

Environmental and Climate Economics

Choosing the Right Climate Policy Mix

Adrien Fabre

Tsinghua University

Spring 2024

Emissions and ambitions across the world

Table 1: Fossil and industrial CO₂ emissions of the largest emitters: past and prospects.

| | China | U.S. | EU | India | World |
|---|-------|------|----|-------|-------|
| Share of global emissions (territorial, 2022) | | | | | |

Table 1: Fossil and industrial CO₂ emissions of the largest emitters: past and prospects.

| | China | U.S. | EU | India | World |
|---|-------|------|------|-------|-------|
| Share of global emissions (territorial, 2022) | 31% | 14% | 7.4% | 7.6% | 100% |

Table 1: Fossil and industrial CO₂ emissions of the largest emitters: past and prospects.

| | China | U.S. | EU | India | World |
|---|-------|------|------|-------|-------|
| Share of global emissions (territorial, 2022) | 31% | 14% | 7.4% | 7.6% | 100% |
| Share of cumulative emissions (territorial) | | | | | |

Table 1: Fossil and industrial CO₂ emissions of the largest emitters: past and prospects.

| | China | U.S. | EU | India | World |
|---|-------|------|------|-------|-------|
| Share of global emissions (territorial, 2022) | 31% | 14% | 7.4% | 7.6% | 100% |
| Share of cumulative emissions (territorial) | 15% | 25% | 17% | 3.5% | 100% |

Table 1: Fossil and industrial CO₂ emissions of the largest emitters: past and prospects.

| | China | U.S. | EU | India | World |
|--|-------|------|------|-------|-------|
| Share of global emissions (territorial, 2022) | 31% | 14% | 7.4% | 7.6% | 100% |
| Share of cumulative emissions (territorial) | 15% | 25% | 17% | 3.5% | 100% |
| Territorial emissions p.c. (tCO ₂ , 2022) | 8 | 14.9 | 6.2 | 2 | 4.7 |

Table 1: Fossil and industrial CO₂ emissions of the largest emitters: past and prospects.

| | China | U.S. | EU | India | World |
|--|-------|------|------|-------|-------|
| Share of global emissions (territorial, 2022) | 31% | 14% | 7.4% | 7.6% | 100% |
| Share of cumulative emissions (territorial) | 15% | 25% | 17% | 3.5% | 100% |
| Territorial emissions p.c. (tCO ₂ , 2022) | 8 | 14.9 | 6.2 | 2 | 4.7 |
| Carbon footprint p.c. (tCO ₂ , 2021) | | | | | |

Table 1: Fossil and industrial CO₂ emissions of the largest emitters: past and prospects.

| | China | U.S. | EU | India | World |
|--|-------|------|------|-------|-------|
| Share of global emissions (territorial, 2022) | 31% | 14% | 7.4% | 7.6% | 100% |
| Share of cumulative emissions (territorial) | 15% | 25% | 17% | 3.5% | 100% |
| Territorial emissions p.c. (tCO ₂ , 2022) | 8 | 14.9 | 6.2 | 2 | 4.7 |
| Carbon footprint p.c. (tCO ₂ , 2021) | 7.2 | 16.5 | 7.9 | 1.8 | 4.7 |

Table 1: Fossil and industrial CO₂ emissions of the largest emitters: past and prospects.

| | China | U.S. | EU | India | World |
|--|-------|------|------|-------|-------|
| Share of global emissions (territorial, 2022) | 31% | 14% | 7.4% | 7.6% | 100% |
| Share of cumulative emissions (territorial) | 15% | 25% | 17% | 3.5% | 100% |
| Territorial emissions p.c. (tCO ₂ , 2022) | 8 | 14.9 | 6.2 | 2 | 4.7 |
| Carbon footprint p.c. (tCO ₂ , 2021) | 7.2 | 16.5 | 7.9 | 1.8 | 4.7 |
| 1990–2019 territorial emissions p.c. | | | | | |

Table 1: Fossil and industrial CO₂ emissions of the largest emitters: past and prospects.

| | China | U.S. | EU | India | World |
|--|-------|------|------|-------|-------|
| Share of global emissions (territorial, 2022) | 31% | 14% | 7.4% | 7.6% | 100% |
| Share of cumulative emissions (territorial) | 15% | 25% | 17% | 3.5% | 100% |
| Territorial emissions p.c. (tCO ₂ , 2022) | 8 | 14.9 | 6.2 | 2 | 4.7 |
| Carbon footprint p.c. (tCO ₂ , 2021) | 7.2 | 16.5 | 7.9 | 1.8 | 4.7 |
| 1990–2019 territorial emissions p.c. | +240% | −24% | −29% | +186% | +12% |
| 1990–2018 carbon intensity of GDP | −22% | −44% | −57% | −12% | −44% |

Table 1: Fossil and industrial CO₂ emissions of the largest emitters: past and prospects.

| | China | U.S. | EU | India | World |
|--|-------|------|------|-------|-------|
| Share of global emissions (territorial, 2022) | 31% | 14% | 7.4% | 7.6% | 100% |
| Share of cumulative emissions (territorial) | 15% | 25% | 17% | 3.5% | 100% |
| Territorial emissions p.c. (tCO ₂ , 2022) | 8 | 14.9 | 6.2 | 2 | 4.7 |
| Carbon footprint p.c. (tCO ₂ , 2021) | 7.2 | 16.5 | 7.9 | 1.8 | 4.7 |
| 1990–2019 territorial emissions p.c. | +240% | −24% | −29% | +186% | +12% |
| 1990–2018 carbon intensity of GDP | −22% | −44% | −57% | −12% | −44% |
| Net-zero target | | | | | |

Table 1: Fossil and industrial CO₂ emissions of the largest emitters: past and prospects.

| | China | U.S. | EU | India | World |
|--|---------------|------|------|----------------|--------|
| Share of global emissions (territorial, 2022) | 31% | 14% | 7.4% | 7.6% | 100% |
| Share of cumulative emissions (territorial) | 15% | 25% | 17% | 3.5% | 100% |
| Territorial emissions p.c. (tCO ₂ , 2022) | 8 | 14.9 | 6.2 | 2 | 4.7 |
| Carbon footprint p.c. (tCO ₂ , 2021) | 7.2 | 16.5 | 7.9 | 1.8 | 4.7 |
| 1990–2019 territorial emissions p.c. | +240% | −24% | −29% | +186% | +12% |
| 1990–2018 carbon intensity of GDP | −22% | −44% | −57% | −12% | −44% |
| Net-zero target | 2060 | 2050 | 2050 | 2070 | ≈ 2077 |
| 2019–2030 evolution for equal p.c. in 2030 | −47% | −77% | −55% | +105% | −15% |
| 2019–2030 target [<i>i</i> : <i>intensity</i>] | <i>i</i> −33% | −44% | −40% | <i>i</i> −39%* | ≈ −15% |

Table 1: Fossil and industrial CO₂ emissions of the largest emitters: past and prospects.

| | China | U.S. | EU | India | World |
|--|---------------|------|------|----------------|--------|
| Share of global emissions (territorial, 2022) | 31% | 14% | 7.4% | 7.6% | 100% |
| Share of cumulative emissions (territorial) | 15% | 25% | 17% | 3.5% | 100% |
| Territorial emissions p.c. (tCO ₂ , 2022) | 8 | 14.9 | 6.2 | 2 | 4.7 |
| Carbon footprint p.c. (tCO ₂ , 2021) | 7.2 | 16.5 | 7.9 | 1.8 | 4.7 |
| 1990–2019 territorial emissions p.c. | +240% | −24% | −29% | +186% | +12% |
| 1990–2018 carbon intensity of GDP | −22% | −44% | −57% | −12% | −44% |
| Net-zero target | 2060 | 2050 | 2050 | 2070 | ≈ 2077 |
| 2019–2030 evolution for equal p.c. in 2030 | −47% | −77% | −55% | +105% | −15% |
| 2019–2030 target [<i>i</i> : <i>intensity</i>] | <i>i</i> −33% | −44% | −40% | <i>i</i> −39%* | ≈ −15% |
| On track to: | | | | | |

Table 1: Fossil and industrial CO₂ emissions of the largest emitters: past and prospects.

| | China | U.S. | EU | India | World |
|--|---------------|------|------|----------------|--------|
| Share of global emissions (territorial, 2022) | 31% | 14% | 7.4% | 7.6% | 100% |
| Share of cumulative emissions (territorial) | 15% | 25% | 17% | 3.5% | 100% |
| Territorial emissions p.c. (tCO ₂ , 2022) | 8 | 14.9 | 6.2 | 2 | 4.7 |
| Carbon footprint p.c. (tCO ₂ , 2021) | 7.2 | 16.5 | 7.9 | 1.8 | 4.7 |
| 1990–2019 territorial emissions p.c. | +240% | −24% | −29% | +186% | +12% |
| 1990–2018 carbon intensity of GDP | −22% | −44% | −57% | −12% | −44% |
| Net-zero target | 2060 | 2050 | 2050 | 2070 | ≈ 2077 |
| 2019–2030 evolution for equal p.c. in 2030 | −47% | −77% | −55% | +105% | −15% |
| 2019–2030 target [<i>i</i> : <i>intensity</i>] | <i>i</i> −33% | −44% | −40% | <i>i</i> −39%* | ≈ −15% |
| On track to: | <i>i</i> −35% | −28% | −34% | <i>i</i> −45% | +2% |

Table 1: Fossil and industrial CO₂ emissions of the largest emitters: past and prospects.

| | China | U.S. | EU | India | World |
|--|---------------|------|------|----------------|--------|
| Share of global emissions (territorial, 2022) | 31% | 14% | 7.4% | 7.6% | 100% |
| Share of cumulative emissions (territorial) | 15% | 25% | 17% | 3.5% | 100% |
| Territorial emissions p.c. (tCO ₂ , 2022) | 8 | 14.9 | 6.2 | 2 | 4.7 |
| Carbon footprint p.c. (tCO ₂ , 2021) | 7.2 | 16.5 | 7.9 | 1.8 | 4.7 |
| 1990–2019 territorial emissions p.c. | +240% | −24% | −29% | +186% | +12% |
| 1990–2018 carbon intensity of GDP | −22% | −44% | −57% | −12% | −44% |
| Net-zero target | 2060 | 2050 | 2050 | 2070 | ≈ 2077 |
| 2019–2030 evolution for equal p.c. in 2030 | −47% | −77% | −55% | +105% | −15% |
| 2019–2030 target [<i>i</i> : <i>intensity</i>] | <i>i</i> −33% | −44% | −40% | <i>i</i> −39%* | ≈ −15% |
| On track to: | <i>i</i> −35% | −28% | −34% | <i>i</i> −45% | +2% |
| Fossil share in primary energy (2022) | | | | | |

Table 1: Fossil and industrial CO₂ emissions of the largest emitters: past and prospects.

| | China | U.S. | EU | India | World |
|--|---------------|------|------|----------------|--------|
| Share of global emissions (territorial, 2022) | 31% | 14% | 7.4% | 7.6% | 100% |
| Share of cumulative emissions (territorial) | 15% | 25% | 17% | 3.5% | 100% |
| Territorial emissions p.c. (tCO ₂ , 2022) | 8 | 14.9 | 6.2 | 2 | 4.7 |
| Carbon footprint p.c. (tCO ₂ , 2021) | 7.2 | 16.5 | 7.9 | 1.8 | 4.7 |
| 1990–2019 territorial emissions p.c. | +240% | −24% | −29% | +186% | +12% |
| 1990–2018 carbon intensity of GDP | −22% | −44% | −57% | −12% | −44% |
| Net-zero target | 2060 | 2050 | 2050 | 2070 | ≈ 2077 |
| 2019–2030 evolution for equal p.c. in 2030 | −47% | −77% | −55% | +105% | −15% |
| 2019–2030 target [<i>i</i> : <i>intensity</i>] | <i>i</i> −33% | −44% | −40% | <i>i</i> −39%* | ≈ −15% |
| On track to: | <i>i</i> −35% | −28% | −34% | <i>i</i> −45% | +2% |
| Fossil share in primary energy (2022) | 82% | 81% | 71% | 88% | 82% |

Table 1: Fossil and industrial CO₂ emissions of the largest emitters: past and prospects.

