

# Lecture 1.b: Climate change in economic models

Thomas Douenne – University of Amsterdam

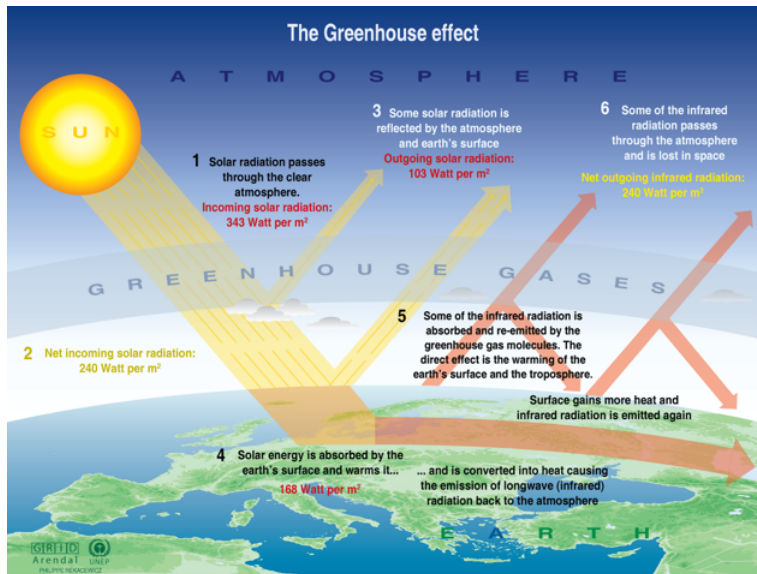
September 7, 2022

# How are the climate and the economy linked?

Recall from previous lecture:

- economic growth relies on the use of growing quantities of energy;
- the energy we use mostly originates from fossil fuels;
- the combustion of fossil fuels generate greenhouse gas emissions;
- the accumulation of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere affects the climate through the quantity of solar radiation absorbed by the earth;
- the change in climate affects the economy through a wide set of damages.

# Climate change: a reminder



Sources: Okanagan university college in Canada, Department of geography, University of Oxford, school of geography; United States Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), Washington; Climate change 1995, The science of climate change, contribution of working group 1 to the second assessment report of the intergovernmental panel on climate change, JNEP and WMO, Cambridge university press, 1996.

## The Kaya identity (1/2)

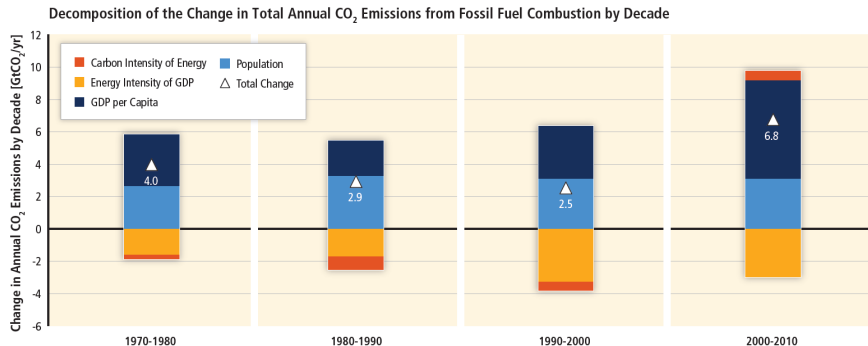
- Economic growth, energy use, and climate change are intertwined.
- To facilitate the understanding and decompose the drivers of climate change, one formula is sometimes used: the Kaya identity.
- If we denote  $F$  total anthropogenic GhG emissions,  $P$  the total population,  $G$  the global GDP, and  $E$  the global energy consumption, then one can decompose emissions as follows:

$$F \equiv P \times \frac{G}{P} \times \frac{E}{G} \times \frac{F}{E} \quad (1)$$

- Thus, the evolution of total anthropogenic GhG emissions results from the evolution of four distinct factors:
  - 1 population ( $P$ );
  - 2 GDP per capita ( $G/P$ );
  - 3 the energy intensity of GDP ( $E/G$ );
  - 4 the GHG intensity of energy ( $F/E$ ).

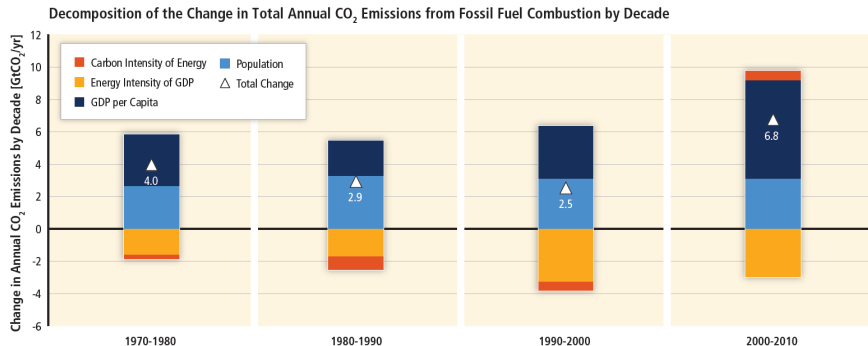
→ Any increase (decrease) in one of these components leads, everything else equal, to an increase (decrease) in total GhG emissions.

