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# Environmental innovation and the cost of pollution abatement revisited

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## METHODS

# Environmental innovation and the cost of pollution abatement revisited

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## ABSTRACT

It is widely assumed in the literature that environmental innovation reduces the marginal cost of pollution abatement. In this paper we show that this is not necessarily the case and we provide some unexpected outcomes.

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## 1. Introduction

It is widely assumed in the literature that environmental innovation reduces marginal pollution abatement costs. For example, Palmer et al. (1995) claim that new pollution abatement technology reduces the marginal abatement cost at all pollution levels. More recently, Jaffe et al. (2005) wrote that “technology innovations (...) typically reduce the marginal cost of achieving a given unit of pollution reduction”. The same argument can also be found in Fischer et al. (2003), Montero (2002) or Xepapadeas (1997), among others. Graphically, this is reflected by a decrease of the slope of the marginal abatement cost function (see Fig. 1a in the next section).

Requate and Unod (2003) do the same assumption, but they also explain that innovation shifts the marginal abatement cost function to the left, which is only part of the overall real impact, as we will show.

In all this literature it is intuitively and unambiguously expected that, when an emission fee is imposed the innovator will pay a lower tax amount and bear a lower total abatement cost. These two arguments provide a clear incentive for polluters to adopt environmentally friendly technologies. There exists an extensive literature comparing policy instruments with regard to their relative incentive to innovate, taking for granted the assumption that innovation reduces marginal abatement costs. The objective of our paper is to question this

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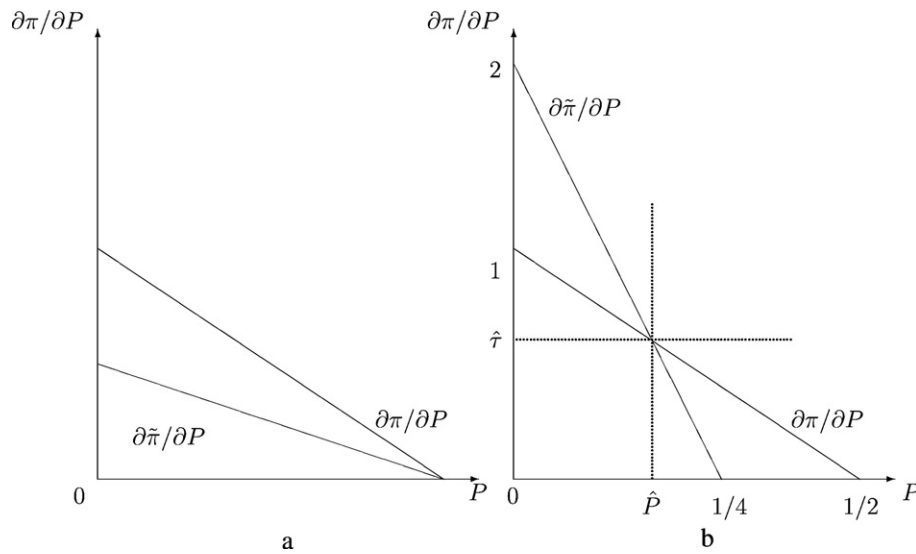


Fig. 1 – The effect of innovation on the MAC function a: according to Palmer et al. (1995) b: the adequate representation.

assumption. Actually, environmental innovation does not necessarily reduce the marginal cost of pollution abatement.

The paper is organized as follows. It is enlightening to first show the impact of innovation on the abatement costs in a simple linear example (actually, the one used in many papers). This is done in the first section. Section 3 generalizes the result and the conclusion follows.

## 2. A simple counter-example

Most of the articles referred to in the introduction use linear marginal abatement costs and assume that environmental innovation reduces the marginal abatement cost for all pollution levels, which boils down to reduce the slope of the function, as shown in Fig. 1a taken from Palmer et al. (1995). In this particular case, showing that innovation actually does not necessarily reduce the marginal abatement cost is straightforward, just by going back to the theoretical model.

