

Combining an inter-sectoral carbon tax with sectoral mitigation policies: impacts on the French forest sector

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Abstract

As France works out its plan to tackle climate change issues, questions are arising in the forest sector as to how sectoral mitigation programs such as those designed to enhance fuelwood consumption or to stimulate in-forest carbon sequestration may coincide with an inter-sectoral program such as an economy-wide carbon tax. This paper provides insights into this question by exploring the impacts of (1) a combination of a carbon tax and a fuelwood policy, and (2) a combination of a carbon tax and a sequestration policy on (i) the economy of the forest sector, and (ii) the dynamics of the forest resource. To do this, we used a modified version of the French Forest Sector Model (FFSM) and carried out simulations on a 2020 time horizon. Basing our analysis on the fuelwood sector, we showed that wood producers always benefit from the combination of a carbon tax with either a fuelwood policy or a sequestration policy at the national level. Conversely, and although it favors wood products instead of non-wood substitutes, a carbon tax always decreases consumer surpluses by increasing wood product prices. As a consequence, the combination of a carbon tax with sectoral policies is likely to raise questions about the political economy of the mitigation program. This is particularly true in the case of a combination of a carbon tax with a sequestration policy, which already decreases consumer surpluses. We eventually showed that by increasing transport costs between domestic regions, the carbon tax reallocates production patterns over French territory which could lead to the necessity of a regional breakdown of policy-mixes in the forest sector.

Keywords: Forest sector modeling; Mitigation policies; Fuelwood, Carbon storage; Biomass energy; Carbon tax

JEL Classification: L52; Q23; Q42; Q54

Introduction

According to the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), there will be a significant economic potential for climate change mitigation in the next few decades. In particular, bottom-up analyses show that the international emissions reduction potential for the forest sector equals 1,1 (+/- 1) to 4,2 (+/- 1,5) Gt eq.CO₂/yr, respectively for carbon prices of 20 US\$/tCO₂ and 100 US\$/tCO₂ which represents 3% to 14% of the total CO₂ emissions (Nabuurs et al., 2007). The climate change ability of the forest sector can be broken down into two types of mechanisms: sequestration and substitution. Upstream, sequestration mechanisms consist of enhancing forest management practices such as densification, afforestation, reforestation and reduction of deforestation in order to increase the quantity of carbon sequestered in the forest biomass (Kurz et al., 1997; Nabuurs et al., 2007; Luyssaert et al., 2008; Grace, 2004; van der Werf et al., 2009). Downstream, sequestering carbon in long-lived wood products (*e.g.* construction wood) postpones its return to the atmosphere thereby delaying CO₂ release in the atmosphere (Vallet, 2005). Substitution mechanisms consist of reducing greenhouse gas emissions through the replacement of fossil fuels with fuelwood and by substituting non-wood products with wood products in the building, packaging and furniture sectors (Petersen, 2006; Petersen and Solberg, 2005).

So far, and in order to reach its ambitious mitigation targets¹, the French Government has opted to base its policy-mix on substitution mechanisms through sectoral policies. These policies aim at (1) structuring the French fuelwood sector through economic incentives, (2) changing domestic heating systems, for example, through the development of collective boilers, and (3) encouraging the development of medium- to large-scale biomass energy plants. The overall objective is to increase fuelwood consumption by 6 Mm³/yr by 2020 (Puech, 2009).

In addition to these policies promoting the use of fuelwood, two other types of mitigation policies involving the forest sector are currently being discussed in France: a policy to enhance sequestration in forests and an intersectoral carbon tax based on substitution mechanisms, but in an indirect way, promoting low-carbon content products and discouraging their more carbon-intensive substitutes.

While the impacts of a sequestration policy and of its combination with a fuelwood policy are analyzed in depth in Lecocq et al. (2011), the impacts of a carbon tax on the forest sector and its interactions with sectoral policies, either fuelwood policy or sequestration policy, remain unclear.

¹The European Union sets the objective of increasing the share of renewable energy in its overall energy mix to 20% by 2020.

66 In the French context, a normative shadow price of carbon to be used in evaluating
67 public investments was set at €100/tC, or €27/tCO₂, in 2000. For the preparation
68 of the 2009 carbon tax proposal, an expert group of economists proposed an initial
69 €45/tCO₂ (Quinet, 2009) that would progressively increase to €100/tCO₂ in 2030.
70 The view was that this initial value and increase trajectory would be compatible with
71 the achievement of the Factor 4 goal which consists in improving the energy efficiency
72 and the use of renewable energy in order to divide CO₂ emissions by a factor of four
73 before 2050. In 2010, a consensus value of €32/tCO₂ emerged from a broader expert
74 consensus (Rocard, 2009) — with the same increase trajectory as in the previous report.
75 After several months of discussion, an initial value of €17/tCO₂ + €2/tCO₂/yr was
76 finally announced by the Government on acceptability grounds before it was killed by
77 the French Constitutional Council in 2010.