## The Kaya identity (2/2)



Source: IPCC 2014, summary for policy makers.

## The Kaya identity (2/2)



Source: IPCC 2014, summary for policy makers.

→ Between 2000 and 2010, world's production has become more energy efficient, but this is more than compensated by higher population, higher GDP per capita, and higher carbon intensity of energy.

# Modeling the climate-economy relationship

- The Kaya identity is a simple identity: useful for accounting purposes, but:
  - ▶ does not allow to isolate the effect of policies;
  - ▶ not suited for prescriptive purposes.
- Example: would reducing population by half cut emissions by two? →

## Modeling the climate-economy relationship

- The Kaya identity is a simple identity: useful for accounting purposes, but:
  - ▶ does not allow to isolate the effect of policies;
  - ▶ not suited for prescriptive purposes.
- Example: would reducing population by half cut emissions by two? → Not if GDP per capita increases as a result.
- Other example: how much should carbon cost to polluters to reduce their emissions so as not to exceed 2°C warming? → Not the appropriate tool.
- Other issue: economic growth affects the climate, but how does the climate affect economic activity?



## Modeling the climate-economy relationship

- The Kaya identity is a simple identity: useful for accounting purposes, but:
  - ▶ does not allow to isolate the effect of policies;
  - ▶ not suited for prescriptive purposes.
- Example: would reducing population by half cut emissions by two? → Not if GDP per capita increases as a result.
- Other example: how much should carbon cost to polluters to reduce their emissions so as not to exceed 2°C warming? → Not the appropriate tool.
- Other issue: economic growth affects the climate, but how does the climate affect economic activity?

→ To answer these questions, economists have developed a class of models, called Integrated Assessment Models (IAMs).

- The most well-known IAM is the DICE model, introduced by William Nordhaus (Economics Nobel Price 2018).

Objective: model climate change and how it interacts with the economy.

The DICE model contains the following elements:

- 1 households enjoy the consumption of a good;
- 2 the production of this good generates GhG emissions;
- 3 emissions accumulate into carbon stocks;
- 4 GhG atmospheric concentration warms the planet;
- 5 higher temperatures cause economic damages.

→ Trade-off: consuming more pollutes and leads to economic damages that reduce future consumption.

## Consumption and production

- A population of  $L_t$  households enjoys the consumption  $c_t$  of a final good over  $T_{max}$  periods discounted at rate  $\rho$ . Objective of the planner:

$$\max_{c_t} \sum_{t=1}^{T_{max}} \frac{1}{1+\rho} L_t u(c_t)$$

## Consumption and production

- A population of  $L_t$  households enjoys the consumption  $c_t$  of a final good over  $T_{max}$  periods discounted at rate  $\rho$ . Objective of the planner:

$$\max_{c_t} \sum_{t=1}^{T_{max}} \frac{1}{1+\rho} L_t u(c_t)$$

- Total consumption is  $C_t = L_t c_t$ , total capital is  $K_t$ , investment is  $I_t$ , and net output is  $Q_t$ , with:

$$Q_t = C_t + I_t$$

$$K_t = I_t + (1 - \delta)K_{t-1}$$

## Consumption and production

- A population of  $L_t$  households enjoys the consumption  $c_t$  of a final good over  $T_{max}$  periods discounted at rate  $\rho$ . Objective of the planner:

$$\max_{c_t} \sum_{t=1}^{T_{max}} \frac{1}{1+\rho} L_t u(c_t)$$

- Total consumption is  $C_t = L_t c_t$ , total capital is  $K_t$ , investment is  $I_t$ , and net output is  $Q_t$ , with:

$$Q_t = C_t + I_t$$

$$K_t = I_t + (1 - \delta)K_{t-1}$$

- Net output  $Q_t$  depends on gross output  $Y_t$ , abatement costs  $\Lambda_t$ , and climate damages  $D_t$ . With  $A_t$  the technology, we have:

$$Y_t = A_t K_t^\gamma L_t^{1-\gamma}$$

$$Q_t = (1 - \Lambda_t)(1 - D_t)Y_t$$

→ So far, very similar to a Solow model.

## Emissions and abatement

- Production generates industrial emissions  $E_t^{\text{Ind}}$ .
- Firms can reduce these emissions through abatement activities. Cutting a share  $\mu_t$  of emissions costs  $\Lambda_t$ , with:

$$\Lambda_t = \theta_{1,t} \mu_t^{\theta_2}$$

- Emissions net of abatement are given by:

$$E_t^{\text{Ind}} = \sigma_t (1 - \mu_t) Y_t$$

where  $\sigma_t$  is the carbon intensity of production.

