June 2020

SOCIAL COST OF CARBON

Identifying a Federal Entity to Address the National Academies’ Recommendations Could Strengthen Regulatory Analysis
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Why GAO Did This Study

To address climate change, some countries develop monetary estimates to assess the costs and benefits of government actions to reduce greenhouse gas emissions, including carbon dioxide. In the United States, in 2009, OMB convened an interagency working group to estimate the social cost of carbon—the dollar value of the effects of an incremental increase in carbon dioxide emissions in a given year—for assessing regulatory costs and benefits. In 2017, the National Academies recommended updates to the methods used to develop the estimates. Later that year, Executive Order 13783 disbanded the working group, withdrew its guidance, and directed agencies to ensure that, to the extent permitted by law, estimates are consistent with Circular A-4, OMB’s general guidance for regulatory analysis. GAO was asked to review approaches for developing and using the estimates.

This report examines, among other objectives: (1) how the federal government’s current estimates compare to its prior estimates and (2) how the federal government plans to address the recommendations of the National Academies. GAO reviewed executive orders, OMB guidance, and regulatory impact analyses and interviewed OMB, EPA, NHTSA, and BLM officials and staff who had conducted such analyses.

What GAO Recommends

GAO recommends that OMB identify a federal entity responsible for addressing the National Academies’ recommendations. OMB did not comment on the recommendation.

What GAO Found

According to documents reviewed and interviews with officials from the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), Bureau of Land Management (BLM), and National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA), the federal government’s current social cost of carbon estimates used in conducting regulatory impact analyses are lower than its prior estimates. Although both the prior and current estimates were calculated using the same economic models, two key assumptions used to calculate the current estimates were changed: using (1) domestic rather than global climate change damages (see table) and (2) different discount rates (3 and 7 percent rather than 2.5, 3, and 5 percent). As a result, the current federal estimates, based on domestic climate damages, are about 7 times lower than the prior federal estimates that were based on global damages (when both prior and current estimates are expressed in 2018 U.S. dollars and calculated using a 3 percent discount rate).

The federal government has no plans to address the recommendations of the National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine for updating the methodologies used to develop the federal estimates of the social cost of carbon. In a January 2017 report, the National Academies made recommendations for updating the methodologies used to estimate the social cost of carbon to ensure federal estimates reflect the best available science. The Office of Management and Budget (OMB) in Circular A-4 provided guidance to federal agencies on how to conduct regulatory analyses, and in 2017 Executive Order 13783 directed agencies to use that guidance when estimating the social cost of carbon; both direct agencies to use the best available science. OMB staff GAO interviewed said the agency does not have specific plans for implementing the recommendations and that no federal agency has responsibility for addressing them. OMB staff told GAO that nonfederal entities are leading research efforts that are responsive to the recommendations, but no federal entity has responsibility for monitoring developments in scientific research or ensuring updated federal estimates consider such developments. However, OMB continues to play a leading role in the federal government’s use of the social cost of carbon by having responsibility for the guidance in Circular A-4, which Executive Order 13783 directs agencies to be consistent with in developing their social cost of carbon estimates. By identifying a federal entity to be responsible for addressing the National Academies’ recommendations, OMB would have better assurance that agencies use the best available science in their regulatory impact analyses.

Prior and Current Federal Estimates of the Social Cost of Carbon, per Metric Ton, at a 3 Percent Discount Rate in 2018 U.S. Dollars

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of emissions</th>
<th>Prior estimates (based on global climate change damages)</th>
<th>Current estimates (based on domestic climate change damages)</th>
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<tr>
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<td>$50</td>
<td>$7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2030</td>
<td>$60</td>
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<td>2040</td>
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<td>$9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2050</td>
<td>$82</td>
<td>$11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


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## Contents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Letter</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Background</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current Federal Estimates of the Social Cost of Carbon Are Lower Than Prior Estimates because of Changes to Two Key Assumptions</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Federal Government Has No Plans to Address the National Academies' Recommendations for Updating the Social Cost of Carbon</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selected U.S. States Have Developed and Used Estimates of the Social Cost of Carbon That Are Largely Based on the Federal Government's Prior Estimates</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selected Countries Have Developed and Used Monetary Estimates for Emissions Based on the Social Cost of Carbon and Target-Consistent Approaches</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusions</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recommendation for Executive Action</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agency Comments</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Appendix I | Objectives, Scope, and Methodology | 51 |

| Appendix II | Current Federal Estimates of the Social Costs of Carbon Dioxide, Methane, and Nitrous Oxide | 57 |

| Appendix III | Views of State Officials from Montana and Texas on the Social Cost of Carbon | 59 |

| Appendix IV | Canada's Social Cost of Carbon Approach to Developing Monetary Estimates for Greenhouse Gas Emissions | 61 |

| Appendix V | Germany's Social Cost of Carbon Approach to Developing Monetary Estimates for Greenhouse Gas Emissions | 65 |
Appendix VI  France’s Target-Consistent Approach to Developing Monetary Estimates for Greenhouse Gas Emissions  68

Appendix VII  The United Kingdom’s Target-Consistent Approach to Developing Monetary Estimates for Greenhouse Gas Emissions  73

Appendix VIII  Foreign Officials’ Views on Strengths and Challenges of the Social Cost of Carbon and Target-Consistent Approaches for Monetary Estimates of Emissions  78

Appendix IX  GAO Contact and Staff Acknowledgments  81

Tables

Table 1: Prior and Current Federal Estimates of the Social Cost of Carbon Dioxide per Metric Ton at a 3 Percent Discount Rate in 2018 U.S. Dollars, 2020-2050  17
Table 2: Social Cost of Carbon Estimates Developed by the California Air Resources Board per Metric Ton of Carbon Dioxide in 2018 U.S. Dollars, 2020-2030  31
Table 3: Social Cost of Carbon Estimates Developed by the California Public Utilities Commission per Metric Ton of Carbon Dioxide in 2018 U.S. Dollars, 2020-2030  31
Table 4: Social Cost of Carbon Estimates Developed by the Minnesota Public Utilities Commission per Short Ton of Carbon Dioxide in 2018 U.S. Dollars, 2020-2050  34
Table 5: Social Cost of Carbon Estimates Developed by New York State Agencies per Metric Ton of Carbon Dioxide in 2018 U.S. Dollars, 2020-2050  37
Table 6: Social Cost of Carbon Estimates Developed by Canada per Metric Ton of Carbon Dioxide in 2018 U.S. Dollars, 2020-2050  40
Table 7: Social Cost of Carbon Estimates Developed by Germany per Metric Ton of Carbon Dioxide in 2018 U.S. Dollars, 2016-2050

Table 8: Monetary Estimates for Greenhouse Gases Based on the Target-Consistent Approach Developed by France and the United Kingdom per Metric Ton of Carbon Dioxide in 2018 U.S. Dollars, 2020-2050

Table 9: Countries and National Agencies from which GAO Gathered Documents and Interviewed Officials about Development and Use of Monetary Estimates for Greenhouse Gas Emissions

Table 10: Current Federal Estimates of the Social Cost of Carbon Dioxide per Metric Ton in 2018 U.S. Dollars, 2020-2050

Table 11: Current Federal Estimates of the Social Cost of Methane per Metric Ton in 2018 U.S. Dollars, 2020-2030

Figure 1: Prior and Current Federal Estimates of the Social Cost of Carbon Dioxide in 2018 U.S. Dollars, 2020-2050
Abbreviations

BLM  Bureau of Land Management
EPA  Environmental Protection Agency
FUND Climate Framework for Uncertainty, Negotiation, and Distribution (model)
GDP  gross domestic product
IWG  Interagency Working Group on Social Cost of Carbon
NEPA National Environmental Policy Act
NHTSA National Highway Traffic Safety Administration
OECD Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OMB Office of Management and Budget
USGCRP U.S. Global Change Research Program

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June 23, 2020

Congressional Requesters

The U.S. Global Change Research Program (USGCRP) concluded in its November 2018 Fourth National Climate Assessment that addressing the potential impacts of climate change is a global challenge.\(^1\) Many countries have been deliberating on how to reduce carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gas emissions that, according to USGCRP, are increasing in concentrations and thereby driving changes in the earth’s climate by trapping heat in the atmosphere and preventing it from returning to space.\(^2\) According to the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), these gases remain in the atmosphere long enough to become “well mixed,” meaning that the amount measured in the atmosphere is roughly the same all over the world, regardless of the source of the emissions, and therefore contribute to damages around the world independent of the country in which they are emitted.\(^3\) In examining possible approaches to address these emissions, some countries are weighing the potential costs of taking actions to reduce emissions against their expected benefits by including monetary estimates of the effects of carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gas emissions in cost-benefit analyses. Developing these monetary estimates and using them to assess the costs and benefits of taking government actions to reduce greenhouse gas emissions involves a complex mix of economic analysis, climate modeling, and science.


\(^2\)Greenhouse gases include carbon dioxide, methane, nitrous oxide, and synthetic chemicals such as fluorinated gases.

In the United States, the federal government has used the social cost of carbon as its approach for developing monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions. The social cost of carbon represents the long-term net economic damages associated with an incremental increase in carbon dioxide or other greenhouse gas emissions in a given year (typically measured in dollars per metric ton). According to EPA, the estimates represent the monetary value of a wide range of anticipated climate impacts resulting from carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gas emissions, such as net changes in agricultural productivity and human health, property damage from increased flood risk, and changes in energy system costs, such as reduced costs for heating and increased costs for air conditioning. For the purposes of this report, we use the phrase “social cost of carbon” to refer generally to the social costs of carbon dioxide, methane, or nitrous oxide emissions.

Under a 1993 executive order and Office of Management and Budget (OMB) guidance, federal agencies are to examine the economic effects of proposed regulatory actions to assess whether the benefits of a proposed regulation justify its costs. In conducting their regulatory impact analyses, agencies generally began incorporating estimates of the social cost of carbon after a federal appellate court decision in 2008. In 2009, OMB and the Council of Economic Advisers convened the Interagency Working Group on Social Cost of Carbon (IWG) to develop government-wide

4In economic theory, social costs are private costs borne by individuals directly involved in a transaction together with the external costs borne by third parties not directly involved in the transaction.


6Executive Order 12866, issued in 1993, directs federal agencies to assess the quantifiable and qualitative costs and benefits of proposed regulations and select the regulatory alternative that maximizes net benefits (unless a statute requires otherwise). Exec. Order No. 12866, 58 Fed. Reg. 51,735 (Sept. 30, 1993). OMB issued Circular A-4 in 2003 to provide guidance to federal agencies on how to conduct regulatory analyses as directed by Executive Order 12866. OMB, Circular A-4: Regulatory Analysis (Sept. 17, 2003). Agencies submit proposed regulations and associated regulatory impact analyses to OMB for formal review. OMB assists the President in, among other things, meeting policy, budget, management, and regulatory objectives. The Council of Economic Advisors is tasked with providing objective economic advice to the President.

estimates of the social cost of carbon for federal agencies to use in conducting regulatory impact analyses for rulemaking. The IWG finalized its estimates for the social cost of carbon in 2010 and included them in a Technical Support Document that also provided guidance for agencies on using the estimates. The IWG issued updates to the Technical Support Document that included revised estimates of the social cost of carbon in 2013, minor technical corrections in 2015, and enhanced discussion of uncertainties around the estimates in 2016. The IWG was comprised of representatives of many federal agencies, including, among others, EPA and the Departments of Energy and Transportation, which used its estimates in analyzing dozens of proposed and final regulations.

In January 2017, in response to a request from the IWG, the National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine issued a report that included recommendations for updating the underlying methods used by the IWG to develop its estimates of the social cost of carbon. In March 2017, Executive Order 13783, to promote energy independence and

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10In July 2014, we reported that the IWG’s participating offices and agencies were the Council of Economic Advisers; Council on Environmental Quality; Departments of Agriculture, Commerce, Energy, Transportation, and the Treasury; Domestic Policy Council; Environmental Protection Agency; National Economic Council; Office of Management and Budget; and Office of Science and Technology Policy. See GAO, *Regulatory Impact Analysis: Development of Social Cost of Carbon Estimates*, GAO-14-663 (Washington, D.C.: July 24, 2014).

economic growth, stated, among other things, a policy that necessary and appropriate environmental regulations comply with the law, are of greater benefit than cost, when permissible, achieve environmental improvements for the American people, and are developed through transparent processes employing the best available peer-reviewed science and economics. The executive order stated that, to ensure sound regulatory decision-making, it is essential that agencies use estimates of costs and benefits in their regulatory analyses that are based on the best available science and economics. The executive order disbanded the IWG and withdrew its Technical Support Document guidance and social cost of carbon estimates “as no longer representative of governmental policy,” changing how federal estimates for the social cost of carbon would be developed going forward. As we reported in March 2019, beginning in 2017 with Executive Order 13783, the administration revoked policies that had identified addressing climate change as a priority.

Numerous studies have concluded that climate change poses significant risks to environmental and economic systems. Based on the significant fiscal exposure that a changing climate poses to the federal government, in February 2013, we added Limiting the Federal Government’s Fiscal Exposure by Better Managing Climate Change Risks to our list of federal areas at high risk for waste, fraud, abuse, and mismanagement or most in need of transformation. Limiting the federal government’s fiscal exposure to climate change risks presents a challenge no matter the outcome of domestic and international efforts to reduce emissions, in part, because greenhouse gases already in the atmosphere will continue

13 For example, we reported that Executive Order 13783 revoked certain executive actions, such as the Climate Action Plan, that we previously found had demonstrated leadership support for reducing aspects of fiscal exposure to climate change and federal technical assistance so that decision makers at all levels of government can make more informed choices about how to manage climate change risks. See GAO, High-Risk Series: Substantial Efforts Needed to Achieve Greater Progress on High-Risk Areas, GAO-19-157SP (Washington, D.C.: March 2019).
14 See, for example, USGCRP, Fourth National Climate Assessment (2018) and the series of work by the National Academies on climate change, including National Research Council, Advancing the Science of Climate Change (Washington, DC: 2010).
15 GAO-19-157SP.
altering the climate system for many decades, according to USGCRP and the National Academies.16

You asked us to review how the federal government, U.S. states, and foreign countries have developed and used estimates of the social cost of carbon. This report examines: (1) how the federal government’s current estimates of the social cost of carbon compare to prior estimates and how selected federal agencies have used the current estimates in recent rulemakings; (2) how the federal government plans to address the National Academies’ recommendations; (3) how selected U.S. states have developed and used estimates of the social cost of carbon, or other valuation methods; and (4) how selected foreign countries have developed and used estimates of the social cost of carbon, or other valuation methods.

To examine how the federal government’s current estimates of the social cost of carbon compare to prior estimates and how selected federal agencies have used the current estimates in recent rulemakings, we reviewed documents on how federal agencies estimated the social cost of carbon for use in regulatory cost-benefit analyses, both before and after agencies updated their estimates in response to Executive Order 13783.17 The agencies we selected to review were EPA, the Department of the Interior’s Bureau of Land Management (BLM), and the Department of Transportation’s National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA) based on their recent rulemakings using the current federal

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17This report does not address the use of the social cost of carbon in federal environmental impact statements under the National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA). In August 2016, the Council on Environmental Quality issued final guidance for federal departments and agencies on consideration of greenhouse gas emissions and the effects of climate change in their NEPA reviews. This guidance, among other things, noted that the federal social cost of carbon provided a harmonized, interagency metric that can give decision makers and the public useful information for their NEPA reviews. In March 2017, Executive Order 13783 called for the Council for Environmental Quality to rescind its guidance, and in April 2017 the Council withdrew the guidance. See 82 Fed. Reg. 16576 (Apr. 5, 2017). In June 2019, the Council on Environmental Quality published draft guidance to assist federal agencies in their consideration of greenhouse gas emissions in NEPA analysis and documentation. The guidance provides that agencies need not weigh the effects of the various alternatives in NEPA in a monetary cost-benefit analysis using any monetized social cost of carbon estimates or other similar metrics. 84 Fed. Reg. 30097, 30098-99 (June 26, 2019).
estimates of the social cost of carbon.\textsuperscript{18} We interviewed agency officials to learn about the guidance, assumptions, and methods they used to develop their current estimates. We also reviewed federal direction and guidance on how agencies are to assess costs and benefits in regulatory analysis, including Executive Order 12866 and OMB Circular A-4.\textsuperscript{19} We interviewed OMB staff, including staff from the Office of Information and Regulatory Affairs, about the agency’s guidance, such as Circular A-4, and their role in reviewing agency regulations.\textsuperscript{20}

To examine how the federal government plans to address the National Academies’ recommendations for updating estimates of the social cost of carbon, we reviewed documents on how the federal agencies we included in our review had considered the recommendations and the agencies’ plans for addressing them. We interviewed officials from the agencies to understand their plans to address the recommendations, including their plans to collaborate with other federal agencies and offices. We also reviewed federal direction and guidance to agencies to use the best reasonably obtainable science and economics when assessing costs and benefits in regulatory analysis, including Executive Order 12866 and OMB Circular A-4.

To examine how selected U.S. states have developed and used estimates of the social cost of carbon, or other valuation methods, we sought to identify states using estimates based on both the current and prior federal estimates, or other valuation methods. Through a literature review and interviews with knowledgeable parties, we did not identify any U.S. states using the current federal estimates or other valuation methods. We identified nine U.S. states that called for using the prior federal estimates in state decision-making; we selected a nonprobability

\textsuperscript{18}Through a search of the \textit{Federal Register}, we found that EPA, BLM, and NHTSA had all issued rulemakings from March 2017 to January 2019 that used the federal government’s current estimates of the social cost of carbon issued after Executive Order 13783. We did not include the Department of Energy (DOE) in our review as we did not identify any DOE rulemakings using the federal government’s current estimates of the social cost of carbon issued after Executive Order 13783. For a more complete discussion of our scope and methodology, see appendix I.


\textsuperscript{20}OMB’s Office of Information of Regulatory Affairs is the federal government’s central authority for the review of executive branch regulations, approval of information collections, establishment of statistical practices, and coordination of federal privacy policy.
sample of four of these states—California, Minnesota, Nevada, and New York—that we found to be most relevant to our purposes based on the frequency by which they appeared in the literature we reviewed and the information we received in interviews we conducted with knowledgeable stakeholders.\(^{21}\) Findings from these selected U.S. states cannot be generalized to all 50 U.S. states but present illustrative examples of how states have accounted for the effects of carbon dioxide or other greenhouse gases, in monetary terms, in their decision-making. We then reviewed documents and interviewed state officials to learn how the selected state governments developed and used the estimates in regulatory and project cost-benefit analyses. We also selected a nonprobability sample of U.S. states—Montana and Texas—that had submitted written comments on aspects of the prior federal estimates for rulemaking and raised issues with using them. According to officials, neither state had developed nor used estimates of the social cost of carbon at the time of our review. We reviewed documents and interviewed officials from Montana and Texas.

