The Climate and the Economy

John Hassler and Per Krusell *IIES*

Used and lightly edited by Víctor Ríos Rull for Econ 4230, Penn

April, 2023

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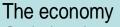
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- (first put together by Bill Nordhaus).

A SCHEMATIC IAM: INTERACTIONS



People who produce, consume and invest

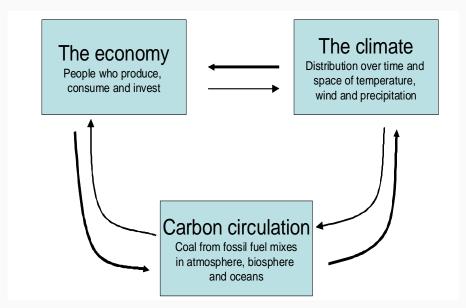
The climate

Distribution over time and space of temperature, wind and precipitation

Carbon circulation

Coal from fossil fuel mixes in atmosphere, biosphere and oceans

A SCHEMATIC IAM: DYNAMICS, BIDIRECTIONAL



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• What happens out of steady state? For example, without greenhouse gases and atmosphere, ground temperature would be -19. How can we understand this statement?

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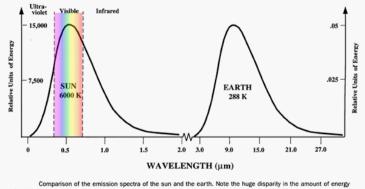


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- In an economy, a steady state involves investment equating the amount of capital depreciated and the distribution of income remaining constant.



Radiation

- Visible sunlight and infrared heat waves are both electromagnetic radiation, but with different frequencies (freq=Speed of light/wave length).
- Frequency of radiation emitted depends on temperature. Compare with dimmer on halogen lights,



emitted by the sun (left-hand scale) and the earth (right-hand scale).

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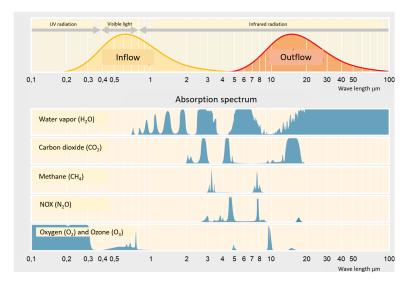
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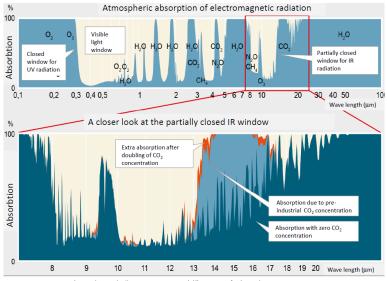
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- Compare to a band playing in a bar. The bass guitar can make some objects, e.g. cups and cutlery vibrate, but a high pitched tone from the guitar has no effect.

Absorption of different radiation



More on absorption



Source: Bernes, Claes, (2016), "En varmare värld", Naturvårdsverket.

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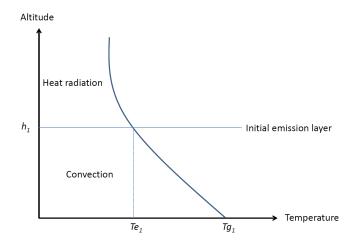
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- The accumulation of energy increases the temperature in the atmosphere until the temperature at the emission level again is high enough to imply that the energy flow out in space is the same as the flow into earth.

Heat transfer and temperature gradient



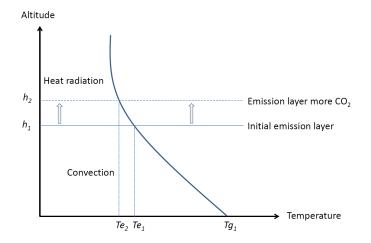


Figure: Lower temp at emission level -> less energy outflow. Surplus in energy budget.

John Hassler (Institute)

Surplus leads to higher temperatures

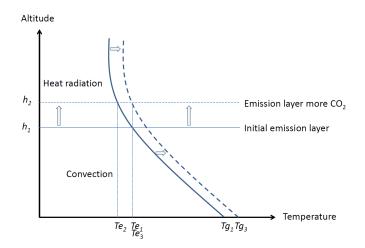


Figure: Heat accumulation gradually increases temperature. Gradient shifts rightwards until temp at h_2 has returned to Te_1 and ground temperature increased to Tg_3 .

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- Without the Greenhouse Gas blanket, life as we know it could not have started

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- Now the budget is no longer balanced but in surplus and the system would no longer be in steady state.

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- We can approximate the increase in outflow as $O(T_t) \approx \kappa_{Planck} T_t$ and the energy budget is then $f O(T_t)$.

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- What determines σ ? Will there be a new equilibrium? Yes, when $T_t = \frac{f}{\kappa_{Planck}}$
- Using Stefan-Boltzmann law and temperature at the emision level of -18° C, $\kappa_{Planck} \approx 3.8 \frac{W/m^2}{\circ C}$. Due to feedbacks, actual outflow will likely rise substantially less. A typical value imputed is $\kappa_{Planck} \approx 3.2 \frac{W/m^2}{\circ C}$.

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- Disregarding the feedbacks, only considering the Planck feedback, we can calculate the long run effect of that on Earth's temperature as

$$\frac{2.7}{3.8}\approx 0.7^{\circ}C$$

Forcing in 2019 relative to 1750

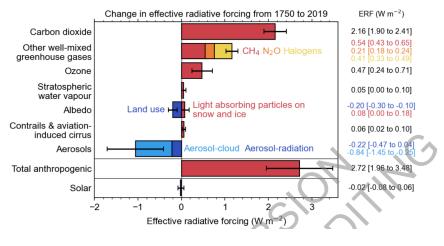
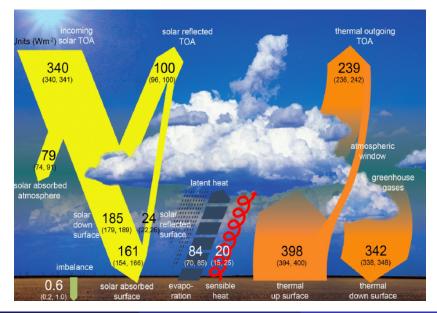


Figure: Fig 7.6 IPCC 6th report page 7-182.

