis both public and private services for third parties or for the provider itself, likely to influence significantly the status of water bodies.

Figure 34



a © B. Gentil - Onema
b © C. Roussel - Onema



Wastewater-treatment plants and water towers are two infrastructure facilities included within the scope of cost-recovery analyses on the costs of water services.
(a) Wastewater-treatment plant.
(b) Water tower.

Definition of the economic sectors using water services

The WFD requires an assessment of cost recovery for water services whereby the data are “disaggregated into at least industry, households and agriculture”.

In addition to these three user categories mentioned by the WFD, it was decided in France to more precisely distinguish within the industrial sector by adding the “quasi-domestic production activities” category. This category includes small shops, services and SMEs whose consumption is fairly similar to that of households. Practically speaking, however, this economic sector is closer to industry than to households.

Taking environmental impacts into account

Finally, the WFD requires that environmental benefits and damages be taken into account:

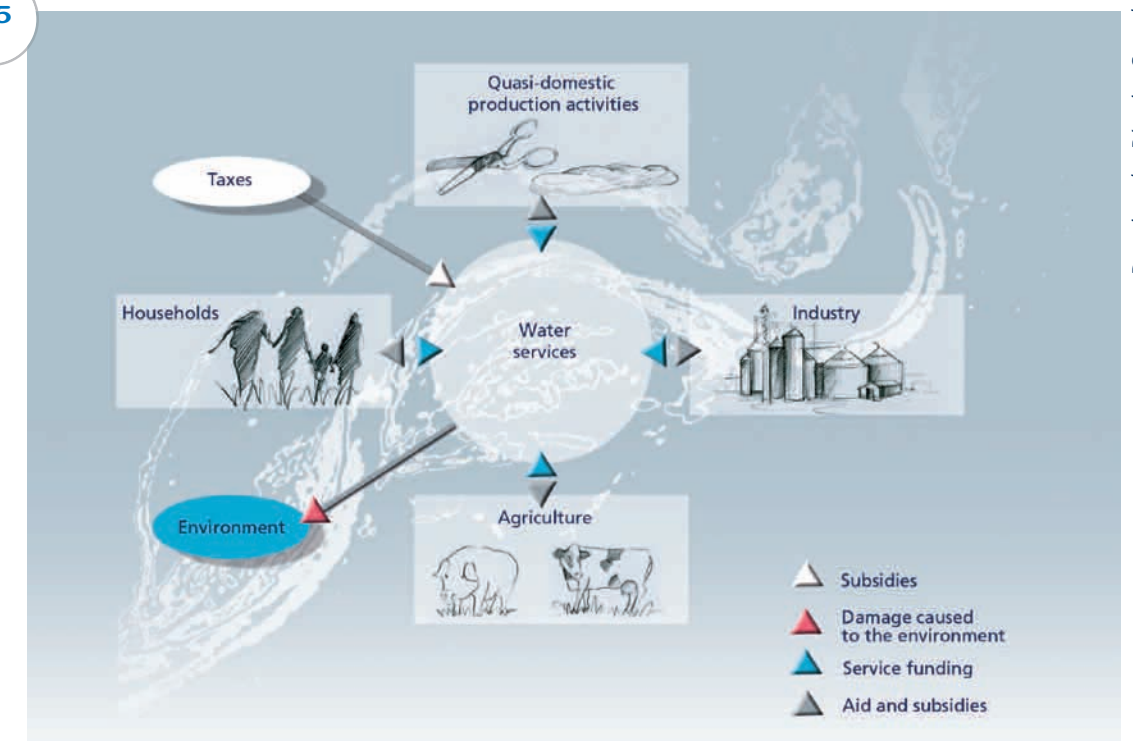
“Member States shall take account of the principle of recovery of the costs of water services, **including environmental and resource costs**, having regard to the economic analysis conducted according to Annex III, and in accordance in particular with the polluter pays principle.”

For this reason, the environment must also be included in the cost-recovery analysis.

Service funding provided by taxes must also be listed.

Cost-recovery efforts therefore consist of identifying and assessing the economic flows between six stakeholders, as shown in Figure 35.

Figure 35



Economic flows between water stakeholders. Source: Maria Salvetti, using work produced by the Forecasting and assessment department of the Seine-Normandie water agency.

Drawings by Béatrice Saurel

Relevant costs for the analysis

The costs that must be assessed and taken into account for cost-recovery calculations are the following:

- capital costs, themselves made up of depreciation (the funds required to rebuild installations), new investment and opportunity costs, i.e. the benefits that could have been drawn from using the capital for another purpose;
- maintenance and operating costs;
- environmental costs which correspond to the market and non-market damage incurred by environmental degradation caused by the services;
- resource costs, i.e. a quantification of the costs borne by other services due to the over-use of the resource by the service in question.

Capital costs may be estimated fairly easily. It should be noted, however, that due to significant difficulties concerning the methods employed, capital opportunity costs are not included in calculations for cost recovery for the time being.

Assessment of the environmental costs also raises problems in terms of the methods. In general, they are roughly calculated using the compensatory costs, which however constitute only a part of the environmental costs.

An example of calculating the compensatory costs of a water service

Included in the maintenance and operating costs, as well as in the depreciation, are “compensatory” costs which correspond to the expenses assumed by the service for environmental degradation caused by other users. For a drinking-water service, these compensatory costs correspond, for example, to the installation of additional treatment processes made necessary by pollution of untreated water by other services and activities.

Purchase of bottled water by consumers confronted with poor-quality tap water caused by resource degradation must also be seen as compensatory expenses borne by households.

For a given service, the resource costs correspond to the expense incurred by the resource use exceeding the desirable level for the collectivity as a whole. In other words, it corresponds to the surplus that could have been achieved by the user making the best alternative use of the resource.

For example, the opportunity cost of an irrigation service compared to an industrial-water service may be roughly calculated by the losses in industrial production if the water is allocated for agricultural use. The opportunity cost of an irrigation service compared to a drinking-water service may be roughly calculated by the losses borne by the town or local government in acquiring water from a more distant location. The opportunity cost of industry and towns compared to agriculture may be estimated on the basis of the lost agricultural income.

Given the difficulties in aggregating compensatory costs over an entire river basin, it was decided not to include them for the time being in calculations of the complete cost of services.

Calculating cost recovery

Once the scope of the analysis has been determined, cost-recovery calculations consist of identifying and estimating all the economic flows involved in water services. The overriding purpose is to provide economic information on water-management issues identified by the characterisation report for the river basin.

With that in mind, the WFD does not require complete cost recovery, but transparency concerning costs must be ensured. To that end, Member States must:

- take into account the principle of cost recovery (art. 9.1.);
- ensure by 2010 “adequate contribution of the different water uses, (...) to the recovery of the costs of water services, based on the economic analysis conducted according to Annex III and taking account of the polluter pays principle”;
- assess “the contribution made by the various water uses to the recovery of the costs of water services” (art. 9.2.).

Practically speaking, the objective is to report on:

- the value of investments and how they are funded for each type of service;
- operating, depreciation and maintenance costs and how they are funded for each type of service;
- the contributions of the various economic sectors to funding of services and the subsidies granted.

Following the calculations, the ratios and economic flows listed below must be estimated:

- percentage of service costs (operating, maintenance and depreciation costs) covered by water prices;
- origin of water-sector funding (public subsidies and/or subsidies from the various economic sectors);
- cost recovery for the environment and water resources in application of the polluter-pays principle.

Assessment of service investments and how they are funded

For each type of service, the volume of investments and subsidies must be determined, taking care to distinguish subsidies funded by environmental fees and those by taxes. It is also necessary to assess any “compensatory” investments, i.e. investments undertaken due to the degradation in the quality or quantity of water resources. This may be the case, for example, of network interconnections, of reinforced treatment of drinking water due to eutrophication, to the presence of nitrates, pesticides, of changes in the position of abstractions, etc.

Table 18 presents a selection of the main compensatory costs and indicates whether they are curative, palliative, preventive, administrative (borne by the State and local governments) or for health purposes.

Tableau 18

Type of compensatory costs.
Source: Onema study, "Analysis of compensatory costs", 2011.

	Type of cost				
	Curative	Palliative	Preventive	Admin.	Health
Consequences following discharge of maritime waste (cleaning, health costs, etc.)	X				X
Increased pumping due to drops in groundwater levels	X				
Cleansing of shellfish following microbiological contamination	X				
Treatment of shellfish following chemical contamination	X				
Shellfish protection and detoxification following algal bloom	X				
Additional treatment of polluted water (mainly for the food industry)	X				
Maintenance of waterways and facilities	X				
Treatment of stored water if eutrophication (DWSS - drinking-water supply and sanitation)	X				
Additional treatment of eutrophication in water (DWSS)	X				
Additional treatment of water polluted by nitrates (DWSS)	X				
Additional treatment of water polluted by pesticides (DWSS)	X				
Mixed waters (DWSS)	X				
Restoration of treatment facilities following accidental pollution	X				
Restoration of wetlands and aquatic zones for recreational fishing	X				
Restocking for recreational fishing in fresh waters	X				
Management of oil spills	X				
Management of sediment contaminated by PCBs	X				
Relocation of shellfish farms		X			
Replacement of water resources to water livestock		X			
Purchase of spat		X			
Relocation of freshwater commercial fishing activities		X			
Replacement resources from reservoirs and dams		X			
Replacement resources from new abstractions		X			
Replacement resources (drinking water used by food industry)		X			
Creation of network interconnections (DWSS)		X			
Deeper wells and related treatments (DWSS)		X			
Replacement resources through desalination of seawater		X			
Replacement sources (tanks and bottles) following anthropogenic degradation		X			
Relocation of recreational activities to another, non-degraded site		X			
Rescue fishing when rivers run dry or following modification of hydraulic conditions in rivers		X			
Reinforced monitoring of water quality when thresholds are overrun (DWSS)			X	X	
Subsidies to change farming practices in abstraction supply zones (ASZ)			X		
Subsidies to change plant-protection practices by public or economic stakeholders in ASZs			X		
Incentives to change plant-protection practices by households in ASZs			X		
Protection of abstractions (land purchases outside of well-protection perimeters)			X		
Reinforced monitoring of water quality when thresholds are overrun (resources used by food industry)				X	
Administrative costs incurred for management of accidental pollution (DWSS)				X	
Administrative costs incurred by "green tides"				X	
Administrative costs incurred by oil spills				X	
Decisions to forbid harvesting and sale of seafood and freshwater products if contaminated				X	
Decisions on water use during dry periods and monitoring (central government)				X	
Reinforced monitoring of water quality when thresholds are overrun (recreation and consumption)				X	
Administrative costs incurred in managing PCB pollution				X	

Figure 36



(a) and (b). Protection of a drinking-water abstraction.

Assessment of current expenditure for services and how it is funded

Current expenditure of services consists of operating expenses and depreciation. For each type of service, current expenditure and revenues must be assessed not including VAT and environmental fees, the latter being accounted for in the expenses of the various economic sectors.

- The cost-recovery ratio is then calculated by comparing:
- expenses incurred by services (operating expenses and depreciation);
 - revenues (billing volumes and operating subsidies).

Autonomous services that do not receive operating subsidies may produce a 100% cost-recovery rate.

For collective water and sanitation services (see Figure 37), it is also necessary to distinguish between subsidies financed by water prices, e.g. water-treatment fees collected by the Water agencies, and those financed by taxes, e.g. balancing subsidies.

In addition, the study must assess the costs incurred by the construction of facilities made necessary by resource degradation. It should be noted that the current expenditure in conjunction with the compensatory investments are already accounted for in the operating expenses of the service.

Figure 37



a- b © M. Carrouee - Onema

Cost-recovery analysis targets primarily public water and sanitation services.

The expenses of public sanitation services also include expenses for rainwater management, a responsibility of towns. This means that it is necessary to calculate the economic flows for rainwater management between service users and taxpayers.

Rainwater expenses

Description of economic flows between service users and taxpayers

Management of rainwater is the responsibility of towns and must be assumed by their budgets. In general, however, rainwater management is taken over by the collective sanitation service and booked in its subsidiary budget.

Local governments having a combined sewerage system must then contribute to recovery of the expenses booked in the sanitation-service subsidiary budget (for those having a subsidiary budget), on the basis of a percentage set by the local government, in compliance with ministerial instruction dated 12 December 1978. This contribution is booked to account 7 063 “contribution of local governments”, an account created specifically for this purpose.

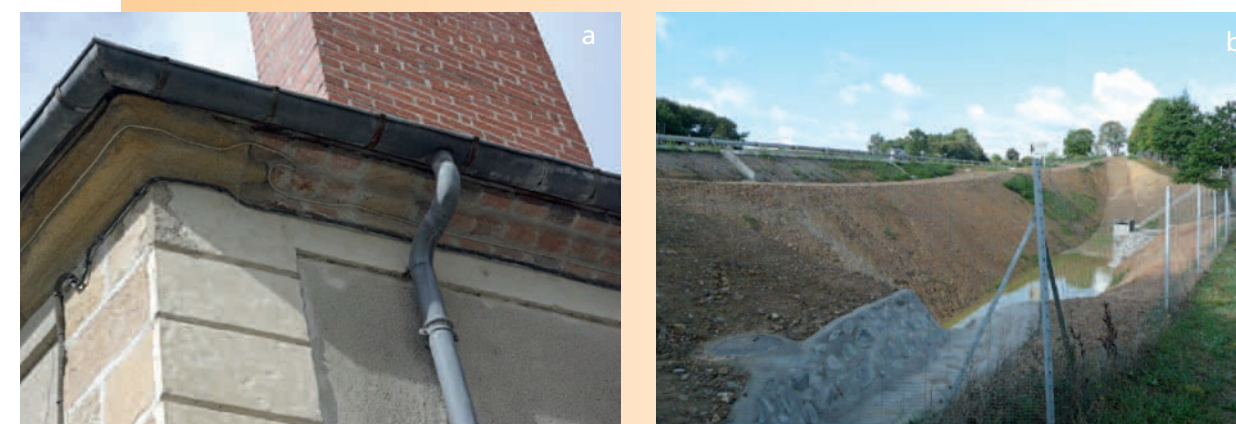
However, the amount booked to account 7 063 is rarely indicative of the actual costs incurred by rainwater management because local governments do not necessarily reimburse sanitation services in full for the outlays.

The difficulty for local governments having separate collection systems lies in identifying and distinguishing the expenses pertaining to rainwater management. These expenses must be booked in the municipal accounts and assumed by the general budget.

In the 2012 cost-recovery analysis using 2009 data, the cost for management of combined sewerage systems was estimated on the basis of the revenue listed in the subsidiary budgets (account 7 063 mentioned in the M49 accounting instructions), i.e. 192 million euros.

This amount corresponds to the minimum value reimbursed by local governments to sanitation services to cover the costs of rainwater management. This calculation serves to estimate the economic transfer between taxpayers and users of sanitation services.

Source: Cost-recovery analysis, 2009, Ernst and Young for IOWater.



Gutters serve to collect rainwater and catch basins retain excess water.
(a) Gutter. (b) Catch basin.

a © M. Carrouee - Onema
b © O. Leroyer - Onema

Assessment of the contributions of the economic sectors using the services

After assessing the outlays of services and how they are funded, it is necessary to calculate the contributions of the various economic sectors. This step in the analysis answers the question of “Who pays what” (see Table 19).





At this point, it is necessary to take into account:

- the contributions of the different categories of users to the funding of collective water and sanitation services;
- the contributions of the various economic sectors to funding of subsidies for water services, taking care to distinguish funding from taxes and funding via environmental fees;
- environmental and water-resource costs borne by the economic sectors.

Table 19 shows an example of the breakdown of the contributions from the various sectors to service funding.

The work consists of noting the total amounts (represented here by letters) of expenses, of subsidies and of the environmental costs borne by each category of user.

Tableau 19 Example of a table summing up the cost-recovery data.

	 Households	 Productive activities	 Industry	 Agriculture
Contribution to service funding, in euros	A	D	G	J
Contribution to funding of subsidies for services, in euros	B	E	H	K
Environmental and water-resource costs, in euros	C	F	I	L

Disproportionate costs – a special type of assessment



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Introduction

The European water framework directive, voted in December 2000, requires that the Member States reach ambitious environmental objectives for all water bodies in all the major river basins (river-basin districts as per the WFD).

The directive set four essential objectives:

- no further deterioration of water resources;
- reaching good status or good potential of water bodies by 2015;
- reducing or eliminating pollution by priority substances;
- complete compliance with all standards in protected zones by 2015.

To reach these objectives in each river-basin district, it is necessary to characterise the pressures and impacts, run economic analysis of water uses (article 5), draft a water-management plan (article 13) and set up a programme of measures (article 11). In addition, participation by the public is mandatory (article 14).

Economic analysis plays a major role in WFD implementation. It serves as a decision-aid tool throughout the planning process because it can be used to:

- assess and contrast the economic value of water uses and the related issues;
- estimate the degree of cost recovery and the incentive value of price levels;
- determine the most cost-effective combinations of measures to achieve environmental objectives;
- **justify exemptions for deadlines and/or objectives on the basis of disproportionate cost.**

There are two types of exemptions for WFD requirements.

Exemptions for deadlines are mentioned in article 4.4 (see Figure 38a).

Reaching good status or good potential of water bodies may be postponed until 2021 or 2027 at the latest. This type of exemption must be justified using one of the three arguments below:

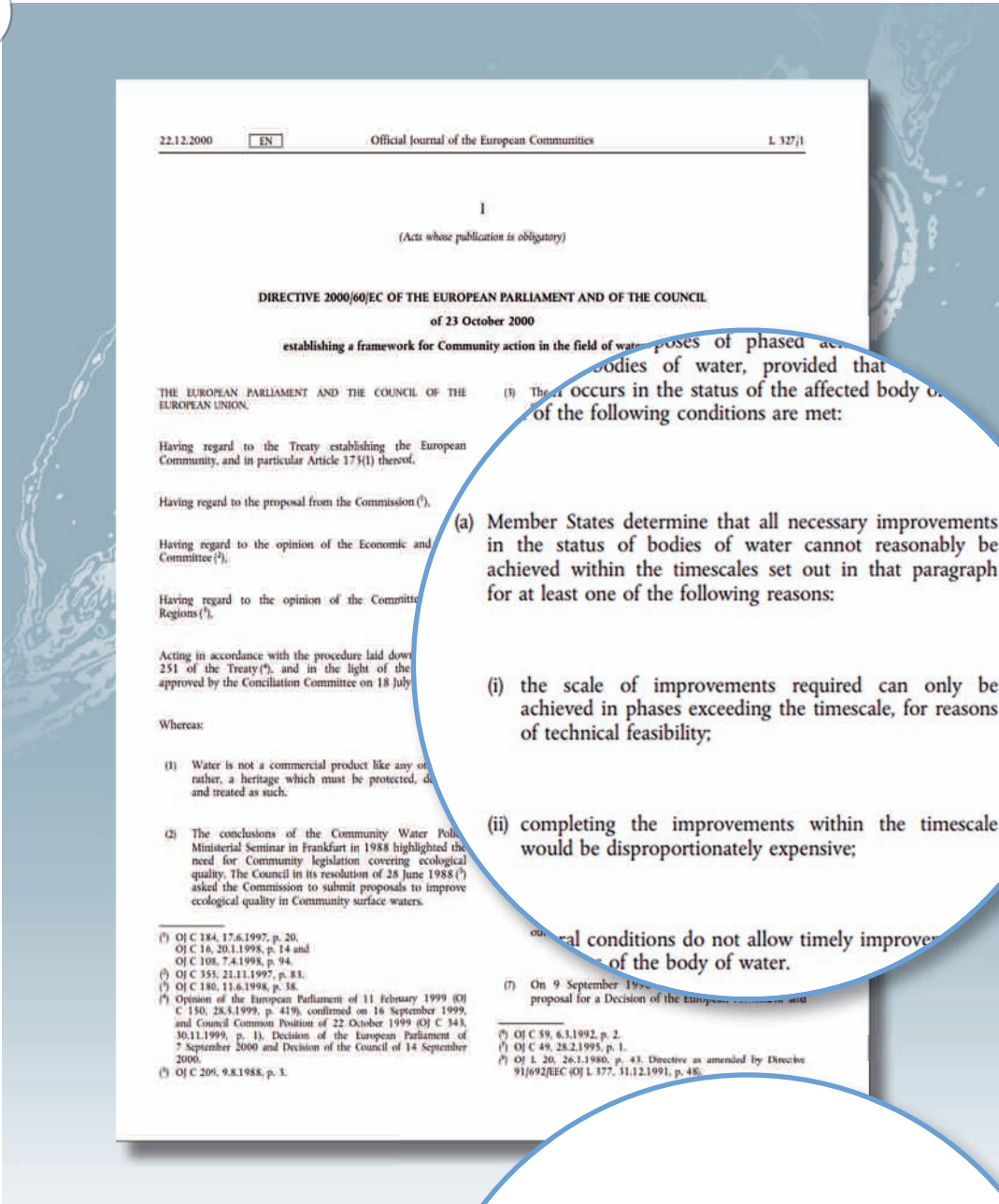
- for technical reasons, the necessary improvements can be made only in a series of steps running beyond the deadlines set for the programme;
- the cost of the necessary improvements within the set deadlines would be disproportionately expensive;
- the existing natural conditions make it impossible to carry out the improvements in the water bodies within the set deadlines.

Exemptions for objectives are mentioned in article 4.5 (see Figure 38b).

Similar to the above arguments, the WFD accepts that the Member States set less rigorous environmental objectives for certain water bodies that have been so modified by human activities or where the natural conditions are such that it would be impossible to reach the set objectives or the cost would be disproportionate even if spread over several WFD management cycles.

The concept of disproportionate cost can thus be used to justify exemptions in terms of both deadlines and the final status. It is therefore an important component in the formulation and planning of programmes of measures. In both France and the U.K., it was deemed better to strictly limit exemptions for objectives and to opt instead, whenever possible, for deadline exemptions.

Figure 38



Excerpts from WFD articles 4.4 and 4.5.

Basic measures and supplementary measures

It is important to note that the WFD, article 11, stipulates that programmes of measures shall include:

- basic measures, i.e. those pertaining to existing national and European legislation, notably concerning the directives for nitrates, urban wastewater treatment, bathing, shellfish and untreated water intended for drinking water;
- supplementary measures that must be implemented to achieve good status if the basic measures are found to be insufficient.

The basic measures are the minimum requirements, which explains why exemptions may be granted exclusively for supplementary measures. However, the total cost of all the measures will be taken into account when analysing the economic impact of programmes of measures on the stakeholders who must pay for them.

However, beyond those few guidelines, the WFD did not indicate precisely just what the concept of disproportionate costs means and covers. The required methods to justify exemptions are not explicitly laid out. A number of work groups, notably the *WATECO* (WATer ECOnomics) group, subsequently produced guidelines to facilitate day-to-day WFD implementation.

A document was drafted on how to justify exemptions. It explains that:

- judgement on the disproportionate cost of a measure is a political decision based on economic information;
- the disproportion threshold is not situated where costs exceed the quantifiable benefits;
- the assessment of costs and benefits must include quantitative, but also qualitative elements;
- the proportion by which costs exceed benefits must be both ascertainable and relatively certain, and decision-makers may take into account the ability to pay of the stakeholders concerned by the measures.

However, the document does not go beyond the above recommendations and is relatively brief.

Each Member State was thus obliged to make an effort to better understand and more precisely define the notion of disproportionate cost. What exactly does it mean and what is its scope? Which economic methods and analyses must be used to show that a set of measures for a water body or group of water bodies would lead to disproportionate costs? For example, which methods have been implemented in France and in the U.K.? To what extent do the methods employed differ from one country to the other?

In France, national guidelines with local adaptations

The national method to justify exemptions for economic reasons

The WFD 2006/17 ministerial instructions on the preparation, contents and scope of programmes of measures propose a method to justify extended deadlines and exemptions for objectives. This method was subsequently developed and presented in greater detail in the methods guide on justifying WFD exemptions, published in October 2009.

As a first step, it is necessary to determine the **relevant scale** for analyses in view of justifying exemptions. Even though WFD environmental objectives are formulated for water bodies, the correct scale for an analysis depends on the problem at hand.