To examine how selected foreign countries have developed and used estimates of the social cost of carbon, or other valuation methods, we selected a nonprobability sample of countries—Canada, France, Germany, and the United Kingdom—that are using monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions in decision-making and that we found to be most relevant to our purposes based on the frequency by which they appeared in the literature we searched and the information we received in interviews we conducted with knowledgeable stakeholders. We reviewed documents on how the national governments of the selected countries have estimated monetary estimates for carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gas emissions for use in regulatory and project cost-benefit analysis. We also interviewed government officials from every selected country on the topic of addressing greenhouse gas emissions in governmental cost-benefit analysis to gather information on how their governments developed and use the monetary estimates in regulatory and project cost-benefit analysis and other decision-making. Findings from this nonprobability sample of selected countries cannot be generalized to all countries worldwide but provide illustrative examples of the ways countries are developing and using estimates of the social cost of carbon.

\(^{21}\)Through our review of literature and interviews with knowledgeable stakeholders, we may not have identified all U.S. states calling for the use of the prior federal social cost of carbon estimates in state decision-making. As a result, the nine U.S. states we identified should not be considered a complete list of states relying on the prior federal estimates.
of carbon or other valuation methods. Appendix I contains more detailed information on the objectives, scope, and methodology of our review.

We conducted this performance audit from May 2018 to June 2020, in accordance with generally accepted government auditing standards. Those standards require that we plan and perform the audit to obtain sufficient, appropriate evidence to provide a reasonable basis for our findings and conclusions based on our audit objectives. We believe that the evidence obtained provides a reasonable basis for our findings and conclusions based on our audit objectives.

Executive Order 12866, issued in 1993, directs federal agencies to assess the potential benefits and costs of significant regulatory actions, including those that may have an annual effect on the economy of $100 million or more.\(^{22}\) Under the executive order, for significant regulatory actions, agencies must also assess the potential benefits and costs of reasonably feasible alternatives and explain why the planned regulation is preferable to the identified alternatives. For each significant regulatory action, an agency is to develop the proposed regulation and an associated regulatory impact analysis and submit them both to OMB for formal review. After OMB concludes its review, the agency is to publish the proposed regulation in the Federal Register for public comment. The agency is then to issue a document summarizing its consideration of public comments and, if appropriate, modify the proposed regulation in response to the comments. This phase of regulatory development may also include further internal and external review. The agency is to submit the final regulatory impact analysis and regulation to OMB for review before it publishes the final regulation in the Federal Register.

In 2003, OMB issued Circular A-4 to provide guidance to federal agencies on how to conduct regulatory analyses as directed by Executive Order

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\(^{22}\)Exec. Order No. 12866, 58 Fed. Reg. 51,735 (Sept. 30, 1993). Significant regulatory actions consist of several categories of rules. In addition to regulatory actions that may have an annual effect on the economy of $100 million or more, they include those that are likely to result in a rule that may adversely affect in a material way the economy; a sector of the economy; productivity; competition; jobs; the environment; public health or safety; or state, local, or tribal governments or communities. Other significant regulatory actions include those that are likely to result in a rule that may create a serious inconsistency or otherwise interfere with an action taken or planned by another agency; materially alter the budgetary impact of entitlements, grants, user fees, or loan programs or the rights and obligations of recipients thereof; or raise novel legal or policy issues arising out of legal mandates, the President’s priorities, or the principles set forth in Executive Order 12866.
Circular A-4 states that it is designed to assist agencies by defining “good regulatory analysis” and standardizing the way benefits and costs of federal regulations are measured and reported. In particular, the guidance provides for systematic evaluation of quantitative benefits and costs, including their monetization when possible, and qualitative benefits and costs (when quantification is not feasible). The circular states that the analysis is to be “based on the best reasonably obtainable scientific, technical, and economic information available.” Circular A-4 also provides guidance on selecting discount rates to adjust the estimated benefits and costs for differences in timing—that is, to determine how much future benefits and costs are worth today. According to Circular A-4, a regulatory impact analysis should include an evaluation of the benefits and costs of the proposed action and any reasonable alternatives, as well as a description of assumptions and uncertainty. It acknowledges that agencies cannot analyze all regulations according to a formula, and that different regulations may call for different emphases in the analysis. Executive Order 13563, which reaffirmed and supplemented Executive Order 12866, generally directs federal agencies to conduct regulatory impact analyses based on the best available science. It also directs agencies “to use the best available techniques to quantify present and future benefits and costs as accurately as possible.”

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24 Monetization is the process of estimating the dollar value of benefits and costs.

25 When the benefits and costs of a regulation will occur in the future, agencies are to determine the present value of future benefits and costs by applying an appropriate discount rate—the rate used to convert benefits and costs occurring in different time periods to a common present value. The discount rate adjusts future values based on the observation that people usually prefer receiving an amount of money today rather than receiving the same amount in the future.


27 Executive Order 13563 and related implementing guidance direct agencies to ensure the objectivity of any scientific and technological information and processes used to support the agency’s regulatory actions and that such information should be subject to well-established scientific processes, including peer review where appropriate. For the implementing guidance, see Executive Office of the President, Memorandum for the Heads of Executive Departments and Agencies 3-9-09, Subject: Scientific Integrity (Washington, D.C.: March 9, 2009).
Economic Modeling to Determine the Social Cost of Carbon

To develop estimates of the social cost of carbon, analysts use economic models known as “integrated assessment models.” With these models, according to the National Academies, analysts define a baseline of current and future carbon dioxide emissions by projecting future economic growth, population, and technological change. Then, a small increase in carbon dioxide emissions (typically, a 1 metric ton increase) is added to the baseline emissions projections of the models. The models then translate the emissions increase into an increase in atmospheric carbon dioxide concentrations, which results in an increase in global average temperature. The models then translate the temperature change into physical impacts and monetized damages—that is, damages expressed in dollars.

According to a 2017 National Academies report, because most of the warming caused by carbon dioxide emissions persists for well over a millennium, changes in carbon dioxide emissions today may affect economic outcomes for centuries to come. To create a social cost of

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28Integrated assessment models integrate climate and economic data into a single modeling framework for estimating future economic effects resulting from climate change. In general, these models translate carbon dioxide emissions scenarios into changes in greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere, greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere into temperature changes, and temperature changes into net economic effects (i.e., damages and benefits).

29According to the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, the monetary estimates for the social cost of carbon can be based on at least two different assumptions on the greenhouse gas emissions trajectory. One assumption that can be made to determine the emissions trajectory is that global policies are adopted to reduce emissions at the socially optimal level from an economic perspective—that is, where the marginal damages equal the marginal costs of avoiding the damage. This approach attempts to use a cost-benefit approach to maximize net benefits by equalizing the marginal benefits and costs, which would involve using marginal climate damages estimates and marginal abatement cost estimates. Marginal abatement costs are the additional cost incurred to reduce an additional metric ton of greenhouse gas emissions. Under this assumption, the emissions trajectory and monetary value for greenhouse gas emissions would be determined by where the marginal climate damages equal marginal abatement costs to reduce emissions. Another possible assumption on the emissions trajectory, used by the United States government, is that the emissions trajectory is based on a business-as-usual trajectory, which means emissions are forecasted based on the existing emissions trend with no additional policies to reduce emissions in the future. Under this approach, the social cost of carbon value provides a measure of marginal climate damages at business-as-usual emissions levels. See Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, Stephen Smith and Nils Axel Braathen, Monetary Carbon Values in Policy Appraisal: An Overview of Current Practice and Key Issues (Paris, OECD Environment Working Papers, No. 92, 2015).

carbon estimate for emissions occurring in a given year, models use discounting to convert the projected monetized climate damages into a present value. This process involves reducing the damages in each future year by a percentage known as the discount rate. Therefore, applying a higher discount rate reduces future values to a greater degree than applying a lower discount rate. According to the National Academies, the present value of damages reflects society’s willingness to trade value in the future for value today.\textsuperscript{31}

Federal agencies began including estimates of the social cost of carbon in regulatory impact analyses following a 2008 decision for NHTSA to do so by the U.S. Court of Appeals for the Ninth Circuit.\textsuperscript{32} Afterward, EPA and the Departments of Energy and Transportation incorporated a variety of individually developed estimates of the social cost of carbon into their regulatory analyses. These estimates were derived from academic literature and ranged, in general, from $0 to $159 (in 2006, 2007, or 2008 dollars) per metric ton of carbon dioxide emitted in 2007. These estimates also varied in whether they reflected domestic or global measures of the social cost of carbon.

In early 2009, in part to improve consistency in agencies’ use of social cost of carbon estimates in regulatory impact analyses, OMB’s Office of Information and Regulatory Affairs and the Council of Economic Advisers convened the IWG. The IWG then developed interim government-wide social cost of carbon estimates based on an average of selected estimates published in academic literature.\textsuperscript{33} In October 2009, the IWG reassembled to decide how its final social cost of carbon estimates would be developed. Once the IWG reached agreement, EPA officials, as participants in the IWG, calculated the estimates using integrated assessment models, and the IWG issued these estimates and its

\textsuperscript{31}National Academies, \textit{Valuing Climate Damages} (2017).

\textsuperscript{32}Specifically, the Ninth Circuit held that NHTSA, in its 2006 final rule on certain fuel economy standards, had acted arbitrarily and capriciously by failing to monetize the value of carbon emissions reduction and directed NHTSA to include such a monetized value in an updated regulatory impact analysis for the regulation. Ctr. For Biological Diversity v. Nat’l Highway Traffic Safety Admin., 538 F.3d 1172, 1203 (9th Cir. 2008). The Ninth Circuit issued the 2008 opinion after vacating and withdrawing its prior opinion, 508 F.3d 508, issued on Nov. 15, 2007.

\textsuperscript{33}GAO-14-663.

As we reported in 2014, the federal government used the estimates from the Technical Support Document and its updates in dozens of proposed and final regulations. For example, in 2014 the Department of Energy issued a final regulation establishing energy conservation standards for certain commercial refrigeration equipment—that is, walk-in coolers and freezers. In assessing the likely costs and benefits of the regulation in a regulatory impact analysis, the department considered the potential global benefits resulting from reductions in carbon dioxide emissions that would occur as a result of the new standards. To put the reductions in carbon dioxide in monetary terms, the department used social cost of carbon estimates from the 2013 update to the Technical Support Document. To do so, the department developed a stream of annual damages by multiplying the carbon dioxide emissions reductions projected for each year by the social cost of carbon estimates for that year, thereby expressing the avoided damages in monetary terms. To calculate a present value of the avoided damages, the department discounted the stream of annual damages with the discount rate for the specific social cost of carbon estimate it used.

The IWG requested that the National Academies evaluate its approach to estimating the social cost of carbon. In 2016, the National Academies released an interim report that evaluated whether there was a need for a

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34EPA calculated the estimates of the social cost of carbon and other greenhouse gases using three integrated assessment models: (1) the Dynamic Integrated Climate and Economy (DICE) model, (2) the Climate Framework for Uncertainty, Negotiation, and Distribution (FUND) model, and (3) the Policy Analysis of the Greenhouse Gas Effect (PAGE) model.

35The IWG’s models run through 2300, which require assumptions about gross domestic product (GDP), population, and greenhouse gas emission trajectories after 2100—the last year for which these data are available from the IWG’s chosen sources.

36GAO-14-663.

near-term update to the social cost of carbon and concluded that a near-
term update was not warranted. In January 2017, the National
Academies issued a final report that included several recommendations
to the IWG for improving the scientific basis, characterization of
uncertainty, and transparency of the IWG’s estimation framework. In
March 2017, Executive Order 13783 disbanded the IWG and withdrew its
Technical Support Document and updates, including its social cost of
carbon estimates, as “no longer representative of governmental policy,”
and directed that agencies ensure, to the extent permitted by law, that
any monetary estimates for carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gases
be consistent with OMB Circular A-4. As a participant in the IWG, EPA’s
National Center for Environmental Economics had used the integrated
assessment models to calculate the prior federal estimates and therefore
was positioned to develop estimates under the executive order, according
to EPA officials and OMB staff. As a result, EPA developed the current
federal estimates.

In addition to the federal government, the governments of some U.S.
states and foreign countries use monetary estimates for greenhouse gas
emissions to help develop regulations and other policies. Two broad
approaches for developing monetary estimates for greenhouse gas
emissions are used by governments in decision-making:

- **Social cost of carbon (i.e., damage costs) approach.** The social
cost of carbon, also known as a damage costs approach, provides

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41 EPA developed its current estimates of the social cost of carbon and other greenhouse gases using the three integrated assessment models that had been used to calculate the federal government’s prior estimates: (1) the 2010 version of the Dynamic Integrated Climate and Economy (DICE) model, (2) the Climate Framework for Uncertainty, Negotiation, and Distribution (FUND) model version 3.8, and (3) the 2009 version of the Policy Analysis of the Greenhouse Gas Effect (PAGE) model.

42 Instead of developing monetary estimates, in some cases, governments use current and projected market prices of greenhouse gas allowances within an emissions trading system to assign a monetary estimate to greenhouse gases for use in decision-making.
monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions based on the economic damages caused by emitting an additional unit of carbon dioxide or other greenhouse gas (customarily in metric tons).

- **Target-consistent approach.** The target-consistent approach provides monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions based on the marginal abatement cost for achieving a given emissions reduction target—that is, the cost of abating the last metric ton of carbon dioxide needed to meet a particular emissions target at least cost to society.

The federal government’s current estimates of the social cost of carbon are lower than its prior estimates due to changes in two key assumptions used to calculate them—specifically, a narrower geographic scope of climate damages and different discount rates. According to documents we reviewed and officials we interviewed, the changes in the key assumptions are the result of changes in guidance agencies are to follow, which affected how the agencies have considered costs and benefits in recent rulemakings. The three selected federal agencies used social cost of carbon estimates based on the current key assumptions in considering costs and benefits in recent rulemakings.

The federal government’s current estimates of the social cost of carbon are lower than prior estimates because, according to documents we reviewed and EPA officials and OMB staff we interviewed, they are based on two key changed assumptions: that the estimates are to (1) include domestic rather than global damages from climate change and (2) be calculated using a higher range of discount rates—3 to 7 percent—rather than 2.5 to 5 percent used for the prior estimates, which results in lower present values. See figure 1, which compares the prior and current federal estimates of the social cost of carbon dioxide. EPA had responsibility for calculating the prior federal estimates and has also developed the current federal estimates.
Notes: Values are adjusted for inflation and expressed in 2018 U.S. dollars using the United States Gross Domestic Product Price Index from the U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Economic Analysis. The prior federal estimates were developed by the Interagency Working Group on Social Cost of Carbon (and calculated by EPA, as a member of the working group, using economic models maintained by the agency) and published in a 2016 update to its Technical Support Document. The current estimates were developed in response to Executive Order 13783 of March 2017 and used in regulatory impact analyses for several recent rulemakings, including EPA’s Affordable Clean Energy Rule of 2019.

The prior federal high-impact estimates were meant to represent higher-than-expected impacts from temperature changes (i.e., low-probability but high-impact damages “further out in the tails of the [social cost of carbon] distributions”). The high-impact estimates are the result of averaging the damages in the 95th percentile (i.e., higher than 95 percent of the damage results) across all three of the integrated assessment models, which are then discounted at the “central” 3 percent rate. The appendix of the 2016 update to the Technical Support Document provides additional high-impact estimates, on a model-by-model basis, discounted at the 2.5 percent and 5 percent discount rates.

The federal government’s prior estimates of the social cost of carbon were based on the global climate damages from emissions, according to the technical documents we reviewed. For each emissions year, the IWG developed four estimates of the social cost of carbon that were based on
global climate damages. Three of the estimates were the average values from the integrated assessment models discounted at rates of 2.5, 3, and 5 percent respectively, and the fourth estimate was a high-impact estimate (that also used a 3 percent discount rate). Although the estimate calculated using a 3 percent discount rate was considered the primary (i.e., central) value, for the purposes of capturing the uncertainties involved in regulatory impact analysis, the IWG in its Technical Support Documents issued from 2010 to 2016 emphasized the importance of agencies including all four estimates in their regulatory impact analyses. According to those documents, the IWG’s choice of discount rates was meant to address, among other things, that there is uncertainty in how interest rates may change over time and the fact that climate damages resulting from greenhouse gas emissions will span across generations.

By comparison, at the same discount rate, the federal government’s current estimates are significantly lower than the prior estimates because they are based on domestic rather than global damages. This difference can be seen when comparing the current and prior estimates calculated at the same 3 percent discount rate (see table 1). For example, for the social cost of carbon dioxide, EPA’s current estimates that are based on domestic climate damages are about 7 times lower than the prior federal estimates that were based on global damages. To see more information on the current estimates that EPA developed for the social cost of carbon dioxide, as well as the social cost of methane, see appendix II.

43As explained previously, as a member of the IWG, EPA had responsibility for maintaining the economic models that were used to calculate the estimates.

44The high-impact estimate is meant to represent higher-than-expected impacts from temperature changes (i.e., low-probability but high-impact damages “further out in the tails of the [social cost of carbon] distributions”). The high-impact estimate is the result of averaging the damages in the 95th percentile—that is higher than 95 percent of the damage results for each model—across all three of the integrated assessment models, which is then discounted at a 3 percent rate.
Table 1: Prior and Current Federal Estimates of the Social Cost of Carbon Dioxide per Metric Ton at a 3 Percent Discount Rate in 2018 U.S. Dollars, 2020-2050

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of emissions</th>
<th>Prior estimates (based on global climate damages)</th>
<th>Current estimates (based on domestic climate damages)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2020</td>
<td>$50</td>
<td>$7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2030</td>
<td>$60</td>
<td>$8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2040</td>
<td>$72</td>
<td>$9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2050</td>
<td>$82</td>
<td>$11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: GAO analysis of data from Interagency Working Group on Social Cost of Greenhouse Gases and Environmental Protection Agency (EPA). | GAO-20-254

Notes: The prior and current federal estimates of the social cost of carbon dioxide were originally reported in 2007 and 2016 U.S. dollars, respectively. We adjusted values for inflation and expressed in 2018 U.S. dollars using the United States Gross Domestic Product Price Index from the U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Economic Analysis.

aThe prior federal estimates were originally reported in 2007 dollars in the Interagency Working Group’s 2016 Technical Support Document.

bThe current federal estimates were originally reported in 2016 dollars in the regulatory impact analysis for EPA’s 2019 Affordable Clean Energy Rule.

