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#### Macroeconomics 1 (3/7)

# The DICE model (Nordhaus)

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September - December 2024

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## Growth and climate change

- The CKR model does not take into account the consequences of economic activity for the climate nor, vice-versa, the consequences of **climate change** for the economy.
- Nordhaus (1992, 1994) has extended the CKR model to take these consequences into account, giving rise to the **DICE model** (≡ Dynamic Integrated Climate-Economy model), which is a model of the world economy and the world climate.
- William D. Nordhaus: American economist, born in 1941 in Albuquerque, professor at Yale University since 1967, co-laureate (with Paul M. Romer) of the Sveriges Riksbank's prize in economic sciences in memory of Alfred Nobel in 2018 "for integrating climate change into long-run macroeconomic analysis".

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# Pollution externality

- A key difference with the CKR model is the presence, in the DICE model, of a **pollution externality**.
- The production activity of each firm, by emitting greenhouse gases, contributes to climate change which harms all agents.
- Because of this externality,
  - the first welfare theorem does not apply,
  - the competitive equilibrium under laisser-faire is not socially optimal,
  - the  $\mathcal{BOOP}$  would choose less production and less greenhouse-gas emissions,
  - the optimal "carbon tax" is positive.

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### Overview of the chapter

- This chapter presents
  - the equilibrium conditions of the DICE model,
  - its normative implications (optimal carbon tax).
- The optimal value of the carbon tax in the DICE model is very sensitive to the value chosen for the **discount rate**.
- For this reason, the chapter also discusses how to calibrate the discount rate
  - depending on the (descriptive or prescriptive) approach considered,
  - taking or not taking into account uncertainty.

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# Which DICE model?

- Nordhaus has, over time, developed several successive versions of the DICE model:
  - the first one, DICE 1992 (Nordhaus, 1992, 1994), is the simplest,
  - the last two, DICE 2016 and DICE 2023, are the most complicated.
- In the following, we present
  - the equilib. conditions of DICE 1992 (reformulated in continuous time),
  - the calibration and results of DICE 1992, DICE 2016 and DICE 2023.

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# Chapter outline

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# Equilibrium conditions

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# Economic part I

- The DICE model has two parts, which interact with each other:
  - an economic part,
  - a climatic part.
- The economic part of the DICE-1992 model corresponds to the CKR model with two simplifications and one change.

#### • Simplifications:

- logarithmic consumption utility: u(ct) = ln(ct) (i.e. coefficient of relative risk aversion constant, equal to θ = 1),
- Cobb-Douglas production function for each firm *i*:  $Y_{i,t} = \Omega_t K_{i,t}^{\alpha} (A_t N_{i,t})^{1-\alpha}$ , with  $0 < \alpha < 1$ .

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### Economic part II

• Change: in the production function, instead of  $\Omega_t \equiv 1$ , we have

$$\Omega_t \equiv rac{1-b_1\mu_t^{b_2}}{1+ heta_1 \mathcal{T}_t^{ heta_2}}$$

with  $b_1>$  0,  $b_2>$  0,  $heta_1>$  0,  $heta_2>$  0, where

- $T_t$  is the temperature of the surface and shallow oceans,
- $\mu_t$  the greenhouse-gas-emission reduction rate.

#### Interpretation:

- $\partial \Omega_t / \partial T_t < 0$  captures the economic cost of climate change,
- $\partial\Omega_t/\partial\mu_t < 0$  captures the economic cost of greenhouse-gas-emission reduction.
- In this model, the emission reduction rate µt is considered as the economic-policy instrument; it can be interpreted as the outcome of an emission tax ("carbon tax").

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### Economic part III

- Each firm *i* being atomistic, its individual decisions have, everything else equal, a negligible effect on the temperature  $T_t$  and on the economic-policy instrument  $\mu_t$ .
- Each firm *i* thus chooses  $K_{i,t}$  and  $N_{i,t}$  to maximize its instantaneous profit taking  $T_t$  and  $\mu_t$ , and therefore  $\Omega_t$ , as given.
- The first-order conditions of firms' optimization problem are thus the same as in Chapter 2, now with the new  $\Omega_t$  factor.
- The other equilibrium conditions of Chapter 2, characterizing households' behavior and markets' clearing, are unchanged.