## Emissions and abatement

- Production generates industrial emissions  $E_t^{\text{Ind}}$ .
- Firms can reduce these emissions through abatement activities. Cutting a share  $\mu_t$  of emissions costs  $\Lambda_t$ , with:

$$\Lambda_t = \theta_{1,t} \mu_t^{\theta_2}$$

- Emissions net of abatement are given by:

$$E_t^{\text{Ind}} = \sigma_t (1 - \mu_t) Y_t$$

where  $\sigma_t$  is the carbon intensity of production.

- Total emissions are the sum of (endogenous) industrial and (exogenous) land emissions:

$$E_t = E_t^{\text{Ind}} + E_t^{\text{Land}}.$$

## Emissions and abatement

- Production generates industrial emissions  $E_t^{\text{Ind}}$ .
- Firms can reduce these emissions through abatement activities. Cutting a share  $\mu_t$  of emissions costs  $\Lambda_t$ , with:

$$\Lambda_t = \theta_{1,t} \mu_t^{\theta_2}$$

- Emissions net of abatement are given by:

$$E_t^{\text{Ind}} = \sigma_t (1 - \mu_t) Y_t$$

where  $\sigma_t$  is the carbon intensity of production.

- Total emissions are the sum of (endogenous) industrial and (exogenous) land emissions:

$$E_t = E_t^{\text{Ind}} + E_t^{\text{Land}}.$$

- $A_t$ ,  $\sigma_t$ ,  $\theta_{1,t}$  are parameters that can change over time with technological progress.  $L_t$  changes with population growth.  $E_t^{\text{Land}}$  also changes exogenously.



- We model three distinct carbon reservoirs:  $S_t^{At}$ ,  $S_t^{Up}$ , and  $S_t^{Lo}$  represent **carbon concentration** at time  $t$  in the atmosphere, upper oceans, and deep oceans. They evolve according to:

$$S_t^j = b_{j,0}E_t + \sum_{i=1}^3 b_{i,j}S_{t-1}^i.$$

- We model three distinct carbon reservoirs:  $S_t^{At}$ ,  $S_t^{Up}$ , and  $S_t^{Lo}$  represent **carbon concentration** at time  $t$  in the atmosphere, upper oceans, and deep oceans. They evolve according to:

$$S_t^j = b_{j,0}E_t + \sum_{i=1}^3 b_{i,j}S_{t-1}^i.$$

- In each period  $t$ , a share  $b_{j,0}$  of emissions  $E_t$  add to the stock  $S_t^j$ . In particular,  $b_{At,0} = 1$  and  $b_{Up,0} = b_{Lo,0} = 0 \rightarrow$  Emissions flow directly to the atmosphere.

- We model three distinct carbon reservoirs:  $S_t^{At}$ ,  $S_t^{Up}$ , and  $S_t^{Lo}$  represent **carbon concentration** at time  $t$  in the atmosphere, upper oceans, and deep oceans. They evolve according to:

$$S_t^j = b_{j,0}E_t + \sum_{i=1}^3 b_{i,j}S_{t-1}^i.$$

- In each period  $t$ , a share  $b_{j,0}$  of emissions  $E_t$  add to the stock  $S_t^j$ . In particular,  $b_{At,0} = 1$  and  $b_{Up,0} = b_{Lo,0} = 0 \rightarrow$  Emissions flow directly to the atmosphere.
- In each period  $t$ , a share  $b_{i,j}$  of GhG from stock  $i$  move to stock  $j \rightarrow$  Reservoirs communicate with each other.

# Temperatures

- Atmospheric carbon concentration ( $S_t^{At}$ ) increases “radiative forcing” ( $\chi_t$ ), *i.e.* the net radiation received by the earth:

$$\chi_t = \kappa \left( \ln(S_t^{At} / S_{1750}^{AT}) / \ln(2) \right) + \chi_t^{\text{ex}}.$$

# Temperatures

- Atmospheric carbon concentration ( $S_t^{At}$ ) increases “radiative forcing” ( $\chi_t$ ), i.e. the net radiation received by the earth:

$$\chi_t = \kappa (\ln(S_t^{At}/S_{1750}^{AT})/\ln(2)) + \chi_t^{\text{ex}}.$$

- The higher  $S_t^{At}$  compared to pre-industrial levels ( $S_{1750}^{At}$ ), the more energy received by the earth.
- $\chi_t^{\text{ex}}$ : exogenous phenomena warming/cooling the earth (e.g., volcanic eruptions).

