

A Service of



Leibniz-Informationszentrum Wirtschaft Leibniz Information Centre for Economics

Dong, Yan; Whalley, John

Working Paper A third benefit of joint non-OPEC carbon taxes : transferring OPEC monopoly rent

CESifo Working Paper, No. 2741

Provided in Cooperation with: Ifo Institute – Leibniz Institute for Economic Research at the University of Munich

Suggested Citation: Dong, Yan; Whalley, John (2009) : A third benefit of joint non-OPEC carbon taxes : transferring OPEC monopoly rent, CESifo Working Paper, No. 2741, Center for Economic Studies and ifo Institute (CESifo), Munich

This Version is available at: https://hdl.handle.net/10419/30488

Standard-Nutzungsbedingungen:

Die Dokumente auf EconStor dürfen zu eigenen wissenschaftlichen Zwecken und zum Privatgebrauch gespeichert und kopiert werden.

Sie dürfen die Dokumente nicht für öffentliche oder kommerzielle Zwecke vervielfältigen, öffentlich ausstellen, öffentlich zugänglich machen, vertreiben oder anderweitig nutzen.

Sofern die Verfasser die Dokumente unter Open-Content-Lizenzen (insbesondere CC-Lizenzen) zur Verfügung gestellt haben sollten, gelten abweichend von diesen Nutzungsbedingungen die in der dort genannten Lizenz gewährten Nutzungsrechte.

Terms of use:

Documents in EconStor may be saved and copied for your personal and scholarly purposes.

You are not to copy documents for public or commercial purposes, to exhibit the documents publicly, to make them publicly available on the internet, or to distribute or otherwise use the documents in public.

If the documents have been made available under an Open Content Licence (especially Creative Commons Licences), you may exercise further usage rights as specified in the indicated licence.



WWW.ECONSTOR.EU

A Third Benefit of Joint Non-OPEC Carbon Taxes: Transferring OPEC Monopoly Rent

YAN DONG John Whalley

CESIFO WORKING PAPER NO. 2741 CATEGORY 8: TRADE POLICY AUGUST 2009

An electronic version of the paper may be downloaded • from the SSRN website: www.SSRN.com • from the RePEc website: www.RePEc.org • from the CESifo website: www.CESifo-group.org/wp

A Third Benefit of Joint Non-OPEC Carbon Taxes: Transferring OPEC Monopoly Rent

Abstract

This paper highlights the potential for joint OECD (or non-OPEC) carbon taxes to reduce OPEC's monopoly rent and provide benefit to non-OPEC countries provided jointly agreed trigger strategies are adhered to. In traditional economic theory, the primary purpose of a carbon tax is to internalize a global negative externality. A second benefit for individual countries is that the revenue raised by carbon tax can be used to reduce other tax rates and so lower the deadweight loss of tax system. In this paper, we discuss a third benefit of carbon taxes: transferring rents from OPEC to the oil importing countries.

We develop a multi-region general equilibrium structure with endogenously determined oil supply for the purpose in which emissions are endogenously determined. We calibrate our model to 2006 data. Our analytics and numerical simulation results highlight how a uniform carbon tax used by all non-OPEC countries will increase the buyer's price of oil but decrease the supplier's price of oil, thus decreasing non-OPEC countries' oil demand, and transferring OPEC monopoly rent to non-OPEC countries. Carbon taxes reduce the welfare of OPEC and increase the welfare of non-OPEC countries. Results also show how carbon taxes reduce global emissions, but the effect is small.

JEL Code: Z19.

Keywords: carbon taxes, OECD, monopoly rent.

Yan Dong Chinese Academy of Social Sciences and University of Western Ontario John Whalley University of Western Ontario Centre for International Governance Innovation (CIGI) jwhalley@uwo.ca

May 2009

We are grateful to the Center for International Governance Innovation (CIGI), and the Academic Development Fund of the University of Western Ontario, and the Ontario Research Fund for financial support.

1. Introduction

This paper discusses the role of jointly applied non-OPEC carbon taxes supported by appropriate trigger price mechanisms in reducing OPEC's monopoly rent. A carbon tax is an environmental tax on emissions of carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gases, the purpose of which is to slow climate change by reducing emissions. With concerns over severe effects from global warming, some major economies have paid much attention to carbon tax, and limited taxes of this type been enacted in some European Union countries, such as Sweden, Finland, the Netherlands, Norway, Italy and The United Kingdom. There are also similar proposals in U.S., Canada, and some developing countries, such as China. Another important issue is that OPEC has monopoly power in the world oil market and extracts significant monopoly rent. In this paper, we combine these issues and discuss how a jointly implemented non-OPEC countries' carbon tax can also reduce OPEC's monopoly power to the advantage of the non-OPEC.

Traditional economic theory sees pollution as a negative externality and the primary purpose of a carbon tax is to internalize such a negative externality. This was discussed by Pigou(1938) as the internalization of externalities using Pigouvian Tax. Later, Terkla(1984), Pearce(1991) and others discussed the "double dividend" from a carbon tax; a carbon tax will not only reduces the distortionary loss from the externality, the revenue raised by the tax can also be used to reduce other distortionary taxes, and so lower the deadweight loss of tax system. Globally, there is a cleaner environment with less global warming, while also improving incentives for productive activities.

In this paper, we discuss a third benefit to non-OPEC countries from a joint carbon tax with appropriate supporting trigger strategies: transferring rents from OPEC to the oil importing countries. Carbon taxes reduce the consumption of oil in importing countries, reduce OPEC's production price of oil and rents are transferred to the non-OPEC oil importing countries. Lerner (1980) proposed a plan for using taxes in this way to break OPEC. He advocated that a specific tax with trigger

strategies that the United States and governments of oil-consuming countries impose a 100 percent excise tax on the difference between OPEC's price and the pre-OPEC price adjusted for inflation. Lerner's plan would double consumers' elasticity of demand causing them to demand less oil at higher prices and thus reduce the strength of the cartel. His plan was not promoted for environmental purposes and was never adopted, but our analysis is in the spirit of this proposal. In discussing the possible influences of environmental agreements on OPEC, a range of present oil-economy models estimate that OPEC will lose from the Kyoto Protocol(see Barnett et al.(2004),Ghanem et al.(1999), McKibbin et al.(1999), Bernstein et al.(1999)), but none have linked these effects to the carbon tax in numerical modeling.