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#### General overview of the economic part I \*

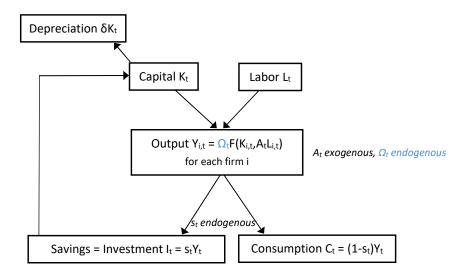
- Firms rent capital and employ labor to produce goods, with a total factor productivity that depends negatively on
  - the temperature of the surface and shallow oceans,
  - greenhouse-gas-emission reduction rate.
- Households own capital and supply labor.
- The goods produced by firms are used for households' consumption and investment in new capital.
- The saving rate is endogenous, optimally chosen by households.
- Capital evolves over time due to investment and capital depreciation.

(In the pages whose title is followed by an asterisk,

in blue: changes from Chapter 2.)

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#### General overview of the economic part II \*



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### General overview of the climatic part I

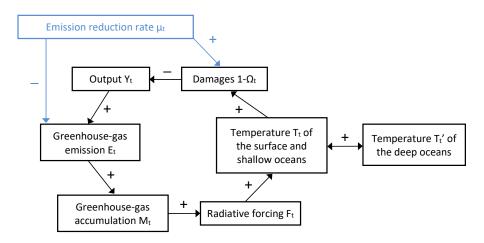
- Production (flow  $Y_t$ ) emits greenhouse gases (flow  $E_t$ ), all the more so as the emission reduction rate  $\mu_t$  is low.
- These gases accumulate in the atmosphere (stock  $M_t$ ).
- This accumulation increases radiative forcing  $F_t$ .
- This increase in radiative forcing raises
  - the temperature  $T_t$  of the surface and shallow oceans,
  - the temperature  $T'_t$  of the deep oceans,

which are linked to each other.

• The rise in  $T_t$  leads, everything else equal, to a decrease in output  $Y_t$ .

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### General overview of the climatic part II



(In blue: economic-policy instrument.)

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### Equations of the climatic part I

• Emissions of greenhouse gases:

$$E_t = (1 - \mu_t)\varphi_t Y_t,$$

where  $\varphi_t$  is exogenous.

• Accumulation of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere:

$$M_t = \gamma E_t - \delta_m (M_t - M)$$

with  $\gamma > 0$  and  $\delta_m > 0$ , where *M* represents the pre-industrial value of  $M_t$ .

#### • Radiative forcing:

$$F_t = \eta \log_2 \frac{M_t}{M} + O_t$$

with  $\eta > 0$ , where  $O_t$  is exogenous.

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### Equations of the climatic part II

• Dynamics of the temperature  $T_t$  of the surface and shallow oceans:

$$\dot{T}_t = \frac{1}{R_1} \left[ F_t - \lambda T_t - \frac{R_2}{\tau} \left( T_t - T_t' \right) \right]$$

with  $R_1>$  0,  $R_2>$  0,  $\lambda>$  0, and  $\tau>$  0.

• Dynamics of the **temperature**  $T'_t$  of the deep oceans:

$$\overset{\cdot}{T'_t} = \frac{1}{\tau} \left( T_t - T'_t \right).$$

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### Normative implications

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#### Pollution externality

• For some given  $(K_{j,t}, N_{j,t})_{j \neq i}$ , a variation in  $(K_{i,t}, N_{i,t})$  has both

- a direct effect on  $Y_{i,t} = \Omega_t K_{i,t}^{\alpha} (A_t N_{i,t})^{1-\alpha}$ ,
- an indirect effect on all the  $Y_{j,t'}$  for  $j \in \{1, ..., I\}$  and  $t' \ge t$ , via  $Y_t$ ,  $E_t$ ,  $(M_{t'})_{t' \ge t}$ ,  $(F_{t'})_{t' \ge t}$ ,  $(T_{t'})_{t' \ge t}$  and  $(\Omega_{t'})_{t' \ge t}$ .
- Firm *i* takes only the first effect into account when choosing  $(K_{i,t}, N_{i,t})$  because
  - it does not take into account the indirect effect on the  $Y_{j,t'}$  for  $j \neq i$ ,
  - the indirect effect of (K<sub>i,t</sub>, N<sub>i,t</sub>) on Y<sub>i,t'</sub> is negligible compared with the direct effect of (K<sub>i,t'</sub>, N<sub>i,t'</sub>) on Y<sub>i,t'</sub> (the number of firms I being large).
- As a consequence, each firm *i* chooses K<sub>i,t</sub> and N<sub>i,t</sub> to maximize its instantaneous profit taking Ω<sub>t</sub> as given.
- We say that there is a **pollution externality** between firms.