A firm produces an output  $y$  with a single input  $x$ ; the production function writes  $y = \sqrt{x}$ . Polluting effluents are given by  $e = \alpha y$ , with  $\alpha > 0$ . All markets are competitive and prices equal to unity. The firm's profit function is given by  $\pi = y - x$ , which can be expressed, by substitution, in terms of pollution,  $\pi = \frac{1}{\alpha} e - \frac{1}{\alpha^2} e^2$ . The marginal benefit to the firm of emitting one more unit of pollution is given by the first derivative of this profit function.

What is the cost of reducing pollution for the firm? The cost is a profit loss. The profit loss is given by the variation of profit in response to a decrease of pollution level, i.e., reducing one unit of pollution yields a marginal profit loss. The marginal abatement cost function is thus defined as the first derivative of the profit function with respect to polluting effluents (see for example Pearce and Turner (1990) or McKittrick (1999)). It writes,

$$MAC(e) = \frac{\partial \pi}{\partial e} = \frac{1}{\alpha} - \frac{2}{\alpha^2} e \tag{1}$$

Taking  $\alpha = 1$  gives the decreasing function displayed in Fig. 1a. Assume now that environmental innovation reduces the pollution – output ratio, so that, for example,  $\alpha = 0.5$ . This technological

effect may represent different kinds of innovations: end-of-pipe devices (like scrubbers for dust in the cement industry, material particles in transportation, carbon dioxide or sulfur dioxide emissions in combustion processes) or process improvements or new machines yielding higher pollution efficiency. For example, scrubbers have played a key role for curbing SO<sub>2</sub> emissions when the market for tradable permits was implemented in the U.S. power sector (see Ellerman et al., 2000). From Eq. (1) it is clear that the MAC function shifts left and that its slope increases after innovation. So, the marginal abatement cost is not necessarily lower after innovation for every pollution level. Actually, this marginal cost is higher after innovation for pollution levels smaller than  $\bar{p}$ , the point where the two functions cross each others.

Two implications may be stressed out from this example. First, a motive generally advocated for a firm to innovate is to pay less environmental taxes. It is clear from Fig. 1b that, for any proportional tax imposed on pollution above  $\bar{\tau}$ , the firm pollutes more after innovation than before and, consequently, pays more environmental taxes.<sup>1</sup> Second, part of the literature devoted to the rankings of policy instruments in terms of incentive to innovate relies on the assumption that innovation reduces the marginal abatement cost (see Xepapadeas (1997), Montero (2002), Requate and Unod (2003) or Fischer et al. (2003) for example). One may question whether these rankings still hold when, as we have just shown, innovation increases the marginal abatement cost.

## 3. Generalization

Let us consider a firm producing a desired output  $y$  by using a set of inputs  $\mathbf{x} = \{x_1, \dots, x_N\}$  and a technology represented by a production function  $f(\mathbf{x}) : \mathbb{R}_+^N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ . This function is increasing, strictly concave and verifies the Inada conditions. The firm also generates a set  $\mathbf{e} = \{e_1, \dots, e_P\}$  of undesired outputs, namely polluting effluents. Some inputs may pollute (e.g., the use of fossil fuels), some may not (e.g., human knowledge) and some

<sup>1</sup> This questions the issue of environmental performance. See Bréchet and Michel (2007) for a specific discussion on that point.

may reduce pollution (e.g., the use of an environmental management system). Moreover, each input may give rise to many pollutants and each pollutant may flow from many inputs.<sup>2</sup> Let  $i$  be the index of inputs and  $j$  be the index of pollutant effluents. The amount of effluents  $e_j$  coming from input  $x_i$  is noted  $e_{ij}$ . Thus, we have that  $e_j = \sum_i e_{ij}$ . The amount of effluent  $e_{ij}$  is given by a pollution function  $h_{ij}(x_i) : \mathbb{R}_+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , such that  $e_{ij} = h_{ij}(x_i)$ . For a polluting input this function has the following properties: it is invertible,  $h_{ij}(0) = 0$ ,  $h_{ij}(x_i) > 0$  and  $h'_{ij}(x_i) > 0$ .<sup>3</sup>

The output is the numeraire. The price vector for the inputs is  $\mathbf{q} = \{q_1, \dots, q_N\}$ . All markets are competitive. Without pollution constraint the program of the firm writes

$$\max_{\mathbf{x}} \pi(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{q}\mathbf{x} \tag{2}$$

which results in a unique solution  $\mathbf{x}^o$  and  $e^o = h(\mathbf{x}^o)$ , where “ $o$ ” stands for the *laissez-faire*.