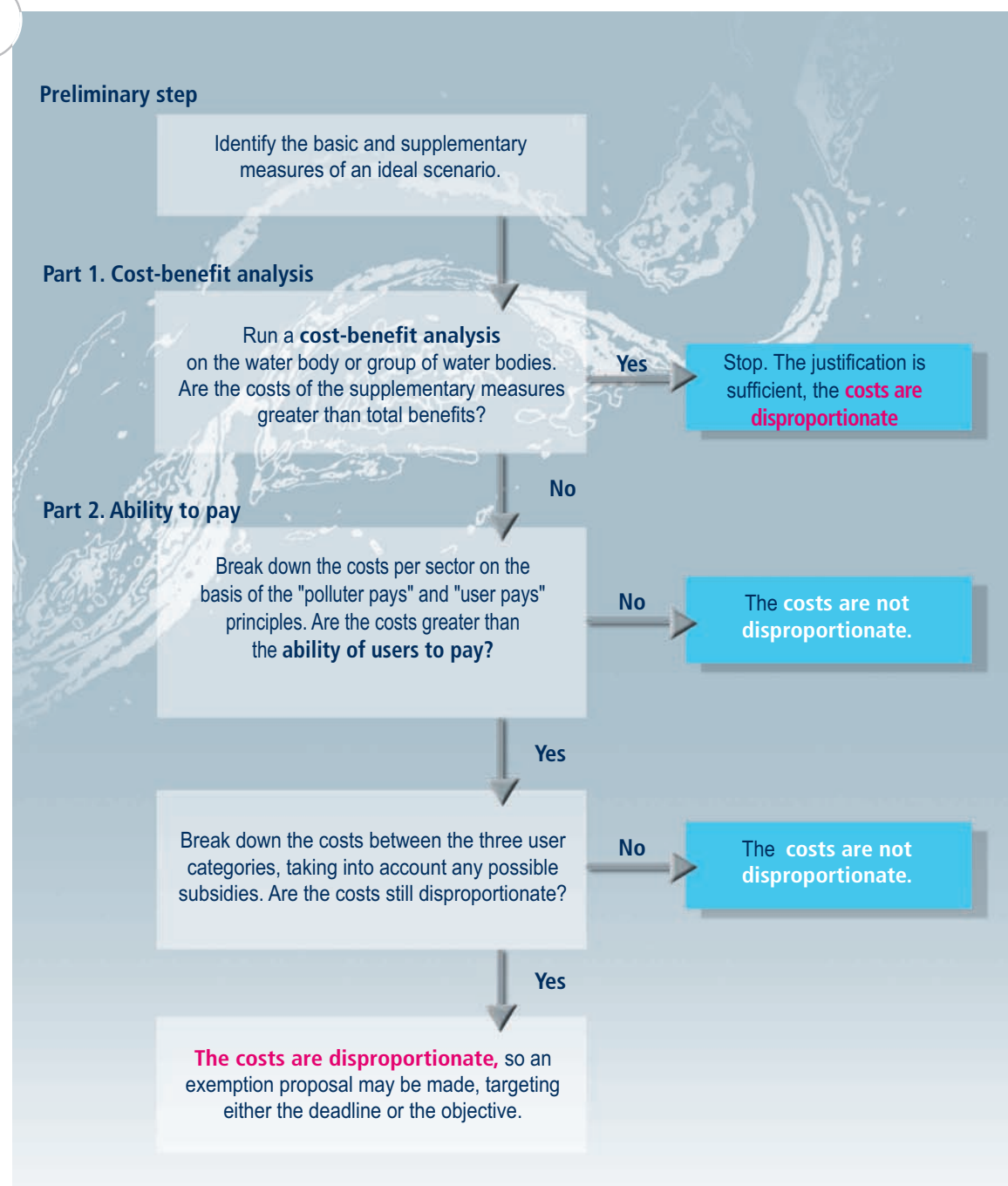
The cost-benefit analysis should be carried out on the appropriate hydrographic scale to take into account, among other aspects, the fact that costs incurred for one water body may produce benefits in a downstream water body. Analysis can therefore be carried out on the level of:

- a water body when good status is not reached because of pollution discharged to the water body or because of hydrological modifications caused by an installation;
- a group of water bodies making up a river basin when the detected problem concerns the entire basin.

As a second step, the method suggests examining whether any **technical reasons and the natural conditions** do not, in and of themselves, justify extending the deadline after 2015. It is only when the objectives for 2015 appear technically feasible taking into account the natural conditions that an extension of the deadline for disproportionate cost becomes a possibility. It follows that **analysis to provide economic justification for an extension should be carried out only after having tested the technical feasibility and studied the natural conditions**.

Once the appropriate scale has been selected and the technical feasibility / natural conditions have been confirmed, the procedure to justify an exemption for economic reasons may be launched, as shown in Figure 39.

The method consists of identifying the basic and supplementary measures of an ideal scenario in order to determine the costs, where an ideal scenario is one in which good status of the water body (or group of water bodies) is reached by 2015.



Flow chart to determine whether an exemption based on disproportionate cost is justified in France.
Source: Maria Salvetti based on the WFD 2006/17 ministerial instructions concerning the preparation, contents and scope of programmes of measures.

■ Cost-benefit analysis

The first part of the method consists of a cost-benefit analysis (CBA) on the water body or group of water bodies and addressing the transition from the current status to good status in 2015.

It was decided on the European level that the cost-benefit analyses would take into account only the costs of the supplementary measures. This is because exemptions are available only for the supplementary measures, i.e. those not related to the implementation of the other directives mentioned above. However, for practical reasons, it was decided to calculate the potential benefits of both the basic and supplementary measures. It should be noted that this simplification results in an overestimation of the benefits with respect to the costs (because the latter are calculated only for the supplementary measures).

If the cost of the supplementary measures is greater than the potential benefits, it is considered disproportionate. On the other hand, if the benefits are greater than the cost, it is necessary to proceed with the second part of the analysis.

Costs, benefits and present value

CBA takes into account not only the investment costs, but also the recurring costs (maintenance, operation) of the supplementary measures foreseen in the ideal scenario of the programme of measures. Costs are calculated starting in 2010 whereas benefits are calculated only from 2015 onward.

The main difficulty in estimating costs lies in sizing the measures and in translating that information into cost data. This is because it is fairly easy to calculate the unit cost of a measure, however it is more difficult to quantify the number of metres of river that must be renaturalised or the pollution that must be treated to reach good status, and consequently to determine the total cost of a measure given the uncertainty concerning the probable impacts of the considered measures. It is therefore necessary to deal with the uncertainty and propose sizing solutions taking care to explain the selected assumptions.

The benefits assessed and taken into account include:

- market benefits, i.e. those having a market value that can be estimated on the basis of existing economic circuits. These may include economic profits made by certain local activities, e.g. increased added value for recreational activities, or avoided costs, e.g. lower treatment costs for drinking water or reduced water consumption for industries, etc. These benefits may be quantified;
- non-market benefits, i.e. those not having a market value that can be estimated on the basis of existing economic circuits. Examples may be the satisfaction of consumers following an improvement in water quality or the interest shown by inhabitants (whether or not consumers) for an improvement in the natural heritage (more fish species, improvements for bathing and in biodiversity, enhanced ecosystems, etc.). These benefits are more difficult to assess and are often estimated qualitatively. They are, however, of the utmost importance for environmental assessments.

Other aspects of more or less importance on the local level may also be examined, e.g. the impacts on health, flooding, etc.

In the absence of consensus among the concerned local stakeholders (owners of installations and users) on the estimates for these values, more precise assessments of the uses (local surveys) and the potential benefits may be carried out.

The estimated costs and benefits are then discounted at a rate of 4% per year over a 30-year period. These recommendations concerning the discount rate and duration were set by the Prime minister on the basis of a report drafted by the General planning commission.

Present value and discount rate

The General planning commission defines present value as “the mathematical operation used to compare economic values spread over long periods. The purpose is to convert the future value of an item or a future expense to its present value. The discount rate is the conversion percentage between the future and the present. It represents the value of time for a company or a local government and may even be called the price of time”. Calculation of the present value serves to convert future expenses and benefits so that they may be taken into account in the analysis. The decision concerning the level of the discount rate is in fact a decision assigning a relative value to the future compared to current issues and values. The higher the percentage, the greater the preference for the present and the less importance accorded to the future.

Practically speaking, the calculation consists of applying a coefficient to reduce the value of future costs and benefits compared to present values. The level of the discount rate influences the results of a cost-benefit analysis.

The General planning commission has recommended that there be a single public discount rate and that it be used for all public investment projects in all sectors of activity. In 2005, the commission proposed a revision to the rate which is now 4% in France for 30-year periods. For comparison purposes, the discount rate is 4% in Sweden and 3.5% in the U.K.

Leeway in appraising the cost-benefit ratio

Given the uncertainty affecting CBA calculations, the Ecology ministry has recommended applying a 20% margin when comparing costs and benefits. For example, the cost-benefit ratio must be less than 0.8 before drawing the conclusion that the cost of supplementary measures is disproportionate to the potential total benefits. Otherwise, if the total benefits represent 80% or more of the costs for the supplementary measures, it is necessary to proceed with an analysis of the ability of stakeholders to pay.

A tool to assess benefits

In order to ensure consistency and facilitate the vast amount of work required for the many water bodies likely to receive an economic exemption, the department for economic studies and environmental evaluation at the Ecology ministry developed a spreadsheet tool to accelerate execution of large numbers of cost-benefit analyses. The tool uses a database containing unit costs and unit willingness-to-pay data in a predetermined list. This makes it possible to calculate the key ratios of the cost-benefit analysis rapidly (http://www.economie.eaufrance.fr/spip.php?rubrique65&id_mot=78).

The tool also facilitates the calculation of benefits through the use of average "unit guide values" based on data drawn from approximately 40 studies on the topic in France, for example the value of a day of fishing, the purification value of a hectare of wetland, the average annual value of bathing in a river, etc. The result is, in essence, an intermediate approach between a rough qualitative study and an in-depth on-site study. The figures produced should not be seen as unquestionable values, but rather as an initial step in the assessment process. The tool can also calculate totals for discounted costs and benefits using the discount rate proposed by the General planning commission.

A user's guide is also provided with the tool (see Figure 40).

Figure 40



Cover of the guide on benefit assessment drafted by the department for economic studies and environmental evaluation at the Ecology ministry.

■ Analysis of the ability to pay by the categories of water users

Breakdown of costs per economic sector on the basis of the "polluter pays" principle

The second part of the method consists of comparing the financial capacities of water users to the total costs required to reach good status. To that end, the costs of measures are broken down and assigned to the various economic sectors on the basis of the polluter-pays and user-pays (i.e. the beneficiaries) principles. All costs are distributed among the polluters in the given area (water body, group of water bodies, sub-basin).

When a polluter does not exist or cannot be identified, the costs are assigned to the local beneficiaries. For measures addressing hydromorphological and rainwater issues, if a polluter and a beneficiary cannot be identified, the costs are assigned uniformly to the taxpayers in the given area.

The polluters and beneficiaries are divided into three main economic sectors as stipulated by the WFD (i.e. agriculture, households and industry), to which taxpayers must be added, who pay for measures funded via local or national taxes. All costs are fully transferred to the three categories of stakeholders, without taking into account at this point in the analysis any subsidies or alternative funding (Water agencies, departmental councils, State, etc.).

The total costs of measures (both basic and supplementary) are divided among the categories of users and compared to a set of financial indicators specific to each category (added value, taxable income, water prices, etc.) in order to determine whether the costs are disproportionate. Thresholds must be set for each of the selected indicators.

Indicators for each category of water user

Sheet number 5 in the WFD 2006/17 ministerial instructions suggested a number of indicators for each category of water user. Below is the list.

Households

- Cost of techniques commonly implemented by local governments of the same size.
- Cost of specific work required to achieve objectives. This cost must be compared to the cost of the investment programme carried out in past years or planned by the local government to continue its development and the creation of facilities.
- Price of water and observed average prices.
- Average income of households compared to observed average incomes.

Industry

- Cost of the best technologies available and commonly used by the industrial sector in question.
- Cost of procedures and systems going beyond the basic measures.

Agriculture

- Cost of the best environmental practices commonly used by the agricultural sector in question.
- Cost of procedures and systems going beyond the basic measures.

In the methods guide mentioned above, it is advised to determine whether costs for farmers and industry are disproportionate by looking at the potential impact of the measures on their gross operating margins. However, the applicable thresholds for gross operating margins must be set for each river basin. For households, the guide recommends determining whether costs are disproportionate by examining the potential impact of the measures on water prices. If the measures are projected to increase water bills to a level between 2% and 3% of taxable income of the households (based on INSEE statistical data), the costs may be considered disproportionate prior to taking into account alternative funding sources.

If this step determines that the costs are disproportionate, it is necessary to go on to the last step in the analysis, which again consists of distributing the costs among the user categories, but taking into account any possible subsidies and alternative funding sources.

If, on the other hand, the costs are not considered disproportionate, the measures are deemed affordable by the local stakeholders, though it may be advisable to have the Water agencies or other funding organisations intervene to reduce somewhat the impact of the measures on the concerned sectors.

The ability to pay and alternative funding sources

This phase takes any alternative funding sources into account in the analysis in order to reduce the financial impact on the various sectors and to determine whether the available subsidies are sufficient to make the costs acceptable.

Once the alternative funding sources have been presented in detail, all costs are divided among the three categories of stakeholders taking into account, i.e. subtracting, the available subsidies (Water agencies, departmental and regional councils, EU funds, etc.). The analysis then proceeds as in the previous step for each of the three categories of users, using the same ratios and the same reference values.

If the costs are still disproportionate in spite of the subsidies, it is necessary to propose extensions of deadlines. If in 2027 the distributed costs taking into account the subsidies were still disproportionate, it would then be necessary to select less rigorous environmental objectives for the concerned water bodies (or at least for the parameters in question).

Local adaptations of the national guidelines

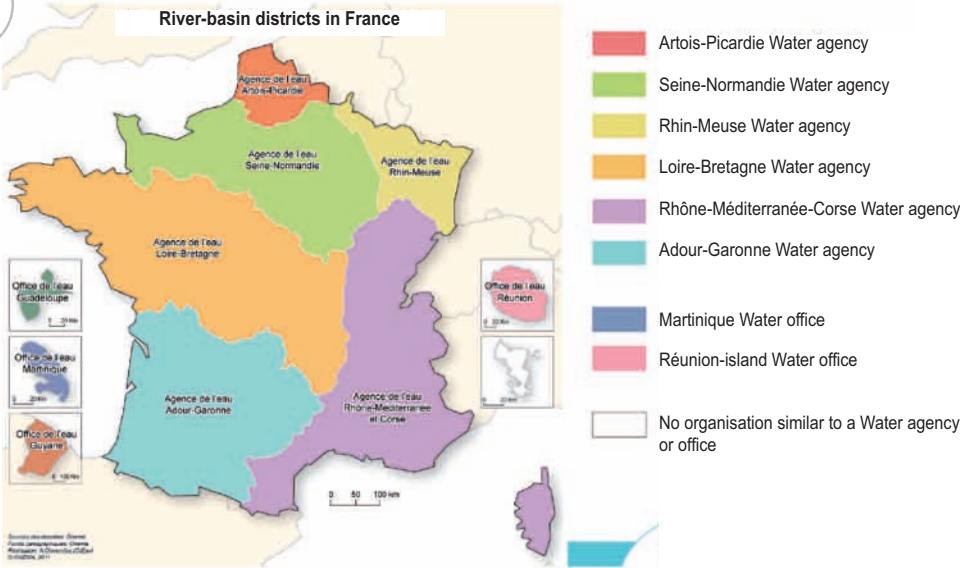
The Water agencies had to justify extended deadlines and exemptions to objectives for a certain number of water bodies in their respective basins (see Figure 41). Tables 20 and 21 present a rapid quantitative summary of the various objectives targeted for water bodies in France.

Tableau 20

Distribution of water bodies in the river-basin districts (source: Water agencies, regional environmental directorates, BRGM, Onema, IOWater, Water offices, Ecology ministry (2011), Processing by SOeS, 2011).

River-basin district	Total water bodies	Total surface water bodies	Including heavily modified water bodies	Total groundwater bodies
Seine Normandie	1 803	1 750	120	53
Artois Picardie	98	80	28	18
Adour Garonne	2 913	2 808	174	105
Rhin Meuse	669	643	88	26
Loire Bretagne	2 293	2 150	227	143
Rhône Méditerranée Corse	3 195	3 006	232	189
Guadeloupe	64	58	0	6
Martinique	50	44	2	6
Guyane	956	944	1	12
Réunion	56	40	1	17
Mayotte		46	2	6
TOTAL	12 150	11 569	875	581

Figure 41



Water agencies and offices in France.

Number of exemptions due to disproportionate costs compared to other exemptions.
(Source: <http://www.rapportage.eaufrance.fr/dce/2010/valorisation/tableaux>)

	Articles 4.4 and 4.5 Technical feasibility	Articles 4.4 and 4.5 Disproportionate costs	Articles 4.4 Natural conditions
Exemptions due to the ecological status/potential			
Moderate ecological status in 2009	2 324	808	1 006
Poor ecological status in 2009	703	446	337
Bad ecological status in 2009	167	79	127
Ecological status unknown in 2009 (natural water bodies)	3	0	6
Moderate ecological potential in 2009	103	25	31
Poor ecological potential in 2009	89	50	54
Bad ecological potential in 2009	112	38	41
Ecological potential unknown in 2009 (artificial and heavily modified water bodies)	51	6	45
TOTAL	3 552	1 452	1 647
Exemptions due to the chemical status of surface waters			
Bad chemical status in 2009 (natural water bodies)	1 521	435	107
Chemical status unknown in 2009 (natural water bodies)	484	366	73
Bad chemical status in 2009 (artificial and heavily modified water bodies)	178	39	44
Chemical status unknown in 2009 (artificial and heavily modified water bodies)	43	3	35
TOTAL	2225	843	259
Exemptions due to the chemical status of groundwater			
Bad chemical status in 2009	49	31	153
Chemical status unknown in 2009	0	0	0
TOTAL	49	31	153
Exemptions due to the quantitative status of groundwater			
Bad quantitative status in 2009	3	3	5
Quantitative status unknown in 2009	0	0	0
TOTAL	3	3	5

To justify these exemptions, the Water agencies started with the national method presented in the WFD 2006/17 ministerial instructions and the methods guide on justifying exemptions, and adapted them to their local context and needs. Certain elements of the local adaptations of the national method are presented in detail below.

■ Order of analyses on cost-benefits and ability to pay

The national method recommends starting with the cost-benefit analysis and then proceeding, if necessary, with an analysis of the ability of stakeholders to pay.

However, it has been noted that the Loire-Bretagne, Rhin-Meuse and Seine-Normandie Water agencies reversed the order of the two types of analysis. In these three river basins, the analysis of the ability to pay was carried out first as an initial filter to limit subsequent analysis to the water bodies effectively likely to receive an extended deadline due to disproportionate cost. Then, cost-benefit analyses were run on the resulting geographic sectors in order to terminate the work.

To illustrate this point, the box on the next page presents the economic justification for an extended deadline in the southern Morbihan region (Loire-Bretagne basin).

■ Presentation of benefits in cost-benefit analyses

In carrying out cost-benefit analyses, the national method recommends taking into account both market and non-market benefits. All Water agencies followed this advice.

However, the Rhin-Meuse Water agency decided to characterise the benefits expected from the implementation of the measures using different terminology in a different presentation. In its analysis, the agency distinguished between benefits related to use of water and aquatic environments, and non-use benefits.

Use benefits include boating recreation, fishing, walks and reduced treatment costs.

Non-use benefits take into account the bequest value and the enhanced value of ecosystems.

In addition, it should be noted that the benefit-transfer method was used to assess certain benefits.

The tables shown in the Annex recapitulate the cost-benefit analyses carried out in the Rhin-Meuse basin and propose a presentation of the costs and benefits taken into account.



Justification of deadline extensions in the southern Morbihan region

■ Part 0. Presentation of the procedure

The first step consisted of an analysis, covering the entire basin, on the ability to pay. It was carried out as an initial filter to limit subsequent analysis to the water bodies effectively likely to receive an extension due to disproportionate cost. Then in the second step, cost-benefit analyses were run on the geographic sectors of the river basin in order to finish the assessment work.

■ Part 1 (a). Results of the initial filter (ability-to-pay analysis)

The analysis of the ability to pay in the Loire-Bretagne basin produced two major conclusions:

- the first, concerning treatment of urban wastewater. Sizing of the programmes of measures is consistent with the objectives. The degradation targeted by the work (organic and oxydisable matter, or macropollutants not including nitrates and phosphorous) should be sufficiently eliminated to meet WFD objectives by 2015 and, with some exceptions, exemptions may not be justified by disproportionate costs;
- the second, concerning nonpoint-source pollution from farms and river morphology. The programme of measures required to attain good status by 2015 is more ambitious than the currently planned policies. The management committees for certain projects may be insufficiently robust or reticent to launch the projects. In addition, technical lead times for the implementation of projects and the inertia of the environment mean that the time required to reach the objectives would be very long.

Under these conditions and in compliance with the decisions of the planning commission, extensions of deadlines and even reduced objectives have been accepted for water bodies affected by certain types of degradation (nitrates, particulate phosphorous, river morphology) and requiring the most work to achieve good status.

■ Part 1 (b). Application to the Côtier Breton Nord Manche sector

The geographic commission is broken down into four sectors, namely the Vilaine River basin, the Côtier Breton Nord Manche river basins (including both the Couesnon and Douron basins), the coastal basins in the Finistère department (including the Laïta basin) and the Côtier Breton Sud Morbihan basins (including the Scorff basin to the Golfe du Morbihan). The total amounts for the territory of the commission mask major local differences caused notably by poor quality criteria in certain basins with respect to good status. The highest investment and operating costs for supplementary measures are noted in the Vilaine River basin. The Côtier Breton Sud Morbihan sector, the smallest, has the lowest costs. The supplementary measures deal primarily with nonpoint-source pollution and river morphology. The investment and operating costs for supplementary measures target essentially rural areas (local rural development).

Morphology is the main disqualifying parameter in terms of the numbers of water bodies affected. For very small rivers, given the lack of knowledge on their physical-chemical situation, morphology is virtually the only disqualifying characteristic. **Nitrates** affect all categories of water bodies. The **trophic nature** of lakes is illustrated by the importance of phosphorous as a parameter to justify extensions of deadlines. The programme also includes measures on **micropolluants** in estuarine and coastal waters.

Implementation of the supplementary measures, the high level of implication on the part of the funding parties and the often positive changes in water quality in the areas managed by the geographic commission over the past few years have made it possible to upgrade the objectives for good status of water bodies.

The supplementary measures would appear to produce significant results in rivers, however other types of water bodies are less reactive. This may justify extended deadlines for lakes, coastal and transitional waters, and groundwater. Finally, it should be noted that in the area

managed by the geographic commission, there are major benefits arising from seashore tourism, as well as from the supply of drinking water and the development of shellfish farming.

The Côtier Breton Sud Morbihan sector in particular stands out for the supplementary measures to manage micropollutants, phosphorous and macropollutants.

During the first analysis (ability to pay), this observation resulted in extended deadlines on the basis of disproportionate costs.

It should be noted that this sector is characterised by highly divergent problems which may cause difficulties in implementing a consistent and uniform cost-benefit analysis over the sector as a whole.

Finally, the seashore and tourism in the area managed by the geographic commission suggest that there are also significant environmental benefits. These elements justify further analysis in the attempt to determine whether costs are effectively disproportionate (see Part 2).

The results of the first filter (ability to pay) indicate that of 61 rivers, 21 were granted extended deadlines on the basis of disproportionate costs. Of four lakes, 1 was granted an extended deadline on the basis of disproportionate costs. No extensions were granted for groundwater and coastal waters. Cost-benefit analysis must be carried out on the rivers and lakes to confirm these decisions.

■ Part 2 (a). Cost-benefit analysis

In terms of the method employed, in order to avoid double counts of benefits and remain consistent with the analysis of the programme of measures in each sector, the CBAs were initially carried out on each geographic sector, distinguishing between the surface water bodies (rivers, lakes, coastal waters) and groundwater.

When the overall analysis of each sector did not justify exemptions based on disproportionate cost, **analyses on each type of issue** (morphology, quantitative aspects, eutrophication, etc.) were carried out, again distinguishing the types of water body (lakes, rivers, etc.) in the sector. When the necessary data was available, **analyses on sub-sectors** (zones for work to achieve good status) were carried out. Finally, in the cases where the above analyses were insufficient, additional analyses were run on water bodies.

■ Part 2 (b). Application to the Côtier Breton Nord Manche sector

The CBA run on the entire geographic sector did not produce relevant results given the very divergent issues at hand in the sector.

In light of the types of measures and their distribution in the sector, three types of CBA are proposed:

- a cost-benefit analysis on lakes in view of managing the phosphorous problem;
- a cost-benefit analysis on morphology issues (on the entire sector and for each water body).

Lakes were the topic of an additional CBA on the issues surrounding phosphorous. For each lake, the costs of restoration measures and the value of benefits were distinguished. The CBA on the lakes, in particular the Moulin Neuf and Saint-Michel lakes, produced a ratio of 0.6, i.e. a largely negative value confirming the initial deadline-extension decision based on disproportionate costs for these water bodies.