| | China | U.S. | EU | India | World |
|--|---------------|------|------|----------------|--------|
| Share of global emissions (territorial, 2022) | 31% | 14% | 7.4% | 7.6% | 100% |
| Share of cumulative emissions (territorial) | 15% | 25% | 17% | 3.5% | 100% |
| Territorial emissions p.c. (tCO ₂ , 2022) | 8 | 14.9 | 6.2 | 2 | 4.7 |
| Carbon footprint p.c. (tCO ₂ , 2021) | 7.2 | 16.5 | 7.9 | 1.8 | 4.7 |
| 1990–2019 territorial emissions p.c. | +240% | −24% | −29% | +186% | +12% |
| 1990–2018 carbon intensity of GDP | −22% | −44% | −57% | −12% | −44% |
| Net-zero target | 2060 | 2050 | 2050 | 2070 | ≈ 2077 |
| 2019–2030 evolution for equal p.c. in 2030 | −47% | −77% | −55% | +105% | −15% |
| 2019–2030 target [<i>i</i> : <i>intensity</i>] | <i>i</i> −33% | −44% | −40% | <i>i</i> −39%* | ≈ −15% |
| On track to: | <i>i</i> −35% | −28% | −34% | <i>i</i> −45% | +2% |
| Fossil share in primary energy (2022) | 82% | 81% | 71% | 88% | 82% |
| Coal share in electricity production (2022) | | | | | |

Table 1: Fossil and industrial CO₂ emissions of the largest emitters: past and prospects.

| | China | U.S. | EU | India | World |
|--|---------------|------|------|----------------|--------|
| Share of global emissions (territorial, 2022) | 31% | 14% | 7.4% | 7.6% | 100% |
| Share of cumulative emissions (territorial) | 15% | 25% | 17% | 3.5% | 100% |
| Territorial emissions p.c. (tCO ₂ , 2022) | 8 | 14.9 | 6.2 | 2 | 4.7 |
| Carbon footprint p.c. (tCO ₂ , 2021) | 7.2 | 16.5 | 7.9 | 1.8 | 4.7 |
| 1990–2019 territorial emissions p.c. | +240% | −24% | −29% | +186% | +12% |
| 1990–2018 carbon intensity of GDP | −22% | −44% | −57% | −12% | −44% |
| Net-zero target | 2060 | 2050 | 2050 | 2070 | ≈ 2077 |
| 2019–2030 evolution for equal p.c. in 2030 | −47% | −77% | −55% | +105% | −15% |
| 2019–2030 target [<i>i</i> : <i>intensity</i>] | <i>i</i> −33% | −44% | −40% | <i>i</i> −39%* | ≈ −15% |
| On track to: | <i>i</i> −35% | −28% | −34% | <i>i</i> −45% | +2% |
| Fossil share in primary energy (2022) | 82% | 81% | 71% | 88% | 82% |
| Coal share in electricity production (2022) | 61% | 19% | 16% | 74% | 36% |

Table 1: Fossil and industrial CO₂ emissions of the largest emitters: past and prospects.

| | China | U.S. | EU | India | World |
|--|---------------|------|------|----------------|--------|
| Share of global emissions (territorial, 2022) | 31% | 14% | 7.4% | 7.6% | 100% |
| Share of cumulative emissions (territorial) | 15% | 25% | 17% | 3.5% | 100% |
| Territorial emissions p.c. (tCO ₂ , 2022) | 8 | 14.9 | 6.2 | 2 | 4.7 |
| Carbon footprint p.c. (tCO ₂ , 2021) | 7.2 | 16.5 | 7.9 | 1.8 | 4.7 |
| 1990–2019 territorial emissions p.c. | +240% | −24% | −29% | +186% | +12% |
| 1990–2018 carbon intensity of GDP | −22% | −44% | −57% | −12% | −44% |
| Net-zero target | 2060 | 2050 | 2050 | 2070 | ≈ 2077 |
| 2019–2030 evolution for equal p.c. in 2030 | −47% | −77% | −55% | +105% | −15% |
| 2019–2030 target [<i>i</i> : <i>intensity</i>] | <i>i</i> −33% | −44% | −40% | <i>i</i> −39%* | ≈ −15% |
| On track to: | <i>i</i> −35% | −28% | −34% | <i>i</i> −45% | +2% |
| Fossil share in primary energy (2022) | 82% | 81% | 71% | 88% | 82% |
| Coal share in electricity production (2022) | 61% | 19% | 16% | 74% | 36% |
| Fossil share in electricity production (2022) | | | | | |

Table 1: Fossil and industrial CO₂ emissions of the largest emitters: past and prospects.

| | China | U.S. | EU | India | World | |
|--|----------------|------|------|-----------------|--------|---|
| Share of global emissions (territorial, 2022) | 31% | 14% | 7.4% | 7.6% | 100% | |
| Share of cumulative emissions (territorial) | 15% | 25% | 17% | 3.5% | 100% | |
| Territorial emissions p.c. (tCO ₂ , 2022) | 8 | 14.9 | 6.2 | 2 | 4.7 | |
| Carbon footprint p.c. (tCO ₂ , 2021) | 7.2 | 16.5 | 7.9 | 1.8 | 4.7 | |
| 1990–2019 territorial emissions p.c. | +240% | −24% | −29% | +186% | +12% | |
| 1990–2018 carbon intensity of GDP | −22% | −44% | −57% | −12% | −44% | * |
| Net-zero target | 2060 | 2050 | 2050 | 2070 | ≈ 2077 | |
| 2019–2030 evolution for equal p.c. in 2030 | −47% | −77% | −55% | +105% | −15% | |
| 2019–2030 target [<i>i</i> : <i>intensity</i>] | <i>i</i> − 33% | −44% | −40% | <i>i</i> − 39%* | ≈ −15% | |
| On track to: | <i>i</i> − 35% | −28% | −34% | <i>i</i> − 45% | +2% | |
| Fossil share in primary energy (2022) | 82% | 81% | 71% | 88% | 82% | |
| Coal share in electricity production (2022) | 61% | 19% | 16% | 74% | 36% | |
| Fossil share in electricity production (2022) | 65% | 60% | 39% | 77% | 61% | |

India's target is conditional on \$1 trillion of funding from developed countries.

Climate policy in practice

Climate policy of China

The NDRC and MEE define and enforce China's climate policy.

Climate policy of China

The NDRC and MEE define and enforce China's climate policy.

In 2020, China announced new targets, including:

Climate policy of China

The NDRC and MEE define and enforce China's climate policy.

In 2020, China announced new targets, including:

Peak carbon emissions before 2030, carbon neutrality before 2060.

Climate policy of China

The NDRC and MEE define and enforce China's climate policy.

In 2020, China announced new targets, including:

Peak carbon emissions before 2030, carbon neutrality before 2060.

Reduce its carbon intensity by 65% over 2005–2030.

Climate policy of China

The NDRC and MEE define and enforce China's climate policy.

In 2020, China announced new targets, including:

Peak carbon emissions before 2030, carbon neutrality before 2060.

Reduce its carbon intensity by 65% over 2005–2030.

Increase the forest stock by 6 Gm³.

Climate policy of China

The NDRC and MEE define and enforce China's climate policy.

In 2020, China announced new targets, including:

Peak carbon emissions before 2030, carbon neutrality before 2060.

Reduce its carbon intensity by 65% over 2005–2030.

Increase the forest stock by 6 Gm³.

China has a *dual control* of energy: consumption and (above all) intensity, shifting towards *carbon*.

Climate policy of China

The NDRC and MEE define and enforce China's climate policy.

In 2020, China announced new targets, including:

- Peak carbon emissions before 2030, carbon neutrality before 2060.

- Reduce its carbon intensity by 65% over 2005–2030.

- Increase the forest stock by 6 Gm³.

China has a *dual control* of energy: consumption and (above all) intensity, shifting towards *carbon*.

China relies on different instruments, in particular **central planning**:

Climate policy of China

The NDRC and MEE define and enforce China's climate policy.

In 2020, China announced new targets, including:

Peak carbon emissions before 2030, carbon neutrality before 2060.

Reduce its carbon intensity by 65% over 2005–2030.

Increase the forest stock by 6 Gm³.

China has a *dual control* of energy: consumption and (above all) intensity, shifting towards *carbon*.

China relies on different instruments, in particular **central planning**:

Targets by sector and province, with supervision and performance evaluation.

Climate policy of China

The NDRC and MEE define and enforce China's climate policy.

In 2020, China announced new targets, including:

- Peak carbon emissions before 2030, carbon neutrality before 2060.

- Reduce its carbon intensity by 65% over 2005–2030.

- Increase the forest stock by 6 Gm³.

China has a *dual control* of *energy*: consumption and (above all) intensity, shifting towards *carbon*.

China relies on different instruments, in particular **central planning**:

- Targets by sector and province, with supervision and performance evaluation.

- Green finance: preferential credit conditions for green projects.

Climate policy of China

The NDRC and MEE define and enforce China's climate policy.

In 2020, China announced new targets, including:

Peak carbon emissions before 2030, carbon neutrality before 2060.

Reduce its carbon intensity by 65% over 2005–2030.

Increase the forest stock by 6 Gm³.

China has a *dual control* of energy: consumption and (above all) intensity, shifting towards *carbon*.

China relies on different instruments, in particular central planning:

Targets by sector and province, with supervision and performance evaluation.

Green finance: preferential credit conditions for green projects.

Administrative decisions to shut down a list of polluting plants.

Climate policy of China

The NDRC and MEE define and enforce China's climate policy.

In 2020, China announced new targets, including:

Peak carbon emissions before 2030, carbon neutrality before 2060.

Reduce its carbon intensity by 65% over 2005–2030.

Increase the forest stock by 6 Gm³.

China has a *dual control* of energy: consumption and (above all) intensity, shifting towards *carbon*.

China relies on different instruments, in particular **central planning**:

Targets by sector and province, with supervision and performance evaluation.

Green finance: preferential credit conditions for green projects.

Administrative decisions to shut down a list of polluting plants.

Administrative approval requirement for opening new plants.

Climate policy of China

The NDRC and MEE define and enforce China's climate policy.

In 2020, China announced new targets, including:

Peak carbon emissions before 2030, carbon neutrality before 2060.

Reduce its carbon intensity by 65% over 2005–2030.

Increase the forest stock by 6 Gm³.

China has a *dual control* of energy: consumption and (above all) intensity, shifting towards *carbon*.

China relies on different instruments, in particular **central planning**:

Targets by sector and province, with supervision and performance evaluation.

Green finance: preferential credit conditions for green projects.

Administrative decisions to shut down a list of polluting plants.

Administrative approval requirement for opening new plants.

Feed-in tariff to guarantee the price of wind power.

Climate policy of China

The NDRC and MEE define and enforce China's climate policy.

In 2020, China announced new targets, including:

Peak carbon emissions before 2030, carbon neutrality before 2060.

Reduce its carbon intensity by 65% over 2005–2030.

Increase the forest stock by 6 Gm³.

China has a *dual control* of *energy*: consumption and (above all) intensity, shifting towards *carbon*.

China relies on different instruments, in particular **central planning**:

Targets by sector and province, with supervision and performance evaluation.

Green finance: preferential credit conditions for green projects.

Administrative decisions to shut down a list of polluting plants.

Administrative approval requirement for opening new plants.

Feed-in tariff to guarantee the price of wind power.

Standards on: plants' pollution and efficiency, land-use, fossil fuels...

Climate policy of China

The NDRC and MEE define and enforce China's climate policy.

In 2020, China announced new targets, including:

Peak carbon emissions before 2030, carbon neutrality before 2060.

Reduce its carbon intensity by 65% over 2005–2030.

Increase the forest stock by 6 Gm³.

China has a *dual control* of energy: consumption and (above all) intensity, shifting towards *carbon*.

China relies on different instruments, in particular **central planning**:

Targets by sector and province, with supervision and performance evaluation.

Green finance: preferential credit conditions for green projects.

Administrative decisions to shut down a list of polluting plants.

Administrative approval requirement for opening new plants.

Feed-in tariff to guarantee the price of wind power.

Standards on: plants' pollution and efficiency, land-use, fossil fuels...

Intensity-based Emissions Trading System.

For now, covers the power sector, with mostly free allowances, and low price (\$10/tCO₂).

Climate policy of the United States

Since 1975, the Corporate Average Fuel Economy (CAFE) standards regulate new cars' emissions.

Climate policy of the United States

Since 1975, the Corporate Average Fuel Economy (CAFE) standards regulate new cars' emissions.

Fines on car manufacturers whose new vehicles exceed a norm, now averaging at 6 L per 100 km.

Climate policy of the United States

Since 1975, the Corporate Average Fuel Economy (CAFE) standards regulate new cars' emissions.

Fines on car manufacturers whose new vehicles exceed a norm, now averaging at 6 L per 100 km.

Since a 2021 executive order, the Environmental Protection Agency sets CO₂ targets, now at 119 gCO₂/km.

Climate policy of the United States

Since 1975, the Corporate Average Fuel Economy (CAFE) standards regulate new cars' emissions.

Fines on car manufacturers whose new vehicles exceed a norm, now averaging at 6 L per 100 km.

Since a 2021 executive order, the Environmental Protection Agency sets CO₂ targets, now at 119 gCO₂/km.

Many policies at State level, e.g. 38 States have a Renewable Portfolio Standard on electricity mix.

Climate policy of the United States

Since 1975, the Corporate Average Fuel Economy (CAFE) standards regulate new cars' emissions.