Energy Flows



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Natural Science

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Orders of magnitude

- Area of Earth's surface is 510 million km². This is $510*10^6 * 1000^2 = 5.1 \times 10^{14} m^2$. Thus, the inflow net of reflection is $240*5.1 \times 10^{14} = 1.22 \times 10^{17} W$.
- A nuclear power plant is around 1000 MW, i.e., $10^9 W$. Thus, the inflow of solar energy is equivalent to $1.22 \times 10^8 = 122$ million nuclear power plants (NPP). We currently have around 440 in operation.
- The human induced forcing of 2.7W/m² is equivalent to $2.7*5.1 \times 10^{14}/10^9 = 1.4$ million NPP.
- Global yearly energy use is around 600 million TJ, i.e., $6 * 10^{2+6+12} = 6 * 10^{20} J$. Dividing by the number of seconds per year, we get the average power use. $6^*10^{20}/(365 * 24 * 3600) \approx 1.9 \times 10^{13} W$ or 19000 NPP.
- Thus, solar inflow is $\frac{1.22 \times 10^{17}}{1.9 \times 10^{13}} \approx 6400$ times global energy use. If we could harness 0.1%, it would allow 6 times current energy use.

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 - changes in ice-cover (albedo) and (again) changed cloud formation.
- Approximate also these as reductions in inflow being linear, $\kappa_{refl} T_t$.

$$\frac{dT_t}{dt} = \sigma \left(f + \kappa_{other} T_t - \kappa_{Planck} T_t + \kappa_{refl} T \right) = \sigma \left(f - \left(\kappa_{Planck} - \kappa_{other} - \kappa_{refl} \right) T_t \right).$$

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- Direct effect of CO₂ emission on *f*, (as well as of κ_{Planck}) fairly certain. Not the case for feedbacks.

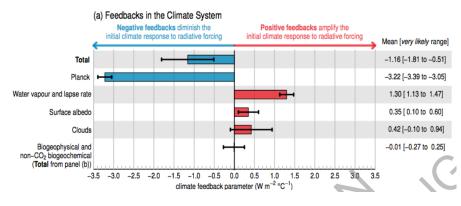


Figure: Figure TS.17 IPCC 6th report.

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 IPCC 6th report: ECS is "likely" 2.5 to 4°C, with a "best estimate" of 3. Narrower than the 5th report's 1.5 to 4.5. "Likely" means a 2/3 confidence interval. A 90% interval is 2-5°C.

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- New law-of-motion for atmosphere

$$\frac{dT_{t}}{dt} = \sigma_{1} \left(f - \left(\kappa_{Planck} - \kappa_{other} - \kappa_{refl} \right) T_{t} - \sigma_{2} \left(T_{t} - T_{t}^{L} \right) \right)$$

where T_t and T_t^L , respectively, denote the atmospheric and ocean temperature in period t.

• Complete by setting

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• One can (climate scientists do) use even more layers.

SIMULATION

• Make a discrete time approximation. Yields a system of difference equations;

$$T_{t} = T_{t-1} + \sigma_{1} \begin{pmatrix} f_{t-1} - (\kappa_{Planck} - \kappa_{other} - \kappa_{refl}) T_{t} \\ -\sigma_{2} (T_{t-1} - T_{t-1}^{L}) \end{pmatrix}$$
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instead of

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• Can easily be simulated in a spread-sheet program.

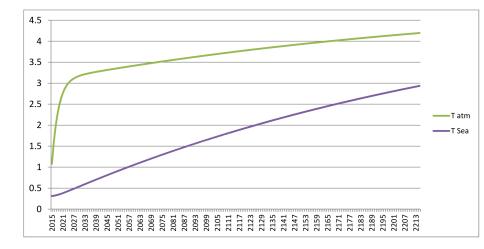
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- Note that σ₁ is much larger than σ₃. Atmospheres energy balance settles to a temporary steady state of 0 quickly.

Simulation of a doubling of current forcing



John Hassler (Institute)

03/17 26 / 55

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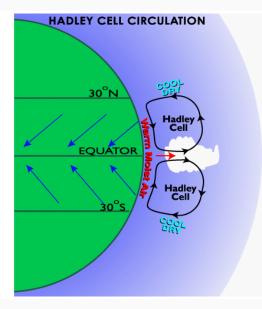
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• Used to forecast weather, but also climate.

CIRCULATION CELLS



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- State-of-the-art climate models are build on these principles.

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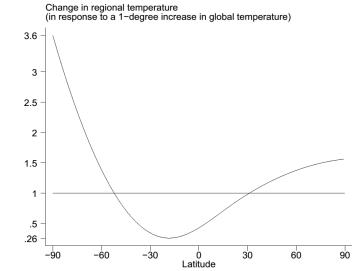
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Change in temperature

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Positive correlation, with concentrations lagging temperature, suggesting positive feedback.

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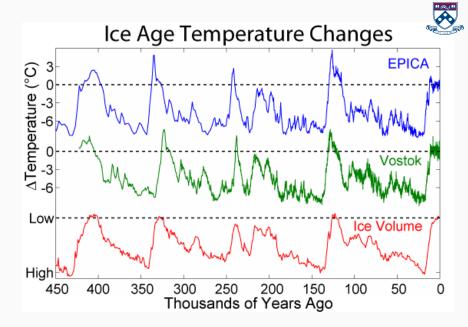
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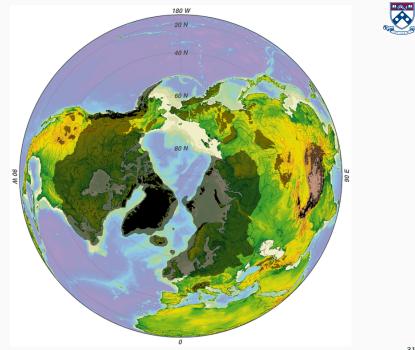
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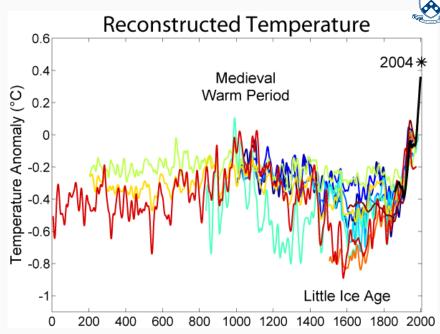
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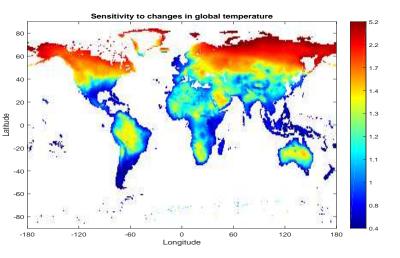
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- For more recent climate info, see
 Link https://youtu.be/gG0zHVUQCw0











