

Fernanda Nechio (Federal Reserve Bank of San Francisco)

Toan Phan (Federal Reserve Bank of Richmond)

The unequal economic consequences of carbon pricing

Virtual Seminar on Climate Economics

Diego R. Känzig

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Motivation

The looming climate crisis

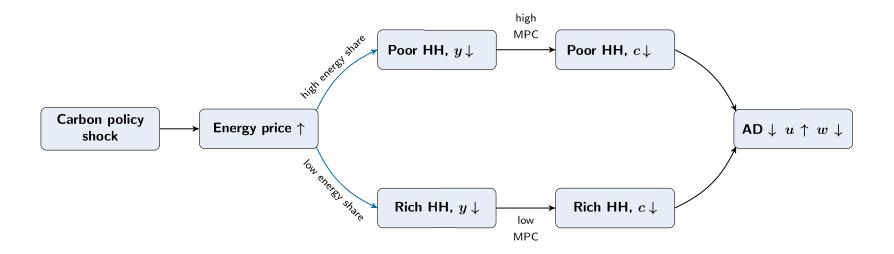
- Looming climate crisis put climate change at top of the global policy agenda
- Carbon pricing increasingly used as a tool to mitigate climate change but:
- Little known about effects on emissions and the economy in practice
 - Effectiveness?
 - Short-term economic costs?
 - Distributional consequences?

This paper

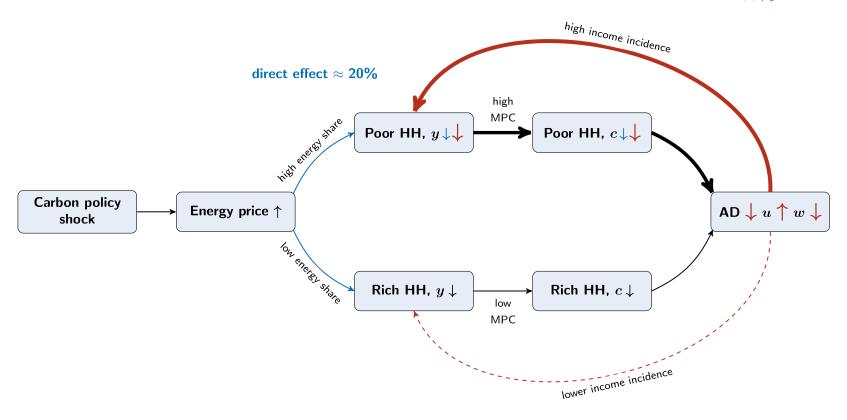
- New evidence from the European Emissions Trading Scheme (ETS), the largest carbon market in the world
- Exploit **institutional features** of the EU ETS and **high-frequency data** to estimate **aggregate** and **distributional** effects of **carbon pricing**
 - Cap-and-trade system: Market price for carbon, liquid futures markets
 - Regulations in the market **changed** considerably over time
 - Isolate exogenous variation by measuring carbon price change in tight window around policy events
 - Use as **instrument** to estimate dynamic causal effects of a **carbon policy shock**

- Carbon policy has **significant** effects on emissions and the economy
- A shock tightening the carbon pricing regime leads to
 - a significant increase in energy prices, persistent fall in emissions and uptick in green innovation
 - not without cost: economic activity falls, consumer prices increase
 - costs not borne equally across society: poor lower their consumption significantly,
 rich barely affected

- Poor not only more exposed because of **higher energy share**, also face a stronger **fall** in **income**
 - Fall in **incomes** concentrated in **demand-sensitive sectors**; less heterogeneity across sectors' energy intensity
 - Poorer households **predominantly** work in demand-sensitive sectors but are underrepresented in energy-intensive sectors



indirect effects $\approx 80\%$



- Indirect effects via income and employment are key for the transmission
 - account for over 80% of the aggregate effect on consumption
- Climate-economy model with heterogeneity in energy shares, income incidence and MPCs can account for these facts
 - targeted fiscal policy can reduce economic costs of carbon pricing without compromising emission reductions

Related literature

• Effects of carbon pricing on emissions, activity, inequality:

Theory: Nordhaus 2007; Golosov et al. 2014; McKibbin, Morris, and Wilcoxen 2014; Goulder and Hafstead 2018; Goulder et al. 2019; Rausch, Metcalf, and Reilly 2011; among many others

Empirics: Lin and Li 2011; Martin, De Preux, and Wagner 2014; Andersson 2019; Pretis 2019; Metcalf 2019; Bernard, Kichian, and Islam 2018; Metcalf and Stock 2020*a,b*; Pizer and Sexton 2019; Ohlendorf et al. 2021

- Macroeconomic effects of tax changes: Blanchard and Perotti 2002; Romer and Romer 2010; Mertens and Ravn 2013; Cloyne 2013
- **High-frequency identification**: Kuttner 2001; Gürkaynak, Sack, and Swanson 2005; Gertler and Karadi 2015; Nakamura and Steinsson 2018; Känzig 2021
- Heterogeneity and macro policy: Johnson, Parker, and Souleles 2006; Kaplan and Violante 2014; Cloyne and Surico 2017; Bilbiie 2008; Auclert 2019; Patterson 2021

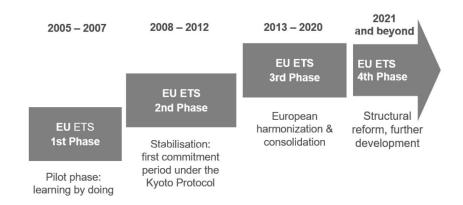
Identification

European carbon market

- Established in 2005, covers around 40% of EU GHG emissions
- Cap on total emissions covered by the system, reduced each year
- Emission allowances (EUA) allocated within the cap
 - free allocation
 - auctions
 - international credits
- Companies must surrender sufficient EUAs to cover their yearly emissions
 - enforced with heavy fines
- Allowances are **traded** on secondary markets (spot and **futures** markets)

European carbon market

- Establishment of EU ETS followed learning-by-doing process
- Three main phases, rules updated continuously
 - address market issues
 - expand system
 - improve efficiency
- Lots of regulatory events



Carbon price

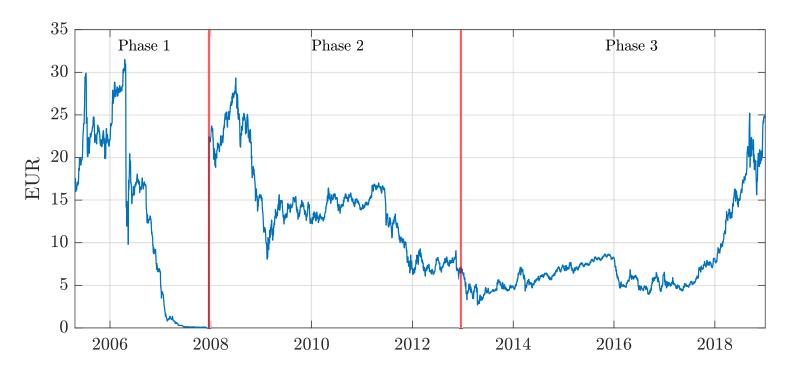


Figure 1: EUA price

Regulatory events

- Collected **comprehensive list** of **regulatory update** events
 - Decisions of European Commission
 - Votes of European Parliament
 - Judgments of European courts
- Of interest in this paper: regulatory news on the supply of allowances
 - National allocation plans
 - Auctions: timing and quantities
 - Use of international credits
- **Identified 113** relevant **events** from 2005-2018



High-frequency identification

• **Idea**: Identify carbon policy surprises from changes in EUA futures price in tight window around regulatory event

$$CPSurprise_{t,d} = F_{t,d} - F_{t,d-1},$$

where $F_{t,d}$ is log settlement price of the EUA front contract on event day d in month t

Aggregate surprises to monthly series

$$\textit{CPSurprise}_t = \begin{cases} \textit{CPSurprise}_{t,d} & \text{if one event} \\ \sum_i \textit{CPSurprise}_{t,d_i} & \text{if multiple events} \\ 0 & \text{if no event} \end{cases}$$

Carbon policy surprises

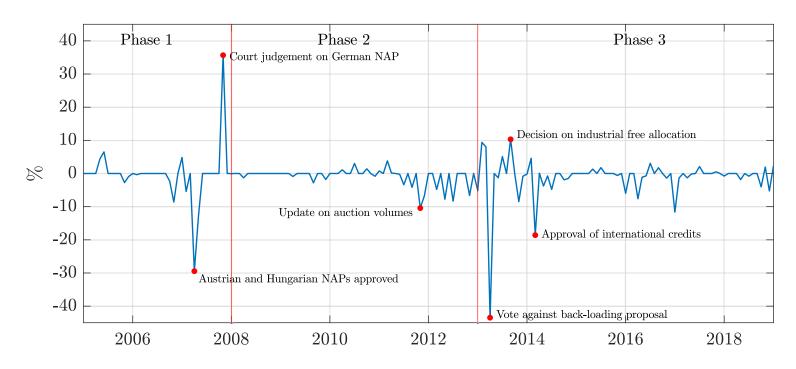


Figure 2: The carbon policy surprise series

▶ Diagnostics

Econometric framework

- Carbon policy surprise series has good properties but still imperfect measure
 - ⇒ Use it as an external **instrument** to estimate dynamic causal effects on variables of interest (Stock and Watson, 2012; Mertens and Ravn, 2013) ▶ Details
 - robust to internal instrument approach (Ramey, 2011; Plagborg-Møller and Wolf, 2019)