A Change in the Guidance Used to Develop the Estimates Changed Two Key Assumptions Underlying Federal Estimates of the Social Cost of Carbon

The change in guidance used to develop the current social cost of carbon estimates under Executive Order 13783 resulted in a change in two key assumptions for calculating those estimates—from global to domestic climate damages and from a lower to a higher range of discount rates—according to documents we reviewed and EPA officials and OMB staff we interviewed. The prior federal estimates used the guidance found in the IWG’s technical support documents, which concluded that the social cost of carbon should be based on the global climate damages of emissions. In its technical support documents, the IWG explained that this conclusion was based on its findings that the problem of climate change: (1) involves a global negative externality—that is, emissions of most greenhouse gases, such as carbon dioxide, contribute to damages around the world even when they are emitted in the United States and (2) is a problem that the United States alone cannot solve.45 The IWG found that developing a domestic social cost of carbon would be greatly complicated by the relatively few region- or country-specific estimates that could be found in the academic literature. In addition, the IWG’s technical support documents called for agencies to use a range of discount rates to calculate the social cost of carbon. Specifically, the IWG’s technical support documents called for using estimates based on discount rates of 2.5, 3, and 5 percent (and a

45OMB defines an externality as a situation when one party’s actions impose uncompensated benefits or costs on another party.
For the current estimates, Executive Order 13783 directs agencies, when conducting regulatory impact analyses, to ensure, to the extent permitted by law, that their estimates of the social cost of carbon are consistent with OMB Circular A-4’s guidance on regulatory cost-benefit analysis. The executive order provides that, effective immediately, when monetizing the value of changes in greenhouse gas emissions resulting from regulations, including with respect to the consideration of domestic versus international impacts and the consideration of appropriate discount rates, agencies shall ensure, to the extent permitted by law, that any such estimates are consistent with the guidance contained in Circular A-4.46 Moreover, according to EPA in the regulatory impact analysis for the 2019 Affordable Clean Energy Rule, the two analytical considerations highlighted in Executive Order 13783 are the geographic scope of greenhouse gas impacts (i.e., domestic or global climate damages) and appropriate discount rates. EPA officials stated that Executive Order 13783 was the impetus for developing its current estimates of the social cost of carbon and that the executive order directed the agency to adhere closely to the guidance in Circular A-4, which the agency did, according to agency officials, by basing the estimates on domestic climate damages and using the discount rates of 3 and 7 percent specified in OMB’s guidance.

OMB Circular A-4 states that it was designed to assist federal agencies in conducting regulatory analyses and standardize the way agencies measure and report the expected costs and benefits of federal regulations.47 Circular A-4 also states that the scope of federal regulatory impact analyses should focus on domestic impacts—that is, the costs and benefits of a proposed regulation that accrue to U.S. citizens and residents. However, Circular A-4 also states that further analysis may be

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46The Executive Order notes that OMB Circular A-4 of September 17, 2003 (Regulatory Analysis) was issued after peer review and public comment and has been widely accepted for more than a decade as embodying the best practices for conducting regulatory cost-benefit analysis. Id. at 16,096.

47Unlike the Technical Support Documents issued from 2010 through 2016 that focused specifically on determining estimates of the social cost of carbon, OMB Circular A-4, issued in 2003, provides general guidance on how agencies are to present costs and benefits in regulatory impact analysis and is not specific to valuing greenhouse gas emissions.
necessary in some cases. Where agencies choose to evaluate a regulation that is likely to have effects beyond the borders of the United States, Circular A-4 states that agencies should report these effects separately and that the timeframe for analysis should cover a period long enough to encompass all the important benefits and costs likely to result from the rule.\footnote{With respect to the effects of regulations beyond U.S. borders, the IWG acknowledged that its approach to developing estimates for the social cost of carbon differed from the general approach to regulatory analysis in OMB Circular A-4. In 2014, we examined how EPA had used economic analyses in its decision-making during the rulemaking process and the extent to which the agency adhered to OMB’s guidance in Circular A-4, including with respect to the IWG’s social cost of carbon estimates. We recommended, among other things, that OMB clarify the relationship between the IWG’s Technical Support Documents and OMB’s Circular A-4. Given that the IWG was disbanded by Executive Order 13783 in March 2017 and its social cost of carbon estimates were withdrawn, we closed this recommendation as not implemented. See GAO, Environmental Regulation: EPA Should Improve Adherence to Guidance for Selected Elements of Regulatory Impact Analyses, GAO-14-519 (Washington, D.C.: July 18, 2014).}

OMB staff told us that there is broad latitude in Circular A-4 to include the international (i.e., global) effects of a proposed regulation, in addition to the main presentation of domestic costs and benefits, to provide information to decision makers and the public.\footnote{The IWG 2010 Technical Support Document states that under “OMB guidance contained in Circular A-4, analysis of economically significant proposed and final regulations from the domestic perspective is required, while analysis from the international perspective is optional.” However, the IWG concluded that a modified approach was needed because of the global nature of climate change and therefore a global measure of the benefits from reducing U.S. emissions was more appropriate.}

Concerning discount rates, when federal agencies use discounting to express the present value of a regulation’s projected costs and benefits, OMB Circular A-4 states that the agencies should use 3 and 7 percent discount rates—which are to represent the social rate of time preference for consumers and the opportunity cost of capital, respectively.\footnote{According to OMB Circular A-4, the social rate of time preference is the rate at which society discounts future consumption flows to their present value. For example, Circular A-4 states that if one takes the rate that the average saver uses to discount future consumption as a measure of the social rate of time preference, then the real rate of return on long-term government debt may provide a fair approximation—which over the last 30 years (at the time of publication in 2003) averaged around 3 percent in real terms on a pre-tax basis. Also from Circular A-4, the opportunity cost of capital is to reflect the returns to real estate and small business capital as well as corporate capital and is the appropriate discount rate whenever the main effect of a regulation is to displace or alter the use of capital in the private sector. OMB Circular A-4 states that the 7 percent rate is an estimate of the average before-tax rate of return to private capital in the U.S. economy.}

OMB Circular A-4 also states that special ethical considerations arise when...
comparing expected benefits and costs of a regulation that span across
generations. Circular A-4 explains that future citizens who are affected by
the choices of society cannot take part in making them and today’s
society must act with some consideration of their interest. To address
this, Circular A-4 states that for rules that will have important
intergenerational benefits or costs, agencies might consider a sensitivity
analysis using a lower but positive discount rate in addition to calculating
net benefits using discount rates of 3 and 7 percent. Such analyses
examine how the results of the regulatory impact analysis vary with
plausible changes to key assumptions and inputs that were separate from
the main presentations of costs and benefits.51

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Three Selected Federal Agencies Used the Current Key Assumptions in Considering Costs and Benefits in Recent Rulemakings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BLM and NHTSA relied on EPA’s current estimates of the social cost of carbon in their recent rulemakings.53 For example, for its 2018 final regulation rescinding and revising certain requirements of the 2016 Waste Prevention Rule, BLM relied on the current estimates of the social cost of</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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51When explaining its choice to use a range of discount rates lower than those specified in OMB Circular A-4, the IWG stated that the guidance provides agencies with the flexibility to consider intergenerational costs or benefits in a sensitivity analysis using lower discount rates. OMB staff we interviewed confirmed this view. The staff said Circular A-4 provides agencies with the flexibility to tailor their cost-benefit analyses to the specific circumstances of the proposed regulations that are under consideration, including the scope of damages and selection of discount rates. OMB staff said this flexibility extends to including discount rates other than 3 and 7 percent—as long as the agencies explain the analytical basis for their choices.


53BLM is responsible for managing federal public lands for a variety of uses such as energy development, livestock grazing, recreation, and timber harvesting while ensuring natural, cultural, and historic resources are maintained for present and future use. NHTSA enforces vehicle performance standards to ensure motor vehicle safety and works to reduce deaths, injuries, and economic losses from motor vehicle crashes.
According to BLM’s regulatory impact analysis for the final regulation, changes in carbon dioxide emissions were expected to be minimal, so its regulatory impact analysis focused primarily on the impacts of changes in methane emissions. BLM officials told us that during the interagency review process, EPA provided the current social cost of methane estimates that BLM used in the rulemaking. In addition, for the Safer Affordable Fuel-Efficient Vehicles Rule proposed in 2018, NHTSA used EPA’s current social cost of carbon dioxide estimates for its regulatory impact analysis.

Agencies also presented supplemental sensitivity analyses, as suggested by OMB’s guidance. OMB Circular A-4 states that it is usually necessary for agencies to provide a sensitivity analysis to reveal whether, and to what extent, the results of their regulatory impact analyses are sensitive to plausible changes in the main assumptions and numeric inputs. Both EPA and NHTSA conducted such supplemental sensitivity analyses with respect to the social cost of carbon in their regulatory impact analyses, although these analyses were not the basis for the proposed regulations, according to the regulatory impact analyses we reviewed and the agency officials we interviewed. As mentioned previously, Circular A-4 states that where agencies choose to evaluate regulations that are likely to have effects beyond the borders of the United States, those effects should be reported separately and that the timeframe for the agencies’ analyses should cover a period long enough to encompass all the important

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55NHTSA’s regulatory impact analysis for the proposed Safer Affordable Fuel-Efficient Vehicles Rule included estimates of the social cost of carbon dioxide in its central analysis. NHTSA also included monetary estimates for methane and nitrous oxide in separate sensitivity analyses, where the estimates were calculated using warming potential conversion factors applied to the social cost of carbon. They were not calculated using the IWG’s social cost methodology, although NHTSA stated that it would consider using this approach in its analysis supporting the final rule. See EPA and NHTSA, Preliminary Regulatory Impact Analysis: The Safer Affordable Fuel-Efficient (SAFE) Vehicles Rule for Model Year 2021 – 2026 Passenger Cars and Light Trucks (Washington, D.C.: July 2018, updated Oct. 16, 2018). For the proposed rule, see The Safer Affordable Fuel-Efficient (SAFE) Vehicles Rule for Model Years 2021–2026 Passenger Cars and Light Trucks, 83 Fed. Reg. 42,986 (Aug. 24, 2018). As we discuss later, NHTSA finalized the Safer Affordable Fuel-Efficient Vehicles Rule after we provided a draft of this report for the agency’s review and comments, but we did not include the final rule in the scope of this review.
benefits and costs likely to result from the rule. In sensitivity analyses, EPA showed what the costs and benefits of its regulation could be using a social cost of carbon based on global, instead of domestic, climate damages (using discount rates of both 3 and 7 percent). Additionally, EPA showed costs and benefits reflecting that climate damages span generations by using a discount rate of 2.5 percent (for both domestic and global estimates). In a sensitivity analysis for its proposed regulation, NHTSA used a social cost of carbon based on domestic damages and a 2.5 percent discount rate to account for the intergenerational nature of climate damages. NHTSA also used a social cost of carbon based on domestic damages and a 7 percent discount rate to represent a low estimation of climate damages. Unlike EPA, NHTSA did not use a social

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56 The social cost of carbon estimates based on global climate damages that EPA used in its sensitivity analyses were comparable to the prior federal social cost of carbon estimates developed by the IWG (also based on global climate damages), when using the same discount rates. For example, at a 3 percent discount rate, EPA’s social cost of carbon dioxide based on global damages that it used in its sensitivity analysis for emissions occurring over the years 2025 to 2035 ranged from $55 to $66 per metric ton (in 2018 dollars). The IWG’s social cost of carbon dioxide, per its 2016 update to its Technical Support Document, for emissions occurring over the years 2025 to 2035 ranged from $55 to $66 per metric ton (in 2018 dollars).

cost of carbon based on global damages in its sensitivity analyses. Also, BLM did not include a changed social cost of methane in its sensitivity analyses. OMB staff told us that differences between how the agencies accounted for the social cost of carbon in their sensitivity analyses were not, as a general matter, inconsistent with the guidance in Circular A-4.

58 After we provided a draft of this report to NHTSA for its review and comment, the agency issued the final Safer Affordable Fuel-Efficient Vehicles Rule in April 2020. Because the final rule was issued after January 2019 (the end date for our search for rulemakings using the current federal estimates of the social cost of carbon), we did not include the final rule in our scope of this review. In its regulatory impact analysis for the final rule, NHTSA used estimates of the social cost of carbon dioxide based on domestic damages and a 3 percent discount rate in its central analysis. In a sensitivity analysis for the final rule, NHTSA used social cost of carbon dioxide estimates based on domestic damages and a 2.5 percent discount rate to account for the intergenerational nature of climate damages; NHTSA also used a social cost of carbon dioxide based on domestic damages and a 7 percent discount rate to represent a low estimation of climate damages. Unlike the regulatory impact analysis for its proposed rule, NHTSA used social cost of carbon estimates based on global damages and discount rates of 3 and 7 percent rates in additional sensitivity analyses. Furthermore, in its regulatory impact analysis for the final rule NHTSA included additional sensitivity analyses using estimates of the social costs of methane and nitrous oxide based on domestic climate damages and a 3 percent discount rate (as developed by EPA for use in regulatory analyses conducted under the guidelines specified in Executive Order 13783 and OMB Circular A-4).

59 NHTSA and BLM both reported that Executive Order 13783 withdrew the federal government’s previous estimates that were based on global damages and drove the agencies’ decisions to use EPA’s more recent interim estimates (which were based on domestic climate damages). BLM officials stated that the regulatory impact analysis for its 2018 final regulation included a table comparing the value of methane reductions achieved under the 2018 final regulation (derived using social cost of methane estimates based on domestic climate damages) to the value of methane reductions from the 2016 final regulation (derived using a social cost of methane based on global climate damages). The officials stated that, since the 2018 final regulation rescinded the prior provisions affecting methane emissions, the practical effect of presenting this information is the same as disclosing the final regulation’s impacts using social cost of methane estimates based on global climate damages.
The federal government has no plans to address the National Academies’ short- and long-term recommendations for updating the methodologies used by federal agencies to develop their estimates of the social cost of carbon. OMB staff said the agency is monitoring developments in research in this area but said it has no plans for implementing the National Academies’ recommendations.

In a January 2017 report, the National Academies made several short- and long-term recommendations for comprehensively updating the methodologies used by federal agencies to estimate the social cost of carbon. The task of the National Academies report was to ensure that the federal government’s social cost of carbon estimates reflect the best available science. The report makes short-term recommendations for improvements to the methodologies used to develop the federal estimates, as well as longer-term recommendations for more comprehensive updates. In a press release on its recommendations, the National Academies stated that the federal government should use a new framework that would strengthen the scientific basis, provide greater transparency, and improve characterization of the uncertainties of its social cost of carbon estimates. The recommendations state that they were aimed at addressing the limitations of the existing methodologies used to estimate the social cost of carbon. For example, the National Academies stated that the estimates used by federal agencies had been based on integrated assessment models that did not use the latest research.

According to the National Academies, its recommendations are to improve estimates of the social cost of carbon within the federal regulatory context. Although they were addressed to the now-disbanded IWG, the National Academies’ recommendations remain relevant because, as the National Academies stated, they are for comprehensively

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60The recommendations were directed to the IWG because it had requested that National Academies evaluate its approach for estimating the social cost of carbon. As stated in the National Academies’ 2017 report, “the task was to ensure that the social cost of carbon estimates reflect the best available science, focusing on issues related to the choice of models and damage functions, climate science modeling assumptions, socioeconomic and emissions scenarios, presentation of uncertainty, and discounting.” See National Academies of Sciences, Valuing Climate Damages (2017).
updating the methodologies that were used to develop both the prior and current federal estimates. Furthermore, OMB staff said they recognized that the National Academies’ recommendations are general calls for improvements to the underlying methodologies used to estimate the social cost of carbon.

Among its short-term recommendations (i.e., to be achieved in 2 to 3 years), the National Academies recommended a new framework where the main analytical steps used to develop the federal estimates (which are now contained in each integrated assessment model) would be “unbundled” into four separate “modules.” With separate modules, as academic and scientific disciplines underpinning them became more sophisticated, each module could be updated. The National Academies stated the four modules would address the following:

- **socioeconomics**, to project population and the value of the goods and services produced in the United States (i.e., gross domestic product) that in turn drives projections of carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gas emissions;
- **climate**, to take greenhouse gas emissions projections from the socioeconomics module and estimate their effects on temperature and other physical variables;
- **damages**, to translate the results of the climate module (e.g., changes in temperature and sea level) into estimates of physical impacts and monetized damages over time; and
- **discounting**, to convert the future stream of monetized damages estimates from the damages module into a single present value.

Among its discussion of the short-term recommendations, the National Academies stated that existing OMB guidance (i.e., Circular A-4) does not fully address the issue of discounting over long time periods. The National Academies reported that, in an intergenerational context, OMB

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61The methodology to develop the federal estimates of the social cost of carbon used three distinct integrated assessment models to estimate the economic consequences of carbon dioxide emissions. First, in each model, a baseline of carbon dioxide emissions was defined along with projections of underlying socioeconomic factors—global economic growth and population—decades into the future. Then, a small increase in carbon dioxide emissions was added to the baseline for each of the three models, which was translated into an increase in atmospheric carbon dioxide and a resulting increase in global mean temperature. These results were used to estimate potential net damages in dollars, using discounting to convert future damages into present dollars. The final IWG analysis averaged the results from the three models. EPA used the same methodology in developing the current estimates under Executive Order 13783.
recognizes that addressing these issues leads to the use of generally
to use of generally lower discount rates. Instead of using fixed discount rates, as suggested
by OMB Circular A-4 (i.e., 3 and 7 percent) and used for the current federal estimates and by the IWG’s approach (i.e., 2.5, 3, and 5 percent) for the prior federal estimates, the National Academies recommended that the new discounting module should incorporate the relationship between economic growth and discounting when calculating the discount rates—a step that would help account for uncertainty surrounding such rates over long time periods. As a result, the National Academies recommended incorporating variable discount rates that better reflect the relationship between economic growth over time and discounting. The National Academies stated doing so would help address the inherent uncertainty surrounding long-term discount rates.

Among its long-term recommendations (i.e., to be achieved in 5 or more years), the National Academies recommended that the damages module be updated so that it disaggregates climate damages by geographic region and economic sector—and in doing so include (1) interactions and spillover effects among regions and sectors and (2) feedback to the other three modules. The National Academies concluded that estimating a country-specific social cost of carbon for the United States was “feasible in principle” but limited by existing methodologies, which focus primarily on global estimates and do not model all relevant interactions among regions. The National Academies stated that accurately estimating the damages from carbon dioxide emissions for the United States would involve more than examining the direct impacts of climate change that occur within U.S. physical borders. According to the National Academies, more complete estimates of U.S.-specific damages would need to consider how climate change and emissions reductions in other parts of the world could also affect the United States—for example, through (1) increased migration because of economic or political destabilization and (2) reciprocal actions by other countries in response to U.S. emission reductions.

