

ENERGY & ENVIRONMENT DIVISION

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AN AS**SESSMENT** O**F FUTURE ENERGY USE AND CARBON EMIS**S**IONS FROM U.S. RESIDENCES**

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Jonathan G. Koomey, Francis X. Johnson, James E. McMahon, Mary C. Orland, Mark D. Levine, Peter Chan, and Florentin Krause

> Energy Analysis Program Energy and Environment Division Lawrence Berkeley Laboratory University of California Berkeley, CA 94720, USA

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AN **A**SS**ESSMENT OF FUTURE E**N**ERGY USE AND CARBON EM**IS**SIO**N**S FROM U.S. RESIDENCES**

Jonath**an G**. K**oo**m**ey**, **Francis X.** J**o**h**nson**, **James E**. **McMa**h**on**, **Mary C**. **O**r**land**, **Mark D. Levine**, **Peter C**h**an**, **and Florentin** Kr**ause**

Ene**rgy Analysis Program**, **Lawrenc**e **Berkel**e**y La**b**oratory**

ABSTRACT

Th**is paper** e**xplores residential energy futures and t**h**ei**r **asso**c**iated carbon e**mi**ssions using an** e**ngineering-economic end-use** m**od**e**l**. **We present detailed input assu**m**ptio**n**s and** output results for twenty-four cases, each representing a different combination of electricity **supply** m**ix**, **de**m**and-sid**e **policy cas**e, **and car**b**on tax**. **W**e **describe cu**r**rent and p**r**ojected** f**utur**e **energy use by** e**nd-us**e **and fuel**, **and assess** wh**ic**h **end-uses are gro**w**ing most rapidly in im**p**ortanc**e **ove**r **ti**me**.**

AN ASSESSMENT OF FUTURE ENERGY USE AND CARBON EMISSIO**NS FROM U.S. RESIDENCES***

Jonath**an G**. K**oom**e**y**, **Francis X. Jo**h**nson**, **James** E. **M**c**Ma**h**on**, **Mary C**. **O**r**land, Mark D**. **Levine**, **Peter C**h**an**, **and Florentin** K**rause**

Energy Analysis Program, **Lawr**e**nc**e **B**e**rkel**e**y La**b**oratory**

*1***.** *INTRODUCTION*

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Forecasting models h**ave been used extensively to assess** the e**ffect of gov**e**rnm**e**nt policy initiatives on resid**e**ntial energy use** (**Carls**m**it**h e**t al**. **1990**, **US DOE 1990**, **US DOE 1991***1*1**992**)**. Suc**h **analyses** h**ave taken on grea**_**r urgency because of concerns t**h**at gre**e**n**h**ouse gas** e**missions from energy use may affect t**h**e global climate** (**US EPA 199**0**)**. **T**h**is paper** e**xplo**r**es residential ene**r**gy use and associated carbon emissions using** an e**nd-**use model th**a**t relies heavily on engineering-economic data characterizing the cost of improving energy efficiency in appliances, space conditioning equipment, and build**i**ng sh,*A*ls.

Sec*ti*on II describes the modeling methodology and assumptions used to create forecasts of residential energy use, including descriptions of the Lawrence Berkeley Laboratory's Residential Energy Model's (LBL REM's) structure and the required input data. Section III summarizes the key results of the modeling runs, and' Section IV summa**ri**zes conclusions. Appendix A contains detailed tables and figures with the results of the many model runs completed for this report. Appendix B summarizes calculations of power plant busbar costs for comparison to the carbon taxes considered in this study.

IL MODELING METHODOLOGY AND ASSUMPTIONS

This section first outlines the import**a**nt structural features of LBL REM and describes the sources and methods for compiling the necessary data.

LBL REM-g**e**n**e**ral str**u**cture

LBL REM is an engineering-economic model that has been used for analyses of appliance efficiency standards since 1981 (McMahon et al. 1987). The model separates residential energy use into four fuels (electricity, natural gas, oil, other*/*LPG), three building types (single-family, multi-family, and mobile homes) and twelve end-uses (central heating, room heating, air conditioning, water heating, refrigeration, freezing, cooking, clothes drying, lighting, dish washing, clothes washing, and miscellaneous).

Exogenous inputs include housing starts, number of households, personal income, and energy prices. Baseline data inputs include base year appliance saturations, base year unit energy consumptions (UECs), base year efficiency factors, and econometrically estimated

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parameters describing the relationship between income, appliance purchases, and appliance usage. Outputs include pro**j**ected energy use by end-use, projected UECs, projected efficiency factors, and projected fuel and capital expenditures in real dollars and present values.

LBL REM characterizes the decisions of the market for efficiency using an empiricallyderived "market discount rate" that often exceeds the cost of capital (see Appendix A for details). In the reference case, the model calculates life-cycle costs (LCCs) using this discount rate and chooses the efficiency for new appliances that minimizes LCC. One can al*s*o force the model to calculate LCCs using a lower discount rate (e.g., 7% real), a procedure which in a crude sense allows the user to estimate the size of the technoeco**n**o**mic po**ten**ti**al implie**d** in the model inputs.

We used this procedure in some of the LBL REM runs in Appendix A, but we have concluded upon re**fl**ection that LBL REM (a model designed to estimate the impacts of appliance efficiency standards) is not well suited to such an exercise. Estimates of the techno-economic potential are best undertaken in the more traditional "conservation supply curves" framework as exemplified by Koomey et al. (1991) and enhanced by Brown (1993). We therefore admonish the reader to treat the "7% real discount rate" cases outlined in Appendix A with caution.

LBL REM-baseline data

The LBL REM defaults are assumed for equipment saturations, UECs, costs of efficiency improvements, and elasticities. The data in this model have been improved periodically over the past eleven years, using surveys of appliance manufacturers and home builders, and econometrically derived estimates of usage elasticities, cross-p*ri*ce elasticities, ownprice elasticities, and other parameters. The most important data are documented in the technical support documents for the appliance efficiency standards impact analyses (US DOE 1988, US DOE 1989a, US DOE 1989b, US DOE 1990), as well as in supporting documents (Ruderman et al. 1987, Wood et al. 1989a, Wood et al. 1989b, Wood et al. **1**9**8**9c)*.* In LBL REM, electricity is converted to primary energy at 11,500 Btus*/*kWh.

