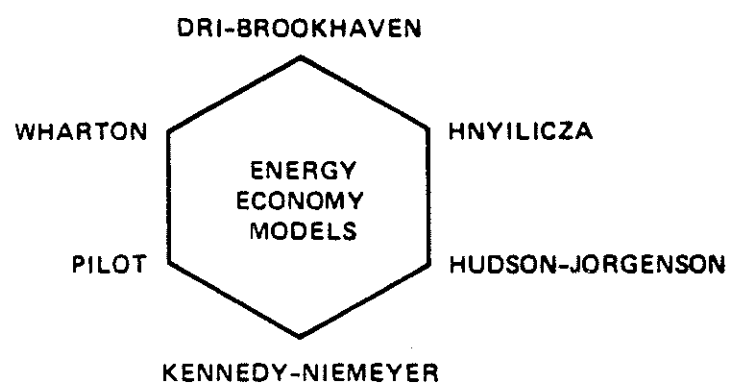


# ENERGY AND THE ECONOMY



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Energy Modeling Forum  
Institute for Energy Studies  
Stanford University  
Stanford, California 94305

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This report summarizes the results of the EMF working group study. It does not necessarily represent the views of Stanford Institute for Energy Studies or Stanford University.

## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

### ENERGY AND THE ECONOMY

The Electric Power Research Institute created the Energy Modeling Forum (EMF) to improve the usefulness of energy models. Administered by the Stanford Institute for Energy Studies, the EMF operates through working groups of energy model developers and users conducting comparative tests of a variety of available energy models. To date, the EMF has completed one investigation--of the effects of changes in the energy sector on the domestic economy. Topics for future studies have been recommended by the EMF Senior Advisory Panel and further studies are in progress.

The first EMF working group, examining the link between energy and the economy, concentrated on the use of several large macroeconomic models as described in this report. Each model was represented in the working group by a technical team or expert. To compare the results obtained by these models, the working group developed a common set of assumptions and scenarios for analysis. Forecasts of absolute levels of output and energy consumption are not the focus of this study. Rather, the models are compared to uncover the differences or similarities in the estimates of the economic effects of changes in the energy sector, i.e., changes in relative energy prices or relative energy utilization.

The major conclusions derived from the models' output include:

- In the presence of constant energy prices, increases in economic activity produce similar increases in energy demands, although these may be moderated by trends toward less energy intensive products and services.
- Higher energy prices or reduced energy utilization need not produce proportional reductions in aggregate economic output. There is a potential for substituting capital and labor for energy and the contribution of energy to the economy, relative to these factors, is small.
- The models do show some substantial reductions in economic output resulting from higher energy prices. The magnitudes of these reductions are very sensitive to the substitution assumptions implicit in the models. Further, the impacts may be large for individual sectors of the economy.
- The benefits of energy substitution may be lost in part if energy scarcity impedes capital formation. Reduced energy inputs may cause lower levels of investment and, consequently, reduce potential GNP. This indirect impact may be the most important effect of energy scarcity.

In addition to the direct results of the models, the working group identified other conclusions concerning the strengths and weaknesses of the models and the methods they employ. The models are useful, each with different attractive features. The study of the impact of energy on individual economic sectors requires the use of the detailed models. The analytical processes applied by the EMF working group may assist in the use of these models. The development of simple approximations explains a model's structure and clarifies the important underlying assumptions. Despite their usefulness, however, the models simplify or exclude important characteristics of the link between energy and the economy. For example:

- All the models examined focus on the long run potential of the economy. Abrupt changes in energy availability or other policies with short term implications may affect the realization of this potential GNP, but are not within the scope of the models studied here.
- The models require assumptions about future population or labor force growth and the rate of technological change which, other things equal, determine the growth path of the GNP. The analysis in this study is directed at the changes in growth due to changes in the relative scarcity of energy, not to absolute levels of future economic activity. There may be some effect of energy price or availability on the variables whose values are here assumed. Any such effects would not be captured in the models.
- The representation of nonmarket behavior is difficult to include in the models. The effects of regulation, industrial organization, or the expectations created by government's future role are not well understood.
- The models treat environmental considerations in a rudimentary way. They do not address the causes and effects of persistent unemployment nor the impacts of unexpected embargoes. Financial sectors are highly stylized or absent in many of the models. Such important issues require different analytical approaches or major model extensions.