 Details
- For estimation I rely on VAR techniques given the short sample

Empirical specification

- 8 variable system, euro area data:
 - Carbon block: HICP¹ energy, total GHG emissions
 - Macro block: headline HICP, industrial production, unemployment rate, policy rate, stock market index, REER
- 6 lags as controls
- Estimation sample: 1999M1-2018M12

▶ Data

¹HICP: Harmonized index of consumer prices

Results

First stage

- Weak instrument test by Montiel Olea and Pflueger (2013)
- Heteroskedastcitity-robust **F-statistic**: **20.95**
- Larger than critical value: 15.06 (assuming worst case bias of 20% with 5% size)
- No evidence for weak instrument problems

The aggregate effects of carbon pricing

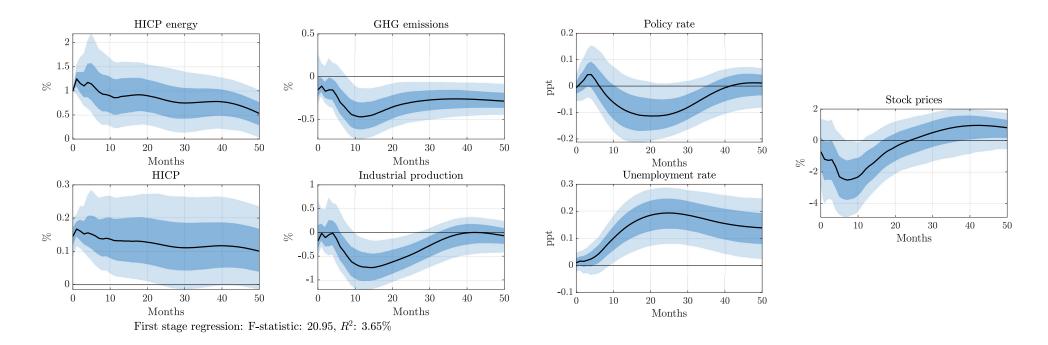


Figure 3: Responses to carbon policy shock, normalized to increase HICP energy by 1%

The solid line is the point estimate and the dark and light shaded areas are 68 and 90% confidence bands

► Internal instrument results



The aggregate effects of carbon pricing

Restrictive carbon policy shock leads to

- strong, immediate increase in energy prices
- significant and persistent fall in emissions

This has **consequences** for the **economy**:

- Consumer prices increase
- Industrial production falls, unemployment rate rises
- ⇒ Trade-off between reducing emissions and economic activity

► Historical importance

Propagation channels

- Energy prices play an important role in the transmission of carbon policy
- Suggests that power sector largely passes through emissions cost to energy prices
 - Model with carbon price implies strong pass-through of carbon to energy prices
 - Event-study evidence shows that returns in utility sector increase in the short run



► Event study

The transmission to the macroeconomy

- Higher energy prices can have significant effects on the economy via direct and indirect channels
- Estimate effects on GDP components using local projections

$$y_{i,t+h} = \beta_{h,0}^{i} + \psi_{h}^{i} CPShock_{t} + \beta_{h,1}^{i} y_{i,t-1} + \ldots + \beta_{h,p}^{i} y_{i,t-p} + \xi_{i,t,h}$$

The transmission to the macroeconomy

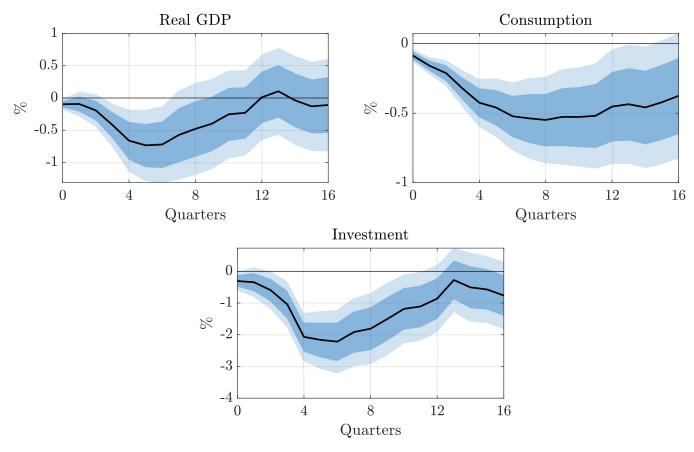


Figure 4: Effect on GDP and components



The transmission to the macroeconomy

- Fall in GDP similar to industrial production
- Looking at components, fall driven by lower consumption and investment
 - magnitudes much larger than can be accounted for by direct effect via energy prices
 - indirect effects via income seem to be important

The heterogeneous effects of carbon pricing

- Big debate on energy poverty amid Commission's 'Fit for 55' proposal
- Crucial to better understand the distributional effects crucial of carbon pricing
- Also helps to sharpen understanding of transmission channels at work

The heterogeneous effects of carbon pricing

- Study heterogeneous effects of carbon pricing on households
- **Problem**: Household-level micro data not available at the EU level for long enough and regular sample
 - Focus on **UK** where high-quality micro data on **income** and **expenditure** is available
 - Check external validity using data for Denmark and Spain

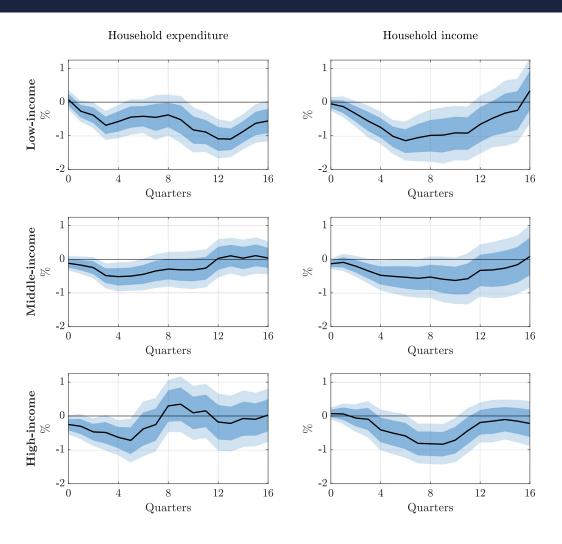
Living costs and food survey

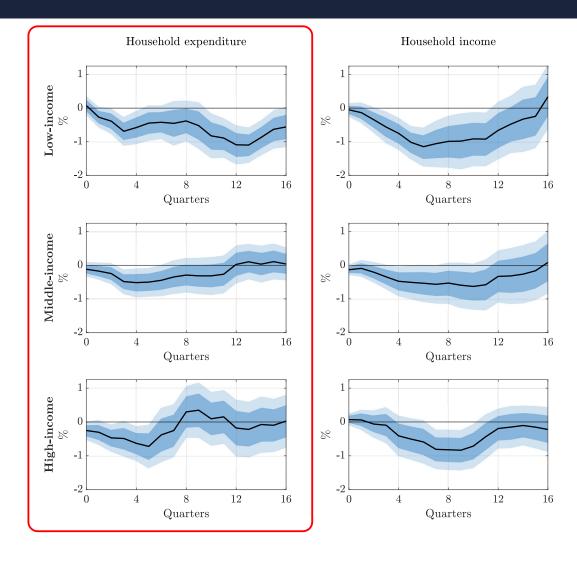
- LCFS is the major UK survey on household spending
 - provides detailed information on expenditure, income, and household characteristics
 - fielded every year but interview date allows to construct quarterly measures
- I compile a **repeated cross-section** spanning the period 1999 to 2018
 - each wave contains around 6,000 households, generating over 120,000 observations in total
- To estimate effects, I use a **grouping estimator** using **normal disposable income** as the grouping variable:

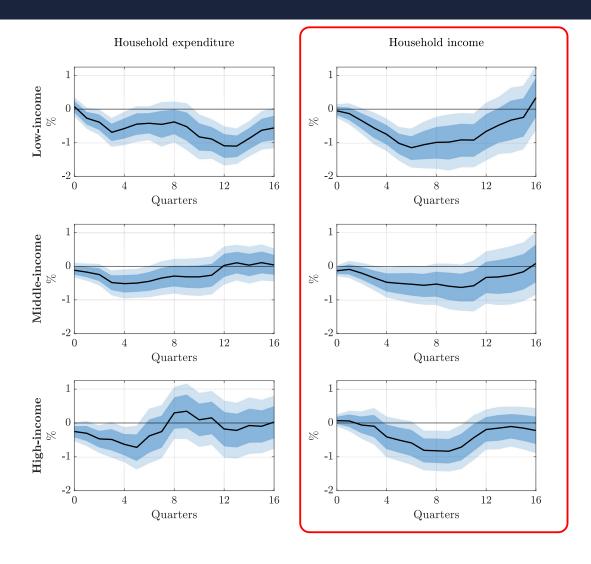
• Low-income: Bottom 25%

• Middle-income: Middle 50%

• **High-income**: Top 25%







- Low-income households lower their consumption significantly and persistently
- Response of high-income households barely significant
 - Low-income households are more exposed because of higher energy share
 - But also experience **stronger fall** in their **income**

► Energy/non-energy exp.

▶ More on grouping

▶ Other countries

Direct versus indirect effects

Table 1: Cumulative changes over impulse horizon in pounds

	Overall	By income group		
		Low-income	Middle-income	High-income
Expenditure				
Energy	25.02	22.12	30.51	16.96
	[-15.73, 65.78]	[-31.97, 76.21]	[-24.15, 85.16]	[-40.92, 74.83]
Non-durables excl. energy	-165.87	-297.69	-139.19	-87.41
	[-295.13, -36.61]	[-440.23, -155.15]	[-272.11, -6.27]	[-398.30, 223.48]
Durables	-33.91	-33.01	-1.49	-99.65
	[-102.78, 34.96]	[-69.64, 3.63]	[-85.08, 82.11]	[-285.30, 86.00]
Income				
	-446.93	-369.38	-398.49	-621.36
	[-763.94, -129.92]	[-715.05, -23.71]	[-797.59, 0.60]	[-1309.62, 66.90]

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- Energy bill increases but cannot account for fall in expenditure, particularly for low-income households
- Fall in expenditure of low-income households comparable to fall in income;
 higher-income households reduce expenditure much less
- Indirect effects via income account for 80% of the aggregate consumption response, direct effects via energy price only 20%
- Policy heavily regressive after accounting for indirect effects
 - Low-income households account for $\sim 40\%$ of the aggregate effect on consumption though they account for much smaller consumption share in normal times ($\sim 15\%$)

What drives the income response?