We develop a multi-region general equilibrium structure in which countries produce commodities of varying emissions intensities using substitutable fossil fuel based oil and non-oil inputs as in Dong & Whalley (2009). Unlike in conventional trade models in which there is a fixed endowment of factor inputs for each country, here we model a supply function for each country reflecting increasing extraction costs. We model the extraction cost function in constant elasticity form to yield a specification consistent with alternative values of the supply elasticity of oil. To our knowledge, this structure, while simple, is novel in numerical work.

We next turn to numerical simulation, and using a number of data sources construct a benchmark global equilibrium data set based on data for 2006. This covers production, consumption, and trade for five regions (China,EU,US,OPEC,ROW) .We calibrate our model to this data set using literature based estimates of key elasticities, with the exception of production function elasticities which we determine using data on oil prices and marginal cost and Lerner's pricing rule for monopoly producers.

Results show that a uniform carbon tax used by non-OPEC countries increases the oil-importing countries welfare and income, reduces OPEC's welfare and income, and transfers monopoly rents from OPEC to oil-importing countries. The higher the carbon tax, the more rent will be transferred. And carbon taxes also reduce global emissions, but the effect is small.

- 4 -

2. A Model of Carbon Tax and OPEC Monopoly Rent Transfers

We first present our carbon tax model in algebraic form. As we focused on OPEC, we make the strong assumption that oil is the only source of energy. There are five regions, $i = 1, \dots 5$ China, EU, US, OPEC and ROW, there are two goods produced in each region, j=1,2. In production, good 1 has high oil cost intensity, and good 2 has low oil cost intensity. The model specifies two factors, *N* a non-oil input, which is immobile across countries, but mobile across sectors within a country, and *E* an oil input which is mobile across both countries and sectors.

On the production side, we consider a two sector (a high oil (emission) intensity good and a low oil (emission) intensity good), two factor (oil and non oil input) structure. We assume production is CES. The production function for each good in each country can be written as

$$Y_{ij} = \Phi_{ij} \left[a_{ij1}^{1/\sigma_s} E_{ij}^{\sigma_s - 1/\sigma_s} + a_{ij2}^{1/\sigma_s} N_{ij}^{\sigma_s - 1/\sigma_s} \right]^{\sigma_s - 1} \quad i = \text{country}, j = \text{sector}$$
(1)

where Y_{ij} is the output of good *j* produced in country *i*, and σ_s is the elasticity of substitution between the two inputs (assumed similar across countries). p_{iN} is the price of the non-oil input in country *i*, goods prices are P_{ij} . We assume that oil is mobile across countries, so that the producer price of oil in each country (the world price) is the same p_E . *tc* is the common carbon tax rate. The buyer's price of oil p_{EB} is

$$p_{EB} = p_E \Box (1 + tc) \tag{2}$$

First order conditions imply the following:

$$E_{ij} = Y_{ij} \Phi_{ij}^{-1} a_{ij1} p_{EB}^{-\sigma_s} [a_{ij1} p_{EB}^{1-\sigma_s} + a_{ij2} p_{iN}^{1-\sigma_s}]^{\sigma_{j}' - \sigma_s}$$
(3)

$$N_{ij} = Y_{ij} \Phi_{ij}^{-1} a_{ij2} p_{iN}^{-\sigma_s} \left[a_{ij1} p_{EB}^{1-\sigma_s} + a_{ij2} p_{iN}^{1-\sigma_s} \right]^{\sigma_s/1-\sigma_s}$$
(4)

and the domestic composite price is

$$P_{ij} = \Phi_{ij}^{-1} [a_{ij1} p_{EB}^{1-\sigma_s} + a_{ij2} p_{iN}^{1-\sigma_s}]^{\frac{1}{1-\sigma_s}}$$
(5)

Unlike traditional general equilibrium models which use a fixed endowment of oil, here, by introducing an extraction cost function for each country into the model, oil supply by country is now endogenously determined. The extraction cost function we use implies an increasing marginal cost of extraction and is written as

$$K_i = F_i(Q_i) = B_{i1} + B_{i2}Q_i^{B_{i3}}$$
(6)

where K_i is the extraction cost in country *i*, and Q_i is oil extraction in country *i*.

From the first-order conditions for the extraction cost function, we get

$$p_E = \frac{dK_i}{dQ_i} = \frac{dF_i(Q_i)}{dQ_i} = B_{i2}B_{i3}Q_i^{B_{i3}-1}$$
(7)

and the oil supply elasticity is

$$EQ_{i} = \frac{dK_{i}/K_{i}}{dQ_{i}/Q_{i}} = B_{i3} - 1$$
(8)

Dividing the extraction cost function by the oil price, we can calculate the resources that are used in oil extraction.

$$R_{i} = \frac{K_{i}}{p_{E}} = \frac{B_{i1} + B_{i2}Q_{i}^{B_{i3}}}{p_{E}}$$
(9)

On the demand side of the model, the representative household utility function in each country is

$$U_{i} = U_{i}(RX_{i}, \Delta T) = [\gamma_{Hi} \sqrt[l]{\sigma_{d}} H_{i} \sqrt[\sigma_{d}-1]{\sigma_{d}} + \gamma_{Li} \sqrt[l]{\sigma_{d}} L_{i} \sqrt[\sigma_{d}-1]{\sigma_{d}} (\frac{C - \Delta T}{C})^{\beta}$$
(10)

This utility function follows Cai, Riezman & Whalley (2009). RX_i is composite consumption in country *i*, while ΔT is global temperature change. H_i is composite high emission goods consumption, L_i is composite low emission goods consumption, σ_d is the substitution elasticity between high and low emission goods, β reflects the assumed severity of damage from temperature change. In this specification, *C* can be thought of as the global temperature change at which all economic activity ceases (say, 20°C). In this formulation, as ΔT approaches *C*, utility goes to zero; and as ΔT goes to zero, there is no welfare impact of temperature change.