Let us note  $\Omega_{ij}(e_{ij})$  the marginal abatement cost function related to pollutant  $e_{ij}$ . This function is defined for all  $e_{ij} \in (0, e_{ij}^o)$ , where  $e_{ij}^o$  stands for the firm’s optimal level of pollution under *laissez-faire*. This function gives the profit loss incurred when pollutant  $e_{ij}$  has to be reduced by one unit, all other things being equal. By substituting  $x_i$  by the inverse function  $\tilde{h}_{ij}^{-1}(e_{ij})$  in the firm’s program we obtain the profit level as a function of  $e_{ij}$ ,  $\forall e_{ij} \in (0, e_{ij}^o)$ . The marginal abatement cost function  $\Omega_{ij}(e_{ij})$  is given by the derivative of this profit function and it writes:

$$\Omega_{ij}(e_{ij}) \equiv \frac{\partial \pi}{\partial e_{ij}} = \frac{\frac{\partial f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_i} - q_i}{\frac{\partial h_{ij}(x_i)}{\partial x_i}} \tag{3}$$

At the firm’s optimum under *laissez-faire*, Eq. (3) implies that  $\Omega_{ij}(e_{ij}) = 0$  since  $\frac{\partial f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_i} = q_i$ ,  $\forall i$ , which results in a pollution level  $e_{ij} = e_{ij}^o$ . If a restriction  $\tilde{e}_{ij}$  was imposed on pollution such that  $0 < \tilde{e}_{ij} < e_{ij}^o$ , then the maximization problem would lead to an optimal input level  $\tilde{x}_i^*$  such that  $x_i^* < \tilde{x}_i^o$ . As a consequence,  $\frac{\partial f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_i} > q_i$  and the firm would experience a profit loss, the marginal abatement cost being given by Eq. (3).

We can now define environmental innovation when applied to polluting inputs.

**Definition.** Environmental innovation leads to a new pollution function,  $\tilde{h}_{ij}(x_i)$ . This function has the same properties as  $h_{ij}(x_i)$ , except that  $0 < \tilde{h}_{ij}(x_i) < h_{ij}(x_i)$ , for all polluting input  $x_i$ .

Environmental innovation reduces the marginal pollution intensity of the production process. In other words, an increase in output will lead to a lower increase in pollution after innovation. This also means that the marginal productivity of pollution is higher after innovation. Under our definition of environmental innovation, the assumption that  $\tilde{h}_{ij}(0) = h_{ij}(0) = 0$  yields  $\tilde{h}_{ij}(x_i) < h_{ij}(x_i)$ , for all polluting input. So,

<sup>2</sup> As an example, coal combustion gives rise, among other pollutants, to the emission of CO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub> and dust. Carbon emissions come from the combustion of all fossil fuels (liquid, gaseous and solid) but also, in some industries, from the process itself (e.g. cement, lime, steel...).

<sup>3</sup> For the other productive inputs this function has the following properties. If the input is non-polluting,  $h_{ij}(x_i) = 0$ . If the input is depolluting,  $h_{ij}(x_i) < 0$  and  $h'_{ij}(x_i) < 0$ .

innovation also reduces the total amount of pollution. Stemming from the definition of the pollution function, this definition of environmental innovation is also a general one. It encompasses all the kinds of innovations considered in the linear case (see Section 2 above) but also input substitutions, like the possibility to use cleaner fuels (for example, clean coal vs dirty coal in terms of SO<sub>2</sub> emissions, biomass or gas vs oil or coal in terms of CO<sub>2</sub> and particles).