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To incorporate variable discount rates that better reflect the relationship between economic growth and discounting, the National Academies recommended using what is called the Ramsey formula to determine the discount rates it uses to estimate the social cost of carbon. The Ramsey formula returns a discount rate that equals the pure rate of time preference plus the product of the value of an additional dollar as society grows wealthier and the growth rate of per capita consumption.
OMB staff (including staff from the Office of Information and Regulatory Affairs) we interviewed said the agency does not have specific plans for implementing the National Academies’ recommendations and that no federal agency has responsibility for addressing the recommendations. OMB staff said that many of the recommendations for improving the modeling and estimates were meant for the long term—that is, to be achieved in 5 years or more—and since the recommendations were issued in 2017, there is still time to address them. OMB staff told us the agency supports the National Academies’ recommendation that the estimates be updated every 5 years and that a 5-year timeframe is a reasonable trade-off between policy needs and the frequency of technical updates in the research.

However, the staff said the agency is monitoring developments in research in this area. According to OMB staff, two nonfederal entities, specifically Resources for the Future and the University of Chicago’s Climate Impact Lab, are leading research efforts that are responsive to the National Academies’ recommendations, so the agency is following their work.63

According to a senior official with Resources for the Future’s Social Cost of Carbon Initiative, the organization has taken the lead in coordinating action on updating the social cost of carbon estimates and conducting additional research to implement the National Academies’ recommendations. The senior official said that Resources for the Future is currently building and maintaining the academic and research communities that are working to improve the social cost of carbon for use by the federal government. The Social Cost of Carbon Initiative, a multiyear, multidisciplinary research initiative to address the National Academies’ recommendations for updating the methodologies used to estimate the social cost of carbon, will be using one of two updated simplified climate models to model the temperature changes and other earth system responses under different emissions trajectories. Both

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63Resources for the Future is a nonpartisan, nonprofit research institution that has a mission of improving environmental, energy, and natural resource policies through economic research. Part of the institution’s work, for example, involves building a new open source computing platform where researchers can access and contribute research that feeds into improved social cost of carbon estimates. The University of Chicago’s Climate Impact Lab is a collaborative project of 30 climate scientists, economists, and other experts from some of the nation’s leading research institutions working to, among other things, combine local climate projections with historical observations to yield highly localized pictures of future climate impacts that can help inform social cost of carbon estimates. OMB staff also expressed interest in learning of other groups actively involved in updating the methods used for estimating the social cost of carbon.
models are responsive to the recommendations of the National Academies for updating the climate models used in social cost of carbon estimates, according to Resources for the Future.

In line with the National Academies’ recommendations, the Climate Impact Lab stated that it is working to leverage recent advances in science and economics to develop empirically derived estimates of the social cost of carbon. The Director of the Climate Impact Lab stated that the National Academies’ recommendations were aimed at helping the process for estimating the social cost of carbon to draw more easily on a wide range of expertise in a range of scientific disciplines. To this end, the Director stated that the Climate Impact Lab is building a comprehensive body of research quantifying the impacts of climate change by economic sectors and communities around the world.

OMB continues to play a leading role in the federal government’s use of the social cost of carbon, as one of the entities that convened the IWG and also as having responsibility for OMB’s guidance in Circular A-4, which Executive Order 13783 directs agencies to follow in developing their estimates. The Circular states that the analysis is to be “based on the best reasonably obtainable scientific, technical, and economic information available.” Executive Order 13783 states that to ensure sound regulatory decision-making, it is essential that agencies use estimates of costs and benefits in their regulatory analyses that are based on the best available science and economics. Also, as we found in May 2011, OMB provides high-level policy direction for federal climate change programs and activities and leads formal and informal interagency initiatives on related issues.64 Furthermore, OMB staff told us that one of the agency’s major roles is overseeing a centralized review process for regulations under Executive Order 12866. OMB staff said they look to ensure consistency with Executive Order 12866, Circular A-4, and the principles of other executive orders, such as Executive Order 13783, in agencies’ regulatory impact analyses.

For its current estimates, EPA calculated domestic climate damages by taking values for the United States from two of the three integrated assessment models and estimating domestic damages for the United

States for the third model.\textsuperscript{65} EPA reported that the agency estimated an approximation of domestic damages based on the integrated assessment models that were available, and EPA officials said the models did not include second-order effects that would be important for accurately estimating a social cost of carbon based on domestic climate damages. According to the National Academies, the integrated assessment models were not premised or calibrated to provide estimates of the social cost of carbon based on domestic damages, and more research would be required to update the models to do so. The National Academies stated it is important to consider what constitutes a domestic impact in the case of a global pollutant that could have international implications that affect the United States.

EPA stated that the agency’s current estimates of the social cost of carbon are interim until more comprehensive estimates can be developed that consider the National Academies’ recommendations and thus help ensure they reflect the best available science.\textsuperscript{66} The rulemakings we reviewed used the current federal estimates, which were based on EPA’s interim estimates; therefore, the federal government may not be well positioned to ensure agencies’ future regulatory analyses are using the best available science until the agencies finalize federal estimates that consider the National Academies’ implemented recommendations. OMB staff said that no federal agency has responsibility for addressing the recommendations, monitoring developments in scientific research, or ensuring that updated federal estimates consider such developments. By identifying a federal entity or entities to be responsible for addressing the National Academies’ recommendations for updating the methodologies used to estimate the federal social cost of carbon, including monitoring scientific research and ensuring that updates to the estimates consider such research, OMB would have better assurance that agencies use the best available science in the social cost of carbon estimates they use in their regulatory impact analyses.

\textsuperscript{65}\textsuperscript{65}According to EPA, the third model only calculates global estimates, and therefore, EPA approximated U.S. damages as 10 percent of the third model’s estimates. See EPA, \textit{Regulatory Impact Analysis for Repeal of the Clean Power Plan} (2019).

Four selected U.S. states—California, Minnesota, Nevada, and New York—have developed and used estimates of the social cost of carbon that are largely based on the federal government’s prior estimates, and the states use their estimates to regulate utilities and make other state policy decisions. According to state documents and officials, these estimates generally incorporate two key assumptions underlying the federal government’s prior estimates: that (1) U.S. greenhouse gas emissions contribute to damages around the world and (2) relatively low discount rates are appropriate to calculate their social costs. We did not find states using estimates based on other approaches, including the federal government’s current estimates.67

Two California state agencies have developed social cost of carbon estimates for analyzing policy and regulating utilities by adopting some of the prior federal estimates, according to documents we reviewed and officials we interviewed. The California Air Resources Board, the primary agency responsible for regulating sources of air pollution, developed estimates of the social cost of carbon (i.e., social cost estimates for both carbon dioxide and methane) in 2017 by adopting three of the four prior federal estimates for each emissions year, according to the documents we reviewed. According to the documents, the board adopted the prior federal estimates that were based on discount rates of 2.5, 3, and 5 percent (see table 2).68

The board used these estimates to assess policy options in California’s 2017 statewide plan for addressing climate change, which establishes the policy path for the state to reach its 2030 emissions target.69 For each policy option in the plan, such as a statewide emissions trading system, the board estimated the monetary benefits of avoided emissions by using the social cost of carbon. California’s plan states that although the prior federal estimates had been withdrawn as no longer representative of federal governmental policy, it did not alter their scientific integrity. The plan states that the prior federal estimates continue to reflect the best available science for estimating the socio-economic impacts of carbon

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67See appendix III for information from two selected U.S. states that have raised issues about the use of the federal government’s prior estimates.

68The board did not adopt the high-impact prior federal estimates.

69California Air Resources Board, California’s 2017 Climate Change Scoping Plan (November 2017).
dioxide emissions and other greenhouse gases. Furthermore, an official told us the board adopted and used the prior federal estimates because they were generally accepted among practitioners.

Table 2: Social Cost of Carbon Estimates Developed by the California Air Resources Board per Metric Ton of Carbon Dioxide in 2018 U.S. Dollars, 2020-2030

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of emissions</th>
<th>5 percent discount rate</th>
<th>3 percent discount rate</th>
<th>2.5 percent discount rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2020</td>
<td>$14</td>
<td>$50</td>
<td>$74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2025</td>
<td>$17</td>
<td>$55</td>
<td>$81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2030</td>
<td>$19</td>
<td>$60</td>
<td>$87</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GAO analysis of data from California Air Resources Board, California’s 2017 Climate Change Scoping Plan. 


The California Public Utilities Commission, the state’s utility and essential service regulator, adopted the prior federal estimates that were based on a 3 percent discount rate. The commission also adopted the prior federal high-impact estimates, which were to represent low-probability but higher-impact effects from temperature changes (see table 3). A commission official told us that staff consulted with the California Air Resources Board about the most appropriate estimates to use and ultimately selected the prior federal estimates because the board had reviewed them and considered them to be reliable.

Table 3: Social Cost of Carbon Estimates Developed by the California Public Utilities Commission per Metric Ton of Carbon Dioxide in 2018 U.S. Dollars, 2020-2030

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of emissions</th>
<th>3 percent discount rate</th>
<th>High impact estimate^a</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2020</td>
<td>$50</td>
<td>$147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2025</td>
<td>$55</td>
<td>$165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2030</td>
<td>$60</td>
<td>$181</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


^aThe high-impact estimates are meant to represent low-probability but high-impact damages from climate change and are the result of averaging the damages in the 95th percentile—that is higher.
than 95 percent of the damage results for each model—across all three of the integrated assessment models and then applying a 3 percent discount rate.

A 2019 decision by the commission adopting a set of polices to establish a cost-effectiveness framework for distributed energy resources provided, among other things, that the commission will use social cost of carbon estimates on a trial basis for potential use in integrated resource planning. An official told us the commission is testing in a trial whether a societal cost test, which would include using estimates of the social cost of carbon to account for avoided emissions, is useful in assessing whether distributed energy resources will help meet California’s carbon reduction objectives. During the trial period, which ends in December 2020, the official said the commission would be using the test for informational purposes and not as a factor in whether to approve a resource plan.

State officials from both the board and commission told us that using a social cost of carbon that accounts for global, rather than domestic, climate damages is most appropriate because carbon dioxide is a global pollutant—that is, carbon dioxide emissions from one country cause damages that are felt across the globe. Furthermore, board officials said they did not use the 7 percent discount rate recommended by OMB Circular A-4 to estimate the social cost of carbon for two reasons: (1) the 7 percent discount rate is intended to reflect returns on capital and is not applicable to the effects of greenhouse gas emissions and (2) that using such a high discount rate too greatly diminishes the benefits of actions taken now to prevent damages that future generations will otherwise experience.

Minnesota

In 2018, Minnesota’s utility regulator, the Minnesota Public Utility Commission, developed estimates of the social cost of carbon for utility resource planning based on the prior federal estimates but with modifications, including shortening the time period for projected climate

70Public Utilities Commission of the State of California, Decision Adopting Cost-Effectiveness Analysis Framework Policies for All Distributed Energy Resources, Rulemaking 14-10-003 (May 16, 2019). A utility resource plan consists of a set of options to meet the service needs of utility customers over a forecast period. According to the Federal Energy Regulatory Commission, distributed energy resources are typically small and geographically dispersed generation resources such as solar or combined heat and power.
damages (see table 4). The commission requires utilities to use its estimates of the social cost of carbon in their resource plans to account for the cost of carbon dioxide emissions. According to a Minnesota state official we interviewed, the commission is most likely to select the resource plan that provides the greatest net benefit for the state in the greatest number of planning scenarios.

The commission stated that to address some of the inherent uncertainties in estimating the long-term damage costs of carbon emissions, it elected to adopt a broader rather than a narrower range of social cost of carbon estimates—that is, by adopting low as well as high estimates for each emissions year. To develop its low estimates, the commission used a 5 percent discount rate like the prior federal estimates but shortened the time period for projected damages to the year 2100 because, in the commission’s view, projected damages after that point had greater uncertainty as they were extrapolated mathematically and not fully modelled. This step lowered the commission’s estimates relative to the prior federal estimates on which they were based. To develop a set of high estimates, the commission used a 3 percent discount rate and projected damages through the year 2300 (the same as the prior federal estimates).


74The Minnesota Public Utility Commission developed estimates of the social cost of carbon dioxide. An official stated that the commission does not require the use of social costs of other greenhouse gases—such as, methane or nitrous oxide—in utility resource planning. This is because, according to the commission’s order, carbon dioxide represents 99 percent of greenhouse gas emissions, and therefore, an accurate estimate of its environmental cost will account for almost all greenhouse gas costs.
Table 4: Social Cost of Carbon Estimates Developed by the Minnesota Public Utilities Commission per Short Ton of Carbon Dioxide in 2018 U.S. Dollars, 2020-2050

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of emissions</th>
<th>Low estimate&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>High estimate&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2020</td>
<td>$10</td>
<td>$45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2030</td>
<td>$12</td>
<td>$54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2040</td>
<td>$14</td>
<td>$64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2050</td>
<td>$16</td>
<td>$73</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Note: The Minnesota Public Utilities Commission based its estimates on the prior federal estimates of the social cost of carbon dioxide as published in the Interagency Working Group on Social Cost of Carbon’s 2015 update to the Technical Support Document, but with modifications. A short ton is a measure equal to 2,000 pounds, whereas metric tons (which are the units used for the prior federal estimates) equal 1,000 kilograms or approximately 2,204.6 pounds. The estimate values are adjusted for inflation and expressed in 2018 U.S. dollars using the United States Gross Domestic Product Price Index from the U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Economic Analysis.

<sup>a</sup>Based on climate damages projected through calendar year 2100 and discounted at a 5 percent rate.

<sup>b</sup>Based on climate damages projected through calendar year 2300 and discounted at a 3 percent rate.

The commission adopted modified versions of the prior federal estimates to balance the recommendations of state agencies that called for directly adopting the prior federal estimates with the recommendations of an administrative law judge who called for more extensive modifications, according to the order we reviewed. To develop its estimates, the commission requested that two state agencies—the Minnesota Pollution Control Agency and Minnesota Department of Commerce—convene a stakeholder group to provide recommendations on how the commission should investigate the issue of the environmental costs of generating electricity. In response, among other things, in 2014 the agencies recommended that the commission adopt the federal government’s estimates of the social cost of carbon as the environmental costs of carbon dioxide. Officials from the agencies told us that they advised the commission to adopt the prior federal estimates of the social cost of carbon because the estimates represented the best available science. Both agencies concluded that using estimates based on global damages was most appropriate because carbon dioxide is a pollutant that causes negative effects that are not limited to the country where it is emitted, according to the agencies’ report to the commission we reviewed and our
discussions with agency officials. Both agencies also advocated using
discount rates of 5 percent and lower as were used for the prior federal
estimates. An agency official we interviewed explained that using a higher
discount rate—such as 7 percent as suggested by OMB—was
inappropriately high for valuing the effects of actions taken today on
future generations.

In 2015 and 2016, an administrative law judge presided over evidentiary
hearings at the request of the commission to address whether the prior
federal social cost of carbon was reasonable and the best available
measure to determine the environmental cost of carbon dioxide emissions
under Minnesota law, and, if not, what measure was better supported by
the evidence. Based on evidence and testimony presented by
environmental and economic experts, as well as advocates representing
environmental and business concerns, the judge found that the federal
government’s prior estimates generally provided a practicable basis for
quantifying a range of environmental costs associated with carbon dioxide
emissions, although the judge noted several shortcomings. The
Minnesota Public Utilities Commission concurred with the judge that the
prior federal cost of carbon provided the best framework from which to
establish a range of environmental costs associated with carbon dioxide
emissions for purposes of Minnesota law, although it declined to adopt
several of the judge’s specific recommendations.

Nevada

In 2018, Nevada’s state utility regulator identified the prior federal
estimates as an example that utilities may use to meet state requirements

75Minnesota Department of Commerce and Minnesota Pollution Control Agency,
Comments of the Minnesota Department of Commerce, Division of Energy Resources and
the Minnesota Pollution Control Agency (Docket No. E999/CI-00-1636, Jun. 10, 2014).

76For example, the judge found that the federal damage estimates beyond calendar year
2100 had greater uncertainty and recommended that the Commission decline to consider
carbon dioxide costs accruing after the year 2200 when calculating the social cost of
carbon dioxide.

77State of Minnesota, Office of Administrative Hearings, For the Public Utilities
Commission: In the Matter of the Further Investigation into Environmental and
Socioeconomic Costs Under Minnesota Statutes Section 216B.2422, Subdivision 3,
Findings of Fact, Conclusions, and Recommendations: Carbon Dioxide Value (OAH 80-
2500-31888, MPUC E-999/CI-14-643: Jan. 2018). Specifically, the Commission declined
to use the 2.5% discount rate used by the federal Interagency Working Group. It also
decided to adopt a range of values based on damage estimates calculated through the
year 2200 as recommended by the judge, and instead adopted a range of costs that
included one estimate calculated through 2100 and another calculated through 2300.
to account for the environmental costs of carbon dioxide emissions when submitting energy resource plans for consideration, according to an order we reviewed and officials we interviewed.\textsuperscript{78} State law requires the Nevada Public Utility Commission to give preference to energy providers that, among other things, reduce customer exposure to the price volatility of fossil fuels and the potential costs of carbon.\textsuperscript{79} The commission held public workshops from October 2017 to July 2018 to determine the best method to meet this requirement and, based on the results of the workshops, subsequently amended its regulations to require the use of a social cost of carbon based on global climate costs (i.e., damages) and the best available science and economics in utility resource plans.\textsuperscript{80} Officials said the regulations do not specify the social cost of carbon estimates that utilities must use in their proposed resource plans, but the regulations identified the federal government’s prior estimates as an example of estimates calculated using the best available science and economics that could fulfill the commission’s requirement.\textsuperscript{81} According to Nevada officials, the regulations provide utilities the flexibility to use estimates other than the prior federal estimates to represent the environmental cost of carbon dioxide emissions, as long as the utilities justify why the estimates they use are representative of the best available science and economics.

\textbf{New York}

Officials with three New York state agencies told us they use social cost of carbon estimates that the state utility regulator, the New York State Public Service Commission, developed by adopting some of the prior federal estimates. A 2016 New York State Public Service Commission order outlines a cost-benefit analysis framework for evaluating proposals to help implement the state’s clean energy strategy, including a requirement to account for carbon dioxide emissions by using the prior

\textsuperscript{78}Public Utilities Commission of Nevada, Investigation and rulemaking to implement Senate Bill 65 (2017), Docket 17-07020 (August 2018).

\textsuperscript{79}Nev. Rev. Stat. § 704.746(5)(e).