For the final good demand functions, RX_i is a two level nested CES function. Each region is assumed to maximize utility by first choosing among high and low oil (emission) intensity goods, and each region then chooses using among domestic goods and the other country goods at a second level.

$$RX_{i} = f(X_{i11}, X_{i21}, \cdots X_{i1r}, X_{i2r})$$
(11)

Each of the five regions maximizes top level utility subject to a budget constraint. I_i is income in country i.

$$\sum_{ji'} P_{iji'} X_{iji'} = I_i \tag{12}$$

Income includes non-oil income, oil income, tariff revenue, carbon tax revenue and transfers from abroad (financing net goods import and net oil import).

$$I_{i} = p_{iN}W_{iN} + [p_{E}Q_{i} - K_{i}] + R_{i} + RC_{i} + TR_{i}$$
(13)

For country *i*, p_{iN} is the price of non-oil input, W_{iN} is the non-oil endowment, K_i is the extraction cost of oil, and Q_i is oil extraction in country *i*. R_i is tariff revenue, RC_i is carbon tax revenue, and TR_i are exogenous transfers between countries (net goods import plus net oil import). These can be zero, but incorporating them allows calibration to unbalanced trade data.

Figure 1 shows the structure of the two level nested CES utility functions used. For each good *j* produced in country *i*', we define the seller's price (net of tariff) as $p_{ji'}$, and allow each country *i* to impose tariffs at rate $t_{iji'}$ (country *i*'s tariff on good *j* imported from country *i*') on each imported good. Tariffs are set to zero for exports. Internal (gross of tariff) prices for good *j* produced in country *i*' are thus

$$P_{iji'} = [1 + t_{iji'}]P_{ji'}$$
(14)

Figure 1 : Two Level Nested CES Utility Functions Used for Each Country

DEMAND



Temperature change in physical form is assumed to be a function of oil consumption, i.e.

$$\Delta T = g\left(\sum_{i}\sum_{j}E_{ij}\right) = a\left(\sum_{i}\sum_{j}E_{ij}\right)^{b} + c$$
(15)

In equilibrium, goods and factor markets clear. Goods market clearing implies:

$$\sum_{i} X_{iji'} = Y_{i'j} \qquad i = 1, \dots 5 \qquad j = 1,2$$
(16)

Non-oil inputs are only mobile across sectors within regions and immobile across regions, so each region's non-oil input use equals its non-oil endowment. The non-oil factor clearing conditions are:

$$\sum_{j} N_{ij} = W_{iN} \qquad i = 1, \dots 5 \qquad j = 1,2$$
(17)

Oil is mobile across countries and so global oil consumption equals global oil extraction. The oil clearing condition is:

$$\sum_{i} \sum_{j} E_{ij} = \sum_{i} Q_i \tag{18}$$

3. Data and Parameterization

We build a model compatible benchmark general equilibrium data set which we use in calibration. Our base case include 2006 trade, production, and consumption data (as well as oil use) for a 2 good (energy /non energy intensive), 2 factor (oil inputs, other inputs) structure for 5 regions (China, US, EU, OPEC,ROW).

In Table 1-1 ,GDP data is from the World Bank's WDI database and OPEC Annual Statistics Bulletin 2007. The high-emission sector in each country is taken to be the manufacturing industry. The low-emission sector in each country is taken to be the service and agricultural sectors. For Table 1-2, trade data is taken from the UNCOMTRADE database, and F.o.b. export values as reported by exporting countries are used. In Table 1-3, oil use and trade data for 2006 are calculated from IEA oil statistics. The unit of account used in the IEA statistics data is thousands of tonnes of oil equivalent, which we adjust to billion US dollars, (1 toe=7.33 barrel of oil equivalent, oil price (average)=\$61.08/per barrel) .The extraction cost is calculated using the IEA energy balance table. In the data presented in Table 1-4, adjustments are made to consumption so as to be compatible with GDP minus exports. There are also some small differences in goods classifications between the underlying consumption, production and tariff rate data. Table 1-5 gives energy consumption data from IEA statistics.

Table 1-12006 GDP by Sector by Region (Billion \$)											
	China EU-27		J -27	7 US		OPEC		ROW			
	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low	
GDP by sector	1279.23	1378.64	3852.48	10694.22	3006.63	10157.27	1169.39	1084.26	4249.39	11755.19	
GDP	2657.87		14546.7		13163.9		2253.65		16004.58		

Table 1 Data Sources Used in Model Calibration

Source: World Bank's WDI database, OPEC Annual Statistics Bulletin2007.

Export	by	Import b	У				
(Billion	\$)	China	EU-27	US	OPEC	ROW	World
	High	0.00	159.05	139.22	32.20	364.00	694.47
China	Low	0.00	85.42	64.58	8.80	115.66	274.46
	Total	0.00	244.47	203.80	41.00	479.66	968.93
	High	64.00	0.00	268.93	96.77	693.34	1123.04
EU-27	Low	15.29	0.00	65.82	24.60	230.71	336.42
	Total	79.29	0.00	334.75	121.37	924.05	1459.46
	High	35.33	159.52	0.00	36.08	535.94	766.87
US	Low	19.89	59.63	0.00	8.80	181.84	270.16
	Total	55.22	219.15	0.00	44.88	717.78	1037.03
	High	20.20	147.08	113.10	0.00	388.91	669.29
OPEC	Low	3.47	15.09	9.27	0.00	72.09	99.92
	Total	23.67	162.17	122.37	0.00	461.00	769.21
	High	499.54	774.89	928.83	74.77	0.00	2278.03
ROW	Low	133.74	297.04	329.24	90.86	0.00	850.88
	Total	633.28	1071.93	1258.07	165.63	0.00	3128.91
	High	619.07	1240.54	1450.08	239.82	1982.19	5531.70
World	Low	172.39	457.18	468.91	133.06	600.30	1831.84
	Total	791.46	1697.72	1918.99	372.88	2582.49	7363.54

Table 1-2 2006 Bilateral Trade Data (Billion \$)

Source: UNCOMTRADE database

 Table 1-3
 2006 Oil Balance Data (Billion \$)