# Temperatures

- Atmospheric carbon concentration ( $S_t^{At}$ ) increases “radiative forcing” ( $\chi_t$ ), i.e. the net radiation received by the earth:

$$\chi_t = \kappa (\ln(S_t^{At}/S_{1750}^{At})/\ln(2)) + \chi_t^{\text{ex}}.$$

- The higher  $S_t^{At}$  compared to pre-industrial levels ( $S_{1750}^{At}$ ), the more energy received by the earth.
- $\chi_t^{\text{ex}}$ : exogenous phenomena warming/cooling the earth (e.g., volcanic eruptions).
- **Mean temperature** of atmosphere ( $T_t^{At}$ ) and deep oceans ( $T_t^{Lo}$ ) determined by

$$T_t^{At} = T_{t-1}^{At} + \zeta_1 (\chi_t - \zeta_2 T_{t-1}^{At} - \zeta_3 (T_{t-1}^{At} - T_{t-1}^{Lo})),$$

$$T_t^{Lo} = T_{t-1}^{Lo} + \zeta_4 (T_{t-1}^{At} - T_{t-1}^{Lo}).$$

# Temperatures

- Atmospheric carbon concentration ( $S_t^{At}$ ) increases “radiative forcing” ( $\chi_t$ ), i.e. the net radiation received by the earth:

$$\chi_t = \kappa (\ln(S_t^{At}/S_{1750}^{AT})/\ln(2)) + \chi_t^{\text{ex}}.$$

- The higher  $S_t^{At}$  compared to pre-industrial levels ( $S_{1750}^{At}$ ), the more energy received by the earth.
- $\chi_t^{\text{ex}}$ : exogenous phenomena warming/cooling the earth (e.g., volcanic eruptions).
- **Mean temperature** of atmosphere ( $T_t^{At}$ ) and deep oceans ( $T_t^{Lo}$ ) determined by

$$T_t^{At} = T_{t-1}^{At} + \zeta_1 (\chi_t - \zeta_2 T_{t-1}^{At} - \zeta_3 (T_{t-1}^{At} - T_{t-1}^{Lo})),$$

$$T_t^{Lo} = T_{t-1}^{Lo} + \zeta_4 (T_{t-1}^{At} - T_{t-1}^{Lo}).$$

- The more energy received by the earth ( $\chi_t$ ), the higher the atmospheric temperature  $T_t^{At}$ .
- A higher atmospheric temperature also warms the oceans, and vice versa.

- Atmospheric temperature  $T_t^{At}$  affects production through climate damages  $D_t(T_t^{At})$ , with:

$$D_t = a_1 T_t^{At} + a_2 (T_t^{At})^{a_3}$$

- The higher the temperature, the lower the net output since:

$$Q_t = (1 - \Lambda_t)(1 - D_t)Y_t$$



- Atmospheric temperature  $T_t^{At}$  affects production through climate damages  $D_t(T_t^{At})$ , with:

$$D_t = a_1 T_t^{At} + a_2 (T_t^{At})^{a_3}$$

- The higher the temperature, the lower the net output since:

$$Q_t = (1 - \Lambda_t)(1 - D_t)Y_t$$

- Key question: what are the right values for the parameters  $a_1, a_2, a_3$ ?
  - ▶ Nordhaus takes  $a_1 = 0$  and  $a_3 = 2 \rightarrow$  Quadratic specification of climate.
  - ▶ Is that correct? Hard to say.

# Solving the DICE model

- To solve the model, choose values for all parameters, and search for optimal path of consumption ( $c_t$ ) and abatement activities ( $\mu_t$ ).
- Originally coded with [GAMS](#), but versions for [Python](#) and [R](#) are available!
- Examples of variables computed:

- ▶ Consumption
- ▶ Abatement
- ▶ CO<sub>2</sub> emissions
- ▶ Radiative forcing
- ▶ Temperature

- You can then play with the parameters and re-run the code.

*N.B.: emissions, concentrations, or tax levels can be expressed in units of carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) or in units of carbon (C). Keep in mind: 1 ton of carbon equals 3.67 tons of carbon dioxide. Thus, a tax of \$100/tCO<sub>2</sub> is equivalent to a tax of \$367/tC.*

## The social cost of carbon: what is it?

The most important output from IAMs like DICE: the Social Cost of Carbon (SCC).

## The social cost of carbon: what is it?

The most important output from IAMs like DICE: the Social Cost of Carbon (SCC).

- This is the marginal social cost from emitting an additional unit of CO<sub>2</sub> (or other GhG expressed in CO<sub>2</sub>-equivalent).
- Formally, can be expressed as:

$$\frac{\partial(\text{€ damages})}{\partial(\text{tons CO}_2 \text{ emissions})} \equiv \frac{\partial(\text{€ damages})}{\partial(\text{°C warming})} \times \frac{\partial(\text{°C warming})}{\partial(\text{tons CO}_2 \text{ emissions})} \quad (2)$$

## The social cost of carbon: what is it?

The most important output from IAMs like DICE: the Social Cost of Carbon (SCC).

- This is the marginal social cost from emitting an additional unit of CO<sub>2</sub> (or other GhG expressed in CO<sub>2</sub>-equivalent).
- Formally, can be expressed as:

$$\frac{\partial(\text{€ damages})}{\partial(\text{tons CO}_2 \text{ emissions})} \equiv \frac{\partial(\text{€ damages})}{\partial(\text{°C warming})} \times \frac{\partial(\text{°C warming})}{\partial(\text{tons CO}_2 \text{ emissions})} \quad (2)$$

- It represents how much society values (in monetary units) all the damages caused by an additional unit of CO<sub>2</sub>.
- Should account for damages for all individuals, in all countries, across all current and future generations.