Fines on car manufacturers whose new vehicles exceed a norm, now averaging at 6 L per 100 km.

Since a 2021 executive order, the Environmental Protection Agency sets CO₂ targets, now at 119 gCO₂/km.

Many policies at State level, e.g. 38 States have a Renewable Portfolio Standard on electricity mix.

Both standards allow firms to comply by purchasing credits from overperforming firms.

Climate policy of the United States

Since 1975, the Corporate Average Fuel Economy (CAFE) standards regulate new cars' emissions.

Fines on car manufacturers whose new vehicles exceed a norm, now averaging at 6 L per 100 km.

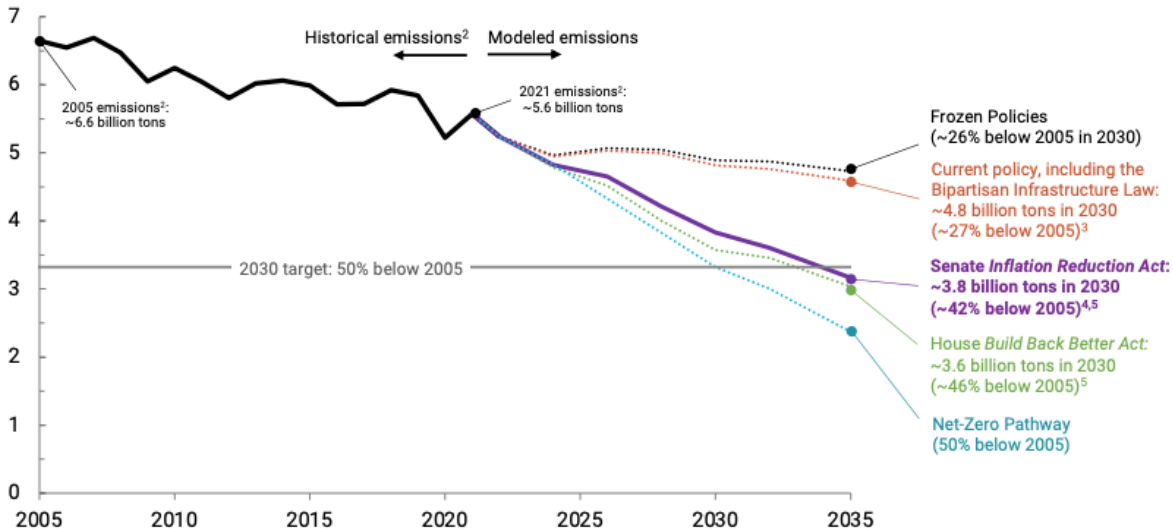
Since a 2021 executive order, the Environmental Protection Agency sets CO₂ targets, now at 119 gCO₂/km.

Many policies at State level, e.g. 38 States have a Renewable Portfolio Standard on electricity mix.

Both standards allow firms to comply by purchasing credits from overperforming firms.

In 2022, the Inflation Reduction Acts (IRA) introduced a vast program of subsidies:

Climate policy of the United States



Climate policy of the United States

Since 1975, the Corporate Average Fuel Economy (CAFE) standards regulate new cars' emissions.

Fines on car manufacturers whose new vehicles exceed a norm, now averaging at 6 L per 100 km.

Since a 2021 executive order, the Environmental Protection Agency sets CO₂ targets, now at 119 gCO₂/km.

Many policies at State level, e.g. 38 States have a Renewable Portfolio Standard on electricity mix.

Both standards allow firms to comply by purchasing credits from overperforming firms.

In 2022, the Inflation Reduction Acts (IRA) introduced a vast program of subsidies:

Tax credits for clean electricity: either \$27.5/MWh on first 10 years or 30% of investment costs.

Climate policy of the United States

Since 1975, the Corporate Average Fuel Economy (CAFE) standards regulate new cars' emissions.

Fines on car manufacturers whose new vehicles exceed a norm, now averaging at 6 L per 100 km.

Since a 2021 executive order, the Environmental Protection Agency sets CO₂ targets, now at 119 gCO₂/km.

Many policies at State level, e.g. 38 States have a Renewable Portfolio Standard on electricity mix.

Both standards allow firms to comply by purchasing credits from overperforming firms.

In 2022, the Inflation Reduction Acts (IRA) introduced a vast program of subsidies:

Tax credits for clean electricity: either \$27.5/MWh on first 10 years or 30% of investment costs.

Subsidy rate 5 times lower if wage requirements are not met; bonus (up to 70% of costs) if project in low-income, energy community or sourced with U.S. materials.

Climate policy of the United States

Since 1975, the Corporate Average Fuel Economy (CAFE) standards regulate new cars' emissions.

Fines on car manufacturers whose new vehicles exceed a norm, now averaging at 6 L per 100 km.

Since a 2021 executive order, the Environmental Protection Agency sets CO₂ targets, now at 119 gCO₂/km.

Many policies at State level, e.g. 38 States have a Renewable Portfolio Standard on electricity mix.

Both standards allow firms to comply by purchasing credits from overperforming firms.

In 2022, the Inflation Reduction Acts (IRA) introduced a vast program of subsidies:

Tax credits for clean electricity: either \$27.5/MWh on first 10 years or 30% of investment costs.

Subsidy rate 5 times lower if wage requirements are not met; bonus (up to 70% of costs) if project in low-income, energy community or sourced with U.S. materials.

Scales up and extends tax credits created in 2005 until power mix is 75% low-carbon.

Climate policy of the United States

Since 1975, the Corporate Average Fuel Economy (CAFE) standards regulate new cars' emissions.

Fines on car manufacturers whose new vehicles exceed a norm, now averaging at 6 L per 100 km.

Since a 2021 executive order, the Environmental Protection Agency sets CO₂ targets, now at 119 gCO₂/km.

Many policies at State level, e.g. 38 States have a Renewable Portfolio Standard on electricity mix.

Both standards allow firms to comply by purchasing credits from overperforming firms.

In 2022, the Inflation Reduction Acts (IRA) introduced a vast program of subsidies:

Tax credits for clean electricity: either \$27.5/MWh on first 10 years or 30% of investment costs.

Subsidy rate 5 times lower if wage requirements are not met; bonus (up to 70% of costs) if project in low-income, energy community or sourced with U.S. materials.

Scales up and extends tax credits created in 2005 until power mix is 75% low-carbon.

Subsidies for production of wind, solar, battery, nuclear, green hydrogen, sustainable aviation fuel.

Climate policy of the United States

Figure 21: US Solar module <50% cheaper than China modules with tax credits

Utility solar module cost, US\$/W



US module mfg cost, US\$/W (no subsidy) US module mfg cost, US\$/W (w/ 45X) China module Cost

Climate policy of the United States

Since 1975, the Corporate Average Fuel Economy (CAFE) standards regulate new cars' emissions.

Fines on car manufacturers whose new vehicles exceed a norm, now averaging at 6 L per 100 km.

Since a 2021 executive order, the Environmental Protection Agency sets CO₂ targets, now at 119 gCO₂/km.

Many policies at State level, e.g. 38 States have a Renewable Portfolio Standard on electricity mix.

Both standards allow firms to comply by purchasing credits from overperforming firms.

In 2022, the Inflation Reduction Acts (IRA) introduced a vast program of subsidies:

Tax credits for clean electricity: either \$27.5/MWh on first 10 years or 30% of investment costs.

Subsidy rate 5 times lower if wage requirements are not met; bonus (up to 70% of costs) if project in low-income, energy community or sourced with U.S. materials.

Scales up and extends tax credits created in 2005 until power mix is 75% low-carbon.

Subsidies for production of wind, solar, battery, nuclear, green hydrogen, sustainable aviation fuel.

Subsidies for Carbon Sequestration and Storage (CSS): \$85/tCO₂, \$180/t for Direct Air Capture.

Climate policy of the United States

Since 1975, the Corporate Average Fuel Economy (CAFE) standards regulate new cars' emissions.

Fines on car manufacturers whose new vehicles exceed a norm, now averaging at 6 L per 100 km.

Since a 2021 executive order, the Environmental Protection Agency sets CO₂ targets, now at 119 gCO₂/km.

Many policies at State level, e.g. 38 States have a Renewable Portfolio Standard on electricity mix.

Both standards allow firms to comply by purchasing credits from overperforming firms.

In 2022, the Inflation Reduction Acts (IRA) introduced a vast program of subsidies:

Tax credits for clean electricity: either \$27.5/MWh on first 10 years or 30% of investment costs.

Subsidy rate 5 times lower if wage requirements are not met; bonus (up to 70% of costs) if project in low-income, energy community or sourced with U.S. materials.

Scales up and extends tax credits created in 2005 until power mix is 75% low-carbon.

Subsidies for production of wind, solar, battery, nuclear, green hydrogen, sustainable aviation fuel.

Subsidies for Carbon Sequestration and Storage (CSS): \$85/tCO₂, \$180/t for Direct Air Capture.

Subsidy of \$7,500 per Electric Vehicle (EV), half is conditioned on critical mineral coming from a trade ally.

Climate policy of the United States

Since 1975, the Corporate Average Fuel Economy (CAFE) standards regulate new cars' emissions.

Fines on car manufacturers whose new vehicles exceed a norm, now averaging at 6 L per 100 km.

Since a 2021 executive order, the Environmental Protection Agency sets CO₂ targets, now at 119 gCO₂/km.

Many policies at State level, e.g. 38 States have a Renewable Portfolio Standard on electricity mix.

Both standards allow firms to comply by purchasing credits from overperforming firms.

In 2022, the Inflation Reduction Acts (IRA) introduced a vast program of subsidies:

Tax credits for clean electricity: either \$27.5/MWh on first 10 years or 30% of investment costs.

Subsidy rate 5 times lower if wage requirements are not met; bonus (up to 70% of costs) if project in low-income, energy community or sourced with U.S. materials.

Scales up and extends tax credits created in 2005 until power mix is 75% low-carbon.

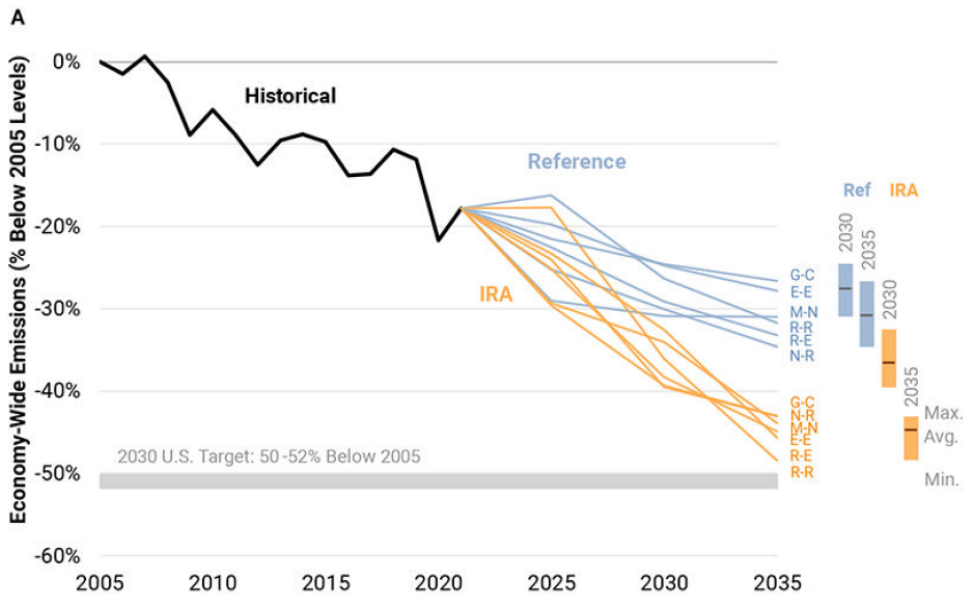
Subsidies for production of wind, solar, battery, nuclear, green hydrogen, sustainable aviation fuel.

Subsidies for Carbon Sequestration and Storage (CSS): \$85/tCO₂, \$180/t for Direct Air Capture.

Subsidy of \$7,500 per Electric Vehicle (EV), half is conditioned on critical mineral coming from a trade ally.

10 years of tax credits for heat pumps (max \$2,000), energy efficiency upgrades, rooftop solar power.

Climate policy of the United States



Climate policy of the United States

Since 1975, the Corporate Average Fuel Economy (CAFE) standards regulate new cars' emissions.

Fines on car manufacturers whose new vehicles exceed a norm, now averaging at 6 L per 100 km.

Since a 2021 executive order, the Environmental Protection Agency sets CO₂ targets, now at 119 gCO₂/km.

Many policies at State level, e.g. 38 States have a Renewable Portfolio Standard on electricity mix.

Both standards allow firms to comply by purchasing credits from overperforming firms.