	Extrac- tion	Import	Export	Net Import	Extraction cost	Consumption	High emission sector input	Low Emission sector input
China	82.76	85.17	-9.70	75.47	22.09	136.14	76.27	59.87
Eu27	54.16	431.42	-160.86	270.56	35.28	289.44	205.12	84.33
US	142.29	321.18	-29.20	291.97	35.82	398.44	307.09	91.35
OPEC	782.97	35.92	-635.90	-599.98	39.71	143.27	103.03	40.23
ROW	741.96	589.48	-627.50	-38.02	112.57	591.37	398.40	192.97
World	1804.14	1463.17	-1463.17	0.00	245.47	1558.67	1089.92	468.75

Source: IEA oil statistics

	Consumption of	Domestic Goods
	High oil intensity goods	Low oil intensity goods
China	584.76	1104.18
Eu27	2729.44	10357.80
US	2239.76	9887.11
OPEC	500.10	984.34
ROW	1971.36	10904.31

 Table 1-4
 Consumption of Domestic Goods (2006) (Billion \$)

Table 1-5Energy Consumption (Billion US \$)

World	ROW	US	EU-27	China	Year
2936.75	1446.90	593.20	483.69	412.96	2006
221832.56	88533.37	30878.64	21510.37	80910.18	2036
987245.64	250518.18	76757.82	47336.00	612633.64	2056

Source: International Energy Agency: Key World Energy Statistics, 2008.

As for elasticities, in the central case, model analyses elasticity parameters are used as follows: the consumption elasticity, that is the substitution elasticity between high and low emission goods in consumption is equal to 0.5, and the trade elasticity, The substitution elasticities between domestic and imported commodities follows the "rule of two", that is the substitution elasticity between domestic and imported goods is equal to 2, as discussed in Hertel al. (2009). This rule was first proposed by Jomini et al.(1991) and later tested by Liu, Arndt, and Hertel(2002) in a back-casting exercise with a simplified version of the GTAP model.

For the production substitution elasticity, we assume values are the same in all countries and we use Lerner pricing by OPEC to calibrate them to the base data on the P-MC difference for oil extraction. We relate this difference to the implied oil demand elasticity, in non-OPEC countries as a point estimate at the benchmark equilibrium. Lerner's pricing rule implies:

$$\frac{p_E - MC_E}{p_E} = \frac{1}{\varepsilon_E} \tag{19}$$

where p_E is the price of oil, MC_E is the marginal cost of oil, and ε_E is the price elasticity of oil demand. Thus if the oil price is ,say \$ 60/per barrel, and the

marginal extraction cost is \$ 12, by equation (19), we get $\varepsilon_E = 1.25$. We obtain the production side substitution elasticity σ_s by iterative calculation of the arc estimate of the demand elasticity for oil facing OPEC in the model at the benchmark equilibrium. As shown in table 2 ,when $\sigma_s = 5.2$, the arc estimate of demand of oil produced in OPEC equals 1.25.

Using data for 2006,2036, and 2056 in table 1-5, and assuming the temperature change at these three points to be $0^{\circ}C,2^{\circ}C$, and $5^{\circ}C$ respectively, we can solve for the values of parameters a,b,and c in equation (15) as

 $0 = a(2936.75 - 2936.75)^{b} + c$ $2 = a(221832.56)^{b} + c$ $5 = a(987245.64)^{b} + c$

Solving these equations for the parameters a,b,and c yields values of 0.0010,

0.6137 and 0. Substituting these values in the temperature equation yields

$$\Delta T = g(\sum_{i} \sum_{j} E_{ij}) = 0.001(\sum_{i} \sum_{j} E_{ij})^{0.6137}$$
(20)

Assuming a temperature change ΔT of 5°C between 2006 and 2056 (consistent with Stern(2002)), Table 2 reports the calibrated preference parameters in equation (10) under alternative damage assumptions. As discussed in Cai et al.(2009), the share parameter β reflects the assumed severity of damage from temperature change. We assume 3% utility loss and $\beta = 0.1059$.

Table 2 also reports remaining parameter values in production, preferences and extraction cost functions generated by calibration. These are independent of the assumed utility damage due to temperature change.

A. Producti	on Elasticit	у					
		World oil d	emand	Arc estimate at			
production elasticity	Base valu	e (1	New value % increase of oil price)	equilibrium of elasticity of oil demand	O produ oil p	PEC oil action/World production	Elasticity of world demand on OPEC oil
5.00	1558.670	0	1484.9610	4.7290		25.43%	1.2028
5.20	1558.670	0	1482.0970	4.9127	2	25.43%	1.2495
5.30	1558.670	0	1480.6660	5.0045	2	25.43%	1.2729
5.50	1558.670	0	1477.8090	5.1878	2	25.43%	1.3195
B. Assumed	Changes ir	n Prefereno	ce Parameters				
Assumed utilit BAU	y loss in	1%	3%	5%	10%	15%	20%
Utility relative to damage	o no	0.99	0.97	0.95	0.9	0.85	0.8
β		0.0349	0.1059	0.1783	0.3662	0.5649	0.7757

C. Parameters in CES production functions

	China		EU-27		US		OPEC		ROW	
	high emission goods	low emission goods								
technology coefficient	1.747566	1.704759	1.732102	1.519990	1.823222	1.506749	1.802201	1.684137	1.811027	1.584846
shares on oil	0.005717	0.004621	0.005300	0.001409	0.008197	0.001550	0.007424	0.004156	0.007739	0.002373
shares on non-oil	0.090174	0.101797	0.094239	0.177333	0.072058	0.170744	0.076837	0.107844	0.074810	0.142189