Macroe**conomic and fuel price assu**m**ptions**

Appendix A shows the exogenous input assumptions in the Reference case taken from the National Energy Strategy's (NES's) Technical Annex 2 (US DOE 1991*/*1992) and the Annual Energy Outlook (US DOE 1991a). The total number of households is projected to increase more than 40% over the 40 year analysis period, and household income is expected to grow 54% in real terms from 1990 to 2030. Natural gas, distillate oil, and LPG prices are projected to grow at annual rates from 1.0 to 1.9% in real terms, while real electricity prices are projected to grow only 0.3% per year over the analysis period.

HI. *RESULTS*

Ene**rgy us**e **by end-use in th**e **referenc**e **case**

Figure **1 s**h**o**w **t**he e**nd-us**e b**r**e**akdo**w**ns ov**e**r tim**e **for** e**l**e**ctricity. Spac**e **conditioning compris**e**s 25-30% of prima**r**y** e**lectricity us**e **in t**he **r**e**sid**e**ntial secto**r, w**it**h w**at**er h**eating**, refrigeration, and lighting contributing much of the rest. Figure 2 shows that together, **space** he**ating and** w**ater** he**ating account for mor**e th**an 90% of natural gas** e**nergy us**e **in residences**, with space heating comprising about 70% of natural gas energy use, and vater he**ating adding** an**ot**he**r 20%.**

Figure 1: Residential Primary Electric Energy Use by End-Use, Reference Case $(Case 1)$

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Figure 2: Residential Natural Gas Use by End-Use, Reference Case (Case 1)

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The **d**ata used to construct these figures (fr**o**m Appen**d**ix A) reveals that the five largest enduse fuel categories in 1990 (in primary energy terms) are, in order of decreasing importance, natural gas space heating (central plus room), electric water heating, electric resistance space heating, oil space heating, and natural gas water heating. Together these four end-uses comprise about 8 quadrillion Btus of resource energy in 1990, or about half of total residential primary energy use.

Fi**g**ure 3 summarizes projected reference case growth in electricity demand by end use for the period 1990-2000. On the left hand Y axis is the average annual rate of growth in a given end use. Striped bars should be compared to this axis. On the right hand Y axis (which is associated with the solid bars) is the total reference case growth in primary electricity for a given end use, expressed in quads. This figure shows which end uses are growing fa**s**test in percentage and absolute terms.

Average annual percentage electricity demand growth as forecasted by LBL REM is about 1.2%*/*year. End uses growing faster than this average include electric resistance and heat pump heating, heat pump cooling, cooking, and miscellaneous. Electricity use associated with refrigerator/freezers and freezers is declining at 2% to 5% per year, in large part because of the 1993 efficiency standards on these products.

In absolute terms, the largest contributors to electricity demand growth are electric resistance and heat pump heating, water heating, cooking, lighting, and miscellaneous. Refrigerator*/*freezers show a larger absolute decline in energy use than do freezers because refrigerator*/*freezers are more commonly used than are individual freezers. Part of the decline in freezer energy use is caused by lower saturations of these appliances in new homes. As shown in Appendix A, Table A.14. Total net growth in electricity demand from 1990-2000 is 1.25 quads of primary energy.

Effects of appliance **efficiency standards**

Appliance **standards now exist for most r**e**sidential** e**nd uses, including** w**at**e**r** he**aters, furnac**e**s**, h**eat pumps, c**e**ntral air condition**e**rs**, **room ai**r **conditioners**, **dis**h**was**he**rs, clot**he**s** washers, dryers, refrigerator/freezers, and freezers. Figure 4 shows that savings from all **applianc**e **standards no**w **in plac**e (**not including t**he **1994 EPACT s**h**o**w**er**he**ad and fauc**e**t standards)** w**ill total a**b**out 0**.**5 quads in 2000 and 0**.**8 quads in 2010**. **Y**ear **2000 savings ,**i**r**e **2.7% of for**e**cas**te**d primary** e**ne**r**gy use** w**it**h**out standards**, wh**ile 2010 savings a**re 4.5**%** of forecaste**d pri**mary energy use.

About 3*/*4 of the projected savings are in electricity. The bulk of the electric savings are from refrigerator*/*freezers, freezers, and central air conditioners.

About 1*/*5 of the projected savings are in natural gas end-uses, with furnaces and water heaters accounting for almost all of these savings. Included in the water heating savings are reductions in hot water use brought about by standards on dishwashers and clothes washers in homes with gas water heaters.

" Static menus of tech**nology options**

LBL REM projects future appliance e**ffi**c**i**ency cho**i**ce**s** base**d** on life-cycle cost minimizatio**n** using the market discount rate. The model assesses the life-cycle cost for a whole range of technology options, and chooses the option with the lowest LCC. This set of technology

Figure 3: Reference case changes in US residential primary electricity use 1990-2000, expressed in quads and as an average annual percentage rate

Figure 4: Primary energy savings from appliance standards

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options can include advanced technology and for some end-uses in LBL REM, it does. However, in LBL REM as curren**t**!y implemented, this menu of options and the characteristics of each technology on the menu remain fixed throughout the a*n*alysis period. In general, we expect that technological change over four decades will result in lower costs for currently existing efficiency options, and will create new options that save more energy **t**han any existing or proto**t**ype technologies. These expected effects on the menu of technology options are not accounted for in the LBL REM forecasts.

Figure **5** shows the main result of assuming static menus of technology options. This Figure compares projected demand growth in the reference case (with appliance standards) with a case where the market discount rate used by LBL REM is reduced to 7% real, as well a*s* with the 7% real case with \$100*/*tonne carbon taxes. By sometime soon after 2010, electricity demand growth in the Reference Case becomes quite similar to that in the 7% Market Discount Ra*te* Case. Even the addition of carbon taxes in the case with the highest carbon intensity (the NES Current Policy Ba*s*e) fails to change this result substantially.

This Figure confirms that any residential-sector modeling methodology that fails to account for technological change cannot be relied on for policy impact analyses beyond about a 20 year time frame. This time period corresponds to the maximum lifetimes for most residential appliances and equipment (20-25 years).