In 2022, the Inflation Reduction Acts (IRA) introduced a vast program of subsidies:

Tax credits for clean electricity: either \$27.5/MWh on first 10 years or 30% of investment costs.

Subsidy rate 5 times lower if wage requirements are not met; bonus (up to 70% of costs) if project in low-income, energy community or sourced with U.S. materials.

Scales up and extends tax credits created in 2005 until power mix is 75% low-carbon.

Subsidies for production of wind, solar, battery, nuclear, green hydrogen, sustainable aviation fuel.

Subsidies for Carbon Sequestration and Storage (CSS): \$85/tCO₂, \$180/t for Direct Air Capture.

Subsidy of \$7,500 per Electric Vehicle (EV), half is conditioned on critical mineral coming from a trade ally.

10 years of tax credits for heat pumps (max \$2,000), energy efficiency upgrades, rooftop solar power.

Paid by drug price negotiations, enhanced tax collection, higher corporate tax, tax on stock buybacks.

Climate policy of the United States

Figure 10. Average Household Benefits and Costs (2030)



Climate policy of the European Union

Since the 2020 **EU Green Deal**, the EU is **Fit for 55%** of emissions reduction from 1990.

Climate policy of the European Union

Since the 2020 EU Green Deal, the EU is Fit for 55% of emissions reduction from 1990.

Car emissions standard become more stringent, down to zero emissions in 2035.

Climate policy of the European Union

Since the 2020 **EU Green Deal**, the EU is **Fit for 55%** of emissions reduction from 1990.

Car emissions standard become more stringent, **down to zero** emissions **in 2035**.

Compulsory retrofit of the 40% least efficient non-residential buildings by 2034; standards on new buildings.

Climate policy of the European Union

Since the 2020 **EU Green Deal**, the EU is **Fit for 55%** of emissions reduction from 1990.

Car emissions standard become more stringent, **down to zero** emissions **in 2035**.

Compulsory retrofit of the 40% least efficient non-residential buildings by 2034; standards on new buildings.

The first **Emissions Trading System (ETS)**, **covering electricity and industry**, becomes more stringent, with new **quotas down to zero in 2039**.

Climate policy of the European Union

Since the 2020 **EU Green Deal**, the EU is **Fit for 55%** of emissions reduction from 1990.

Car emissions standard become more stringent, **down to zero** emissions **in 2035**.

Compulsory retrofit of the 40% least efficient non-residential buildings by 2034; standards on new buildings.

The first **Emissions Trading System (ETS)**, **covering electricity and industry**, becomes more stringent, with new **quotas down to zero in 2039**.

ETS2 will start in 2027, capping emissions from **road transport and buildings**.

Climate policy of the European Union

Since the 2020 **EU Green Deal**, the EU is **Fit for 55%** of emissions reduction from 1990.

Car emissions standard become more stringent, **down to zero** emissions **in 2035**.

Compulsory retrofit of the 40% least efficient non-residential buildings by 2034; standards on new buildings.

The first **Emissions Trading System (ETS)**, **covering electricity and industry**, becomes more stringent, with new **quotas down to zero in 2039**.

ETS2 will start in 2027, capping emissions from **road transport and buildings**.

ETS2 revenues will finance low-carbon subsidies for vulnerable households (more in Eastern Europe).

Climate policy of the European Union

Since the 2020 **EU Green Deal**, the EU is **Fit for 55%** of emissions reduction from 1990.

Car emissions standard become more stringent, **down to zero emissions in 2035**.

Compulsory retrofit of the 40% least efficient non-residential buildings by 2034; standards on new buildings.

The first **Emissions Trading System (ETS)**, **covering electricity and industry**, becomes more stringent, with new **quotas down to zero in 2039**.

ETS2 will start in 2027, capping emissions from **road transport and buildings**.

ETS2 revenues will finance low-carbon subsidies for vulnerable households (more in Eastern Europe).

A **Carbon Border Adjustment Mechanism**, phased in over 2026–34, will apply the carbon price to imports.

Climate policy of the European Union

Since the 2020 **EU Green Deal**, the EU is **Fit for 55%** of emissions reduction from 1990.

Car emissions standard become more stringent, **down to zero emissions in 2035**.

Compulsory retrofit of the 40% least efficient non-residential buildings by 2034; standards on new buildings.

The first **Emissions Trading System (ETS)**, **covering electricity and industry**, becomes more stringent, with new **quotas down to zero in 2039**.

ETS2 will start in 2027, capping emissions from **road transport and buildings**.

ETS2 revenues will finance low-carbon subsidies for vulnerable households (more in Eastern Europe).

A **Carbon Border Adjustment Mechanism**, phased in over 2026–34, will apply the carbon price to imports.

Progressively increasing standards for sustainable fuel in aviation and maritime.

Climate policy of the European Union

Since the 2020 **EU Green Deal**, the EU is **Fit for 55%** of emissions reduction from 1990.

Car emissions standard become more stringent, **down to zero emissions in 2035**.

Compulsory retrofit of the 40% least efficient non-residential buildings by 2034; standards on new buildings.

The first **Emissions Trading System (ETS)**, **covering electricity and industry**, becomes more stringent, with new **quotas down to zero in 2039**.

ETS2 will start in 2027, capping emissions from **road transport and buildings**.

ETS2 revenues will finance low-carbon subsidies for vulnerable households (more in Eastern Europe).

A **Carbon Border Adjustment Mechanism**, phased in over 2026–34, will apply the carbon price to imports.

Progressively increasing standards for sustainable fuel in aviation and maritime.

Member States face **national targets** for non-ETS1 emissions, can buy quotas from overperforming States.

Climate policy of the European Union

Since the 2020 **EU Green Deal**, the EU is **Fit for 55%** of emissions reduction from 1990.

Car emissions standard become more stringent, **down to zero emissions in 2035**.

Compulsory retrofit of the 40% least efficient non-residential buildings by 2034; standards on new buildings.

The first **Emissions Trading System (ETS)**, **covering electricity and industry**, becomes more stringent, with new **quotas down to zero in 2039**.

ETS2 will start in 2027, capping emissions from **road transport and buildings**.

ETS2 revenues will finance low-carbon subsidies for vulnerable households (more in Eastern Europe).

A **Carbon Border Adjustment Mechanism**, phased in over 2026–34, will apply the carbon price to imports.

Progressively increasing standards for sustainable fuel in aviation and maritime.

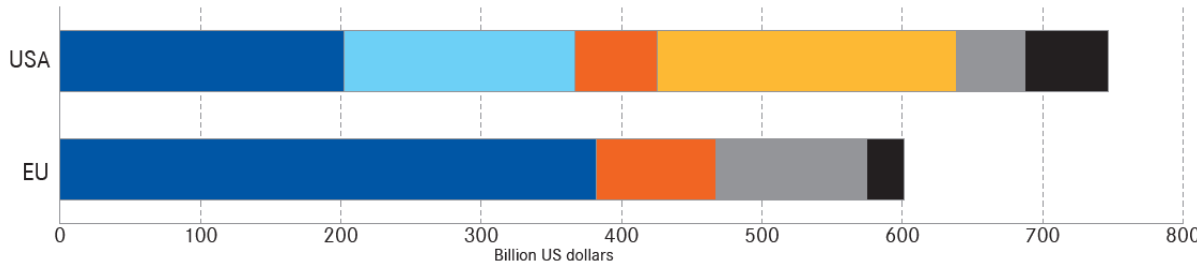
Member States face **national targets** for non-ETS1 emissions, can buy quotas from overperforming States.

In response to the Covid recession, energy crisis and IRA, the EU developed an industrial plan:

Climate policy of the European Union

EU investments are comparable to U.S. ones: $\approx 0.3\%$ of GDP for 10 years.

Breakdown by sector



■ Energy ■ Manufacturing ■ Transportation ■ Not broken down

Additional tax credits according to Credit Suisse estimate: ■ Energy ■ Manufacturing

Climate policy of the European Union

Since the 2020 **EU Green Deal**, the EU is **Fit for 55%** of emissions reduction from 1990.

Car emissions standard become more stringent, **down to zero emissions in 2035**.

Compulsory retrofit of the 40% least efficient non-residential buildings by 2034; standards on new buildings.

The first **Emissions Trading System (ETS)**, **covering electricity and industry**, becomes more stringent, with new **quotas down to zero in 2039**.

ETS2 will start in 2027, capping emissions from **road transport and buildings**.

ETS2 revenues will finance low-carbon subsidies for vulnerable households (more in Eastern Europe).

A **Carbon Border Adjustment Mechanism**, phased in over 2026–34, will apply the carbon price to imports.

Progressively increasing standards for sustainable fuel in aviation and maritime.

Member States face **national targets** for non-ETS1 emissions, can buy quotas from overperforming States.

In response to the Covid recession, energy crisis and IRA, the EU developed an industrial plan:

\$560 billion of **subsidies** and investments in low-carbon projects over 2021–2030, financed by public debt.

Climate policy of the European Union

Since the 2020 **EU Green Deal**, the EU is **Fit for 55%** of emissions reduction from 1990.

Car emissions standard become more stringent, **down to zero emissions in 2035**.

Compulsory retrofit of the 40% least efficient non-residential buildings by 2034; standards on new buildings.

The first **Emissions Trading System (ETS)**, **covering electricity and industry**, becomes more stringent, with new **quotas down to zero in 2039**.

ETS2 will start in 2027, capping emissions from **road transport and buildings**.

ETS2 revenues will finance low-carbon subsidies for vulnerable households (more in Eastern Europe).

A **Carbon Border Adjustment Mechanism**, phased in over 2026–34, will apply the carbon price to imports.

Progressively increasing standards for sustainable fuel in aviation and maritime.

Member States face **national targets** for non-ETS1 emissions, can buy quotas from overperforming States.

In response to the Covid recession, energy crisis and IRA, the EU developed an industrial plan:

\$560 billion of **subsidies** and investments in low-carbon projects over 2021–2030, financed by public debt.

Streamlined process to access funding and have a project approved.

Climate policy of the European Union

Since the 2020 **EU Green Deal**, the EU is **Fit for 55%** of emissions reduction from 1990.

Car emissions standard become more stringent, **down to zero emissions in 2035**.

Compulsory retrofit of the 40% least efficient non-residential buildings by 2034; standards on new buildings.

The first **Emissions Trading System (ETS)**, **covering electricity and industry**, becomes more stringent, with new **quotas down to zero in 2039**.

ETS2 will start in 2027, capping emissions from **road transport and buildings**.

ETS2 revenues will finance low-carbon subsidies for vulnerable households (more in Eastern Europe).

A **Carbon Border Adjustment Mechanism**, phased in over 2026–34, will apply the carbon price to imports.

Progressively increasing standards for sustainable fuel in aviation and maritime.

Member States face **national targets** for non-ETS1 emissions, can buy quotas from overperforming States.

In response to the Covid recession, energy crisis and IRA, the EU developed an industrial plan:

\$560 billion of **subsidies** and investments in low-carbon projects over 2021–2030, financed by public debt.

Streamlined process to access funding and have a project approved.

Comprehensive plan, but short on climate justice, agriculture, and extra-EU aviation.

Climate policy of the European Union

Since the 2020 **EU Green Deal**, the EU is **Fit for 55%** of emissions reduction from 1990.

Car emissions standard become more stringent, **down to zero emissions in 2035**.

Compulsory retrofit of the 40% least efficient non-residential buildings by 2034; standards on new buildings.

The first **Emissions Trading System (ETS)**, **covering electricity and industry**, becomes more stringent, with new **quotas down to zero in 2039**.

ETS2 will start in 2027, capping emissions from **road transport and buildings**.

ETS2 revenues will finance low-carbon subsidies for vulnerable households (more in Eastern Europe).

A **Carbon Border Adjustment Mechanism**, phased in over 2026–34, will apply the carbon price to imports.

Progressively increasing standards for sustainable fuel in aviation and maritime.

Member States face **national targets** for non-ETS1 emissions, can buy quotas from overperforming States.

In response to the Covid recession, energy crisis and IRA, the EU developed an industrial plan:

\$560 billion of **subsidies** and investments in low-carbon projects over 2021–2030, financed by public debt.

Streamlined process to access funding and have a project approved.

Comprehensive plan, but short on climate justice, agriculture, and extra-EU aviation.

A Conservative + Far right alliance risks overturning it \Rightarrow upcoming EU elections are key.

Climate policy mix in China, U.S., EU.

| | China | U.S. | EU |
|---|-------|------|----|
| Carbon pricing | ✓ | | ✓ |
| Subsidies to households | ? | ✓ | ✓ |
| Subsidies to industry, investments | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| Credit controls/incentives | ✓ | ≈ | ≈ |
| Production/shutdown decisions | ✓ | ≈ | ≈ |
| Renewable energy auctions | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| CO ₂ car emissions standards | | ✓ | ✓ |
| Other norms or standards | ✓ | ? | ✓ |
| Bans | ? | | ≈ |
| Strong policy on food/agriculture | ? | | |

Climate policy in theory

Rationale and limitations of carbon pricing

Carbon-emitting activities entail a private benefit and external costs (climate damages).

