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# Climate change mitigation as catastrophic risk management 

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## Let's go back to the Stern Review



- Landmark report reveals apocalyptic cost of global warming

Source: Observer newspaper, one day before publication of the Stern Review

| Emissions path | Present value of total <br> climate damage $(\%$ <br> of global GDP) | Marginal damage <br> cost of CO2 <br> (\$US/tCO2e) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Business as usual | $11[5,20]$ | 85 |
| Stabilise greenhouse <br> gases at 550ppm | 1.1 | 30 |
| Stabilise at 450ppm | 0.6 | 25 |

## What did the Stern Review's conclusions depend on?

The critics ( $\delta=1.5 \%, \eta=2$, no


Martin Weitzman: Stern was right for the wrong reasons; fat tails are the right reason


## A very quick excursion: what does IPCC AR5 say about climate sensitivity?



## Martin Weitzman's Dismal Theorem

- Consider a two-period model with uncertain future consumption, and normalise current consumption to 1:

$$
W=U(1)+\beta \cdot E U(C)
$$

- How much should we be willing to give up to increase future consumption by one sure unit?

$$
M=\beta \cdot \frac{E U^{\prime}(C)}{U^{\prime}(1)}
$$

## Martin Weitzman's Dismal Theorem

- Suppose:

1. Relative risk aversion $>0$ as $C \rightarrow 0^{+}$
2. Uncertain consumption growth $y \equiv s Z+\mu$ is given by

$$
h(y \mid s)=\left(\frac{1}{s}\right) \cdot f\left(\frac{y-\mu}{s}\right)
$$

$\mu$ is known but $s(\approx$ climate sensitivity) is itself uncertain
3. Jeffreys' prior on $s, p(s) \propto s^{-k}, k>0$ and observations of $y$ are finite
3. Then the posterior distribution of $y, q\left(y \mid \boldsymbol{y}_{n}\right)$ is fattailed
4. Moreover $M=+\infty$ !

## The Dismal Theorem is a reductio ad absurdum

- Of course we're not willing to pay an infinite amount to increase future consumption
- Ways to make the Dismal Theorem go away:
- Realise that total WTP can exist even if marginal WTP does not
- Use a different prior on $s$
- Bound the problem somehow, e.g. bound the utility function, or WTP


## Nonetheless it has contributed to changing the narrative



Climate change mitigation as
planetary
insurance

## Re-doing the Stern Review analysis with fat tails




## Re-doing the Stern Review with fat tails

| Scenario |  | Marginal damage cost of $\mathrm{CO}_{2}$ on <br> BAU <br> (\$US/tCO2e) |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Tails | Discount <br> rate | $5 \%$ | Mean | $95 \%$ |
| Fat | Stern | 21 | 445 | 1862 |
| Thin | Stern | 10 | 138 | 369 |
| Fat | High | 5 | 346 | 1741 |
| Thin | High | 8 | 101 | 141 |

## But these results depend on the curvature of the damage function



That's unfortunate, since the curvature of the damage function cannot be pinned down by empirical evidence


## Which of these do you believe is more likely?



We also see, with perhaps greater clarity than before, the limits of the standard tools of expected utility theory...

## Results become sensitive to how and where WTP is bounded (Weitzman, 2009); for example...



Source: Dietz
(2011) in

Climatic
Change
Fig. 4 Expected loss in social welfare as a function of the upper bound on damages $(\phi)$

## What about structural uncertainty? What are the implications for policy choice?

- Expected utility theory requires unique estimates of probability, most plausibly subjective in nature (de Finetti, Ramsey and Savage)
- We don't appear to have those for climate sensitivity at the very least
- Options

1. Choose the best estimate (the 'scientist's solution')
2. Aggregate the various estimates into a single estimate (the 'Bayesian solution')
3. Do something other than maximise expected utility

## An alternative: the smooth model of decision making under ambiguity

- Klibanoff, Marinacci and Mukerji derive a smooth 'multiple priors' decision theory, which accounts for ambiguity aversion
- Value of a policy:

$$
V(f)=\sum_{m} p_{m} \varphi\left(E U_{m}(f)\right)=E_{\text {subj }} \varphi\left(E_{o b j} U(f)\right)
$$

- $\Phi($.$) encodes ambiguity aversion iff \Phi^{\prime \prime}($.


## Ambiguity aversion can significantly increase the value of emissions cuts



## Another alternative: robust control

After Hansen and Sargent (e.g. Robustness, 2007, Princeton Univ. Press)


Figure 1.7.1: Robust decision making: A decision maker with model $f_{\alpha_{o}}$ suspects that the data are actually generated by a nearby model $f$, where $I\left(f_{\alpha_{o}}, f\right) \leq \eta$.