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### Implications for the optimal carbon tax

- Because of this externality,
  - the first welfare theorem does not apply,
  - the comp. equilibrium with  $\mu_t = 0$  for  $t \ge 0$  is not socially optimal,
  - the optimal (i.e.  $U_0$ -maximizing) path  $(\mu_t)_{t\geq 0}$  is non-zero.
- The numerical results for the optimal carbon tax depend on
  - the model version,
  - the calibration of this version.
- They particularly depend on the calibration of
  - the damages caused by climate change (parameters  $\theta_1$  and  $\theta_2$ ),
  - the discount rate ("parameter" r).

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#### Calibration of DICE 1992, 2016 and 2023

	DICE 1992	DICE 2016	DICE 2023
<b>Damages</b> caused by a 3°C warming ( <i>in % of production</i> )	1.3%	2.1%	3.1%
<b>Discount rate</b> ( <i>in % per year</i> ) average from 2020 to 2050 average from 2020 to 2100	not avail. not avail.	4.7% 4.2%	4.4% 3.9%

Sources: Barrage and Nordhaus (2023), Nordhaus (1994, 2018, 2019).

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### Results of DICE 1992, 2016 and 2023

	DICE 1992	DICE 2016	DICE 2023
Optimal carbon <b>tax</b> ( <i>in 2018 \$ per ton of CO</i> <sub>2</sub> )			
in 2020 in 2050 in 2100	18\$ 32\$ 40\$	43 <b>\$</b> 105 <b>\$</b> 295 <b>\$</b>	53 <b>\$</b> 127 <b>\$</b> not avail.
Warming from the pre-industrial period to 2100 <i>(in ℃)</i> with the current tax with the optimal tax	3.3°C 3.2°C	4.1°C 3.5°C	3.8℃ 2.7℃

Sources: Barrage and Nordhaus (2023), Nordhaus (1994, 2018, 2019).

### Sensitivity of the results to the calibration I

- Nordhaus has, over time, revised upwards his calibration of damages caused by climate change (as shown on page 20).
- Nonetheless, this calibration has been criticized for being too low.
- In the next two pages, we consider a higher calibration, inspired by Howard and Sterner (2017).
- This calibration sets the damages at 9% of production for a 3°C warming (instead of 3.1% in DICE 2023).
- In these two pages, we also consider alternative calibrations for the discount rate, ranging from 5% to 1% per year.

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#### Sensitivity of the results to the calibration II

**Optimal carbon tax** (*in 2019* \$ *per ton of* CO<sub>2</sub>) depending on the calibration of DICE 2023

Calibration	2020	2025	2050
serving as benchmark	53	62	127
with higher damages	132	156	293
with alternative discount rates			
r=5% per year	33	39	77
r=4% per year	51	60	110
r=3% per year	87	103	170
r=2% per year	170	200	289
r=1% per year	429	505	609

Source: Barrage and Nordhaus (2023).

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#### Sensitivity of the results to the calibration III

**Warming** from the pre-industrial period (in  $^{\circ}C$ ) under optimal tax, depending on the calibration of DICE 2023

Calibration	2020	2050	2100	2150
serving as a benchmark	1.2	1.9	2.7	2.8
with higher damages	1.2	1.8	1.9	1.7
with alternative discount rates				
r=5% per year	1.2	2.0	3.0	3.6
r = 4% per year	1.2	2.0	2.9	3.3
r=3% per year	1.2	1.9	2.6	2.7
r=2% per year	1.2	1.9	2.2	2.0
r=1% per year	1.2	1.9	1.8	1.6

Source: Barrage and Nordhaus (2023).