78 Nevertheless, some form of carbon tax scheme is likely to be necessary in France in
79 the future since the objective of mitigation remains. Such a tax would therefore coexist
80 with previously enacted sectoral fuelwood policies and/or sequestration measures. One
81 question that then arises is how would such an inter-sectoral substitution-based carbon
82 tax interact with previously enacted sectoral? The answer obviously depends on which
83 type of policy is combined with the carbon tax.

84 First, a combination of a carbon tax with sectoral fuelwood policies raises the
85 question of sustainability since they both lead to increased wood harvest. Second, a
86 carbon tax and a sequestration policy result *a priori* in conflicting impacts on forest
87 resource dynamics. Therefore, the impact of their combination on the forest stock
88 is ambiguous. In addition, since a carbon tax is likely to increase product prices
89 (including those of wood products) and since sequestration policy decreases consumer
90 surpluses (see Lecocq et al. (2011)), another important issue concerns the impacts
91 of such a combination on consumer surpluses. This is even more important knowing
92 that the political feasibility of such measures is highly dependent on their impacts on
93 consumer welfare.

94
95 This paper aims at exploring these interactions from the point of view of both
96 economics and forest stock dynamics. To do this, we use the French Forest Sector
97 Model (Caurla, 2012b; Caurla et al., 2010) modified to model competition between
98 wood and non-wood substitutes. Ideally, modeling a carbon tax would imply that
99 all carbon emission processes for wood products and their non-wood substitutes
100 (transformation, transport, carbon embedded in products) are represented and
101 subsequently applying a carbon tax rate to all these processes. However, this is
102 very data-intensive task that goes beyond the scope of our paper. For this reason,
103 we chose to focus our analysis on a single product: fuelwood for heat production.
104 As a consequence, competition is only represented for fuelwood and its energy
105 source substitutes, i.e., coal, fuel oil, electricity and gas. Therefore, a carbon tax

106 will only have an impact on the production and the consumption of these five products.

107
108 This paper is organized as follows. The first section presents a literature review of
109 the topic. The second section presents a short description of FFSM and describes the
110 modifications made in order to model a carbon tax. The third section presents carbon
111 tax characteristics (tax rate, tax base) and describes the impacts on the French forest
112 sector of a carbon tax applied without other policies. In the fourth section, we then
113 analyze the combination of a carbon tax with current fuelwood policies. In the fifth
114 section, we explore the impacts of a combination of a carbon tax and a sequestration
115 policy. Finally the last section provides a discussion of our results and a conclusion to
116 our paper.

117 Literature review

118 Impacts of sectoral carbon incentives over the forest sector have been extensively
119 recognized and studied. This literature typically deals with carbon tax system
120 as a policy tool for encouraging carbon sequestration. Focusing on a case study
121 in Oregon, Im et al. (2007) show that a carbon tax leads to reduced harvest and
122 increased carbon stock in the standing trees and understory biomass. Pajot (2011)
123 suggests that such a result also holds for maritime pine forests in South-West of France.

124
125 The interactions between sequestration policies and substitution measures have
126 been studied both from environmental (Marland and Schlamadinger, 1997; Seidl
127 et al., 2007; Hofer et al., 2007; Pingoud et al., 2010) and bio-economic (Lecocq et al.,
128 2011; Kallio et al., 2013) points of view. This literature suggests that sequestration
129 policies are likely to be the most effective tools when considering carbon emissions in
130 the short run while substitution policies might better perform in the long run. From
131 the economic point of view, Lecocq et al. (2011) show that a sequestration policy is
132 detrimental to consumers surplus which raises questions about the political economy
133 of sequestration incentives. Meanwhile, Kallio et al. (2013) point out that an increased
134 use of wood energy also means higher pulpwood prices, which benefit producers but
135 increase the production costs in the pulp and paper industry.

136
137 However, few studies analyze the impacts of inter-sectoral carbon taxes over the
138 forest sector. One exception is Sathre and Gustavsson (2007) who focus exclusively
139 on construction materials sectors. Their results indicate that higher energy and
140 carbon taxation rates increase the economic competitiveness of wood construction
141 materials. Bohlin (1998) studies the impacts of a differentiated carbon tax on biofuel
142 consumption in Sweden. He shows that, after the tax implementation, the biofuel use
143 in the district heating sector increased from 36.7 PJ to 73.4 PJ, replacing primarily

144 coal, thus leading to great carbon dioxide savings. However these two studies tend
145 to focus on the environmental (i.e., GHG) implications of the carbon tax with an
146 emission savings approach and with no attention paid to economic impacts over
147 economic agents in the sector. Using the French Forest Sector Model, Barthes et al.
148 (2012) analyze the impacts of an inter-sectoral carbon tax on competitiveness within
149 the forest sector. By modeling competition between five wood products and their
150 non-wood substitutes, they showed that forest products generally benefit from the
151 introduction of such a tax. In fact, since wood products generally have a smaller
152 carbon content than their direct non-wood substitutes, their consumption and, as
153 a result, their production, decrease less than those of non-wood substitutes when a
154 carbon tax is implemented.