Rationale and limitations of carbon pricing

Carbon-emitting activities entail a private benefit and external costs (climate damages).

Pigou (1920) showed that the externality is optimally internalized by setting a price on pollution at the level of the social cost it entails.

Rationale and limitations of carbon pricing

Carbon-emitting activities entail a private benefit and external costs (climate damages).

Pigou (1920) showed that the externality is optimally internalized by setting a price on pollution at the level of the social cost it entails.

⇒ Rational agents engage in the activity iff its private benefits exceed its total costs (private + social).

Rationale and limitations of carbon pricing

Carbon-emitting activities entail a private benefit and external costs (climate damages).

Pigou (1920) showed that the externality is optimally internalized by setting a price on pollution at the level of the social cost it entails.

⇒ Rational agents engage in the activity iff its private benefits exceed its total costs (private + social).

This basic efficiency result rests on several assumptions, including:

Rationale and limitations of carbon pricing

Carbon-emitting activities entail a private benefit and external costs (climate damages).

Pigou (1920) showed that the externality is optimally internalized by setting a price on pollution at the level of the social cost it entails.

⇒ Rational agents engage in the activity iff its private benefits exceed its total costs (private + social).

This basic efficiency result rests on several assumptions, including:

No other imperfection than the climate externality. In particular, optimal income distribution.

Rationale and limitations of carbon pricing

Carbon-emitting activities entail a private benefit and external costs (climate damages).

Pigou (1920) showed that the externality is optimally internalized by setting a price on pollution at the level of the social cost it entails.

⇒ Rational agents engage in the activity iff its private benefits exceed its total costs (private + social).

This basic efficiency result rests on several assumptions, including:

No other imperfection than the climate externality. In particular, optimal income distribution.

Rational agents maximizing their consumption.

Rationale and limitations of carbon pricing

Carbon-emitting activities entail a private benefit and external costs (climate damages).

Pigou (1920) showed that the externality is optimally internalized by setting a price on pollution at the level of the social cost it entails.

⇒ Rational agents engage in the activity iff its private benefits exceed its total costs (private + social).

This basic efficiency result rests on several assumptions, including:

No other imperfection than the climate externality. In particular, optimal income distribution.

Rational agents maximizing their consumption.

In high- and upper-middle income countries, carbon-pricing alone is regressive.

Rationale and limitations of carbon pricing

Carbon-emitting activities entail a private benefit and external costs (climate damages).

Pigou (1920) showed that the externality is optimally internalized by setting a price on pollution at the level of the social cost it entails.

⇒ Rational agents engage in the activity iff its private benefits exceed its total costs (private + social).

This basic efficiency result rests on several assumptions, including:

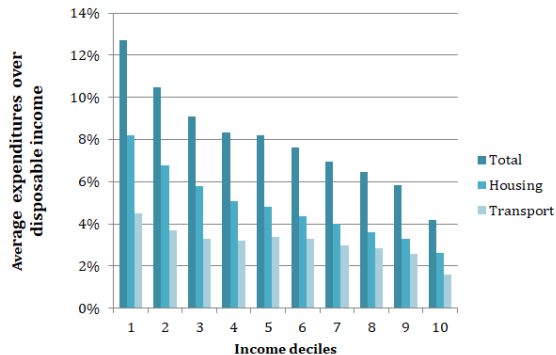
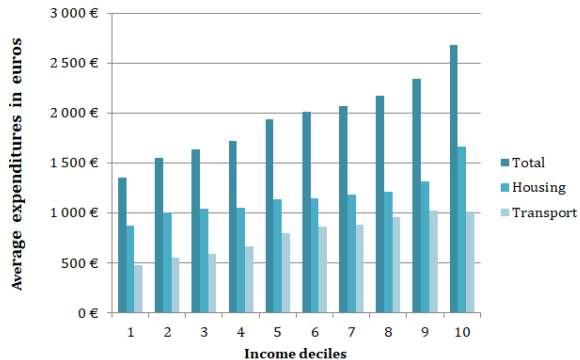
No other imperfection than the climate externality. In particular, optimal income distribution.

Rational agents maximizing their consumption.

In high- and upper-middle income countries, carbon-pricing alone is regressive.

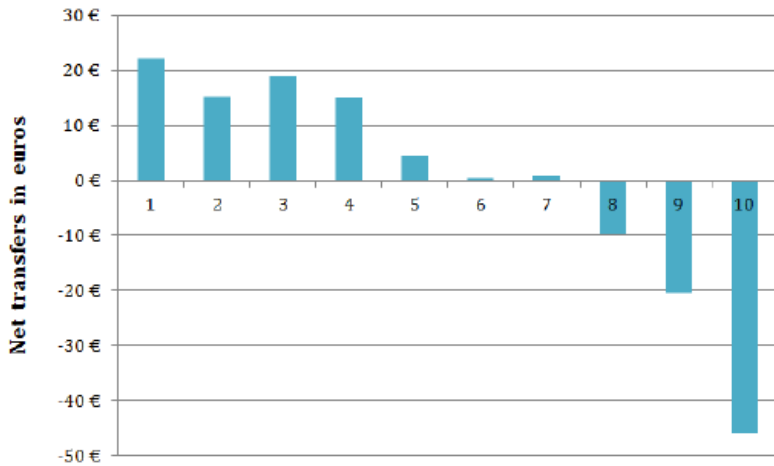
Rationale and limitations of carbon pricing

Figure 1: Households' annual expenditures in energy per c.u. (left) and as a share of their disposable income (right) in 2016, by income decile



Rationale and limitations of carbon pricing

Figure 5: Average net transfers per c.u. after flat-recycling, by income decile



Rationale and limitations of carbon pricing

Carbon-emitting activities entail a private benefit and external costs (climate damages).

Pigou (1920) showed that the externality is optimally internalized by setting a price on pollution at the level of the social cost it entails.

⇒ Rational agents engage in the activity iff its private benefits exceed its total costs (private + social).

This basic efficiency result rests on several assumptions, including:

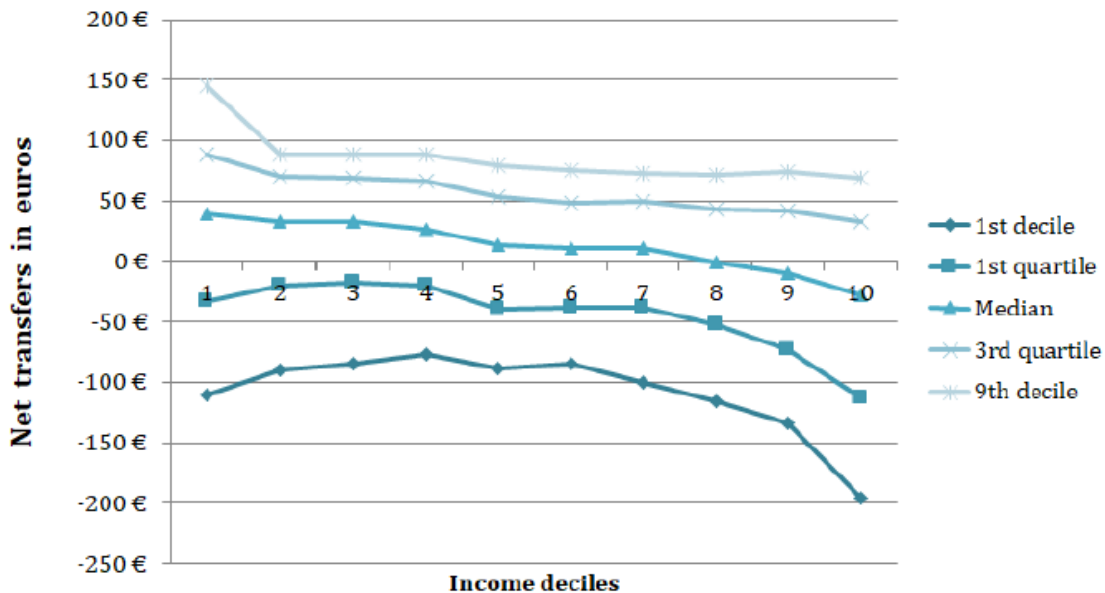
No other imperfection than the climate externality. In particular, optimal income distribution.

Rational agents maximizing their consumption.

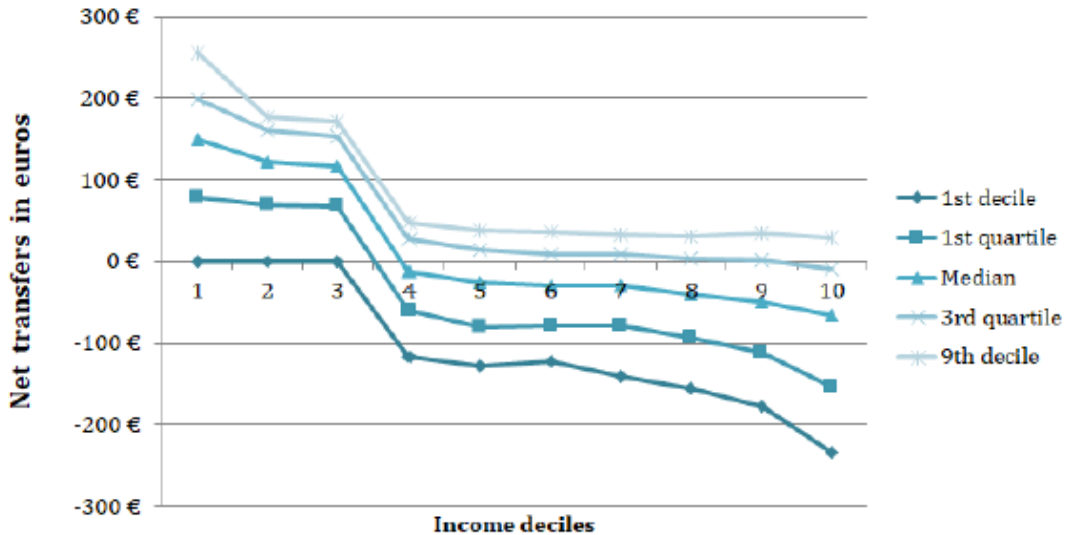
In high- and upper-middle income countries, carbon-pricing alone is regressive.

⇒ But rebating carbon pricing revenues equally makes it progressive.

Rationale and limitations of carbon pricing



Rationale and limitations of carbon pricing



Determining the optimal carbon price

Two approaches to set the value of the carbon price:

Determining the optimal carbon price

Two approaches to set the value of the carbon price:

Cost-benefit analysis: intertemporal welfare maximization, e.g. utilitarianism: $\max \sum_t \frac{1}{(1+\rho)^t} u(C_t)$. It uses an **Integrated Assessment Model**, based on four elements:

Determining the optimal carbon price

Two approaches to set the value of the carbon price:

Cost-benefit analysis: intertemporal welfare maximization, e.g. utilitarianism: $\max \sum_t \frac{1}{(1+\rho)^t} u(C_t)$. It uses an **Integrated Assessment Model**, based on four elements:

1. **Ethical assumptions:** weights given to different generations, countries, inequality, riskiness, population size.

Determining the optimal carbon price

Two approaches to set the value of the carbon price:

Cost-benefit analysis: intertemporal welfare maximization, e.g. utilitarianism: $\max \sum_t \frac{1}{(1+\rho)^t} u(C_t)$. It uses an **Integrated Assessment Model**, based on four elements:

1. **Ethical assumptions:** weights given to different generations, countries, inequality, riskiness, population size.
2. **Climate and economic dynamics**, e.g. temperature proportional to cumulative emissions.

Determining the optimal carbon price

Two approaches to set the value of the carbon price:

Cost-benefit analysis: intertemporal welfare maximization, e.g. utilitarianism: $\max \sum_t \frac{1}{(1+\rho)^t} u(C_t)$. It uses an **Integrated Assessment Model**, based on four elements:

1. **Ethical assumptions:** weights given to different generations, countries, inequality, riskiness, population size.
2. **Climate and economic dynamics**, e.g. temperature proportional to cumulative emissions.
3. **Damage function:** the cost of additional emissions or temperature, e.g. $C_t = (1 - e^{-d \cdot T_t}) Y_t$.