## The social cost of carbon: what is it?

The most important output from IAMs like DICE: the Social Cost of Carbon (SCC).

- This is the marginal social cost from emitting an additional unit of CO<sub>2</sub> (or other GhG expressed in CO<sub>2</sub>-equivalent).
- Formally, can be expressed as:

$$\frac{\partial(\text{€ damages})}{\partial(\text{tons CO}_2 \text{ emissions})} \equiv \frac{\partial(\text{€ damages})}{\partial(\text{°C warming})} \times \frac{\partial(\text{°C warming})}{\partial(\text{tons CO}_2 \text{ emissions})} \quad (2)$$

- It represents how much society values (in monetary units) all the damages caused by an additional unit of CO<sub>2</sub>.
- Should account for damages for all individuals, in all countries, across all current and future generations.

Most critical number in climate change economics, but no real consensus about its value. Different assumptions (over damages, technological progress, people's preferences, etc.) give different numbers.

## The social cost of carbon: what is it used for?

Why is the SCC so important in climate economics?

## The social cost of carbon: what is it used for?

Why is the SCC so important in climate economics? → Because it is a critical guide for action! Example:

- Let's assume a person can choose to travel from Amsterdam to London by plane or by train.
- Doing so by plane saves her the equivalent (in money, time, etc.) of 100€, but emits an additional 1 ton of CO<sub>2</sub>.
- Let's assume there are no other costs or benefits associated for anyone else.
- Should the person go by train or by plane?



## The social cost of carbon: what is it used for?

Why is the SCC so important in climate economics? → Because it is a critical guide for action! Example:

- Let's assume a person can choose to travel from Amsterdam to London by plane or by train.
- Doing so by plane saves her the equivalent (in money, time, etc.) of 100€, but emits an additional 1 ton of CO<sub>2</sub>.
- Let's assume there are no other costs or benefits associated for anyone else.
- Should the person go by train or by plane?
- If the SCC is below 100€/tCO<sub>2</sub>, then plane is preferable from the society's perspective. If it is above, then train is preferable.

→ If governments want to regulate emissions, critical for them to know how to assess their relative harm and compare it to other costs and benefits.

# Critiques to DICE

Very influential model, benchmark in the literature.

- Key advantage: simplicity makes it analytically tractable, additional elements can easily be incorporated.

However, simplicity comes with some caveats.

# Critiques to DICE

Very influential model, benchmark in the literature.

- Key advantage: simplicity makes it analytically tractable, additional elements can easily be incorporated.

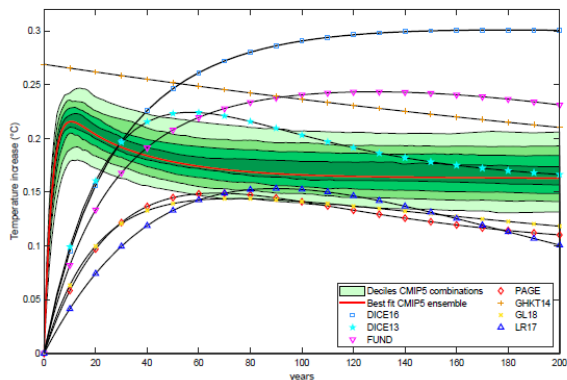
However, simplicity comes with some caveats. Among them:

- climate model not consistent with recent findings in climate science;
- actual damage function might not be quadratic;
- absence of risk;
- simplicity of the economy;
- choice of preference parameters (such as  $\rho$ , the pure rate of time preferences).

Other IAMs have been proposed (e.g. FUND, MERGE, PAGE, RICE, WITCH) with different climate dynamics, multiple economic sectors, multiple regions, heterogeneous households, etc.

## Example: thermal inertia (from Dietz et al, 2021)

Figure 1: Dynamic temperature response of 256 climate science models (the CMIP5 ensemble) and seven IAMs to an instantaneous 100GtC emission impulse against a constant background atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration of 389ppm. The temperature response of the IAMs is much slower than the climate science models, except Golosov et al. (2014). After 200 years, the temperature response of the IAMs is often well outside the range of the climate science models. The CMIP5 model responses are emulated/fitted by combining the Joos et al. (2013) carbon cycle model and the Geoffroy et al. (2013) warming model.



Beyond these caveats, some deeper critiques about the use of IAMs:

- Deep uncertainty:
  - ▶ there is a lot we don't know about climate dynamics, economic prospects, and their interaction;
  - ▶ with some small probability, climate change will not be that bad; with some small probability, however, it will be cataclysmic;
  - ▶ climate change mitigation is not only about reducing smooth damages, it is about avoiding potential catastrophic events (see e.g. Weitzman, 2009; Pindyck, 2013).