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156 Eventually, the interactions between an inter-sectoral carbon tax and a sectoral
157 carbon policy within the forest sector have been barely studied in the literature. One
158 notable exception is Timilsina et al. (2011) who use a multi-sector, multi-country com-
159 putable general equilibrium model to study under what circumstances a carbon tax
160 would help stimulate penetration of biofuels into the energy supply mix. They show
161 that the most effective situation is when the carbon tax revenue is recycled into a
162 biofuel subsidy while a recycling through a lump-sum transfer does not help stimu-
163 late biofuels significantly. Our aim here is different, since we use a partial equilibrium
164 framework and we compare the combination of either sequestration policy or fuelwood
165 policy with inter-sectoral carbon tax.

166 **Materials and Methods**

167 **The French Forest Sector Model, a bio-economic model** 168 **to assess the impacts of climate mitigation policies on the** 169 **French forest sector**

170 The French Forest Sector Model (Figure 1) was initially developed in order to under-
171 stand the impacts of current policies and to explore those of potential future ones. As
172 explained in detail in Caurla et al. (2010) and Caurla (2012b, pp.105-152), this model
173 includes a representation of the forest resource and its dynamics in order to assess the
174 environmental implications of mitigation policies. To assess the economic implications
175 of mitigation policies, the model computes prices and quantities for three primary and
176 six final wood products (Figure 2) from 2006 to 2020. It also makes it possible to com-
177 pute producers' profits and consumers' surpluses. Moreover, wood trade is represented
178 at the national level according to the spatial price theory of Samuelson (1952) and at
179 the international level through the imperfect substitution model of Armington (1969).

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On environmental aspects, the model projects the dynamics of national and regional forest resources broken down into 132 homogenous domains from the point of view of climate, species and management. It also computes the emission balance for the entire sector, taking substitution effects that take place downstream into account.

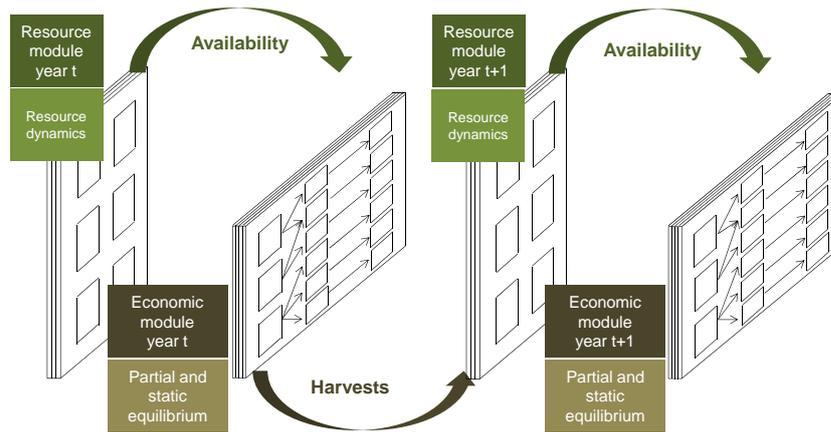


Figure 1: FFSM is based on a recursive and modular framework. The time horizon is 2020.

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The FFSM mathematical structure can be found in Caurla (2012a) and Caurla (2012b, pp.307-327).

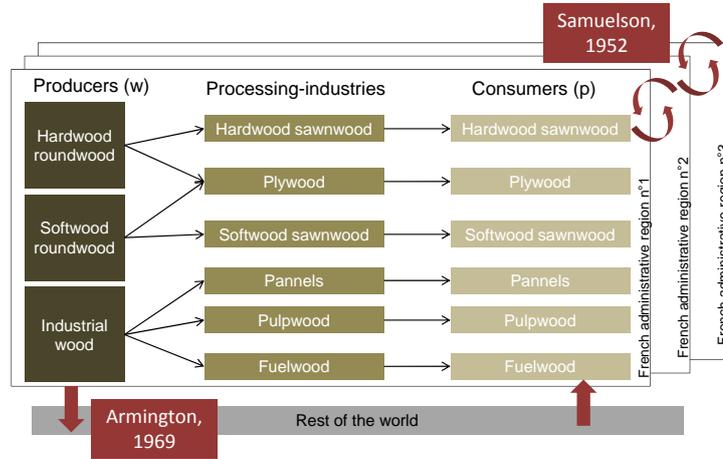


Figure 2: The economic module of FFSM represents three levels of the forest sector and distinguishes nine products.