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William W. Hogan  
Working Group Chairman  
EMF Executive Director  
Stanford University  
September 1977

ENERGY MODELING FORUM

SENIOR ADVISORY PANEL

The Energy Modeling Forum seeks to improve the usefulness of energy models by conducting comparative tests of models in the study of key energy issues. The success of the Forum depends upon the selection of important study topics, the broad involvement of policy makers, and the persistent attention to the goal of improved communication. The EMF is assisted in these matters by a Senior Advisory Panel that recommends topics for investigation, critiques the studies, guides the operations of the project, and helps communicate the results to the energy policy making community. The role of the Panel is strictly advisory. The Panel is not responsible for the results of individual EMF working group studies.

Mr. Charles J. Hitch (Chairman)	President, Resources for the Future
Dr. Philip Abelson	President, Carnegie Institution
Dr. Harvey Brooks	Professor, Harvard University
Mr. David Cohen	President, Common Cause
Mr. Gordon R. Corey	Vice Chairman, Commonwealth Edison
Mr. Charles Di Bona	Executive Vice President, American Petroleum Institute
Mr. Herman M. Dieckamp	President, General Public Utilities Service Corporation
The Honorable John D. Dingell	Member, United States House of Representatives
The Honorable Joseph L. Fisher	Member, United States House of Representatives
The Honorable William P. Hobby	Lieutenant Governor of Texas
Mr. Jack K. Horton	Chairman, Southern California Edison Company
The Honorable Alfred E. Kahn	Chairman, Civil Aeronautics Board
Mr. W. F. Kieschnick, Jr.	Executive Vice President, Atlantic Richfield Company
Dr. Henry R. Linden	President, Institute of Gas Technology
Mr. Guy W. Nichols	President, New England Electric System
Mr. John F. O'Leary	Administrator, Federal Energy Administration
Dr. Alan Pasternak	Member, California Energy Commission
Dr. John Sawhill	President, New York University
Dr. Chauncey Starr	President, Electric Power Research Institute
The Honorable Morris K. Udall	Member, United States House of Representatives

ENERGY MODELING FORUM  
ENERGY AND THE ECONOMY  
WORKING GROUP MEMBERS AND PARTICIPANTS

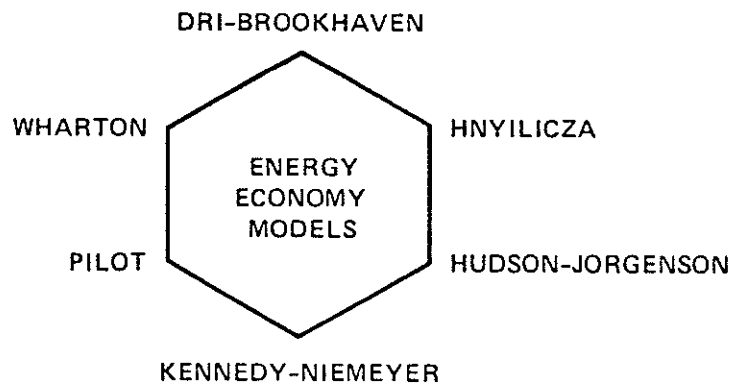
<u>NAME</u>	<u>AFFILIATION</u>
Gary B. Ackerman	Commonwealth Edison Company
David J. Behling, Jr.	Brookhaven National Laboratory
John C. Bukovski	Commonwealth Edison Company
Edward G. Cazalet	Decision Focus Inc.
Gordon R. Corey	Commonwealth Edison Company
Brian L. Crissey	National Research Council (CONAES)
George B. Dantzig	Dept. of Operations Research, Stanford University
William P. Drews	EXXON Corporation
Vijaya G. Duggal	Wharton Econometric Forecasting Associates
William F. Finan	Wharton Econometric Forecasting Associates
Dennis R. Fromholzer	Dept. of Engineering-Economic Systems, Stanford University †
Martin Greenberger	Electric Power Research Institute
Esteban Hnyilicza	Massachusetts Institute of Technology
Kenneth C. Hoffman	Brookhaven National Laboratory
William W. Hogan	Energy Modeling Forum
Edward A. Hudson	Data Resources Inc.
Lionel S. Johns	Office of Technology Assessment, U.S. Congress
Dale W. Jorgenson	Dept. of Economics, Harvard University
Michael Kennedy	Dept. of Economics, University of Texas *
Tjalling C. Koopmans	Cowles Foundation for Research in Economics, Yale University
Lester D. Lave	Dept. of Economics, Carnegie-Mellon University
Robert Litan	Cowles Foundation for Research in Economics, Yale University ††
Alan S. Manne	Dept. of Operations Research, Stanford University
William Marcuse	Brookhaven National Laboratory
E. Victor Niemeier	Center for Energy Studies, University of Texas
David Nissen	Federal Energy Administration
William D. Nordhaus	Cowles Foundation for Research in Economics, Yale University ††
Shailendra C. Parikh	Energy Modeling Forum
Bruce A. Pasternack	Booz-Allen-Hamilton, Consultants
Milton Russell	Resources for the Future
Philip K. Verleger, Jr.	Council of Economic Advisers **
Jim Walker	California Energy Commission
John P. Weyant	Energy Center, Harvard University †††
Richard H. Williamson	Energy Research and Development Administration
David O. Wood	Massachusetts Institute of Technology

