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GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT

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ABSTRACT

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Heterogeneity

1. Introduction

Facing mounting pressure from increasingly environmentally conscious citizens as well as global community in climate negotiations, China has taken significant efforts in energy conservation and carbon emissions reduction in recent years. In 2009, China committed to reduce its CO₂ emissions per unit of GDP (i.e. emission intensity) by 40%–45% by 2020 from its 2005 level (Wang and Wei, 2016). China also implemented binding targets during its 12th Five-Year Plan (FYP) period (2011–2015) to reduce energy consumption per unit of GDP (i.e. energy intensity) by 16% and carbon intensity by 17% from its 2010 levels (SCC, 2011a). In the recently released 13th FYP period (2016–2020), the government pledged another 15% reduction in energy intensity and 18% reduction in CO₂ emission intensity by 2020 (SCC, 2016). China has also played an increasingly proactive role in international climate negotiations in recent years. For example, in 2015, the Chinese government made significant commitments at the Paris climate summit. China pledged to peak its CO₂ emissions no later than 2030, reduce its CO₂ emissions per unit of GDP by 60%–65% by 2030 from its 2005 level, and increase the proportion of non-fossil fuels in the total primary energy supply to 20% by 2030 (NDRC, 2015; Lomborg, 2016; Den Elzen et al., 2016). The Paris Climate Agreement was recently ratified by The Chinese government also ratified the Paris Climate Agreement at the G20 Summit in 2016. Emission reductions in energy-intensive industries are widely believed to be critical to fulfil these commitments. The focus on energy-intensive industries is also demonstrated by a series of administrative measures aiming to phase out outdated production capacity in these industries. However, given the context of a proposed national carbon trading market in an effort to improve mitigation efficiency, the extent to which energy-intensive industries should take on mitigation depends on their abatement costs of CO₂ emissions.

Iron and steel industry is one of the most energy-intensive industries in China that accounts for approximately 15% of China's total energy consumption, 12% of China's total CO₂ emissions, and 27% of the national industry emissions (Guo and Fu, 2010; Wang and Jiang, 2012; Xie et al., 2016). It is thus not surprising that energy saving and carbon emissions reduction in China's iron and steel industry has become a focal subject in recent literature. Worrell et al. (1997) compared the energy intensity of iron and steel industry in seven countries using a decomposition analysis based on physical indicators for process type and product mix. Their results show that the efficiency improvement is the main driver for energy savings in China's iron and steel industry. Wang et al. (2007) assessed the CO₂ abatement potential of China's iron and steel industry based on different CO₂ emissions scenarios from 2000 to 2030 and found that adjusting the structure of the industry and improving the technology played an important role in CO₂ emissions reduction. Zhang and Wang (2008) estimated the impact of energy saving technologies and innovation investments on the productive efficiency in China's iron and steel enterprises during the period 1990–2000 and found that the adoption and improvement of energy saving measures, such as pulverized coal injection technology, had attributed to productive efficiency growth. Guo and Fu (2010) did a survey about the development and current situations of energy consumption in China's iron and steel industry and found that its energy efficiency has significantly improved from 2000 to 2005. Tian et al. (2013) examined the trend, characteristics and driving forces of energy-related greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions in China's iron and steel industry from 2001 to 2010 and indicated that the production

scale effect was the main driver for the growth of energy related GHG emissions in China's iron and steel industry. Similar to Wang et al. (2007), Wen et al. (2014) also assessed the potential for energy saving and CO₂ emissions mitigation in China's iron and steel industry but for a shorter period from 2010 to 2020. Hasanbeigi et al. (2013) constructed a bottom-up energy conservation supply curve to estimate the cost-effective and total technical potential for CO₂ emissions reduction in China's iron and steel industry during 2010–2030. Lin and Wang (2015) investigated the total factor CO₂ emissions performance and estimated the emissions mitigation potential in China's iron and steel industry during the period of 2000 to 2011. In another paper, they also analyzed the energy conservation potential of China's iron and steel sector using the co-integration method and scenario analysis (Lin and Wang, 2014). Xu and Lin (2016) also studied CO₂ emissions in China's iron and steel industry but focused on regional differences.

To sum up, most studies have shown that there is substantial potential for emissions reduction from this industry; however, the amount of actual abatement will largely depend on the marginal abatement cost (MAC). Under a carbon trading setting, firms from an industry with high MAC would rather purchase permit than actually engage abatement (even with large abatement potential). Despite the rapidly growing literature on CO₂ emissions in China's iron and steel industry, no work has attempted to estimate the abatement cost of CO₂ emissions in this industry, which seems an important gap to fill.

The estimation of the abatement cost of CO₂ emissions is fundamental to the design and implementation of carbon reduction policies. China's current emission reduction policies based on administrative targets of reduction in emission intensity is widely criticized to be lack of economic efficiency.¹ The government is taking measures to transit to market based instruments by establishing pilot carbon trading market and eventually a national trading market. However, the validity of the argument that a trading market is economically more efficient than intensity reduction targets depends very much on the heterogeneity of MAC especially at the firm level. The estimation of MAC is thus of great significance and attracts increasing attention in recent literature. Most studies have estimated China's carbon abatement cost at regional level including Wei et al. (2012), Wang et al. (2011), Choi et al. (2012), Zhang et al. (2014), Du et al. (2015), He (2015), Ma and Hailu (2016), Tang et al. (2016), Sun et al. (2015) and Wu and Ma (2017), or at industrial level such as Lee and Zhang (2012), Peng et al. (2012), Chen (2013), and Zhou et al. (2015). However, firm-level analyses are very limited due to the lack of high-quality firm-level data. The only few studies using firm-level data all focused on the electricity sector. Wei et al. (2013) evaluated the inefficiency and CO₂ shadow prices of 124 power plants located in Zhejiang Province in 2004. Du and Mao (2015) estimated CO₂ reduction potential and MAC of CO₂ for China's coal-fired power plants in 2004 and 2008. Du et al. (2016) investigated the carbon abatement cost of power plants based on a plant-level cross-sectional dataset (648 observations) for the year of 2008. To the best of our knowledge, there is no firm-level analysis on the MAC (i.e. shadow price) of CO₂ emissions in the iron-steel sector.

¹ During the 11th FYP period (2006–2010), the China's government proposed an administrative target to reduce energy intensity by 20% which was further assigned to each province. In the ending two years of this period, some industrial enterprises with high energy intensity and large difficulty in energy conservation had to switch out for power consumption limitation to reach this target, which can be extremely costly.

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