- Significant heterogeneity in income responses
- Potential explanations:



• Differences in income composition: labor versus. financial income • More



Policy implications

- Fiscal policies targeted to the most affected households can reduce the economic costs of climate change mitigation policy
- To the extent that energy demand is **inelastic**, this should **not compromise** emission reductions
 - Turns out to be particularly the case for low-income households PIRFS

Model

- To study role of redistributing auction revenues, build a climate-economy model to use as a laboratory
- Climate-economy model with nominal rigidities and household heterogeneity
 - **Energy sector** producing energy/emissions using labor
 - Non-energy NK sector producing consumption good using energy, labor and capital
 - Two households: hand-to-mouth and savers differing in energy expenditure shares, income incidence and MPCs. Idiosyncratic risk as households switch between types
- Calibrated to match key micro and macro moments

► Model details

► Model evaluation

Redistributing carbon revenues

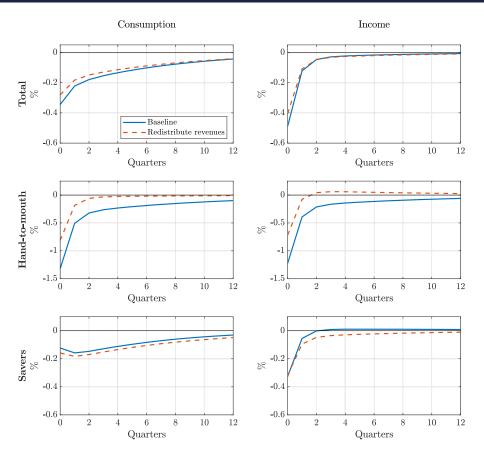


Figure 5: Responses to carbon tax shock, normalized to increase energy price by 1%

Redistributing carbon revenues

- Model can match the estimated (peak) magnitudes in the data
 - Heterogeneity plays a crucial role,
 - In RA model implausibly high energy share needed to match magnitudes
- Redistributing tax revenues to hand-to-mouth can
 - reduce inequality and attenuate aggregate effect on consumption
 - while emissions only change little



Policy implications

• Especially relevant given recent surge in European carbon prices



• Distributional effects could threaten public support of the policy

➤ Suggestive evidence

Beyond the short term

- An often used argument for carbon prices is that it fosters directed technological change
- Use patent data from the EPO to study effect on patenting in climate change mitigation technologies

Effect on innovation

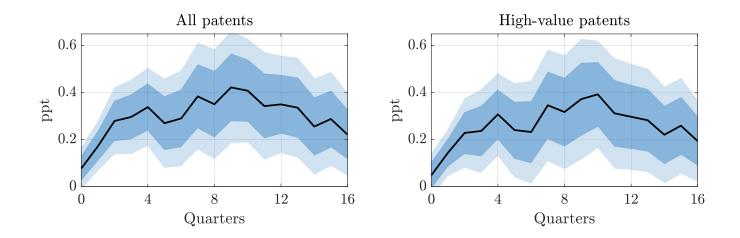


Figure 6: Share of low-carbon patents

- Significant increase in climate change mitigation patenting
- Key for longer-term **transition** to **low-carbon economy**

Robustness

Check robustness with respect to

- Selection of events: robust to just using NAP/auction events, robust to dropping largest events
- Background noise: robust to controlling for confounding news using a heteroskedasticity-based approach
- Sample and specification choices: robust to estimating on shorter sample, to lag order, and to using a smaller system to estimate effects

▶ Details

Conclusion

Conclusion

- New evidence on the economic effects of carbon pricing from the European carbon market
- Policy successful in reducing emissions and fostering green innovation
- But comes at economic cost that is not borne equally across society
 policy is quite regressive after accounting for indirect effects
- Targeted fiscal policy can reduce these costs without compromising emission reductions



Example events

Table 2: Regulatory update events (extract)

	Date	Event description	Туре
54	30/11/2012	Commission rules on temporary free allowances for power plants in Hungary	Free alloc.
55	25/01/2013	Update on free allocation of allowances in 2013	Free alloc.
56	28/02/2013	Free allocation of 2013 aviation allowances postponed	Free alloc.
57	25/03/2013	Auctions of aviation allowances not to resume before June	Auction
58	16/04/2013	The European Parliament voted against the Commission's back-loading proposal	Auction
59	05/06/2013	Commission submits proposal for international credit entitlements for 2013 to 2020	Intl. credits
60	03/07/2013	The European Parliament voted for the carbon market back-loading proposal	Auction
61	10/07/2013	Member states approve addition of sectors to the carbon leakage list for 2014	Free alloc.
62	30/07/2013	Update on industrial free allocation for phase III	Free alloc.
63	05/09/2013	Commission finalized decision on industrial free allocation for phase three	Free alloc.
64	26/09/2013	Update on number of aviation allowances to be auctioned in 2012	Auction

◆ Back

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◆ Back

- Narrative account:
- Autocorrelation:
- Forecastability:
- Orthogonality:
- Background noise:





- Narrative account: ✓ Accords well with accounts on historical episodes
- Autocorrelation:
- Forecastability:
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- Background noise: ✓ Variance on event days 6 times larger than on control days





Autocorrelation

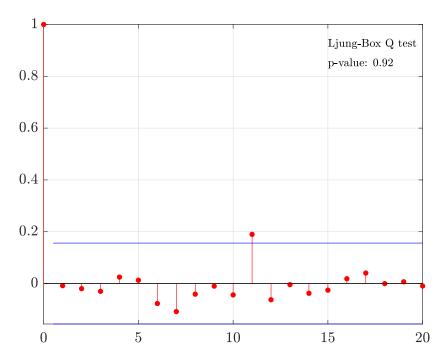


Figure 7: The autocorrelation function of the carbon policy surprise series

Forecastability

 Table 3: Granger causality tests

Variable	p-value
Instrument	0.9066
EUA price	0.7575
HICP energy	0.7551
GHG emissions	0.7993
HICP	0.8125
Industrial production	0.7540
Policy rate	0.9414
Unemployment rate	0.9310
Stock prices	0.9718
REER	0.9075
Joint	0.9997

Orthogonality

Shock	Source	ρ	p-value	n	Sample		
Monthly measures							
Global oil market							
Oil supply	Kilian (2008) (extended)	-0.05	0.61	104	2005M05-2013M12		
	Kilian (2009) (updated)	-0.02	0.76	164	2005M05-2018M12		
	Caldara, Cavallo, and Iacoviello (2019)	-0.05	0.57	128	2005M05-2015M12		
	Baumeister and Hamilton (2019)	-0.11	0.17	164	2005M05-2018M12		
	Känzig (2021) (updated)	0.02	0.83	164	2005M05-2018M12		
Global demand	Kilian (2009) (updated)	0.01	0.93	164	2005M05-2018M12		
	Baumeister and Hamilton (2019)	-0.03	0.69	164	2005M05-2018M12		
Oil-specific demand	Kilian (2009) (updated)	0.05	0.55	164	2005M05-2018M12		
Consumption demand	Baumeister and Hamilton (2019)	0.05	0.51	164	2005M05-2018M12		
Inventory demand	Baumeister and Hamilton (2019)	-0.03	0.68	164	2005M05-2018M12		
Monetary policy							
Monetary policy shock	Jarociński and Karadi (2020)	0.02	0.80	140	2005M05-2016M12		
Central bank info	Jarociński and Karadi (2020)	0.03	0.75	140	2005M05-2016M12		
Financial & uncertainty	,						
Financial conditions	BBB spread residual	0.06	0.43	164	2005M05-2018M12		
Financial uncertainty	VIX residual (Bloom, 2009)	0.10	0.43	164	2005M05-2018M12		
i maneral uncertainty	VSTOXX residual	0.05	0.50	164	2005M05-2018M12		
Policy uncertainty	Global EPU (Baker, Bloom, and Davis, 2016)	0.03	0.71	164	2005M05-2018M12		
Quarterly measures	_						
Fiscal policy	Euro area (Alloza, Burriel, and Pérez, 2019)	0.12	0.44	43	2005Q2-2015Q4		
	Germany	0.22	0.15	43	2005Q2-2015Q4		
	France	-0.06	0.69	43	2005Q2-2015Q4		
	Italy	0.28	0.07	43	2005Q2-2015Q4		
	Spain	0.10	0.52	43	2005Q2-2015Q4		

Notes: The table shows the correlation of the carbon policy surprise series with a wide range of different shock measures from the literature, including global oil market shocks, monetary policy, financial and uncertainty shocks. ρ is the Pearson correlation coefficient, the p-value corresponds to the test whether the correlation is different from zero and n is the sample size.