Current Affiliation

† ERDA Conservation Planning and Policy  
\* RAND Corporation  
†† Council of Economic Advisers  
\*\* U.S. Department of the Treasury  
††† Energy Modeling Forum

Volume 1

ENERGY AND THE ECONOMY



## ENERGY AND THE ECONOMY

### INTRODUCTION

*Energy use  
and the  
economy have  
grown together.*

During recent decades, the national economy has produced a substantial rise in output. Energy consumption has experienced a similar increase. Between 1950 and 1973, the economy grew at 3.6% per year while energy consumption grew at 3.4% per year. It is natural to attribute a causal relationship to these patterns. Expansion of the economy raises energy consumption, and a plentiful energy supply is seen as a spur to economic growth. The common expectation, however, is that future energy supplies will be limited and expensive. This new perception of the energy situation has created a call for national action. If abundant energy is essential for future economic well being, a large effort is required now to guarantee that our needs are proper and are properly met.

*But does  
economic growth  
depend on  
energy avail-  
ability?*

At the root of this national concern is the assessment of the dependence of the economy on energy. This is a complex problem. Energy availability affects every facet of our economy and energy is used in many different forms. What may be true for the use of electric power in aluminum production need not be true for the use of oil in home heating. Regional differences, the long lead times for major changes in facilities, and the uncertainties of the security of supply contribute to the difficulty of describing the interface between the energy sector and the remainder of the economy. It is not surprising, therefore, that there is a diversity of opinion about the nature and importance of energy-economic interactions. There is some evidence that the relationship between energy and economic growth is not immutable, but the degree of potential flexibility is disputed.

*Are forecasts and other energy studies valid that do not include the possibility of such dependence?*

The ramifications of large interactions are wider than it may seem at first glance. Energy forecasts are based customarily on projections of the future output of the economy. Suppose that this output is altered by the feedback effect from changes in the supply and price of energy. Then the energy forecasts themselves may be inconsistent. Thus, the magnitude of the energy-economic feedback bears on the validity of analytical studies that isolate the energy sector from the remainder of the economy. Such isolation affords an enormous simplification of analysis and is engaged in to some extent by most energy studies.<sup>1</sup>

*The Forum is comparing runs of a variety of energy models to explore these questions.*

It follows that analysis of the energy-economic interactions must precede evaluation of energy options. The purpose of this report is to summarize the Energy Modeling Forum's study of selected models of energy and the economy. These models come equipped with an ample set of limitations, and their use is qualified by the usual caveats. Some of these are discussed in the report or the appendices. The reader will recognize the narrow scope of this analysis in examining GNP and prices as the representatives of economic activity to the exclusion of environmental issues, problems of income distribution, changes in international trade, or a host of related subjects. In part this is caused by the intent to compare results across models and the need to limit the scope of the study. The detailed models have rich structures, and many can be applied to a wider spectrum of issues than is considered here. However, the limited questions addressed in this study are important and the model comparison illuminates several valuable conclusions. Early on, the analysis rejects the straw man of a lockstep linkage between energy and the economy. Reductions in energy utilization need not produce proportional reductions in economic activity. The small value share of energy in the total economy is shown to be an important but incomplete component of this story. It is the potential for substitution that dominates this analysis and establishes the