Beyond these caveats, some deeper critiques about the use of IAMs:

- Deep uncertainty:
  - ▶ there is a lot we don't know about climate dynamics, economic prospects, and their interaction;
  - ▶ with some small probability, climate change will not be that bad; with some small probability, however, it will be cataclysmic;
  - ▶ climate change mitigation is not only about reducing smooth damages, it is about avoiding potential catastrophic events (see e.g. Weitzman, 2009; Pindyck, 2013).
- Ethical parameters:
  - ▶ the optimal path of mitigation efforts depends on some preference parameters;
  - ▶ example: the discount rate, *i.e.* the weight given to the future relative to the present;
  - ▶ what is the correct value for this object? → Highly debated question with dramatic implications.

Beyond these caveats, some deeper critiques about the use of IAMs:

- Deep uncertainty:
  - ▶ there is a lot we don't know about climate dynamics, economic prospects, and their interaction;
  - ▶ with some small probability, climate change will not be that bad; with some small probability, however, it will be cataclysmic;
  - ▶ climate change mitigation is not only about reducing smooth damages, it is about avoiding potential catastrophic events (see e.g. Weitzman, 2009; Pindyck, 2013).
- Ethical parameters:
  - ▶ the optimal path of mitigation efforts depends on some preference parameters;
  - ▶ example: the discount rate, *i.e.* the weight given to the future relative to the present;
  - ▶ what is the correct value for this object? → Highly debated question with dramatic implications.

Pyndick's 2013 article on IAMs is titled "Climate Change Policy: What Do the Models Tell Us?". → His short answer to that question: "Very little."

## Example: discounting in theory

- Discounting is about weighting the future relative to the present.
- Discounting matters in all inter-temporal economic decisions.
- Ex: how much should I save now to consume later rather than today?
- Climate economics: how much efforts should present generations do to increase welfare of future generations?
- Standard Ramsey formula: trade-off between one unit of consumption today vs. in the future given by:

$$r_t \approx \rho + \eta g_{t-1}$$



## Example: discounting in theory

- Discounting is about weighting the future relative to the present.
- Discounting matters in all inter-temporal economic decisions.
- Ex: how much should I save now to consume later rather than today?
- Climate economics: how much efforts should present generations do to increase welfare of future generations?
- Standard Ramsey formula: trade-off between one unit of consumption today vs. in the future given by:

$$r_t \approx \rho + \eta g_{t-1}$$

→ Future welfare discounted more to the extent that people have a higher preference for the present (higher  $\rho$ ), future generations are richer (higher growth rate  $g_t$ ), and people are averse to inter-temporal inequalities (higher  $\eta$ ).

## Example: discounting in practice

**Table:** Present value of 1,000,000€ damages in the future depending on when it occurs and the discount rate applied.

| Discount rate | Occurs in 20 yrs. | Occurs in 100 yrs. | Occurs in 300 yrs. |
|---------------|-------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| 1%            | 819,545€          | 369,711€           | 50,534€            |
| 3%            | 553,676€          | 52,033€            | 141€               |
| 6%            | 311,805€          | 2,947€             | 0,03€              |

## Example: discounting in practice

**Table:** Present value of 1,000,000€ damages in the future depending on when it occurs and the discount rate applied.

| Discount rate | Occurs in 20 yrs. | Occurs in 100 yrs. | Occurs in 300 yrs. |
|---------------|-------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| 1%            | 819,545€          | 369,711€           | 50,534€            |
| 3%            | 553,676€          | 52,033€            | 141€               |
| 6%            | 311,805€          | 2,947€             | 0,03€              |

→ For long-run issues, seemingly small differences in discounting can lead to strikingly different policy implications:

- Stern (2007) takes  $\rho = 0.1\%$  based on ethical considerations, and assumes  $\eta = 1.0$  and  $g = 1.3\% \rightarrow r = 1.4\%$
- Nordhaus (2007) takes  $\rho = 3.0\%$  based on observed market behaviors, and assumes  $\eta = 1.0$  and  $g = 1.3\% \rightarrow r = 4.3\%$ .

→ While the Stern Review recommends rapid and very ambitious action to combat climate change, Nordhaus reaches much less alarming conclusions.

# Who is right?

The two approaches lead to conceptually different objects:

- Prescriptive approach: very appealing from a normative point of view.
- Descriptive approach: minimizes opportunity costs from social investments, pragmatic approach to policy.

**Example:** suppose society can invest in a 1 billion € climate project that is expected to bring a 20 billions € worth benefit 100 years from now. Should society do it?

# Who is right?

The two approaches lead to conceptually different objects:

- Prescriptive approach: very appealing from a normative point of view.
- Descriptive approach: minimizes opportunity costs from social investments, pragmatic approach to policy.

**Example:** suppose society can invest in a 1 billion € climate project that is expected to bring a 20 billions € worth benefit 100 years from now. Should society do it?

- Prescriptive approach: yes, since  $(1.03)^{100} \simeq 19.2$ , with a SDR below 3% the investment is worth it.
- Descriptive approach: if the market interest rate is higher (say 5-6%), then no, since  $(1.05)^{100} \simeq 131.5$ .
  - ▶ Society is better off investing in projects that pay the market interest rate and lead to higher future payoffs (with the possibility of using that money for an even more ambitious climate project).