IV. *CONCLUSIONS*

Our analysis leads to the following conclusions:

- 1) Total residential sector primary energy use and carbon emissions will remain roughly constant over the 1990-2000 period.
- 2) Residen*t*ial *electricity* demand will grow at 1.2%*/*year over the 1990-2000 period. Electrical end uses growing faster than this average over the 1990-2000 period include electric resistance and heat pump heating, heat pump cooling, cooking, and miscellaneous.
- 3) In absolute terms (quadrillion BTUs of primary energy), the largest projected contributors to residential electricity demand growth over the 1990-2000 period are electric resistance and heat pump heating, water heating, cooking, lighting, and miscellaneous.
- 4) Total elect*ri*city use associated with residential refrigerator*/*freezers and freezers will decline at 2% to 5% per year from 1990-2000, in large part because of the 1993 efficiency standards on these products.
- 5) *A*ppliance efficiency standards now in place for many end-uses will reduce residential primary energy use by 0.5 quads (2.7%) in 2000 and 0.8 quads (4.5%) in 2010 compared to a business-as-usual case without the standards.
- 6) Any residential-sec**t**or modeling methodology that fails to account for technological change is ill-suited for policy impact analyses that extend beyond about a 20-year time frame.

We are now creating detailed input data for the Electric Power Research Institute's REEPS forecasting framework, with the ultimate goal of replacing LBL REM for policy analysis purposes (Hwang et al. 1993, Johnson et al. 1993). This new tool combines great flexibility with a user-friendly interface.

Figure 5: Annual average growth rates in electricity demand for the U.S. residential sector

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APPENDIX A: DETAILED PRESENTATION OF ASSUMPTIONS AND RESULTS

*A***.***I: LBL REM MARKET EFFICIENCY CHOICES*

For e**ac**h e**nd-us**e, **LBL REM contains a relations**h**ip b**e**t**w**een consumer** e**quipment pric**e an**d** energ**y** use pe**r ap**pliance per year**.** These cost-efficienc**y** re**l**ationsh**i**p**s** are **d**erived fro**m** engineering data and from surveys of appliance manufacturers,¹

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The calculation of life-cycle costs requires a discount rate and a lifetime of the appliance.² In engineering calculations, the discount ra**t**e is usually chosen to re**fl**ect the cost of capital to the appliance purchaser (say 3 to 7% real). This discount rate plus the lifetime of the appliance can be used to calculate an annualized capital cost (Levine et al. 1985).

The annualized life-cycle cost of an appliance is defined as the annual operating costs plus the annualized capital costs. The curves of equipment price versus annual energy use can be converted to curves of life-cycle cost versus annual energy use by annualizing the equipment pri**c**e and adding the an'aual operating expenses. The minimum life-cycle cost point on such curves defines the **m**ost cost-effective comb**i**nation of capital and operating costs, given fuel prices and other assumptions.

Consumers often purchase appliances that are far from the minimum life-cycle cost point in terms of energy use (if life-cycle costs are calculated using discount rates similar to the cost of capital). When consumers exhibit such behavior, we can apply the concept of LCC minimization to "work backwards": given the average energy use of appliances that consumers purchase, we can calculate the "market discount rate" that results in a minimum life-cycle cost for the capital costs embodied in the appliance-cost-versus-energy-use curves. The market discount rate is an *e*m*pirical parameter* that characterizes the total of all factors affecting the efficiency of energy use, including cognitive biases, manufacturer behavior, retailer behavior, transactions costs, and other costs that are usually not included in the engineering calculations upon which assessments of conservation potential are often based.

Market discount rates are calculated using the method just described, and then applied throughout the analysis period to calculate life-cycle costs. The market is assumed to minimize life-cycle costs *using the market discount rate*. This method does not imply that any single consumer actually uses the market discount rates, but that the use of this dis**c**ount rate with our cost-efficiency curves will yield an approximate characterization of the way the market for efficiency actually behaves at the margin. Previous analysis indicates that market discount rates, as defined in this fashion, have been fairly constant over time (Ruderman et al. 1987).

¹T**he ma**rk**upsn**ee**d**edto e**stima**te**cons**umer **p**r**i**ce **f**r**om** the e**n**g**in**ee**ri**ng-base**dm**an**uf**a**c**t**u**rer**cos**ts are calculated using a model of manufacturer behavior developed by LBL for the appliance efficiency standards analysis (US DOE 1990).

² In the formulation of life-cycle costs described here, the discount rate and device lifetime are used to annualize the capital costs of the appliance. Alternatively, the discount rate can be applied to the projected annual operating costs of the appliance to present-value those costs and allow them to be added to the capital costs. Both formulations may be referred to as "life-cycle costing" and are functionally equivalent, but the first method is more commonly used.

*A***.***2: INPUT DATA*

Macroeconomic and fuel price assumptions

Table **A.1 s**h**ows t**he e**xog**e**nous input assumptions in t**he **R**e**f**e**r**e**nc**e **cas**e**. T**he **total** number of households are taken from the National Energy Strategy's (NES's) Technical Annex 2, and are projected to increase more than 40% over the 40-year analysis period. **M**e**dian** h**ous**eh**old inco**me **is c**al**culat**e**d by taking total** pe**rsonal incom**e **from t**he **Annual Energy Outlook (US DOE 1991a)**, e**xtrapolating it to 2030 using 2000 to 2010 grow**th **rat**e**s, and dividing t**h**is total income by** the **nu**mbe**r of** h**ous**eh**olds from** the **NES T**ech**nic**al Annex 2. Household income is expected to grow 54% in real terms from 1990 to 2030. Reference case fuel prices are taken from the National Energy Strategy's Technical Annex (US DOE 1991/1992). Natural gas prices are projected to show 1.9%/year growth in real terms, the largest rate of increase for any fuel included in this analysis. Real natural gas prices more than double over this period. Distillate oil and LPG prices show real increases **averaging 1**.**2% p**e**r year and 1.0% p**e**r y**ear **respectiv**e**ly**, wh**ile r**eal e**l**e**ctricity prices gro**w **only at 0.3%** pe**r y**e**ar ov**e**r t**he **analysis p**eri**od.**

The fuel prices without carbon taxes in the NES excursion are assumed to be the same as in the **NES Cu**r**r**e**nt Policy B**ase**. As Table A.2 s**h**o**w**s**, **t**h**is** as**su**m**ption introduces only a minor** e**rror into t**he re**sults. It** al**so greatly r**e**duces t**he **numb**e**r of mod**e**ling runs,** wh**ic**h **is w**h**y w**e **adopt**e**d t**h**is conv**e**n**ti**on**.