Determining the optimal carbon price

Two approaches to set the value of the carbon price:

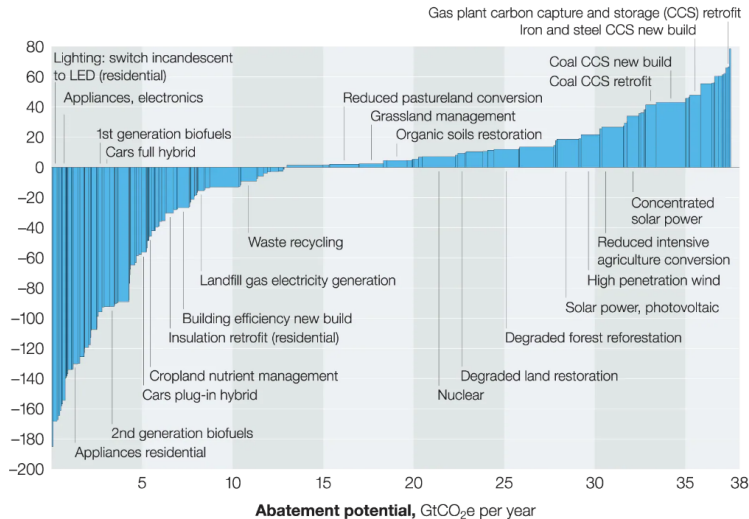
Cost-benefit analysis: intertemporal welfare maximization, e.g. utilitarianism: $\max \sum_t \frac{1}{(1+\rho)^t} u(C_t)$. It uses an **Integrated Assessment Model**, based on four elements:

1. **Ethical assumptions:** weights given to different generations, countries, inequality, riskiness, population size.
2. **Climate and economic dynamics**, e.g. temperature proportional to cumulative emissions.
3. **Damage function:** the cost of additional emissions or temperature, e.g. $C_t = (1 - e^{-d \cdot T_t}) Y_t$.
4. The Marginal **Abatement Cost** Curve (MACC): the price needed to achieve a given abatement target.

Determining the optimal carbon price

Marginal Abatement Cost Curve (McKinsey, 2017).

Abatement cost, € per tCO₂e



Determining the optimal carbon price

Two approaches to set the value of the carbon price:

Cost-benefit analysis: intertemporal welfare maximization, e.g. utilitarianism: $\max \sum_t \frac{1}{(1+\rho)^t} u(C_t)$. It uses an **Integrated Assessment Model**, based on four elements:

1. **Ethical assumptions:** weights given to different generations, countries, inequality, riskiness, population size.
 2. **Climate and economic dynamics**, e.g. temperature proportional to cumulative emissions.
 3. **Damage function:** the cost of additional emissions or temperature, e.g. $C_t = (1 - e^{-d \cdot T_t}) Y_t$.
 4. The Marginal **Abatement Cost** Curve (MACC): the price needed to achieve a given abatement target.
- At the optimum, the marginal benefit of emissions equals the **Social Cost of Carbon** (SCC).

Determining the optimal carbon price

Two approaches to set the value of the carbon price:

Cost-benefit analysis: intertemporal welfare maximization, e.g. utilitarianism: $\max \sum_t \frac{1}{(1+\rho)^t} u(C_t)$. It uses an **Integrated Assessment Model**, based on four elements:

1. **Ethical assumptions:** weights given to different generations, countries, inequality, riskiness, population size.
2. **Climate and economic dynamics**, e.g. temperature proportional to cumulative emissions.
3. **Damage function:** the cost of additional emissions or temperature, e.g. $C_t = (1 - e^{-d \cdot T_t}) Y_t$.
4. The Marginal **Abatement Cost** Curve (MACC): the price needed to achieve a given abatement target.

At the optimum, the marginal benefit of emissions equals the **Social Cost of Carbon** (SCC).

In many models, the SCC is proportional to GDP. In the simplest/above case, with logarithmic utility and constant population: $SCC_t = d \cdot Y_t / \rho$ where $\rho > 0$ is how much we discount future generations (Golosov et al., 2014).

Determining the optimal carbon price

Two approaches to set the value of the carbon price:

Cost-benefit analysis: intertemporal welfare maximization, e.g. utilitarianism: $\max \sum_t \frac{1}{(1+\rho)^t} u(C_t)$. It uses an **Integrated Assessment Model**, based on four elements:

1. **Ethical assumptions:** weights given to different generations, countries, inequality, riskiness, population size.
2. **Climate and economic dynamics**, e.g. temperature proportional to cumulative emissions.
3. **Damage function:** the cost of additional emissions or temperature, e.g. $C_t = (1 - e^{-d \cdot T_t}) Y_t$.
4. The Marginal **Abatement Cost** Curve (MACC): the price needed to achieve a given abatement target.

At the optimum, the marginal benefit of emissions equals the **Social Cost of Carbon** (SCC).

In many models, the SCC is proportional to GDP. In the simplest/above case, with logarithmic utility and constant population: $SCC_t = d \cdot Y_t / \rho$ where $\rho > 0$ is how much we discount future generations (Golosov et al., 2014).

Cost-efficiency: first set the climate goal, then find the least cost carbon price trajectory satisfying the goal.

Determining the optimal carbon price

Two approaches to set the value of the carbon price:

Cost-benefit analysis: intertemporal welfare maximization, e.g. utilitarianism: $\max \sum_t \frac{1}{(1+\rho)^t} u(C_t)$. It uses an **Integrated Assessment Model**, based on four elements:

1. **Ethical assumptions:** weights given to different generations, countries, inequality, riskiness, population size.
2. **Climate and economic dynamics**, e.g. temperature proportional to cumulative emissions.
3. **Damage function:** the cost of additional emissions or temperature, e.g. $C_t = (1 - e^{-d \cdot T_t}) Y_t$.
4. The Marginal **Abatement Cost** Curve (MACC): the price needed to achieve a given abatement target.

At the optimum, the marginal benefit of emissions equals the **Social Cost of Carbon** (SCC).

In many models, the SCC is proportional to GDP. In the simplest/above case, with logarithmic utility and constant population: $SCC_t = d \cdot Y_t / \rho$ where $\rho > 0$ is how much we discount future generations (Golosov et al., 2014).

Cost-efficiency: first set the climate goal, then find the least cost carbon price trajectory satisfying the goal.

Only needs the MACC.

Determining the optimal carbon price

Two approaches to set the value of the carbon price:

Cost-benefit analysis: intertemporal welfare maximization, e.g. utilitarianism: $\max \sum_t \frac{1}{(1+\rho)^t} u(C_t)$. It uses an **Integrated Assessment Model**, based on four elements:

1. **Ethical assumptions:** weights given to different generations, countries, inequality, riskiness, population size.
2. **Climate and economic dynamics**, e.g. temperature proportional to cumulative emissions.
3. **Damage function:** the cost of additional emissions or temperature, e.g. $C_t = (1 - e^{-d \cdot T_t}) Y_t$.
4. The Marginal **Abatement Cost** Curve (MACC): the price needed to achieve a given abatement target.

At the optimum, the marginal benefit of emissions equals the **Social Cost of Carbon** (SCC).

In many models, the SCC is proportional to GDP. In the simplest/above case, with logarithmic utility and constant population: $SCC_t = d \cdot Y_t / \rho$ where $\rho > 0$ is how much we discount future generations (Golosov et al., 2014).

Cost-efficiency: first set the climate goal, then find the least cost carbon price trajectory satisfying the goal.

Only needs the MACC.

Suboptimal in theory, but allows synthesizing estimates/assumptions of full-blown optimization models.

Determining the optimal carbon price

Two approaches to set the value of the carbon price:

Cost-benefit analysis: intertemporal welfare maximization, e.g. utilitarianism: $\max \sum_t \frac{1}{(1+\rho)^t} u(C_t)$. It uses an **Integrated Assessment Model**, based on four elements:

1. **Ethical assumptions:** weights given to different generations, countries, inequality, riskiness, population size.
2. **Climate and economic dynamics**, e.g. temperature proportional to cumulative emissions.
3. **Damage function:** the cost of additional emissions or temperature, e.g. $C_t = (1 - e^{-d \cdot T_t}) Y_t$.
4. The Marginal **Abatement Cost** Curve (MACC): the price needed to achieve a given abatement target.

At the optimum, the marginal benefit of emissions equals the **Social Cost of Carbon** (SCC).

In many models, the SCC is proportional to GDP. In the simplest/above case, with logarithmic utility and constant population: $SCC_t = d \cdot Y_t / \rho$ where $\rho > 0$ is how much we discount future generations (Golosov et al., 2014).

Cost-efficiency: first set the climate goal, then find the least cost carbon price trajectory satisfying the goal.

Only needs the MACC.

Suboptimal in theory, but allows synthesizing estimates/assumptions of full-blown optimization models.

Paris Agreement's **universal goal: holding global warming to well below 2°C** and pursue efforts to limit it to 1.5°C.

Determining the optimal carbon price

Two approaches to set the value of the carbon price:

Cost-benefit analysis: intertemporal welfare maximization, e.g. utilitarianism: $\max \sum_t \frac{1}{(1+\rho)^t} u(C_t)$. It uses an **Integrated Assessment Model**, based on four elements:

1. **Ethical assumptions:** weights given to different generations, countries, inequality, riskiness, population size.
2. **Climate and economic dynamics**, e.g. temperature proportional to cumulative emissions.
3. **Damage function:** the cost of additional emissions or temperature, e.g. $C_t = (1 - e^{-d \cdot T_t}) Y_t$.
4. The Marginal **Abatement Cost** Curve (MACC): the price needed to achieve a given abatement target.

At the optimum, the marginal benefit of emissions equals the **Social Cost of Carbon** (SCC).

In many models, the SCC is proportional to GDP. In the simplest/above case, with logarithmic utility and constant population: $SCC_t = d \cdot Y_t / \rho$ where $\rho > 0$ is how much we discount future generations (Golosov et al., 2014).

Cost-efficiency: first set the climate goal, then find the least cost carbon price trajectory satisfying the goal.

Only needs the MACC.

Suboptimal in theory, but allows synthesizing estimates/assumptions of full-blown optimization models.

Paris Agreement's **universal goal: holding global warming to well below 2°C** and pursue efforts to limit it to 1.5°C.

Setting a carbon budget, the carbon price grows at the rate of interest r , as the (present) value of an abatement is the same if it occurs now or later.

Pros and Cons of pricing

Pros

Cost-effective and **efficient**, as long as all emissions are priced (ensuring no leakage).

Cons

Pros and Cons of pricing

A carbon tax would be less costly than the IRA.

| | IRA | Carbon Tax |
|---|------|------------|
| <u>Generation Share (Change in pp from 2021 to 2035)</u> | | |
| Coal | -14 | -18 |
| Natural Gas | -21 | -5 |
| Coal CCS | +3 | +0 |
| Wind & Solar | +28 | +19 |
| Other | +7 | +4 |
| | | |
| CO2 (% Drop from 2005) | 68% | 68% |
| Abatement Cost (\$/t-CO2) | \$83 | \$15 |

Pros and Cons of pricing

Introducing a carbon price and repealing IRA's most costly provisions (7-FeeIRAp) would achieve U.S. climate targets.

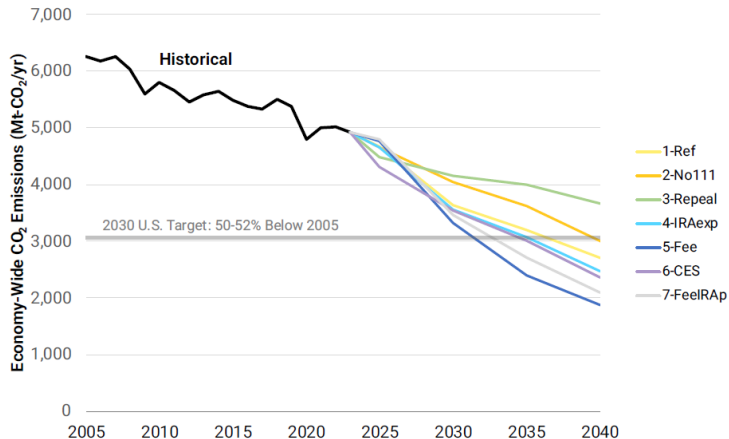


Figure 4: Historical and projected economy-wide CO₂ emissions by scenario. Emissions include gross energy and industrial process CO₂ emissions but do not include negative emissions from the land sink or non-CO₂ GHG emissions. Historical emissions come from the U.S. Environmental

Pros and Cons of pricing

Pros

Cons

Cost-effective and **efficient**, as long as all emissions are priced (ensuring no leakage).

Generate revenues.

Can be progressive.

Can reduce distortionary taxes (e.g. on labor income).

Pros and Cons of pricing

Pros

Cons

Cost-effective and **efficient**, as long as all emissions are priced (ensuring no leakage).

Generate revenues.

Can be progressive.

Can reduce distortionary taxes (e.g. on labor income).

Predictable emissions (with an ETS) or costs (with a tax).

Pros and Cons of pricing

Pros

Cons

Cost-effective and **efficient**, as long as all emissions are priced (ensuring no leakage).

Generate revenues.

Can be progressive.

Can reduce distortionary taxes (e.g. on labor income).

Predictable emissions (with an ETS) or costs (with a tax).