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#### Discount rate

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#### Role of the discount rate

- The numerical normative implications of the DICE model are very sensitive to the calibration of the **discount rate** (or real interest rate  $r_t$ ).
- For a given value D<sub>t</sub> of damages occurring at time t > 0 (caused by climate change), the lower (r<sub>τ</sub>)<sub>0≤τ≤t</sub>,
  - the higher the actualized value  $D_t e^{-\int_0^t r_\tau d\tau}$  of these future damages,
  - the higher the optimal tax path  $(\mu_t)_{0 \leq \tau \leq t}$ ,
  - the lower the "optimal" temperature path  $(T_t)_{0 \le \tau \le t}$ .

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### Steady-state discount rate I

• With a CRRA instantaneous-utility function, the Euler equation is

$$\frac{c_t}{c_t} = \frac{r_t - \rho}{\theta}.$$

- We admit that the DICE model has a steady state in which per-capita consumption  $c_t$  grows at the rate of technological progress g, like the CKR model (Chapter 2).
- At this steady state, the discount rate (i.e. the value of  $r_t$ ) is therefore

$$r = \underbrace{\rho}_{\substack{\text{impatience}\\ \text{effect}}} + \underbrace{\theta g}_{\substack{\text{wealth}\\ \text{effect}}}.$$

# Steady-state discount rate II

- The discount rate r depends positively on
  - the rate of time preference  $\rho$ : the more impatient the agents, ...
  - the growth rate of the economy g: the more agents will consume in the future relatively to the present, the lower the marginal utility of consumption in the future relatively to the present, ...
  - the inverse of the elasticity of intertemporal substitution  $\theta$ : the higher  $\theta$ , the more the marginal utility of consumption  $(c_t^{-\theta})$  is decreasing in consumption  $(c_t)$ , the lower the marginal utility of consumption in the future relatively to the present (for g > 0), ...

...the more preferable present consumption relatively to future consumption.

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# Examples of calibration of r

	ρ (% per year)	g ear) (% per year)		discount rate (% per year)
Weitzman (2007)	2%	2%	2	6%
Nordhaus (2007)	1.5%	2%	2	5.5%
Nordhaus (2008)	1%	2%	2	5%
Gollier (2013)	0%	2%	2	4%
Stern (2007)	0.1%	1.3%	1	1.4%

 $\hookrightarrow$  Stern (2007) recommends a substantially higher carbon tax than Nordhaus (2007) because he considers a substantially lower discount rate.

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# Calibration of $\rho$ I

- **Descriptive approach**: Nordhaus (2007) calibrates *ρ* using macroeconomic and financial data (real interest rate).
- **Prescriptive approach**: Stern (2007) considers that  $\rho$  represents
  - the weight of present generations' utility relatively to future generations' utility (in the social utility function),
  - and not the weight of present utility relatively to future utility for a given generation (in the individual utility function)

(we will come back to this distinction in the overlapping-generations model in Chapter 7).

 The prescriptive approach suggests the calibration ρ = 0: there is no reason to put a lower weight on future generations' utility than on present generations' utility (in the social utility function).

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# Calibration of $\rho$ II

• The calibration of  $\rho$ , however, must satisfy the constraint

$$ho-n>(1- heta)$$
 g,

for households' intertemporal utility to take a finite value at the steady state (as seen in Chapter 2).

- For  $\theta = 1$  (value chosen by Stern, 2007) and n = 0 (value chosen by Stern, 2007, for the post-2200 period), this constraint amounts to  $\rho > 0$ .
- Stern (2007) chooses the value  $\rho = 0.1\%$  per year, which he justifies with a(n exogenous) risk of human extinction of 0.1% per year.

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### Taking uncertainty into account I

- The expression  $r = \rho + \theta g$  was obtained by ignoring uncertainty; now, the future is obviously uncertain, all the more so with climate change.
- In the presence of uncertainty, we consider the following intertemporal utility ("expected-utility theory" of Morgenstern and Von Neumann, 1953):

$$U_0 \equiv \mathbb{E}_0 \left\{ \int_0^{+\infty} e^{-
ho t} u(c_t) dt 
ight\}$$
 ,

where  $\mathbb{E}_0\{.\}$  represents the expectation operator conditional on the information set at time 0.

- For the sake of simplicity, we have set n = 0 (which does not affect the results).
- Let us assume that the real interest rate is constant, and let *r* denote its value.