Non-linearities

• Recall that the equilibrium climate sensitivity is affected by feedbacks

$$T(f) = \frac{\eta}{\left(\kappa_{Planck} - \kappa_{other} - \kappa_{refl}\right)} \frac{1}{\ln 2} \ln \left(\frac{S}{\bar{S}}\right).$$

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- One thing that could happen is that it suddenly increases at some temperature. For example, suppose

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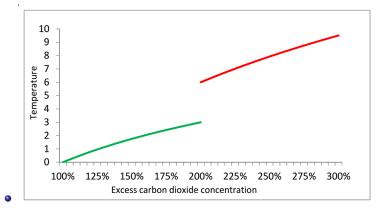
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Tipping points

• Suppose $\eta = 3.7$ and $\kappa = 3.3$. and x = 2.1 if $T < 3^{o}C$ and 2.72 else. Then, the relation between CO₂ concentration and long-run temperature looks like follows



 Tipping points like then one described are possibilities and many of them are known to exist on local and regional scale, abrupt responses, tipping points and even reversals in the direction of change cannot be excluded (high conÖdence)." (IPCC AR6 WG1 Box TS 9).

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- If they exist on a global scale and if so at which temperatures is much more debated and not likely unless global warmning goes much further than projected for the coming century also in quite pessimistic scenarios.
- IPCC 6th report claims "there is no evidence of such non-linear responses at the global scale in climate projections for the next century, which indicate a near-linear dependence of global temperature on cumulative GHG emissions. (IPCC AR6 WG1, chap. 1 p. 202).

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- Suppose the uncertainty about $\kappa_{other} + \kappa_{refl}$ by a symmetric triangular density function with mode 2.1 and endpoints at 1.35 and 2.85. The mean, and most likely, value of $\kappa_{other} + \kappa_{refl}$ translates into a climate sensitivity of 3.

Feedback uncertainty

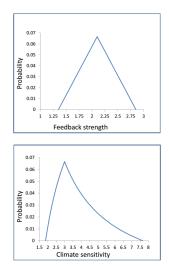


 Figure: Example of symmetric uncertainty of feedbacks producing right skewed

 climate sensitivity.

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 Natural Science:1

 04/18
 28

The carbon cycle

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• For policy analysis as well as for forecasts, we need to know the dynamic mapping from path of emissions to path of CO₂ concentrations.

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 - Non-structural (reduced form): define a depreciation function that specifies how much of an emitted unit remains in the atmosphere over time. Can be specified rather generally, but we look at a simple form.

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- Note difference between measuring emissions in CO₂ and C. A mole of carbon atoms weighs 12 grams and a mole of oxygen weighs 16. Then a kg of carbon produces $\frac{2*16+12}{12} \approx 3.67$ kg CO₂.

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• Flow in other direction proportional to S^L , with proportionality factor ϕ_2 .

Changes in stocks equal net flows (in minus out), apart from emission inflow E. This gives

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dS(t)}{dt} &= -\phi_1 S(t) + \phi_2 S^L(t) + E(t) \\ \frac{dS^L(t)}{dt} &= -\phi_2 S^L(t) + \phi_1 S(t). \end{aligned}$$

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With E(t) = 0, steady state satisfies

$$0 = -\phi_1 S + \phi_2 S^L$$

$$0 = \phi_1 S - \phi_2 S^L$$

which cannot be uniquely solved: all solutions satisfy $S = \frac{\phi_2}{\phi_1}S^L$. Why? Note that $S(t) + S^L(t) = \int_{s=0}^t E(s)ds$ at all times. The total amount of carbon increases as emissions continue.

$$S_t - S_{t-1} = -\phi_1 S_{t-1} + \phi_2 S_{t-1}^L + E_{t-1},$$

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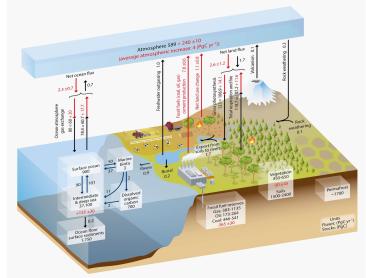
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The law of motion for the stocks follows (s ≥ 0)

$$\begin{split} S_{t+s} &= \frac{\phi_2}{\phi_1 + \phi_2} \left(S_t + S_t^L \right) - \frac{\phi_2 S_t^L - \phi_1 S_t}{\phi_1 + \phi_2} \left(1 - \phi_1 - \phi_2 \right)^s \\ S_{t+s}^L &= \frac{\phi_1}{\phi_1 + \phi_2} \left(S_t + S_t^L \right) + \frac{\phi_2 S_t^L - \phi_1 S_t}{\phi_1 + \phi_2} \left(1 - \phi_1 - \phi_2 \right)^s . \end{split}$$

THE STOCK-FLOW APPROACH VISUALLY



Global carbon cycle. Stocks in GtC (PgC) and flows GtC/year. Source: Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) (2013), Figure 6.1.

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$$\begin{aligned} S_t - S_{t-1} &= -\phi_{12}S_{t-1} + \phi_{21}S_{t-1}^U + E_{t-1} \\ S_t^U - S_{t-1}^U &= \phi_{12}S_{t-1} - (\phi_{21} + \phi_{23})S_{t-1}^U + \phi_{32}S_{t-1}^L \\ S_t^L - S_{t-1}^L &= \phi_{23}S_{t-1}^U - \phi_{32}S_{t-1}^L. \end{aligned}$$

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 - Finally, the flow from the deep ocean to the surface ocean is the same, giving $\phi_{32} = \frac{90}{37100} \approx 0.00243.$

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• They choose $\phi_{12} = 0.053$, $\phi_{21} = 0.0536$, $\phi_{23} = 0.0042$ and $\phi_{32} = 0.001422$ when the time step is a year. The initial values of the stocks are $S_{2015} = 850$, $S_{2015}^U = 765$ and $S_{2015}^L = 1799$. Note that in particular the deep oceans is much smaller than in reality. To model it that small makes the dynamics of the model more in line with the (much) more advanced models.

PROPERTIES OF STEADY STATE

• If emissions stop, this system also approaches a steady state. Solve

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 i.e., proportions between stocks are always restored. Stocks sum to sum of past emissions.

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 - A share (ca 50%) of carbon emissions is removed quite quickly (a few years to a few decades).
- These features can be modeled directly by a depreciation function (rather: "remainder function"), *d_s* that says how much remains of an emitted unit after *s* period.