*The value of energy input is small compared to the total economy.*

importance of large changes in energy availability in determining the resulting changes in economic activity. The final theme centers on the indirect effects of energy on capital, which may compromise some of the benefits of substitution.

The paper begins with the history of the Energy Modeling Forum. After describing the role of energy models, the paper develops some fundamental concepts that help explain the structure of the models used in this study. The paper concludes with a comparison of model results and their implications for the evaluation of the energy-economic interactions. Details of the analysis and relevant supporting material are left to a series of appendices.

#### THE ENERGY MODELING FORUM

*The expanding number of energy models provides a framework for analysis and debate.*

Behind sharp disagreements on energy questions, there are often simple but fundamental differences in views about the nature of the problem. If made explicit, these alternate views can be compared and evaluated. Formal models implemented on computers provide a capability for organizing and extending the debate about the impacts of future energy alternatives. In many settings, energy models are integrated into the specification and evaluation of energy options, but their full potential is not being realized. The sudden increase in energy policy concern has produced an expansion of energy model development effort, but these new capabilities are not widely understood and are not applied to many relevant energy problems.

*But these models must be better understood through the improved communication the Forum provides.*

If energy models are to contribute to the improvement of the energy policy debate, there must develop a wider appreciation of current model capabilities and a better specification of model limitations needing new research. This presumes regular communication between the developers of energy models and potential users. To meet this need, the Electric Power Research Institute is sponsoring the Energy Modeling



Forum, a project administered through the Stanford Institute for Energy Studies. The purpose of the Energy Modeling Forum (EMF) is to promote communication between model users and developers through the comparative application of current energy models to the analysis of priority energy issues. Disciplined by the focus on a specific question of importance, the EMF operates as a combined group of energy model developers and model users. By structuring comparative tests, the EMF seeks to clarify the central implications of the models and the assumptions on which these results are based. In the process, common perceptions of energy problems emerge, new priorities for analysis are identified, and the uses of the models are illustrated.

*The Forum's pilot study concerns the relationship between energy and the economy.*

The first EMF working group was organized to develop operating principles and demonstrate the viability of the basic concept. For its initial study, the group examined the link between the energy sector and the economy. What is the nature of the link between the energy sector and the remainder of the economy? How strong are the feedbacks? Will changes in energy utilization have a significant effect on the future of the economy?

*Can the use of energy be diminished without affecting output?*

The relationship between the energy sector and the economy is central to the evaluation of energy options. Most concern with energy issues arises from the assumption that the character of future energy availability will have a major impact on the quality of life, and the level of economic activity is a primary measure of this quality. Opinion is divided sharply on the structure of the link between energy and the economy. Basic physical laws indicate that some energy is required for every activity and if adequate energy is not available the activity cannot take place. From this perspective, the historical growth of energy and the economy is cited as evidence that their future growth cannot be separated. In the short run, most would agree, for we must use the equipment and processes now in place,

and their range of energy utilization is narrowly restricted. In the longer run, however, new equipment can be purchased, alternate transportation systems designed, the mix of desirable products changed, and new technology introduced. The same level of output might be obtained with a lower level of energy utilization and the quality of life maintained or even improved, some would say. This perspective is supported by the evidence of different energy utilization patterns and higher energy prices in other industrial nations. The history of low energy prices may explain the growth of energy demand in the United States.

*The answer is central to future policy choices.*

If growth in energy availability is essential to the growth of the economy, then large expenditures are indicated for programs directed at expanding long run energy supply and lowering energy costs. However, if substantial flexibility exists for adjusting energy utilization and economic output, then programs which facilitate this adjustment may be employed. The best policy probably requires a careful blending of both approaches, but it is certain that these choices will be influenced heavily by the expectations of the impacts on future economic growth. It is essential to understand the links between energy and the economy.