\textsuperscript{80}Nev. Admin. Code § 704.937.

federal estimates of the social cost of carbon. The order adopted the prior federal estimates of the social cost of carbon that were based on a 3 percent discount rate (see table 5).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of emissions</th>
<th>3 percent discount rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2020</td>
<td>$52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2030</td>
<td>$62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2040</td>
<td>$73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2050</td>
<td>$86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GAO analysis of data from New York Public Services Commission, Order Establishing the Benefit Cost Analysis Framework. | GAO-20-254


The commission uses the social cost of carbon estimates for conducting regulatory activities and implementing programs, according to officials we interviewed. For example, the commission uses the estimates to help calculate the credits it provides to clean energy generators, such as community solar generators, as incentives to participate in clean energy programs. Commission officials told us they use the prior federal estimates that were based on a 3 percent discount rate.

The New York State Energy Research and Development Authority follows the commission’s framework and uses the social cost of carbon estimates to conduct studies that inform state energy policy and program


83Clean energy credits, according to Public Service Commission officials, are the higher of the social cost of carbon or the marginal abatement cost.

According to authority officials, they conduct studies, such as an analysis performed for New York’s 2018 Offshore Wind Master Plan, using the estimates to determine if energy policies will benefit the state and consider whether energy resources under consideration are technologically and economically feasible. Additionally, officials from New York’s environmental regulator, the Department of Environmental Conservation, said they use the estimates when accounting for avoided emissions in internal policy analyses.

New York officials we spoke with said they chose to use a social cost of carbon that accounts for global, rather than domestic, climate damages because carbon dioxide is a global pollutant. Officials said using a social cost of carbon based on only domestic damages ignores the fundamental externality problem of greenhouse gas emissions—that is, carbon dioxide emissions cause warming and resulting damages worldwide. Officials said if countries only consider the domestic damages of their carbon dioxide emissions then they would undervalue the potential benefits of emissions reductions policies, thereby dissuading needed action. Furthermore, agency officials said they chose to use a social cost of carbon based on a 3 percent discount rate, as opposed to the 7 percent discount rate recommended by OMB Circular A-4, because using a lower rate is more appropriate for assessing the long-term externality costs of carbon dioxide emissions.

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85 The New York State Energy Research and Development Authority’s mission is to develop a more reliable and affordable energy system in New York and promote energy efficiency and renewable energy resources.

Of the four selected countries in our review, two have developed and used monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions based on the social cost of carbon (i.e., damage costs) approach, and the two other selected countries based their estimates on the target-consistent approach. Canada has adopted and used some of the prior U.S. federal estimates of the social cost of carbon, and Germany has developed and used its own estimates of the social cost of carbon. In contrast, France and the United Kingdom have developed and used estimates based on the target-consistent approach, which involves estimates that are based on the projected least costly pathway for meeting national emissions targets.

Canada and Germany both developed monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions using the social cost of carbon approach. Canadian and German officials said they chose to develop estimates using the social cost of carbon approach because it allows emissions to be measured in terms of their impacts on society, which according to these officials, is how externalities are typically included in government cost-benefit analyses. To develop its estimates, Canada adopted some of the prior U.S. federal estimates of the social cost of carbon. Specifically, for each emissions year Canada adopted two of the four prior U.S. estimates. As its primary estimates, Canada adopted those calculated using a 3 percent discount rate and, for use in sensitivity analysis, Canada adopted the U.S. high-impact estimates that represent lower-probability but high-impact damages (see table 6).

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87For the purposes of this report, when we refer to these countries by name, we mean their central or federal governments. Also in this report, we refer to the German government approach as the social cost of carbon for purposes of consistency, but in a key German technical document it is referred to as a damage costs approach.

88The French government generally uses the term “cost-effectiveness approach” instead of target-consistent approach, and “cost-benefit approach” instead of the social cost of carbon approach. In this report, for consistency, we refer to both the French and UK approaches as the target-consistent approach.

89As stated in its technical document, Canada adopted some of the prior U.S. federal estimates of the social cost of carbon (as published by the IWG in 2015 and converted by Canada to 2012 Canadian dollars). See Environment and Climate Change Canada, Technical Update to Environment and Climate Change Canada’s Social Cost of Greenhouse Gas Estimates (Gatineau, Quebec: March 2016).
Table 6: Social Cost of Carbon Estimates Developed by Canada per Metric Ton of Carbon Dioxide in 2018 U.S. Dollars, 2020-2050

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of emissions</th>
<th>Primary estimates (based on 3% discount rate)</th>
<th>High-impact estimates (based on 3% discount rate)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2020</td>
<td>$38</td>
<td>$159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2030</td>
<td>$45</td>
<td>$197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2050</td>
<td>$62</td>
<td>$267</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GAO analysis of data from Environment and Climate Change Canada. Note: Official estimates for Canada were adjusted for inflation by converting from 2012 to 2018 Canadian dollars using the gross domestic product (GDP) deflator for Canada from the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development retrieved from FRED (Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis). The estimates were then converted to U.S. dollars using daily representative exchange rates from the International Monetary Fund averaged over calendar year 2018.

Canada’s high-impact estimates are used for sensitivity analysis and, as adopted from the U.S. Interagency Working Group on Social Cost of Carbon, represent the 95th percentile of the estimates discounted at a 3 percent rate. These estimates represent higher-than-expected damages from temperature changes—that is, low-probability but high-impact damages.

Germany developed two social cost of carbon estimates for each emissions year, a primary estimate and a high-impact estimate for use in sensitivity analysis, that were produced using a single integrated assessment model (see table 7).90

90Germany adopted climate damages estimates produced using the Climate Framework for Uncertainty, Negotiation, and Distribution (FUND) integrated assessment model. See David Anthoff, *Report on marginal external damage costs inventory of greenhouse gas emissions* (Hamburg: Hamburg University, 2007). The German estimates also reflect climate damages that are weighted based on a region’s relative wealth—that is, a method known as equity weighting—according to German officials because climate damages that happen in a region with relatively less wealth (measured in gross domestic product per capita) will have a greater negative impact on the region than in a richer region.
Table 7: Social Cost of Carbon Estimates Developed by Germany per Metric Ton of Carbon Dioxide in 2018 U.S. Dollars, 2016-2050

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of emissions</th>
<th>Primary estimates</th>
<th>High-impact estimates&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>$218</td>
<td>$776</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2030</td>
<td>$248</td>
<td>$812</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2050</td>
<td>$291</td>
<td>$885</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GAO analysis of data from Germany’s Federal Environment Agency (UBA). Note: Official values for Germany were adjusted for inflation by converting from 2016 to 2018 euros using the gross domestic product (GDP) deflator for Germany from the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development retrieved from FRED (Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis). The values were then converted to U.S. dollars using daily representative exchange rates from the International Monetary Fund averaged over calendar year 2018. The German Federal Environment Agency provided values for only 2016, 2030, and 2050; the agency recommended that agencies interpolate linearly between years for which no values are indicated.

<sup>a</sup>Germany’s high-impact values are used for sensitivity analysis and represent the projected damages from emissions using an effective discount rate that is based on a pure rate of time preference with a value of zero percent. The effective discount rate is determined inside the Climate Framework for Uncertainty, Negotiation, and Distribution (FUND) model using a Ramsey-like formula that incorporates the pure rate of time preference, the marginal utility of income, and GDP growth rates.

Canadian and German officials we interviewed said they chose to develop estimates based on global climate damages because greenhouse gas emissions cause damages worldwide regardless of where they are originally emitted. According to Canadian and German documents we reviewed and officials we interviewed, if all countries only accounted for the domestic damages caused by their emissions, then not all relevant climate damages would be accounted for globally because each country would be ignoring the damages its emissions cause in other countries, which could limit the potential for global action to mitigate climate change.

Canada and Germany differed in their choices of discount rates, but both countries chose discount rates that took into account the long-term nature of climate damages from greenhouse gas emissions, according to documents we reviewed and officials we interviewed. Canadian officials said they adopted the prior U.S. federal estimates that were discounted at a 3 percent rate because their national guidance calls for using such low discount rates in circumstances where impacts occur over a long time horizon or where environmental and human health are involved.<sup>91</sup>

Alternatively, Germany chose to use discount rates that are not constant and instead change over time based on the level of projected economic growth, according to German officials.92 Specifically, Germany’s discount rate for its primary estimates starts near 3 percent in 2006 and declines to 2 percent by 2250. For its high-impact estimates, Germany’s discount rate starts near 2 percent and declines to 1 percent by 2250.93 Canadian and German officials said they chose their respective discount rates because climate change will cause environmental impacts and damages over a long time span.94

Canada and Germany differed in how they developed monetary estimates for other greenhouse gases. Canada adopted the prior U.S. federal estimates of the social cost of nitrous oxide and the social cost of methane.95 In contrast, according to documents we reviewed and officials we interviewed, Germany calculates monetary estimates for nitrous oxide and methane emissions by multiplying the United Nation’s

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92This is reflected in the Climate Framework for Uncertainty, Negotiation, and Distribution (FUND) model’s Ramsey-based discounting formula. Specifically the discount rate based on the Ramsey formula incorporates the pure rate of time preference (i.e., the rate of discount of future welfare), the marginal utility of income (i.e., the change in the value of money as society gets wealthier), and the projected growth in gross domestic product per capita. In this setup, the FUND model assumes that the gross domestic product per capita growth rate declines over time, which causes the overall discount rate to go down over time in the FUND model’s projections.

93One component of the Climate Framework for Uncertainty, Negotiation, and Distribution (FUND) model’s Ramsey formula is the pure rate of time preference between future and current consumption that is ascribed to society. German officials said they chose a 1 percent pure rate of time preference for its central estimates and 0 percent for its estimates for sensitivity analysis.

94Canadian and German officials said that because climate damages occur over a long time span, using a higher discount rate—such as 7 percent to represent the opportunity cost of capital as specified by OMB—would significantly diminish how future damages are valued. According to Canadian officials, using a discount rate higher than 3 percent would not necessarily be appropriate for discounting climate damages.

95As stated in its technical document, Canada adopted some of the prior U.S. federal estimates of the social cost of nitrous oxide and social cost of methane (as published by the IWG in 2016 and converted by Canada to 2012 Canadian dollars). See Environment and Climate Change Canada, Technical Update to Environment and Climate Change Canada’s Social Cost of Greenhouse Gas Estimates (Gatineau, Quebec: March 2016).
According to documents we reviewed and officials we interviewed, Canada and Germany both use their monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions in cost-benefit analysis of policies, regulations, or projects, including those meant to help achieve emissions reduction goals tied to their respective national climate change strategies. The Canadian national government uses its monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions in cost-benefit analyses to evaluate all federal regulations affecting such emissions, including regulations that are meant to help implement the Canadian national climate change strategy, according to officials. For example, the Canadian national government has used its monetary estimates in regulatory impact analyses for regulations creating emissions standards for coal-fired electricity producers. Germany’s Umweltbundesamt (the German Environment Agency, or UBA), the country’s main federal environmental protection agency, has used its monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions to evaluate policies developed to meet its 2030 contribution to Germany’s Climate Action Plan of 2016, which set a national goal of reaching carbon neutrality by 2050, according to German officials. For more information on Canada and Germany’s approaches, see appendixes IV and V, respectively.

96See Dr. Astrid Matthey and Dr. Björn Bünger, Umweltbundesamt (German Environment Agency), Methodological Convention 3.0 for the Assessment of Environmental Costs (Dessau-Roßlau: September 2018). The Global Warming Potential factor was developed to allow comparisons of the global warming potential of different gases. Specifically, it is a measure of how much energy the emissions of one metric ton of a gas will absorb over a given period of time, relative to the emissions of one metric ton of carbon dioxide.

97Canada’s national climate change strategy, the Pan-Canadian Framework on Clean Growth and Climate Change of 2016, guides Canada’s efforts to reduce greenhouse gas emissions and sets an emissions target of a 30 percent reduction from 2005 levels by 2030. See Environment and Climate Change Canada, Pan-Canadian Framework on Clean Growth and Climate Change: Canada’s plan to address climate change and grow the economy (Gatineau, Quebec: 2016).

France and the United Kingdom have both developed and used monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions based on the target-consistent approach (see table 8). Officials in both France and the United Kingdom said their monetary estimates represent the minimum costs of reducing greenhouse gas emissions to meet their respective national emissions reduction targets.

Table 8: Monetary Estimates for Greenhouse Gases Based on the Target-Consistent Approach Developed by France and the United Kingdom per Metric Ton of Carbon Dioxide in 2018 U.S. Dollars, 2020-2050

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of emissions</th>
<th>France</th>
<th>United Kingdom (Non-traded sectors)</th>
<th>United Kingdom (Emissions-trading sectors)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2020</td>
<td>$103</td>
<td>$93</td>
<td>$19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2030</td>
<td>$295</td>
<td>$108</td>
<td>$108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2050</td>
<td>$916</td>
<td>$309</td>
<td>$309</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Note: We converted French and UK values from 2018 euros and pounds, respectively, to U.S. dollars using daily representative exchange rates from the International Monetary Fund averaged over calendar year 2018.

*aConverges with modeled estimates for non-traded sectors beginning in 2030.

To develop their monetary estimates, both countries used economic modeling and other techniques to determine the least costly pathway to meet their respective national emissions targets, according to documents we reviewed and officials we interviewed.99 As a result, under both countries’ approaches, the monetary estimates were determined in relation to the costs that would have to be borne by each country to reduce emissions to an agreed-to level. French and UK officials said they chose to use the target-consistent approach because their countries had

99France convened a commission made up of 20 experts and economists on the environment that included academics, research centers, non-governmental organizations, and government officials, according to the commission documents we reviewed. Five different modeling teams contributed to the commission’s work. The United Kingdom’s Department of Energy & Climate Change, which is now part of the Department for Business, Energy & Industrial Strategy, conducted economic modeling to determine the United Kingdom’s monetary values, according to documents we reviewed. See appendixes VI and VII for more information on each country’s approach.
set explicit emissions reduction targets aligned with their commitments to meet international climate goals, particularly the 2015 Paris Agreement’s goals to keep global temperature rise this century below 2 degrees Celsius above pre-industrial levels, and to pursue efforts to limit the temperature rise to 1.5 degrees Celsius.\textsuperscript{100} French and UK officials said the goals set in the Paris Agreement were based on leading science and economics. France calculated its monetary estimates based on a target of reaching net-zero emissions (i.e., carbon neutrality) by 2050 as outlined in its National Low Carbon Strategy.\textsuperscript{101} The United Kingdom calculated its monetary estimates based on a target of an 80 percent reduction in emissions from 1990 levels by 2050, as stipulated in its 2008 Climate Change Act as originally enacted.\textsuperscript{102} French and UK officials said that having monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions based on these targets allows their governments to identify and evaluate regulations and projects that can help meet their targets at the lowest cost.

Both countries’ estimates were developed by calculating the costs of reducing emissions across sectors of their economies, such as in energy or transportation, based on how ambitious the target is and the technologies available in each sector to reduce emissions. For example, for the energy sector, French officials said the costs would represent those technologies needed to transition from fossil fuels to renewable energy sources or to improve energy efficiency. Additionally, the United

\textsuperscript{100}The 2015 Paris Agreement is an international agreement between countries that set a goal of limiting global warming to well below 2 degrees Celsius and to pursue efforts to limit warming to 1.5 degrees Celsius. As of February 27, 2020, 189 countries had ratified the agreement.

\textsuperscript{101}Ministère de la Transition Écologique et Solidaire (Ministry for an Ecological and Inclusive Transition), National Low Carbon Strategy Project: The ecological and inclusive transition towards carbon neutrality (December 2018). Net-zero emissions refers to gross greenhouse gas emissions being fully compensated by carbon absorption sinks, which are natural systems such as forests that absorb and store carbon dioxide from the atmosphere.

\textsuperscript{102}UK Public Acts, Climate Change Act 2008, c. 27. See also Department for Business, Energy & Industrial Strategy, The Clean Growth Strategy: Leading the way to a low carbon future (October 2017). Specifically, the strategy outlines UK government actions to meet legally binding interim targets. For example, the United Kingdom has set a series of intermediate 5-year interim targets covering the period to 2032, such as a 57 percent reduction of emissions by 2032. The United Kingdom’s devolved administrations—Wales, Scotland, and Northern Ireland—have additional plans and policies to deliver emissions reductions. However, in June 2019 the United Kingdom amended its legal target to net-zero emissions, as compared to 1990 levels, by 2050, which, according to UK officials, was also informed by the 2015 Paris Agreement. UK officials said they were likely to re-evaluate their monetary estimates in light of their change in target level of emissions.
Kingdom uses European Union emissions trading system prices for its monetary estimates for economic sectors, including the UK power and industrial sectors, that are covered under the system because the trading system’s emissions cap is treated as a target level of emissions for those sectors, according to a UK government guidance document we reviewed.103

Both countries’ monetary estimates increase significantly over time, reflecting that abatement costs will rise over time as emissions targets become more stringent and as more expensive abatement measures will need to be employed, according to officials we interviewed.104 For example, France’s target for 2030 of reducing overall emissions in its economy by 40 percent relative to 1990 levels rises to a target of net-zero emissions by 2050. French and UK documents we reviewed stated that more expensive abatement measures will be needed to further reduce emissions in economic sectors, such as energy and agriculture, once less-expensive abatement measures have already been implemented. As a result, the countries’ monetary estimates rise as greater emissions reductions are required in these sectors to meet the national targets. In addition, French and UK documents we reviewed stated that in the least cost pathway, more expensive abatement options should be taken in later years to smooth the near-term burden on the economy and to allow for the possibility that new technology may become available to abate emissions in difficult sectors.

Officials we interviewed from both countries said the target-consistent approach was more certain than the social cost of carbon approach for several reasons. For example, they said the models used to develop social cost of carbon estimates do not take into account all relevant damages, including the potential for catastrophic damages or damages that accelerate in unforeseen ways after climate tipping points are passed, and could thereby significantly underestimate damages. The officials said their emissions targets aimed to maintain a safer level of

103Department of Energy and Climate Change, Carbon Valuation in UK Policy Appraisal: A Revised Approach (London: July 2009). The European Union emissions trading system is a market-based approach to reducing greenhouse gas emissions. A cap or limit is set on the total amount of certain greenhouse gases that can be emitted by installations covered by the system and the cap is reduced over time so that total emissions fall. Within the cap, companies receive or buy emission allowances that they can trade with one another. United Kingdom officials said the monetary values in the emissions trading system are assumed to converge with its modeled target-consistent values in 2030.