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Implies

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Lecture Notes Natural Science:2

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- Implies that more than 20-25% stays in atmosphere for thousands of years if cumulated emissions are large.
- With 10 times current cumulated emissions, twice as big a share is likely to remain.

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- Surprisingly, these non-linearities seem to cancel each other in most advanced climate models. The global mean temperature thus becomes approximately linear in cumulative emissions. $T_t = \sigma_{CCR} \sum_{s=0}^t M_s$
- According to the latest (6th) IPCC report, σ_{CCR} is "likely" (which should be interpreted as a 2/3 confidence interval) between 1.0 and 2.3 degrees Celsius per 1000 GtC (corresponding to 0.27-0.63°/*Tt*CO₂). This constant is called CCR (Carbon Climate Response, sometimes CRE or TCRE).

- Given a linear relation between accumulated emissions and temperature, a remaining carbon budget can be calculated.
- The large uncertainty about the CCR coefficient, makes this problematic.
- We have now burnt around 650 GtC. If CCR is 1, we have committed 0.6*1=0.65°C and can emit another 850 GtC before reaching 1.5°C.
- This would take around 85 years with current emission rates.
- BUT, if CCR is 2.3, we have already passed 1.5 heating.
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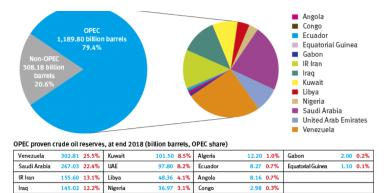
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 - **①** Reserves (recoverable under current economic and technological conditions)
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- Technological developments are and have been fast. Leading to continuos reclassifications.

OPEC's own estimates



Source: OPEC Annual Statistical Bulletin 2019.

Is 1190 billion brls a lot? A barrel is 1/7.33 tons and oil contains 85% carbon. So this is 138GtC. Likely gives 0.14-0.32°C warming using IPCC's likely CCR coefficient.

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Natural Science

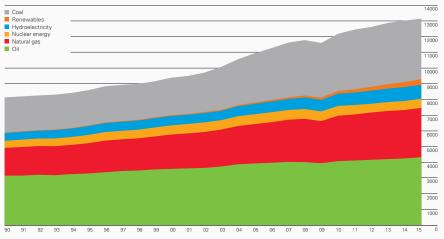
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• Increase in GMT (global mean temperature *T*) is between 1 and 2.1 degrees Celsius per 1,000 GtC both in short and long run. This constant is called Carbon Climate Response (CCR). • Increase in GMT (global mean temperature *T*) is between 1 and 2.1 degrees Celsius per 1,000 GtC both in short and long run. This constant is called Carbon Climate Response (CCR).

• Note that these are emissions not net contributions to the stock of CO₂.

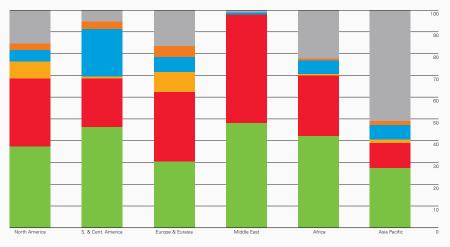


World consumption Million tonnes oil equivalent





Regional consumption by fuel 2015 Percentage



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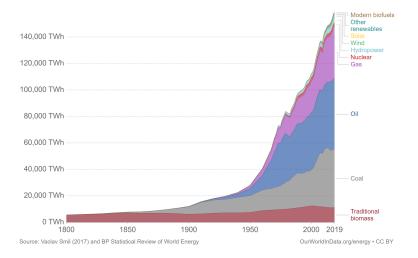
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- Coal is more than 3000 GtC,
- Coal is what really matters.
- Emissions are (now) about 10Gtc/ per year which means that about half of that is the (permanent) net increase of CO₂.

- For the purposes of climate-economy modeling, we need
 - a long-run growth model consistent with data,
 - with a production function using energy as input, and
 - to also model supply of energy.
- Since industrial revolution, energy is largely about fossil fuel, a resource in finite supply.
- Today:
 - discuss supply and demand of finite resources, and
 - a primer on endogenous resource saving technical change.

Global primary energy supply (including conversion losses)



Global shares of different energy sources

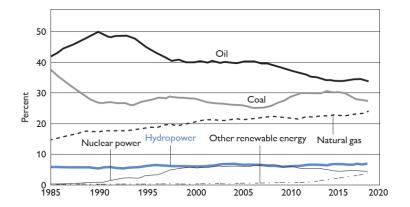


Figure: Source: BP Statistical Review of World Energy 2019

European shares of different energy sources

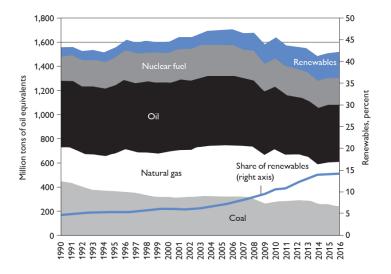
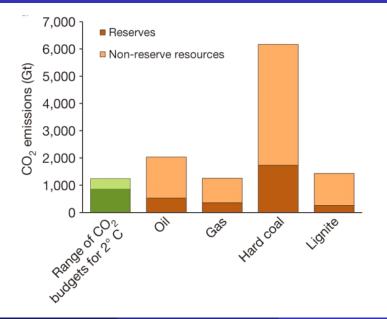


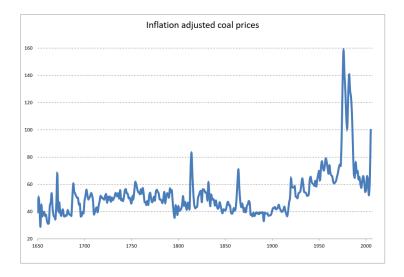
Figure: Source data: European Environment Agency

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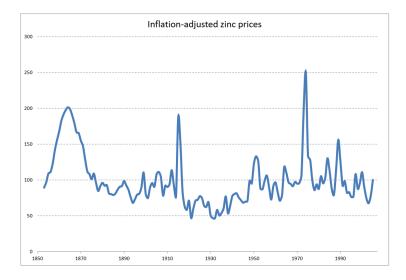
Oil price







Zinc price



Real price composite of 57 minerals and energy sources

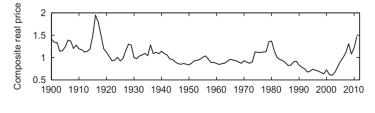
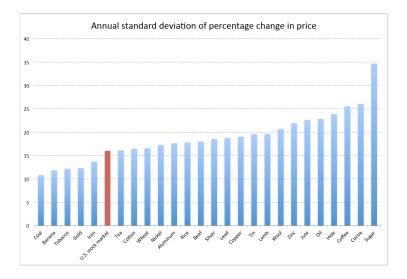


Figure: Source: Daniel Spiro, JEDC (2014).