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### Taking uncertainty into account II

- The household has the possibility of deviating from their optimal choice  $(c_0, c_1)$  by
  - lending an additional infinitesimal quantity of goods ds at time 0,
  - consuming the additional infinitesimal quantity of goods  $e^r ds$  at time 1.
- The change in intertemporal utility  $\Delta U_0$  that this deviation would entail is  $\Delta U_0 = -u'(c_0)ds + e^{-\rho}\mathbb{E}_0\{u'(c_1)\}e^rds = \left[-u'(c_0) + e^{r-\rho}\mathbb{E}_0\{u'(c_1)\}\right]ds.$
- Since  $(c_0, c_1)$  is the household's optimal choice, we have  $\Delta U_0 = 0$ :
  - if  $\Delta U_0 > 0$ , then the hous. would prefer to deviate as described above,
  - if  $\Delta U_0 < 0$ , then the household would prefer to deviate in the opposite direction (borrow more at time 0 and consume less at time 1).
- We thus obtain the following **Euler equation** from time 0 to time 1:

$$u'(c_0) = e^{r-\rho} \mathbb{E}_0\{u'(c_1)\}.$$

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### Taking uncertainty into account III

• In the following particular case:

- no uncertainty:  $\mathbb{E}_0\{u'(c_1)\} = u'(c_1)$ ,
- CRRA instantaneous-utility function:  $u'(c_t) = c_t^{-\theta}$ ,
- constant growth rate of per-capita consumption:  $c_1 = e^g c_0$ ,

this Euler equation can be rewritten as  $c_0^{-\theta}=e^{r-\rho}c_0^{-\theta}e^{-\theta g}$  , that is to say

$$r = \rho + \theta g.$$

- If u' is strictly convex, then, everything else equal, the larger the uncertainty about  $c_1$  (i.e. the variance of  $c_1$ ),
  - the larger  $\mathbb{E}_0\{u'(c_1)\}$  (as a consequence of a generalized version of Jensen's inequality),
  - the smaller r (as a consequence of the Euler equation),
  - the more households want to save (precautionary savings).

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### Taking uncertainty into account IV

- The function u' being positive and strictly decreasing, it is strictly convex at least locally.
- In the CRRA case  $(u'(c_t) = c_t^{-\theta})$ , u' is strictly convex globally:  $u'''(c_t) = \theta(\theta + 1)c_t^{-\theta-2} > 0$  for any  $c_t > 0$ .
- A measure of the convexity of u' is the **coefficient of relative prudence** (Kimball, 1990):

$$p(c_t) \equiv \frac{-c_t u'''(c_t)}{u''(c_t)}$$

• In the CRRA case,  $p(c_t)$  is independent of  $c_t$  and equal to

$$p(c_t) = \theta + 1.$$

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### Taking uncertainty into account V

- We henceforth consider the following particular case:
  - CRRA instantaneous-utility function:  $u'(c_t) = c_t^{-\theta}$ ,
  - growth rate of per-capita consumption from time 0 to time 1 following a normal distribution:

$$\mathit{c}_{1}=\mathit{e}^{ ilde{g}}\mathit{c}_{0}$$
 with  $ilde{g}\sim\mathcal{N}\left(\mu,\sigma^{2}
ight)$  ,

where  $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\sigma \in \mathbb{R}_+ \setminus \{0\}$ .

• The Euler equation can then be rewritten as  $c_0^{-\theta} = e^{r-\rho}c_0^{-\theta}\mathbb{E}\{e^{-\theta\tilde{g}}\}$ , that is to say

$$r = 
ho - \ln \mathbb{E} \{ e^{- heta ilde{g}} \} = 
ho + heta \left( \mu - rac{ heta}{2} \sigma^2 
ight),$$

where the last equality comes from the result  $\mathbb{E}\{e^{-\theta \tilde{g}}\} = e^{-\theta \left(\mu - \frac{\theta}{2}\sigma^2\right)}$  proved in the appendix.