Policy cases

Table A.3 summarize**s t**he **policy cases t**h**at** we **an**al**yz**e. **T**h**es**e **cases vary in t**he**ir** electricity supply mix, size of carbon tax, and demand-side case. This set of cases (24 in **all) captu**re**s a** w**id**e **range of plausibl**e **assu**m**p**ti**ons a**b**out** the **futur**e.

*Elect***r***icity supply mixes*

As shown in Table A.4, carbon taxes on electricity are calculated using three different e**l**e**ctricity supply mix**e**s**, **for two l**e**v**e**ls o**f **carbon tax**e**s** (**\$25***/***tonn**e 3 **of carbon**, **and** \$100/tonne of carbon). Carbon taxes are assumed to be levied on consumers of electricity and fuels (as opposed to levying them on producers who may choose to absorb some of the tax for competitive reasons). These carbon taxes plus the baseline fuel prices from Table **A. 1 ar**e **u**se**d in** the **r**e**l**e**vant policy** c**a**se**s**.

Carbon e**missions factors, c**alc**ulat**e**d as s**h**o**w**n in Table A.5**, **ar**e **d**e**riv**e**d from CEC (1990) using t**he **Nati**o**nal En**e**rgy Strat**e**gy's (NES)** "**Cu**rre**nt Policy Bas**e" **and** "**NES Excursion**" e**lectricity fuel mix**e**s**, **and anillustrativ**e **case** where **coal pl**an**ts** are re**plac**e**d by** a Generic Non-Fossil Resource (we refer to these cases as Supply Side Cases I, II, and III, . re**s**pec**tiv**ely)**. T**hi**s** gene**ri**c resource **i**s assume**d** to cost the **s**ame am**o**unt per k**W**h a**s** the coal plants it displaces (or in other cases to cost the same per kWh as the coal plants plus the \$100*/*tonne carbon tax). These three cases span the likely range of possible carbon intensities for electricity generation.

We use the electricity carbon intensifies (lbs*/*kWh.e) from Supply Side Cases I to III to calculate carbon emissions from residential electricity consumption. We assume that if

³*A*l**l** to**nn**esare **m**etrictonne**s**,de**fi**nedas 2200lb**s**or 1000kg. Al**l** dollar**fi**guresare **in 1**990**U**.S.**d**o**ll**ar**s**.

elect**ri**city demand is reduced by policies, elect**ri**c generation reso**u**rces are deferred in exact proportion to their fraction of electric generation in the case where demand is unaffected by the policies. In principle, more or less carbon intensive resources could be deferred if demand-side policies reduced demand (depending on the load shape characteristics of the conservation and the operating characteristics of the supply resources), thereby changing the electricity carbon burden. For simplicity, we do not account for this second-order effect here.

In the case where the electricity carbon burden is reduced 50% relative to 1990 levels (Supply Side Case III), we also adjust the electricity price to reflect variations in the cost of the generic resource that replaces coal. We define the cost of the generic resource to be equal to that of coal (in which case no change in price is necessary) or equal to the cost of coal plus a \$100*/*tonne carbon tax (which, as Figure B.1 from Appendix B shows, is the same as adding $2\frac{\mu}{k}$ Wh or about 25% to the cost of coal plants or to the generic non-fossil resource). This parametric variation allows us to investigate the effect of a change in resource cost without defining the exact charac**te**r of the generic resource.

We do not take a position on whether Supply Side Case III is desirable, because we have not undertaken the detailed national supply side analysis that would be required for such an assessment. **4** The approach we adopt in this analysis shows what would happen *if such changes on the supply side were implemented*. It is important to include this case here to demonstrate that the demand-side effect of carbon taxes can be reduced substantially if the carbon in**t**ensity of the electricity supply mix changes over the analysis period.

Carbon taxes

Fig**u**r**e** A.1 shows the carbon tax associated with electricity consumption as a function of Supply-Side case and time (for the \$100/tonne carbon tax). The increasing carbon intensity of elect**ri**city generation in the NES Current Policy Base (Supply-Side Case I) is reflected in the **c**arbon tax increasing from 2¢*/*kWh.e in 1990 to 2.5¢*/*kWh.e in 2030. In the NES Scena**ri**o mix (Supply-Side Case II) the carbon burden does not change from 1990 to 2010, but declines slightly by 2030, resulting in a reduced carbon tax of 1.75¢*/*kWh.e. Supply-Side Case III reduces the carbon burden and the carbon tax to 1¢*/*kWh.e by 2030. This figure demonstrates that policies that result in a shift to non-fossil resources on the supply side (such as subsidies for particular technologies), could reduce the effectiveness of a carbon tax on the demand side.

Figure A.2 shows the percentage change in fuel prices due to the \$100/tonne carbon tax in 1990 and 2030, for fuels and electricity. This Figure further reinforces the message of Figure A.1, with the additional complication that escalating fuel prices also reduce the relative (i.e. percentage) impact of carbon taxes over time.

⁴ See Krau**s**e et al (1992**)**,for **a**n analys**i**s **o**f the New Englandreg**io**n that characterize**s**the l**o**w carbon resources necessary for regional power sector carbon intensity reductions of comparable or greater magnitude to those defined in Supply Side Case III.

*Deman*d**-***side cases*

We consider two demand cases⁵: the Reference Case and the 7% Market Discount Rate Case. Results for the Reference Case are calculated using base-case fuel prices and **curr**e**ntly instituted applianc**e **efficiency standa**r**ds**. **T**he **7% Ma**r**k**e**t Discount Ra**te **Cas**e **is** created by assuming that the *market discount rate* (discussed above) is reduced from the empirically-derived values in LBL REM (shown in Table A.6) to 7% real⁶, a discount rate that approximately characterizes the real discount rate for electric utility investment **d**e**cisions. W**e **do not specify t**he **m**ech**anis**m**s by w**h**ic**h **t**he **market discount ra**te **may b**e " re**d**uce**d**, onl**y p**osit that it **i**s re**duc**e**d** in some ma**nn**e**r**. This **a**p**p**ro**a**ch begs the quest**i**on of energy savings that are *achievable* given real-world constraints, but it does allow an orderof-magnitude assessment of potential total energy savings, based on the engineeringeconomic dat**a** in LBL **R**EM.