D. Parameters in Nested CES Utility functions

Shares of high and low energy (emission) composite goods

	Chin	a	EU	-27	US		OPEC		ROW	
	high emission goods	low emission goods	high emission goods	low emission goods	high emission goods	low emission goods	high emission goods	low emission goods	high emission goods	low emission goods
	0.628868	0.777512	0.262631	0.964896	0.244520	0.969644	0.475327	0.879809	0.232531	0.972589
Shares of consumption of high energy (emission) domestic and import goods										
	China		EU-27		U	S	OPEC		ROW	
China-H	0.1241	.09	0.01	1915	0.01	0496	0.012	2533	0.021	1514
EU-H	0.016138		0.18	9772	0.020276		0.037	7665	0.04098	
US-H	0.008909		0.01195		0.158553		0.014043		0.031677	
OPEC-H	I 0.005094		0.011018		0.008527		0.163924		0.022986	
ROW-H	0.125965		0.058049		0.07	0028	0.029	9102	0.103	3232
Shares of cons	umption of low o	energy (emiss	ion) domesti	c and import	t goods					
China-L	0.3229	071	0.00	5331	0.00	373	0.003	3729	0.005	5801
EU-L	0.0059	997	0.48	8794	0.00	3801	0.010)425	0.01	1571
US-L	0.0078	801	0.00	3722	0.51	301	0.003	3729	0.00	912
OPEC-L	0.0013	861	0.00	0942	0.00	0535	0.33	585	0.003	3616
ROW-L	0.0524	57	0.01	8538	0.01	9014	0.038	3506	0.436	5446
E. Paramet	ers in Extractio	n functions								
		China	EU	-27	U	S	OP	EC	RO	W
Constant Para	meter	-33.0833	-0.8	267	-59.0	0400	-482.	2700	-382.0	0700
Coefficient par	rameter	0.0733	0.09	906	0.0	559	0.02	238	0.02	245

4. Model Experiments and Results for Carbon Tax and OPEC Monopoly Rent Transferring

We have used our calibrated model to simulate the impacts of using a joint carbon tax by non-OPEC countries on global emissions and country welfare. The results of these experiments show that a uniform carbon tax used by non-OPEC countries will increase the buyer's price of oil and decreasing the producer price of oil, and thus decrease non-OPEC countries' oil demand, and transfer OPEC's monopoly rent to non-OPEC countries. A jointly implemented carbon tax with supporting trigger price strategies can thus reduce the welfare of OPEC and increase the effect of the welfare of non-OPEC countries. Non-OPEC countries' income increases from two sources: one is OPEC rent transferring, the other is carbon tax revenue. Carbon tax can decrease global emissions, but the effect is small.

In Tables 3 - 7, we assume a uniform carbon tax rate adopted by non-OPEC countries (China, EU, US, ROW). By increasing the tax rate, we can analyze the effect of the carbon tax on oil price, oil demand, income, welfare and emissions.

Table 3 shows the impact of uniform carbon tax on the buyer's oil price. By increasing the carbon tax rate, the seller's price of oil will decrease and buyer's price of oil will increase. When the carbon tax rate is at 1%,3%,5%,10%,15% and 20%, the seller's price of oil will change -0.8745%, -2.5727%, -4.2061%, -8.0232%, -11.4900% and -14.6397% accordingly, and the buyers price in all countries will change by 0.1168%, 0.3501%, 0.5836%,1.1745%,1.7864% and 2.4323% accordingly.

		% Change in Oil Price									
CARBON TAX	China	EU	US	OPEC	ROW	Total					
1% uniform carbon tax	0.1168%	0.1168%	0.1168%	-0.8745%	0.1168%	0.1168%					
3% uniform carbon tax	0.3501%	0.3501%	0.3501%	-2.5727%	0.3501%	0.3501%					
5% uniform carbon tax	0.5836%	0.5836%	0.5836%	-4.2061%	0.5836%	0.5836%					
10% uniform carbon tax	1.1745%	1.1745%	1.1745%	-8.0232%	1.1745%	1.1745%					
15% uniform carbon tax	1.7864%	1.7864%	1.7864%	-11.4900%	1.7864%	1.7864%					
20% uniform carbon tax	2.4323%	2.4323%	2.4323%	-14.6397%	2.4323%	2.4323%					

Table 3 Impacts of Uniform Carbon Tax on Buyer's Oil Price(% Change Based on 2006 Data)

Table 4 reports the consumption of oil in non-OPEC importing countries reducing with the increasing of carbon tax rate. When the carbon tax rate is 1%, the oil demand of China, EU, US and ROW decreases by 0.5683%, 0.5800%, 0.5555%, 0.5755%. When the carbon tax rate increases to 10%, the oil demand of China, EU, US and ROW decreases by 5.4613%, 5.6185%, 5.3800%, 5.5395%.

	% Change in Oil Demand								
CARBON TAX	China	EU	US	OPEC	ROW	Total			
1% uniform carbon tax	-0.5683%	-0.5800%	-0.5555%	4.2179%	-0.5755%	-0.1300%			
3% uniform carbon tax	-1.6836%	-1.7228%	-1.6495%	13.0357%	-1.7063%	-0.3379%			
5% uniform carbon tax	-2.7773%	-2.8478%	-2.7263%	22.3700%	-2.8160%	-0.4807%			
10% uniform carbon tax	-5.4613%	-5.6185%	-5.3800%	48.0031%	-5.5395%	-0.5853%			
15% uniform carbon tax	-8.1402%	-8.3878%	-8.0381%	76.9330%	-8.2541%	-0.3840%			
20% uniform carbon tax	-10.8776%	-11.2118%	-10.7574%	109.0923%	-11.0208%	0.0634%			

Table 4Impacts of Uniform Carbon tax on Oil Demand(% Change Based on 2006 Data)

The results in Table 3 and Table 4 thus confirm the idea that taxation in an importing country implies a transfer of rents from producers to consumers. Since OPEC has high monopoly power in oil production, a jointly implemented carbon tax functions as an effective way to reduce OPEC's monopoly power.

Table 5 reports the influence of carbon taxes on OPEC and non-OPEC country's incomes. Non-OPEC countries increase their income due to rent transfers from OPEC and carbon tax revenue. When the carbon tax rate is 3%, the income of China, EU, US and ROW increases by 0.0937%, 0.0540%, 0.0663%, 0.0034%, OPEC's income falls by 1.0598%. When the carbon tax rate increases to 20%, the income of China, EU, US and ROW increases by 0.8187%, 0.3943%, 0.5137%, 0.2590%. OPEC's income falls by 5.3335%. For non-OPEC countries, the income increases are small.