104Improving energy efficiency in buildings by installing insulation is an example of an emissions abatement measure.
planetary warming given the risks of irreversible or catastrophic damages that climate damages models cannot adequately take into account. Further, the officials said that monetary estimates based on climate damages were more sensitive to differences in key assumptions than estimates under the target-consistent approach, such as the discount rate and how climate impacts are converted into damages, which can therefore lead to a wide range of potential values. For example, according to a UK government guidance document, monetary estimates based on climate damages could range from £0 to over £1000 per metric ton of carbon dioxide depending on the assumptions made.105

Both France and the United Kingdom use their target-consistent monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions to plan actions meant to help them meet their emissions reductions targets. French and UK officials said that monetary estimates serve as reference values for government agencies to determine which policies, regulations, and investment projects would be most cost-effective in meeting emissions reductions targets. For example, French officials said that if a proposed policy or project’s costs, such as subsidies encouraging consumers to purchase more fuel-efficient automobiles, per unit of abated emissions were greater than the government’s target-consistent monetary estimates, then the proposed policy or project may not be cost-effective—that is, it is more expensive than other available abatement measures that are capable of ensuring that France meets its emissions reduction targets. Officials said their monetary estimates help guide government decision-making to avoid taking either too little action or too costly of actions to meet their targets.

France and the United Kingdom also use their monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions more broadly throughout their governments in policy, regulatory, and project cost-benefit analysis. For example, according to French officials, the French government must conduct an economic cost-benefit analysis for government investment projects, including major projects like improvements to the nation’s electricity grid or smaller-scale projects like retrofits of public buildings or construction of hospitals, and these analyses use France’s monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions. In addition, officials said the United Kingdom has used its monetary estimates when developing and evaluating regulations and policies, such as housing regulations and a policy providing subsidies to purchase electric vehicles. For more information on

the approaches of France and the United Kingdom, see appendixes VI and VII, respectively. For more information on the views of officials from the four selected countries we reviewed on the strengths and challenges of the social cost of carbon and target-consistent approaches, see appendix VIII.

Conclusions

The federal government is currently using interim estimates of the social cost of carbon in its regulatory impact analyses, in part, to help weigh the potential costs of taking actions to reduce emissions against their expected benefits. The federal agencies we reviewed stated that the social cost of carbon estimates that they have used are interim until more comprehensive estimates become available that reflect the 2017 recommendations of the National Academies, which called for comprehensively updating the methods used to develop the estimates in order to ensure they reflected the best available science. However, since the National Academies issued its recommendations, the IWG has been disbanded, and no federal agency has been given the responsibility of addressing the recommendations. OMB continues to play a leading role in the federal government’s use of the social cost of carbon, as one of the entities that convened the IWG and as having responsibility for OMB’s guidance in Circular A-4. Without identifying a federal entity or entities to be responsible for addressing the National Academies’ recommendations, including monitoring scientific research and ensuring that updates to the federal estimates consider such research, the federal government may not be well positioned to ensure agencies’ future regulatory analyses are using the best available science.

Recommendation for Executive Action

We are making the following recommendation to OMB:

- The Director of OMB should identify a federal entity or entities to be responsible for addressing the National Academies’ recommendations for updating the methodologies used to estimate the federal social cost of carbon, including monitoring scientific research and ensuring that updates to the federal estimates consider such research as appropriate. (Recommendation 1)
Agency Comments

We provided a draft of this report to the Departments of the Interior and Transportation, EPA, and OMB for review and comment. Interior and Transportation informed us that they had no formal comments on the draft report and provided technical comments only, which we incorporated as appropriate. EPA informed us that they had no comments on the draft report. At its request, we gave OMB additional time for review and comment. However, OMB did not provide comments.

As agreed with your offices, unless you publicly announce the contents of this report earlier, we plan no further distribution until 30 days from the report date. At that time, we will send copies to the appropriate congressional committees, the Secretaries of the Interior and Transportation, the Administrator of EPA, the Director of OMB, and other interested parties. In addition, the report will be available at no charge on the GAO website at http://www.gao.gov.

If you or your staff members have any questions about this report, please contact me at (202) 512-3841 or gomezj@gao.gov. Contact points for our Offices of Congressional Relations and Public Affairs may be found on the last page of this report. Key contributors to this report are listed in appendix IX.

J. Alfredo Gómez
Director, Natural Resources and Environment
List of Requesters

The Honorable Sheldon Whitehouse
Ranking Member
Subcommittee on Clean Air and Nuclear Safety
Committee on Environment and Public Works
United States Senate

The Honorable Carolyn B. Maloney
Chairwoman
Committee on Oversight and Reform
House of Representatives

The Honorable Michael F. Bennet
United States Senate

The Honorable Benjamin L. Cardin
United States Senate

The Honorable Dianne Feinstein
United States Senate

The Honorable Kamala D. Harris
United States Senate

The Honorable Jeffrey A. Merkley
United States Senate

The Honorable Elizabeth Warren
United States Senate
Appendix I: Objectives, Scope, and Methodology

Our work for this report reviewed how the federal government, U.S. states, and foreign countries have developed and used monetary estimates of the effects of carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gas emissions in regulatory and policy cost-benefit analysis—in the form of the social cost of carbon or other valuation methods. For the purposes of this report, the term social cost of carbon encompasses monetary estimates for each of three key greenhouse gases: carbon dioxide, methane, and nitrous oxide. This report examines (1) how the federal government’s current estimates of the social cost of carbon compare to prior estimates and how selected federal agencies have used the current estimates in recent rulemakings; (2) how the federal government plans to address the recommendations made by the National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine for updating estimates of the social cost of carbon; (3) how selected U.S. states have developed and used estimates of the social cost of carbon, or other valuation methods; and (4) how selected foreign countries have developed and used estimates of the social cost of carbon, or other valuation methods.

To examine how the federal government’s current estimates of the social cost of carbon compare to prior estimates and how selected federal agencies have used the current estimates in recent rulemakings, we reviewed how federal agencies estimated the social cost of carbon for use in regulatory cost-benefit analyses before and after the agencies updated their estimates in response to Executive Order 13783, which was issued in March 2017. To examine the federal government’s current estimates, we reviewed several recent rulemakings that were issued between March 2017 and January 2019 and that used estimates of the social cost of carbon in their regulatory impact analyses and specifically mentioned the use of these estimates in the preamble to the proposed or final rules. We discussed the recent relevant rulemakings we identified with staff from the Office of Management and Budget (OMB) and officials at other relevant agencies; neither staff nor officials mentioned any


2We used several keywords to search the Federal Register for relevant proposed and final rules that were issued between March 2017 and January 2019 and in which the preamble discussed the relevant agency’s use of estimates of the social cost of carbon and other greenhouse gases. We used keywords, such as “social cost of carbon,” “social cost of methane,” and “social cost of nitrous oxide,” to search the Federal Register.
relevant rulemakings other than those we had identified.³ Our search results identified final and proposed rules issued by the Department of the Interior’s Bureau of Land Management (BLM), the Department of Transportation’s National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA), and the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA). We interviewed officials from these agencies to learn about the guidance, assumptions, and methods they used to develop their current estimates. We also interviewed OMB staff to learn about the office’s role in providing oversight and guidance to the agencies on how to conduct cost-benefit analyses for their final and proposed rules. In addition, we reviewed federal direction and guidance on how agencies are to assess costs and benefits in regulatory analysis, including Executive Order 12866 and OMB Circular A-4.⁴ To compare the current federal estimates to the prior estimates, we examined the prior estimates of the social cost of carbon found in a Technical Support Document and its subsequent updates issued from 2010 to 2016 by the Interagency Working Group (IWG) on Social Cost of Carbon (later the Interagency Working Group on Social Cost of Greenhouse Gases) and compared them to the current estimates in rulemakings issued since Executive Order 13783 was issued.⁵

To examine how the federal government plans to address the National Academies’ recommendations for updating estimates of the social cost of carbon, we reviewed documents on how federal agencies have

³In May and July 2017, the Department of Energy (DOE) finalized a small number of regulations that were originally prepared using the federal government’s prior estimates of the social cost of carbon as developed by the Interagency Working Group on Social Cost of Carbon (IWG). However, our search did not identify any DOE regulations using the federal government’s current estimates after the issuance of Executive Order 13783. Therefore, we did not include DOE in the scope of our review.


considered the National Academies’ recommendations and their plans, if any, for addressing them. Specifically, we reviewed the same final and proposed rules and associated regulatory impact analyses that we selected to address our first objective to learn how the agencies had addressed, or planned to address, the National Academies’ recommendations.6 We interviewed officials with the agencies that had issued the final and proposed rules to understand their plans, if any, to address the National Academies’ recommendations, including their plans to collaborate with other federal agencies and offices. We also interviewed one of the co-chairs of the committee that conducted the National Academies’ review. We reviewed guidance in OMB Circular A-4 on how agencies are to assess costs and benefits in regulatory analysis.

To examine how selected U.S. states have developed and used estimates of the social cost of carbon, or other valuation methods, we sought to identify states using estimates based on both the prior and current federal estimates, or other valuation methods. Through our research, which included a search of literature and interviews with knowledgeable parties (including, among others, the Institute for Policy Integrity, Resources for the Future, and Carbon Brief), we did not identify any U.S. states using the current federal estimates, or other valuation methods. We identified nine U.S. states that called for using the prior federal estimates in state decision-making. Of these, we selected and reviewed a nonprobability sample of four U.S. states—California, Minnesota, Nevada, and New York—that we determined were the most relevant for our purposes based on the frequency by which they appeared in the literature we reviewed and the recommendations we received in interviews with knowledgeable stakeholders.7 We reviewed documents and interviewed state officials to learn how the selected state governments developed and used the estimates in regulatory and project cost-benefit analyses—including their choices on specific components of the social cost of carbon, such as discount rates and scope of damages (i.e., global or domestic). Our findings from our review of these selected U.S. states cannot be generalized to all 50 U.S. states, but they present illustrative examples of how states have accounted for the effects of

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7We may not have identified all U.S. states calling for the use of the prior federal social cost of carbon estimates in state decision-making through our review of literature and interviews with knowledgeable parties. Therefore, the nine U.S. states we identified should not be considered a complete list of states relying on the prior federal estimates.
carbon dioxide or other greenhouse gases, in monetary terms, in their decision-making. We also selected a nonprobability sample of U.S. states—Montana and Texas—that had (1) submitted written comments on aspects of the prior federal estimates for rulemaking and raised issues with using them and (2) not developed or used estimates of the social cost of carbon at the time of our review according to our interviews with state officials. We reviewed documents from and interviewed officials from Montana and Texas.

To examine how selected foreign countries have developed and used estimates of the social cost of carbon, or other valuation methods, we reviewed documents and interviewed government officials from Canada, France, Germany, and the United Kingdom on how their national governments have estimated monetary estimates for carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gas emissions for use in regulatory and project cost-benefit analysis. To identify these countries, we conducted a literature search to identify national governments that use monetary values for greenhouse gases in government cost-benefit analysis. We also interviewed knowledgeable stakeholders with expertise on the topic and sought their recommendations on which countries might be most relevant for our purposes. Our literature review included over 85 reports and studies from the National Academies, academia, international organizations, other governments, non-profits, and think tanks. Knowledgeable stakeholders we interviewed included academic researchers who focus on how to develop monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions in cost-benefit analysis and also officials from key international organizations or think tanks that have knowledge on how national governments have developed and used monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions in cost-benefit analysis and policy analysis more generally, such as the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, the World Bank, and the International Monetary Fund.

We approached officials from three states that had commented on the prior federal estimates of the social cost of carbon for proposed rulemaking. State officials from Kentucky (i.e., Kentucky’s Energy and Environment Cabinet) declined to speak with us on the social cost of carbon, so we did not include the state in our review.


9We approached officials from three states that had commented on the prior federal estimates of the social cost of carbon for proposed rulemaking. State officials from Kentucky (i.e., Kentucky’s Energy and Environment Cabinet) declined to speak with us on the social cost of carbon, so we did not include the state in our review.

selected the four countries for our review because we found them to be the most relevant for our purposes based on the literature we reviewed, and they were recommended as strong or particularly relevant illustrative examples in our interviews with knowledgeable stakeholders. Due to resource constraints, we could not review every country that has developed and used monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions for use in cost-benefit analysis. As a result, findings from the nonprobability sample of selected countries cannot be generalized to all countries worldwide but provide illustrative examples. Table 9 shows the national agencies for foreign countries from which we gathered documents and interviewed officials.

Table 9: Countries and National Agencies from which GAO Gathered Documents and Interviewed Officials about Development and Use of Monetary Estimates for Greenhouse Gas Emissions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Canada</th>
<th>France</th>
<th>Germany</th>
<th>United Kingdom</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Environment and Climate Change Canada</td>
<td>Agence de l’environnement et de la maîtrise de l’énergie (ADEME, or Environment &amp; Energy Management Agency)</td>
<td>Umweltbundesamt (UBA, or German Environment Agency)</td>
<td>Committee on Climate Change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CITEPA (Technical Reference Center for Air Pollution and Climate Change)</td>
<td>Bundesministerium für Umwelt, Naturschutz und nukleare Sicherheit (BMU, or German Federal Ministry for the Environment, Nature Conservation, and Nuclear Safety)</td>
<td>Department for Business, Energy &amp; Industrial Strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cours des comptes (Court of Audit)</td>
<td>Bundesrechnungshof (German Supreme Audit Institution)</td>
<td>Department for Environment, Food &amp; Rural Affairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>France Stratégie</td>
<td></td>
<td>Department for Transport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Direction générale du Trésor (General Directorate of the Treasury)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Her Majesty’s Treasury</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Secrétariat générale pour l’Investissement (SGPI, or General Secretariat for Investment)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ministry of Housing, Communities &amp; Local Government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ministère de la transition écologique et solidaire – Direction générale de l’énergie et du climat (Ministry for the Ecological and Inclusive Transition – General Directorate for Climate and Energy)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix I: Objectives, Scope, and Methodology

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Canada</th>
<th>France</th>
<th>Germany</th>
<th>United Kingdom</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ministère de la transition écologique et solidaire – Commissariat générale (Ministry for the Ecological and Inclusive Transition – Office of the Commissioner General)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We conducted this performance audit from May 2018 to June 2020, in accordance with generally accepted government auditing standards. Those standards require that we plan and perform the audit to obtain sufficient, appropriate evidence to provide a reasonable basis for our findings and conclusions based on our audit objectives. We believe that the evidence obtained provides a reasonable basis for our findings and conclusions based on our audit objectives.
Appendix II: Current Federal Estimates of the Social Costs of Carbon Dioxide, Methane, and Nitrous Oxide

Following the issuance of Executive Order 13783 in March 2017, the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) developed the current federal estimates of the social cost of carbon (for carbon dioxide, methane, and nitrous oxide) using the same models it had used to calculate the prior federal estimates.

**Carbon Dioxide**

EPA used its current estimates of the social cost of carbon dioxide in its regulatory impact analyses for the 2019 rulemaking that repealed the Clean Power Plan and replaced it with the Affordable Clean Energy Rule (see table 10).¹

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of emissions</th>
<th>3 percent discount rate</th>
<th>7 percent discount rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2020</td>
<td>$7</td>
<td>$1</td>
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<td>2030</td>
<td>$8</td>
<td>$1</td>
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<td>2040</td>
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<td>$2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2050</td>
<td>$11</td>
<td>$2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GAO analysis of data from the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA).  |  GAO-20-254

Note: The current federal estimates of the social cost of carbon dioxide were originally reported in 2016 U.S. dollars in EPA’s regulatory impact analysis for the 2019 Affordable Clean Energy Rule. We adjusted the values for inflation and expressed them in 2018 U.S. dollars using the United States Gross Domestic Product Price Index from the U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Economic Analysis.

**Methane**

For its 2018 final regulation rescinding and revising certain requirements of the 2016 Waste Prevention Rule, the Bureau of Land Management (BLM) relied on EPA’s current estimates of the social cost of methane in its regulatory impact analysis.² In terms of its impacts on climate, BLM’s regulatory impact analysis focused primarily on the impacts of expected changes in methane emissions resulting from the regulation and,


Appendix II: Current Federal Estimates of the Social Costs of Carbon Dioxide, Methane, and Nitrous Oxide

According to officials we interviewed, used estimates that EPA provided (see table 11).

### Table 11: Current Federal Estimates of the Social Cost of Methane per Metric Ton in 2018 U.S. Dollars, 2020-2030

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of emissions</th>
<th>3 percent discount rate</th>
<th>7 percent discount rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2020</td>
<td>$184</td>
<td>$57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2030</td>
<td>$242</td>
<td>$85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GAO analysis of data from the Bureau of Land Management (BLM).  |  GAO-20-254

Note: The current federal estimates of the social cost of methane were originally reported in 2016 U.S. dollars in BLM’s regulatory impact analysis for the 2018 Final Rule to Rescind or Revise Certain Requirements of the 2016 Waste Prevention Rule. We adjusted the values for inflation and expressed them in 2018 U.S. dollars using the United States Gross Domestic Product Price Index from the U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Economic Analysis. Unlike EPA, BLM included estimates only to 2030.

We did not find a recent rulemaking for the selected agencies we reviewed using monetary estimates for nitrous oxide that were based on the social cost of carbon approach. Instead, in its preliminary regulatory impact analysis for its proposed Safer Affordable Fuel-Efficient Vehicles Rule of 2018, the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA) used a Global Warming Potential factor to convert EPA’s social cost carbon dioxide estimates to monetary estimates for nitrous oxide. According to the NHTSA document, the monetary estimates the agency used in sensitivity analyses involving nitrous oxide were estimated by applying the 100-year Global Warming Potential factor for nitrous oxide (which is 298) to the central estimates of the social cost of carbon dioxide for each future year. This resulted in an average estimate for nitrous oxide of $2,491 per metric ton for the analysis’ forecast period.3

3After we provided a draft of this report to NHTSA for its review and comment, NHTSA issued the final Safer Affordable Fuel-Efficient (SAFE) Vehicles Rule for Model Years 2021–2026 Passenger Cars and Light Truck in April 2020. Because the final rule was issued after January 2019 (the end date of our search for rulemakings using the current federal estimates of the social cost of carbon), we did not include the final rule in the scope of this review. In its regulatory impact analysis for the final rule, NHTSA included sensitivity analyses using the social cost of carbon approach for both methane and nitrous oxide—that is, estimates of the social costs of methane and nitrous oxide based on domestic climate damages and a 3 percent discount rate (as developed by EPA for use in regulatory analyses conducted under the guidelines specified in Executive Order 13783 and OMB Circular A-4). For comparison, NHTSA stated that using the social cost of carbon approach results in estimates that average $2,820 per metric ton for nitrous oxide for the analysis’ forecast period—about 13 percent higher than the estimates NHTSA used in its preliminary regulatory impact analysis.
Appendix III: Views of State Officials from Montana and Texas on the Social Cost of Carbon

Montana

Montana state officials we interviewed said they had not developed and do not use estimates of the social cost of carbon and that the federal government’s prior social cost of carbon estimates used in some rulemakings could overstate the benefits of emissions reductions. In comments submitted in response to the Environmental Protection Agency’s (EPA’s) proposed Clean Power Plan, Montana’s utility regulator stated using a social cost of carbon overstated the benefits of the proposed rulemaking. The Montana utility regulator stated that although carbon dioxide emissions may be a global issue, the federal government had received only “anemic global commitments” from other major carbon-producing countries, like China. ¹ The Montana regulator raised concerns that accounting for the global impacts of emissions from the United States in federal regulatory analysis without receiving stronger reciprocal commitments from other countries ignores the economic problem of free ridership and is therefore fundamentally flawed.