187 Modeling competition between fuelwood and fossil fuels 188 with FFSM

189 Competition is represented through a price competition approach. Basically, competi-
190 tion between fuelwood and substitutes is represented through a cross elasticity of
191 demand:

$$D_{i,t} = D_{i,t-1} \left(\frac{\tilde{P}_{i,t}}{\tilde{P}_{i,t-1}} \right)^{\sigma_p} \underbrace{\prod_s \left(\frac{\left(\frac{\tilde{P}_{i,t}}{P_{s,i,t}} \right)}{\left(\frac{\tilde{P}_{i,t-1}}{P_{s,i,t-1}} \right)} \right)^{-\epsilon_s}}_{\text{Competition module}} \quad (1)$$

192 where:

- 193 • $D_{i,t}$ is the demand for a composite fuelwood product in region i at year t , as
194 defined in Caurla et al. (2010). The demand for a composite product is defined
195 as a function of the demand of import and the demand of domestic product
196 considering a constant elasticity of substitution specification ;
- 197 • $\tilde{P}_{i,t}$ is the price of the composite fuelwood product in region i at year t as defined
198 in Caurla et al. (2010) ;

- 199 • $P_{s,i,t}$ is the price of the substitute s in region i at year t ;
- 200 • $\epsilon_{p,s}$ is the cross elasticity of demand;
- 201 • σ_p is the price elasticity of demand.

202 We consider here that fuelwood competes with four non-wood substitutes s : coal,
 203 fuel oil, electricity and gas. The price of substitutes s must be calibrated for the whole
 204 period. $P_{s,i,t}$ is defined as the average price of the apparent consumption of product
 205 s (apparent consumption is defined as French production plus imports less exports).
 206 These prices are assumed to be stable over the whole period of the simulation. The
 207 cross elasticities of demand $\epsilon_{p,s}$ were previously calculated with a linear regression
 208 approach using Equation 1. For France, their values are 0.1 for coal, 0.6 for electricity
 209 and gas and 0.9 for fuel oil.

210 Modeling an economy-wide carbon tax in FFSM

211 Carbon tax structure

212 Optimally, making endogenous the climate change externality would involve assigning
 213 a price tag on all forms of greenhouse gas emissions, and, conversely, providing a
 214 subsidy on any form of greenhouse gas removal from the atmosphere. In practice,
 215 however, limitations in the measurement of emissions, transaction costs and political
 216 economy considerations result in the implementation of a large array of instruments,
 217 each covering parts of the above-mentioned emissions.

218 In fact, although it is of importance for national emission targets under the Kyoto
 219 Protocol via articles 3.3 and 3.4, carbon removal from the atmosphere is, for the most
 220 part, excluded from the perimeter of existing climate policies. In addition, in the EU,
 221 the Emissions Trading Scheme (EU ETS) caps the CO₂ emissions of large point sources
 222 in certain sectors. Carbon taxes are thus considered as an option for limiting emissions
 223 from small-scale sources in the ETS-covered sectors, as well as emissions from the other
 224 sectors of the economy (e.g., transportation, agriculture, etc.).

225 A second set of issues regards emissions sources covered by the scheme. In this
 226 paper, since only energy products for heat production purposes are considered, we do
 227 not take into account either fossil-fuel emissions related to transformation processes
 228 (e.g., CO₂ emissions associated with cement production process) or carbon embedded
 229 in products (e.g., plastics).

230 Carbon tax rate

231 As presented in the introduction, an initial value of €17/tCO₂ + €2/tCO₂/yr was
 232 announced by the Government on acceptability grounds in 2009. Our simulations are
 233 therefore based on this value of €17/tCO₂ in 2010 + €2/tCO₂/yr.

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Carbon tax base and economic implications for non-wood products

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Since we only deal with energy products here, we assumed that the carbon tax only applies to CO₂ emissions from fossil-fuel combustion and to fossil-fuel consumed for transportation. In particular, we did not take CO₂ emissions from other chemical processes or fossil-fuel embedded in products into account. Emissions factors were taken from Traisnel et al. (2010)

Product	Emission factor (tCO ₂ /MWh final energy)
Coal	0.355
fuel oil	0.271
Gas	0.205
Electricity (for heating purposes)	0.180
Wood	0

Table 1: Emissions factors for the five energy sources considered in the paper

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Concerning transport, we assumed that the road is the dominant transportation mode, with an average emissions level of 128 g eq. C/(t.km) (Barthes et al., 2012).

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Results

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Impacts of an economy-wide carbon tax in FFMSM when implemented alone

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We first simulated a €17/tCO₂ + €2/tCO₂/yr carbon tax without competition with other energy sources. We observed that fuelwood consumption decreases over time. This is due to the fact that a carbon tax on transport cost increases the final fuelwood price. As a consequence, fuelwood production decreases by approximately -0.5% at the national level.