Resistant to corruption or regulatory capture (absent exemptions).

Pros and Cons of pricing

Pros

Cons

Cost-effective and **efficient**, as long as all emissions are priced (ensuring no leakage).

Generate revenues.

Can be progressive.

Can reduce distortionary taxes (e.g. on labor income).

Predictable emissions (with an ETS) or costs (with a tax).

Resistant to corruption or regulatory capture (absent exemptions).

Horizontal inequities.

Pros and Cons of pricing

Pros

Cost-effective and **efficient**, as long as all emissions are priced (ensuring no leakage).

Generate revenues.

Can be progressive.

Can reduce distortionary taxes (e.g. on labor income).

Predictable emissions (with an ETS) or costs (with a tax).

Resistant to corruption or regulatory capture (absent exemptions).

Cons

Horizontal inequities.

Taxpayers are not always responsible for the emissions (e.g. **landlord–tenant dilemma**).

Pros and Cons of pricing

Pros

Cost-effective and **efficient**, as long as all emissions are priced (ensuring no leakage).

Generate revenues.

Can be progressive.

Can reduce distortionary taxes (e.g. on labor income).

Predictable emissions (with an ETS) or costs (with a tax).

Resistant to corruption or regulatory capture (absent exemptions).

Cons

Horizontal inequities.

Taxpayers are not always responsible for the emissions (e.g. **landlord–tenant dilemma**).

Salient, immediate costs.

Pros and Cons of pricing

Pros

Cost-effective and **efficient**, as long as all emissions are priced (ensuring no leakage).

Generate revenues.

Can be progressive.

Can reduce distortionary taxes (e.g. on labor income).

Predictable emissions (with an ETS) or costs (with a tax).

Resistant to corruption or regulatory capture (absent exemptions).

Cons

Horizontal inequities.

Taxpayers are not always responsible for the emissions (e.g. **landlord–tenant dilemma**).

Salient, immediate costs.

National carbon pricing is **unpopular**.

Pros and Cons of pricing

Pros

Cost-effective and **efficient**, as long as all emissions are priced (ensuring no leakage).

Generate revenues.

Can be progressive.

Can reduce distortionary taxes (e.g. on labor income).

Predictable emissions (with an ETS) or costs (with a tax).

Resistant to corruption or regulatory capture (absent exemptions).

Cons

Horizontal inequities.

Taxpayers are not always responsible for the emissions (e.g. **landlord–tenant dilemma**).

Salient, immediate costs.

National carbon pricing is **unpopular**.

Emissions hard to measure in agriculture or land-use.

Pros and Cons of pricing

Pros

Cost-effective and **efficient**, as long as all emissions are priced (ensuring no leakage).

Generate revenues.

Can be progressive.

Can reduce distortionary taxes (e.g. on labor income).

Predictable emissions (with an ETS) or costs (with a tax).

Resistant to corruption or regulatory capture (absent exemptions).

Cons

Horizontal inequities.

Taxpayers are not always responsible for the emissions (e.g. **landlord–tenant dilemma**).

Salient, immediate costs.

National carbon pricing is **unpopular**.

Emissions hard to measure in agriculture or land-use.

Rely on agents optimizing their budget.

Pros and Cons of standards

Pros

Predictable path for producers

⇒ appropriate investment planning.

Cons

Pros and Cons of standards

Pros

Predictable path for producers

⇒ appropriate investment planning.

Effective even on inelastic consumers.

Cons

Pros and Cons of standards

Pros

Predictable path for producers

⇒ appropriate investment planning.

Effective even on inelastic consumers.

Costs are hidden (available products are more expensive).

Cons

Pros and Cons of standards

Pros

Predictable path for producers

⇒ appropriate investment planning.

Effective even on inelastic consumers.

Costs are hidden (available products are more expensive).

Budget can be preserved by purchasing equipment of lower quality (or borrowing).

Cons

Pros and Cons of standards

Pros

Predictable path for producers
⇒ appropriate investment planning.

Effective even on inelastic consumers.

Costs are hidden (available products are more expensive).

Budget can be preserved by purchasing equipment of lower quality (or borrowing).

Cons

Lead to excessive use if emissions during use are not priced.

Pros and Cons of standards

Pros

Predictable path for producers
⇒ appropriate investment planning.

Effective even on inelastic consumers.

Costs are hidden (available products are more expensive).

Budget can be preserved by purchasing equipment of lower quality (or borrowing).

Cons

Lead to **excessive use** if emissions during use are not priced.

Inefficient, especially in case of exemptions or attribute-based standards.

Pros and Cons of standards

Pros

Predictable path for producers
⇒ appropriate investment planning.

Effective even on inelastic consumers.

Costs are hidden (available products are more expensive).

Budget can be preserved by purchasing equipment of lower quality (or borrowing).

Cons

Lead to **excessive use** if emissions during use are not priced.

Inefficient, especially in case of exemptions or attribute-based standards.

U.S./EU car emissions standards are less stringent on SUVs, making them more attractive than they should.

Pros and Cons of standards

Pros

Predictable path for producers
⇒ appropriate investment planning.

Effective even on inelastic consumers.

Costs are hidden (available products are more expensive).

Budget can be preserved by purchasing equipment of lower quality (or borrowing).

Cons

Lead to **excessive use** if emissions during use are not priced.

Inefficient, especially in case of exemptions or attribute-based standards.

U.S./EU car emissions standards are less stringent on SUVs, making them more attractive than they should.

U.S. standards underestimate emissions from hybrid vehicles ⇒ car makes add an (unused) electric engine to comply with the standard, making the car heavier hence more polluting.

Pros and Cons of standards

Pros

Predictable path for producers
⇒ appropriate investment planning.

Effective even on inelastic consumers.

Costs are hidden (available products are more expensive).

Budget can be preserved by purchasing equipment of lower quality (or borrowing).

Cons

Lead to **excessive use** if emissions during use are not priced.

Inefficient, especially in case of exemptions or attribute-based standards.

U.S./EU car emissions standards are less stringent on SUVs, making them more attractive than they should.

U.S. standards underestimate emissions from hybrid vehicles ⇒ car makes add an (unused) electric engine to comply with the standard, making the car heavier hence more polluting.

May be regressive (e.g. U.S. car standards).

Pros and Cons of standards

Pros

Predictable path for producers
⇒ appropriate investment planning.

Effective even on inelastic consumers.

Costs are hidden (available products are more expensive).

Budget can be preserved by purchasing equipment of lower quality (or borrowing).

Cons

Lead to **excessive use** if emissions during use are not priced.

Inefficient, especially in case of exemptions or attribute-based standards.

U.S./EU car emissions standards are less stringent on SUVs, making them more attractive than they should.

U.S. standards underestimate emissions from hybrid vehicles ⇒ car makes add an (unused) electric engine to comply with the standard, making the car heavier hence more polluting.

May be regressive (e.g. U.S. car standards).

May not address horizontal inequities.

Pros and Cons of standards

Pros

Predictable path for producers
⇒ appropriate investment planning.

Effective even on inelastic consumers.

Costs are hidden (available products are more expensive).

Budget can be preserved by purchasing equipment of lower quality (or borrowing).

Cons

Lead to **excessive use** if emissions during use are not priced.

Inefficient, especially in case of exemptions or attribute-based standards.

U.S./EU car emissions standards are less stringent on SUVs, making them more attractive than they should.

U.S. standards underestimate emissions from hybrid vehicles ⇒ car makes add an (unused) electric engine to comply with the standard, making the car heavier hence more polluting.

May be regressive (e.g. U.S. car standards).

May not address horizontal inequities.

Performance tests may be inadapted or gamed.

Pros and Cons of subsidies

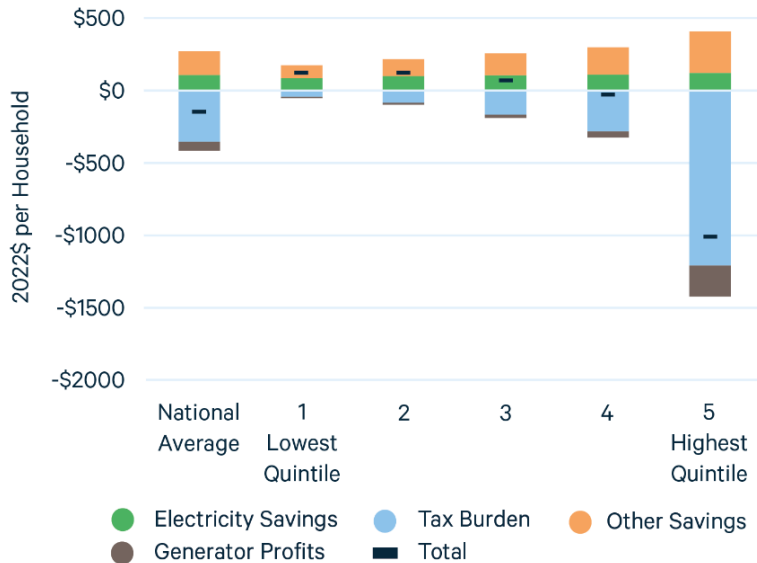
Pros

Cons

Addresses horizontal inequities.

Pros and Cons of subsidies

Figure 5. The Distribution of Changes in Ratepayer and Taxpayer Costs



Pros and Cons of subsidies

Pros

Cons

Addresses horizontal inequities.

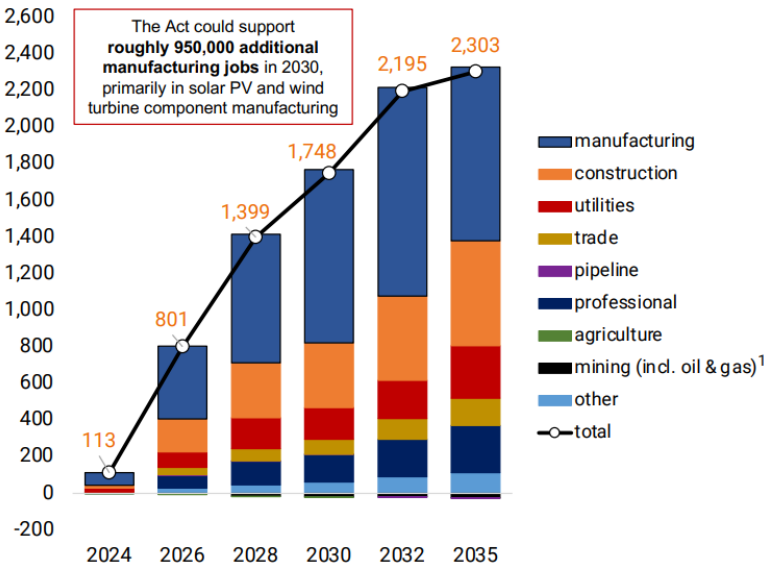
Can shift the burden on the richest.

Can stimulate demand and improve employment.

Pros and Cons of subsidies

Employment by Sector

thousand jobs



Pros and Cons of subsidies

Pros

Addresses horizontal inequities.

Can shift the burden on the richest.

Can stimulate demand and improve employment.

Popular \Rightarrow low risk of protests or repeal.

Cons

Lead to excessive use (e.g. car instead of bike).

Pros and Cons of subsidies

Pros

Addresses horizontal inequities.

Can shift the burden on the richest.

Can stimulate demand and improve employment.

Popular \Rightarrow low risk of protests or repeal.

Cons

Lead to excessive use (e.g. car instead of bike).

May be regressive (if the rich receive more subsidies).

Pros and Cons of subsidies

Pros

Addresses horizontal inequities.

Can shift the burden on the richest.

Can stimulate demand and improve employment.

Popular \Rightarrow low risk of protests or repeal.

Cons

Lead to excessive use (e.g. car instead of bike).

May be regressive (if the rich receive more subsidies).

Costs can be high as subsidies are a windfall when they do not alter behaviors (and purchase would have happened anyway).

Pros and Cons of subsidies

Pros

Addresses horizontal inequities.

Can shift the burden on the richest.

Can stimulate demand and improve employment.

Popular \Rightarrow low risk of protests or repeal.

Cons

Lead to excessive use (e.g. car instead of bike).

May be regressive (if the rich receive more subsidies).

Costs can be high as subsidies are a windfall when they do not alter behaviors (and purchase would have happened anyway).

Producers may inflate their margins and capture part of the subsidies.

Pros and Cons of subsidies

Pros

Addresses horizontal inequities.

Can shift the burden on the richest.

Can stimulate demand and improve employment.

Popular \Rightarrow low risk of protests or repeal.

Cons

Lead to excessive use (e.g. car instead of bike).

May be regressive (if the rich receive more subsidies).

Costs can be high as subsidies are a windfall when they do not alter behaviors (and purchase would have happened anyway).

Producers may inflate their margins and capture part of the subsidies.

Products sold may be of low quality (as consumers care less).

Pros and Cons of subsidies

Pros

Addresses horizontal inequities.