#### THE ROLE OF MODELS

*Computer modeling allows pieces of a problem to be analyzed separately, then combined.*

Energy models alone cannot dispose of these difficult issues. They augment our capabilities for organizing the collective understanding of a problem. Modeling does not replace careful thinking, but seeks to exploit it. A model records what we know by providing an accounting framework, organizing the data and key relationships. At the heart of most models is some simple classification scheme. For example, the model may describe all energy consumption in terms of a few sectors, aggregating the millions of households, commercial establishments, or industries. This permits the separate but consistent analysis of the major problem components. Specifying how these components connect may simplify other complex interactions.

Hence, one analysis may characterize the effect of regulation on the supply of natural gas. A separate analysis of substitution relates the supply of natural gas to the industrial demand for oil. When combined, the two analyses are a model of the relationship between regulation and the industrial demand for oil. In the process of specifying each analysis and the interface, the important assumptions are illuminated and made easier to validate. Is it true that oil and gas are perfect substitutes in all industries? If not, how sensitive is this assumption in the estimation of the effect of regulation on the industrial demand for oil? If the model is explicit, these questions can be addressed systematically. The implications of a given hypothesis about the structure of the energy system can be pursued. If the model also is detailed, computer implementation may be a further aid in pursuing the needed calculation. These contributions of modeling are substantial. The accumulation of knowledge and the pursuit of the implications of that knowledge are the essence of sound analysis. Formal modeling makes the process explicit and promotes its orderly evolution.

*But models are at best only simplified approximations of reality.*

The limitations of models are important to recognize. The basic limits of our understanding are transferred to a model. Hence, the effects of noncompetitive practices are not to be found in the study of models assuming perfect competition. A model does not create a new theory, it explores the existing theory, often in a highly simplified fashion. This simplification is essential in modeling, permitting quick analysis of many relationships and the clarification of basic causal mechanisms. Without simplification, the only model of reality is reality itself, and only one experiment is permitted. With a model, many experiments are possible. And, unlike reality, we can take them or leave them. But the model is only an approximation to reality and must be judged accordingly. Many approximations to the same reality are possible. The application of any one model must be guided by the context of the questions addressed. For problems

as complex as the evaluation of energy futures, there is no single model which addresses all issues. There are many problems for which there are no models at all. Energy models do not replace the effort of the analyst in determining the appropriate assumptions and problem structure, but they do extend the scope of the problems that can be studied.

*We start with a simple model. It can be extended as its deficiencies become clear.*

The benefits of simplification and the potential for detail are found in the range of available models of energy-economic interactions. Very simple aggregate analyses of the interaction can place the problem in perspective. These aggregate models provide the conceptual background for the evolution of more sophisticated systems. As the potential deficiencies of the simple models are identified and the assumptions relaxed, more detailed models develop and the range of application expands. Therefore, before presenting the results of the sophisticated models participating in the EMF study, a basic framework is developed for characterizing the key concepts underlying the interaction between the energy sector and the economy.

#### A BEGINNING FRAMEWORK FOR ANALYZING ENERGY AND THE ECONOMY

The issue here is the impact of a relative scarcity of energy. None of the models implies that energy is not needed for the economy. If energy prices remain stable, then an increase in economic activity should produce an increase in the demand for energy. Of course, the future growth of energy demand may be less than the historical growth because of lower projections for population increase or a trend toward a disproportionately higher growth of the less energy intensive sectors of the economy. The difficult question is, can energy demand growth be dampened further by higher energy prices without proportional reductions in economic activity?