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Second, we explicitly introduced competition. Consequently, fuelwood production increases. Indeed, in this case, the consumer price for fuelwood increases but less than that of non-wood substitutes (see Equation 1) due to a lower carbon emission factor. Thus, the substitution effect between wood and non-wood products clearly dominates the income effect (i.e., the increase in the consumer price of wood products), resulting in net gains of welfare for fuelwood consumers and net gains of profits for fuelwood producers. Overall, fuelwood production increases by 1.8% at the national level with a €17/tCO₂ + €2/tCO₂/yr.

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Nevertheless, even if production increases at the national level, Fig. 3 shows that this is not necessarily the case at the regional level. Indeed, by increasing transport

262 costs, the carbon tax reallocates production next to consumption areas, therefore mod-
 263 ifying the interregional trade pattern. More precisely, Fig. 3 shows that production
 264 either increases in importing regions when additional biomass is available enough. In
 265 other cases, it remains stable. Conversely, production either increases or decreases
 266 in exporting regions depending on their location: production increases in exporting
 267 regions located close enough to importing regions, whereas production decreases in
 268 exporting regions located far from importing regions. Modifications in transport pat-
 269 terns and, therefore, in regional production are consistent with spatial price theory of
 270 Samuelson (1952). In particular, some regions that were initially neither importer nor
 271 exporter can become exporter or importer because of the increase in transportation
 272 costs.

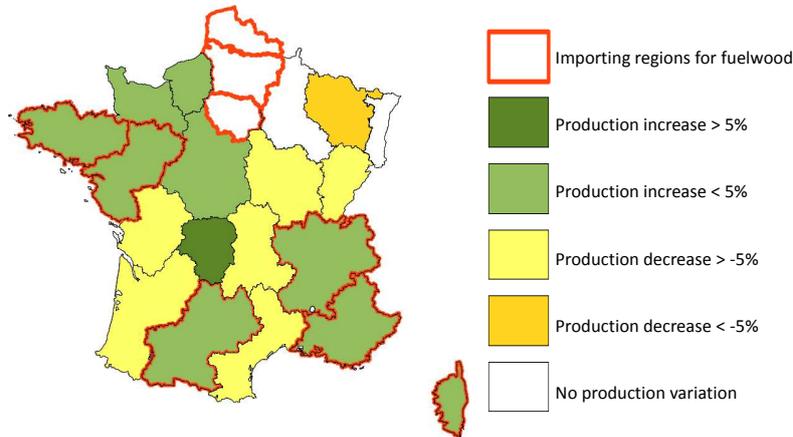


Figure 3: Regional variations in 2020 fuelwood production after a $\text{€}17/\text{tCO}_2 + \text{€}2/\text{tCO}_2/\text{yr}$ carbon tax is implemented with regard to a scenario without tax.

273 Interestingly, this $\text{€}17/\text{tCO}_2 + \text{€}2/\text{tCO}_2/\text{yr}$ carbon tax only increases fuelwood
 274 consumption by +4.1%, i.e., 0.93 Mm^3 . Therefore, this tax rate would not be sufficient
 275 to reach the target of $6 \text{ Mm}^3/\text{yr}$ in 2020 in fuelwood consumption set by the French
 276 Government to match its overall mitigation objectives. More precisely, in our analysis,
 277 these national objectives would be reached for a $\text{€}250/\text{tCO}_2$ carbon tax, i.e., a very
 278 high value compared to current negotiated values.

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 280 Therefore, we have reason to believe that even if a carbon tax is implemented in
 281 the future, existing sectoral fuelwood policies would remain necessary. Our aim in the

282 next section is precisely to assess the potential impacts of this combination.

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284 **Combining a carbon tax with sectoral fuelwood policies**

285 **Modeling fuelwood policies in FFSM**

286 The European Union set the objective of increasing the share of renewable resources in
287 its overall energy mix to 20 % by 2020. In France, where forest resources are abundant
288 and where annual increment exceeds harvest levels, biomass energy is expected to play
289 a major role to achieve this objective.

290 In the forest sector, some people fear these projects could strengthen the com-
291 petition with the pulp, panel and paper sectors, which use the same raw materials
292 as those used for fuelwood. Moreover, others fear an over-harvesting situation. In-
293 deed, at the national level, Colin et al. (2009) and Ginisty et al. (2009) estimate an
294 additional resource for industrial uses (fuelwood and pulp sectors) of approximately
295 12 Mm³/yr. More precisely they estimate an additional amount of biomass available
296 of approximately 40 to 50 Mm³/yr from which they remove all of the resources that
297 are technically impossible to harvest or for which harvest would be too costly. How-
298 ever this value may overestimate the real additional availability since, in fact, French
299 forests combine a very diverse population of forest owners, and forest property rights
300 are highly fragmented. In particular, some smallholders might not react to market
301 incentives.