	% Change in Income								
CARBON TAX	China	EU	US	OPEC	ROW	Total			
1% uniform carbon tax	0.0279%	0.0171%	0.0206%	-0.3664%	-0.0019%	-0.0022%			
3% uniform carbon tax	0.0937%	0.0540%	0.0663%	-1.0598%	0.0034%	0.0005%			
5% uniform carbon tax	0.1683%	0.0932%	0.1158%	-1.7044%	0.0178%	0.0103%			
10% uniform carbon tax	0.3778%	0.1954%	0.2483%	-3.1282%	0.0806%	0.0554%			
15% uniform carbon tax	0.6002%	0.2974%	0.3835%	-4.3241%	0.1656%	0.1178%			
20% uniform carbon tax	0.8187%	0.3943%	0.5137%	-5.3335%	0.2590%	0.1868%			

Table 5Impacts of Uniform Carbon Tax on Income(% Change Based on 2006 Data)

In Table 6, we use Hicksian CV and EV measures capturing the effects of temperature change for welfare analysis. These are

$$CV_{i} = \frac{\Delta U_{i}}{(\frac{C_{i} - \Delta T_{0}}{C_{i}})^{\beta}} = \frac{U_{i}^{1} - U_{i}^{0}}{(\frac{C_{i} - \Delta T_{0}}{C_{i}})^{\beta}}$$
(21)

$$EV_{i} = \frac{\Delta U_{i}}{(\frac{C_{i} - \Delta T_{1}}{C_{i}})^{\beta}} = \frac{U_{i}^{1} - U_{i}^{0}}{(\frac{C_{i} - \Delta T_{1}}{C_{i}})^{\beta}}$$
(22)

Since the temperature change is small, $\Delta T_0 \approx \Delta T_1$, and CV and EV measures from equations (21) and (22) are similar. We only report the CV measure. Results show that non-OPEC countries improve welfare and OPEC loses welfare. When the carbon tax rate is 5%, CV measures for China, EU, US and ROW are 0.000043, 3.710793, 4.440146, 0.487235, CV of OPEC is -5.122175, When the carbon tax rate is 20%, CV measures for China, EU, US and ROW are 0.000216, 15.897682, 20.049688 , 10.130895. The CV of OPEC is -15.12791.

 Table 6
 Impacts of Uniform Carbon tax on welfare (CV)

	Change in Welfare by Region (CV)								
CARBON TAX	China	EU	US	OPEC	ROW	Total			
1% uniform carbon tax	0.000007	0.672325	0.774374	-1.115139	-0.138067	0.286138			
3% uniform carbon tax	0.000023	2.140034	2.520218	-3.205549	-0.022011	4.100982			
5% uniform carbon tax	0.000043	3.710793	4.440146	-5.122175	0.487235	12.503942			
10% uniform carbon tax	0.000098	7.841789	9.630654	-9.238164	2.924413	12.503942			
15% uniform carbon tax	0.000158	11.981790	14.953226	-12.526053	6.339063	22.907469			
20% uniform carbon tax	0.000216	15.897682	20.049688	-15.127910	10.130895	33.906084			

Table 7 reports the effects of carbon tax on emissions. The global emissions decrease with an increasing carbon tax rate, but the effect is small. When the uniform carbon tax rate is 20%, global emissions decrease by 3.3599%. Across different regions, OPEC increases emissions since OPEC does not use a carbon tax, while non-OPEC countries decrease emissions due to reduced oil consumption.

	_						
CARBON TAX		% Change in Emissions					
	China	EU	US	OPEC	ROW	Total	
1% uniform carbon tax	-0.5683%	-0.5800%	-0.5555%	4.2179%	-0.5756%	-0.2671%	
3% uniform carbon tax	-1.6836%	-1.7229%	-1.6495%	13.0357%	-1.7063%	-0.7590%	
5% uniform carbon tax	-2.7773%	-2.8478%	-2.7263%	22.3700%	-2.8160%	-1.1997%	
10% uniform carbon tax	-5.4612%	-5.6185%	-5.3800%	48.0031%	-5.5395%	-2.1121%	
15% uniform carbon tax	-8.1402%	-8.3878%	-8.0381%	76.9330%	-8.2541%	-2.8121%	
20% uniform carbon tax	-10.8776%	-11.2118%	-10.7574%	109.0923%	-11.0208%	- 3.3599%	

Table7 Impacts of Uniform Carbon Tax on Emissions(Oil Use)(% Change Based on 2006 Data)

5. Concluding Remarks

We have used a multi-region general equilibrium model calibrated to 2006 benchmark data to evaluate the impacts of jointly imposed carbon taxes on OPEC and non-OPEC countries' oil consumption, income, emissions and welfare. Our results confirm the view that carbon taxes can have a third benefit for oil importing countries of transferring rents from OPEC to oil importing countries and reducing OPEC's monopoly power on oil market.

Results from model analysis also show that a uniform carbon tax by non-OPEC countries will increase the buyer's price of oil and decrease the seller's price of oil, thus decreasing non-OPEC countries' oil demand, and transferring OPEC's monopoly rent to non-OPEC countries. A carbon tax thus reduces the welfare of OPEC and increases the welfare of non-OPEC countries. Non-OPEC countries' income can increase from two sources: one is OPEC rent transfers; the other is from carbon tax revenue. A non-OPEC carbon tax can decrease global emissions, but the effect is small.

References

- Barnett, J., S.Dessai & M.Webber(2004) "Will OPEC Lose from the Kyoto Protocol?", *Oil Policy*, 32, PP.2077-2088.
- Bernstein, P., D. Montgomery, T. Rutherford & G. Yang (1999). "Effects of Restrictions on International Permit Trading: the MS-MRT Model", *The Oil Journal*, pp.221-256.
- Bhattacharyya, S.C.(1996) "Applied General Equilibrium Models for Oil Studies: A Survey", *Oil Economics*, Vol.18, pp.145-164.
- Cai,Y,Z, R.Riezman and J. Whalley(2009) "International Trade and the Negotiability of Global Climate Change Agreements", NBER Working Paper No.14711, Issued in Feb 2009.
- Cooke, R.(2007) "The elasticity of oil production and consumption", *Oil Bulletin,* Archived Mar 22 2007.
- Dong, Y. & J. Whalley (2008) "Carbon, Trade Policy, and Carbon Free Trade Areas", NBER Working Paper No.14431, Issued in October 2008.
- Dong, Y. & J. Whalley (2009) "Carbon Motivated Regional Trade Arrangements: Analytics and Simulations", NBER Working Paper No.14880, Issued in April 2009.
- Ghanem, S., R. Lounnas & G. Rennand (1999) "The Impact of Emissions Trading on OPEC", *OPEC Review*, 23, pp.79-112.
- Hertel, T., R. McDougall, B.Narayanan and A.H. Aguiar(2009) "GTAP 7 Data Base Documentation - Chapter 14: Behavioral Parameters", access at https://www.gtap.agecon.purdue.edu/resources/download/4184.pdf
- Jomini, P., J.F. Zeitsch, R. McDougall, A. Welsh, S. Brown, J.Hambley and J. Kelly(1991) "SALTER: A General Equilibrium Model of the World Economy", Vol. 1. Model Structure, Data Base, and Parameters. Canberra, Australia: Industry Commission.
- Kemfert,C.(1998)"Estimated Substitution Elasticities of a Nested CES Production Function Approach for Germany. *Oil Economics* 20 3, pp. 249–264.
- Lerner, A.P.(1934) "The Concept of Monopoly and the Measurement of Monopoly Power" *The Review of Economic Studies*, Vol.1, No.3 pp.157-175.
- Lerner, A.P.(1980) "OPEC—A Plan—If You Can't Beat Them, Join Them", Atlantic Economic Journal ,pp.1-3.
- Liu, J., Y. Surry, B. Dimaranan and T. Hertel(1998) "CDE Calibration," Chapter 21 in Robert McDougall, Aziz Elbehri, and Truong P. Truong. *Global Trade*,