Background noise

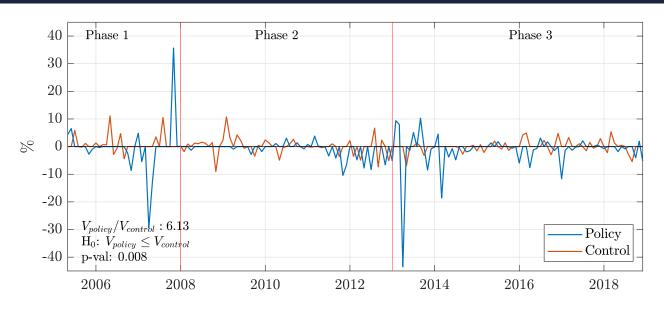


Figure 8: The carbon policy and the control series

Notes: This figure shows the carbon policy surprise series together with the surprise series constructed on a selection of control days that do not contain a regulatory announcement but are otherwise similar.



External instrument approach

Structural VAR

$$\mathsf{y}_t = \mathsf{b} + \mathsf{B}_1 \mathsf{y}_{t-1} + \dots + \mathsf{B}_{\rho} \mathsf{y}_{t-\rho} + \mathsf{S} \varepsilon_t, \qquad \varepsilon_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{\Omega})$$

- External instrument: variable z_t correlated with the shock of interest but not with the other shocks
- Identifying assumptions:

$$\mathbb{E}[z_t \varepsilon_{1,t}] = \alpha \neq 0$$
 (Relevance)
$$\mathbb{E}[z_t \varepsilon_{2:n,t}] = 0,$$
 (Exogeneity)
$$u_t = S\varepsilon_t$$
 (Invertibility)

• Use carbon policy surprise series as external instrument for energy price



Internal instrument approach

• Augment VAR by external instrument: $\bar{y}_t = (z_t, y_t')'$

$$ar{\mathbf{y}}_t = \mathbf{b} + \mathsf{B}_1 ar{\mathbf{y}}_{t-1} + \dots + \mathsf{B}_{ar{
ho}} ar{\mathbf{y}}_{t-ar{
ho}} + \mathsf{S}oldsymbol{arepsilon}_t, \qquad oldsymbol{arepsilon}_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0,oldsymbol{\Omega})$$

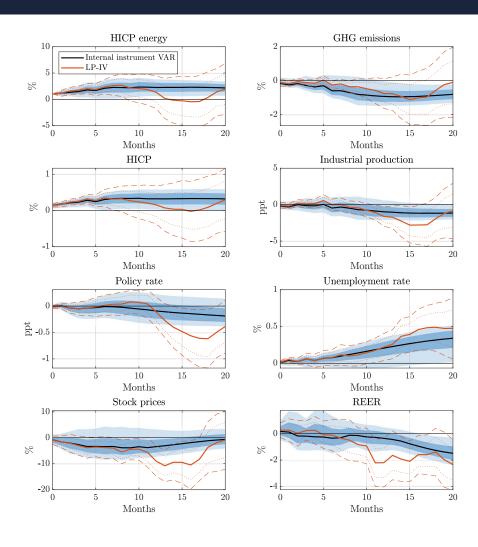
Identifying assumptions:

$$\mathbb{E}[z_t arepsilon_{1,t}] = lpha
eq 0$$
 (Relevance) $\mathbb{E}[z_t arepsilon_{2:n,t}] = 0,$ (Contemporaneous exogeneity) $\mathbb{E}[z_t arepsilon_{t+j}] = 0,$ for $j
eq 0$ (Lead-lag exogeneity)

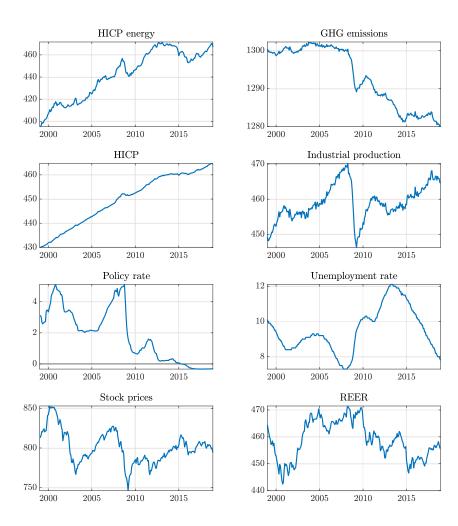
 Robust to non-invertibility but instrument has to be orthogonal to leads and lags of structural shocks



Local projections versus internal instrument approach

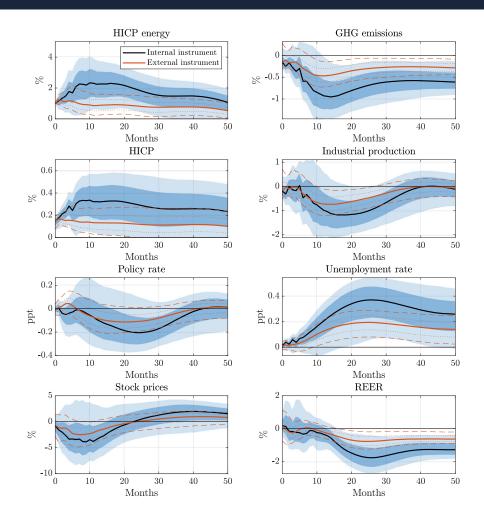


Data



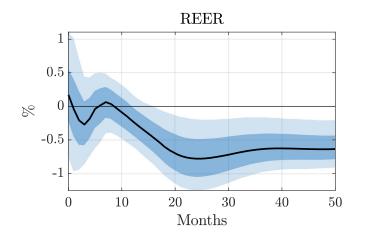
■ Back

Internal versus external instrument approach





Foreign exchange and trade



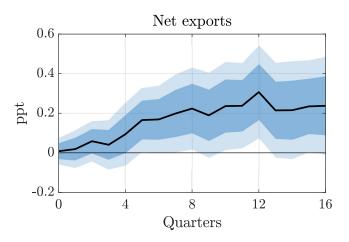


Figure 10: Effect on foreign exchange and trade



Model with carbon price

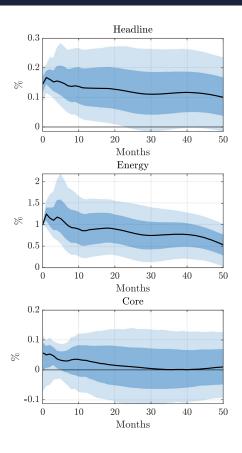


Figure 11: Model including carbon spot price



Historical importance

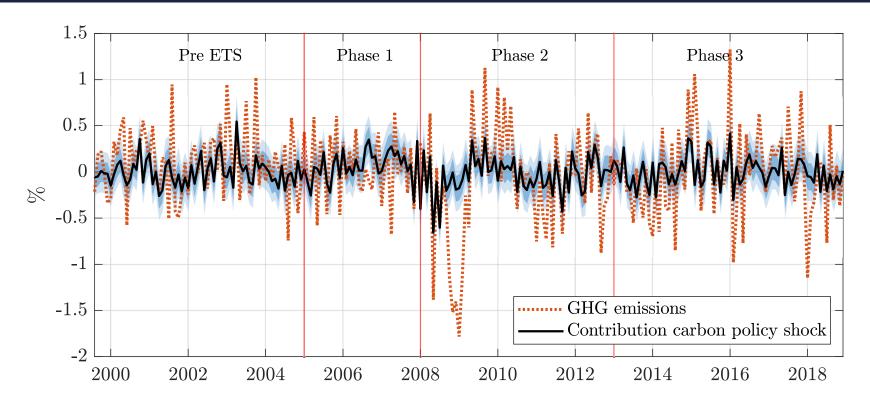


Figure 12: Historical decomposition of emissions growth

Historical importance

- Carbon policy shocks have contributed meaningfully to historical variations in energy prices, emissions and macro variables
- But: Did not account for the fall in emissions following the global financial crisis
 - supports the **validity** of the identified shock