302 In order to contribute to and to clarify these two debates, we translated the official
303 objectives of additional consumption of fuelwood into three policies to be simulated
304 within FFSM during the 2012-2020 period. First, we modeled an exogenous increase
305 in demand, which mimics the current policy of encouraging medium- to large-scale
306 biomass energy plant development. In this case, the Government guarantees a given
307 amount of public purchase on the market (*fixed-demand contracts*). We also consid-
308 ered two alternative policies to reach the same total increase in fuelwood demand: a
309 *consumer subsidy* and a *producer subsidy*. These two subsidies represent the economic
310 incentives to change collective and domestic boilers.

311 Caurla (2012b, pp.213-259) and Caurla et al. (2009) analyzed the impacts of
312 these fuelwood policies with FFSM in-depth, differentiating between resource and
313 economic impacts. From the point of view of resource impacts, they showed that
314 the intensity of the tension over the forest resource depends on the nature of the
315 policy as well as on the theoretical additional resource availability in the forest. To
316 cope with uncertainty about additional resources, Caurla (2012b, pp.213-259) and
317 Caurla et al. (2009) considered two levels of resource availability: an optimistic level
318 based on the estimations of Colin and Chevalier (2009) and Ginisty et al. (2009) and
319 a pessimistic one of approximately 6 Mm³/yr, which takes uncertainties concerning

320 the timber suppliers behavior into account. They showed that the three policies
321 considered would lead to a harvest which exceeds biological increment in 2020 in the
322 pessimistic case. On the other hand, only the producer subsidy would lead to tension
323 in 2020 in the optimistic case. This result points out the differences between the
324 three policies but also reveals the importance of mobilizing all of the forest owners,
325 including small forest owners, to make further efforts in fuelwood production in order
326 to avoid over-harvesting situations in some forests.
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328 **Combination of a carbon tax with a direct fuelwood policy**

329 Since a carbon tax alone increases fuelwood production, a combination of fuelwood
330 policies with a carbon tax may raise the question of sustainability of wood production.

331 However, in contrast to fuelwood policies that have homogenous impacts on the
332 French forest resource, the impact of a carbon tax on the forest resource is different
333 from one region to another. Since a carbon tax increases fuelwood production in
334 regions with high consumption, whereas it decreases production in low-consumption
335 regions, combining fuelwood policies and a carbon tax may lead to an over-harvesting
336 situation in high-consumption areas – i.e., importing regions.
337

338 To test this assumption we compare the results of three scenarios. In the first
339 scenario we simulate a €17/tCO₂ (+€2/tCO₂/yr) carbon tax alone, whereas in the
340 second scenario we simulate a subsidy to fuelwood consumption calibrated to reach
341 an additional 6 Mm³/yr consumption by 2020. In the third scenario, we simulate a
342 combination of a €17/tCO₂ (+€2/tCO₂/yr) carbon tax and a subsidy to fuelwood
343 consumption calibrated to reach an additional 6 Mm³/yr consumption by 2020.
344 Results are reported in Table 2.
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346 Results show that, when policies are implemented alone, both the carbon tax and
347 the subsidy for fuelwood consumption decrease the forest stock at the national level,
348 although the impact is much lower with the carbon tax. This impact is even greater
349 when the two policies are combined. However this combination only slightly decreases
350 the forest stock compared to a scenario with a fuelwood policy alone. More precisely,
351 a regional analysis shows that adding a carbon tax to a fuelwood subsidy decreases
352 the forest stock only in importing regions with regard to a scenario with a fuelwood
353 subsidy alone. Conversely, a carbon tax decreases harvest and thus increases the forest
354 stock compared to a scenario without a tax in exporting regions. Overall, the relatively
355 low stock effect can be explained by the low carbon tax price, leading to a low increase
356 in fuelwood consumption (+0.93 Mm³/yr in 2020).

	Carbon tax alone	Fuelwood alone	policy	Combination of fuelwood policy and carbon tax
Producer surplus	31.8	350.3		399.6
Consumer surplus	-54.7	146.6		93
Forest resource	-0.12%	-2.23%		-2.41 %

Table 2: Consumer and producer surpluses in 2020 in M€ at national level and forest resource stock in 2020 in % in the three policy scenarios with regard to a business-as-usual (BAU) scenario without a policy

357 From the economic point of view, combining a carbon tax and a fuelwood policy
358 increases producers' profits with regard to a scenario with only fuelwood policy at the
359 national level. This is because both policies increase consumption and, thus, production
360 of wood products. Their impacts are therefore greater for producers' profits. However,
361 the combination leads to an intermediary situation for consumers. Indeed, while a
362 fuelwood subsidy increases consumer surpluses, the carbon tax increases wood product
363 prices and, therefore, decreases consumer surpluses.