Still, not always obvious which concept is the most relevant to use, hence heated debates.

## Emissions Stern vs. Nordhaus discounting (Nordhaus, 2018)

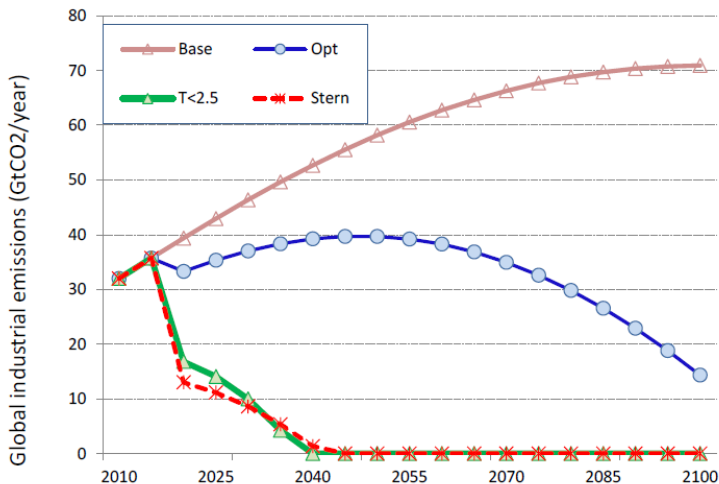


Figure 2. Actual and projected emissions of CO<sub>2</sub> in different scenarios

## Temperatures Stern vs. Nordhaus discounting (Nordhaus, 2018)

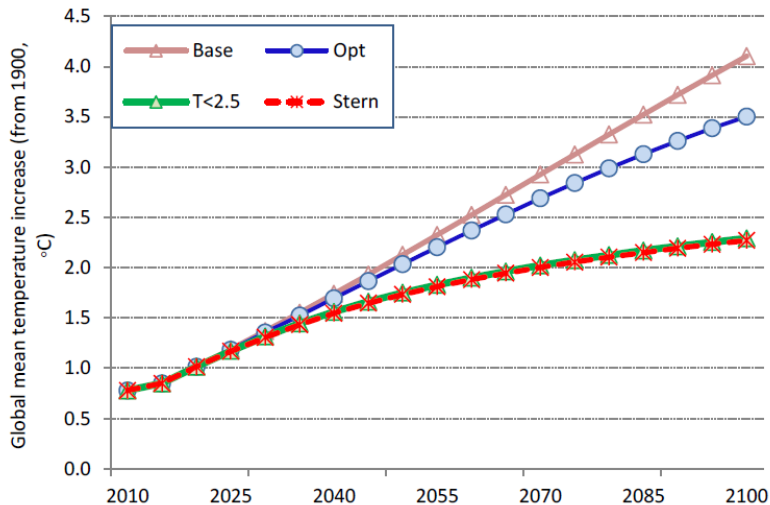


Figure 4. Temperature change in different scenarios

Academics keep making efforts to answer these critiques:

- more and more models account for risk, including disasters, tipping points, or existential risk;
- more and more models account for individuals' sensitivity to these large risks;
- researchers try to better quantify potential damages, such as biodiversity losses;
- results are typically presented under different scenarios, *i.e.* for different values of the damages or different discount rates.

Are these efforts in vain? We will ever get an accurate model?



Academics keep making efforts to answer these critiques:

- more and more models account for risk, including disasters, tipping points, or existential risk;
- more and more models account for individuals' sensitivity to these large risks;
- researchers try to better quantify potential damages, such as biodiversity losses;
- results are typically presented under different scenarios, *i.e.* for different values of the damages or different discount rates.

Are these efforts in vain? We will ever get an accurate model? → Probably not, but hopefully we can improve these tools to make them useful.

## Alternative to IAMs: the carbon budget approach

Is there an alternative to IAMs for decision-making?

- In recent years, the “carbon budget” approach has gained grounds.

# Alternative to IAMs: the carbon budget approach

Is there an alternative to IAMs for decision-making?

- In recent years, the “carbon budget” approach has gained grounds.
- Basic idea:
  - ▶ collectively determine a certain temperature target (e.g., maximum  $+2^{\circ}\text{C}$  warming);
  - ▶ determine the total carbon emissions that can be emitted without exceeding that target with too high probability;
  - ▶ look for the most efficient way (*i.e.* path of consumption and abatement) to attain it.
- Similar to a robust control approach: accept damages up to  $+2^{\circ}\text{C}$ , but try to avoid as much as possible exceeding that target.
- Put differently: pass or fail approach to climate change mitigation.  
Acknowledge that we don't know how to evaluate what's best for society, simply use rule of thumb to stay of the “safe side”.
- Caveats:
  - ▶ Back to the question: what's the right target? How to inform that decision?
  - ▶ What if we exceed the target? Damages from  $+2^{\circ}\text{C}$  not the same as those from  $+4^{\circ}\text{C}$ , climate impacts are not binary.