The second CBA addressed **morphology issues as well as micropollutants and macropollutants**. The result was a ratio of less than 0.8 for the water bodies taken as a whole. Additional analysis on each water body was proposed to fill out the results. The results of the additional analysis were highly divergent, depending on the water body.

Type of cost-benefit analysis implemented

The CBA on the entire sector compared the measures for the sector as a whole with the benefits expected from good status. The CBAs on individual water bodies compared the cost of measures addressing morphology issues with the benefits expected from the measures.

The CBA on lakes compared the set of measures addressing phosphorous issues with the benefits expected from good status.

Concerning the **results of the second filter (CBA)**, the analyses on specific issues and categories of water body confirmed the disproportionate cost of measures for most of the water bodies initially selected for extended deadlines. Nine water bodies were put back on track for 2015 (in spite of the CBAs) thanks to the Grenelle environmental agreements. Seven water bodies subsequently lost their extensions on the basis of disproportionate cost, but nonetheless continued to benefit from extended deadlines for other reasons.

Source: Loire-Bretagne Water agency.

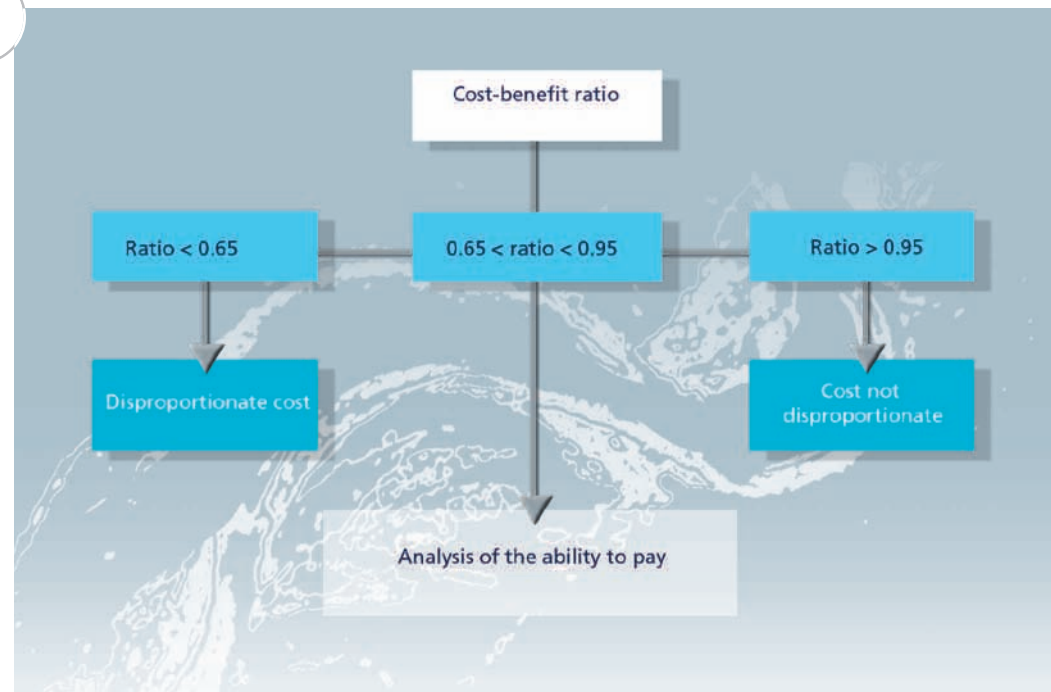
■ Cost-benefit ratio and disproportionate costs

The cost-benefit ratio produced by the CBAs is used to determine whether the costs of measures are disproportionate. Given the uncertainty affecting CBA calculations, the Ecology ministry has recommended applying a 20% margin when comparing costs and benefits. For example, the cost-benefit ratio must be less than 0.8 before drawing the conclusion that the cost of supplementary measures is disproportionate with respect to the potential total benefits.

The Rhône-Méditerranée-Corse water agency refined this approach by testing a method using different value ranges. Costs are considered disproportionate if the cost-benefit ratio is less than 0.65. However, sensitivity tests are carried out on all values between 0.5 and 0.8. Costs are not considered disproportionate if the cost-benefit ratio is greater than 0.95. In this case, sensitivity tests are carried out on all values between 0.8 and 1.1.

If the cost-benefit ratio is between 0.65 and 0.95, analysis of the ability to pay is undertaken. Figure 42 illustrates this method.

Figure 42



Analysis method for cost-benefit ratios, version 1.
Source: Rhône-Méditerranée-Corse Water agency.

A large part of the work consisted of setting the threshold values of the cost-benefit ratio within which an analysis on the ability to pay must be carried out.

The decision on these values in effect determines a cost level considered acceptable whatever the expected benefits. A number of tests on costs (ranging from 1 to 15 million euros) showed that, even though the level significantly impacts the number of sub-basins concerned (approximately 40 to 80), it has little impact on the number of water bodies likely to benefit from an exemption (approximately 400 to 500). In addition, it has very little impact on the total costs likely to affect subsequent management plans (600 million to 1 billion euros).

Following discussions, it was decided to select a high threshold in order to ensure a degree of flexibility for negotiations with stakeholders. For this reason, a threshold of 10 million euros was selected. Under this threshold, costs are considered acceptable given the economic indicators and the different levels of cost analysis. This means that when costs exceed 10 million euros, an analysis on the ability to pay is required before it may be concluded that the cost of a programme of measures is disproportionate.

It is on the basis of this threshold (10 million euros) that the threshold values for cost-benefit ratios were set.

However, it is interesting to note that after running tests on the method using value ranges (0.65 to 0.95) and on the method using the pivot value recommended by the Ecology ministry (0.8), no notable differences were observed in the conclusions of the cost-benefit analyses (see Figure 43). It was therefore decided to opt for the method using the pivot value in order to determine whether costs are disproportionate.

Figure 43



Analysis method for cost-benefit ratios, version 2.
Source: Rhône-Méditerranée-Corse Water agency.

■ Selection of key indicators and threshold values for ability-to-pay analysis

The second part of the analysis on disproportionate costs consists of comparing the financial capacities of water users to the total costs of the measures required to reach good status. The total costs of measures (both basic and supplementary) are divided among the categories of users and compared to a set of financial indicators specific to each category (added value, taxable income, water prices, etc.) in order to determine whether the costs are disproportionate. Thresholds must be set for each of the selected indicators.

The indicators, threshold values and assessment methods for the ability to pay developed by the Rhin-Meuse Water agency to determine whether costs are disproportionate constitute an original approach presented in Table 22.

Tableau 22 The indicators selected by the Rhin-Meuse Water agency (Source: Rhin-Meuse Water agency).

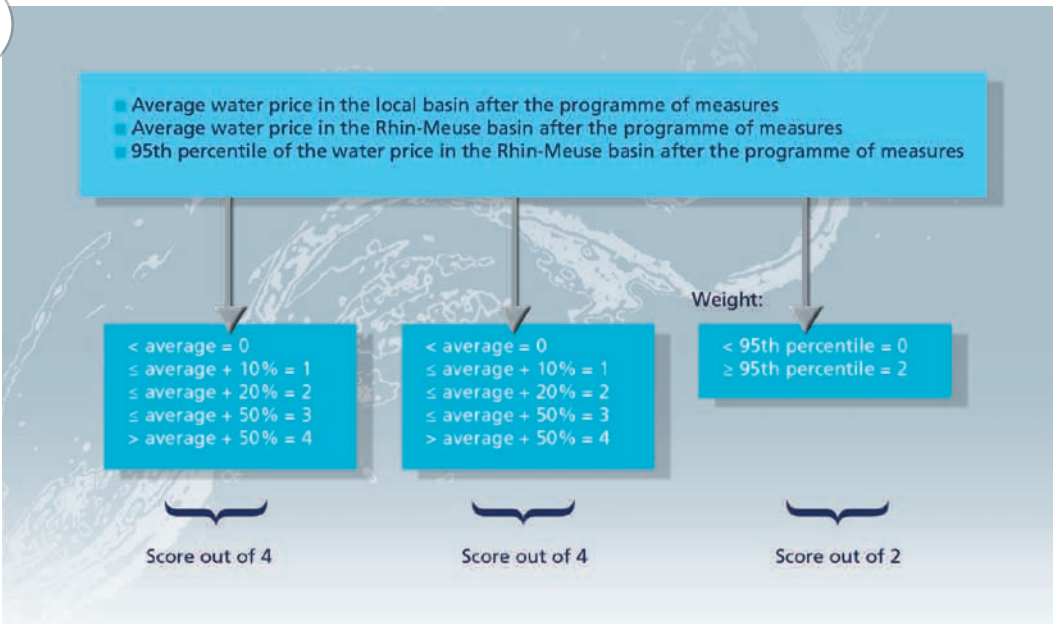
Field of application for measures	Economic indicators
Sanitation	Sanitation prices Percentage of household income spent on sanitation
Industry Main facilities, facilities not including GEREP (polluting emissions) and crafts/trade companies	Added value Gross operating margin Cash flow Annual investment Profit rate
Crafts/trade companies	Sales Added value
Agriculture	Added value Gross operating margin EBIT Cash flow
Hydromorphology	Local taxes (housing tax, property tax)

Using these indicators, threshold values were set to determine whether the costs of measures are disproportionate.

Taking the "price of water" indicator as an example, water prices before and after implementation of the programme of measures are compared. To avoid taking outliers into consideration, the comparison uses the 95th percentile of the average water price in the Rhin-Meuse basin, which excludes the 5% highest prices.

Depending on the differential between the "price of water" indicators, a score is assigned. For example, if the new water price exceeds by over 50% the average in the local river basin in which the water body is located, a score of four points is given, as indicated in Figure 44.

Figure 44

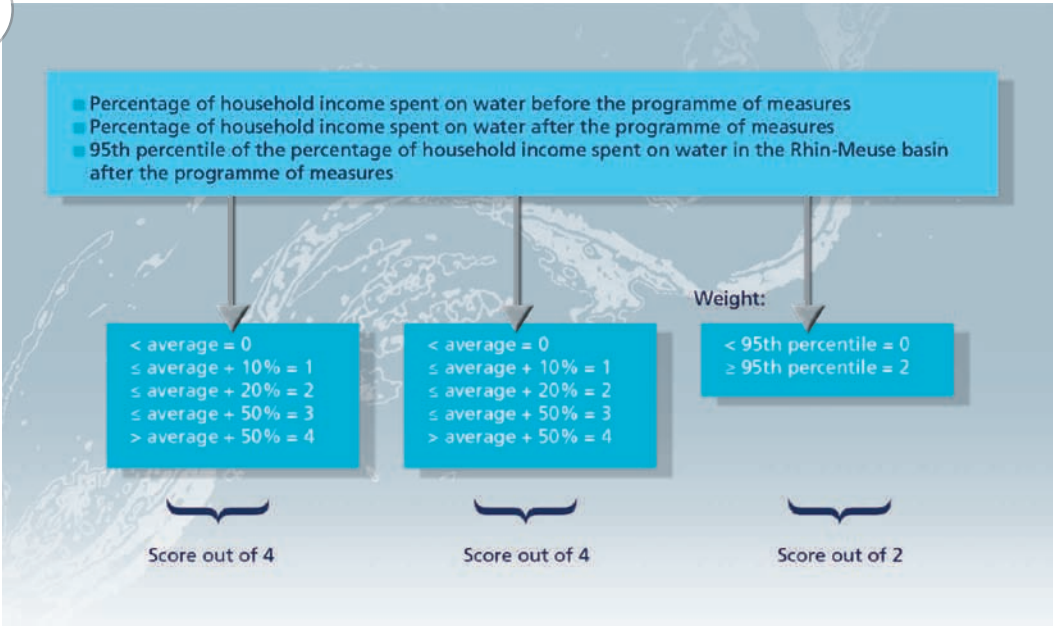


Threshold values for the "price of water" indicator. Source: Rhin-Meuse Water agency).

For the "percentage of household income spent on water" indicator, the method is the same. The "percentage of household income spent on water" before and after the programme of measures is compared. To avoid taking outliers into consideration, the comparison uses the 95th percentile of the average percentage in the Rhin-Meuse basin, which excludes the 5% highest percentages.

A different weight is assigned to the indicator, depending on how it compares with the reference 95th percentile. For example, if the new percentage is less than 120% of the average in the local river basin, a score of two points is given, as indicated in Figure 45.

Figure 45



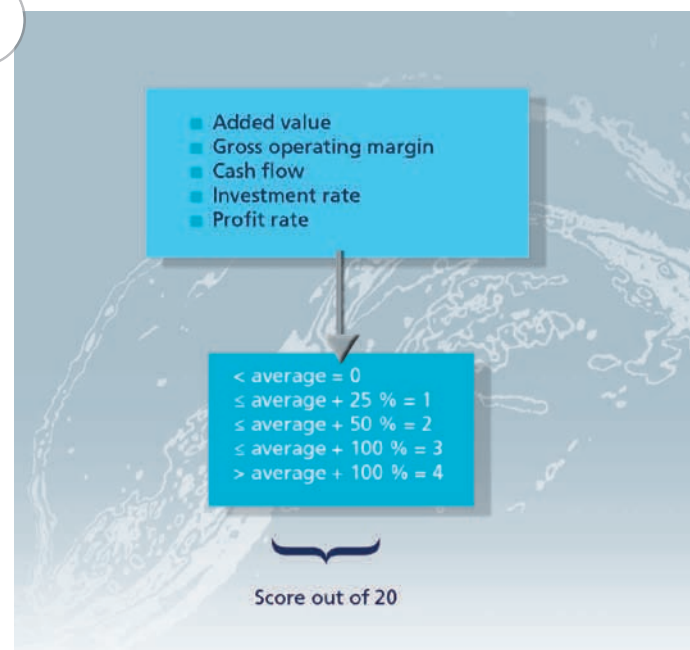
Threshold values for the "percentage of household income spent on water" indicator. Source: Rhin-Meuse Water agency).

Calculation of the indicators for the price of water and the percentage of household income spent on water results in a maximum score of 20 points.

Following the Rhin-Meuse RBMP commission meeting on 15 June 2007, it was decided that when a water body receives a score of 12 or more, the cost of the programme of measures for that water body may be disproportionate.

For the five industrial indicators, the local value for each indicator is compared with the average value of that indicator for the entire Rhin-Meuse basin. Zero to four points are attributed depending on the degree to which the average is exceeded. Practically speaking, this system of points indicates the deviation from the mean (average). Figure 46 shows how points are attributed for each indicator.

Figure 46



Scoring system for the industrial indicators.
Source: Rhin-Meuse Water agency).

Calculation of the indicators for added value, gross operating margin, cash flow, investment rate and profit rate results in a maximum score of 20 points. Following the Rhin-Meuse RBMP commission meeting on 15 June 2007, it was decided that when a water body receives a score of 12 or more, the cost of the programme of measures for that water body may be disproportionate.

For crafts/trade companies, the maximum score for the two indicators is eight points. If a water body receives a score of 5 or more, the cost of the programme of measures for that water body may be disproportionate.

For each agricultural indicator, the threshold was set at 3%.

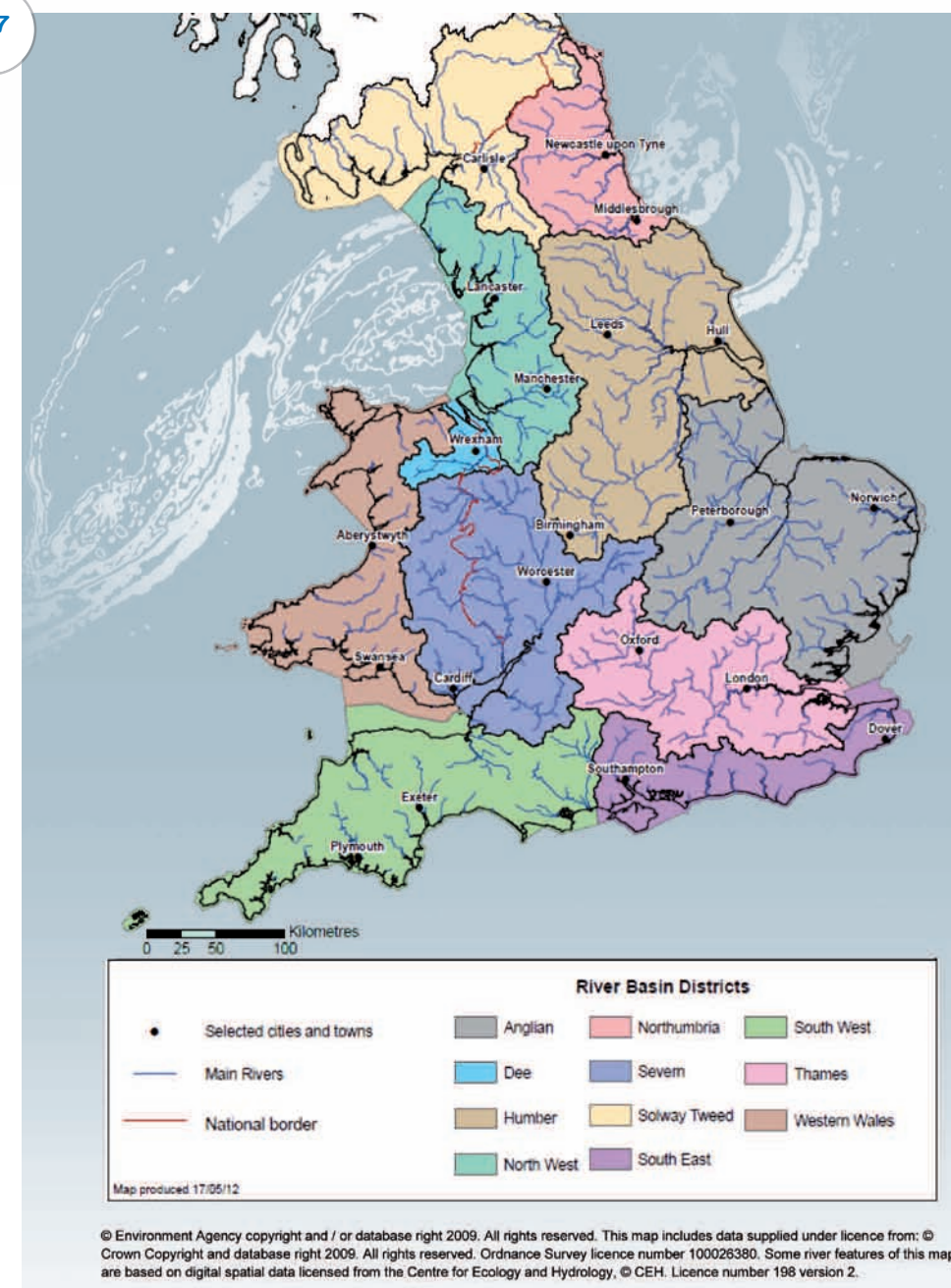
The three indicators for hydromorphological measures (housing tax and two property taxes) are calculated together and produce a maximum score of four points. If a water body receives a score of 3 or more, the cost of the programme of measures for that water body may be disproportionate.

For comparison purposes, the Rhône-Méditerranée-Corse water agency recommends a threshold value of 3% for the indicators selected for households, agriculture and industry. This means that for ability-to-pay analyses in the RMC basin, the costs of programmes of measures are considered disproportionate when they exceed 3% of the gross operating margin of farms or industrial companies, or when water bills exceed 3% of the taxable income of households.

In the U.K., a top-down approach

In the eleven river-basin districts of England and Wales (not including Scotland), basic and supplementary measures are divided into the M1, M2, M3 and M4 categories.

Figure 47



The eleven river-basin districts of England and Wales.

Definitions and general recommendations

■ M1, M2, M3 and M4, basic and supplementary measures on the national and local levels

The basic measures are divided into M1 (currently implemented on the national level) and M2 (new statutory measures on the national level). For M1 and M2 measures, exemptions due to disproportionate cost are not possible.

Supplementary measures are divided into M3 (new measures on the national level) and M4 (new measures on the local level). M3 measures may be statutory or voluntary. They are decided on the national level. M4 measures are voluntary and decisions are taken on the river-basin level by the Liaison Panel (equivalent of the territorial commission in France).

Table 23 presents briefly the various categories of measures and highlights the top-down nature of the system.

Tableau 23

Nomenclature of WFD measures (Source: Maria Salvetti using data from the Environment Agency River Basin Management Plan, Annex E: Actions appraisal and justifying objectives, December 2009, pages 11 and 12).

	Types of measures	Examples
M1	Measures already implemented Measures already agreed and funded that may contribute to meeting WFD objectives	Nitrates Directive, Price Review, Coal authority mine-water restoration programme, etc.
M2	New statutory measures Measures that will be implemented (generally under other directives) and that may contribute to meeting WFD objectives	Directives on Freshwater fish, Urban wastewater treatment, Habitats, Nitrates, Bathing waters, Priority substances, etc.
M3(a)	New national measures New WFD measures requiring only a national decision	Controls on chemicals, fertilisers and the formulation of other products (e.g. detergents), as well as national rules and codes of practice applying to specific activities
M3(b)	New national measures with local adaptations National measures adapted to specific conditions in water bodies and river basins	Catchment sensitive farming, new catchments, catchment-scale protection zones, etc.
M4	New local measures (decision on the river-basin level) New measures for the WFD requiring only a local decision	Greener Futures initiatives, local partnerships, etc.

Only M3 and M4 measures may receive an exemption and consequently undergo analysis for disproportionate cost.

■ General recommendations for analysis of disproportionate cost

On the basis of the advice contained in the River Basin Planning Guidance drafted by DEFRA (Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs) and in the Common Implementation Strategy (CIS) document no. 20, a few general recommendations on how to carry out disproportionate-cost analysis (DCA) are listed below.

- The objective of DCA is to identify and collect data to determine whether an exemption to WFD requirements is justified.
- The analysis must be carried out on a quantity of data sufficient to make a decision within acceptable limits of uncertainty concerning risks.
- The analysis must be carried out on the largest possible geographic scale to determine whether costs are disproportionate.
- Initially, it is advised to proceed simply with collecting already available information.
- Certain non-market benefits should be assessed on a qualitative basis rather than as a benefit transfer.
- Disproportionate costs should be assessed on the basis of the marginal WFD effects, i.e. only the costs of supplementary measures should be taken into account.

■ Measures and delivery mechanisms, two distinct notions

For the economic analyses required by the WFD, DEFRA and the Environmental agency (EA) decided to distinguish between measures themselves and the delivery mechanism used to implement them.

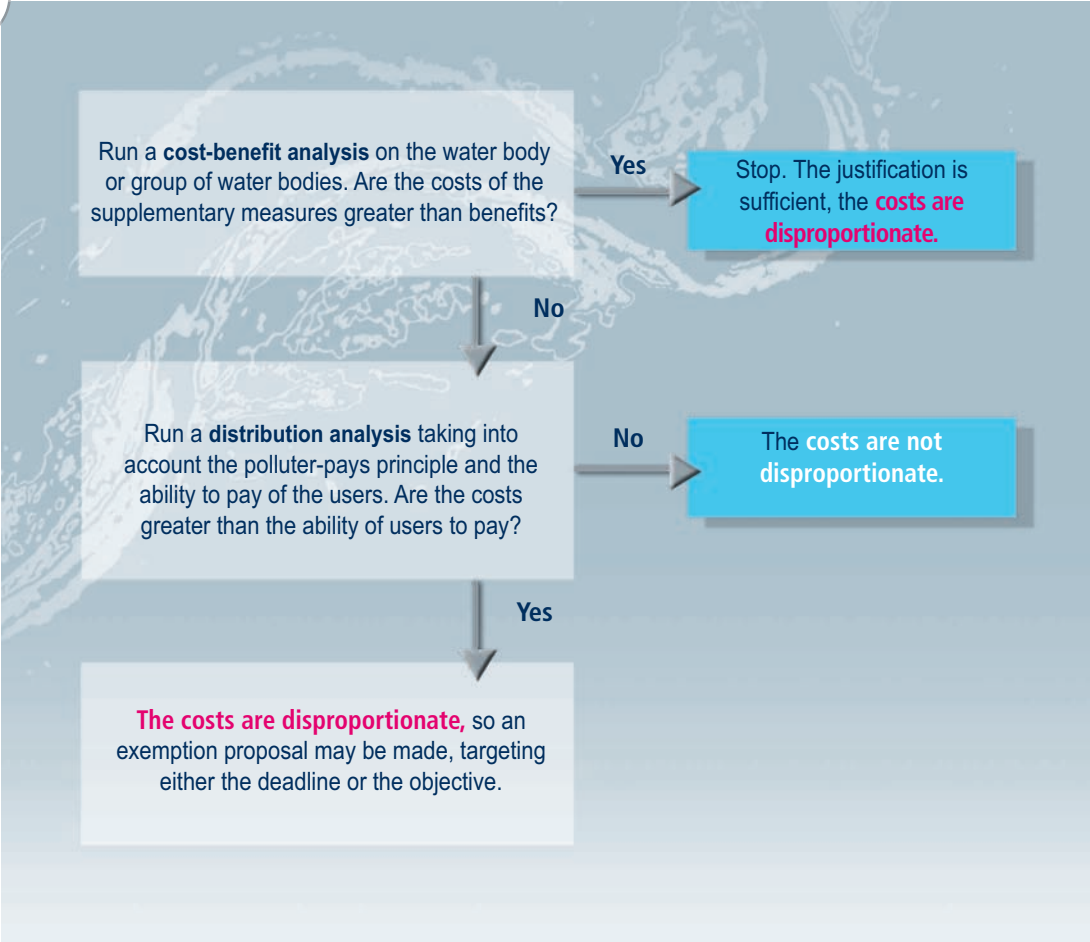
Measures are defined as concrete activities in view of achieving good status of water bodies. Delivery mechanisms are the modifications required for the actual and effective implementation of the measures. The mechanisms must be sufficiently realistic and incentive if they are to succeed in measure implementation. There are many different types of mechanisms, e.g. voluntary agreements, standard regulations, information campaigns, economic instruments, etc. The type of delivery mechanism selected for a given measure is in itself important. This is because its cost can vary and influence the cost-effectiveness and cost-benefit ratios of the measure.