- Different fossil fuels have quite different supply characteristics. A general rule is that amount increases with cost of extraction.
- One end of spectrum conventional oil. Exists in limited supply and is very cheap to extract relative to value. High profit margin.
- The other end coal reserves. Very large quantities and price close to marginal cost. Low if any profit margin.
- But;
 - there are things in between, and
 - technological change shifts the boundaries.
- Still, even a small emission price makes coal unprofitable but this is not the case for conventional oil. (Current ETS price ≈ 5 cent per liter gasoline but kills coal power).

Finite Resource Theory: 1 Cake eating

• Consider planning problem under zero extraction costs.

$$\max_{\{c_t\}_{t=0}^{\infty}}\sum_{t=0}^{\infty}\beta^t\log c_t$$

subject to

$$\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} c_t \leq R_0$$

• Euler equation:

$$egin{array}{rcl} U'\left(c_{t}
ight) &=& eta U'\left(c_{t+1}
ight) \ rac{1}{c_{t}} &=& eta rac{1}{c_{t+1}} \Rightarrow c_{t+1} = eta c_{t} \end{array}$$

• Using resource constraint yields $c_t = (1 - \beta)R_t$ where $R_{t+1} = R_t - c_t$. Implies $c_t = (1 - \beta)\beta^t R_0$.

Finite Resource Theory: 2 Production

• Same problem, now with Cobb-Douglas production and full depreciation of capital Also cake-like.

$$\max_{\substack{\{c_t\}_{t=0}^{\infty} \\ t = 0}} \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t \log c_t$$

s.t. : $c_t + k_{t+1} = Ak_t^{\alpha} e_t^{\nu}$ and $\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} e_t \le R_0$

 Saving rate is constant and equal to αβ immediate to show from Euler equation. Now, two means of saving, the resource and capital. Must have equal return on equilibrium/optimum. Return on capital the marginal product and on the resource the price growth

$$\frac{\alpha A k_{t+1}^{\alpha} e_{t+1}^{\nu}}{k_{t+1}} = \frac{\alpha A k_{t+1}^{\alpha} e_{t+1}^{\nu}}{\alpha \beta A k_t^{\alpha} e_t^{\nu}} = \frac{\nu A k_{t+1}^{\alpha} e_{t+1}^{\nu} / e_{t+1}}{\nu A k_t^{\alpha} e_t^{\nu} / e_t} \Rightarrow e_{t+1} = \beta e_t$$

• Again: Solution: $e_t = (1 - \beta)R_t$, where $R_{t+1} = R_t - e_t$. Hence $e_t = (1 - \beta)\beta^t R_0$.

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Finite Resource Theory: 3 Adding tech growth

ullet Now add technological growth at a gross rate of γ

$$\begin{split} \max_{\{c_t\}_{t=0}^{\infty}} \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t \log c_t \\ \text{s.t.} \quad : \quad c_t + k_{t+1} = A \gamma^t k_t^{\alpha} e_t^{\nu} \text{ and } \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} e_t \leq R_0 \end{split}$$

• Again savings rate is $\alpha\beta$ and by arbitrage

$$\frac{\alpha \gamma^{t+1} A k_{t+1}^{\alpha} e_{t+1}^{\nu}}{\alpha \beta \gamma^{t} A k_{t}^{\alpha} e_{t}^{\nu}} = \frac{\nu \gamma^{t+1} A k_{t+1}^{\alpha} e_{t+1}^{\nu} / e_{t+1}}{\nu \gamma^{t} A k_{t}^{\alpha} e_{t}^{\nu} / e_{t}} \Rightarrow e_{t+1} = \beta e_{t}$$

- In balanced growth, capital and output grows at same rate and resource use fall at gross rate β . Thus $g = \gamma g^{\alpha} \beta^{\nu} = (\gamma \beta^{\nu})^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}$. For $\gamma > \beta^{-\nu} g > 0$.
- From Euler equation, $g = \beta(1+r)$, so $1 + r = (\gamma \beta^{\nu})^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}} / \beta$. Positive real interest rate if $g > \beta$, then resource price grows.

• Suppose there is a cost of extracting resources. The arbitrage intuition still works (Hotelling (1931)). Return on saving a unit of the resource with price p_t is now

$$\frac{p_{t+1} - mc_{t+1}}{p_t - mc_t}$$

which must equal return on saving in the form of capital. Yields

$$\frac{p_{t+1}}{p_t} = 1 + r_t + \frac{1}{p_t} \left(mc_{t+1} - (1+r_t)mc_t \right)$$

• If $mc_{t+1} - (1 + r_t)mc_t < 0$. price growth is lower than the interest rate.

- Key natural-resource "puzzles":
 - Why no positive trend in prices?
 - Why so volatile? (And are natural resources different than other "commodities"?
 - Why upward trend in use?

• Related puzzle: why isn't all the cheap fossil fuel extracted first?

Back to the production function

 With Cobb-Douglas production function, all income shares constant. Not too bad for capital and labor. What about energy?



Figure: The real price of a unit (Btu) of energy, U.S.

Average real (using a GDP deflator) price of a Btu for the U.S., including all energy sources. Source: US Energy Information Administration.



Figure: The energy share in the U.S.

Finite resources and technical change

• Consider instead CES production function:

$$y \equiv F\left(Ak^{\alpha}l^{1-\alpha}, A_{e}e\right) = \left[\left(1-\gamma\right)\left(Ak^{\alpha}l^{1-\alpha}\right)^{\frac{e-1}{e}} + \gamma\left(A_{e}e\right)^{\frac{e-1}{e}}\right]^{\frac{e}{e-1}}$$

with $\varepsilon < 1$. A is capital-labor augmenting technology and A_e is energy augmenting technology. A special case is Leontief ($\varepsilon = 0$): $y = \min \{Ak^{\alpha}l^{1-\alpha}, A_e e\}$

- This fits the short-run fluctuations in data really well. But non-explosive price paths is a knife-edge property (require $Ak^{\alpha}l^{1-\alpha}$ and A_ee to grow at same rate). In general, income share of energy would go to zero or one depending on supply and growth rates of Aand A_e .
- Need something that makes (relative) growth rates of A and A_e endogenous.