Assistance and Protection: The GTAP 4 Data Base, Center for Global Trade Analysis, Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana.

- Manne, A. S. and R. G. Richels(1999) "The Kyoto Protocol: A Cost-Effective Strategy for Meeting Environmental Objectives?" in The Costs of the Kyoto Protocol: A Multi-Model Evaluation, John Weyant (ed.), *Special Issue of The Oil Journal*.
- McKibbin, W., T.Ross, R. Shackleton & P.Wilcoxen (1999) "Emissions Trading, Capital Flows and the Kyoto Protocol", *The Oil Journal*, pp.287-335.
- Mendelsohn, Robert, O.(2006) A Critique of the Stern Report, Regulation.(Winter 2006-2007), pp.42-46.
- OPEC(2008), OPEC Annual Statistical Bulletin 2007, OPEC Website.
- Pearce, D.(1991) "The Role of Carbon Taxes in Adjusting to Global Warming", *The Economic Journal* 101, pp.938-948.
- Pigou,A.C.(1938) *The Economics of Welfare*, 4th ed. London: MacMillan and Company.
- Stern,N. (2006) *Stern Review on the Economics of Climate Change*. (Cambridge Univ Press, Cambridge, UK).
- Terkla, D.(1984) ,"The Efficiency Value of Effluent Tax Revenues", *Journal of Environmental Economics and Management*, 11, pp. 107-123.

CESifo Working Paper Series

for full list see www.cesifo-group.org/wp (address: Poschingerstr. 5, 81679 Munich, Germany, office@cesifo.de)

- 2677 Rolf Golombek and Michael Hoel, International Cooperation on Climate-Friendly Technologies, June 2009
- 2678 Martin Cave and Matthew Corkery, Regulation and Barriers to Trade in Telecommunications Services in the European Union, June 2009
- 2679 Costas Arkolakis, A Unified Theory of Firm Selection and Growth, June 2009
- 2680 Michelle R. Garfinkel, Stergios Skaperdas and Constantinos Syropoulos, International Trade and Transnational Insecurity: How Comparative Advantage and Power are Jointly Determined, June 2009
- 2681 Marcelo Resende, Capital Structure and Regulation in U.S. Local Telephony: An Exploratory Econometric Study; June 2009
- 2682 Marc Gronwald and Janina Ketterer, Evaluating Emission Trading as a Policy Tool Evidence from Conditional Jump Models, June 2009
- 2683 Stephan O. Hornig, Horst Rottmann and Rüdiger Wapler, Information Asymmetry, Education Signals and the Case of Ethnic and Native Germans, June 2009
- 2684 Benoit Dostie and Rajshri Jayaraman, The Effect of Adversity on Process Innovations and Managerial Incentives, June 2009
- 2685 Peter Egger, Christian Keuschnigg and Hannes Winner, Incorporation and Taxation: Theory and Firm-level Evidence, June 2009
- 2686 Chrysovalantou Milliou and Emmanuel Petrakis, Timing of Technology Adoption and Product Market Competition, June 2009
- 2687 Hans Degryse, Frank de Jong and Jérémie Lefebvre, An Empirical Analysis of Legal Insider Trading in the Netherlands, June 2009
- 2688 Subhasish M. Chowdhury, Dan Kovenock and Roman M. Sheremeta, An Experimental Investigation of Colonel Blotto Games, June 2009
- 2689 Alexander Chudik, M. Hashem Pesaran and Elisa Tosetti, Weak and Strong Cross Section Dependence and Estimation of Large Panels, June 2009
- 2690 Mohamed El Hedi Arouri and Christophe Rault, On the Influence of Oil Prices on Stock Markets: Evidence from Panel Analysis in GCC Countries, June 2009
- 2691 Lars P. Feld and Christoph A. Schaltegger, Political Stability and Fiscal Policy Time Series Evidence for the Swiss Federal Level since 1849, June 2009