The analysis on the disproportionate cost of a measure takes into account the type of delivery mechanism for the measure (or combination of measures). In other words, the cost of the delivery mechanism is included in the cost-benefit analysis.

DCA method

In addition to the general recommendations listed above, the method for disproportionate-cost analysis is presented in detail by DEFRA and EA. DCA is a process used to determine whether the cost of the planned measures is proportionate to the expected benefits. Proportionality is assessed by undertaking two successive analyses, i.e. first a cost-benefit analysis, followed by a distribution analysis (see Figure 49).

Figure 49



Flow chart to determine whether an exemption based on disproportionate cost is justified in the U.K.
Source: Maria Salvetti using data from DEFRA/Wag, River basin planning guidance).

■ Analysis of economic efficiency

Analysis of economic efficiency is used to determine whether the total costs of a measure are proportionate to the total benefits of the measure. In other words, the goal is to assess whether implementation of the measure would be an efficient use of resources.

It is essentially a cost-benefit analysis that includes the economic, social and environmental costs and benefits. It should be noted that the analysis is carried out on the national level. The discount rate set by the HM Treasury Green Book is 3.5%.

CBA takes into account not only the investment costs, but also the recurring costs (maintenance, operation) of the supplementary measures. Benefits must be assessed both quantitatively and qualitatively. The costs and benefits taken into account are not limited to those directly linked to water and aquatic environments. The analysis includes non-market benefits as well as market costs and benefits indirectly linked to water. The scope of the analysis thus covers economic, social and environmental costs and benefits linked directly and indirectly to improvements in the aquatic environment.

Table 24 below lists a number of examples of benefits directly and indirectly linked to improvements in the aquatic environment.

Tableau 24 List of direct and indirect benefits.

Direct benefits	Indirect benefits
Water resources, water quality, aquatic habitats, migration of fish	Biodiversity, fauna and flora
Regulation of water levels in water bodies	Landscape (nature park, aesthetic value, etc.)
Nutrient cycles	Cultural and historic monuments (preservation)
Preservation of wetlands	Remarkable geological sites (preservation)
Spawning grounds	Soil and land (erosion, contaminated soil, creation of parks, etc.)
Storm and flood protection	Air quality
Product of commercial fishing	Climatic factors (emission of greenhouse gases, carbon sequestration, renewable energy, etc.)
Product of recreational fishing	Waste (waste management, waste reduction, etc.)
Commercial navigation	Population
Energy production (hydroelectricity)	Human health and safety
Recreation (walks along banks, etc.)	Non-use value, existence value
Water sports (canoeing, skiing, etc.)	
Fishing	
Bathing	

National study on benefits

A national benefits survey was carried out in the U.K. to assess in monetary terms the value assigned by households to improvements in the aquatic environment thanks to WFD implementation.

In July 2007, 1 487 interviews were carried out in approximately 50 different places throughout England and Wales. The results of this contingent-valuation method informed on the willingness to pay depending on the expected benefits. The results were subsequently used as factors in cost-benefit analyses and were completed as needed by local assessments of other environmental benefits expected following implementation of measures.

Leeway in drawing conclusions

Generally speaking, costs are considered disproportionate when the negative impacts of a measure (or combination of measures) exceed the positive. There is no "room for judgement" when comparing costs and benefits. However, attention is paid to the fact that greater certainty exists concerning costs than benefits. As a result, costs are not necessarily disproportionate if they exceed the quantified and monetised benefits alone. In addition, any uncertainty affecting the DCA must be clearly explained.

If the economic-efficiency analysis concludes that the costs are greater than the benefits, then the costs of the measure are considered disproportionate. An exemption on this basis may be justified.

On the other hand, if the economic-efficiency analysis concludes that the costs are less than the benefits, then a distribution analysis is carried out.

■ Distribution analysis on the ability to pay and respect of the polluter-pays principle

The distribution analysis indicates how the costs and benefits of the measure are spread among the various local stakeholders. It identifies the economic flows and transfers between categories of users causing the pressures, funding the measures and benefiting from the measures. The analysis takes into account both the ability to pay of the different user categories and the polluter-pays principle.

In this context, costs are considered disproportionate if:

- implementation of the measures incurs excessive costs for one or more economic sectors, given its ability to pay. The ability is determined using the ratio between the annual costs for the measure assumed by the sector and the annual revenues of the sector. Depending on whether the result exceeds a threshold value for the ratio, that must be set on a case-by-case basis, the costs are deemed disproportionate. It is also recommended to analyse the profitability of the given sector both before and after implementation of the measures in order to judge whether the costs are disproportionate. This phase of the analysis should also take into account any alternative sources of funding for the measures;
- implementation of the measures results in non-observance of the polluter-pays principle. In this case, it is necessary to identify and compare the economic flows between categories of users causing the pressures, funding the measures and benefiting from the measures.

CRP Project 3 tool

In 2007, the Collaborative Research Programme (project 3) developed an Excel tool to collect and present in a consistent manner the data and conclusions of disproportionate-cost analyses. It is used to record data and information on cost-benefit analyses and distribution analyses carried out to determine whether exemptions are justified.

The Environment Agency justified extended deadlines and exemptions to objectives for a certain number of water bodies in the 11 river-basin districts in England and Wales (see Table 25). Table 26 provides a brief quantitative summary of exemptions granted for water bodies in England and Wales.

Tableau 25

Number of water bodies in each district (Source: Maria Salvetti using data from the Environment Agency River Basin Management Plan, Main document, December 2009).

River-basin district	Total water bodies	Total surface-water bodies	Total heavily modified water bodies	Total artificial water bodies	Total groundwater bodies
Anglian	867	251	431	154	31
Dee	115	60	48	1	6
Humber	1 165	508	430	177	50
Northumbria	476	285	130	52	9
North West	749	333	315	83	18
Severn	912	633	148	91	40
Solway Tweed	653	500	80		73
South East	441	212	159	40	30
South West	1 093	823	182	44	
Thames	617	312	169	90	46
Western Wales	814	657	122	10	25
TOTAL	7 902	4 574	2 214	742	328

Tableau 26

A brief quantitative summary of exemption requests granted for water bodies in England and Wales. (Source : Maria Salvetti using DEFRA/Wag data, National impact assessment, Appendix 4, December 2009, page 28).

		Number of exempted water bodies in England and Wales
Technical feasibility	No available technical solution	1 705
	Cause of negative impacts is unknown	1 911
	Practical constraints (technical nature)	0
	Number of water bodies for which technical feasibility was used to justify the exemption	3 258
Disproportionate cost	Unfavourable cost-benefit ratio	327
	Significant risk of unfavourable cost-benefit ratio	2 771
	Disproportionate costs for users	121
	Number of water bodies for which disproportionate cost was used to justify the exemption	3 007
Natural conditions	Long ecological response time	25
	Long response time of groundwater bodies	3
	Number of water bodies for which natural conditions were used to justify the exemption	28
	Total number of water bodies in England and Wales for which an exemption was requested	5 059

To illustrate this point, the box below presents the economic justification for extended deadlines for water bodies in the Anglian river basin.



Reference: P5c

Element predicted not to achieve good status by 2015 : phosphate or total phosphorous
Reason for failure : confirmed - point-source water industry sewage works
Alternative objective : extended deadline
Reason for alternative objective : disproportionately expensive, unfavourable balance of costs and benefits

Justification for alternative objective
The discharge causing the phosphorus failure is known and a site-specific appraisal has shown the improvement measure available to be currently disproportionately expensive.

Through our price review 2009 (PR09) planning work, we identified the sewage treatment works causing the phosphorus failure. We identified the costs of the required measure and identified potential benefits and other impacts that improving the discharges will deliver. This showed the measure to be currently disproportionately expensive.

- These appraisals used :**
- site-specific costs provided by Ofwat following submission of water company final business plans;
 - site-specific information on embedded carbon and operating carbon emissions to calculate carbon costs;
 - environmental outcomes recorded as length of river improved to meet WFD objectives;
 - benefits based on the NERA National Benefits Survey (Collaborative Research Project 4b/c);
 - additional local benefits identified after consultation with RBD liaison panels.

Our PR09 appraisal of the costs and benefits of phosphorus removal schemes assessed 51 cases, of which 15 were assessed as being not justified because of the unfavourable balance of costs, benefits and other impacts. The 36 schemes that were assessed as having a favourable balance of costs, benefits and other impacts will improve 25 water bodies and 268 kilometres of river. Technological improvements may make the improvement needed less costly and/or the estimated benefits may change significantly with better information. An extended deadline for achieving good ecological status is therefore required.

Investigation type

Investigate proportionate measures.

Example of investigation

- At these sites, the assessments will be reviewed as further information becomes available that might change the balance of costs, benefits and other impacts. This might come from :
- an improved understanding of the relative importance of other sources such that combined action becomes cost-beneficial;
 - benefits may be valued more highly;
 - benefits may increase if outcomes become more certain;
 - advancements in treatment technology may reduce the cost of the measures and/or improve the outcome that can be realised.

If measures are shown to be proportionate, we will look to progress measures as soon as practicable. These future measures may need to be phased, particularly if they depend on action to address other sources.

Possible future measures

Possible future measures could include further phosphorus removal for sewage discharges as well as action on agricultural sources, depending on the relative significance of these (and other) sources. Development of new techniques and practices for both of these sources could also provide more effective measures which achieve a better balance of costs, benefits and other impacts.

Measures required to achieve 100% GES/GEP by 2027 that are likely to be technically infeasible or disproportionately expensive

It will be disproportionately expensive to install phosphorus removal technology on all municipal sewage treatment works in England and Wales. To do so would cost up to 6 billion pounds and result in benefits of approximately 2 billion pounds. Removing phosphorus requires more energy and so has a carbon impact. Depending on the size of the works and the treatment technology used, it is estimated that 16 to 1 426 tonnes of additional carbon are produced per tonne of phosphorus removed.

It is likely that installing phosphorus removal technology on many of the works serving less than 250 people will be disproportionately expensive. It costs between 157 and 7 408 £/kg to remove phosphorus from these size works.

Reference: GC5a

Element predicted not to achieve good status by 2015 : surface water, general quality test
Reason for failure : confirmed – disused mines point and/or diffuse source; the failures were mainly caused by metals (e.g. iron)
Alternative objective : extended deadline
Reason for alternative objective : disproportionately expensive, disproportionate burdens

Justification for alternative objective
The costs of the measures are proportionate to the benefits, but would impose a disproportionate burden if implemented by 2015.

A phased Coal Authority scheme is being implemented in this groundwater body to restore the body to good status. Treasury has agreed that the funding for these schemes will be phased over three river basin management planning cycles to 2027 due to affordability issues. To bring forward the implementation date of all these mine-water remediation schemes would also cause considerable practical difficulties, for example gaining permission for, and undertaking the necessary works. This phased approach will allow time to investigate and implement the most cost effective solution in each case, and it will also allow learning to take place. Our PCEA study has shown that a phased approach is likely to significantly reduce the overall cost of the whole programme. It would therefore impose a disproportionately burden to meet good status by 2015. Achieving good status by 2027, with the highest priority sites tackled by 2015, is a proportionate and cost-effective response to the problem.

Affordability is one area where there is limited guidance available at a European level and hence additional care must be taken in justifying exemptions to ensure that they follow the spirit of the Directive and its objectives. Although the adoption of the WFD entails obligations for Member States to make available the necessary means for implementation, this needs to be moderated by the option available to Member States to phase the implementation (through extended deadlines) of measures to spread the costs of implementation (while taking clear and demonstrable action in the first cycle).

To apply a time extension on grounds of affordability, consideration should be given to the availability of alternative financing mechanisms, the consequences of non-action and steps taken to resolve affordability in the future. We have considered all of these factors as part of justifying this alternative objective.

Investigation type

Further investigate feasible measures and their applicability at individual sites.

Example of investigation

Investigation and prioritisation of mine-water remediation schemes to achieve maximum environmental benefit.

Possible future measures

- Mine-water remediation schemes.
- Measures required to achieve 100% good chemical status by 2027 that are likely to be technically infeasible or disproportionately expensive.
- Immediate implementation of mine-water remediation schemes for all discharges.

Source: Environment Agency River-basin management plan, Anglian river basin district, Annex E, Actions appraisal and justifying objectives, December 2009.

Conclusion

There are a number of similarities, but also differences in the approaches to disproportionate cost developed in France and the U.K.

Similarities in the French and British approaches

The overall method for disproportionate-cost analysis is **fairly similar** in the two countries. A two-step process is used to determine whether costs are disproportionate. The first step is a **cost-benefit analysis**, followed by a **distribution analysis** taking into account the polluter-pays principle and any sources of alternative funding. In both countries, the overall method for disproportionate-cost analysis is a **top-down approach**.

And each country has developed an **Excel tool** to facilitate and make more consistent the recording of data for disproportionate-cost analysis. It should be noted, however, that the French tool is intended strictly for cost-benefit analysis, whereas the British tool can be used for both cost-benefit analysis and distribution analysis.

Differences in the French and British approaches

A few significant differences may be observed in the French and British approaches to disproportionate cost.

The **discount rate** is not the same in the two countries and this impacts the calculation of the present value of costs and benefits.

The **categories of measures** differ between France and the U.K. French categories are limited to the WFD requirements and simply distinguish between basic and supplementary measures. The British system distinguishes between basic and supplementary measures, but also introduces a notion of scale by distinguishing between national and local measures.

The Environment Agency and DEFRA also **distinguish between measures and their delivery mechanism**. The type of delivery mechanism and its cost can vary and thus influence the cost-effectiveness and cost-benefit ratios of the measure. In the British approach, the analysis on the disproportionate cost of a measure takes into account the type of delivery mechanism for the measure (or combination of measures).

For cost-benefit analyses, the **range of benefits taken into account** in the U.K. would appear to be less restrictive than in France. The British method includes an assessment of the economic, social and environmental benefits that are not directly linked to water.

The **leeway afforded in judging whether a measure is cost beneficial differs** between France and the U.K. In France, calculations determined that a cost-benefit ratio as low as 0.8 may still be cost beneficial. In the U.K., this issue is left to the decision-makers, but the uncertainty affecting the economic assessment of costs and benefits must be taken into account.

Annexes

122 ■ Examples of representative data on economic issues in the Rhône-Méditerranée basin

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Examples of representative data on economic issues in the Rhône-Méditerranée basin

Established uses	Economic characterisation
Farms and farm jobs	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ The number of annual work units fell between 28% in the Languedoc-Roussillon region and 35% in the PACA (Provence-Alpes-Côte d’Azur) region from 1988 to 2000.■ The average size of farms increased between 8 hectares in the Rhône-Alpes region and 17 ha in the Franche-Comté region from 1988 to 2000.■ In Bourgogne, large farms now represent almost half of the total in the region.
Usable farm area	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Usable farm area represents between 28 and 58% of the land area of the regions in the river basin.
Livestock farming	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ In Bourgogne, cattle farms represent 29% of all farms, 34% of the usable farm area, 64% of meadows, 27% of all farm jobs and they are primarily oriented toward meat production.■ Meadows cover two-thirds of the usable farm area in the Franche-Comté region. Over one-third of the farms in the Franche-Comté region raise dairy stock. The Franche-Comté region comprises 5% of the national livestock and produces 5% of the milk in France, 7% of the butter and 6% of the cow cheese.■ In the Rhône-Alpes region, one half of the farms are specialised in the production of grazing animals.■ In the PACA region, sheep farming, a traditional activity in the area with its transhumance seasons, remains strong with 886 000 head, of which 610 000 ewes.■ In Languedoc-Roussillon, livestock farming is concentrated in the Lozère department, in the high sections of the coastal departments and in the west of the Aude department. Sheep and goat farming is the dominant activity with 2 540 farms.
Large-scale farming	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ In Bourgogne, farms specialised in cereals and large-scale farming represent 23% of all farms, 40% of the usable farm area and 21% of farm jobs.■ In Rhône-Alpes, arable land represents 40% of the total usable farm area in the region. This percentage varies from 8% in the Savoie department to over 60% in the Ain department. In Savoie, permanent grassland covers over 90% of the usable farm area in the department.■ The cereals-oilseeds-protein crops sector is the third largest in Languedoc-Roussillon with 14% of the usable farm area in the region.
Mixed crops	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Fruit growing in the Rhône valley is concentrated in the Drôme department and in the lower section of the Isère valley, and represents one-fifth of the land devoted to fruit growing in France.■ 50% of the flowers produced in France are grown between Toulon and Nice.■ The Rhône valley and the Mediterranean coast represent two-thirds of total French fruit production, including (virtually) all of some types of fruit (apricots, peaches, nectarines, cherries, almonds).
Wine growing	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ The basin represents over 60% of the land devoted to vineyards in France.■ One-third of all vineyards are located in Languedoc-Roussillon.
Vegetables	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ The PACA region is one of the primary producers of vegetables, however surface areas have dropped 40% over the past 12 years.■ In Languedoc-Roussillon, 3 170 farms work 11 660 ha (hectares) producing fresh vegetables, including 950 ha in greenhouses.
Forests	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ The Franche-Comté and Rhône-Alpes regions alone supply 15% of hardwood produced in France.■ Franche-Comté is the second region in France in terms of its percentage of forest cover.

Irrigation	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ The RM basin has the highest percentage of crop irrigation. The basin represents 16% of the usable farm area in France, but 20% of the irrigated land with approximately 375 000 hectares (i.e. 8 % of the usable farm land in the basin).■ Irrigation is extensively used. The basin comprises 22% of French farms, but 35% of the farms using irrigation. A total of 25% of farms (one in four) in the basin use irrigation, compared to 15% nationally.
Industrial jobs	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Rhône-Alpes is the second industrial region in France, after the Paris region.
Geographic distribution of industry	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ The Gard and Hérault departments represent 75% of the industrial jobs in the Languedoc-Roussillon region.■ Of the 15 000 industrial sites in PACA, over two-thirds are located in the Bouches-du-Rhône department (Marseille) and the Alpes-Maritimes department (Grasse, Nice, Sophia-Antipolis).■ Half of the industrial activity in Rhône-Alpes is concentrated in three urban areas, Lyon, Grenoble and Saint-Étienne.■ In Franche-Comté, the Belfort-Montbéliard urban area comprises almost 40% of the industrial jobs in the regions, with Besançon representing another 15%.
Large firms	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ In Rhône-Alpes, 35 companies each have over 1 000 employees in the region. In Bourgogne, over two-thirds of industrial employees work on sites having over 100 employees.
Agri-food industry	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ In PACA, the agri-food industry is the second largest industrial employer in the region (31 000 employees).■ It is the foremost industrial sector in Languedoc-Roussillon with almost 14 000 employees.■ Companies with over 20 employees represent 10% of the national total, placing Rhône-Alpes in second place among French regions, behind Bretagne.
Energy and petrochemical industries	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ The Rhône-Alpes region is the source of 21% of the primary energy in France and a quarter of the electricity.■ In terms of nuclear power, the Rhône-Alpes region is the foremost French region with 30% of the total nuclear capacity and 24% of the electricity produced in nuclear plants.■ PACA is home to 30% of French oil-refining capacity.
Specialised industrial sectors	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Metallurgy and metal working are the leading industrial sector in Rhône-Alpes with 77 300 employees.■ Over half of all industrial jobs in Languedoc-Roussillon are in the capital-goods sector.
Transport of untreated water	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Three large, local-development companies contribute to economic growth by providing untreated water, essentially from two main sources, namely the Rhône River (Compagnie Nationale du Rhône (CNR) and Compagnie nationale d’aménagement de la région du Bas-Rhône et du Languedoc (BRL)) and the Verdon River (Société du Canal de Provence (SCP)).■ The volumes abstracted annually amount to approximately 142 billion cubic metres for BRL and 167 billion for SCP (data based on fees for 2000-2002). These volumes serve mainly for public distribution (18% for BRL, 48% for SCP), irrigation (74% for BRL, 41% for SCP) and industry (8% for BRL, 11% for SCP).
Water resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Agriculture represents the second largest user in the river basin with 2.8 billion cubic metres abstracted in 2001 from surface waters and 196 billion cubic metres from groundwater (IFEN study in 2004).■ 80% of the volumes abstracted for agriculture are used for gravitational irrigation.
Drinking-water supply and sanitation (DWSS)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Percentage of the population whose water is directly managed by the local government: 28%■ Percentage of the population for which water management is delegated by the local government: 72%<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Number of customers for drinking water: 5 381 790■ Volume of drinking water billed: 1.148 billion cubic metres■ Length of drinking-water networks approximately 150 000 km■ Length of sanitation networks approximately 70 000 km<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Drinking-water production units: 437■ Wastewater-treatment plants: 4 315■ Non-collective sanitation units: approximately 1 million■ Jobs in the water sector: over 120 000 in France and approximately 30 000 in the basin
Sand and gravel mining	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Over 106 million tons were produced in the basin in 2002 (27% of total French production), of which 40% from alluvial deposits.■ In the river basin, 320 companies mining sand and gravel employ 2 500 persons.

Production of bottled drinking water	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 3 700 million litres of bottled water were produced in 2002 in the river-basin district (40% of total French production). The district represents 33% of the companies and 44% of the jobs in the table-water sector in France.
Water cures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Some 240 000 people took water cures in 2001 in the district, i.e. 45% of the French total. There are 39 thermal spas in the district, i.e. 38% of the total in France (104).
Transportation infrastructure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> With respect to its population, the communication networks in the Bourgogne region rank first among French regions for highways, second for railroads and fourth for national roads.
Commercial navigation on rivers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The network of navigable waterways in the Rhône-Méditerranée district spans 14 departments and five regions. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> In 2003, river freight in the basin totalled over five million tons. This total consisted of 85% exclusively river transport and 15% mixed river and maritime transport. The basin has a stable fleet of 74 ships representing a total capacity of 125 000 metric tons.
Maritime transport	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Approximately 100 million metric tons of freight and 3.5 million passengers transit each year via the six maritime ports on the Mediterranean coast. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Most of the freight (92%) goes through the port in Marseille (leading French port and third port in Europe for freight).
Energy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Two-thirds of French hydroelectric generation are located in the basin. A quarter of French nuclear generation is located in the basin.
Tourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Almost 600 million nights were booked (including 240 million in PACA). Total capacity is approximately 2.5 million beds, including 700 000 in PACA, but not including vacation homes. The population during the tourist season has been estimated at 6.5 million, i.e. an increase of almost 50% compared to year-round inhabitants. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The average outlay per tourist and per day has been estimated at 50 euros. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Some 350 000 jobs are directly related to tourism. There are almost six million vacation homes in the basin. PACA represents 14.6% of the total French tourism market, followed by Rhône-Alpes (11.3%), the Paris region (10.7%) and Languedoc-Roussillon (9.2%).
River tourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Some 35 companies rent a total of 900 houseboats (46% of the national total). A total of 108 ships are available for cruises (28% of the national total).
Recreational activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In the basin in 2003, 48 600 people were members of the national Canoe-Kayak federation and 37 350 people were members of the national Sailing federation. Over 200 local clubs were part of the national Canoe-Kayak federation and 310 clubs part of the national Sailing federation. A total of 145 marinas along the Mediterranean coast offer approximately 88 000 mooring points for sailboats and motorboats.
Bathing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 528 towns (6.5% of the total in the basin) have at least one beach or structured bathing area. The cumulative seasonal (tourist) population in these towns is close to 2.5 million, i.e. approximately 38% of the total seasonal population in the basin (6.5 million).
Recreational fishing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Approximately 342 000 fishing enthusiasts in the basin paid their fishing fees in 2001 (one quarter of the national total). The average outlay per person for fishing has been estimated at 250 euros per year and per person (including fees). <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The Isère department has the most registered fishers, with almost 26 000. Over 4% of the population in the Bourgogne and Franche-Comté regions paid the fishing fees.
Golf courses	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Of the 531 courses in France in 2002, over 150 were located in the basin, including 57 in the Rhône-Alpes region and 53 in the PACA region, the two regions having the most courses in France. A high-end, 18-hole golf course has an average consumption of 5 000 cubic metres per day, which corresponds to that of a town of 12 000 inhabitants. The total water consumption for the irrigation of golf courses in 2002 amounted to 36 million cubic metres, equivalent to the annual consumption of a town of 500 000 inhabitants.