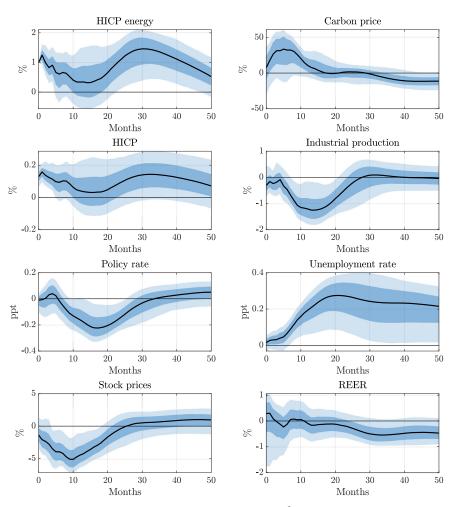


Historical importance

 Table 4: Variance decomposition

h	HICP energy	Emissions	HICP	IP	Policy rate	Unemp. rate	Stock prices	REER
Pane	el A: Forecast var	iance decompos	ition (SVAR-IV)					
6	0.41	0.12	0.49	0.02	0.00	0.07	0.12	0.00
	[0.20, 0.81]	[0.03, 0.41]	[0.27, 0.83]	[0.00, 0.07]	[0.00, 0.01]	[0.01, 0.55]	[0.03, 0.63]	[0.00, 0.01]
12	0.34	0.25	0.34	0.14	0.03	0.23	0.15	0.00
	[0.14, 0.71]	[0.07, 0.69]	[0.15, 0.68]	[0.04, 0.49]	[0.01, 0.19]	[0.06, 0.84]	[0.04, 0.65]	[0.00, 0.01]
24	0.35	0.33	0.25	0.27	0.12	0.37	0.11	0.08
	[0.15, 0.70]	[0.10, 0.73]	[0.08, 0.54]	[0.09, 0.67]	[0.03, 0.54]	[0.12, 0.91]	[0.03, 0.48]	[0.03, 0.26]
48	0.39	0.34	0.19	0.22	0.12	0.39	0.11	0.20
	[0.16, 0.72]	[0.13, 0.68]	[0.05, 0.47]	[0.08, 0.57]	[0.03, 0.46]	[0.13, 0.85]	[0.03, 0.45]	[0.06, 0.48]
Fore	cast variance rati	o (SVMA-IV)						
6	0.04, 0.31	0.02, 0.18	0.07, 0.49	0.02, 0.14	0.00, 0.02	0.05, 0.35	0.00, 0.03	0.00, 0.00
	[0.02, 0.53]	[0.01, 0.40]	[0.04, 0.75]	[0.01, 0.34]	[0.00, 0.06]	[0.03, 0.59]	[0.00, 0.09]	[0.00, 0.02]
12	0.05, 0.33	0.03, 0.18	0.07, 0.50	0.02, 0.16	0.00, 0.02	0.05, 0.36	0.01, 0.04	0.00, 0.01
	[0.03, 0.53]	[0.01, 0.36]	[0.04, 0.73]	[0.01, 0.33]	[0.00, 0.05]	[0.03, 0.60]	[0.00, 0.08]	[0.00, 0.02]
24	0.05, 0.32	0.03, 0.19	0.07, 0.50	0.02, 0.18	0.01, 0.08	0.08, 0.54	0.01, 0.04	0.00, 0.01
	[0.02, 0.51]	[0.01, 0.36]	[0.04, 0.72]	[0.01, 0.35]	[0.01, 0.19]	[0.04, 0.78]	[0.00, 0.09]	[0.00, 0.02]
48	0.05, 0.32	0.03, 0.19	0.07, 0.50	0.02, 0.18	0.01, 0.08	0.09, 0.55	0.01, 0.05	0.00, 0.01
	[0.02, 0.51]	[0.01, 0.35]	[0.04, 0.72]	[0.01, 0.34]	[0.01, 0.19]	[0.04, 0.78]	[0.00, 0.09]	[0.00, 0.02]

Model with carbon price



First stage regression: F-statistic: 15.30, R^2 : 5.48%

The role of energy prices

To better understand **role** of **power sector** perform event study using daily futures and stock prices

$$q_{i,d+h} - q_{i,d-1} = \beta_{h,0}^{i} + \psi_{h}^{i} CPSurprise_{d} + \beta_{h,1}^{i} \Delta q_{i,d-1} + \ldots + \beta_{h,p}^{i} \Delta q_{i,d-p} + \xi_{i,d,h}$$

- $q_{i,d+h}$: (log) price of asset i, h days after event d
- CPSurprise_d: carbon policy surprise on event day
- ψ_h^i : effect on asset price i at horizon h

The role of energy prices

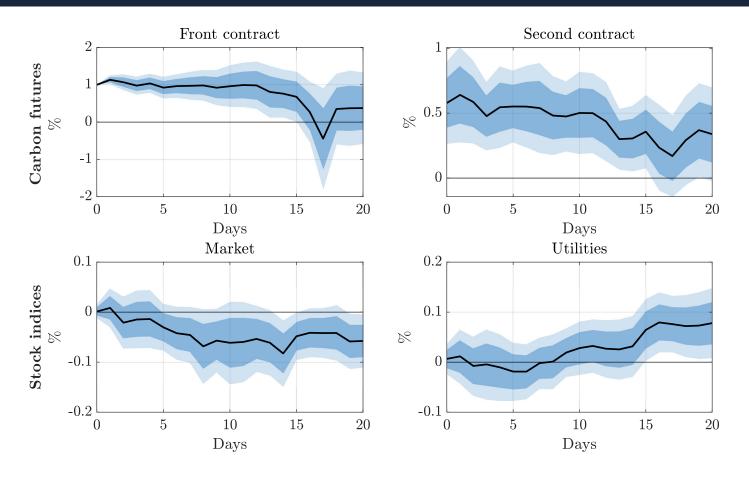


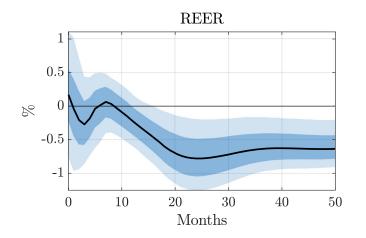
Figure 14: Carbon price and stock market indices

The role of energy prices

- Carbon futures prices increase significantly after carbon policy surprise
- Stock market does not respond on impact but only falls with a lag
- Utilities sector is the only sector displaying a positive response
 - Supports interpretation that utilities sector **passes through** emissions cost to their customers



Foreign exchange and trade



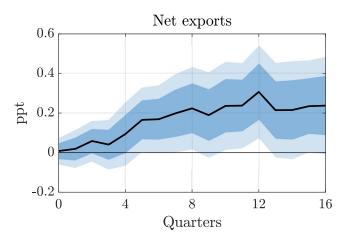


Figure 15: Effect on foreign exchange and trade



Descriptive statistics

 Table 5: Descriptive statistics on households in the LCFS

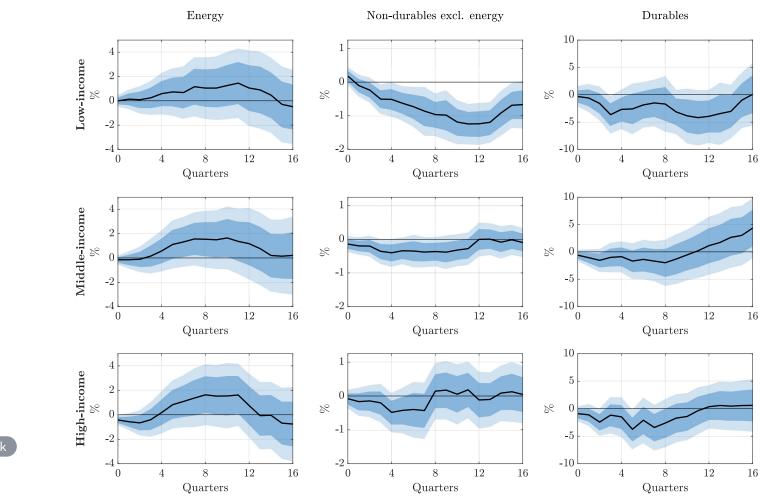
	Overall	By income group		
		Low-income	Middle-income	High-income
Income and expenditure				
Normal disposable income	6,699	3,711	6,760	10,835
Total expenditure	4,459	3,019	4,444	6,259
Energy share	7.2	9.4	7.1	5.1
Non-durables (excl. energy) share	81.5	81.7	81.6	81.3
Durables share	11.3	8.9	11.3	13.6
Household characteristics				
Age	51	46	54	49
Education (share with post-comp.)	33.5	25.0	29.1	51.0
Housing tenure				
Social renters	20.9	47.1	17.4	3.7
Mortgagors	42.6	25.5	41.6	60.4
Outright owners	36.6	27.4	41.0	36.0

Descriptive statistics

Table 5: Descriptive statistics on households in the LCFS

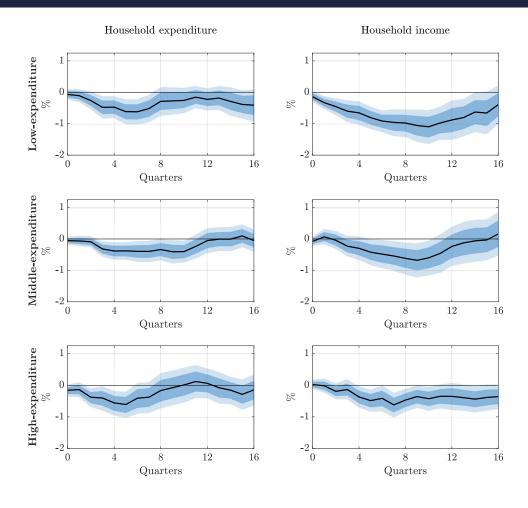
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Mortgagors	42.6	25.5	41.6	60.4	
Outright owners	36.6	27.4	41.0	36.0	