A.*3: RESULTS*

LBL REM produces a wealth of information, including energy use by fuel and end-use, average and new unit energy consumptions over time, average and new unit energy ef**fi**ciency factors over time, and present values for expenditures on fuel and equipment over the **a**n**al**ysis perio**d**. **T**he inputs were **va**rie**d as d**escribe**d a**bove to calcul**a**te these outputs (not including the expenditures) for each of the 24 cases. The results are described below.

Total fuel use by end-**use in t**h**e Reference Case**

Table A.7 sh**o**w**s an** e**nd-us**e **br**e**akdo**w**n fo**r **Cas**e **1** (wh**ic**h **is id**e**n**t**ical in** e**n**e**rgy c**onsum**p**t**i**o**n** to case**s** 7 an**d** 13**). T**able A.**7** reve**a**l**s** that the **fiv**e largest en**d**-**u**se**s** i**n** 199**0** (in p**ri**mary energy terms) are, in order of decreasing importance, natural gas space heating (central plus room), electric water heating, elect**ri**c resistance space heating, oil space heating, and natural gas water heating. Together these four end-uses comprise about 8 quadrillion Btus of resource energy in 1990, or about half of total residential resource energy use.

*T*he model predicts that electricity use and oil use will increase at about 1%*/*year in the Residential sector from 1990 to 2030, while natural gas and LPG will decline at 0.4% and 1.4%*/*yr, respectively. All categories of gas use except for gas dryers and gas miscellaneous decline in importance over this period (principally because of fuel switching to electricity). Refrigerator and freezer energy use will also decline substantially, because of the projected effects of the 1990 and 1993 appliance efficiency standards.

*T***ab**le *A*.**8** shows an end-use breakdown for the 7% Market Discount Rate Case (Case 4, which is identical in energy consumption to cases 10 and 16), and Tabl**e** A.9 compares • the cumulative energy use by end-use for the Reference case (Case 1) and the 7% Market Discount Rate Case (Case 4). Changes in cumulative consumption shown in *T*able A.9 can be the result of efficiency improvements AND fuel switching, so care must be used in • int**e**rpreting the results of these T**a**ble**s**. The b**i**gge**s**t shifts in the 7% Market **D**iscount R**a**te

⁵*A***s disti**nc**t**fro**mc**arbo**n**taxes**,w**hi**ch**af**fec**tbot**h**the**s**u**pplysi**de an**dd**e**m**an**dsid**e**.**

⁶When a market discount rate is below 7% in the Reference Case (see Table A.6), we do not change its reference case value in the 7% Market Discount Rate Case.

Case occur in electric dryers and clothes washers. In the case of dryers, both fuel switching to gas dryers and efficiency improvements (principally caused by the adoption of heat pump dryers) cause cumulative electric dryer energy use in the 7% Market Disco**u**nt Rate Case to be about one-third of the cumulative energy use in the Reference Case. For clothes washers, the reduction in cumulative energy use by a factor of two is caused by the shift to horizontal axis washing machines.⁷

Unit Energ**y Consumption**

Tabl**e***s* **A**,1**0** and **A,1**1 show the unit energy consumption **(**UEC) for each end use in the Reference and 7% Market Discount Rate Cases, respectively. The UECs are measured in terms of resource energy using LBL REM's conversion factor of 11,500 Btus*/*kWh.e. They are a function of equipment efficiency (energy factor), fuel prices, equipment cost, and usage.

Energy **fac**t**o**r**s**

Tables *A*.1**2** and *A*.13 show the energy factors (i.e. efficiencies) that correspond to the end-use breakdowns in Tables A.7 and A.8. These Tables indicate the extent of efficiency improvements in the Reference and 7% Market Discount Rate Cases. In particular, the efficiency improvements in electric dryers and clothes washers are quite substantial in the 7% Market Discount Rate case. However, the efficiency improvement for electric dryers is not sufficient to account for the changes in the total energy consumption of this appliance from the Reference to the 7% Market Discount Rate Cases, which confirms that both efficiency improvements and fuel switching must be responsible for those changes.

Saturations

T**a**bles *A*.14 and *A*.1**5** show the saturations for each end use in the Reference and 7% Ma**r**ket Discount Rate Cases, respectively. These saturations indicate the percentage of households in existing or new buildings that own a particular appliance using a particular fuel. The saturations are a function of personal income, relative fuel prices, equipment efficiencies, and equipment costs.

T**o**tal energy use by fuel and by ease

Table A.16 shows total primary energy use by case and by fuel in 2030, Table A.17 shows total primary energy use by case and by year, and Table A.18 shows cumulative primary energy use by fuel. Electricity is the fuel most affected by the 7% Market Discount Rate Case, both in percentage terms and absolute terms. In all cases, electricity comprises around 70% of total primary energy, with gas at roughly 20%, and distillate oil and LPG comprising the rest. All cases show total primary energy consumption increasing over 1990 levels by 2030, though in the 7% Market Discount Rate Cases, total primary energy drops below 1990 levels in 2000 and 2010, and rises again after 2010. This effect i*s* caused by our assumption of a static menu of technology options.

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⁷ Horizontal axis washing machines are now available in top-loading versions, which eliminates any concerns that they deliver different levels of service than their vertical axis counterparts. Horizontal axis washing machines are quite common in Europe and in commercial washing establishments in the U.S., but are currently rare in U.S. homes.

Total carbon e**missions**

Table A.19 shows total carbon emissions by case and by fuel in 2030, and Table A.20 shows total carbon emissions by case and by year. Figures A.3 through A.5 show the **shows** t**otal carbon** e**missions by cas**e **a**n**d by y**e**ar. Figur**e**s A.**3 **through A.**5 **sho**w **th**e results for energy and carbon for key cases. The Reference Case demand implies substantial increases (roughly 50% over 1990 levels) in residential sector carbon emissions **" assuming NES** C**urr**e**nt Policy Bas**e **carbon int**e**nsiti**e**s for** e**l**e**ct**r**icity. In th**e N**ES Excursion, th**e **R**e**fer**e**nc**e C**as**e **d**e**mand impli**e**s incr**e**a**se**s of** 1**0 to 1**5% **for total carbon emissions over** 199**0 l**e**v**e**ls, whil**e **for th**e **supply sid**e c**a**se w**h**e**r**e e**l**ec**t**r**icity** c**arbon** intensity is reduced to 50% of 1990 levels by 2030 (reference case demand), total residential carbon emissions are reduced by almost 20% compared to 1990 emissions.