364 Combining a sequestration policy with a carbon tax

365 Presentation of the sequestration policy

366 The sequestration policy consists in paying forest owners for the environmental service
367 they produce by sequestering carbon. Each year, timber suppliers receive a payment
368 from the Government (P_t) that is computed as the difference between the amount
369 of carbon sequestered in standing forests (C_t) and a reference amount of carbon se-
370 questered in standing forests (C_t^{REF}), times the price of annual carbon sequestration
371 (P_{ct}): $P_t = P_{ct}(C_t - C_t^{REF})$. Note that the payment can be negative (tax) if the
372 carbon stock falls below a reference level. We only consider above-ground biomass,
373 which under-estimates the environmental service but allows for easier accounting. We
374 also use the rule-of-thumb approximation that one cubic meter of standing biomass
375 stores one metric ton of CO₂ (Carbofor, 2004).

376 The annual payment for carbon sequestration P_{ct} is the constant annual value
377 corresponding to a price of permanent (i.e., indefinite) sequestration of P_c equal to
378 €17/tCO₂ (+€2/tCO₂/yr) using a 4% discount rate. In other words, the discounted
379 sum *ad infinitum* of annual payments P_{ct} , at a rate of discount of 4%, is P_c . Like
380 the price of permanent sequestration, this annuity is revised every year as the price

381 of permanent sequestration increases and, therefore, increases from €0.68/tCO₂/year
382 in 2010 to €1.48/tCO₂/year in 2020. With an annual payment based on measured
383 sequestration, this policy is environmentally consistent. For example, accidental release
384 of carbon via fires or hurricanes would result in lower annual payments, or even in
385 negative payments (tax) if carbon stocks were to fall below a reference level.

386 It is important to note that, in practice, a payment for the environmental service
387 sequestration is very likely to be voluntary. In other words, timber suppliers will self-
388 select themselves and will enter the program only if it makes them better off to do so.
389 We do not directly model this voluntary participation condition, but instead assume
390 that participation is compulsory, and then test *ex post* whether suppliers are better off
391 or not.

392 In addition, in the current version of FFSM, wood supply depends only on current
393 market prices: expectations about future revenues and/or costs do not enter into
394 timber suppliers' decisions. As a result, wood suppliers factor the payment for carbon
395 storage in their supply decisions only to the extent it influences the *current* price of
396 timber.

397
398 Using FFSM, Lecocq et al. (2011) show that this sequestration policy has nega-
399 tive impacts on the consumers welfare. Indeed, though it increases producers' profits
400 through the payment for sequestered carbon, it also increases prices for consumers re-
401 sulting in a decrease in consumer surpluses. Thus this policy is likely to raise political
402 economy questions. From the environmental point of view, Lecocq et al. (2011) showed
403 that a sequestration policy increases the forest carbon stock by decreasing harvest over
404 the French territory.

405 **Combination of a carbon tax and a sequestration policy**

406 Combining a carbon tax and a sequestration policy *a priori* leads to ambiguous impacts
407 from the point of view of both resources and economics.

408 To test this, we designed three scenarios: a scenario with a carbon tax alone, a
409 scenario with a sequestration policy alone and a combination thereof. Table 3 gives
410 the sum of producer and consumer surpluses at national level in 2020, and the variation
411 of forest resource stock with regard to a business-as-usual scenario without policy.

412 First, results show that combining a carbon tax with a sequestration policy in-
413 creases producers profits at the national level with regard to a scenario with a carbon
414 tax or a sequestration policy alone. There are two components in this effect. On
415 the first hand, in regions where the carbon tax increases production, the forest stock
416 decreases and a sequestration policy acts as a tax. Consequently, the sequestration
417 component of the policy turns into a net tax for reductions in carbon storage relative
418 to a BAU scenario. This decreases producers' profits in these regions. On the other

	Carbon tax alone	Sequestration policy alone	Sequestration pol- icy + Carbon tax
Producer surplus	31.8	5.3	38.7
Consumer surplus	-54.7	-3.4	-58.1
Forest resource	-0.12%	+0.05%	-0.07%

Table 3: Consumer and producer surpluses in 2020 in M€ at national level and forest resource stock in 2020 in % with regard to a business-as-usual scenario without a policy

419 hand, in regions where the carbon tax decreases production – by increasing transport
420 costs – the sequestration policy acts as a subsidy and greatly increases producers’
421 profits. Interestingly, adding these two opposite effects leads to an overall increase in
422 producers’ profits at the national level with regard to a scenario with a carbon tax or
423 a sequestration policy alone. In contrast to conclusions stemming from Lecocq et al.
424 (2011) when combining a sequestration and a substitution policy, the combination of a
425 carbon tax with a sequestration policy globally increases producers profits with regard
426 to a single policy scenario.

427 Second, results show that the consumer surplus is lower when combining a carbon
428 tax with a sequestration policy than when a carbon tax or a sequestration policy
429 are implemented alone. Indeed, both the carbon tax and the sequestration policy
430 increase final wood product prices and these impacts are greater when combining the
431 two policies. This impact on consumer surpluses raises the question of the political
432 feasibility of a combination of these two policies.