Skiing and snow cannons	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> For the 2002-2003 winter, revenues amounted to 930 million euros. Passes representing 53.5 million days of skiing were sold in 2003. 86% of Alpine ski resorts are now equipped with snow cannons. Artificial snow requires approximately 4 000 cubic metres of water per hectare, a quantity much greater than that required for corn (1 700 cubic metres per hectare in the Isère department).
Salt production	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Virtually all French sea salt (99% in 2002) is produced in the Mediterranean salt ponds. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> There are nine production sites along the Mediterranean coast. The seven salt ponds currently in production produce between 850 000 and 1 million tons of salt per year and employ approximately 540 people. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> They cover some 26 000 hectares of wetlands.
Small commercial fisheries	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 44 300 tons in 2002. Only 7% of the national total, but over 85% of the national total for bluefin tuna and 45% of the national total for sardines and common anchovies. Languedoc-Roussillon represents 80% of Mediterranean catches due to its 40 000 ha of lagoons and its continental shelf. 3 500 fishermen and a fleet of 1 880 ships, of which 86% are smaller than 12 metres, are active in coastal and small-scale fishing.
Marine aquaculture and shellfishing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 25 600 tons of shellfish were produced in 2001 (14% of the national total sold under regulated sanitary conditions). <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 700 shellfishing companies, generally family owned, employ over 2 000 people. Over 80% of shellfish production in the basin is located in the Hérault department. It represents the second agricultural activity for the department after wine growing.
River fishing (commercial and traditional)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 57 professional fishermen use special nets for an estimated average annual capture of 109 tons of fish in public rivers. Some 60 professional fishermen produce approximately 500 tons of fish per year in the large Alpine lakes.
Continental fish farms	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 9 000 tons of freshwater fish produced in 1997. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 65% in the Rhône-Alpes region. In 1997, 160 salmon fish farms produced 5 500 tons of fish, generating revenues of 18.5 million euros and 300 full-time equivalent jobs. In 1997, 3 600 tons of fish were produced in the 28 000 hectares of ponds in the northern section of the basin.

Linking economic uses and the natural environment

Activities - Uses	Mains uses of water	Main requirements weighing on water resources	Main pressures weighing on water resources and/or aquatic environments	Potential conflicts concerning water uses
Agriculture	Factor of production for irrigation and watering of livestock, cleaning of production sites and products (e.g. cheese).	Available quantities.	Direct pressure on water resources due to abstractions from surface and groundwater, organic and toxic pollutants, mainly nonpoint source (livestock effluents, fertilisers and plant-protection treatments, effluents from wine-growing installations, etc.). Physical pressure on the environment caused by irrigation canals, water transfers, upland reservoirs, draining, etc.	Resource sharing during periods of high demand with other uses, e.g. for drinking water, or industry, while taking into account the needs of aquatic species and environments.
Industry	Raw material or factor of production for hydraulic transport, rinsing, thermal exchanges, etc.	Depending on the situation, the water must be more or less pure (drinking water for the agri-food industry), available quantities.	Direct pressure on water resources due to abstractions from surface and groundwater, organic and toxic pollution.	Resource sharing during periods of high demand with other uses, e.g. for drinking water and agriculture, and taking into account the needs of aquatic environments and species.
Sanitation Supply of drinking water	Consumption for various household uses.	Physical-chemical and microbiological quality (suitability for drinking water), available quantities.	Direct pressure on water resources due to abstractions from surface and groundwater, primarily organic pollution (discharges from wastewater-treatment plants). Physical pressure on the environment caused by soil sealing (urbanisation, communication infrastructure, flood prevention, etc.).	Resource sharing during periods of high demand with other uses, e.g. for drinking water, agriculture and industry. Use for drinking water put into question by the pollution caused by other uses (leading to a halt in abstractions or to additional treatments).
Sand and gravel mining	Extraction of alluvial deposits created by river erosion and transport.	The resource is renewable due to hydro-geological cycles.	Physical pressure on the environment caused by extractions from river beds, impacts on hydrology, the vulnerability of the underlying water table, possible destruction of ecosystems, the creation of new environments (renovation of quarries as artificial lakes for recreational activities and as reservoirs, etc.), obstacles to flow, etc.	Competition for the use of the space required for correct river functioning (sediment transport, sustainable protection of groundwater, etc.), i.e. the space where the alluvial deposits and the water required to manage the incoming materials are located.

Production of bottled drinking water	Raw material.	Naturally drinkable, special physical-chemical composition that is stable over time, available quantities.	Direct pressure on water resources through abstractions of groundwater.	Except in exceptional cases of mineral water that participates significantly to the balances ensuring the functioning and good status of neighbouring environments, the potential is for indirect conflict with other sectors, e.g. competition with the drinking-water sector.
Water cures	Raw material.	Naturally drinkable, special physical-chemical composition (therapeutic properties) that is stable over time, available quantities.	Direct pressure on water resources through abstractions of groundwater.	Rare cases of massive abstractions producing significant imbalances in groundwater and/or in linked surface water bodies (very rare). Conflicts may concern the use of water resources or heat resources.
Commercial navigation on rivers	Water literally supports the activity and is used as a means of transport.	Navigable waterways, the size of rivers, development work, ports.	Direct pressure on water resources due to pollution (hydrocarbons, stirring of sediment with resulting release of pollutants). Physical pressure on the environment caused by man-made installations (locks, ports, loading zones, channelling, etc.).	Depending on layout of the project and the quantities of water shunted off, conflict may be minimal (e.g. for a new canal, draining water from a large river, there would be the standard land disputes due to the expropriation and the forced moving of existing activities) or may become major (e.g. the transformation of a sloping river bed into a stair-step format with deep pools would provoke severe conflicts with virtually all the other stakeholders in aquatic issues, concerning notably the restoration of large migratory fish, bank erosion, etc.).
Energy	Factor of production, the driving force for hydroelectricity. Thermal exchange, used for cooling nuclear power plants.	Sufficient hydrological regime (quantity and discharge).	Physical pressure on water resources through abstractions (reservoirs, dams, hydropeaking, etc.), discharges of warm water from power plants.	Breaks in hydraulic continuity and need to maintain sufficient discharge downstream of dams can lead to conflict with fishing groups, aquatic recreational activities, etc. Mortality of migratory fish during downstream migration when passing through turbines.
Tourism	In addition to the uses specific to tourism and water recreational activities (see below), the uses are the same as those for households, e.g. water consumption for various uses in homes.	The same as those for household uses, i.e. physical-chemical and microbiological quality (suitability for drinking water), available quantities.	Pollution and abstraction pressures are increased by the seasonal increase in population in highly attractive zones. This can create problems if resource volumes, the capacity of the environment to receive effluents or the capacity of wastewater-treatment plants are insufficient to handle the temporary increase of the population in the area.	The same as those for household uses or greater, i.e. resource sharing during periods of high demand with other uses, e.g. agriculture and industry. Use for drinking water put into question by the pollution caused by other uses (leading to a halt in abstractions or to additional treatments).

River tourism (boating)	Water literally supports the activity and is used as a means of transport.	Constant discharge, notably during the summer (low-flow period) when the level of activity is the highest. The quality of the landscape, the local heritage and the environment created by the aquatic conditions are important.	Direct pressure on water resources due to pollution caused by the wastewater discharged by the tourists. Physical pressure on the environment caused by man-made installations (locks, ports, channelling, etc.).	Hydraulic facilities constitute obstacles to the movement of fish and are a possible source of conflict with fishermen.
Water-related recreational activities	Water literally supports the activity and is used as a means of transport.	Discharge that is sufficient in terms of the volume or the regularity, depending on the activity. The quality of the landscape, the local heritage and the environment created by the aquatic conditions are important.	Direct pressure on water resources due to pollution caused by the wastewater discharged by the tourists, hydrocarbons and boat paints. Physical pressure on the environment caused by man-made installations (ports, loading zones, etc.).	Conflicts with uses resulting in breaks of river continuity, changes in hydrological regimes (hydroelectric generation, navigation), water pollution and rivers running dry during low-flow periods. Conflicts for use of lagoons and littoral areas.
Bathing	Water is required for the activity.	Water quality, notably bacteriological quality. The quality of the landscape, the local heritage and the environment created by the aquatic conditions are important.	Pressure on the environment caused by pollution of beaches and man-made installations in littoral zones.	Conflicts with fishermen and kayakers for use of littoral areas, lagoons, lakes and the river bed of some rivers.
Recreational fishing	Capture of fish, water serves as the living environment for the fish.	Biological richness of the aquatic environment. The quality of the landscape, the local heritage and the environment created by the aquatic conditions are important.	Direct pressure on fauna due to capture and the risk of overfishing, but also a contribution to maintaining fish populations.	Conflicts with uses resulting in obstacles to the movement of fish (hydroelectric generation, navigation), to their reproduction (damage to spawning grounds), in water pollution and rivers running dry during low-flow periods.
Golf courses	Factor of production used to water greens.	Available quantities.	Direct pressure on water resources through abstractions and pollution caused by fertilisers and plant-protection products.	Potential conflict with all users and uses requiring high-quality water. Conflict with other recipients of local water resources is possible if the volumes consumed (always high per surface unit) are significant compared to potential uses elsewhere. Tensions, during periods of restricted use, with uses for drinking water and irrigation.
Man-made snow	Raw material for the production of man-made snow.	Available quantities at a precise period during the year (winter and beginning of spring).	Direct pressure on water resources through abstractions.	Possible conflict with the local supply of drinking water and nearby downstream sections. Local environmental needs (low but not non-existent, even in winter).
Salt ponds and marshes	Production of salt from seawater.	Water quality (no pollution). Availability of land along the coast.	Direct pressure on water resources through abstractions. Pressure on the environment due to increased salinity levels in soil, blocking off of land, creation of wetlands and specific ecosystems.	Conflicts for use of land along the coast is possible with farmers, tourists, hunters, etc.

Small commercial fisheries	Capture of fish, water serves as the living environment for the fish.	Biological richness of the aquatic environment.	Direct pressure on water resources through pollution (hydrocarbons, boat paints). Physical pressure on the environment caused by man-made installations (ports, moorings, etc.). Direct pressure on fauna due to capture and the risk of overfishing.	Conflicts for use of lagoons and the sea (tourism, aquaculture, etc.).
Marine aquaculture and shellfishing	Water is the natural environment in which fish and shellfish grow.	Water quality (purity, no pollution, biological richness of the environment, temperature, oxygen level, salinity, etc.).	Direct pressure on water resources due to possible filling of lagoons (shell fragments, sediment) and eutrophication, pollution caused by fermentable organic matter.	Conflicts for use of lagoons and the sea (tourism, fishing, etc.). Conflicts if the environment is polluted by other uses (pollution of lagoons by organic matter and toxic substances produced by urban activities in the river basin).
River commercial fishing	Capture of fish, water serves as the living environment for the fish.	Biological richness of the aquatic environment.	Direct pressure on water resources due to pollution (hydrocarbons, boat paints). Physical pressure on the environment caused by man-made installations (ports, moorings, etc.). Direct pressure on fauna due to capture and the risk of overfishing, but also a contribution to maintaining fish populations.	Conflicts with uses resulting in obstacles to the movement of fish (hydroelectric generation, navigation), in water pollution and rivers running dry during low-flow periods.
Continental fish farming	Water is the natural environment in which fish grow.	Water quality (purity, no pollution, biological richness of the environment, temperature, oxygen level, etc.).	Direct pressure on water resources due to bypasses, abstractions for the growing ponds, pollution caused by fermentable organic matter (high numbers of fish in limited areas, use of concentrated feed from outside the ecosystem). But also a contribution to maintaining fish populations.	Conflicts with people downstream of the fish farm (water quality) and with local users (of the environment as well) if the quantities of water drawn off are relatively high.



Data extracted from the files of the Sustainable-development division of the Ecology ministry

Recreational activities - Bathing

Type of benefit	Details / Information	Unit	Field of application	Min. unit price	Max. unit price	Environment / Category of water body	Study site
Non-market benefits for current bathers	Low-land river, category 2, shifting from RNRGS (risk of not reaching good status), due to nitrates, pesticides, river morphology, doubts concerning hydrology, to good status.	€/bather/year		32.10 €		River	Gardon
Non-market benefits for additional bathers		€/visit/bather		12 €		River	Gardon
		€/person/year	(apply to the number of persons visiting the recreational sites of the river)	16 €	21 €	River	Erdre
Non-market benefits for current bathers	Improvement in the quality of water (ranging from moderate (occasionally unclean) to good quality) in the harbour of a major city.	€/household/ year	(apply to the number of households participating in at least one activity on the studied site)	33 €		Coastal and transitional waters	Brest harbour
		€/person/year	(apply to the number of persons living within 30 kilometres of a site on the studied harbour)	21 €		Coastal and transitional waters	Brest harbour
Non-market benefits for current bathers	Large quantities of green algae, bad ecological status, problems concerning unsightly conditions, odours and public health. Transition to good status thanks to a reduction in nitrates in rivers and better management of abstractions and discharges.	€/bather/year		25 €		Coastal and transitional waters	Lannion bay St-Michel shore
Non-market benefits for current bathers	Lake maintained at a constant level in the spring and during emptying.	€/household/ year	(apply to the number of households participating in at least one activity on the studied site)	4 €	7 €	Lake	Lake in Orient forest
	Reduction in the frequency of eutrophication in a Mediterranean pond often visited by tourists, due to sanitation work.	€/household/ year	(apply to the number of households participating in at least one activity on the studied site)	30 €	33 €	Lake	Thau pond

Recreational activities

Type of benefit	Details / Information	Unit	Field of application	Min. unit price	Max. unit price	Environment / Category of water body	Study site
Non-market benefits for users (current recreational fishers and participants in water sports)	Large quantities of green algae, bad ecological status, problems concerning unsightly conditions, odours and public health. Transition to good status thanks to a reduction in nitrates in rivers and better management of abstractions and discharges.	€/fisher and/or participant in a water sport, per year		43.10 €		Coastal and transitional waters	Lannion bay St-Michel shore

Recreational activities - Water sports

Type of benefit	Details / Information	Unit	Field of application	Min. unit price	Max. unit price	Environment / Category of water body	Study site
Non-market benefits of current kayakers who are occasional users (day passes)	Low-land river, category 2, shifting from RNRGS (risk of not reaching good status), due to nitrates, pesticides, river morphology, doubts concerning hydrology, to good status.	€/household/ year		7.80 €		River	Gardon
Non-market benefits of current kayakers who are regular users	Low-land river, category 2, shifting from RNRGS (risk of not reaching good status), due to nitrates, pesticides, river morphology, doubts concerning hydrology, to good status.	€/kayaker/year		36 €		River	Loir
Non-market benefits for additional kayakers	Calm waters (low-land river).	€/visit/kayaker/ year		8.40 €		River	Loir
		€/visit/kayaker/ year		12.60 €		River	Gardon
	White waters (small mountain river).	€/visit/kayaker/ year		15 to 21 €		River	Sioule
Non-market benefits for current windsurfers	Lake maintained at a constant level in the spring and during emptying.	€/household/ year	(apply to the number of households participating in at least one activity on the studied site)	4 €	7 €	Lake	Lake in Orient forest
	Reduction in the frequency of eutrophication in a Mediterranean pond often visited by tourists, due to sanitation work.	€/household/ year	(apply to the number of households participating in at least one activity on the studied site)	30 €	33 €	Lake	Thau pond
Non-market benefits for current windsurfers (all participants in water sports in the study by AELB (Loire-Bretagne Water agency))	Degradation of rivers, canals and meadows. Loss of role as buffer. Measures to attenuate the phenomenon include better management of abstractions and water levels, restoration of rivers and aquatic habitats, reduction of rural pollution.	€/participant water sports/ year		27.20 €		Marsh	Marais Poitevin area
Recreational activities - canoeing and kayaking	Average economic value found by 15 French studies.	€/hectare		28 €		Wetland	All of France
Recreational activities - canoeing and kayaking	Average economic value calculated by the meta-analysis by Brander <i>et al.</i> (2003) on the basis of 89 sites.	€/hectare				Wetland	International

Recreational activities - Walking

Type of benefit	Details/information	Unit	Field of application	Min. unit price	Max. unit price	Environment / Category of water body	Lieu de l'étude
Non-market benefits for current walkers	Low-land river, category 2, shifting from RNRGS (risk of not reaching good status), due to nitrates, pesticides, river morphology, doubts concerning hydrology, to good status.	€/household/year		34.80 €		River	Loir
	Visible hydromorphological and/or hydraulic modifications. Transition from capture of sedentary salmonids to sports fishing of wild, sedentary salmonids, through stocking. Reduction in algae.	€/person/year		6 €	14 €	River	Indre and Hérault departments
	Programme to restore (10-15 km/year) and to maintain (10-15 km/year) rivers using manual techniques. Small river basin (main river 19 km long) in a rural area.	€/household/year	(apply to households in towns along the river to be restored)	16 €	19 €	River	Arbas
Non-market benefits for additional walkers		€/visit/walker		15.60 €		River	Loir
		€/visit/walker		14 €		River	Lignon du Velay
		€/visit/walker		19.30 €		River	Gardon
		€/visit/walker		2.40 €		River	Erdre
Non-market benefits for current walkers (and nature watchers)	Improvement in the quality of water (ranging from moderate (occasionally unclean) to good quality for users) in the harbour of a major city.	€/household/year	(apply to the number of households participating in at least one activity on the studied site)	33 €		Coastal and transitional waters	Brest harbour
		€/person/year	(apply to the number of persons living within 30 kilometres of a site on the studied harbour)	21 €		Coastal and transitional waters	Brest harbour
	Maintenance and protection of an estuary with rich fauna and flora.	€/household/year	(apply to the number of households participating in this activity)	30 €		Coastal and transitional waters	Orne estuary
Non-market benefits for additional walkers (and nature watchers)	Informal recreational uses (walking, nature watching).	€/visit/user	(apply to the number of additional visits by new users)	41 €	48 €	Coastal and transitional waters	Orne estuary
Non-market benefits for current walkers	Large quantities of green algae, bad ecological status, problems concerning unsightly conditions, odours and public health. Transition to good status thanks to a reduction in nitrates in rivers and better management of abstractions and discharges.	€/walker/year		23 €		Coastal and transitional waters	Lannion bay
							St-Michel shore
Non-market benefits for current walkers	Existence of a turbidity plume, impact on fish, shift from moderate status to good status due to an attenuation of the phenomena, i.e. rising of the river bed, recreation of mud flats, restoring biological quality along the banks of the estuary.	€/walker/year		46 €		Coastal and transitional waters	Loire estuary
	Maintenance and protection of a reservoir lake receiving many visitors for recreational activities and bird watching.	€/household/year	(apply to the number of households participating in this activity on the studied site)	30 €	33 €	Lake	Der Lake

Recreational activities - Fishing

Type of benefit	Details / Information	Unit	Field of application	Min. unit price	Max. unit price	Environment / Category of water body	Study site
Non-market benefits for current recreational fishers	Low-land river, category 2, shifting from RNRGS (risk of not reaching good status), due to nitrates, pesticides, river morphology, doubts concerning hydrology, to good status.	€/fisher/year	(apply to the fishers on the site)	36 €		River	Loir
	Wild fish (pike, trout) can now live and reproduce in the aquatic environment, whereas they were initially absent or present in low numbers.	€/fisher/year	(apply to the fishers on the site)	7 €	14 €	River	Indre and Hérault departments
	Visible hydromorphological and/or hydraulic modifications. Transition from capture of sedentary salmonids to sports fishing of wild, sedentary salmonids, through stocking. Reduction in algae.	€/fisher/year	(apply to the fishers on the site)	7 €	20 €	River	Lignon du Velay
Non-market benefits for current recreational fishers - fishers from the department not visiting the site	Visible hydromorphological and/or hydraulic modifications. Transition from capture of sedentary salmonids to sports fishing of wild, sedentary salmonids, through stocking. Reduction in algae.	€/fisher/year	(apply to the recreational fishers in the department that do not visit the site)	3.80 €		River	Lignon du Velay
Non-market benefits for additional fishers	Concerning fishing of sea trout.	€/day of fishing		24 €		River	Touques
	Concerning fishing of salmon.	€/day of fishing	(for less than 32 000 total visits to the studied site)	42 €	61 €	River	Sée et Sélune
		€/fisher/year	(for less than 32 000 total visits to the studied site)	7 €		River	Sée et Sélune
	Concerning fishing of sedentary salmonids (trout).	€/visit/fisher		25 €		River	Lignon du Velay
	Concerning standard fishing (fish with white flesh).	€/visit/fisher		12.20 €		River	Loir
		€/visit/fisher		12.80 €		River	Gardon
		€/visit/household		2.40 €		River	
Non-market benefits for current recreational fishers on foot	Improvement in the quality of water (ranging from moderate (occasionally unclean) to good quality for users) in the harbour of a major city.	€/household/year	(apply to the number of households participating in at least one activity on the studied site)	33 €		Coastal and transitional waters	Erdre
		€/person/year	(apply to the number of persons living within 30 kilometres of a site on the studied harbour)	21 €		Coastal and transitional waters	Brest harbour
	Zones rated B (low health risk from consumption of shellfish) and C (high risk) shift to A (no risk).	€/visit/fisher	(apply to the number of visits related to this activity on the studied site)	11 €	14 €	Coastal and transitional waters	Brest harbour
Non-market benefits for fishers on foot		€/fisher/year	(apply to the number of visits related to this activity on the studied site)	24 €		Coastal and transitional waters	Breton coast
		€/visit/fisher	(apply to the number of additional visits by new users)	55 €		Coastal and transitional waters	Rhuys peninsula

Hunting

Type of benefit	Details / information	Unit	Field of application	Min. unit price	Max. unit price	Environment / Category of water body	Study site
Hunting	Average economic value found by 15 French studies.	€/hectare		230 €	330 €	Wetland	All of France
Hunting	Average economic value calculated by the meta-analysis by Brander <i>et al.</i> (2003) on the basis of 89 sites.	€/hectare		116 €		Wetland	International
Hunting	Existence of a turbidity plume, shift from moderate status to good status due to an attenuation of the phenomena, i.e. rising of the river bed, recreation of mud flats, restoring biological quality along the banks of the estuary.	€/hunter		48 €		Wetland	Loire estuary

Navigation

Type de bénéficiaire	Details / Information	Unit	Field of application	Min. unit price	Max. unit price	Environment / Category of water body	Study site
Non-market benefits for an increase in “recreational boating”	If the number of navigable days in the week is 3.5.	€/week of boat rental		64 €		River	Lot
	If the number of navigable days in the week is greater than 5.	€/week of boat rental		444 €		River	Lot
Recreational activities	Average economic value found by 15 French studies.	€/hectare		15 €		Wetland	All of France International
Recreational activities	Average economic value calculated by the meta-analysis by Brander <i>et al.</i> (2003) on the basis of 89 sites.	€/hectare				Wetland	

Supply of drinking water (DWSS)

Type of benefit	Details / Information	Unit	Field of application	Min. unit price	Max. unit price	Environment / Category of water body	Study site
Supply of drinking water from surface waters	City whose drinking water comes from a large, threatened abstraction. The quality of water from a river shifts from insufficient for drinking water to sufficient.	€/household/year	(apply to households of the city whose drinking water comes from the large abstraction)	36 €		River	Erdre