- 2692 Michael Funke and Marc Gronwald, A Convex Hull Approach to Counterfactual Analysis of Trade Openness and Growth, June 2009
- 2693 Patricia Funk and Christina Gathmann, Does Direct Democracy Reduce the Size of Government? New Evidence from Historical Data, 1890-2000, June 2009
- 2694 Kirsten Wandschneider and Nikolaus Wolf, Shooting on a Moving Target: Explaining European Bank Rates during the Interwar Period, June 2009
- 2695 J. Atsu Amegashie, Third-Party Intervention in Conflicts and the Indirect Samaritan's Dilemma, June 2009
- 2696 Enrico Spolaore and Romain Wacziarg, War and Relatedness, June 2009
- 2697 Steven Brakman, Charles van Marrewijk and Arjen van Witteloostuijn, Market Liberalization in the European Natural Gas Market – the Importance of Capacity Constraints and Efficiency Differences, July 2009
- 2698 Huifang Tian, John Whalley and Yuezhou Cai, Trade Sanctions, Financial Transfers and BRIC's Participation in Global Climate Change Negotiations, July 2009
- 2699 Axel Dreher and Justina A. V. Fischer, Government Decentralization as a Disincentive for Transnational Terror? An Empirical Analysis, July 2009
- 2700 Balázs Égert, Tomasz Koźluk and Douglas Sutherland, Infrastructure and Growth: Empirical Evidence, July 2009
- 2701 Felix Bierbrauer, Optimal Income Taxation and Public Goods Provision in a Large Economy with Aggregate Uncertainty, July 2009
- 2702 Marc Gronwald, Investigating the U.S. Oil-Macroeconomy Nexus using Rolling Impulse Responses, July 2009
- 2703 Ali Bayar and Bram Smeets, Government Deficits in the European Union: An Analysis of Entry and Exit Dynamics, July 2009
- 2704 Stergios Skaperdas, The Costs of Organized Violence: A Review of the Evidence, July 2009
- 2705 António Afonso and Christophe Rault, Spend-and-tax: A Panel Data Investigation for the EU, July 2009
- 2706 Bruno S. Frey, Punishment and beyond, July 2009
- 2707 Michael Melvin and Mark P. Taylor, The Crisis in the Foreign Exchange Market, July 2009
- 2708 Firouz Gahvari, Friedman Rule in a Model with Endogenous Growth and Cash-inadvance Constraint, July 2009

- 2709 Jon H. Fiva and Gisle James Natvik, Do Re-election Probabilities Influence Public Investment?, July 2009
- 2710 Jarko Fidrmuc and Iikka Korhonen, The Impact of the Global Financial Crisis on Business Cycles in Asian Emerging Economies, July 2009
- 2711 J. Atsu Amegashie, Incomplete Property Rights and Overinvestment, July 2009
- 2712 Frank R. Lichtenberg, Response to Baker and Fugh-Berman's Critique of my Paper, "Why has Longevity Increased more in some States than in others?", July 2009
- 2713 Hans Jarle Kind, Tore Nilssen and Lars Sørgard, Business Models for Media Firms: Does Competition Matter for how they Raise Revenue?, July 2009
- 2714 Beatrix Brügger, Rafael Lalive and Josef Zweimüller, Does Culture Affect Unemployment? Evidence from the Röstigraben, July 2009
- 2715 Oliver Falck, Michael Fritsch and Stephan Heblich, Bohemians, Human Capital, and Regional Economic Growth, July 2009
- 2716 Wladimir Raymond, Pierre Mohnen, Franz Palm and Sybrand Schim van der Loeff, Innovative Sales, R&D and Total Innovation Expenditures: Panel Evidence on their Dynamics, July 2009
- 2717 Ben J. Heijdra and Jochen O. Mierau, Annuity Market Imperfection, Retirement and Economic Growth, July 2009
- 2718 Kai Carstensen, Oliver Hülsewig and Timo Wollmershäuser, Price Dispersion in the Euro Area: The Case of a Symmetric Oil Price Shock, July 2009
- 2719 Katri Kosonen and Gaëtan Nicodème, The Role of Fiscal Instruments in Environmental Policy, July 2009
- 2720 Guglielmo Maria Caporale, Luca Onorante and Paolo Paesani, Inflation and Inflation Uncertainty in the Euro Area, July 2009
- 2721 Thushyanthan Baskaran and Lars P. Feld, Fiscal Decentralization and Economic Growth in OECD Countries: Is there a Relationship?, July 2009
- 2722 Nadia Fiorino and Roberto Ricciuti, Interest Groups and Government Spending in Italy, 1876-1913, July 2009
- 2723 Andreas Wagener, Tax Competition, Relative Performance and Policy Imitation, July 2009
- 2724 Hans Fehr and Fabian Kindermann, Pension Funding and Individual Accounts in Economies with Life-cyclers and Myopes, July 2009
- 2725 Ernesto Reuben and Arno Riedl, Enforcement of Contribution Norms in Public Good Games with Heterogeneous Populations, July 2009

- 2726 Kurt Schmidheiny and Marius Brülhart, On the Equivalence of Location Choice Models: Conditional Logit, Nested Logit and Poisson, July 2009
- 2727 Bruno S. Frey, A Multiplicity of Approaches to Institutional Analysis. Applications to the Government and the Arts, July 2009
- 2728 Giovanni Villani, A Strategic R&D Investment with Flexible Development Time in Real Option Game Analysis, July 2009
- 2729 Luca Di Corato and Michele Moretto, Investing in Biogas: Timing, Technological Choice and the Value of Flexibility from Inputs Mix, July 2009
- 2730 Gilad D. Aharonovitz, Nathan Skuza and Faysal Fahs, Can Integrity Replace Institutions? Theory and Evidence, July 2009
- 2731 Michele Moretto and Sergio Vergalli, Managing Migration through Conflicting Policies: an Option-theory Perspective, July 2009
- 2732 Volker Nitsch, Fly or Cry: Is Airport Noise Costly?, July 2009
- 2733 Francesco Cinnirella and Joachim Winter, Size Matters! Body Height and Labor Market Discrimination: A Cross-European Analysis, July 2009
- 2734 Samuel Bowles and Sandra Polanía Reyes, Economic Incentives and Social Preferences: A Preference-based Lucas Critique of Public Policy, July 2009
- 2735 Gary Burtless, Lessons of the Financial Crisis for the Design of National Pension Systems, July 2009
- 2736 Helmuth Cremer, Firouz Gahvari and Pierre Pestieau, Fertility, Human Capital Accumulation, and the Pension System, July 2009
- 2737 Hans Jarle Kind and Frank Stähler, Market Shares in Two-Sided Media Industries, July 2009
- 2738 Pamela Campa, Alessandra Casarico and Paola Profeta, Gender Culture and Gender Gap in Employment, August 2009
- 2739 Sebastian Gechert, Supplementary Private Health Insurance in Selected Countries: Lessons for EU Governments?, August 2009
- 2740 Leif Danziger, Endogenous Monopsony and the Perverse Effect of the Minimum Wage in Small Firms, August 2009
- 2741 Yan Dong and John Whalley, A Third Benefit of Joint Non-OPEC Carbon Taxes: Transferring OPEC Monopoly Rent, August 2009