Energy versus non-energy expenditure

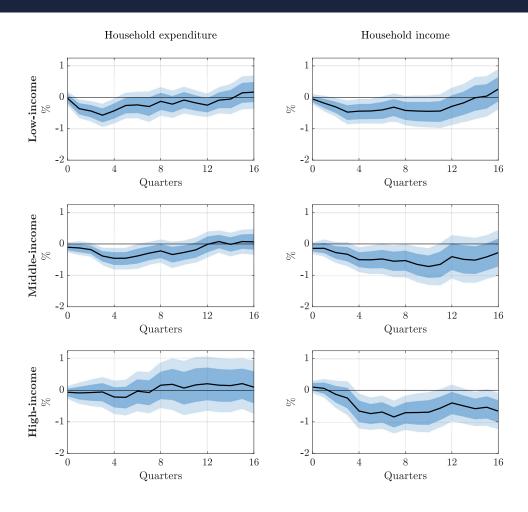


◆ Back

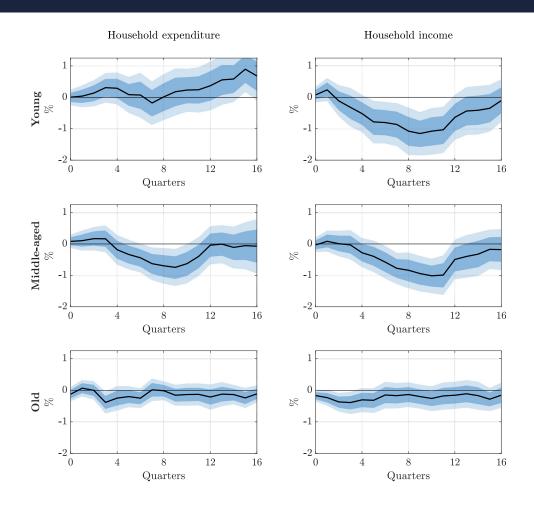
Group by expenditure



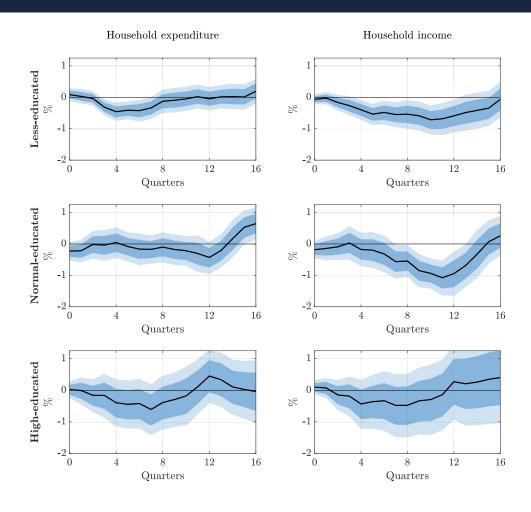
Group by permanent income



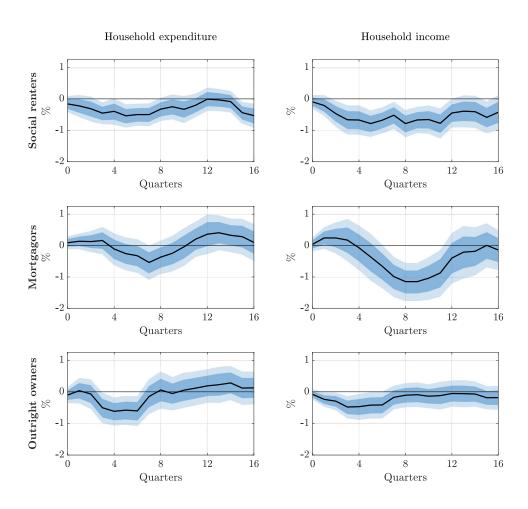
Group by age



Group by education

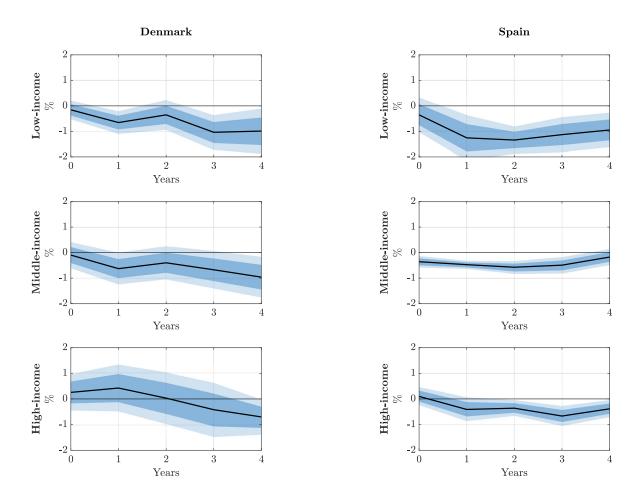


Group by housing tenure



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External validity



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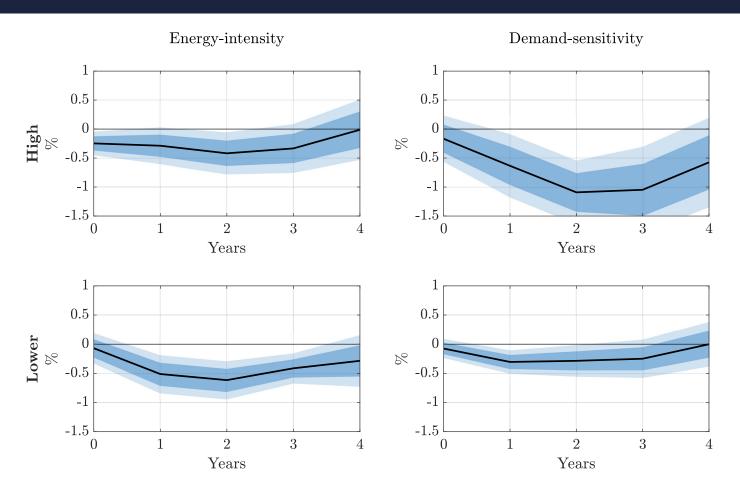


Figure 16: Income response by sector of employment

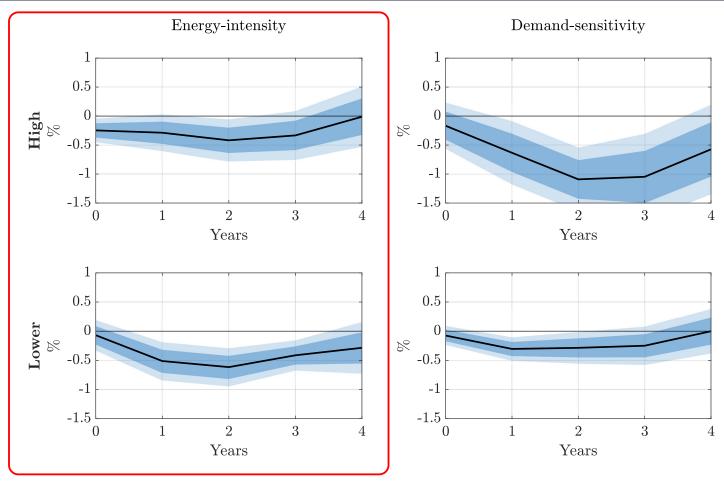


Figure 16: Income response by sector of employment

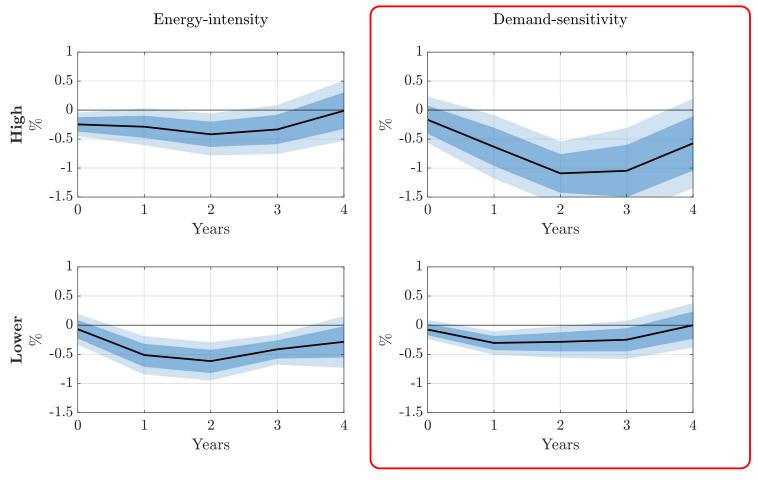


Figure 16: Income response by sector of employment

Table 6: Sectoral distribution of employment

Sectors	Overall	By income group		
		Low-income	Middle-income	High-income
Energy intensity				
High	21.8	9.8	25.8	25.9
Lower	78.2	90.2	74.2	74.1
Demand sensitivity				
High	30.6	49.1	27.3	18.1
Lower	69.4	50.9	72.7	81.9

Table 6: Sectoral distribution of employment

Sectors	Overall	By income group		
		Low-income	Middle-income	High-income
Energy intensity				
High	21.8	9.8	25.8	25.9
Lower	78.2	90.2	74.2	74.1
Demand sensitivity				
High	30.6	49.1	27.3	18.1
Lower	69.4	50.9	72.7	81.9



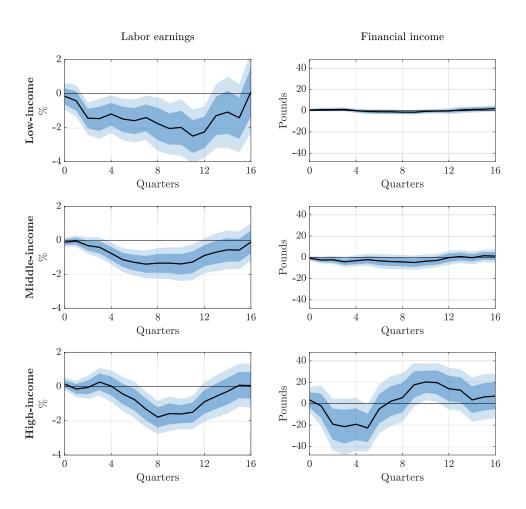
Definition of sector groups

Table 7: Sectors by energy intensity and demand sensitivity

Group	Sectors	SIC sections
High energy intensity	Agriculture, forestry, and fishing; mining and quarrying; manufacturing; electricity, gas and water supply (utilities); transport, storage and communications	A-E, I
Lower energy intensity	Construction; Wholesale and retail trade; Hotels and restaurants; Financial intermediation; Real estate, renting and business; Public administration and defense; Education; Health and social work; Other community, social and personal services	F-H, J-Q
High demand sensitivity	Construction; Wholesale and retail trade; Hotels and restaurants; Other community, social and personal services	F-H, O-Q
Lower demand sensitivity	Agriculture, forestry, and fishing; mining and quarrying; manufacturing; electricity, gas and water supply (utilities); transport, storage and communications; Financial intermediation; Real estate, renting and business; Public administration and defense; Education; Health and social work	A-E, J-N