433 From the point of view of the forest stock, the two policies are conflicting. In fact
434 the sequestration policy increases the forest stock, whereas the carbon tax increases
435 production and, therefore, decreases it. However, since we do not represent competition
436 for all wood products and non-wood substitutes, the impacts of a carbon tax on the
437 forest stock are very likely to be under-estimated in our simulations. In addition, the
438 carbon tax does not decrease the forest stock in all regions. Again, in regions where
439 the carbon tax decreases production, due to production reallocation, the combination
440 of a sequestration policy and a carbon tax increases the forest stock regarding the BAU
441 scenario. In the Aquitaine region, for example, the forest stock increases by +1.1%
442 with regard to the BAU scenario and by +1% with regard to a scenario with only
443 sequestration.

Discussion and Conclusion

What makes the relationships between mitigation policies within the forest sector complex are their potential antagonisms and complementarities over the economy and the resource. In order to reduce mitigation costs, it is necessary to favor complementarities and to avoid antagonisms. In this paper, our aim was to explore the effects of a combination of an inter-sectoral carbon tax with two sectoral-type mitigation policies, namely a sequestration policy and a fuelwood policy. Although such a combination does not exist in France yet, since no carbon tax is implemented, such a combination may take place in the near future. In addition, our conclusions can be transposed to other developed countries where an inter-sectoral carbon tax is likely to interact with sectoral policies. Precisely, we believe our results hold for developed countries with temperate forests such as the majority of European and North American countries. In fact, in developing countries, other issues such as governance issues may interact with the implementation of a carbon tax or a forest-carbon sequestration scheme. In addition, other types of forest sectors such as tropical ones differ from French one from both economic (wood products are different) and resource dynamics points of view.

Our analysis yields four main results. First, we show that implementing an inter-sectoral €17/tCO₂ (+€2/tCO₂/yr) carbon tax in addition to a sectoral subsidy for fuelwood consumption calibrated to increase consumption by 6 Mm³/yr in 2020 does not threaten forest resource sustainability at the national level. This is because the relatively low carbon tax moderately increases fuelwood consumption and, therefore, moderately increases fuelwood production. However, one important limitation of this conclusion lies in the tax base chosen. In fact, we only simulate competition between fuelwood and non-wood energy sources here. In reality, an inter-sectoral carbon tax would increase the production of most wood products (Barthes et al., 2012). As a consequence, the forest stock is likely to decrease even more in reality. However, measuring the order of magnitude of this overall impact is beyond the scope of this article. It would be necessary to model all competitions between wood and non-wood products which, as Barthes et al. (2012) remind us, is a very data-demanding process (in terms of carbon emission factors, elasticities of substitution, aggregation, ...).

Second, we show that producers always benefit at the national level from the combination of an inter-sectoral carbon tax with either a sequestration or a fuelwood sectoral policy. In the case of a combination with a fuelwood policy, this is because both of the policies increase national fuelwood production and fuelwood price. In the case of a combination with a sequestration policy this is because the overall production increase in fuelwood exporting regions exceeds the overall production decrease in importing regions. The net overall effect is positive at the national level.

483 Third, the consumer surplus always decreases when a carbon tax is implemented
484 in addition to an existing sectoral policy. This can be explained by the fact that
485 the carbon tax increases wood product prices. In the case of a combination with a
486 sequestration policy, which already decreases the consumer surplus, our simulations
487 raise questions about the political feasibility of such a scenario².

488
489 A fourth important result is that by having an impact on transport costs, an
490 inter-sectoral carbon tax would modify regional production patterns and inter-regional
491 trade schemes. In the specific case where a carbon tax is combined with a sequestration
492 policy, an interesting way to make these two policies complementary would be to
493 consider sequestration as a voluntary process in regions where production decreases
494 after a carbon tax is implemented. This would lead to a specialization of forests. In
495 regions where a tax has a negative impact on production, timber that is not harvested
496 for production might be left for sequestration. On the contrary, in high-consumption
497 regions, forest owners would choose not to engage in sequestration processes. In
498 addition making sequestration policies voluntary might raise their probability of
499 success.

500
501 Eventually, it must be kept in mind that what happens in the rest of the economy
502 makes the political economy of an integrative forest policy even more complex. For
503 example, several concerns have been raised about the implication of a national car-
504 bon tax on international competitiveness. In particular the chemistry and metallurgy
505 sectors could be burdened by such a tax. Thus, these sectors might benefit from a
506 reduction of the tax level, whereas the forest sector would not. This would result in
507 a differential tax with regard to the sector to which it applies, and the forest sector
508 might no longer benefit in this case. One way to study these interactions in the future
509 would be to conduct a similar analyse but using a general modeling framework.

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²However, this conclusion does not take into account general equilibrium considerations, such as the recycling of the tax revenues.

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