A static example of endogenous technology choice

Assume

$$y = \left[(1 - \gamma) (Ak)^{\frac{\varepsilon - 1}{\varepsilon}} + \gamma (A_e e)^{\frac{\varepsilon - 1}{\varepsilon}} \right]^{\frac{\varepsilon}{\varepsilon - 1}}$$

s.t.G(A, A_e) = Ā

so with \overline{A} given but A and A_e endogenous: directed technical change. • Consider a simple case: suppose G is $\lambda \ln A + (1 - \lambda) \ln A_e = \ln \overline{A}$ • Lagrangean with shadow value Λ . FOC:

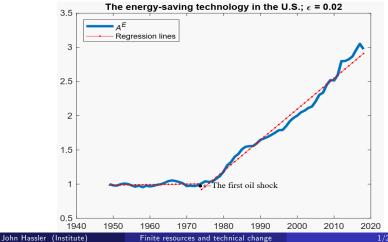
$$A; \left[\frac{y}{Ak}\right]^{\frac{1}{e}} (1-\gamma)k = \Lambda \frac{\lambda}{A} \text{ and } A_e; \left[\frac{y}{A_e e}\right]^{\frac{1}{e}} \gamma e = \Lambda \frac{1-\lambda}{A_e}$$
$$\Rightarrow \frac{\left[\frac{y}{Ak}\right]^{\frac{1}{e}} (1-\gamma)Ak}{\left[\frac{y}{A_e e}\right]^{\frac{1}{e}} \gamma A_e e} = \frac{MP_k k}{MP_e e} = \frac{\lambda}{1-\lambda}$$

• Income shares are constant and independent of k and e. Income shares instead depend on the ratio $\frac{\lambda}{1-\lambda}$, how hard it is to improve capital efficiency relative to energy efficiency.

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Dynamic directed technology choice

 We can now think of the choice of A and A_e as occurring over medium-run time. Higher energy prices, e.g., lead to higher growth rates of A_e (at the expense of A). On impact, energy income share increases but stabilizes over time.



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- There are puzzles in this area, and big quantitative challenges!
- Distinguish between oil and coal and remember that there are intermediates and technological change.
- Substantial medium run flexibility in production due to directed technical change. Energy and fossil fuel do not have to grow in parallel to output in medium and long-run.
- For long-run analysis, we are comfortable using C-D in energy, despite a very low short-run substitutability between energy and other inputs.
- Similar results can be derived for substitutability between different energy types.

Damages

• Give examples of different approaches to measuring and aggregating damages from climate change. Damages could be positive (bad) or negative (good).

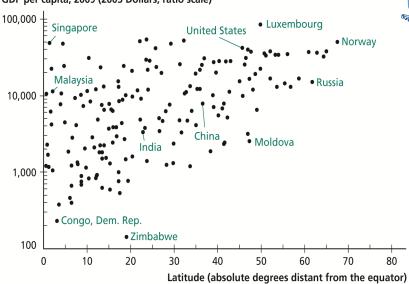
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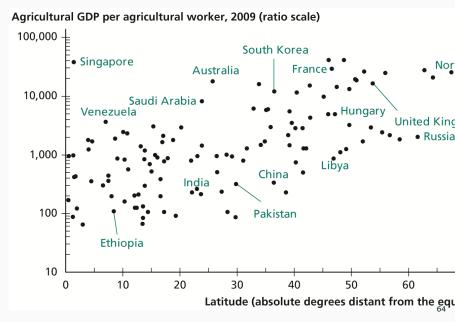
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- Approaches have different pros and cons. Complementary.



GDP per capita, 2009 (2005 Dollars, ratio scale)





Nordhaus's DICE model (Dynamic Integrated model of Climate and the Economy) and the later RICE (also dynamic, but with R for Regional) do the bottom part as follows.

• Divide effects into: (i) agriculture, (ii) sea-level rise, (iii) other market sectors, (iv) health, (v) non-market amenity impacts, (vi) human settlements and eco-systems and (vii) catastrophes.

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• Use 13 regions: U.S., OECD part of Europe, Eastern Europe, Japan, Russia, China, Africa, India, other high income, other middle, other low middle income, and low- and high-income OPEC.

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• Add up to give a damage function per region.

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	Billions, 1990 US dollars	% of GDP
United States [a]	3.90	0.07
China [a, b]	-3.00	-0.51
Japan [a]	-17.20	-0.55
OECD Europe [a]	42.10	0.58
Russia [c]	-2.88	-0.87
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• Positive effects if initial temperature is below 11.5 degrees. Suggests quadratic damage $\alpha_{ag}^1 \left(T + T_0^j\right) + \alpha_{ag}^2 \left(T + T_0^j\right)^2 + \alpha_{ag}^j$.

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- Catastrophic impacts added.

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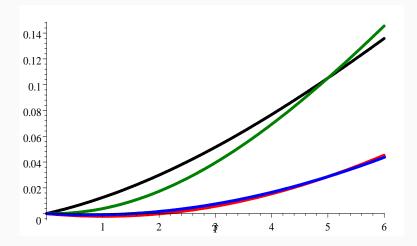
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- India twice as willing, the U.S. and China less than half.

NORDHAUS 2000 SUMMARY

• Damages as percent of GDP, described by $D(T) = 1 - \frac{1}{1+\theta_{j,1}T+\theta_{j,2}T^2}$ with region-specific $\theta_j s$, giving (Blue-USA, Red-Chi, Green-Eur, Black-LI).



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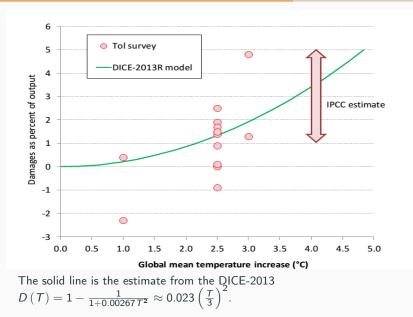
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- The model FUND uses a *random exponent* from the interval 1.5-3.
- Nordhaus stresses that the damage function for high temperatures (> 3 or 4 degrees?) should not be taken very seriously.

- Another bottom-up studie, but for Europe only.
- Sums the impact for 5 types of damages: agricultural production, river floods, coastal effects, tourism (market), and health.
- Uses different high-resolution models 50x50 km and uses distribution of weather outcomes (not only temperature).
- Compares different scenarios for year 2080 to baseline of no climate change.
- For EU as a whole, yearly damages equivalent to 1% of consumption for 5.4 degree heating in EU. Small positive effects on tourism and substantial positive effects on Northern Europe.
- Relative to growth rate over 70 years (1.02 $^{70}\approx$ 4), these effects seem fairly small.