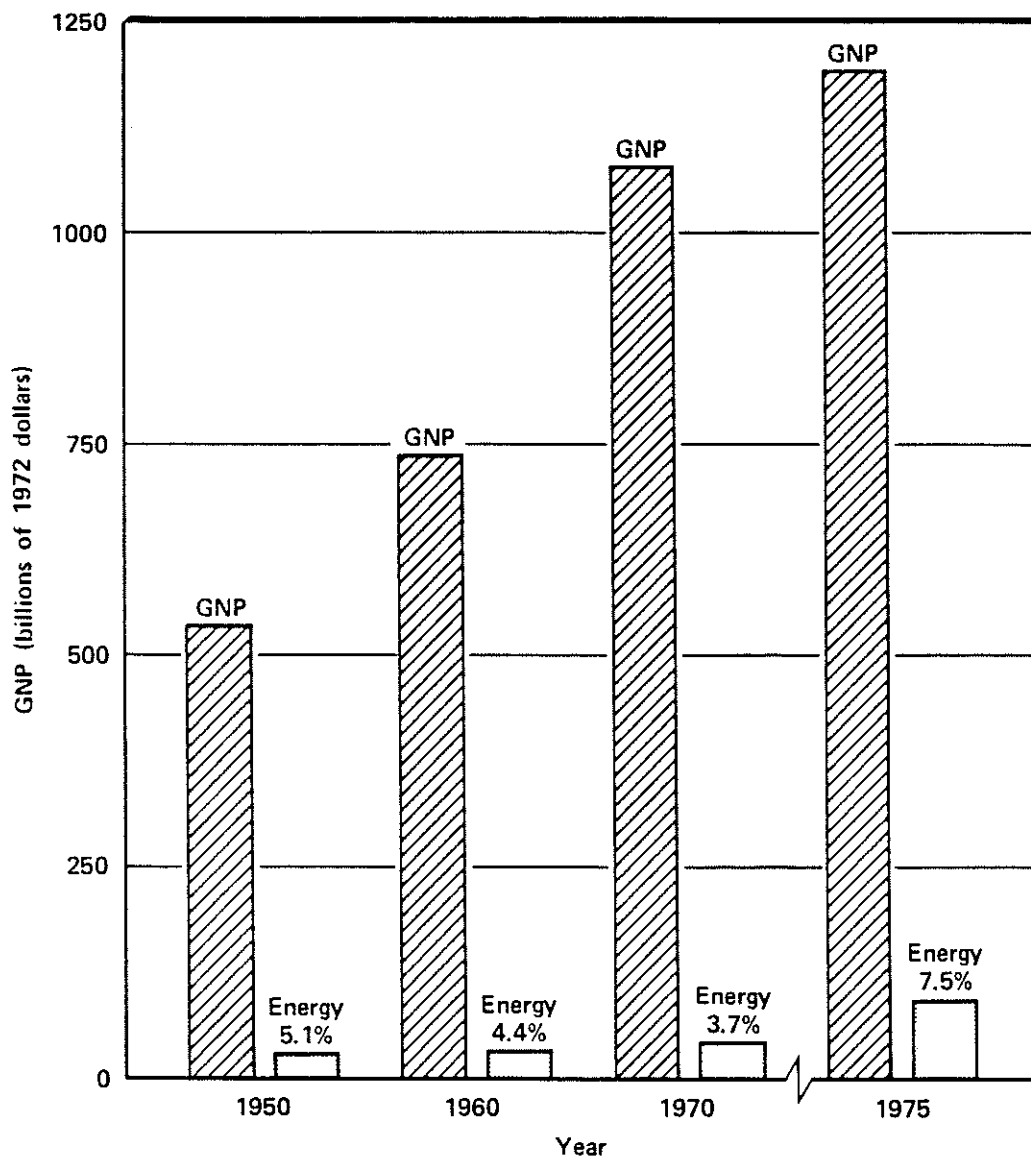
*The value of energy input is small compared to the total economy.*

For simplicity, we restrict attention to the long run, when energy equipment and processes can be changed substantially. In the short run, the character of the problem is different and different models are appropriate. As a further simplification for this beginning discussion, we represent the economy in terms of just two inputs--energy and all other items. Note in Figure 1 that energy is only a small component of the total U.S. economy. As of 1970, the value of primary energy inputs did not exceed 4% of the GNP. The analogy of an elephant-rabbit stew illustrates the implications of this low value share. If the recipe for such a stew calls for just one rabbit (the energy sector) and one elephant (the rest of the economy), won't it still taste very much like elephant stew?