Texas

Texas state officials we interviewed said they had not developed and do not use estimates of the social cost of carbon and that the federal government’s prior social cost of carbon estimates overstated the benefits of emissions reductions. In comments submitted in response to EPA’s proposed Clean Power Plan, Texas Commission on Environmental Quality officials stated that, by calculating the social cost of carbon based on global damages, EPA had overstated the benefits of its proposed Clean Power Plan rule.² According to the officials, using a social cost of carbon based on global, as opposed to domestic, climate damages incorrectly showed that the overall benefits of the proposed rule (largely from the avoided climate damages resulting from reductions in carbon dioxide emissions) exceeded the rule’s economic costs—when in fact the rule may not have provided a net benefit to the United States itself.

Furthermore, commission officials told us they had concerns about how EPA had presented the timing of the benefits of the Clean Power Plan as calculated using the social cost of carbon. Specifically, these officials expressed concern that EPA was not clear that the benefits of avoiding


carbon dioxide emissions would be experienced over several decades. In its comments on the proposed Clean Power Plan, the commission stated that EPA had misrepresented the near-term climate benefits of the proposed rule because the assumed benefits were derived using the social cost of carbon, which is based on long-term impacts. Furthermore, in its comments, the commission stated that the federal government should include social cost of carbon estimates calculated at the 7 percent discount rate in order to follow the guidance in OMB Circular A-4.
Appendix IV: Canada’s Social Cost of Carbon Approach to Developing Monetary Estimates for Greenhouse Gas Emissions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Why Canada Developed Monetary Estimates for Greenhouse Gas Emissions</th>
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<td>Canadian departments and agencies are to conduct cost-benefit analyses of regulatory proposals, and the Canadian government considers it necessary to have an appropriate monetary estimate for the consequences of reducing or increasing greenhouse gas emissions, according to guidance we reviewed issued by Canada’s environmental regulator and officials we interviewed.¹ To support these analyses, the Canadian government developed monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions based on the social cost of carbon (i.e., damage costs) approach. Specifically, Canada adopted some of the prior U.S. federal estimates of the social cost of carbon, which were developed by the U.S. Interagency Working Group on Social Cost of Carbon (IWG).² These estimates are based on global climate damages.</td>
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<tr>
<th>How Canada Developed Monetary Estimates for Greenhouse Gas Emissions</th>
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<td>From 2010 to 2011, Environment and Climate Change Canada—Canada’s environmental department and regulator—led an interdepartmental review of approaches for developing monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions and, as a result of this review, recommended the adoption of some of the IWG’s estimates of the social cost of carbon.³ According to Canadian officials and the guidance document we reviewed, Canada adopted the IWG’s approach for several reasons:</td>
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- The social cost of carbon approach is consistent with other approaches to valuation typically used in cost-benefit analysis, where externalities are accounted for based on their impacts (i.e., marginal damages) to society.
- The IWG’s estimates were based on the work of a number of highly respected academic and government experts and had been thoroughly vetted and reviewed.
- The IWG’s estimates were the result of a robust attempt to identify and address the uncertainty in social cost of carbon estimates. |

¹When we refer to Canada, we mean the Canadian federal government. For the guidance we reviewed, see Environment and Climate Change Canada, *Technical Update to Environment and Climate Change Canada’s Social Cost of Greenhouse Gas Estimates* (Quebec, Canada: March 2016).

²When we reference the social cost of carbon, we mean carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gases (i.e., methane and nitrous oxide). In addition to the IWG’s estimates of the social cost of carbon dioxide, Canada also adopted the IWG’s estimates for the social cost of methane and the social cost of nitrous oxide.

³Environment and Climate Change Canada, *Technical Update*. 
The IWG’s decisions on key assumptions, such as basing its estimates on global climate damages and including estimates that reflect the possibility of low-probability, high-impact events, were consistent with insights from climate science. Further, the IWG calculated some of its social cost of carbon estimates using a 3 percent discount rate, which was consistent with Canadian federal discount rate guidance.

According to the guidance document we reviewed and officials we interviewed, Environment and Climate Change Canada chose to use estimates based on global climate damages because the agency viewed climate change as a global issue and believed that Canadian emissions have effects beyond Canada’s borders. Canadian guidance we reviewed and officials we spoke with stated that if all countries only accounted for the domestic damages caused by their emissions then not all relevant climate damages would be accounted for globally, a practice that could limit the potential for global action to mitigate climate change. The officials said this was because some countries that emit at high levels may not experience climate damages that are proportional to their emissions. Further, officials said that the integrated assessment models used to create the social cost of carbon estimates are not designed to deliver national-level results, although some can produce results for different regions.

Canada chose discount rates that took into account the long-term nature of climate damages, according to officials we interviewed and the guidance we reviewed. While Canada adopted the IWG’s general approach, officials explained that Canada chose to primarily use the IWG’s central estimates, which were discounted at a 3 percent rate, rather than the full range of estimates used by the IWG. Officials said that Canada chose estimates based on a 3 percent discount rate because its federal guidance calls for using a 3 percent discount rate in

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4Environment and Climate Change Canada, Technical Update.

5The IWG created four estimates of the social cost of carbon for each emissions year. In addition to the central estimate based on a 3 percent discount rate, the IWG created other estimates using discount rates of 2.5 and 5 percent. The IWG also created a fourth high-impact estimate, which as described later Canada also adopted, meant to represent higher-than-expected impacts from temperature changes (i.e., low-probability but high-impact damages “further out in the tails” of the social cost of carbon distributions). The high-impact estimate is the result of averaging the damages in the 95th percentile—that is higher than 95 percent of the damage results for each model—across all three of the integrated assessment models, which is then discounted at a 3 percent rate.
Appendix IV: Canada’s Social Cost of Carbon
Approach to Developing Monetary Estimates
for Greenhouse Gas Emissions

circumstances where impacts occur over a long time horizon or where environmental and human health are involved. Further, Canadian officials said using a 3 percent discount rate is generally aligned with academic literature on this topic. Canadian officials said that because climate damages occur over a long time span, using a discount rate higher than 3 percent—such as OMB Circular A-4’s 7 percent discount rate representing the opportunity cost of capital or the IWG’s 5 percent discount rate—would significantly and inappropriately diminish how future damages are valued. Environment and Climate Change Canada also adopted the IWG’s high-impact estimates for use in sensitivity analysis to reflect lower-probability, higher-cost climate change impacts.6

According to Canadian officials, Canada uses its monetary estimates of the social cost of carbon as part of government cost-benefit analyses for all regulations affecting such emissions, including those regulations that are part of its national climate strategy. Monetary estimates are essential for evaluating the costs and benefits regulations that reduce emissions, according to Canadian government guidance on its social cost of carbon.7 For example, the Canadian federal government used monetary estimates as part of its regulatory impact analysis for the following types of regulations:

- coal-fired electricity emissions standards;
- heavy-duty vehicle emissions standards;
- light-duty vehicle emissions standards;
- oil and gas industry standards for methane;
- renewable fuel standards in gasoline (5 percent ethanol); and
- biodiesel fuel standards (2 percent renewable fuels).

How Canada Uses Monetary Estimates for Greenhouse Gas Emissions

How Canada Plans to Continue to Develop and Use Monetary Estimates

According to Canadian officials and guidance we reviewed, Environment and Climate Change Canada plans to monitor research and analysis related to the social cost of carbon and consider updating its estimates as needed.

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6Environment and Climate Change Canada determined that the use of the high-impact estimates are a way to capture a fuller sense of the costs associated with higher than expected climate damages, including potentially catastrophic impacts from climate change.

7Environment and Climate Change Canada, Technical Update.
According to the guidance, Canadian social cost of carbon estimates should be treated as provisional, with the expectation that they will be revised with further advancements in scientific and economic research, particularly in regards to the 2017 review of the social cost of carbon by the U.S. National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine.

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8Environment and Climate Change Canada, *Technical Update*.

Appendix V: Germany’s Social Cost of Carbon Approach to Developing Monetary Estimates for Greenhouse Gas Emissions

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Why Germany Developed Monetary Estimates for Greenhouse Gas Emissions</th>
<th>The Umweltbundesamt (German Environment Agency, or UBA) first developed and continues to update monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions because it is important for the national government to have a measure for how greenhouse gas emissions will impact society and to take this into account in its proposed policies and projects, according to German officials we interviewed. Use of the monetary estimates, officials said, helps them know which proposals may be the most cost-effective in abating emissions, thereby helping ensure that the government takes actions that are a net benefit to society. Furthermore, the Bundesministerium für Umwelt, Naturschutz und nukleare Sicherheit (Federal Ministry for the Environment, Nature Conservation, and Nuclear Safety, or BMU) released the German Climate Action Plan in 2016, specifying that Germany’s long-term emissions goal is net-zero emissions by 2050. According to officials we interviewed, proposed policies developed by national ministries to help implement this plan are to be evaluated through cost-benefit analysis, including the use of Germany’s monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions. German officials said they chose to use the social cost of carbon (i.e., damage costs) approach to develop their monetary estimates because it was the most appropriate way to measure the impacts of greenhouse gases on society for cost-benefit analysis when evaluating policies and projects in impact assessments. According to officials, this is because other approaches of developing monetary estimates—such as the target-consistent approach—do not measure the monetary damages or benefits to society but rather the costs associated with meeting a given target.</th>
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</table>
| How Germany Developed Monetary Estimates for Greenhouse Gas Emissions | The German Environment Agency developed the national government’s most recent monetary estimates for carbon dioxide emissions using a social cost of carbon approach, which included equity weighting and discount rates meant to reflect the intergenerational aspect of climate damages. Germany adopted estimates based on global climate damages that were developed using the Climate Framework for Uncertainty, Negotiation, and Distribution (FUND) integrated assessment model. German officials said they adopted estimates based on global climate 

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damages because greenhouse gases cause damages around the world and not exclusively in the countries where they are originally emitted.

German officials we interviewed said their choice of discount rates reflected their view that climate change is an intergenerational issue, given the long timeframe in which damages will occur. Germany chose to use discount rates that are not constant and that instead change over time based on the level of projected economic growth, according to German officials. Specifically, for its primary (i.e., central) estimates, Germany’s discount rate starts near 3 percent and declines to 2 percent by 2250. For estimates used in sensitivity analyses, the discount rate starts near 2 percent and declines to 1 percent by 2250.

Germany also chose to weight climate damages based on a region’s relative wealth—that is, a method known as equity weighting—according to German officials. Officials said they used estimates that incorporated equity weighting because climate damages that happen in a region with relatively less wealth—measured in gross domestic product (GDP) per capita—will have a greater negative impact on the region than in a richer region. For example, a GDP per-capita loss of $500 is weighted more heavily in a region with a GDP per-capita of $2,000 than in one with a GDP per-capita of $40,000, because the climate damage is a higher percentage of the region’s income. The main argument for this method, according to one of its proponents, is that a loss of $500 in a relatively poorer region causes a greater reduction in overall welfare than does the same loss in a wealthy region. Consequently, German officials said they chose estimates that weighted climate damages to be higher in less

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3This is reflected in the FUND model’s Ramsey-based discounting formula. Specifically, the discount rate based on the Ramsey formula incorporates the pure rate of time preference (i.e. the rate of discount of future welfare), the marginal utility of income (i.e. the change in the value of money as society gets wealthier), and the projected growth in gross domestic product per capita. In this setup, the FUND model assumes that the gross domestic product per capita growth rate declines over time, which causes the overall discount rate to go down over time in the FUND model.

4One component of the FUND model’s Ramsey formula is the pure rate of time preference between future and current generation’s welfare (a higher rate favors current welfare over future welfare). German officials chose a 1 percent pure rate of time preference for its central estimates and 0 percent for its estimates for sensitivity analysis. An official said a 0 percent pure rate of time preference treats the welfare of different generations equally.

5For the purposes of this report, equity weighting refers to the approach described by German officials based on their social cost of carbon—we did not evaluate other potential methods of conducting equity weighting in integrated assessment models.
wealthy regions to reflect that losses are more severe than those in richer regions.

To develop monetary estimates for other greenhouse gases (i.e., methane, nitrous oxide, and others), Germany multiplies its monetary estimates for carbon dioxide emissions by Global Warming Potential factors from the United Nation’s Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change.

### How Germany Uses Monetary Estimates for Greenhouse Gas Emissions

According to German officials and documents we reviewed, Germany uses monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions as part of government cost-benefit analyses for policies and projects, including policies meant to help implement the national climate change strategy. For example, Germany’s Environment Agency (UBA) used monetary estimates to evaluate policies developed to meet its 2030 contribution to the country’s Climate Action Plan. Furthermore, German officials said that monetary estimates will be used to conduct cost-benefit analyses for all proposed policies submitted by other ministries as part of implementing the Climate Action Plan. The German Federal Ministry of Transport and Digital Infrastructure also uses monetary estimates to evaluate transport infrastructure investment projects through cost-benefit analysis.

### How Germany Plans to Continue to Develop and Use Monetary Estimates for Greenhouse Gas Emissions

According to officials, the German Environment Agency is starting a new project to examine the FUND model, and potentially other integrated assessment models, in detail to determine whether to update it or instead create a new integrated assessment model. The FUND model has not been updated significantly since 2009, and it may be possible that the model could incorporate new information based on more recent research on climate damages, according to officials we interviewed. German officials said that a 5-year cycle for updating integrated assessment models, such as the FUND model, would be sufficient for keeping the models’ use of science and economics current.
Appendix VI: France’s Target-Consistent Approach to Developing Monetary Estimates for Greenhouse Gas Emissions

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Why France Developed Monetary Estimates for Greenhouse Gas Emissions</th>
<th>France developed monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions as part of a long-term emissions reduction strategy for achieving its national target of net-zero emissions by 2050, according to documents we reviewed and officials we interviewed. Officials told us that agencies use France’s monetary estimates to determine what policies and investments the government should make to reach the target most cost-effectively. Also, according to French officials, under a 2012 statute and subsequent decree, government investment projects undergo economic cost-benefit analyses, and these analyses use France’s monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions. The French Prime Minister requested that France Stratégie—an independent government agency that reports to the Prime Minister—form a high-level commission to develop monetary estimates for carbon dioxide for use in regulatory, policy, and project analysis that would be consistent with meeting France’s emissions target. According to the commission report we reviewed and French officials we interviewed, meeting France’s target would require expanding the use of France’s monetary estimates in the government to be as systematic and wide as possible—including in assessing government investments, regulations, and policies.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How France Developed Monetary Estimates for Greenhouse Gas Emissions</td>
<td>France Stratégie developed France's monetary estimates for emissions by appointing a high-level commission, known as La commission Valeur de l’action pour le climat (Commission on the Value for Climate Action), which consisted of government officials, academics, and representatives from industry, among others. The 2019 commission expanded on the work of a previous commission from 2008. The commission developed monetary estimates for carbon dioxide using a target-consistent approach instead of a social cost of carbon (i.e., damage costs) approach for several reasons, according to officials we interviewed, including that...</td>
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1Ministère de la Transition Écologique et Solidaire (Ministry for an Ecological and Inclusive Transition), National Low Carbon Strategy Project: The ecological and inclusive transition towards carbon neutrality (December 2018).

2According to officials, France Stratégie is an autonomous institution reporting to the Prime Minister that helps to stimulate and inform policy debate by conducting original research on major economic and social developments and sustainability issues. It also produces public policy evaluations at the request of the government. The results of its work are addressed to public authorities and citizens.

France has an explicit national target to reduce emissions to net-zero by 2050.

Additional reasons for choosing the target-consistent approach, according to officials, was that the social cost of carbon approach was viewed as more uncertain, more sensitive to key assumptions (such as the discount rate), and could not easily be used to create domestic monetary estimates for greenhouse gases. French officials said that the social cost of carbon approach was more uncertain than the target-consistent approach because climate damages models are currently unable to adequately incorporate the risk of catastrophic damages or the potential for climate tipping points that would cause damages to rise steeply or in an unpredictable manner. For example, an official from the French environment and energy management agency said that the current climate damages models cannot adequately account for the potential for France’s coasts to be covered by a significant amount of sea level rise or for extreme levels of damage to French agricultural production. As a result, basing decisions on the social cost of carbon approach would risk the potential for irreversible or dangerous levels of climate change, according to officials. Additionally, because climate damages are calculated centuries into the future, estimates are especially sensitive to the discount rate, according to a commission document we reviewed and officials we interviewed. Furthermore, according to officials we spoke with and documents we reviewed, it is difficult to determine a domestic social cost of carbon.

The commission used five different economic models to estimate the marginal abatement costs that would be necessary to meet France’s emissions reductions target of carbon neutrality by 2050, among other techniques.4 According to officials, the models used the target year of 2050 and interim emissions reductions targets, such as a 43 percent reduction in 2030 and 75 percent reduction in 2040, as inputs to guide the trajectory of emissions reductions in the models. The commission used microeconomic and macroeconomic models, according to officials. The microeconomic models used current and future assumptions about technology to estimate marginal abatement costs to meet France’s target, and the macroeconomic models applied a theoretical carbon tax across

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4The costs associated with meeting emissions reductions targets are known as abatement costs. The target-consistent approach is also known as a marginal abatement cost approach because the approach uses abatement costs to determine the cost of meeting a given target. Marginal is an economics term that refers to the incremental cost associated with a change in quantity of something, such as greenhouse gases.
different sectors to determine what value for greenhouse gas emissions would spur switches to less greenhouse gas-intensive energy use throughout the French economy, according to officials we interviewed. The models were calibrated to meet emissions reduction targets at the least cost and assumed that France’s target would be met by abatement measures in the French economy alone. The commission also used technology-forecasting reports, such as the technology road maps produced by the International Energy Agency, to help estimate the marginal abatement costs, according to officials.\(^5\)

According to officials and the report we reviewed, the commission explicitly wanted to model the marginal abatement costs associated with France being able to meet its target domestically, rather than assuming that it could pay for some greenhouse gas abatement in other countries as part of a future global greenhouse gas market. However, officials said that the French government’s monetary estimates could decline in the future if there is significant international cooperation on reducing greenhouse gas emissions either through an international greenhouse gas emissions trading market or international cooperation in technology research and development for reducing emissions. For example, France’s monetary value for 2050 is 775 euros. However, the commission report stated that significant international cooperation in research and development could lead to technology advances that would reduce marginal abatement costs—so that France’s monetary value for 2050 could be closer to 450 euros with respect to meeting its target.