Water treatment

Type of benefit	Details / Information	Unit	Field of application	Min. unit price	Max. unit price	Environment / Category of water body	Study site
Lower treatment costs for the DWSS system	Treatment for eutrophication	€/ m³		0.13 €	0,21 €	River	Loire-Bretagne water agency
Lower treatment costs for the DWSS system	Treatment for nitrates	€/ m³		0.22 €		River	Seine-Normandie water agency
Lower treatment costs for the DWSS system	Treatment for pesticides	€/ m³		0.06 €		River	Seine-Normandie water agency
Lower treatment costs for the DWSS system	Treatment for eutrophication	€/ m³		0.13 €	0,21 €	Coastal and transitional waters	Loire-Bretagne water agency
Lower treatment costs for the DWSS system	Treatment for nitrates	€/ m³		0.22 €		Coastal and transitional waters	Seine-Normandie water agency
Lower treatment costs for the DWSS system	Treatment for nitrates and pesticides	€/ m³		0.06 €		Coastal and transitional waters	Seine-Normandie water agency
Lower treatment costs for the DWSS system	Treatment for eutrophication	€/ m³		0.13 €	0,21 €	Groundwater	Loire-Bretagne water agency
Lower treatment costs for the DWSS system	Treatment for nitrates	€/ m³		0.22 €		Groundwater	Seine-Normandie water agency
Lower treatment costs for the DWSS system	Treatment for pesticides	€/ m³		0.06 €		Groundwater	Seine-Normandie water agency
Lower treatment costs for the DWSS system	Treatment for eutrophication	€/ m³		0.13 €	0,21 €	Lake	Loire-Bretagne water agency
Lower treatment costs for the DWSS system	Treatment for nitrates			0.22 €		Lake	Seine-Normandie water agency
Lower treatment costs for the DWSS system	Treatment for pesticides	€/ m³		0.06 €		Lake	Seine-Normandie water agency
Water purification	Average economic value found by 15 French studies.	€/ha		15 €	11 300 €	Wetland	All of France
Water purification	Average economic value calculated by the meta-analysis by Brander <i>et al.</i> (2003) on the basis of 89 sites.	€/ha		272 €		Wetland	International

Bequest value

Type of benefit	Details / Information	Unit	Field of application	Min. unit price	Max. unit price	Environment / Category of water body	Study site
Bequest value (non-use)	Low-land river, category 2, shifting from RNRGS (risk of not reaching good status), due to nitrates, pesticides, river morphology, doubts concerning hydrology, to good status.	€/household/year	(apply to non-user households in towns along the river)	24 €		River	Loir
	Visible hydromorphological and/or hydraulic modifications Transition from capture of sedentary salmonids to sports fishing of wild, sedentary salmonids, through stocking. Reduction in algae.	€/household/year	(apply to non-user inhabitants of the river basin)	5 €	8.50 €	River	Lignon du Velay
	Programme to restore (10-15km/year) and to maintain (10-15 km/year) rivers using manual techniques. Small river basin (main river 19 km long) in a rural area.	€/household/year	(apply to households in towns along the river to be restored)	16 €	19 €	River	Arbas
Enhancement of ecosystems	Protection of forests along a river through the creation of nature reserves, use of less polluting farming techniques, restricted access to certain sites, restrictive zoning of land along the river, etc., for the users of the site (the people visiting the studied sites).	€/household/year	(apply to households living less than 15 kilometres from the river)	10 €	22 €	River	Garonne River
	Restoration of the hydrographic network of an island in the former bed of a river that has been channelised by reconnecting the side channels, restoring the alluvial forest, improving biodiversity, etc., for the users of the site (the people visiting the studied sites).	€/household/year	(apply to households in towns adjacent to the island)	18.70 €		River	Rhinau island in the Rhine River
		€/household/year	(apply to households in towns located less than 10 kilometres from the island (not including towns adjacent to the island))	14.10 €		River	Rhinau island in the Rhine River
Enhancement of ecosystems	Shift from clear eutrophication in the harbour of a large city to no visible eutrophication, for the users of the site (the people visiting the studied sites).	€/household/year	(apply to the number of households visiting the studied site)	24 €		Coastal and transitional waters	Brest harbour
Bequest value (non-use)	For the current status.	€/non user (household)/year		30 €		Coastal and transitional waters	Lannion bay St-Michel shore
Bequest value (non-use)	For the current status.	€/non user (household)/year		36 €		Coastal and transitional waters	Loire estuary
Bequest value assigned by households supplied with drinking water from groundwater	Shift of a body of groundwater with moderate characteristics to good status. Nitrates and pesticides are the reason for RNRGS (risk of not reaching good status). The outflow of the primarily sedimentary aquifer is generally free.	€/household/year	(apply to households supplied with drinking water from the studied water table)	25.40 €	27.20€	Groundwater	Water bodies in the Craie and Artois regions and in the Lys valley
	Creation of a programme to preserve a symbolic and very large aquifer that is polluted in some places.	€/household/year	(apply to households supplied with drinking water from the studied water table)	52 €	110 €	Groundwater	Alsatian water table

Flooding

Type of benefit	Details / Information	Unit	Field of application	Min. unit price	Max. unit price	Environment / Category of water body	Study site
Flood control	Average economic value found by 15 French studies.	€/hectare		37 €	617 €	Wetland	All of France
Flood control	Average economic value calculated by the meta-analysis by Brander <i>et al.</i> (2003) on the basis of 89 sites.	€/hectare		438 €		Wetland	International

Shellfishing

Type of benefit	Details / Information	Details / Information	Field of application	Min. unit price	Max. unit price	Environment / Category of water body	Study site
Lower treatment costs for oyster production	Oyster purification costs	€/kg of oysters	(apply to a quantity of oysters produced by a farm located in a B zone)	0.06 €		Coastal and transitional waters	Loire-Bretagne water agency

Mitigation of low flows

Type of benefit	Details / Information	Details / Information	Field of application	Min. unit price	Max. unit price	Environment / Category of water body	Study site
Supply of water during low-flow periods	Average economic value found by 15 French studies.	€/hectare		45 €	150 €	Wetland	All of France
Supply of water during low-flow periods	Average economic value calculated by the meta-analysis by Brander <i>et al.</i> (2003) on the basis of 89 sites.	€/hectare		42 €		Wetland	International

Investment costs of supplementary measures to reach good status

HYPOTHESES

Service life:
unlimited

Calculation period:
30 years

Reference year:
2010

Discount rate:
4%

Benefits
calculated
starting in:
2015

Water-body code	Population	Number of potentially available guide values (not including walkers and bequest value)	Sanitation		Industry					Agriculture	Hydromorphology		TOTAL costs of supplementary measures		Results of stakeholder ability to pay (pre-screening)									TOTAL benefits (not including ecosystems)		TOTAL benefits for ecosystems alone		TOTAL costs	[Benefits] - [Costs]		[Benefits] - 80% [Costs]		
			Investment	Operations	Investment	Operation of polluting installations (GERP)	Operation (PAH)	Operation (chlorinated solvents)	Operation (chloride)		Investment	Investment	Operations	Investment	Discounted operating costs	Sanitation: supplementary measures	Industry: ecological pollution (GERP)	Industry: chemical pollution (GERP)	Industry: not including main polluters					Crafts/trade companies: PAHs	Industry: chlorinated solvents	Agriculture: abstraction supply zone for drinking water	Agriculture: nonpoint-source pollutants (nitrates and pesticides)		Hydromorphology	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.
CR1	13 338	4	3 026 054	1 984 500	25 242 423	3 680 000	66 693	0	0		23 515 759	14 455	51 784 236	105 099 584	ok 2015	ok 2015	ok 2027	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	cb 2027	2 328 359	16 400 674	1 481 573	6 242 748	156 883 820	-154 555 461	-140 483 146	-123 178 697	coût disprop	
CR2	525	4	165 000	7 437	0	0	0	0	0		40 948 177	24 457	41 113 177	583 396	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ok 2015	1 369 552	2 643 490	29 981	36 175	41 696 573					
CR3	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		6 817 783	36 061	6 817 783	659 636	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ok 2015	472 198	1 032 533	0	0	7 477 419						
CR4	3 261	2	1 167 198	0	14 324	0	28 153	0	0		1 810 000	14 400	2 991 522	778 381	ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	cb 2027	481 164	77 580 847	224 698	641 438	3 769 903	-3 288 739	73 810 944	-2 534 758	coût disprop	
CR5	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		23 168 281	13 027	23 168 281	238 285	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	cb 2027	0	0	0	0	23 406 566	-23 406 566	-23 406 566	-18 725 252	coût disprop		
CR6	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
CR7	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		659 150	36 507	659 150	667 783	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	cb 2027	0	0	0	0	1 326 933	-1 326 933	-1 326 933	-1 061 546	coût disprop		
CR8	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
CR9	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		
CR10	22 821	2	372 500	10 027	788 768	0	136 453	0	0		0	0	1 161 268	2 679 415	ok 2015	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	3 298 416	30 274 704	2 534 937	8 709 175	3 840 683					
CR12	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		92 890	5 145	92 890	94 107	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	cb 2027	0	0	0	0	186 997	-186 997	-186 997	-149 598	coût disprop		
CR13	26 512	3	11 913 451	15 821 816	1 019 364	84 000	221 300	0	0		1 090 043	10 525	14 022 858	295 190 266	ok 2021	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	3 928 788	25 501 143 094	2 944 930	34 268 870	309 213 124	-305 284 335	25 191 929 971	-243 441 711	coût disprop	
CR14	25 167	3	650 000	0	1 047 490	80 000	64 917	0	0		889 950	5 964	2 587 440	2 759 929	ok 2015	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	3 982 507	27 432 777 735	2 795 528	35 801 163	5 347 369					
CR15	14 891	3	2 500 117	208 846	240 379	0	77 815	0	0		1 280 209	8 580	4 020 705	5 400 535	ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	2 197 183	3 094 304 909	1 654 079	10 266 941	9 421 240					
CR16	1 860	4	310 254	3 103	750	0	0	0	0		339 617	9 184	650 621	224 746	ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	ok 2015	320 550	2 372 119	206 607	803 446	875 367					
CR17	20 268	3	7 485 000	341 727	1 457 488	32 000	136 154	0	0		791 834	21 413	9 734 322	9 718 452	ok 2015	0	ok 2015	ok 2021	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	3 492 966	10 706 954 462	1 396 560	25 362 118	19 452 774	-15 959 808	10 687 501 688	-12 069 253	coût disprop	
CR18	136 931	3	13 335 000	136 610	7 920 575	512 000	724 522	0	0		330 420	8 935	21 585 995	25 280 821	ok 2015	ok 2015	ok 2015	ok 2021	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	21 583 350	354 595 235	9 435 189	83 218 867	46 866 816	-25 283 466	307 728 419	-15 910 102	coût disprop	
CR19	2 477	3	297 147	0	6 608	0	5 021	0	0		2 121 320	29 738	2 425 075	635 815	ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	383 887	972 841	216 801	275 143	3 060 890					
CR20	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		2 030 966	28 471	2 030 966	520 801	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ok 2015	0	671 921	0	0	2 551 767						
CR21	34 921	2	9 199 093	69 682	2 952 078	164 000	282 359	0	0		1 492 475	20 923	13 643 646	9 822 146	cb 2027	ok 2015	ok 2021	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	5 070 781	88 401 550	2 406 221	21 131 200	23 465 792	-18 395 010	64 935 758	-13 701 852	coût disprop	
CR22	417 332	5	36 190 741	28 350 000	21 330 536	1 828 000	1 364 510	0	0		2 915 239	40 868	60 436 516	577 724 203	ok 2015	ok 2015	ok 2021	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	66 929 289	2 011 993 076	46 356 872	581 404 956	638 160 719	-571 231 430	1 373 832 358	-443 599 286	coût disprop	
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CR24	1 653	1	0	1 549	8 804	0	5 257	0	0		0	0	8 804	124 487	ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	243 902	5 875 503	183 614	552 064	133 291				
CR25	10 091	2	832 330	0	452 293	0	59 967	0	0		1 801 176	18 960	3 085 799	1 443 726	ok 2015	0	0	ok 2021	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	1 501 726	3 299 450 052	695 317	7 578 013	4 529 525	-3 027 800	3 294 920 527	-2 121 895	coût disprop	
CR26	19 875	3	2 856 746	0	735 840	0	104 285	0	0		646 029	6 800	4 238 615	2 031 969	ok 2015	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	2 895 525	11 070 987	1 282 295	1 369 481	6 270 584					
CR27	528	0	0	1 580	8 804	0	5 257	0	0		0	0	8 804	125 057	ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	77 907	819 662	0	0	133 861				
CR28	11 448	1	2 096 139	58 387	230 829	0	61 460	0	0		907 300	9 551	3 234 269	2 366 941	ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	1 689 165	9 521 809 321	788 821	10 159 600	5 601 209					
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CR41	1 249	2	402 500	18 141	8 650	0	1 490	0	0		174 769	4 726	585 919	445 533
CR42	1 786	2	552 500	24 875	76 800	0	0	0	0		180 380	4 878	809 680	544 233
CR43	1 132	2	332 500	15 011	5 108	0	5 021	0	0		160 120	4 330	497 728	445 634
CR704	5 112	4	2 158 263	83 180	243 422	0	45 864	0	0		1 370 635	21 435	3 772 320	2 752 555
CR703	1 399	4	1 265 731	56 907	13 462	0	3 969	0	0		688 937	10 274	1 968 130	1 301 484
CR705	6 016	2	2 606 218	107 805	27 674	0	14 483	0	0		1 633 332	27 847	4 267 224	2 746 265
CR47	1 792	2	0	1 548	1 000	0	0	0	0		329 487	4 593	330 487	112 329
CR48	1 970	2	2 432 050	90 989	9 950	0	1 550	0	0		555 805	7 748	2 997 805	1 834 454
CR49	3 819	2	1 249 051	56 079	521 264	24 000	52 157	0	0		448 780	6 256	2 219 095	2 533 292
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CR54	5 688	1	50 000	0	334 561	0	32 516	0	0		177 901	4 408	562 462	675 414
CR706	1 205	3	0	0	90 262	0	11 704	0	0		55 500	1 375	145 762	239 246
CR707	1 599	3	50 000	0	566 106	16 000	25 672	0	0		195 001	4 832	811 107	850 651
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CR58	948	1	0	1 579	250	0	0	0	0		147 251	3 649	147 501	95 629
CR59	1 246	2	92 500	4 188	347 102	16 000	13 296	0	0		185 389	4 594	624 991	696 521
CR60	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0
CR61	5 044	2	982 500	37 517	27 808	0	16 229	0	0		380 932	9 439	1 391 240	1 155 779
CR62	4 434	3	100 000	0	118 358	8 000	6 944	0	0		308 043	7 633	526 401	412 978
CR63	1 411	2	50 000	0	25 266	0	28 457	0	0		237 512	5 885	312 778	628 190
CR64	68 389	3	19 696 171	630 495	4 320 259	160 000	365 889	0	0		680 000	24 000	24 696 430	21 591 625
CR65	15 015	4	50 000	0	986 837	0	109 189	0	0		787 758	5 279	1 824 595	2 093 852
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CR709	11 146	3	5 449 367	241 260	4 300 970	560 000	89 620	0	0		0	0	9 750 337	16 296 006
CR69	10 163	2	6 350 420	230 096	2 446 181	296 000	143 051	0	0		1 088 819	17 421	9 885 421	12 558 725
CR70	735	1	128 796	1 996	0	0	0	0	0		368 547	5 897	497 343	144 381
CR71	1 435	2	255 499	4 006	9 966	0	4 092	0	0		280 236	4 484	545 701	230 137
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CR76	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0
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CR79	19 921	2	1 866 402	0	803 348	24 000	101 684	0	0		195 777	10 355	2 865 527	2 488 429
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CR82	6 419	2	814 079	0	266 176	16 000	41 969	0	0		261 508	13 832	1 341 763	1 313 389
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CR84	4 273	1	300 000	0	258 808	0	18 331	0	0		0	0	558 808	335 311
CR85	8 784	2	250 000	0	3 188 626	480 000	119 367	0	0		187 525	6 251	3 626 151	11 077 975
CR86	10 240	1	250 000	0	10 238 245	1 600 000	77 016	0	0		226 074	7 536	10 714 319	30 813 881
CR87	6 396	1	250 000	0	89 224	0	32 192	0	0		257 986	8 600	597 210	746 160
CR88	7 640	1	1 614 315	53 981	1 872 876	0	50 708	0	0		1 416 290	34 386	4 903 481	2 543 979
CR89	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0
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CR91	22 436	4	3 519 306	471 135	3 118 378	352 000	142 764	0	0		619 745	15 047	7 257 429	17 943 485
CR92	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0
CR93	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0
CR94	647	1	50 000	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	50 000	0
CR95	2 884	1	150 000	0	18 754	0	6 807	0	0		384 125	12 804	552 879	358 728
CR96	1 135	2	50 000	1 575	9 950	0	1 550	0	0		193 155	6 439	253 105	174 927
CR97	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		238 663	7 955	238 663	145 521
CR98	8 294	4	4 132 500	179 260	5 335 140	800 000	81 090	0	0		392 251	13 075	9 859 891	19 635 120
CR99	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		116 696	3 890	116 696	71 153
CR100	2 893	1	3 543 736	626 907	100 274	0	23 098	0	0		236 772	7 892	3 880 783	12 034 282
CR101	1 385	2	1 450 000	65 272	1 250	0	0	0	0		0	0	1 451 250	1 193 952

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ok 2021	0	ok 2015	ok 2021	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	563 498	200 992 479	424 211	836 023	4 752 387	-4 188 890	196 240 092	-3 238 412	coût dispro
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	cb 2027	534 135	129 533 255	402 106	2 953 326	11 896 663	-11 362 528	117 636 593	-8 983 195	coût dispro
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CR310	7 059	1	3 198 180	145 879	251 844	0	43 907	0	0		0	0	3 450 024	3 471 570
CR311	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		53 990	4 595	53 990	84 050
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CR313	470	2	0	21 772	0	0	0	0	0		73 688	6 271	73 688	512 978
CR314	271	2	0	3 040	0	0	0	0	0		103 095	8 774	103 095	216 101
CR315	1 744	2	0	15 240	20 150	0	4 080	0	0		174 079	14 815	194 229	624 406
CR316	230	1	0	1 512	0	0	0	0	0		103 035	8 769	103 035	188 063
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CR320	3 107	1	4 230 010	188 258	123 314	0	21 272	0	0		2 037 022	30 298	6 390 346	4 386 951
CR321	15 035	4	4 158 032	203 915	226 504	0	89 362	0	0		1 727 978	25 702	6 112 514	5 834 773
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CR336	2 608	3	788 930	33 229	66 608	0	6 944	0	0		218 548	6 476	1 074 086	853 302
CR337	848	3	2 117 875	75 429	250	0	0	0	0		386 796	11 461	2 504 921	1 589 384
CR338	2 340	3	0	16 761	9 054	0	1 687	0	0		435 574	13 921	444 628	592 101
CR339	2 274	3	0	7 598	9 400	0	1 980	0	0		283 013	11 369	292 413	383 159
CR340	897	2	0	1 521	5 358	0	1 451	0	0		196 355	5 818	201 713	160 794
CR341	2 683	3	100 000	0	13 824	0	19 228	0	0		149 847	3 611	263 671	417 767
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ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	ok 2021	0	0	0	cb 2027	252 183	2 240 024	175 505	405 112	1 503 171	-1 250 988	736 853	-950 354	coût dispro *
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cb 2027	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ok 2015	15 136	123 499	9 167	19 772	330 925	-315 789	-207 426	-249 604	coût dispro
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ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	332 347	1 105 624	124 304	249 271	1 376 417				
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0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	cb 2027	0	19 858	0	0	138 040	-138 040	-118 182	-110 432	coût dispro
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2021	0	0	0	0	ok 2015	41 163	154 732	24 931	41 877	171 271	-130 108	-16 539	-95 853	coût dispro
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ok 2015	ok 2015	ok 2015	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	2 850 893	6 673 875 705	2 127 610	54 938 670	29 015 658				
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ok 2015	0	0	ok 2021	ok 2015	0	0	0	cb 2027	345 270	9 836 692	259 925	1 679 038	1 036 729	-691 460	8 799 963	-484 114	coût dispro
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CR343	1 814	3	0	13 740	250	0	0	0	0		1 554 328	38 215	1 554 578	950 371
CR344	743	2	0	6 772	8 554	0	5 257	0	0		222 740	7 644	231 294	359 862
CR345	4 196	3	0	4 605	13 466	0	10 042	0	0		312 881	12 569	326 347	497 819
CR346	58	3	150 975	1 510	250	0	0	0	0		163 689	4 024	314 914	101 233
CR347	171	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		155 969	4 959	155 969	90 703
CR348	268	1	0	1 520	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	27 803
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CR353	5 950	1	100 000	0	74 966	0	10 318	0	0		408 024	9 832	582 990	368 583
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CR355	632	0	1 303 960	40 830	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	1 303 960	746 856
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CR357	307	1	0	7 545	250	0	0	0	0		494 242	9 160	494 492	305 578
CR358	1 534	2	1 042 270	17 104	8 804	0	1 687	0	0		0	0	1 051 074	343 722
CR359	103	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0
CR360	158	0	0	1 525	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	27 896
CR361	881	0	920 605	23 203	8 054	0	9 422	0	0		0	0	928 659	596 785
CR362	1 885	0	87 494	67 772	9 804	0	2 282	0	0		0	0	97 298	1 281 432
CR363	488	0	950 065	41 855	17 254	0	3 727	0	0		0	0	967 319	833 779
CR364	1 215	0	2 287 390	101 694	5 108	0	1 451	0	0		0	0	2 292 498	1 886 730
CR365	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0
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CR367	3 794	1	150 000	14 312	10 054	0	2 282	0	0		0	0	160 054	303 543
CR368	2 843	1	100 000	67 714	26 808	0	9 054	0	0		0	0	126 808	1 404 239
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CR370	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0
CR371	10 693	2	600 000	30 740	126 966	0	18 973	0	0		0	0	726 966	909 348
CR372	1 421	2	50 000	0	146 550	0	0	0	0		100 528	3 444	297 078	63 001
CR373	3 676	3	100 000	0	9 054	0	2 282	0	0		109 787	3 761	218 841	110 547
CR374	2 677	2	50 000	0	38 404	0	10 887	0	0		180 757	6 193	269 161	312 427
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CR377	7 001	2	150 000	0	129 020	0	28 395	0	0		294 796	10 100	573 816	704 153
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CR381	57 774	4	2 370 188	0	2 195 559	64 000	293 925	0	0		1 550 357	29 597	6 116 104	7 088 548
CR382	12 712	3	9 144 478	289 212	1 239 800	160 000	73 375	0	0		824 288	32 686	11 208 566	10 157 059
CR383	4 812	2	9 101 805	296 608	38 716	0	8 533	0	0		1 204 791	47 774	10 345 312	6 455 527
CR384	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0
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CR387	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		430 125	8 211	430 125	150 199
CR388	1 474	2	798 708	15 499	4 858	1 701	1 451	0	0		89 079	1 701	892 645	341 165
CR389	1 468	2	1 581 902	41 308	16 358	0	3 969	0	0		263 139	5 023	1 861 399	920 089
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CR393	6 947	2	2 223 838	25 406	193 851	0	38 311	0	0		481 607	9 194	2 899 296	1 333 675
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CR401	41 127	3	50 000	0	841 188	0	170 641	0	0		208 513	7 144	1 099 701	3 252 055
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ok 2015	0	0	ok 2021	0	0	0	0	cb 2027	293 885	4 344 283	201 498	981 259	2 504 948	-2 211 064	1 839 335	-1 710 074	coût dispro *
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ok 2027	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	cb 2027	15 560	131 888	9 425	18 995	246 672	-231 112	-114 785	-181 777	coût dispro
ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	39 544	216 503	29 503	29 769	27 803				
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ok 2015	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	ok 2021	0	0	0	ok 2015	3 088 266	23 505 362 318	2 305 669	36 044 944	9 180 007	-6 091 741	23 496 740	-4 255 740	coût dispro
ok 2015	0	ok 2027	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	2 367 605	17 467 875 230	1 782 376	21 327 063	9 536 402	-7 168 798	17 458 338 827	-5 261 517	coût dispro