The 7% Market Discount Rate cases with and without carbon taxes are also shown in Figures A.3 through A.5. This demand-side case reduces total carbon emissions by 15 to 20% relative to 2030 emissions in the reference case.

Reven**u**es **fro**m c**a**rbon t**a**xes

The results of the calculation of actual revenues from the carbon taxes are shown in Table *A*.**2**1, as calculated using the carbon emissions from Table A.20. The 255*/*tonne carbon tax yields revenues ranging from \$4.5 billion 19905 per year to \$9 billion*/*year in 2030. The \$100*/*tonne tax yields revenues of from \$18 billion to \$36 billion in 2030. If such taxes were applied to all sectors, the revenues would be considerably larger.

Effec**t of carbon tax**e**s**

Table **A.22** shows the demand-side effect of carb**o**n taxes on electricity use, gas use, and total primary energy use, as well as on the corresponding carbon emissions. This effect is expressed in this Table as a percentage change relative to the comparable case without carbon taxes. For example, with Reference C**a***s*e demand and Supply-side case I (Current Policy Base carbon burdens), the \$25*/*t carbon tax will reduce 2030 primary energy use by 1.4% compared to the same case without the carbon tax.

In general, carbon taxes of \$100*/*t have four times the effect of \$25*/*t taxes, but the relative effect can be from 3.6 to 4.6 times. The exact effect depends on the marginal cost of the next unit of efficiency improvement, as well as the market position of different fuels. The Table shows that fuel switching between electricity and gas affects the results. For Reference Case demand and the \$100*/*t carbon tax, electricity demand in 2030 will be reduced by 6% in Supply Side Case I, while gas use will be reduced 5.3%. In Supply Side Case III, where electricity carbon burdens (and hence electricity prices with carbon taxes) have been reduced substantially, electricity use is reduced only 1.8%, while gas use is reduced by 7%. Carbon emissions by fuel scale linearly, but changes in total emissions . are different than changes in total primary energy use because of the effect of fuel switching.

(1) Source of housing forecast: total households from NES Technical Annex 2 (US DOE 1991/1992), disaggregated into housetypes using ratios from a

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U.S. Census forecast (US Census 1983). New households derived from total households assuming annual retirement rates of 0.62% for single family,

0.82% for multifamily, and 2.5% for mobile homes.

(2) Source of fuel prices: National Energy Strategy current policy base from US DOE (1991/1992)

(3) Source of per capita income: U.S. DOE (1991a) for total income, divided by the total household forecast from US DOE (1991/1992),

extrapolated to 2030 using 2000-2010 growth rates.

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(1) fuel prices from US DOE (1991/1992)

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(1) NES current policy base assumes the electricity carbon intensity (g/kWh.e) implied in the National Energy Strategy's "No policy" case. The NES excursion assumes the electricity carbon intensity implied in the National Energy Strategy's "policy" case. "-50% from 1990" means that the electricity carbon intensity is reduced to 50% of 1990 levels by 2030, by substituting a generic non-fossil resource for coal-fired generation (see text for details). Carbon burdens for the direct use of gas, oil, and LPG remain constant throughout the analysis. g/kWh.e = grams per kWh of delivered electricity, including T&D losses. (2) Carbon taxes are in 1990 \$/metric tonne of carbon.

(3) Generic resource costs are only applicable in the "-50% from 1990" carbon burden case. This parameter tests the sensitivity of the analysis results to substituting higher cost resources for coal-fired resources in the electricity sector. The cost of the generic resource is assumed in this case to be the same as the cost of coal plants plus a \$100/tonne carbon tax. (4) The demand-side reference case includes the effects of fuel prices and the appliance efficiency standards currently "on the books". Case 0 is equal to Case 1 without appliance standards. The "7% market discount rate" case assumes that the empirically-derived "market discount rates" used for the reference case (which are often much higher than 7% real) are reduced to 7% real. The appliance standards are kept in place just as for the reference case. See text for details.

(5) As described in the text, supply-side (SS) Case 1 corresponds to NES Current Policy Base. SS Case 2 corresponds to the NES excursion. SS case 3 corresponds to a reduction in carbon intensity of electricity generation of 50% from 1990 levels by 2030.

Table A.4: Summary of carbon burdens and implied carbon taxes for fuels and electricity

(1) fuel carbon burdens are taken from CEC 1990, and represent the direct emissions from burning the fuel. No indirect emissions from extraction, transport, or processing of the fuels are included. Direct emissions from nuclear, hydro, wind, and other renewables are assumed to be zero

(2) g C/kWh.f = grams of carbon emissions per kWh of fuel. g C/kWh.e= grams of carbon emissions per

kWh of delivered final electricity (including the NES assumption of 7.5% transmission and distribution losses).

(3) other residential fuels' (e.g. LPG's) emissions are assumed to be the same as natural gas.

Table A.5: Total U.S. Electricity Generation and Carbon Emissions by Resource and Supply-Side Scenario 1990-2030

(1) actual resource mixes used to calculate carbon taxes in Table A.4 were calculated for ten-year increments.

Twenty-year increments are shown here for convenience.

(2) NES Current Policy Base and NES Excursion are taken from DOE (1991/1992).

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(3) Electricity carbon intensity -50% from 1990 levels case is adopted from NES Current Policy Base case, with the coal resources

in this case replaced by sufficient "generic non-fossil resources" to reduce the carbon intensity to the appropriate level by 2030.

(4) The NES excursion includes some efficiency improvements (represented by the 900 TWh difference between the Current policy

base mix and the NES excursion mix). Our analysis uses only the emissions factors per kWh and does not rely on total generation from NES.

Figure A.1: Size of electricity carbon tax as a function of electricity supply mix and year $(tax = 100 per tonne of carbon)

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Figure A.2: Percentage changes in electricity and fuel prices due to taxes of \$100 per tonne of carbon

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(1) Market discount rates are calculated empirically by assuming that the market's choice for appliance purchases in a given year is the minimum life-cycle cost point, and estimating the discount rate that would have to be used with the engineering-based cost-efficiency curves to choose the efficiency that the market actually chose in that year. Ruderman et al. 1987 showed that this parameter is relatively constant over time.