*Hence, changes in energy choices need not dominate future economic activity.*

If energy prices had not risen after 1970, it is likely that energy demands would have grown at about the same rate as the GNP. The 4% ratio would then continue into the future. But what is the effect when energy costs double and there is sufficient time for the economy to adapt? One estimate of the impact may be obtained by assuming a constant recipe. Suppose the rabbit is paid for with part of the stew. Then an additional 4% of the stew (GNP) must be allocated to cover the doubling in the cost of the rabbit (energy). In fact, other recipes are available that call for less rabbit and, therefore, lead to lower costs. Under these assumptions, the first doubling of energy costs would produce, at most, a 4% loss in GNP.

With a more complicated argument, it can be shown that a small decrease in energy supply leads to a decrease in economic output proportional to the value share of energy in the economy. At a 4% value share, a 1% reduction in energy input would produce a 0.04% drop in total output. By this argument, a small percentage change in energy availability produces a considerably smaller percentage impact upon the economy as a whole.<sup>2</sup>



SOURCE: See Note 3.

Figure 1 GNP and Energy

*The degree of potential substitution determines the importance of energy.*

This simple analysis provides some insight but it suffers from a major defect in failing to represent accurately the flexibility of energy utilization in the economy. The processes for future production and utilization of energy are not fixed immutably. Insulation, efficiency improvements, and changes in the mix of input factors can alter the energy requirements for a fixed level of output. Such substitution possibilities can modify the economic impact of changes in the energy system. Flexibility in energy utilization is a central factor in determining energy-economic feedback, and its treatment varies widely among the many different energy models.

*The aggregate measure of substitution is similar to the elasticity of demand.*

#### THE ROLE OF SUBSTITUTION

The specific processes for energy substitution may be varied and intricate. Therefore, even if it is generally agreed that some substitution is feasible, it may not always be possible to identify the specific technological options available. The morass of detail may be approached gradually by expanding our first simple model and the beginning arguments based on the value share of energy. We explicitly assume now that substitution is possible between energy and nonenergy inputs to the economy. For the purpose of the present discussion, this flexibility can be summarized in economists' terms as the elasticity of substitution. Ignoring the feedback to the economy or other inputs, this parameter is the same as the elasticity of energy demand. It measures the proportional response of energy demand to a change in energy prices. Hence, if the elasticity of demand is  $-0.3$ , a 10% increase in energy prices produces a 3% decrease in energy demand.

*The elasticity of substitution is the index of aggregate model behavior.*

This concept, the elasticity of substitution, provides a convenient index for summarizing the aggregate behavior of the detailed models. If we assume that inputs of other factors such as capital and labor are held constant, then the elasticity of substitution virtually determines the feedback effect of the energy sector on the rest of the economy. The

implications of alternate elasticity estimates are shown in Figure 2. This depicts the GNP in the year 2010 as a function of energy input, holding other inputs constant. It is assumed that a Btu tax is imposed gradually to reduce energy consumption. Such a tax might be levied, for example, to mitigate environmental impacts or lessen import vulnerability.<sup>2</sup>