*Dispro. cost

CR461	563	2	50 000	0	250	0	0	0	0		58 281	5 181	108 531	94 762
CR462	6 134	2	190 084	45 042	505 626	0	37 353	0	0		106 212	9 441	801 922	1 679 866
CR463	1 245	1	0	0	1 250	0	0	0	0		63 742	5 666	64 992	103 641
CR464	1 742	2	3 725 790	155 278	250	0	0	0	0		0	0	3 726 040	2 840 349
CR465	3 865	2	0	0	27 808	0	4 924	0	0		109 736	9 754	137 544	268 496
CR466	818	3	386 852	77 473	250	0	0	0	0		112 984	10 043	500 086	1 600 854
CR467	419	2	0	25 920	500	0	0	0	0		48 359	4 299	48 859	552 760
CR468	3 906	2	5 782 445	233 314	26 058	0	19 624	0	0		112 984	10 043	5 921 487	4 810 466
CR469	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0
B1R47 0	5 979	3	0	128 228	510 419	38 400	61 510	0	0		1 825 612	37 847	2 336 031	4 865 398
B1R47 1	2 569	2	253 326	346 616	612 054	96 000	9 422	0	0		865 150	20 578	1 730 530	8 645 123
B1R47 2	49 882	4	3 013 074	762 246	5 462 582	504 000	336 666	0	0		4 362 846	60 651	12 838 502	30 429 950
B1R47 3	0	3	150 000	12 103	253 122	16 000	55 771	0	0		1 589 277	19 875	1 992 399	1 897 782
B1R47 4	6 270	5	50 000	24 500	523 014	76 000	32 698	0	0		3 443 103	43 058	4 016 117	3 224 081
B1R47 5	35 146	4	1 310 000	50 888	3 804 722	349 664	201 921	0	0		1 940 102	36 377	7 054 824	11 685 874
B1R47 6	67 453	3	335 000	1 601	3 047 647	144 000	318 803	0	0		1 611 940	28 752	4 994 587	9 020 823
B1R47 7	32 015	4	10 370 000	470 729	1 738 113	0	146 872	0	0		3 872 959	66 871	15 981 072	12 520 397
B1R47 8	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0
B1R47 9	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0
B1R48 0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0
B1R48 1	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0
B1R48 2	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0
B1R48 3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0
B1R48 4	315	2	0	0	4 858	0	5 021	0	0		307 777	6 429	312 635	209 439
B1R48 5	2 296	2	0	0	10 304	0	5 257	0	0		857 601	17 913	867 905	423 833
B1R48 6	2 130	2	0	39 634	297 054	32 000	9 607	0	0		1 626 506	33 974	1 923 560	2 107 523
B1R48 7	3 280	2	0	26 577	429 558	64 000	15 459	0	0		970 544	20 272	1 400 102	2 310 446
B1R48 8	206	1	0	1 528	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	27 955
B1R48 9	691	0	1 144 070	33 019	500	0	0	0	0		0	0	1 144 570	603 977
B1R49 0	4 541	1	2 372 285	87 848	38 912	0	6 846	0	0		579 597	12 106	2 990 794	1 953 600
B1R49 1	135	1	0	1 518	38 500	0	0	0	0		179 381	3 747	217 881	96 299
B1R49 2	11 263	1	1 150 360	0	809 904	16 000	98 122	0	0		1 035 692	21 633	2 995 956	2 483 234
B1R49 3	4 451	1	1 277 165	1 784 238	47 166	0	29 123	0	0		726 635	15 178	2 050 966	33 447 686
B1R49 4	1 752	2	0	32 969	10 554	0	9 422	0	0		1 050 279	21 938	1 060 833	1 176 708
B1R49 5	2 812	1	3 216 325	100 233	149 264	0	25 987	0	0		0	0	3 365 589	2 308 815
B1R49 6	1 007	1	0	34 106	750	0	0	0	0		0	0	750	623 863
B1R49 7	411	1	0	3 026	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	55 356
B1R49 8	650	1	0	9 085	500	0	0	0	0		0	0	500	166 182
B1R49 9	114	1	0	1 515	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	27 708
B1R50 0	328	0	0	3 028	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	55 380
B1R50 1	365	1	0	1 547	1 000	0	0	0	0		0	0	1 000	28 290
B1R50 2	2 219	2	0	1 511	87 266	0	2 902	0	0		142 220	8 879	229 486	243 142
B1R50 3	592	3	2 103 655	62 825	8 554	0	1 687	0	0		118 697	7 411	2 230 905	1 315 605
B1R50 4	4 028	2	457 820	12 301	224 556	16 000	20 272	0	0		296 887	18 536	979 263	1 227 557
B1R50 5	2 144	1	0	3 056	66 745	0	8 443	0	0		193 083	12 055	259 828	430 850
B1R50 6	1 309	0	0	1 552	47 554	0	5 257	0	0		0	0	47 554	124 549
B1R50 7	2 625	2	0	7 558	14 758	0	3 536	0	0		182 763	11 411	197 521	411 652
B1R50 8	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		119 463	7 459	119 463	136 432
B1R50 9	2 194	3	115 728	175 114	48 852	0	10 476	0	0		200 564	12 522	365 144	3 623 883
B1R51 0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		92 777	5 792	92 777	105 956
B1R51 1	1 285	1	0	6 164	4 858	0	2 046	0	0		0	0	4 858	150 177
B1R51 2	435	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0
B1R51 3	4 872	3	50 000	0	385 826	0	28 529	0	0		97 857	6 110	533 683	633 617

ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	ok 2015	83 071	240 692	62 538	72 699	203 293						
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2027	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	905 078	990 388 179	681 359	2 282 792	2 481 788	-1 576 710	987 906 391	-1 080 352	coût dispro	*	
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	ok 2015	183 701	2 344 446	85 786	193 119	168 633						
cb 2027	0	0	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	334 744	1 288 943	193 500	615 930	6 566 389	-6 231 644	-5 277 446	-4 918 367	coût dispro		
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	570 285	157 166 666	429 321	2 221 753	406 040						
ok 2021	0	0	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	ok 2015	198 407	308 273	90 863	104 229	2 100 941	-1 902 534	-1 792 668	-1 482 346	coût dispro		
cb 2027	0	0	ok 2021	0	0	0	0	ok 2015	42 835	89 738	25 944	46 542	601 619	-558 785	-511 882	-438 461	coût dispro		
ok 2027	0	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	576 335	28 391 113	433 875	3 019 072	10 731 954	-10 155 619	17 659 160	-8 009 228	coût dispro		
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	13 173	0	0	0						
ok 2015	ok 2015	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	#VALEUR !	#VALEUR !	#VALEUR !	#VALEUR !	7 201 429						
ok 2015	ok 2015	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	379 059	3 951 076	285 362	1 207 131	10 375 653						
ok 2015	ok 2021	ok 2027	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	7 443 588	67 793 083 588	3 437 104	124 588 671	43 268 453	-35 824 865	67 749 815 135	-27 171 174	coût dispro		
cb 2027	ok 2015	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	12 952	639 230	0	0	3 890 181	-3 877 229	-3 250 951	-3 099 193	coût dispro		
ok 2015	0	ok 2021	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	cb 2027	1 090 402	17 362 309	432 032	4 760 973	7 240 198	-6 149 796	10 122 111	-4 701 756	coût dispro		
cb 2027	ok 2015	ok 2021	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	5 185 831	50 773 726 689	2 421 724	26 534 370	18 740 697	-13 554 867	50 754 985 991	-9 806 727	coût dispro		
ok 2015	0	ok 2015	ok 2021	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	9 419 571	239 823 040	4 647 828	56 679 634	14 015 409	-4 595 838	225 807 631	-1 792 757	coût dispro		
cb 2027	ok 2015	ok 2015	ok 2015	ok 2021	0	0	0	ok 2015	4 972 663	1 456 167 575	2 205 984	26 657 008	28 501 468	-23 528 805	1 427 666 106	-17 828 512	coût dispro		
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0						
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0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0						
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	cb 2027	27 823	166 340	16 852	34 990	522 074	-494 251	-355 734	-389 836	coût dispro		
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	cb 2027	338 777	1 916 566	255 038	716 920	1 291 737	-952 960	624 829	-694 613	coût dispro		
ok 2015	ok 2021	0	ok 2027	ok 2015	0	0	0	cb 2027	314 284	5 439 166	236 599	1 540 735	4 031 083	-3 716 799	1 408 083	-2 910 583	coût dispro		
ok 2015	ok 2015	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	483 968	6 944 686	364 340	2 732 283	3 710 548						
ok 2021	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	18 945	76 659	11 475	22 882	27 955	-9 010	48 704	-3 419	coût dispro		
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	101 958	679 080	0	0	1 748 547						
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	670 030	21 428 553	312 896	2 433 928	4 944 395						
ok 2015	0	0	cb 2027	0	0	0	0	cb 2027	12 508	80 627	6 228	9 302	314 180	-301 672	-233 553	-238 836	coût dispro		
ok 2015	ok 2015	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	1 661 868	5 076 448 378	776 074	7 032 288	5 479 190						
ok 2021	0	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	656 750	135 614 010	306 695	3 267 063	35 498 653	-34 841 903	100 115 357	-27 742 172	coût dispro		
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	cb 2027	258 510	2 905 435	120 721	855 527	2 237 541	-1 979 031	667 894	-1 531 523	coût dispro		
ok 2027	ok 2015	0	ok 2015	ok 2021	0	0	0	0	484 617	6 325 461	0	0	5 674 404	-5 189 787	651 057	-4 054 906	coût dispro		
ok 2021	0	0	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	148 584	579 809	111 857	202 476	624 613	-476 029	-44 805	-351 107	coût dispro		
ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	60 643	503 346	45 654	109 834	55 356						
ok 2021	0	0	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	95 908	968 218	72 201	202 615	166 682	-70 774	801 536	-37 437	coût dispro		
ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10 326	61 022	6 254	12 663	27 708						
ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	48 397	423 916	0	0	55 380						
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	53 856	154 703	40 544	41 554	29 290						
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2021	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	327 416	6 137 352	229 243	246 485	472 628	-145 212	5 664 725	-50 686	coût dispro		
ok 2021	0	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	102 025	1 029 734	65 759	198 139	3 546 510	-3 444 486	-2 516 777	-2 735 184	coût dispro		
ok 2015	0	ok 2015	ok 2027	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	594 336	9 924 633	447 427	2 713 830	2 206 820	-1 612 484	7 717 814	-1 171 120	coût dispro		
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	cb 2027	0	0	0	ok 2015	316 350	3 179 663	147 732	568 229	690 677	-374 328	2 488 986	-236 192	coût dispro		
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	193 144	405 707	0	0	172 103						
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	387 322	4 451 495	291 583	1 299 540	609 173						
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ok 2015	0	154 083	0	0	255 895						
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	ok 2021	0	0	0	ok 2015	343 401	2 434 540	243 708	763 035	3 989 027	-3 645 626	-1 554 487	-2 847 821	coût dispro		
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	cb 2027	26 227	110 736	0	0	198 732	-172 505	-87 996	-132 759	coût dispro		
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	189 603	1 699 556	142 737	553 745	155 035						
ok 2021	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	90 412	459 532	48 319	117 124	0	90 412	459 532	90 412	coût non dispro		
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2027	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	450 654	16 040 759	257 065	541 177	1 167 300	-716 647	14 873 459	-483 187	coût dispro		

B1R514	1 408	2	100 000	3 021	10 966	0	14 207	0	0		137 972	8 614	248 938	472 702
B1R515	677	3	0	6 095	750	0	0	0	0		204 811	12 787	205 561	345 396
B1R516	372	1	0	1 551	1 250	0	0	0	0		0	0	1 250	28 378
B1R517	152	2	0	3 019	250	0	0	0	0		95 073	5 936	95 323	163 797
B1R518	45	2	0	1 504	0	0	0	0	0		96 912	6 051	96 912	138 184
B1R519	282	1	0	4 531	0	0	0	0	0		130 746	8 163	130 746	232 202
B1R520	479	2	0	4 569	0	0	0	0	0		160 776	10 038	160 776	267 183
B1R521	322	2	0	4 536	250	0	0	0	0		167 043	10 429	167 293	273 750
B1R522	90	2	0	1 511	0	0	0	0	0		84 678	5 287	84 678	124 350
B1R523	944	2	50 000	0	2 000	0	0	0	0		103 002	6 431	155 002	117 634
B1R524	435	2	0	3 052	500	0	0	0	0		125 141	7 813	125 641	198 736
B1R525	1 445	1	100 000	0	32 966	0	26 978	0	0		0	0	132 966	493 482
B1R526	3 619	2	50 000	0	27 558	0	8 459	0	0		146 318	9 135	223 876	321 835
B1R527	497	2	1 133 557	44 394	0	0	0	0	0		119 269	7 446	1 252 826	948 276
B1R528	189	2	0	1 525	0	0	0	0	0		138 992	8 678	138 992	186 634
B1R529	496	2	0	4 548	250	0	0	0	0		116 302	7 261	116 552	216 007
B1R530	233	2	0	3 025	0	0	0	0	0		113 764	7 103	113 764	185 265
B1R531	401	0	0	3 056	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	55 902
B1R532	217	1	0	3 032	0	0	0	0	0		70 521	4 403	70 521	135 991
B1R533	1 225	1	0	7 628	250	0	0	0	0		280 781	17 530	281 031	460 191
B1R534	1 212	3	0	9 075	500	0	0	0	0		298 818	18 656	299 318	507 270
B1R535	318	2	0	3 041	0	0	0	0	0		89 142	5 566	89 142	157 431
B1R536	907	2	50 000	1 522	750	0	0	0	0		65 629	4 098	116 379	102 785
B1R537	671	1	0	0	250	0	0	0	0		0	0	250	0
B1R538	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0
B1R539	214	2	0	3 028	250	0	0	0	0		0	0	250	55 395
B1R540	220	1	0	3 031	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	55 442
B1R541	38 931	2	495 000	6 551	1 385 198	120 000	162 659	0	0		671 123	21 554	2 551 321	5 684 508
B1R722	8 052	2	6 767 500	313 748	423 570	0	41 865	0	0		0	0	7 191 070	6 504 876
B1R723	9 174	3	1 257 500	74 828	119 436	0	26 782	0	0		0	0	1 376 936	1 858 656
B1R544	627	2	0	0	128 412	0	9 226	0	0		233 170	4 540	361 582	251 816
B1R545	12 747	2	200 000	0	282 320	0	17 545	0	0		212 233	4 133	694 553	396 530
B1R700	5 565	3	3 756 782	398 431	45 992	0	37 989	0	0		619 761	12 068	4 422 535	8 203 761
B1R701	4 504		0	3 061	21 568	0	5 656				619 761	12 068		
B1R547	6 236	2	50 000	4 595	571 518	52 800	30 739	0	0		555 568	10 818	1 177 086	1 810 041
B1R548	603	2	0	0	750	0	0	0	0		249 866	4 866	250 616	89 001
B1R549	5 291	1	227 974	35 595	275 620	0	9 030	0	0		0	0	503 594	816 277
B1R550	7 093	2	2 403 427	296 215	343 398	48 000	23 581	0	0		1 128 692	21 979	3 875 517	7 129 774
B1R551	1 992	1	0	1 507	11 216	0	3 497	0	0		735 173	14 316	746 389	353 394
B1R552	413	1	0	6 056	0	0	0	0	0		575 778	11 212	575 778	315 864
B1R553	151	1	0	1 519	0	0	0	0	0		264 787	7 498	264 787	164 942
B1R554	865	4	0	20 844	8 054	0	1 687	0	0		193 100	5 468	201 154	512 171
B1R555	285	2	0	3 043	250	0	0	0	0		146 938	4 161	147 188	131 777
B1R556	2 979	1	0	144 664	26 662	0	12 796	0	0		0	0	26 662	2 880 265
B1R557	909	2	0	6 090	8 054	0	2 282	0	0		0	0	8 054	153 146
B1R558	174	1	0	1 524	250	0	0	0	0		0	0	250	27 877
B1R559	453	1	0	4 567	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	83 532
B1R560	268	2	0	1 538	0	0	0	0	0		184 387	5 222	184 387	123 645
B1R561	67	2	0	1 509	0	0	0	0	0		192 566	5 453	192 566	127 359
B1R562	2 097	2	0	15 182	500	0	0	0	0		707 928	20 048	708 428	644 428
B1R563	64	3	0	1 508	0	0	0	0	0		185 441	5 251	185 441	123 652

ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	207 752	2 140 292	156 399	699 887	721 640				
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	cb 2027	126 119	1 288 273	75 201	166 459	550 957	-424 838	737 316	-314 646	coût dispo *
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	37 600	101 396	22 773	41 321	29 628				
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	cb 2027	22 428	209 529	16 884	20 570	259 120	-236 692	-49 591	-184 868	coût dispo
ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	cb 2027	5 737	101 434	3 475	4 999	235 096	-229 359	-133 662	-182 340	coût dispo
ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	cb 2027	41 609	431 787	19 431	44 806	362 948	-321 338	68 840	-248 749	coût dispo
ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	cb 2027	70 677	564 900	53 207	89 414	427 960	-357 283	136 940	-271 691	coût dispo
ok 2021	0	0	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	cb 2027	47 511	626 097	35 767	65 805	441 043	-393 531	185 054	-305 323	coût dispo
ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	cb 2027	8 109	72 012	4 911	9 997	209 029	-200 920	-137 017	-159 114	coût dispo
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	ok 2015	72 135	246 139	43 690	104 859	272 636				
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	cb 2027	56 743	192 433	48 319	57 036	324 377	-267 634	-131 944	-202 759	coût dispo
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	213 211	3 297 415	0	0	626 448				
cb 2027	0	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	533 987	62 867 161	401 995	459 881	545 712	-11 724	62 321 449	97 418	coût non dispo
ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	cb 2027	73 333	231 359	55 206	68 603	2 201 102	-2 127 769	-1 969 743	-1 687 549	coût dispo
ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	cb 2027	19 027	104 318	11 524	20 994	325 626	-306 599	-221 308	-241 474	coût dispo
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	cb 2027	73 185	1 119 100	55 095	139 651	332 560	-259 374	786 541	-192 862	coût dispo
ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	cb 2027	34 379	237 472	25 881	34 199	299 029	-264 650	-61 557	-204 844	coût dispo
ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	59 168	160 169	0	0	55 902				
ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	cb 2027	31 358	175 705	14 952	15 614	206 512	-175 154	-30 808	-133 852	coût dispo
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	ok 2015	180 750	2 981 674	84 408	408 018	741 222				
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	cb 2027	#VALEUR !	#VALEUR !	#VALEUR !	#VALEUR !	806 587	#VALEUR !	#VALEUR !	#VALEUR !	coût dispo
ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	cb 2027	46 921	116 449	31 092	35 323	246 573	-199 651	-130 124	-150 337	coût dispo
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	ok 2015	133 829	430 091	100 749	106 053	219 164				
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2021	0	0	0	0	0	99 007	936 815	74 534	141 775	250	98 757	936 565	98 807	coût non dispo
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	95 431	0	0	0				
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	33 864	179 881	23 771	25 983	55 645				
ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	32 461	414 916	23 703	24 437	55 442				
ok 2015	ok 2015	ok 2021	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	5 744 312	129 310 685 994	4 324 421	43 713 447	8 235 829	-2 491 517	129 302 450 165	-844 352	coût dispo
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2027	ok 2021	0	0	0	0	#N/A	#N/A	894 409	4 795 274	13 695 946	#N/A	#N/A	#N/A	coût dispo
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	#N/A	#N/A	632 132	8 513 231	3 235 592				
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2027	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	92 515	284 292	59 457	69 647	613 398	-520 883	-329 106	-398 204	coût dispo
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	1 817 560	10 937 509	1 415 926	3 241 821	1 091 082				
cb 2027	0	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	#N/A	#N/A	618 155	2 801 559	12 626 296	#N/A	#N/A	#N/A	coût dispo
cb 2027	0	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015									coût dispo
ok 2015	0	ok 2021	ok 2015	ok 2021	0	0	0	ok 2015	920 129	14 380 780	692 689	4 791 402	2 987 127	-2 066 999	11 393 653	-1 469 573	coût dispo
ok 2021	0	0	ok 2021	0	0	0	0	ok 2015	74 353	261 090	45 034	66 981	339 616	-265 263	-78 527	-197 340	coût dispo
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2021	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	780 693	240 524 366	587 720	1 690 298	1 319 870	-539 177	239 204 496	-275 203	coût dispo
ok 2027	0	cb 2027	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	1 046 580	18 992 450	488 741	5 454 349	11 005 291	-9 958 711	7 987 159	-7 757 653	coût dispo
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	cb 2027	293 922	2 947 410	137 258	701 571	1 099 783	-805 861	1 847 627	-585 904	coût dispo
ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	cb 2027	60 939	499 196	28 458	87 154	891 641	-830 703	-392 445	-652 374	coût dispo
ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	cb 2027	13 654	83 479	6 799	10 405	429 729	-416 074	-346 250	-330 129	coût dispo
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2027	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	149 073	792 067	96 083	205 240	713 325	-564 251	78 743	-421 586	coût dispo
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	cb 2027	42 052	107 367	31 658	37 587	278 965	-236 913	-171 598	-181 120	coût dispo
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	439 555	18 569 010	330 905	3 405 239	2 906 927				
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2021	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	134 124	1 198 005	100 971	248 048	161 200	-27 076	1 036 805	5 164	coût non dispo
ok 2021	0	0	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	14 720	97 915	8 916	19 328	28 127	-13 407	69 788	-7 781	coût dispo
ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	66 841	349 805	50 319	71 262	83 532				
ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ok 2015	23 929	154 690	14 493	29 769	308 032				
ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	cb 2027	4 005	69 199	2 426	7 442	319 925	-315 919	-250 725	-251 934	coût dispo
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	cb 2027	309 415	4 965 442	232 933	1 278 822	1 352 855	-1 043 441	3 612 587	-772 870	coût dispo
ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	cb 2027	4 856	101 193	2 742	7 109	309 093	-304 237	-207 900	-242 418	coût dispo

B1R56 4	5 332	3	3 503 335	278 469	565 512	0	17 286	0	0		458 501	12 984	4 527 348	5 647 474
B1R56 5	285	2	0	3 043	250	0	0	0	0		217 239	6 152	217 489	168 185
B1R56 6	283	2	0	1 537	250	0	0	0	0		292 864	8 293	293 114	179 820
B1R56 7	625	2	0	0	500	0	0	0	0		340 035	9 629	340 535	176 140
B1R56 8	481	2	0	3 066	250	0	0	0	0		350 667	9 930	350 917	237 725
B1R56 9	2 413	2	150 000	4 610	1 500	0	0	0	0		297 253	13 988	448 753	340 204
B1R57 0	1 985	1	0	0	33 108	0	4 564	0	0		147 584	6 945	180 692	210 526
B1R57 1	1 192	0	0	4 655	4 858	0	17 516	0	0		0	0	4 858	405 548
B1R57 2	1 638	2	50 000	1 557	500	0	0	0	0		252 200	11 868	302 700	245 574
B1R57 3	6 881	1	9 589 798	794 235	1 438 412	96 000	21 851	0	0		85 451	4 021	11 113 662	16 757 470
B1R57 4	6 159	4	83 931	80 008	27 912	0	12 201	0	0		2 106 692	99 138	2 218 535	3 500 131
B1R57 5	934	2	0	7 582	43 744	0	7 255	0	0		0	0	43 744	271 404
B1R57 6	2 027	2	0	6 111	18 754	0	3 832	0	0		0	0	18 754	181 874
B1R57 7	1 399	0	50 000	0	77 050	0	0	0	0		0	0	127 050	0
B1R57 8	6 490	3	900 107	48 436	115 848	0	33 296	0	0		510 819	24 039	1 526 775	1 934 753
B1R57 9	768	1	0	0	98 652	0	12 046	0	0		0	0	98 652	220 344
B1R71 8	2 031	1	0	3 043	6 856	0	1 687	0	0		122 981	6 361	129 837	202 885
B1R71 9	6 266		0	15 500	241 068	32 000	5 656				524 285	27 118		
B1R58 1	5 227	2	92 592	58 633	400 218	0	45 625	0	0		218 394	11 296	711 204	2 113 711
B1R58 2	1 507	2	0	1 546	9 700	0	1 550	0	0		338 200	17 493	347 900	376 615
B1R58 3	690	1	0	4 591	44 244	0	5 455	0	0		0	0	44 244	183 775
B1R58 4	9 570	3	0	0	383 028	0	87 044	0	0		188 050	9 727	571 078	1 770 133
B1R58 5	1 296	2	0	1 521	142 152	0	12 046	0	0		362 496	18 750	504 648	591 134
B1R58 6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0
B1R58 7	1 781	0	0	0	335 600	0	0	0	0		0	0	335 600	0
B1R58 8	479	1	0	1 556	0	0	0	0	0		93 700	4 847	93 700	117 113
B1R58 9	819	1	0	0	821 250	128 000	0	0	0		86 144	4 456	907 394	2 422 884
B1R59 0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		29 911	1 547	29 911	28 300
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B1R59 2	2 573	0	1 382 500	62 225	82 847	0	25 193	0	0		0	0	1 465 347	1 599 051
B1R59 3	2 365	0	0	0	94 158	0	4 564	0	0		0	0	94 158	83 485
B1R59 4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0
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B1R59 6	2 061	1	1 355 000	60 981	88 016	0	10 042	0	0		0	0	1 443 016	1 299 156
B1R59 7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0
B1R59 8	500	1	157 264	1 573	750	0	0	0	0		0	0	158 014	28 767
B1R59 9	1 253	0	2 468 837	104 756	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	2 468 837	1 916 192
B1R60 0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0
B1R60 1	1 710	1	410 000	18 495	222 510	0	16 610	0	0		0	0	632 510	642 133
B1R60 2	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		104 813	5 421	104 813	99 168
B1R60 3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0
B1R60 4	1 289	2	50 000	1 513	708 054	112 000	2 282	0	0		251 027	12 984	1 009 081	2 355 625
B1R60 5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0
B1R60 6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0
B1R60 7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0
B1R60 8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0
CL18	532										0	0	0	0
CL19	66										0	0	0	0
CL26	507										0	0	0	0
B1R54 2	0										698 877	22 446	698 877	410 577
B1R54 3	0										2 115 548	59 909	2 115 548	1 095 863
CR105	0										117 146	3 905	117 146	71 428
CR222	0										426 410	8 614	426 410	157 574
CR67	0										661 748	10 588	661 748	193 675
CR68	0										463 968	7 423	463 968	135 791
	4 279 405		684 725 955	86 916 898	319 997 838	27 929 711	20 833 915	0	0	0	359 667 000	6 399 200	1 361 014 888	2 598 927 027