Can shift the burden on the richest.

Can stimulate demand and improve employment.

Popular \Rightarrow low risk of protests or repeal.

Cons

Lead to excessive use (e.g. car instead of bike).

May be regressive (if the rich receive more subsidies).

Costs can be high as subsidies are a windfall when they do not alter behaviors (and purchase would have happened anyway).

Producers may inflate their margins and capture part of the subsidies.

Products sold may be of low quality (as consumers care less).

Bureaucratic requirements may be inadapted or gamed.

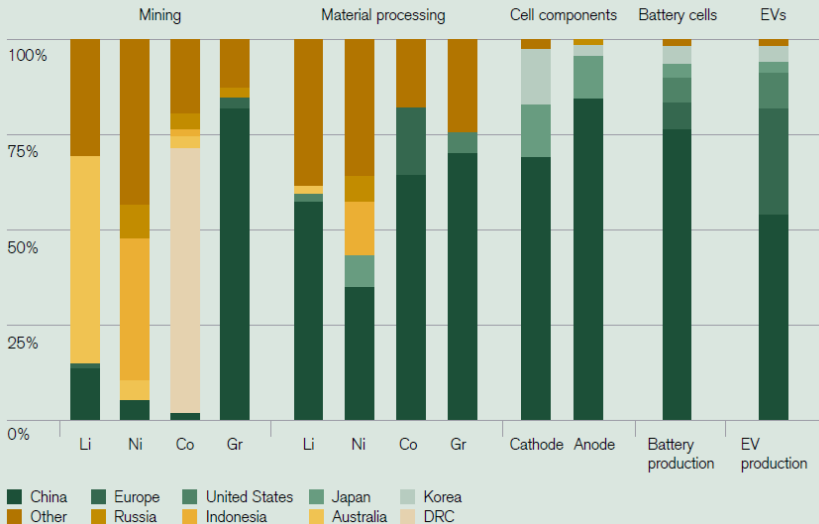
Pros and Cons of central planning

Pros

Allows **long-term optimization** and in-depth coordination.

Pros and Cons of central planning

Figure 24: Geographical distribution of the global EV battery supply chain: China dominates cell and material components



Pros and Cons of central planning

Pros

Cons

Allows **long-term optimization** and in-depth coordination.

Avoids duplication of computations and decision-making.

Better if information can be standardized and centralized; and if investments need coordination as they strongly interact.

⇒ **Adapted to large investment decisions** in electricity and infrastructure.

Pros and Cons of central planning

Pros

Cons

Allows **long-term optimization** and in-depth coordination.

Avoids duplication of computations and decision-making.

Better if information can be standardized and centralized; and if investments need coordination as they strongly interact.

⇒ **Adapted to large investment decisions** in electricity and infrastructure.

Can address horizontal and geographical inequities.

Pros and Cons of central planning

Pros

Allows **long-term optimization** and in-depth coordination.

Avoids duplication of computations and decision-making.

Better if information can be standardized and centralized; and if investments need coordination as they strongly interact.

⇒ **Adapted to large investment decisions** in electricity and infrastructure.

Can address horizontal and geographical inequities.

Cons

Neglecting local, detailed, new knowledge can be inefficient.

Worse if the relevant constraint can be simply conveyed through one price or standard; and if local conditions vary a lot.

Pros and Cons of central planning

Pros

Allows **long-term optimization** and in-depth coordination.

Avoids duplication of computations and decision-making.

Better if information can be standardized and centralized; and if investments need coordination as they strongly interact.

⇒ **Adapted to large investment decisions** in electricity and infrastructure.

Can address horizontal and geographical inequities.

Cons

Neglecting local, detailed, new knowledge can be inefficient.

Worse if the relevant constraint can be simply conveyed through one price or standard; and if local conditions vary a lot.

⇒ **Inadapted to operational decisions** (e.g. how much steel to produce today).

Optimal design of the electricity market

Optimal design ensuring: demand is always met, at lowest marginal cost, investments take place at the right scale and locations, on the long-run consumers should pay average prices while being exposed to short-run price signals (Fabra, 2022):

Optimal design of the electricity market

Optimal design ensuring: demand is always met, at lowest marginal cost, investments take place at the right scale and locations, on the long-run consumers should pay average prices while being exposed to short-run price signals (Fabra, 2022):

A **carbon price** to internalize the climate costs and incentivize energy savings.

Optimal design of the electricity market

Optimal design ensuring: demand is always met, at lowest marginal cost, investments take place at the right scale and locations, on the long-run consumers should pay average prices while being exposed to short-run price signals (Fabra, 2022):

A **carbon price** to internalize the climate costs and incentivize energy savings.

Revenues can either be redistributed for progressivity, or to firms to avoid horizontal inequities.

Optimal design of the electricity market

Optimal design ensuring: demand is always met, at lowest marginal cost, investments take place at the right scale and locations, on the long-run consumers should pay average prices while being exposed to short-run price signals (Fabra, 2022):

A **carbon price** to internalize the climate costs and incentivize energy savings.

Revenues can either be redistributed for progressivity, or to firms to avoid horizontal inequities.

Alternatively, a market for carbon intensity works well (and guarantees the intensity target).

Optimal design of the electricity market

Optimal design ensuring: demand is always met, at lowest marginal cost, investments take place at the right scale and locations, on the long-run consumers should pay average prices while being exposed to short-run price signals (Fabra, 2022):

A **carbon price** to internalize the climate costs and incentivize energy savings.

Revenues can either be redistributed for progressivity, or to firms to avoid horizontal inequities.

Alternatively, a market for carbon intensity works well (and guarantees the intensity target).

A Renewable Portfolio Standard is inferior as it does not distinguish coal vs. gas.

Optimal design of the electricity market

Optimal design ensuring: demand is always met, at lowest marginal cost, investments take place at the right scale and locations, on the long-run consumers should pay average prices while being exposed to short-run price signals (Fabra, 2022):

- A **carbon price** to internalize the climate costs and incentivize energy savings.

 - Revenues can either be redistributed for progressivity, or to firms to avoid horizontal inequities.

 - Alternatively, a market for carbon intensity works well (and guarantees the intensity target).

 - A Renewable Portfolio Standard is inferior as it does not distinguish coal vs. gas.

- A **spot market** where electricity is priced at its marginal cost, **preserving the merit order**.

Optimal design of the electricity market

Optimal design ensuring: demand is always met, at lowest marginal cost, investments take place at the right scale and locations, on the long-run consumers should pay average prices while being exposed to short-run price signals (Fabra, 2022):

A **carbon price** to internalize the climate costs and incentivize energy savings.

Revenues can either be redistributed for progressivity, or to firms to avoid horizontal inequities.

Alternatively, a market for carbon intensity works well (and guarantees the intensity target).

A Renewable Portfolio Standard is inferior as it does not distinguish coal vs. gas.

A **spot market** where electricity is priced at its marginal cost, **preserving the merit order**.

Contracts-for-differences (CfDs): long-term contracts between regulator and producers.

In CfDs, **producers sell on the spot market and pay *reference price* — *strike price***.

Optimal design of the electricity market

Optimal design ensuring: demand is always met, at lowest marginal cost, investments take place at the right scale and locations, on the long-run consumers should pay average prices while being exposed to short-run price signals (Fabra, 2022):

A **carbon price** to internalize the climate costs and incentivize energy savings.

Revenues can either be redistributed for progressivity, or to firms to avoid horizontal inequities.

Alternatively, a market for carbon intensity works well (and guarantees the intensity target).

A Renewable Portfolio Standard is inferior as it does not distinguish coal vs. gas.

A **spot market** where electricity is priced at its marginal cost, **preserving the merit order**.

Contracts-for-differences (CfDs): long-term contracts between regulator and producers.

In CfDs, **producers sell on the spot market and pay *reference price* — *strike price***.

Feed-in tariffs is the extreme case where reference price = **spot market price**.

Optimal design of the electricity market

Optimal design ensuring: demand is always met, at lowest marginal cost, investments take place at the right scale and locations, on the long-run consumers should pay average prices while being exposed to short-run price signals (Fabra, 2022):

A **carbon price** to internalize the climate costs and incentivize energy savings.

Revenues can either be redistributed for progressivity, or to firms to avoid horizontal inequities.

Alternatively, a market for carbon intensity works well (and guarantees the intensity target).

A Renewable Portfolio Standard is inferior as it does not distinguish coal vs. gas.

A **spot market** where electricity is priced at its marginal cost, **preserving the merit order**.

Contracts-for-differences (CfDs): long-term contracts between regulator and producers.
In CfDs, **producers sell on the spot market and pay reference price — strike price**.

Feed-in tariffs is the extreme case where reference price = **spot market price**.

We should set reference price = **annual average market price for hydropower** (storable).

Optimal design of the electricity market

Optimal design ensuring: demand is always met, at lowest marginal cost, investments take place at the right scale and locations, on the long-run consumers should pay average prices while being exposed to short-run price signals (Fabra, 2022):

A **carbon price** to internalize the climate costs and incentivize energy savings.

Revenues can either be redistributed for progressivity, or to firms to avoid horizontal inequities.

Alternatively, a market for carbon intensity works well (and guarantees the intensity target).

A Renewable Portfolio Standard is inferior as it does not distinguish coal vs. gas.

A **spot market** where electricity is priced at its marginal cost, **preserving the merit order**.

Contracts-for-differences (CfDs): long-term contracts between regulator and producers.

In CfDs, **producers sell on the spot market and pay *reference price* — *strike price***.

Feed-in tariffs is the extreme case where reference price = **spot market price**.

We should set reference price = **annual average market price for hydropower** (storable).

Reference price = monthly average market **price of same techno at same location for intermittent**.

Optimal design of the electricity market

Optimal design ensuring: demand is always met, at lowest marginal cost, investments take place at the right scale and locations, on the long-run consumers should pay average prices while being exposed to short-run price signals (Fabra, 2022):

A **carbon price** to internalize the climate costs and incentivize energy savings.

Revenues can either be redistributed for progressivity, or to firms to avoid horizontal inequities.

Alternatively, a market for carbon intensity works well (and guarantees the intensity target).

A Renewable Portfolio Standard is inferior as it does not distinguish coal vs. gas.

A **spot market** where electricity is priced at its marginal cost, **preserving the merit order**.

Contracts-for-differences (CfDs): long-term contracts between regulator and producers.
In CfDs, **producers sell on the spot market and pay reference price – strike price**.

Feed-in tariffs is the extreme case where reference price = **spot market price**.

We should set reference price = **annual average market price for hydropower** (storable).

Reference price = monthly average market **price of same techno at same location for intermittent**.

Auctions to set the **strike price** of CfDs and for capacity of gas and storage.

Optimal design of the electricity market

Optimal design ensuring: demand is always met, at lowest marginal cost, investments take place at the right scale and locations, on the long-run consumers should pay average prices while being exposed to short-run price signals (Fabra, 2022):

A **carbon price** to internalize the climate costs and incentivize energy savings.

Revenues can either be redistributed for progressivity, or to firms to avoid horizontal inequities.

Alternatively, a market for carbon intensity works well (and guarantees the intensity target).

A Renewable Portfolio Standard is inferior as it does not distinguish coal vs. gas.

A **spot market** where electricity is priced at its marginal cost, **preserving the merit order**.

Contracts-for-differences (CfDs): long-term contracts between regulator and producers.
In CfDs, **producers sell on the spot market and pay *reference price* — *strike price***.

Feed-in tariffs is the extreme case where reference price = **spot market price**.

We should set reference price = **annual average market price for hydropower** (storable).

Reference price = monthly average market **price of same techno at same location for intermittent**.

Auctions to set the strike price of CfDs and for capacity of gas and storage.

Regulations of the strike price of existing plants.

Optimal design of the electricity market

Optimal design ensuring: demand is always met, at lowest marginal cost, investments take place at the right scale and locations, on the long-run consumers should pay average prices while being exposed to short-run price signals (Fabra, 2022):

A **carbon price** to internalize the climate costs and incentivize energy savings.

Revenues can either be redistributed for progressivity, or to firms to avoid horizontal inequities.

Alternatively, a market for carbon intensity works well (and guarantees the intensity target).

A Renewable Portfolio Standard is inferior as it does not distinguish coal vs. gas.

A **spot market** where electricity is priced at its marginal cost, **preserving the merit order**.

Contracts-for-differences (CfDs): long-term contracts between regulator and producers.

In CfDs, **producers sell on the spot market and pay *reference price* – *strike price***.

Feed-in tariffs is the extreme case where reference price = **spot market price**.

We should set reference price = **annual average market price for hydropower** (storable).

Reference price = monthly average market **price of same techno at same location for intermittent**.

Auctions to set the strike price of CfDs and for capacity of gas and storage.

Regulations of the strike price of existing plants.

For consumers, a rebate = monthly/yearly consumption \times average market price - strike price.