## Another alternative: robust control

- Choice under model uncertainty:
- Like a two player, zero-sum game
- Between a maximising decision-maker and malevolent, minimising mother nature, who chooses the model distortion that gives the worst pay-off
- Solution is therefore a form of max-min

$$
\max V(f)=\min _{m} E_{m} U(f) \quad \bar{\eta}>\eta>0
$$

## Robust control also points to deeper emissions cuts

- Athanassoglou and Xepapadeas (2012 in JEEM) - optimal emissions cuts "most probably" increasing in degree of model uncertainty
- Funke and Paetz (2011 in Climatic Change) emissions cuts towards a stabilisation target should be deeper under robust control


## Conclusion \#1

- The case for deep cuts in global greenhouse gas emissions seems stronger than ever
- even if the feasible set of cuts may be diminishing the longer we continue on something not too far from business as usual


## Conclusion \#2

- There is much still up for grabs academically, as the theoretical eclecticism that has characterised the last few years of research in climate-change economics leaves us in a period of intellectual flux


## Supplementary slides

## Why is (marginal) willingness to pay

 infinite?- Switch to thinking in terms of discrete probability distributions:

$$
E U^{\prime}(C)=\sum_{i=0}^{k} p_{i} U^{\prime}\left(C_{i}\right)
$$

- $i=0$ is defined as the catastrophic state, $i=$ $1,2, \ldots, k$ are non-catastrophic states
- In a catastrophic state $C$ is very small but $>0$


## Why is (marginal) willingness to pay infinite?

| State | Catastrophic <br> state | Non-catastrophic states |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Probability | $\mathrm{p}_{0}$ | $\mathrm{p}_{1}, \ldots$ | $\mathrm{p}_{\mathrm{k}}$ |
| Outcome | $\mathrm{U}^{\prime}\left(\mathrm{C}_{0}\right)$ | $\mathrm{U}^{\prime}\left(\mathrm{C}_{1}\right), \ldots$ | $\mathrm{U}^{\prime}\left(\mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{k}}\right)$ |

## Why is (marginal) willingness to pay

 infinite?- Consider sequences of catastrophic futures

$$
\left(C_{0}{ }^{(n)}, p_{0}{ }^{(n)}\right)
$$

where $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} C_{0}{ }^{(n)}=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} p_{0}{ }^{(n)}=0$

- Dismal Theorem occurs iff

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} p_{0}{ }^{(n)} \cdot U^{\prime}\left(C_{0}{ }^{(n)}\right)=+\infty
$$

## The Ellsberg paradox (2-urn version): $1^{\text {st }}$ urn

- Imagine an urn (call it \#1) containing 100 balls
- 50 of the balls are red, and 50 are blue
- One ball is to be drawn at random from the urn, and you are offered a choice of the following bets:
- A1) Bet on red
- B1) Bet on blue
- C1) I am indifferent...

|  | Red is <br> drawn | Blue is <br> drawn |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bet on <br> red | You <br> win <br> $\$ 100$ | 0 |
| Bet on <br> blue | 0 | You <br> win <br> $\$ 100$ |

## $2^{\text {nd }} u r n$

- Now imagine a different urn (call it \#2) containing 100 balls
- Each of the balls is either red or blue but this time in unknown proportion
- One ball is to be drawn at random from the urn, and you are again offered a choice of the following bets:
- A2) Bet on red
- B2) Bet on blue
- C2) I am indifferent...

|  | Red is <br> drawn | Blue is <br> drawn |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bet on <br> red | You <br> win <br> $\$ 100$ | 0 |
| Bet on <br> blue | 0 | You <br> win <br> $\$ 100$ |

## Choice between urns (a)

- Recall that:
- In urn 1 you know that 50 of the balls are red, and 50 of the balls are blue
- In urn 2 you know nothing about the proportion of red and blue balls
- Which of the following bets would you prefer to take?
- X1) Bet on red in urn 1
- Y1) Bet on red in urn 2
- Z1) I am indifferent between "Bet on red" in urn 1 and "Bet on red" in

|  | Red is <br> drawn | Blue is <br> drawn |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bet on <br> red | You <br> win <br> $\$ 100$ | 0 |
| Bet on <br> blue | 0 | You <br> win <br> $\$ 100$ | urn 2

## Choice between urns (b)

- Recall that:
- In urn 1 you know that 50 of the balls are red, and 50 of the balls are blue
- In urn 2 you know nothing about the proportion of red and blue balls
- Which of the following bets would you prefer to take?
- X2) Bet on blue in urn 1
- Y2) Bet on blue in urn 2
- Z2) I am indifferent between "Bet on blue" in urn 1 and "Bet on blue" in

|  | Red is <br> drawn | Blue is <br> drawn |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bet on <br> red | You <br> win <br> $\$ 100$ | 0 |
| Bet on <br> blue | 0 | You <br> win <br> $\$ 100$ | urn 2

## How do people choose?

- Most people choose C1 (i.e. indifferent), C2 (i.e. indifferent again), and then X 1 (i.e. bet on red in urn 1) and X 2 (i.e. bet on blue in urn 1)
- Hold on a minute!
- If you choose X1, apparently you believe there are more red balls in urn 1 than urn 2
- But then you cannot choose both C1 and C2 (must be $<50$ red balls in urn 2)
- Moreover, X1 and X2 contradict each other
- So these choices cannot be described by EU theory

|  | Red is <br> drawn | Blue is <br> drawn |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| "Bet on <br> red" | You <br> win <br> $\$ 100$ | 0 |
| "Bet on <br> blue" | 0 | You <br> win <br> $\$ 100$ |

- But they can be explained by ambiguity aversion