SURVEY



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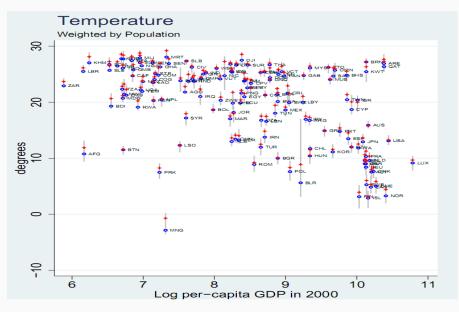
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- Use Diff in Diff to obtain reliable estimates. Mostly across time, but also using within country variation.



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- Krusell and Smith (prel.) find other results: only level effects and no difference between poor and rich.

METHODOLOGY

• Assume

 $\begin{array}{lll} Y_{it} & = & e^{\beta \, T_{it}} A_{it} L_{it}; \ \beta \ \text{captures level damage} \\ \frac{\Delta A_{it}}{A_{it}} & = & g_i + \gamma \, T_{it}; \ \gamma \ \text{captures growth-rate damage} \end{array}$

- Strong effects: one degree higher temperature leads to 1% less growth.
- But only in poor countries (below median at start).
- Persists for at least 10 years.
- Similar results for industrial output, aggregate investment, and political stability.
- Tentative conclusion: climate change is a big problem for sufficiently poor countries.
- Krusell and Smith (prel.) find other results: only level effects and no difference between poor and rich.
- Crucial feature is whether there are growth effects or not.

• Unit of analysis: $1^{\circ}\times1^{\circ}$ global grid (land). 19,000 regions (cells).

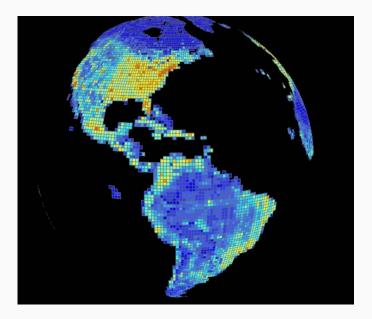
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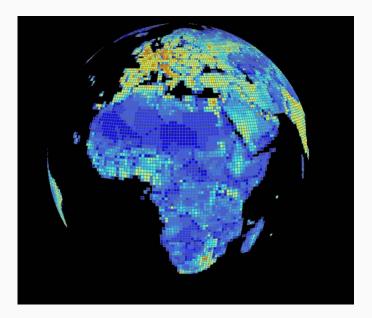
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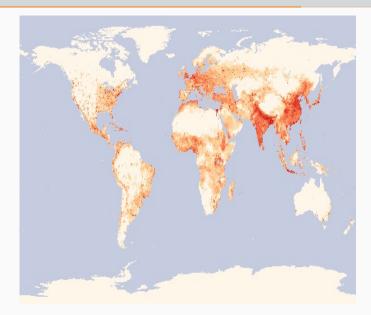
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• Produces nice charts!





POPULATION DENSITY



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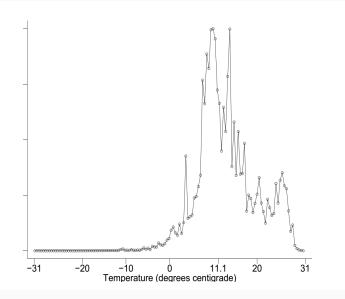
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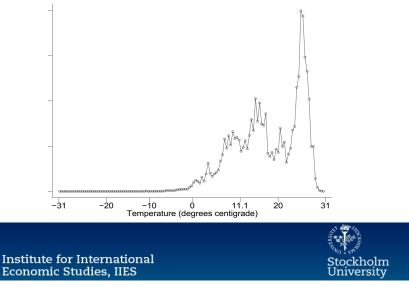
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• Obvious *pros* as well as *cons* with this methodology.

SHARE OF GLOBAL GDP VS. YEARLY MEAN TEMP



Population as function of local temperature



DAMAGE FUNCTION: CALIBRATION

 Assume potentially U-shaped damage function (damages output proportionally) in regional temperature T_i

$$D(T_j) = \begin{cases} 1 - \left(p + (1-p)e^{\gamma_h(T_j - T^*)^2}\right) & \text{if } T_j < T^* \\ 1 - \left(p + (1-p)e^{\gamma_l(T_j - T^*)^2}\right) & \text{if } T_j > T^* \end{cases}$$

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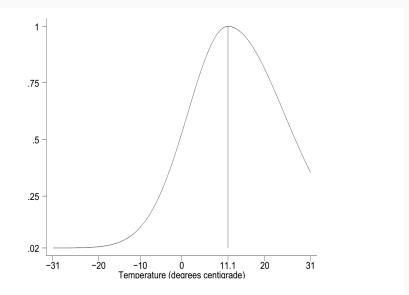
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- **@** For each region, calculate damages at different global mean temperatures.
- Aggregate damages and choose (*T*^{*}, *γ_h*, *γ_l*, *p*) to match aggregate damages implied by Nordhaus's DICE damage function.

IMPLIED 1 - (DAMAGE FUNCTION)



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• Consequently, there are also strong indications that there will be significant migration pressures from climate change.

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- Much to be learnt from further research.

What to do?

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How to design a (common) optimal policy?

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• Goal: Derive the optimal policy —here a tax on carbon— so that the externality is internalized.

- Higher levels of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere contributes to global warming, which in turn causes damages like production shortfalls, poor health or deaths, capital destruction and much more.
- Map carbon concentration to climate, and then map climate to damages.
- Expected sum of future damage elasticities: the percentage change in output resulting from a percentage change in the amount of carbon in the atmosphere, caused by emitting a unit of carbon today.
- Discounted because of time preferences and because of carbon depreciating.

THE CARBON CYCLE

Carbon circulation system: carbon is exchanged through various reservoirs such as the atmosphere, the terrestrial biosphere, and different layers of the ocean.

The representation of the carbon cycle in this paper is given by the equation:

$$(1 - d_s) = \phi_L + (1 - \phi_L)\phi_0(1 - \phi)^s$$

- ϕ_L : the share of carbon that stays in the atmosphere forever
- $(1-\phi_0)$: of the carbon that does not stay in the atmosphere forever, this is the share that exits the atmosphere into the biosphere or ocean within a decade
- the remaining carbon in the atmosphere, $(1-\phi_L)\phi_0,$ decays at a geometric rate ϕ

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O Explicit use of energy that both contributes to GDP and emits CO_2

€ Inclusion of Exhaustible Resources that induces savvy economic behavior.