ok 2015	ok 2015	0	ok 2027	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	786 742	13 984 923	592 274	1 737 630	10 174 823	-9 388 080	3 810 101	-7 353 116	coût dispro	*
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2021	0	0	0	0	ok 2015	42 052	190 741	19 638	25 973	385 674	-343 622	-194 933	-266 487	coût dispro	
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	cb 2027	27 986	112 656	16 950	31 435	472 934	-444 949	-360 278	-350 362	coût dispro	
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2021	0	0	0	0	cb 2027	59 973	240 339	36 324	69 424	516 674	-456 701	-276 335	-353 366	coût dispro	
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2021	0	0	0	0	ok 2015	70 972	313 818	53 429	66 672	588 642	-517 670	-274 824	-399 941	coût dispro	
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	ok 2015	356 041	3 315 283	166 267	970 145	788 957					
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ok 2015	0	cb 2027	ok 2021	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	1 015 299	474 245 197	474 133	689 575	27 871 131	-26 855 832	446 374 065	-21 281 606	coût dispro	
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	cb 2027	938 277	74 189 685	684 136	12 869 752	5 718 666	-4 780 389	68 471 019	-3 636 656	coût dispro	
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ok 2021	0	0	ok 2027	0	0	0	0	0	206 424	14 528 569	0	0	127 050	79 374	14 401 519	104 784	coût non dispro	
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	1 026 998	27 728 993	720 904	9 054 705	3 461 527					
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	cb 2027	0	0	0	0	113 319	685 017	85 309	206 165	318 996	-205 677	366 021	-141 878	coût dispro	
ok 2021	0	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	#N/A	#N/A	139 945	863 435	332 722	#N/A	#N/A	#N/A	coût dispro	
ok 2015	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015									coût dispro	
ok 2015	ok 2015	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	827 137	9 578 093	360 165	3 237 665	2 824 915					
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2021	ok 2021	0	0	0	ok 2015	222 359	2 568 509	167 396	466 399	724 515	-502 156	1 843 994	-357 253	coût dispro	
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2021	cb 2027	0	0	0	0	101 810	662 807	76 645	158 287	228 019	-126 209	434 788	-80 605	coût dispro	
ok 2021	0	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	ok 2015	1 461 248	1 056 730 629	1 063 027	2 314 301	2 341 210	-879 963	1 054 389 418	-411 721	coût dispro	
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	cb 2027	0	0	0	ok 2015	191 226	945 885	89 300	200 274	1 095 781	-904 555	-149 896	-685 399	coût dispro	
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	37 657	0	0	0					
ok 2015	ok 2015	ok 2015	ok 2021	0	0	0	0	0	204 951	537 003	0	0	335 600	-130 649	201 403	-63 529	coût dispro	
ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ok 2015	56 999	194 416	28 382	33 005	210 813					
ok 2021	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	ok 2015	74 994	246 493	37 342	56 433	3 330 278	-3 255 284	-3 083 785	-2 589 228	coût dispro	
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ok 2015	0	74 340	0	0	58 211					
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2027	0	0	0	0	0	94 742	3 640 566	0	0	223 387	-128 645	3 417 180	-83 968	coût dispro	
ok 2015	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	233 435	10 438 254	0	0	3 064 398					
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2027	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	200 363	4 939 418	0	0	177 643	22 720	4 761 775	58 249	coût non dispro	
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	111 415	0	0	0					
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	81 297	0	0	0					
cb 2027	0	0	ok 2027	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	214 639	15 241 835	130 002	228 934	2 742 172	-2 527 533	12 499 663	-1 979 098	coût dispro	
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	65 324	0	0	0					
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ok 2027	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	184 882	783 511	0	0	4 385 029	-4 200 148	-3 601 519	-3 323 142	coût dispro	
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	23 280	0	0	0					
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	cb 2027	0	0	0	0	374 973	516 485	0	0	1 274 643	-899 670	-758 158	-644 742	coût dispro	
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	cb 2027	0	76 970	0	0	203 981	-203 981	-127 012	-163 185	coût dispro	
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	15 182	0	0	0					
cb 2027	0	ok 2015	ok 2021	ok 2015	0	0	0	cb 2027	190 193	753 330	88 818	182 343	3 364 706	-3 174 512	-2 611 375	-2 501 571	coût dispro	
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	112 264	0	0	0					
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0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	19 803	0	0	0					
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	29 226	0	0	0					
ok 2015	0	0	ok 2015	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0					
ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0					
ok 2015	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0					
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	1 109 455					
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	3 211 411					
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	188 574					
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	583 983					
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	855 423					
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	ok 2015	0	0	0	0	599 758					

Glossary

■ Active population

The part of the population comprising the working labour force (also called the employed population) and unemployed persons.

■ Affordability

Cost of water and sanitation services (drinking water, wastewater treatment) relative to the disposable income. This criterion must be taken into account, for example, when setting up water-pricing policies.

■ Aggregation bias

A type of bias resulting when the numbers of users from several sites are added together in cases where a general improvement in environmental quality will not produce identical benefits on each site.

■ Amenity

Services rendered free of cost by nature or the environment to people. Often associated with the concepts of comfort, convenience, pleasure and/or knowledge, and linked to a given place. For example, living next to a city park or spending time in a rural area provides certain advantages in terms of the landscape, the local weather, tranquillity, etc.

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■ Analysis

See *Cost-benefit analysis (CBA)*, *Cost-effectiveness analysis (CEA)*, *Cost recovery*, *Economic analysis*, *Sensitivity analysis*.

■ Auction system

The main technique among those used to value a good during a contingent valuation is the auction technique. It consists of successively proposing higher or lower values. For example, a price is proposed to a respondent and according to the answer (acceptance or refusal), a new price (higher or lower respectively) is proposed, followed again by another until the respondent reverses his answer. The main criticism of this technique is that the answers depend heavily on the first price mentioned.

■ Bequest value

Non-use value derived from the capacity to transmit value to future generations.

■ Bias

Approach or procedure that produces errors in study results. Examples are non-representative samples, poorly worded questions or influence exerted by the person conducting the study.

See also *Aggregation bias*, *Hypothetical bias*, *Inclusion bias*, *Information bias*, *Investigator bias*, *Sampling bias*, *Self-selection bias*, *Strategic bias*.

■ Budgetary constraint

Financial imitations confronting individuals or households. The latter are constrained by their revenues, i.e. they may not spend more.

■ Closed and bounded question

A survey technique consisting of asking a first valuation question such as "Would you be willing to pay ten euros for XXX?" and then a second question in which the amount depends on the answer to the first question. The amount in the second question is higher if the answer was "yes" and lower if it was "no". For the contingent-valuation method, closed and bounded questions may be difficult to use if the survey is sent by mail to the respondents. Mail surveys are not impossible for the contingent-valuation method, but they are not generally recommended.

■ Compensatory costs

Excess costs imposed on a water user following degradation of an aquatic environment and/or water resources by another water user.

■ Complementary goods

Two goods are said to be complementary if their joint use serves to satisfy a need. Examples are pen and paper.

■ Contingent-valuation method (CVM)

A method used to measure increases in well-being produced by an improvement in the environment. The method is based on surveys. The respondents are presented a fictive scenario and asked to declare the maximum amount of money they would be ready to pay for the given improvement in the environment.

■ Cost

See *Compensatory costs*, *Cost-benefit analysis (CBA)*, *Cost-effectiveness analysis (CEA)*, *Cost recovery*, *Disproportionate costs*, *Environmental costs*, *External costs*, *Fixed costs*, *Opportunity costs*, *Private costs*, *Resource costs*, *Social costs*, *Total cost of water*, *Transaction costs*, *Variable costs*.

■ Cost-benefit analysis (CBA)

Cost-benefit analysis compares all the benefits to all the costs of a given project and the alternative projects, taking into account the impacts that are not calculated in monetary terms (which is often the case for the environment), among other aspects. CBA is a decision-aid tool in that it provides objective data. Depending on the cost-benefit ratio, it is possible to determine whether the project is profitable or not. For example, it was possible to calculate the costs of restoring the ecological quality of the Alsatian water table and to assess the corresponding benefits.

■ Cost-effectiveness analysis (CEA)

Cost-effectiveness analysis is used to select the various options or measures required to attain a goal at the least possible cost. The analysis ranks measures depending on their effectiveness in reaching an environmental objective, but it does not inform on the relevance or utility of a measure or project.

■ Cost recovery

A general principle stipulating that water users should, to the greatest degree possible, bear the costs incurred by their use of water, namely the investment, operating and depreciation costs, as well as environmental and resource costs. The WFD 2000/60/EC set two cost-recovery objectives for the Member States. By the end of 2004 and in carrying out the characterisation processes, they were to determine the current level of recovery, taking care to distinguish at least three economic sectors (industry, agriculture, households) and, secondly, by 2010, apply the principle, notably via water pricing. The directive stipulates maximum transparency in funding of water policy, but does not require total cost recovery from users.

■ Cross-subsidy

A financial transfer between categories of users of the same water and sanitation services. As per the WFD 2000/60/EC, the main categories of water-service users are households, industry and agriculture.

■ Demand function

This function establishes the link between the optimum selection (the demanded quantities) and the various price and revenue values. For a given good, the demand function will depend on the price of all goods and on the revenue of the consumer.

■ Depreciation

Reduction in the value of fixed capital over a given period of time due to normal wear and foreseeable obsolescence. Note that obsolescence is the loss of value resulting from a drop in the desirability and the utility of a good due to its outdated design and construction.

■ Discounting

Mathematical calculation used to compare economic values over time by discounting the future value of a good or service to its present value. Discounting makes it possible to include future expenses and benefits in the analysis. The decision concerning the discount rate (the coefficient used to calculate the present value of a value occurring in the future) influences the analysis results. In 2005, the General planning commission recommended revising the discount rate for public investment projects.

■ Discrete goods

Goods that are naturally expressed in discrete (whole) units. For example, demand for automobiles is expressed in numbers of vehicles and not in terms of the time they are used (non-discrete units).

■ Disproportionate costs

Disproportionate costs are those sufficient to justify an exemption from the obligations stipulated by the Water framework directive 2000/60/CE. Costs are said to be disproportionate if the impact of measures on the price of water and on economic activities is judged excessive compared to the economic value of the projected environmental benefits and other advantages. The disproportion is analysed on a case-by-case basis taking into account criteria such as the financial resources available in the area affected by the measure and among the user group(s) required to assume the cost (in the case of households, the threshold is set by their capacity to pay significantly higher water bills) and/or the benefits of all types expected to be produced by reaching good status in 2015 (production of drinking water from a water table without additional treatment, restoration of wetlands that contribute to flood control, etc.). If the stakeholders in the river basin can demonstrate that the cost of a measure is disproportionate, they may receive an exemption. Spreading the cost of a measure beyond 2015 to 2021 or even 2027 may be sufficient to make the cost acceptable.

■ Economic analysis

Economic analysis employs analytical methods and economic instruments to assist in formulating water-management policies in compliance with the WFD (Water framework directive). The goal is to ensure that economics plays a role during several major steps in WFD implementation, namely contribute to achieving environmental objectives through incentive pricing, assess the economics of water use in the river-basin district and estimate the levels of cost recovery for services during the preparation of the characterisation reports, justify exemptions to good-status objectives (disproportionate cost of measures), assist in selecting measures for the river-basin district and in setting up the overall programmes of measures (programme optimisation by analysing the cost and effectiveness of each measure).

See *Cost-benefit analysis (CBA)*, *Cost-effectiveness analysis (CEA)*, *Cost recovery*, *Sensitivity analysis*.

■ Economic good

Any object capable of satisfying a need. There is an unlimited number of economic goods. Goods are determined not only by their physical characteristics, but also by their location and date of availability.

■ Economic surplus

The difference between the maximum willingness to pay for a good and the price of the good.

■ Ecosystem service (as per the Millenium Ecosystem Assessment, MEA)

A direct or indirect benefit derived by humans from nature. Services include the self-maintenance services, supply services, regulating services and cultural services.

■ Elasticity of demand with respect to price

Elasticity is calculated as the percentage of variation in water consumption if the price of water is increased by 1%. Generally speaking, the elasticity of household water consumption is low because most uses (drinking water, hygiene, etc.) are not very compressible. On the other hand, external consumption (watering of lawns, washing of cars, etc.) is much more elastic (significant drop following a price increase) because it covers non-essential needs.

■ Environmental assessment method

A method used to determine the environmental impact of environmental damage and benefits. There are a number of methods, including the contingent-valuation method, hedonic-pricing method, travel-cost method and protection-expenditure method.

■ Environmental costs

The cost of damage inflicted on the environment and ecosystems, and indirectly on those using them, e.g. lower quality of water resources and soil, cost of additional treatment required for drinking water assumed by local governments, etc. For the Water framework directive 2000/60/EC, economists look at the damages caused by water uses (abstractions, discharges, development work, etc.).

■ Environmental damage (as per an EU agreement on 18 September 2003)

A measurable, negative change in a natural resource (species, protected natural habitat, water and soil) or a measurable deterioration in a service provided by natural resources (functions provided by a natural resource benefiting another natural resource or the public) that may occur through direct or indirect action.

■ Environmental economics

A branch of economics studying the theory behind the relationships between human societies and the environment, notably in the framework of environmental economic policies.

■ Environmental good

A good available free of cost and whose production did not require any human work. This may be the air we breathe, a landscape, the quality of a water body, the presence of animals in an environment, the absence of noise and visual pollution, etc.

■ Environmental tax

A tax instituted by the State in order to limit pollution and overuse of water resources. In terms of pollution, the tax consists of a fee per unit of discharge that is equal to the marginal cost of reducing the pollution. Economically speaking, a tax is more efficient than a standard because the effort involved in reducing the pollution is apportioned naturally and at lesser cost.

■ External costs

Costs incurred by one activity to the detriment of another and not compensated or assumed by the entity generating those costs. For the Water framework directive 2000/60/EC, economists look at the external costs for the environment caused by water uses and, more generally, water-related activities (abstractions, discharges, development work, etc.). For example, if a resource is polluted, the cost of finding and operating a new resource is ultimately borne by the customers of the drinking-water service via the cost per cubic metre. One of the primary techniques used by environmental economics consists of integrating external factors affecting market prices. In other words, the price of environmental degradation (pollution, over-use, etc.), which would otherwise be ignored, is taken into account by environmental economists.

■ Externality

Externalities occur when the activity of an economic agent impacts other agents, in those cases where the impact is not the objective of the activity and the other agents are not involved in the activity. The other agents are not consulted and do not receive (if the impact is negative) or pay (if the impact is positive) any compensation. An externality may be positive or negative, and may be the result of production or consumption.

■ Fixed capital

All material means of production that are not consumed during the production process. Their service life exceeds one year.

■ Fixed costs

Fixed costs are that part of production costs that do not vary depending on the quantities produced. They depend on the structure of the economic activity. For example, fixed costs are the primary cost in industrial activities employing networks. For public water and sanitation services, fixed costs may represent 80% of total costs.

■ Good

See *Complementary goods*, *Discrete goods*, *Economic good*, *Environmental good*, *Market good*, *Non-market good*, *Public good*, *Substitute (or substitutable) good*.

■ Green gross domestic product

The result of a calculation subtracting any drop in the stock of natural resources (e.g. water resources) from the standard gross domestic product. This accounting method provides better information on whether an economic activity increases or decreases domestic wealth when it uses natural resources.

■ Hedonic-pricing method

A method used to determine the environmental factor in real-estate prices. The price of real estate depends on its characteristics and a number are directly related to the quality of the local environment.

■ Heritage value

The non-use value arising simply from the fact that the heritage exists.

■ Hypothetical bias

A type of bias resulting when respondents, confronted with a fictitious market, encounter difficulty in expressing their preferences. In the environmental field, the lack of references results in answers very different than the choices that individuals would make in a real situation.

■ Inclusion bias

A type of bias resulting when individuals report the same willingness to pay (WTP) for a particular environmental good (e.g. a river reach) and a larger good (e.g. all the rivers in the river basin or all the rivers in the department). This confusion between geographic scales or between environmental issues (aquatic environments, biodiversity, air quality) represents the inclusion bias.

■ Information bias

A type of bias resulting when the information on the assessed good is insufficient and the questioned person does not provide an accurate estimate of their willingness to pay.

■ Internalisation

This technique consists of integrating external costs in the economic flows. For example, the polluter-pays principle is a means to internalise the external costs created by the polluter and affecting other users and the environment.

■ Investigator bias

A type of bias resulting when the respondent indicates a willingness-to-pay value higher than the true value in order to please the investigator.

■ Market good

Market goods are items that may be bought or sold.

■ Method

See *Contingent-valuation method (CVM)*, *Environmental assessment method*, *Hedonic-pricing method*, *Protection-expenditure method*, *Travel-cost method*.

■ Natural monopoly

Situation in which a single firm or person offers a particular good or service to an array of purchasers. The monopoly is said to be natural when production yields rise with output, notably when fixed costs are much higher than the variable costs.

■ Non-market benefit

Benefit that may result from a project, but is not marketable (saleable).

■ Non-market good

Non-market goods cannot be bought or sold.

■ Non-use value

The value assigned to a good or service due to its simple existence, by an economic agent who does not intend to use it. The non-use value comprises two components, the existence value and the value for others.

■ Opportunity costs

The value of the opportunity lost because one use of available resources was preferred over another, in cases where the resource is limited. In the water field, for example, this may be the value of irrigated corn that could have been produced if the river water had not been used for drinking water or to generate hydroelectricity.

■ Option value

The use value assigned to the preservation of an asset in view of its future use, e.g. the preservation of a plant due to its medicinal value.

■ Pareto efficiency

Situation in which it is impossible to make any one individual (or category of individuals) better off without making at least one individual (or category of individuals) worse off. This is a reference situation in economic theory dealing with resource allocation.

■ Polluter-pays principle

A principle, now inserted in the French Environmental code, stipulating that any costs arising from measures to prevent, reduce or eliminate environmental pollution must be assumed by the polluter.

■ Pollution-rights market

Market of tradable permits enabling a stakeholder (company, individual, etc.) to discharge a pollutant or to draw on natural resources. The State sets environmental-quality objectives and then grants a corresponding amount of rights. These rights may then be purchased and sold on the market, it being understood that a polluter may not discharge pollutants in excess of the corresponding permits in his possession.

■ Price setting

The purpose of this policy is to influence water use through the price paid by users. The WFD 2000/60/EC required that the Member States ensure, by 2010, that pricing policy encouraged efficient use of water to avoid waste.

■ Private costs

A private cost is the part of the social cost assumed by the economic entity incurring the cost. A private cost is an internal cost.

■ Programme of measures

A set of measures designed to reach the objectives for the entire river basin, contained in the river-basin management plan (RBMP).

■ Protection-expenditure method

A method of assessing pollution costs on the basis of expenses incurred by households to protect themselves from environmental degradation, e.g. the purchase of water softeners, bottled water, etc.

■ Protest zero

A rejection of all the proposed scenarios by a respondent during a contingent valuation. Some individuals may declare zero willingness to pay (protest zeros) in spite of the fact that they are in favour of the proposed project. It is possible to distinguish protest zeros from real zeros during a survey. Protest zeros are generally excluded from the analysis.

■ Public good

A good or service whose use is non-competitive and non-exclusive. The term "non-competitive" means that consumption/use of the good by one individual does not impede its consumption/use by another (e.g. fireworks). The term "non-exclusive" means that all individuals have free access to the good or service (e.g. public lighting).

■ Resource costs

The value of the opportunity lost because one use of available resources was preferred over another, in cases where the resource is limited. This is the difference in benefit value between the option producing the highest benefit value and the selected option.

■ Sampling bias

A type of bias resulting when the sample is not representative of the population receiving a benefit, for example a survey carried out exclusively in cities.

■ Self-selection bias

A type of bias resulting when individuals concerned by an issue or those visiting a site more frequently are more likely to be questioned (a situation encountered when face-to-face surveys are carried out on recreational sites).

■ Sensitivity analysis

Method of determining the robustness of economic-analysis results depending on variations in certain parameters or assumptions.

■ Shadow-price value

Amount that the Ecology ministry recommends for routine use in quantifying the value of non-market environmental services provided by aquatic environments, as profits from the preservation or restoration of aquatic environments or as losses incurred by their degradation.

■ Social costs

Social costs are the set of all costs incurred by an activity and borne by society as a whole. They include both private costs and external costs.

■ Strategic bias

A type of bias resulting when respondents think they can influence the final decision by exaggerating their willingness to pay. Some individuals may indicate a lesser value on the assumption that others will pay for them (stowaway phenomenon). These individuals have nothing to gain by revealing their true preferences if they think they can obtain an advantage by masking their opinions.

■ Substitute (or substitutable) good

Two goods are said to be substitutable if they satisfy the same or similar needs. Examples are automobiles and trains.

■ Total cost of water

The total cost of water, including environmental, resource and service costs.

■ Total economic value

The sum total of the use and non-use values of a good or service.

■ Transaction costs

Cost incurred during an economic exchange and, more precisely, on a market. The cost may be direct (stock-market fees) or indirect (prospecting costs, time and effort spend in negotiations and checking the transaction, etc.).

■ Travel-cost method

A method to estimate the maximum price that visitors would be willing to pay in order to continue visiting a site. It is based on the idea that the travel costs incurred by the visitors in reaching the site represent the amount they are willing to pay. The travel cost is a measure of each individual visit.

■ Use value

The value assigned to a good or service by an economic agent depending on the usefulness that may be derived from the good or service. The use value comprises two components, the effective use value and the option value residing in the possible future use.

■ Value

See *Bequest value*, *Heritage value*, *Non-use value*, *Option value*, *Shadow-price value*, *Total economic value*, *Use value*.

■ Variable costs

Variable costs are that part of production costs that vary depending on the quantities produced. For example, the procurement cost of raw materials is a variable cost that increases when business activities or production increase.

■ Water body

A homogeneous aquatic environment (lake, reservoir, river reach, unit of groundwater, etc.).

■ Water footprint

The footprint includes all the water used at all steps in the production process of a product (a facility, good or service). The total volume is also called the "virtual water content". For example, a total of 140 litres are required to produce a cup of coffee and 16 cubic metres (16 000 litres) are required to produce one kilogram of beef. The footprint represents the total amount of water (expressed in litres or cubic metres) that is used directly or indirectly for an activity and any related activities, including the water used in the supply system.

■ Water-related activity

Economic activity using water and water services.

■ Water service

Water services include, for households and all other economic activities, the abstraction, impoundment, storage, treatment and distribution of surface water or groundwater, as well as the collection and treatment facilities for wastewater prior to its discharge to surface waters.

■ Wealth effect

The influence of wealth on a datum. For example, the willingness to pay of wealthy persons is generally higher than that of poorer persons.

■ Well-being

The satisfaction of an individual or of a community.

■ Willingness to accept (WTA)

Amount of money that surveyed individuals are willing to accept in exchange for degradation to their environment.

■ Willingness to pay (WTP)

Amount of money that surveyed individuals are willing to pay to avoid degradation to an environmental good or for its improvement. WTP expresses in euros the change in well-being or satisfaction linked to the degradation/improvement in the environment.

■ Willingness-to-pay survey card

A card on which survey respondents may check one of several monetary amounts corresponding to their willingness to pay.

The above definitions were drawn from the EauFrance site (<http://www.glossaire.eaufrance.fr/>).

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Citation

Salvetti M., 2013. Economic analysis for management of water and aquatic environments.
Onema. 172 pages.

Acknowledgements

We wish to sincerely thank everyone who contributed to this book:

Olivier Gorin, Stéphanie Blanquart, Sarah Feuillette, Stéphane Robichon, Jérémy Devaux, Blandine Boeuf,
Carine Gendrot, Sara Hernandez, Philippe Dupont, Jean-Pierre Amigues, Pierre Strosser.

Prepared in collaboration with IOWater.



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Contact: veronique.barre@onema.fr

ISBN: 979-10-91047-39-5
Printed in France by CFI in October 2013. This document was
produced using plant-based inks and printed on 100% PEFC
paper from sustainably managed forests and verified sources,
by a printer compliant with all environmental standards.



The Water framework directive marks a turning point for European legislation in the field of water preservation and pollution control by shifting from a set of required means to goals and required results. It is in this context that economics have become a decision-aid tool for public policy and taken on an important role in formulating management policies for water and aquatic environments.

Whether the goal is to characterise in social-economic terms how water is used in a given area or to assess the costs and environmental impacts of a programme of measures or a project, economic analysis is now an integral part of the preparatory and formulation processes of public policy.

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