Earnings and financial income



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Energy expenditure

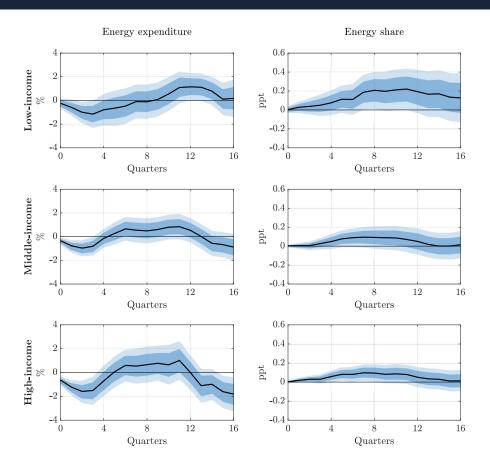


Figure 17: Energy expenditure and energy share by income group



Model evaluation

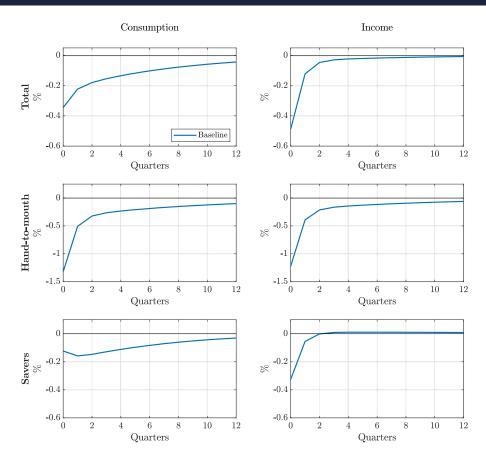


Figure 18: Responses to carbon tax shock, normalized to increase energy price by 1%

Model evaluation

Table 8: Direct versus indirect effects in model and data

	Overall	By household group			
		Low-income/ Hand-to-mouth	Higher-income/ Savers		
Model					
Direct	11.1	2.0	25.5		
Indirect	88.9	98.0	74.5		
Data					
Direct	14.3	7.2	20.3		
Indirect	85.7	92.8	79.7		



Redistributing carbon revenues

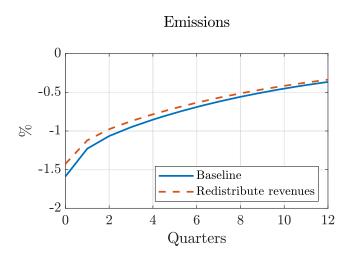


Figure 19: Responses to carbon tax shock, normalized to increase energy price by 1%



Households

- Two types of households: λ hand-to-mouth H and $1-\lambda$ savers S
- Hand-to-mouth live paycheck to paycheck, consume all their income
- Savers choose consumption intertemporally, save/invest in capital and bonds
- Households subject to idiosyncratic risk: switch between types
 - probability to stay saver s, probability to stay hand-to-mouth h
- Only risk-free bonds are liquid and can be used to self-insure
- Centralized labor market structure: union sets wages

$$w_t = arphi h_t^ heta \left(\lambda rac{1}{
ho_{H,t}} \mathit{U}_{\scriptscriptstyle X}(\mathit{x}_{H,t},\mathit{h}_t) + (1-\lambda) rac{1}{
ho_{S,t}} \mathit{U}_{\scriptscriptstyle X}(\mathit{x}_{S,t},\mathit{h}_t)
ight)^{-1}$$

- Savers maximize lifetime utility $\mathbb{E}_0\left[\sum_{t=0}^{\infty}\beta^t U(x_{S,t},h_t)\right]$ subject to budget constraint and capital accumulation
- Consumption good is composite of energy and non-energy good

$$x_{S,t} = \left(a_{S,c}^{\frac{1}{\epsilon_X}} c_{S,t}^{\frac{\epsilon_X-1}{\epsilon_X}} + a_{S,e}^{\frac{1}{\epsilon_X}} e_{S,t}^{\frac{\epsilon_X-1}{\epsilon_X}}\right)^{\frac{\epsilon_X}{\epsilon_X-1}}$$

• Optimizing behavior

$$egin{align} c_{S,t} &= a_{S,c} \left(rac{1}{p_{S,t}}
ight)^{-\epsilon_\chi} x_{S,t} \ e_{S,t} &= a_{S,e} \left(rac{p_{e,t}}{p_{S,t}}
ight)^{-\epsilon_\chi} x_{S,t} \ \lambda_{S,t} &= eta \, \mathbb{E}_t \left[(1+(1- au^k)r_{t+1}-\delta)\lambda_{S,t+1}
ight] \ \lambda_{S,t} &= eta \, \mathbb{E}_t \left[rac{R_t^b}{\Pi_{t+1}} \left(s\lambda_{S,t+1} + (1-s)\lambda_{H,t+1}
ight)
ight] \ \end{array}$$

• Hand-to-mouth are constrained, just exhaust their budget in every period

$$c_{H,t} = a_{H,c} \left(\frac{1}{p_{S,t}}\right)^{-\epsilon_X} x_{H,t}$$
 $e_{H,t} = a_{H,e} \left(\frac{p_{e,t}}{p_{S,t}}\right)^{-\epsilon_X} x_{H,t}$
 $p_{H,t} x_{H,t} = y_{H,t}$

Firms

• Energy producers, subject to carbon tax τ_t

$$egin{aligned} e_t &= a_{e,t} h_{e,t} \ w_t &= (1- au_t)
ho_{e,t} rac{e_t}{h_{e,t}} \end{aligned}$$

Consumption good producers

$$y_t = e^{-\gamma s_t} a_t k_t^{\alpha} e_{y,t}^{\nu} h_{y,t}^{1-\alpha-\nu}$$
 $r_t = \alpha m c_t \frac{y_t}{k_t}$
 $p_{e,t} = \nu m c_t \frac{y_t}{e_{y,t}}$
 $w_t = (1 - \alpha - \nu) m c_t \frac{y_t}{h_{y,t}}$
 $\hat{\pi}_t = \kappa \hat{m} c_t + \beta E_t \hat{\pi}_{t+1}$

Climate block

$$s_t = (1 - \varphi)s_{t-1} + \varphi_0 e_t$$

Fiscal and monetary policy

$$\lambda \omega_{H,t} = \tau^d d_t + \tau^k r_t^K k_t + \mu \tau_t p_{e,t} e_t$$

$$(1 - \lambda) \omega_{S,t} = (1 - \mu) \tau_t p_{e,t} e_t$$

$$\tau_t = (1 - \rho_\tau) \tau + \rho_\tau \tau_{t-1} + \epsilon_{\tau,t}$$

$$\hat{r}_t^b = \rho_r \hat{r}_{t-1}^b + (1 - \rho_r) (\phi_\pi \hat{\pi}_{T,t} + \phi_y \hat{y}_t) + \epsilon_{mp,t}$$

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Calibration

Parameter	Description	Value	Target/Source
β	Discount factor	0.99	Smets and Wouters (2003)
$1/\sigma$	Intertemporal elasticity of substitution	2	Standard macro-finance value/Sensitivity
$1/\theta$	Labor supply elasticity	2	Standard macro value/Sensitivity
φ	Labor utility weight	0.783	Steady-state hours normalized to 1
λ	Share of hand-to-mouth	0.25	Share of low-income households, LCFS
1-s	Probability of becoming H	0.04	Bilbiie (2020)
$a_{H,e}$	Distribution parameter H	0.099	Energy share of 9.5%, LCFS
$a_{S,e}$	Distribution parameter S	0.068	Energy share of 6.5%, LCFS
$\epsilon_{\scriptscriptstyle X}$	Elasticity of substitution energy/non-energy	0.75	Weak complementarity/Sensitivity
δ	Depreciation rate	0.025	Smets and Wouters (2003)
α	Capital returns-to-scale	0.275	Steady-state capital share of 30%; Smets and Wouters (2003)
ν	Energy returns-to-scale	0.085	Steady-state energy share of 7%; Eurostat
ϵ_{p}	Price elasticity	6	Steady-state markup of 20%; Christopoulou and Vermeulen (2012
θ_{p}	Calvo parameter	0.825	Average price duration of 5-6 quarters; Alvarez et al. (2006)
$\stackrel{\cdot}{\gamma}$	Climate damage parameter	$5.3 * 10^{-5}$	Golosov et al. (2014)
$arphi_0$	Emissions staying in atmosphere	0.5359	Golosov et al. (2014)
1-arphi	Emissions decay parameter	0.9994	Golosov et al. (2014)
ϕ_{π}	Taylor rule coefficient inflation	1.75	Standard value
$\phi_{\scriptscriptstyle m{V}}$	Taylor rule coefficient output	0.25	Standard value
$ ho_r$	Interest smoothing	0.6	Standard value
au	Steady-state carbon tax	0.039	Implied tax rate from average EUA price
$ ho_{ au}$	Persistence carbon tax shock	0.9	Mean-reversion of approx. 20 quarters

Role of heterogeneity

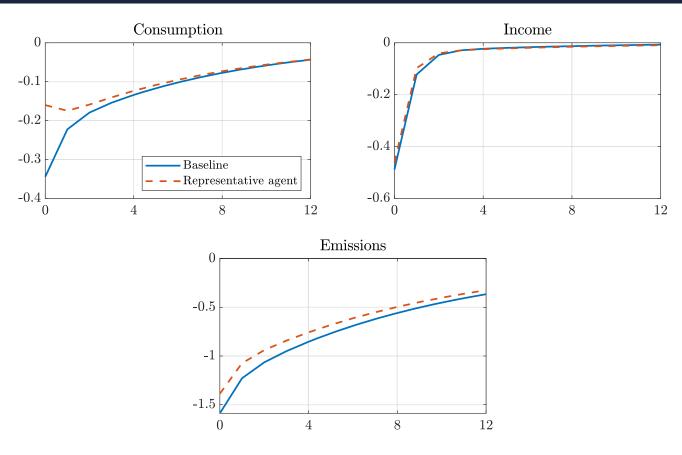


Figure 20: Responses to carbon tax shock, normalized to increase energy price by 1%