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- Some energy resources have a finite stock, which is accounted for by the constraint $R_{j,t+1} = R_{j,t} E_{j,t}^j \ge 0$
- Dirty energy has cost constant cost ξ_j . Clean energy has convex cost $\xi_J(E_{J,T})$.

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- Define a function \tilde{S}_t that maps the history of man made pollution into the current level of carbon dioxide.

$$S_t = ilde{S}_t \left(\sum_{j=1}^{J_g - 1} E_{j, -T}, \sum_{j=1}^{J_g - 1} E_{j, -T+1}, ..., \sum_{j=1}^{J_g - 1} E_{j, t}
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• Here, -T is defined as the start of industrialization.

0 $U(C) = \log(C)$

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③ Damages:
$$[1 - D_t(S_t)] = \exp\{-\gamma_t(S_t - \overline{S})\}$$

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• The function \tilde{S}_t is linear and has the depreciation structure:

$$S_t - \bar{S} = \sum_{s=0}^{t+T} (1 - d_s) \sum_{j=1}^{J_g - 1} E_{j,t-s}$$

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• Representative household of the world

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• Technological, Climate and Exhaustability Constraints

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• After that we worry about implementation

$$\max_{\substack{\{C_t,N_t,K_{t+1},R_{j,t+1}, \\ E_{j,t},S_t\}_{t=0}^{\infty} \geq 0}} \mathbb{E}_0 \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t U(C_t)$$
 s.t.

$$C_t + K_{t+1} = F_t(K_t, N_t, E_t, S_t) + (1 - \delta)K_t$$
 FB

$$E_t = \sum_j E_{j,t} \, \alpha^j \qquad \qquad \text{AGE}$$

$$R_{j,t+1} = R_{j,t} - E_{j,t} \ge 0$$
 for all j $E \times E_{j,t+1} = R_{j,t} - E_{j,t} \ge 0$

$$S_{t} = \tilde{S}_{t} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{J_{g}-1} E_{j,-\tau}, \sum_{j=1}^{J_{g}-1} E_{j,-\tau+1}, ..., \sum_{j=1}^{J_{g}-1} E_{j,t} \right)$$
CC

• $E_{j,t}$ is output of Energy of Sector (type) j measured in units of carbon emitted.

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α^j Conversion of units of energy of type *j* from being in terms of carbon emissions to units of energy. • The marginal externality damage is the same for all *j*:

$$\Lambda_t^s = \mathbb{E} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \beta^i \frac{U'(C_{t+i})}{U'(C_t)} \frac{\partial F_{t+i}}{\partial S_{t+i}} \frac{\partial S_{t+i}}{\partial E_{j,t}}$$

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• Under our specific assumptions, this expression simplifies to:

$$\Lambda_t^s = \mathbb{E} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \beta^i C_t \frac{Y_{t+i}}{C_{t+i}} \gamma_{t+i} (1-d_i)$$

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• Further, if the planner's problem implies a constant savings rate, then the expression can be written as:

$$\Lambda_t^s = Y_t \left[\mathbb{E} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \beta^i \gamma_{t+i} (1 - d_i) \right]$$

• The FOC of the planner says

$$\alpha_j \ \frac{\partial F_t}{\partial E_t} - \xi_j - \Lambda_t^s = 0$$

$$\max_{\{C_t, N_t, K_{t+1}\}_{t=0}^{\infty}} \quad \mathbb{E}_0 \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t U(C_t)$$

$$\mathsf{E}_0\sum_{t=0}^{\infty}q_t(C_t+K_{t+1})$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_0 \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} q_t ((1+r_t-\delta)K_t + w_tN_t + T_t) + \Pi_t.$$

$$\Pi_{0} = \max_{\{K_{t}, N_{t}, E_{t}\}_{t=0}^{\infty}} \mathbb{E}_{0} \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} q_{t} \left[F_{t}(K_{t}, N_{t}, E_{t}, S_{t}) - r_{t}K_{t} - w_{t}N_{t} - \sum_{j=1}^{J} p_{j,t}E_{j,t} \right]$$

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• If there are multiple externalities (for instance an R&D component to the model) then a separate Pigouvian tax is required for each externality.

To understand the magnitude of the optimal tax rates given by this model, they can be compared with estimates from other models, and also with tax rates that are currently being used around the world.

• Nordhaus (2008) uses a discount rate of 1.5% and gets a tax of \$30 per ton of coal. With the same discount rate, this paper gives a tax of \$56.9 per ton of coal.

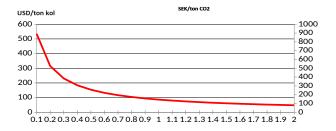
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- In Sweden, the current tax on private consumption of carbon exceeds \$600 per ton of carbon, which is larger than the estimates for the optimal tax in this paper. However, these taxes are significantly higher than many other countries, for instance the EU has a tax of around \$77 per ton of carbon.

Sum damages over time => "optimal" tax!



Årlig diskontering %

Sweden has carbon tax ~ 600 USD/tC!

Institute for International Economic Studies, IIES



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- Remaining (conventional) oil+gas: about 300GtC. Limited warming if we use it up!
- Remaining coal: much more, possibly over 3,000GtC.
- => Coal is the main threat!

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- So: bad for the coal industry (the world over), no big deal otherwise

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 - No: reduce them where they are least needed/least efficient (e.g., buy emission rights in EU trading system, pay to keep forests, ...)

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- some elements of analysis subject to substantial uncertainty

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- The quantitative magnitudes of feedback are disputed. The "average" view seems to be that feedbacks strengthen the direct warming effect considerably, but there is much uncertainty.

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- What is the appropriate level of the tax? For this, we use standard cost-benefit analysis.

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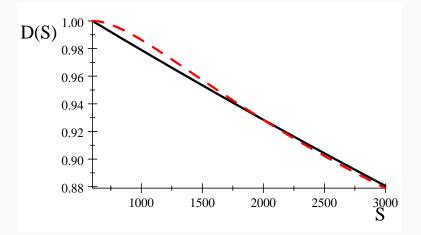
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- Together, the two steps are D(T(S)) mapping additional atmospheric carbon to damages. Let's examine the mapping.

A SIMPLER MAPPING

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