(2) Products using two-parameter cost-efficiency curves use the functional form described in Ruderman et al. 1987.

(3) Products using discrete design options are those that have been more recently analyzed (see US DOE 1988, US DOE 1989a, US DOE 1989b, US DOE 1990). The cost-efficiency curves for other appliances will be put into the discrete form as ongoing appliance efficiency standards analyses are completed.

(1) Source: LBL Residential Energy Model, using input assumptions from Table A.1.

(2) Electricity is measured in quadrillion Btus of resource energy, calculated

using a conversion factor of 11,500 Btus/kWh.e. This factor includes transmission and distribution losses

as well as losses associated with the generation of electricity

(3) Clothes washer and dishwasher energy is that associated with motors, and does not include the energy used to heat

the water used by these appliances (which is counted under water heater energy use).

(4) "Other" under central heating means gas hydronic systems.

Table A.8: 7% Market Discount Rate case (Case 4) forecast of residential energy use by end-use and fuel (Quadrillion Btus of resource energy)

(1) Source: LBL Residential Energy Model, using input assumptions from Table A.1 and a 7% real discount rate

for all consumer decisions regarding efficiency choice.

(2) Electricity is measured in quadrillion Btus of resource energy, calculated

using a conversion factor of 11,500 Btus/kWh.e. This factor includes transmission and distribution losses as well as losses associated with the generation of electricity

(3) Clothes washer and dishwasher energy is that associated with motors, and does not include the energy used to heat the water used by these appliances (which is counted under water heater energy use).

(4) "Other" under central heating means gas hydronic systems.

Table A.9: Comparison of Reference Case (Case 1) cumulative energy use to 7% Market Discount Rate Case (Case 4) cumulative energy use (Quadrillion Btus of resource energy)

(1) Electricity is measured in quadrillion Btus of resource energy, calculated

using a conversion factor of 11,500 Btus/kWh.e. This factor includes transmission and distribution losses as well as losses associated with the generation of electricity

(2) Clothes washer and dishwasher energy is that associated with motors, and does not include the energy

used to heat the water used by these appliances (which is counted under water heater energy use).

(3) "Other" under central heating means gas hydronic systems.

(1) Source: LBL Residential Energy Model, using input assumptions from Table A.1.

(2) Electricity is treated as resource energy using a conversion factor of 11,500 Btus/kWh.

(3) UECs for Dishwasher and Clothes washer include only motor energy. Energy to heat the water

used in these appliances is counted under water heating.

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(4) "Other" under central heating means gas hydronic systems.

Table A.11: 7% Market Discount Rate Case (Case 4) forecast of residential equipment

(1) Source: LBL Residential Energy Model, using input assumptions from Table A.1 and a 7% real discount rate for all consumer decisions regarding efficiency choice.

(2) Electricity is treated as resource energy using a conversion factor of 11,500 Btus/kWh.

(3) UECs for Dishwasher and Clothes washer include only motor energy. Energy to heat the water

used in these appliances is counted under water heating.

(4) "Other" under central heating means gas hydronic systems.

(1) Source: LBL Residential Energy Model, using input assumptions from Table A.1.

(2) Energy factors for cooking, lighting, and miscellaneous are not defined.

(3) Energy factors are based on U.S. government test procedures.

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Table A.13: 7% Market Discount Rate Case (Case 4) forecast of residential energy factors by end-use and fuel

(1) Source: LBL Residential Energy Model, using input assumptions from Table A.1 and a 7% real discount rate

for all consumer decisions regarding efficiency choice.

(2) Energy factors for cooking, lighting, and miscellaneous are not defined.

(3) Energy factors are based on U.S. government test procedures.

Table A.14: Reference case (Case 1) forecast of residential equipment saturations by

(1) Source: LBL Residential Energy Model, using input assumptions from Table A.1.

(2) Saturations do not always add to one, such as for refrigerators, where many homes have two refrigerators.

(3) Central and Room Heating saturations are combined for Existing Equipment in Existing houses and for

New Equipment in New Houses, but are separated for New equipment in Existing Houses

(4) Saturations for lighting and miscellaneous have no physical meaning and are omitted here.

Table A.15: 7% Market Discount Rate Case (Case 4) forecast of residential equipment saturations by end-use, housing type and equipment type

(1) Source: LBL Residential Energy Model, using input assumptions from Table A.1 and a 7% real discount rate for all consumer decisions regarding efficiency choice.

(2) Saturations do not always add to one, such as for refrigerators, where many homes have two refrigerators.

(3) Central and Room Heating saturations are combined for Existing Equipment in Existing houses and for

New Equipment in New Houses, but are separated for New equipment in Existing Houses

(4) Saturations for lighting and miscellaneous have no physical meaning and are omitted here.

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(1) policy case**s ar**e **thos**e **shown in Tabl**e **A.**3**.**

(2) e**n**e**rgy consumption is calculat**e**d using th**e **LBL R**e**sid**e**ntial En**e**rgy Mod**e**l.**

(3**)** 1**990** e**n**e**rgy** co**nsumption is tak**e**n from th**e **r**e**f**e**r**e**nc**e **cas**e **(**C**as**e **1).**

 $\label{eq:4} \mathbf{A} = \left(\begin{array}{cc} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{array} \right) \in \mathbf{A}^{\times}$

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policy case**s ar**e **tho***s*e *s***hown in Tabl**e **A.3.**

(2) Ene*r***gy consumption is calculat**e**d using th**e **LBL R**e**sid**e**ntial En**e**rgy Mod**e**l.**

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(3) 1990 energy consumptions differ because policy instruments (ie carbon taxes and the reduction of market discount rates to 7%)

are **a**ss**um**e*A* **to tak**e e**ff**e**ct at th**e **b**e**ginning of** 1**990.**

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(1) electricity is measured in terms of primary energy, using LBL REM's convention of 11,500 Btus.f/kWh.e

(2) scenarios are described in Table A.3.

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(1) policy cases are throe **shown in Table A.**3**.**

(2) carbon emissions are the result of the emissions factors from Table A.4 and energy consumption

 i **calculated** using the LBL Residential Energy Model.