Direct versus indirect channels

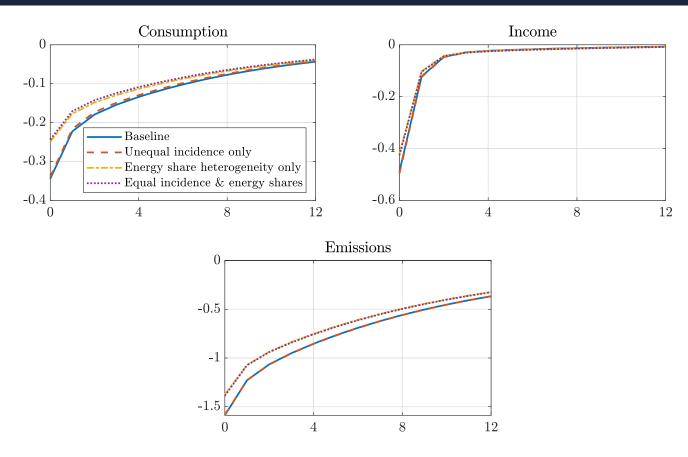


Figure 21: Responses to carbon tax shock, normalized to increase energy price by 1%



Attitudes towards climate policy

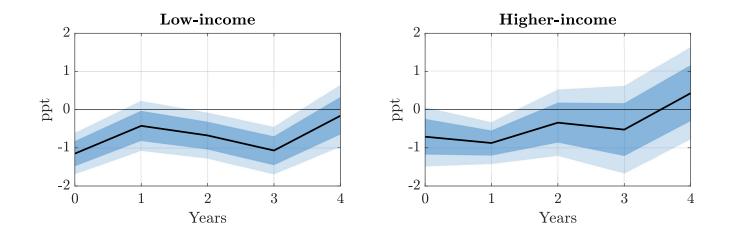
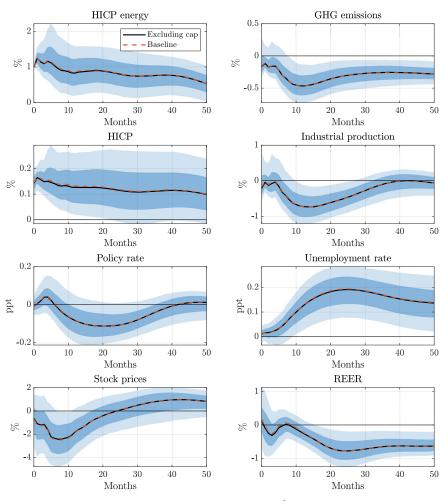


Figure 22: Effect on attitude towards climate policy by income group

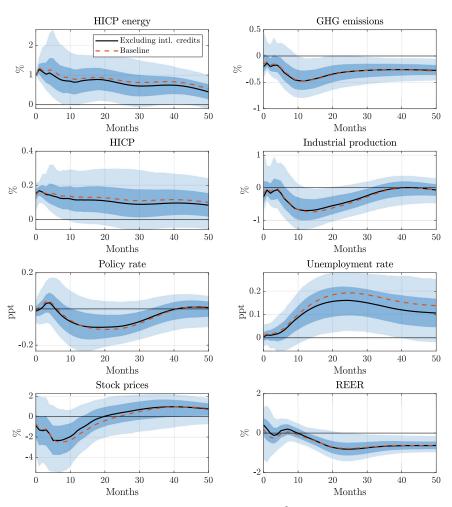


Excluding events regarding cap



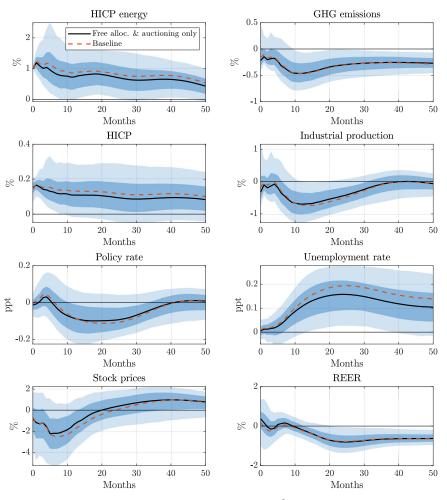
First stage regression: F-statistic: 20.29, R^2 : 3.58%

Excluding events regarding international credits



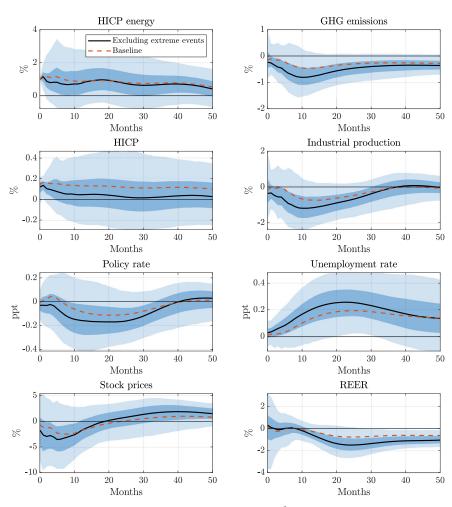
First stage regression: F-statistic: 15.00, R^2 : 2.90%

Only using events regarding NAPs



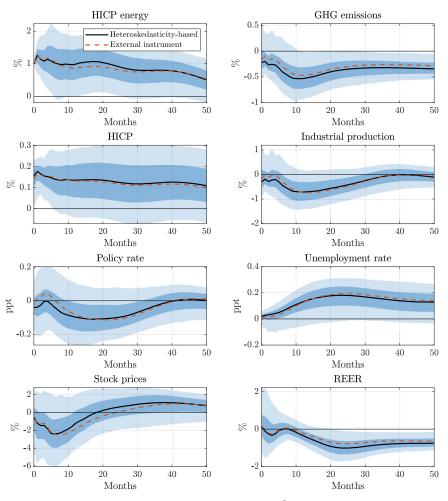
First stage regression: F-statistic: 14.42, R^2 : 2.83%

Excluding extreme events



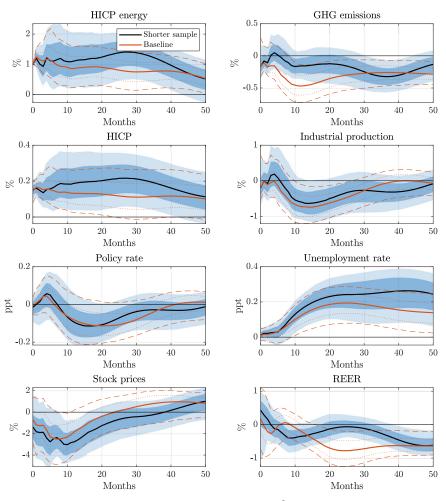
First stage regression: F-statistic: 5.77, R^2 : 1.06%

Heteroskedasticity-based identification



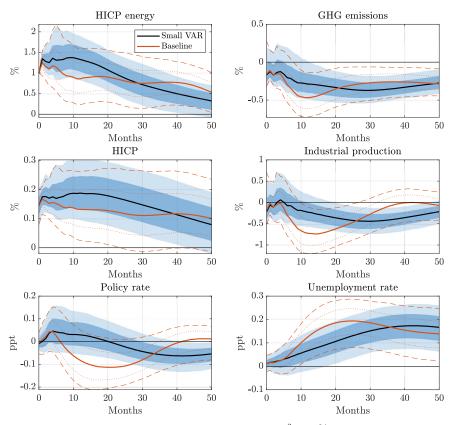
First stage regression: F-statistic: 37.55, R^2 : 51.68%

2005-2018 sample



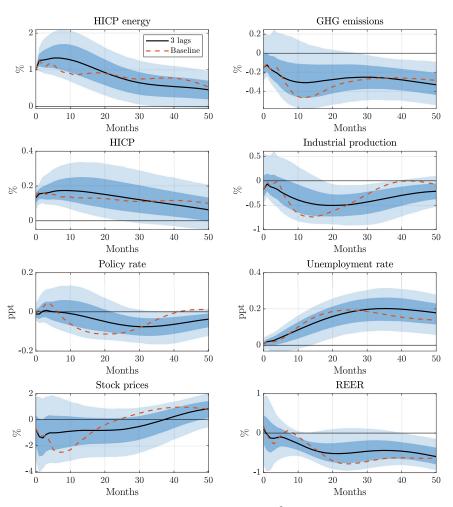
First stage regression: F-statistic: 14.11, R^2 : 4.49%

Responses from smaller VAR



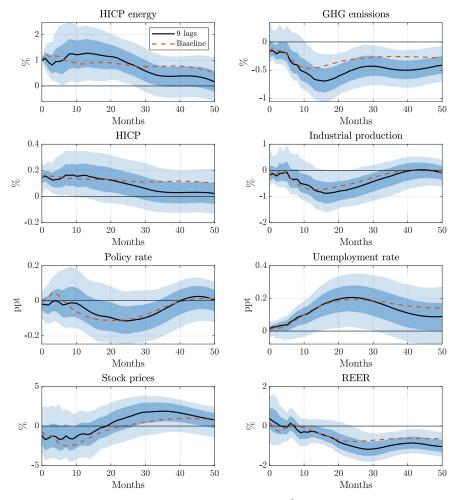
First stage regression: F-statistic: 13.58, R^2 : 3.32%

VAR with 3 lags



First stage regression: F-statistic: 9.73, $R^2{:}~2.86\%$

VAR with 9 lags



First stage regression: F-statistic: 14.89, $R^2{:}$ 2.79%

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