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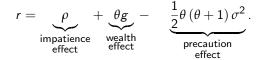
### Taking uncertainty into account VI

 Let g denote the growth rate of expected per-capita consumption from time 0 to time 1: E{c<sub>1</sub>} = e<sup>g</sup> c<sub>0</sub> and hence

$$g = \ln \frac{\mathbb{E}_0\{c_1\}}{c_0} = \ln \frac{\mathbb{E}_0\{e^{\tilde{g}}c_0\}}{c_0} = \ln \mathbb{E}\{e^{\tilde{g}}\} = \mu + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2,$$

where the last equality comes from the result  $\mathbb{E}\{e^{\tilde{g}}\} = e^{\mu + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2}$  proved in the appendix.

• We can thus rewrite the Euler equation as



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### Taking uncertainty into account VII

- The precaution effect is equal to half the product of
  - the coefficient of relative risk aversion  $(\theta)$ ,
  - the coefficient of relative prudence  $(\theta + 1)$ ,
  - the variance of the growth rate of the economy  $(\sigma^2)$ .
- The same result is obtained, this time as a second-order approximation, when the CRRA-utility and normal-distribution assumptions are relaxed.
- Considering  $\sigma = 3.6\%$  (standard error of the year-on-year growth rate of per-capita consumption in the US), Gollier (2013) gets a precaution effect of 0.4% per year and hence a discount rate of 3.6% per year.
- Gollier (2013) shows that the precaution effect can be larger, and hence the discount rate smaller, in the **long term** and/or in the presence of **catastrophic risks**.

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# Conclusion

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# Main predictions of the model

- The competitive equilibrium under laisser-faire is not socially optimal because of a **pollution externality**.
- Everything else equal, the optimal carbon tax depends
  - positively on the economic damages caused by climate change,
  - negatively on the **discount rate**.
- Under certainty, the discount rate (r) is the sum of
  - an impatience effect  $(\rho)$ ,
  - a wealth effect  $(\theta g)$ .
- Uncertainty (normal distribution for the growth rate) reduces the discount rate (r) in the short term by a precaution effect  $(\theta(\theta + 1)\sigma^2/2)$ .

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# One limitation of the model

- As in the CKR model (Chapter 2), the rate of technological progress g is exogenous.
- Now, this rate of technological progress is a key determinant of the discount rate and hence of the optimal carbon tax in the DICE model.
- If the rate of technological progress were endogenous,
  - could some policies affect it?
  - what role should they play?

 $\hookrightarrow$  Chapters 4 and 5 ("endogenous-growth theories") endogenize the rate of technological progress.

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# Appendix

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#### 6 Appendix

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# Computation of $\mathbb{E}\{e^{-\varphi \tilde{g}}\}$ when $\tilde{g} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ |

• For any  $\mu^* \in \mathbb{R}$  and any  $\sigma^* \in \mathbb{R}_+ \setminus \{0\}$ , let

$$x \mapsto f(x; \mu^*, \sigma^*) \equiv \frac{1}{\sigma^* \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{x-\mu^*}{\sigma^*}\right)^2}$$

denote the density of the distribution  $\mathcal{N}\left(\mu^{*},\sigma^{*2}\right)$ .

• For any  $\mu^* \in \mathbb{R}$  and any  $\sigma^* \in \mathbb{R}_+ \setminus \{0\}$ , since  $f(x; \mu^*, \sigma^*)$  is a density, we have

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x; \mu^*, \sigma^*) dx = 1.$$

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# Computation of $\mathbb{E}\{e^{-\varphi \tilde{g}}\}$ when $\tilde{g} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ II

• If  $ilde{g} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mu,\sigma^2
ight)$ , then for any  $arphi \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$\mathbb{E}\left\{e^{-\varphi\tilde{g}}\right\} = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-\varphi x} f(x;\mu,\sigma) dx$$
  
$$= \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-\varphi x} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^{2}} dx$$
  
$$= \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-\varphi\left(\mu - \frac{\varphi}{2}\sigma^{2}\right)} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left[\frac{x-(\mu-\varphi\sigma^{2})}{\sigma}\right]^{2}} dx$$
  
$$= e^{-\varphi\left(\mu - \frac{\varphi}{2}\sigma^{2}\right)} \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x;\mu-\varphi\sigma^{2},\sigma) dx$$
  
$$= e^{-\varphi\left(\mu - \frac{\varphi}{2}\sigma^{2}\right)}.$$

• Replacing  $\varphi$  with  $\theta$  and -1 respectively, we get the results mentioned on pages 36 and 37.