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policy case*s* **ar**e **thos**e **shown inTabl**e **A.**3**.**

(2) cerbon emissions are the result of the emissions factors from Table A.4 and energy consumption

calculat_ **usingthe LBLResid**e**ntialEn**e**rgyMod**e**l.**

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(3) 1990 carbon emissions differ because policy instruments (ie carbon taxes and the reduction of market discount rates to 7%)

as*s***umed**t**o tak**e **e**ff**ect at the beginn**i**ng o**f 1**990**.

Table A*2***1: Projected annual carbon tax revenues by scenario**

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(1) carb**onemissions fromT**a**bl**e **A.20 are used with appropriat**e**C tax**e**s to** estimate total revenues.

Table A.22: Effect of carbon taxes on primary energy use and carbon

(1) Supply Side case $1 =$ Current Policy Base carbon burdens, Supply Side case $2 =$ NES Excursion carbon burdens, and Supply Side case $3 =$ carbon burdens reduced 50% relative to 1990 levels by 2030

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APPENDIX B: CALCULATION OF SUPPLY SIDE COSTS

Table B. 1 shows a simplifie**d busbar cost** c**al**c**ulation for t**he five **fossil-fired g**e**n**e**ration tec**hnolo**g**ie**s shown in Figur**e **B.**1**. s**

Fuel costs, capital costs, and physical parameters are those prevailing in 2010, according to **U**S **D**O**E (1991***1***1992). We d**i**d disco**v**er une**x**pe**c**te**d d**ifferences** b**e**tw**een U**S **D**O**E** (1991/1992) and US DOE (1991b) in terms of capital cost and heat rate assumptions, **p**arti**cul**arl**y fo**r **a**d**vanc**ed **coa**l te**c**hn**o**lo**gies**. We **u**se**d** th**e fo**rmer reference in all **c**ases, be**c**ause it gave more detailed des**c**riptions of the cost assumptions.

We used a nominal capi**t**al charge rat**e** of 15%, which roughly corresponds to typical capital charge rates for utilities using a real discount rate around 7% . The busbar cost calculations shown here illustrate the relative importance of va**ri**ous carbon taxes compared to the delivered cost of elect**ric**ity from va**ri**ous fossil-fired power plants. They are not used elsewhere in the analysis.

Re**serv**e **margin savings.**

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T**o** the extent that modularit**y** can reduce reserve margin requirements, it will lower p**o**we**r** costs. We have approximated this effect in our busbar calculations by including a reserve margin **c**ost for each technology that re**fl**ects the effec**ti**ve load carrying capability (ELCC) of each power plant (EPRI 1986, Garver 1966). The ELCC adjustment adds the approp**ri**ate amount of reserve margin (in combustion turbines) to keep the system as reliable as it was before the power plant was added.

The ELCC adjustment factor (the inverse of which is known as the Capability Ra**ti**o) is a function of the reliability of the power plant and the reliability and si**ze** of the power system in which the power plant is embedded. Equation B.1 shows how the capability ratio is used to account for reliability effects for **te**chnology X:

$$
RMA (DM/kW/yr) = ((CRX - 1) FCCT + (CRCT - 1) FCCT))
$$
 (B.1)

where RMA **=** Reserve Margin *A*djustment (DM*/*kW*/*yr)

 CR_X = capability ratio of technology X

 CR_{CT} = capability ratio of a combustion turbine, and

FC_{CT} = annualized fixed costs of a combustion turbine (DM/kW/yr).

 Thi**s ap**proa**c**h **a**s**s**umes th**a**t **c**ombustio**n** t**u**rbines **a**re the marginal resource added to improve reliability. The first term in the parentheses corrects for the reliability of technolo**g**y X, while the second term accounts for the imperfect reliability of the • combu**s**tion turbine.

⁸ A**sidef**ro**mFi**g**u**re**B.**1**,**there **i**s **no o**the**r**useo**f** these**c**al**cu**lati**o**n**sin**th**is**repo**rt**.

Capital cost including inte**r**e**st**

T**o c**alc**ula**te *capital cost including interest*, **w**e **us**e **a** f**o**rmul**a f**r**om** the EPRI te**c**h**n**i**c**al asses**s**ment guide (TAG) to calculate the actual **c**ost of a power plant, incorporating real **c**ost escala**ti**on and interest during construction (EPRI 1989). The formula for Total Plant Inve**s**tment (I**'**PI) under these cir**cu**m**s**tances is:

$$
TPI = TPC \frac{(ZN - 1)}{(Z - 1) N}
$$
 (B.2)

wher**e** TPC is the ov**er**night capi**t**al co**s**t in I**st** y**e**a**r** of op**e**ration*,* d**e**fin**e**d a**b**ove*,*

$$
Z = \frac{(1+d)}{(1+e)} = \frac{(1 + real discount rate)}{(1 + real evaluation rate)}
$$

and $N =$ lead time of power plant.

Wh**e**n the **r**eal **e**scalation rat**e** during construct**i**on eq**u**als *z***e**ro*,* **E**quation B.2 re*d***u**c**e**s to

$$
TPI = TPC \frac{((1+d)^{N} - 1)}{d N}
$$
 (B.3)

*The const*r*uction lead time* excludes the time-consuming planning and siting process in which**,** however**,** only a small portion of total project costs are expended.

Figure B.1 shows the effect of our choices of carbon taxes on the cost of four coal electricity generation technologies and a natural gas**-**fired Advanced Combined Cycle (ACC) plant. Utility sector fuel prices are those expected to prevail in 2010, using the same source as for our base case forecast of residential fuel prices (for detailed calculations). The \$25/tonne carbon tax adds about 0.25 cents/kWh to the delivered cost⁹ of the gas ACC plant, and roughly 0.5 ℓ /kWh to the cost of the coal technologies. The \$100/tonne tax adds about 1¢/kWh (roughly 15%) to the cost of the gas ACC, and about 2¢/kWh (25 to 30%) to the cost of the coal plants.

⁹Delivered costs include the NES assumption of electrical transmission and distribution (T&D) losses of **7.**5%**,butdonoti**nc**lud**et**h**e**capitalcostof th**e**T**&**Dsyst**e**m.**

Table B.1: Busbar costs of selected fossil-fired electricity generation technologies (2010 fuel prices and capital costs)

(I)Sot*u***c**e **for cos**_: **US DOE 1991***/***1992. Al**l **costs** e**xp***r*e**ss**e**d in 1990\$.**

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