According to French officials, France's monetary estimates for carbon dioxide can be used for a range of greenhouse gases, such as methane and nitrous oxide, by using the Global Warming Potential of different gases to determine their impact on warming.\(^6\)

\(^5\)The International Energy Agency is an international body that, according to its website, provides authoritative statistics and analysis, examines the full spectrum of energy issues, and advocates policies that will enhance the reliability, affordability and sustainability of energy in its 30 member countries and beyond.

\(^6\)Global Warming Potential expresses a given gas’ impact on global warming in comparison with carbon dioxide, within a given timeframe (usually 100 years). This enables conversion of different gas masses into a single unit, the metric ton of carbon dioxide equivalent, which represents the mass of carbon dioxide required to generate the same impact on global warming as a metric ton of the gas under consideration.
According to French officials we interviewed, the logic of the target-consistent approach is that it provides a road map and monetary reference value to determine which policies and projects would be most cost-effective in meeting emissions reductions targets. French officials said that if a policy’s or project’s costs per unit of abated emissions exceed the monetized benefits, as calculated using France’s target-consistent monetary estimates as reference values, then the intervention may not be cost-effective. As France’s emissions target becomes more stringent over time, use of more expensive technologies or policies can be economically justified based on higher monetary estimates. At the same time, if technology improves or a global greenhouse gas market emerges over time, then more cost-effective options will be available or monetary estimates could be reassessed to be lower.

France uses its monetary estimates to help plan which actions to implement as part of meeting its emissions reduction targets, as well as more broadly throughout its government in policy, regulatory, and project cost-benefit analysis. For example, according to French government documents we reviewed and officials we interviewed, government investment projects in France are subject to economic cost-benefit analysis, and such analyses include the use of France’s monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions. The French government also uses monetary estimates for greenhouse gases for policy and regulatory analysis. For example, the Ministère de la Transition écologique et solidaire (Ministry for an Ecological and Inclusive Transition) uses monetary estimates in economic cost-benefit analyses for policy impact assessments, according to officials. In addition, French officials said the

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7 Target-consistent monetary values for greenhouse gas emissions can be used in cost-benefit analysis (i.e. measuring the full costs and benefits of an action) and in planning which projects, regulations, or policies abate greenhouse gas emissions in the most cost-effective way (i.e., comparing the abatement costs per unit of greenhouse gases abated between government actions and comparing these to the target-consistent monetary estimates).

8 For example, France has a 2030 emissions reductions target of 40 percent relative to 1990 greenhouse gas emissions levels, and then a net-zero emissions target by 2050. The monetary estimates go up over time to reflect the growing cost of additional emissions reductions needed to meet those targets because of, among other things, the higher costs of abating emissions in industry sectors where it is more difficult to abate emissions and technology to abate emissions is more expensive.

9 According to French officials, the requirements for economic cost-benefit analyses are more stringent depending on the level of government funding. For example, any project that exceeds 20 million euros must be submitted to a national inventory and any project that exceeds 100 million euros is subject to an independent second cost-benefit analysis, according to French government documents we reviewed and officials we interviewed.
Direction générale du Trésor (Treasury Department) uses monetary estimates for policy planning and to assess potential policies to determine which would be most cost-effective, such as, for example, a policy encouraging consumers to buy electric cars. This involves a cost-effectiveness test where the abatement costs of the policy or regulation are compared with France’s monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions as a reference. If the abatement costs are higher than France’s monetary estimates, then there may be other technologies already available or presumed to be available in the future that would abate emissions more cost-effectively. According to Treasury Department officials, monetary estimates can also be used to determine in what year certain policies or regulations would become cost-effective and rank different policies and projects based on their cost-effectiveness.

How France Plans to Continue to Develop and Use Monetary Estimates for Greenhouse Gas Emissions

According to French officials, a goal of the commission and the French government is to ensure that monetary estimates are used systematically throughout the French government. The officials said that it was important to incorporate the use of monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions throughout the government because meeting the nation’s emissions target will require French agencies to create policy, regulatory, and investment measures that achieve reductions in a cost-effective way throughout a number of economic sectors. According to officials and the commission’s report, the estimates will be updated every 5 to 10 years.
Appendix VII: The United Kingdom’s Target-Consistent Approach to Developing Monetary Estimates for Greenhouse Gas Emissions

Why the United Kingdom Developed Monetary Estimates for Greenhouse Gas Emissions

According to a key guidance document we reviewed and officials we interviewed, the United Kingdom’s purpose for creating monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions is to allow for a more objective, consistent, and evidence-based approach to determine whether policies, regulations, or projects that affect greenhouse gas emissions should be implemented. Given that the United Kingdom has a greenhouse gas emissions reduction target specified in its 2008 Climate Change Act, as amended, according to officials, having a monetary estimate for emissions is important for evaluating and deciding which policies, regulations, and projects reduce emissions to meet the target most cost-effectively. Further, according to a guidance document we reviewed and officials we interviewed, monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions are also useful in cost-benefit analyses more generally to help assess whether, taking into account all relevant costs and benefits (including impacts on climate change), a particular policy, regulation, or project may be expected to improve or reduce the overall welfare of society.

How the United Kingdom Developed Monetary Estimates for Greenhouse Gas Emissions

In 2009, an interdepartmental review led the United Kingdom to switch from using a social cost of carbon (i.e., damage costs) approach to using a target-consistent approach to develop its monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions.¹ The interdepartmental review included chief economists from several government departments and was peer reviewed by academics. The review concluded that the United Kingdom should shift to a target-consistent approach because, under its Climate Change Act of 2008, the government had set an explicit 2050 target level of emissions and the target-consistent approach was significantly less uncertain than the social cost of carbon approach. According to a UK government guidance document we reviewed and officials we interviewed, the target-consistent approach aligns monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions with meeting a target level of emissions.

¹Department of Energy & Climate Change, Carbon Valuation in UK Policy Appraisal: A Revised Approach (London: July 2009). The approach was not a pure social cost of carbon approach because it was modified to be more aligned with a target level of emissions recommended by a separate UK commission called the Stern Review. The Stern Review was issued by Her Majesty’s Treasury of the UK government in October 2006 and assessed a wide range of evidence on the impacts and economic costs of climate change and concluded the benefits of strong and early action to reduce greenhouse gas emissions far outweighed the economic costs of not acting.
thereby making it more certain that actions taken based on the estimates will help ensure that the target will be achieved.\(^2\)

UK officials said that the target-consistent approach is precautionary in nature and less uncertain than the social cost of carbon approach because the models underpinning the social cost of carbon approach are unlikely to adequately account for all potential damages, including the possibility of catastrophic damages or climate tipping points that cause damages to escalate rapidly and in unforeseen ways. Further, UK officials said that the social cost of carbon approach was more sensitive to key assumptions, such as the discount rate or how climate impacts are converted into damages. According to the UK guidance document we reviewed, climate damages models must make complex calculations involving both scientific and economic assumptions over more than a century. UK officials said uncertainty about these assumptions could lead to a wide-range of different climate damages estimates.

According to a guidance document we reviewed, the 2008 Climate Change Act specified the United Kingdom’s target level of greenhouse gas emissions as an at least 80 percent reduction by 2050 relative to 1990 levels. The United Kingdom’s target was recommended by the Committee on Climate Change—an independent government oversight body created by the 2008 Climate Change Act to provide scientific expertise, accountability, and review of the government’s efforts, according to the guidance we reviewed. The Committee on Climate Change evaluated what emissions reductions would be needed by 2050 to help the United Kingdom be consistent with the wider international target of keeping global warming to no more than 2 degrees Celsius. The committee recommended a target of at least an 80 percent reduction of greenhouse gas emissions compared to 1990 levels by 2050, which was then accepted by the UK Government.\(^3\) UK officials said the national target was meant to contribute to achieving the Paris Agreement’s goal of limiting global temperature rise to 2 degrees Celsius, which was informed

\(^2\)The UK guidance document we reviewed stated and officials we interviewed said that there were challenges to aligning monetary estimates developed under the social cost of carbon approach with meeting their target level of emissions.

\(^3\)However, in June 2019, the United Kingdom amended its legal target to be net-zero emissions, as compared to 1990 levels, by 2050 at the recommendation of the United Kingdom’s Committee on Climate Change, according to a UK government announcement.
by an international consensus on how to significantly reduce the risks associated with climate change.4

Following the 2009 interdepartmental review, the United Kingdom’s Department of Energy & Climate Change developed target-consistent monetary estimates that were aligned to the nation’s emissions target set in the 2008 Climate Change Act, according to UK officials.5 For economic sectors not in the European Union emissions trading system (such as agriculture, transportation, and building construction) the United Kingdom developed monetary estimates using two different economic models, according to documents we reviewed and officials we interviewed.

For estimates through 2020, the UK government used a model that estimated domestic abatement costs based on the technology and actions available to UK individuals and firms that could sufficiently reduce emissions to meet the country’s emissions target for 2020. For 2030 and 2050, the UK government used a global abatement cost model, called the Global Carbon Finance model, to determine abatement costs consistent with a global emissions pathway that would limit global temperature rise to 2 degrees Celsius.6 This assumed that a global greenhouse gas emissions trading market would be functioning by 2030, which would give the United Kingdom the potential to pay for greenhouse gas abatement measures abroad to offset some of its domestic greenhouse gas emissions and thereby meet its national target. According to the government document that describes the United Kingdom’s approach, it was appropriate to assume that there will be a comprehensive global greenhouse gas emissions trading market from 2030 onwards, as this is an efficient method for tackling climate change. A global market would allow for the most cost-effective emissions abatement actions to take place, which could allow the United Kingdom and other governments to avoid having to undertake significantly more expensive actions than may be necessary, according to a guidance document we reviewed. As a

4However, according to a government guidance document we reviewed, the United Kingdom cannot shift the global trajectory of greenhouse gas emissions alone and would need other countries to act as well if the 2-degree Celsius target is to be met.

5In July 2016, the United Kingdom’s Department of Energy & Climate Change merged with the Department for Business, Innovation & Skills to form the Department for Business, Energy & Industrial Strategy.

6The UK government calculated monetary estimates for each year by linearly interpolating between the 2020, 2030 and 2050 estimates. Linear interpolation assumes a straight line between two points to obtain values for intermediate points.
result, the UK government’s monetary estimates from the Global Carbon Finance model represent the lowest monetary estimates for emissions consistent with reaching the global 2-degree goal.7

For economic sectors that are covered under the European Union emissions trading system, such as the power and industrial sectors, the United Kingdom uses emissions-trading permit values as its monetary estimates, because the trading system’s emissions cap is treated as a target level of emissions for those sectors, according to the guidance document we reviewed.8 However, by 2030, both the estimates for the traded and non-traded sectors are assumed to converge, according to officials we interviewed.

According to UK officials we interviewed, the United Kingdom’s monetary estimates (which are for carbon dioxide) can be used for other greenhouse gases, such as methane and nitrous oxide, by multiplying them by the other gases’ respective Global Warming Potential factors.9

How the United Kingdom Uses Monetary Estimates for Greenhouse Gas Emissions

The United Kingdom uses monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions to help plan which actions would be most cost-effective in reaching the country’s target level of emissions and throughout its central government in cost-benefit analysis for policy, regulatory, and project planning more generally, according to UK documents we reviewed and officials we interviewed.

According to a UK guidance document we reviewed and officials we interviewed, monetary estimates can be used in assessing potential policies or regulations to determine which would be most cost-effective at helping achieve the national emissions targets. Officials said this involves an economic efficiency test where the abatement costs of a policy or

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7According to the UK guidance document, if a global market is not achieved by 2030, then the United Kingdom’s monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions would need to increase considerably.

8The European Union emissions trading system covers the power and heat sector, energy-intensive industry sectors, and commercial aviation. The trading system covers around 45 percent of the European Union’s greenhouse gas emissions, limiting emissions from nearly 11,000 power plants and manufacturing installations as well as slightly over 500 aircraft operators flying between European Economic Area airports.

9Global Warming Potential factors are calculated and published by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. See Piers Forster and Venkatachalam Ramaswamy, Changes in Atmospheric Constituents and in Radiative Forcing (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, New York).
 Appendi

 regulation are compared with the United Kingdom’s monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions as a reference. If the abatement costs of the policy or regulation are higher than the United Kingdom’s monetary estimates, then there may be other technologies already available (or presumed to be available in the future) that will abate emissions more cost-effectively. For example, one official said the Committee on Climate Change uses the United Kingdom’s monetary estimates to determine policy opportunities for the UK government to meet its emissions targets—such as the committee’s recommendation that by 2025 all newly built housing should be net-zero emissions and that heat pumps are a viable way to cut greenhouse gas emissions in homes. As the United Kingdom’s emissions target tightens over time, use of more expensive technologies or policies can be economically justified based on higher monetary estimates, according to a guidance document.

Officials with several UK agencies we spoke with said they used the United Kingdom’s monetary estimates as part of cost-benefit analyses to evaluate potential policies, regulations, or projects more generally—such as a regulation requiring emissions standards for new housing, a policy providing subsidies for electric cars, and policies encouraging household waste reduction and new woodland planting.

How the United Kingdom Plans to Continue to Develop and Use Monetary Estimates for Greenhouse Gas Emissions

UK officials said that in light of the Paris Agreement and the United Kingdom’s changing relationship to the European Union, they would likely reevaluate their monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions. In addition, according to officials, the UK government has recently legislated a target of net-zero greenhouse gas emissions by 2050, as recommended by the Committee on Climate Change, which could cause the United Kingdom’s estimates to change.

However, according to a UK government guidance document we reviewed, there is a trade-off between having the most up-to-date monetary estimates and ensuring consistency in application of the estimates. A situation where the monetary estimates for greenhouse gas emissions are changed too often would be undesirable, as this would mean that over short periods of time policy or regulatory options were being assessed against different criteria. According to the document, changes affecting the evidence or policy context would need to be significant in order to warrant a reevaluation of the monetary estimates.
Appendix VIII: Foreign Officials’ Views on Strengths and Challenges of the Social Cost of Carbon and Target-Consistent Approaches for Monetary Estimates of Emissions

According to foreign officials we interviewed, both the social cost of carbon (i.e., damage costs) and target-consistent approaches for valuing greenhouse gas emissions have strengths and challenges.

### Social Cost of Carbon Approach

The social cost of carbon approach has several strengths, according to foreign officials—including that it values emissions based on how externalities are typically valued for cost-benefit analysis. For example, Canadian and German officials said that a key strength of the social cost of carbon approach is that it is aligned with how externalities are typically valued by governments for cost-benefit analysis—that is, by estimating the monetary damages to society resulting from an externality. In contrast, the target-consistent approach does not directly measure damages to society and is based on the cost of meeting an emissions target, according to these officials. Additionally, German officials said that because social cost of carbon estimates are calculated separately from a specified target level of emissions, they can serve as a more independent means of evaluating the benefits of government action. In contrast, they said target-consistent estimates could be circular and less independent from policies being evaluated because they are developed using the costs of technologies that would need to be employed to meet the emissions target.

The social cost of carbon approach also has several challenges, according to other foreign officials we interviewed. For example, according to French and UK officials, the social cost of carbon approach is not necessarily aligned with a target level of emissions—such as the Paris Agreement goal of holding the increase in the global average temperature to well below 2 degrees Celsius above pre-industrial levels. According to these officials, this may mean that monetary estimates based on climate damages would not be high enough for a government to economically justify the policies or regulations necessary to meet its targets, and it would be unclear how much action a government should take to meet its targets cost-effectively. UK and French officials also said that the social cost of carbon approach is significantly more uncertain than the target-consistent approach for several reasons. For example, they said that climate damages models are not able to adequately incorporate the potential for catastrophic damages from climate change and that scientific knowledge is still incomplete in regard to how the
climate might respond after passing the 2-degree Celsius threshold. One French modeling official said that climate damages models may crash or provide unreliable results when trying to include extreme assumptions to mimic a catastrophic event, such as 10 percent of France being submerged by sea level rise or a sharp decrease in agricultural productivity. While there is ongoing academic work to better understand potential catastrophic climate risks, the official said it is unclear if these risks or their levels of damages can be adequately incorporated into climate damages models. Additionally, officials said the social cost of carbon approach is more sensitive to key assumptions than the target-consistent approach, such as the discount rate and how climate impacts are converted into damages, which can lead to a wide range of potential estimates.

The target-consistent approach has several strengths, according to foreign officials—including that it best allows a country to meet its emissions target and is seen as less uncertain than the social cost of carbon approach. For example, UK and French officials said that a key strength of the target-consistent approach is that it aligns with meeting a specific emissions target. According to these officials, using a target-consistent approach best ensures that national governments can meet their emissions targets and that the resulting monetary estimates also serve as a planning guide for actions the government can take. For example, target-consistent monetary estimates can be used to rank different policies and projects based on cost-effectiveness, according to French officials. French and UK officials also said that the target-consistent approach is more certain than the social cost of carbon approach, as discussed earlier. In addition, French officials said another advantage is that the target-consistent approach allows a country to develop a domestic value for greenhouse gas emissions based on their emissions reductions target, whereas it is difficult to develop a domestic monetary value using a social cost of carbon approach. For example, Canadian and French officials said that not all climate damages models can easily provide results at a domestic or national level.

The target-consistent approach also has several challenges, according to officials. For example, according to officials we interviewed from France,

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1According to a 2009 UK government technical review paper, climate change impacts are likely to be non-linear, with temperature increases above 2 degrees Celsius leading to potentially catastrophic but difficult to value outcomes. See Department of Energy and Climate Change, *Carbon Valuation in UK Policy Appraisal: A Revised Approach* (London: July 2009).
Germany, and the United Kingdom, and the literature we reviewed, the target-consistent approach has uncertainty as well. French officials said that it is challenging to model monetary estimates after 2040 because there is significant uncertainty about the technologies needed to abate greenhouse gas emissions from industry sectors where it is more difficult—partly because the technologies that could abate emissions in those sectors are less mature. French officials said their economic models showed that France could achieve a 75 percent reduction in emissions by 2040, from the country’s 1990 levels, through existing or relatively well-understood technologies, but it would have to rely on more expensive and less mature technologies to abate the remaining amount of emissions to meet its 2050 goal. Further, as discussed earlier, German officials said the target-consistent approach was a less independent means of evaluating the benefits of government action. Also, according to UK officials and a document we reviewed, setting a short-term target for sectors in an emissions trading system based on the system’s emissions cap and permit values may lead to monetary estimates that are lower than is required to meet a government’s overall economy-wide emissions target because such traded values can be subject to political choices and market fluctuations.
Appendix IX: GAO Contact and Staff
Acknowledgments

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