In order to focus on the incentive to innovate we assume that innovation has no fixed cost.

We are now able to analyze how environmental innovation shapes the marginal abatement cost function. Let us note the marginal abatement cost function after environmental innovation  $\tilde{\Omega}_{ij}(e_{ij})$ . The issue is to check whether  $\tilde{\Omega}_{ij}(e_{ij})$  is smaller or greater than  $\Omega_{ij}(e_{ij})$ ,  $\forall e_{ij} \in (0, e_{ij}^o)$ . This is done by comparing Eq. (3) before and after environmental innovation. It leads to the following proposition.

**Proposition.** For every pollution level below the optimal one after innovation, environmental innovation decreases (resp. increases) the marginal pollution abatement cost if the decrease of the pollution intensity is large enough (resp. small enough) compared to the increase of the marginal productivity of pollution.

**Proof.** We want to compare  $\Omega_{ij}(e_{ij})$  and  $\tilde{\Omega}_{ij}(e_{ij})$  for a given  $e_{ij} \in (0, \tilde{e}_{ij}^o)$ . We know that  $\tilde{e}_{ij} = \tilde{h}_{ij}(x_i) < e_{ij} = h_{ij}(x_i)$ ,  $\forall i$ . It follows that, for any given  $e_{ij} \in (0, \tilde{e}_{ij}^o)$ ,  $\tilde{x}_i = \tilde{h}_{ij}^{-1}(e_{ij}) > x_i = h_{ij}^{-1}(e_{ij})$ . So the numerator of  $\tilde{\Omega}_{ij}(e_{ij})$  is smaller than the one of  $\Omega_{ij}(e_{ij})$ . As for the denominator, the one of  $\tilde{\Omega}_{ij}(e_{ij})$  is smaller or greater than the one of  $\Omega_{ij}(e_{ij})$  depending on whether  $h'_{ij}(\tilde{x}_i(e_{ij}))$  is greater or smaller than  $h'_{ij}(x_i(e_{ij}))$ ,  $\forall e_{ij} \in (0, \tilde{e}_{ij}^o)$ .  $\square$

The impact of innovation on the abatement cost is twofold. On the one hand, it reduces the pollution intensity of production in the *laissez-faire* (since  $\tilde{e}_{ij}^o = \tilde{h}_{ij}(x_i^o) < e_{ij}^o = h_{ij}(x_i^o)$ ), and for any output levels below, but, on the other hand, it increases the marginal productivity of pollution, thus making the MAC function steeper. The linear example presented in the previous section clearly shows that, the smaller the first effect, the smaller the possibility that the marginal abatement cost is reduced after innovation. In the general case, however, one cannot be sure that the slope is always higher after innovation for every pollution levels: it also depends on how innovation alters the second derivative of the pollution function. Finally, in the general case it may happen, as in the example, that the innovating firm pollutes more when a tax is imposed on pollution.

#### 4. Conclusion

In this paper we have shown that, as assumed in the literature, environmental innovation does not necessarily reduce the marginal cost of pollution abatement. Actually, environmental innovation increases the slope of the marginal abatement cost function (instead of decreasing it as widely assumed) and shifts it left. In the linear quadratic case, environmental innovation reduces the marginal abatement cost only if the abatement level is not too strong. Otherwise, innovation increases the marginal abatement cost.

This result may have many implications on major policy issues. For example, if a pollution fee is set above some threshold, the firm pollutes more after innovation than before,

and thus pays more tax. In this case, maybe a command-and-control regulation could be more appropriate to avoid such adverse effects. Nevertheless, a quantity-based regulation expressed in relative terms (e.g. a 10% reduction) or in absolute terms (e.g. x-ton reduction) would be more detrimental to the firm after innovation, because of a higher abatement cost. The usual assumption would yield the reverse. These examples suggest to revisit the ranking of environmental policy instruments (permits, taxes and standard) in terms of incentive to innovate.

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