So far, we have:

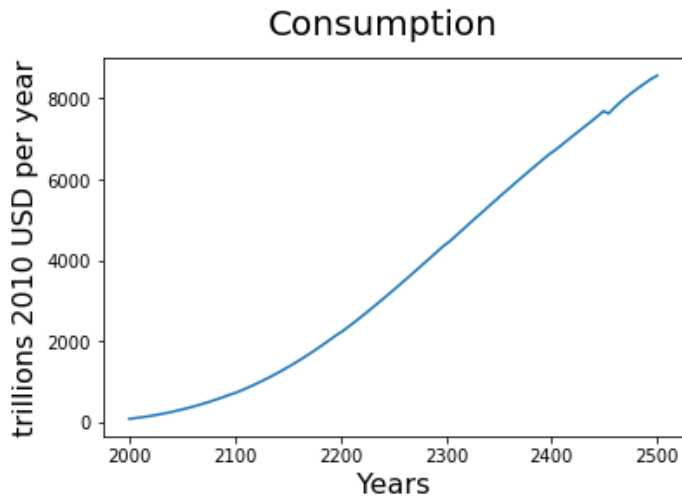
- described climate change, how it works and what are some of its consequences;
- explained the link between the economy and the climate;
- defined the social cost of carbon (SCC), the concept used to assess the opportunity cost of GhG emissions.

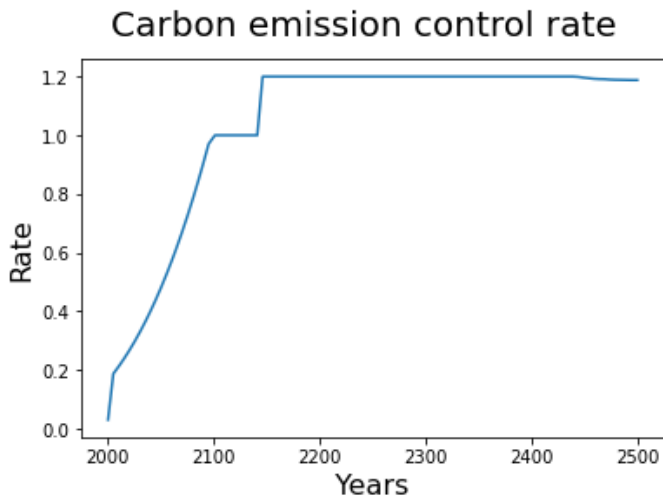
So far, we have:

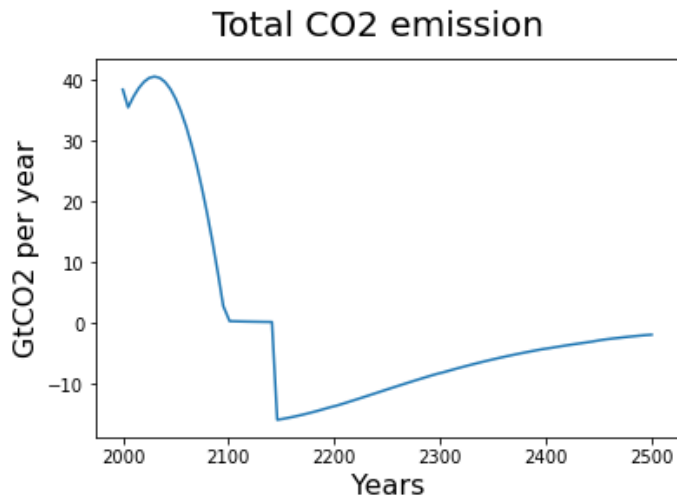
- described climate change, how it works and what are some of its consequences;
- explained the link between the economy and the climate;
- defined the social cost of carbon (SCC), the concept used to assess the opportunity cost of GhG emissions.

Next week, we will:

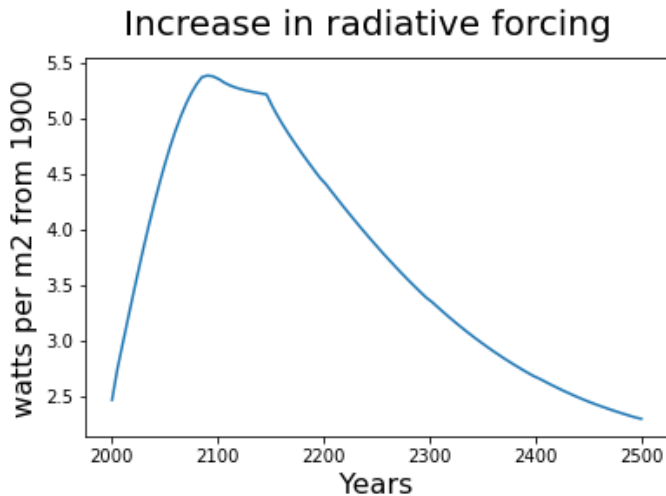
- present the policies that can be used to deal with climate change;
- discuss how the SCC is used to determine optimal policies;
- compare policy options based on their cost-efficiency and distributional effects.











### Increase temperature of the atmosphere (TATM)