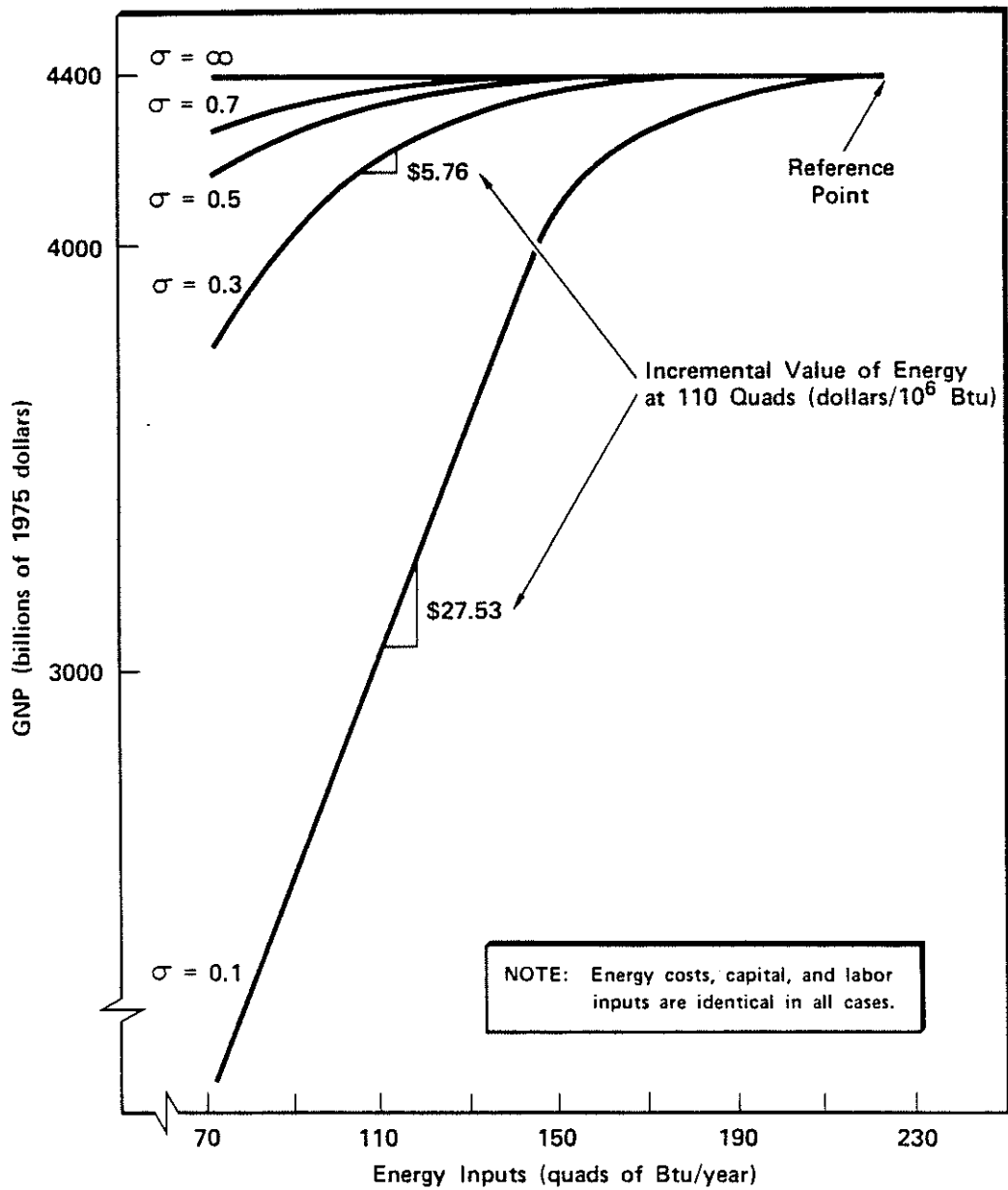
The analysis is based on a hypothetical reference forecast, but the qualitative conclusions are not sensitive to this reference. A small change in energy availability has almost no effect on GNP. The loss in output is exactly balanced by the savings from the reduced expense of energy. This is what the price represents, the value of the product at the margin. This value will change as the quantity of energy input changes but the output does not decrease in proportion to the decrease in energy input. Substitution of other input factors compensates for the reduction in energy input.

*Seemingly small changes in the elasticity of substitution produce major changes in economic impact.*

The importance of the long run elasticity of substitution is startling in the context of this analysis. A 50% reduction in energy availability produces a 28% reduction in GNP if the elasticity is as low as 0.1, but only a 1% reduction in GNP if the elasticity is as high as 0.7. Seemingly small changes in the substitution potential produce major changes in economic impact. Even the smaller GNP reductions have a large value, however. If the economy is growing at 3% in real terms and we discount future consumption at 6%, a 1% reduction in annual GNP corresponds to a present value of nearly half a trillion dollars. This is only 1% of the present value of future output, but it would justify a substantial research investment aimed at developing low cost technologies which can expand energy supply or improve the efficiency of energy utilization.

An alternative indicator of the economic impact of energy scarcity is found in the implicit tax associated with a given energy reduction. As a measure of the marginal value





SOURCE: See Note 2.

Figure 2 Economic Impacts of Energy Reductions in the Year 2010 for Various Elasticities of Substitution ( $\sigma$ )

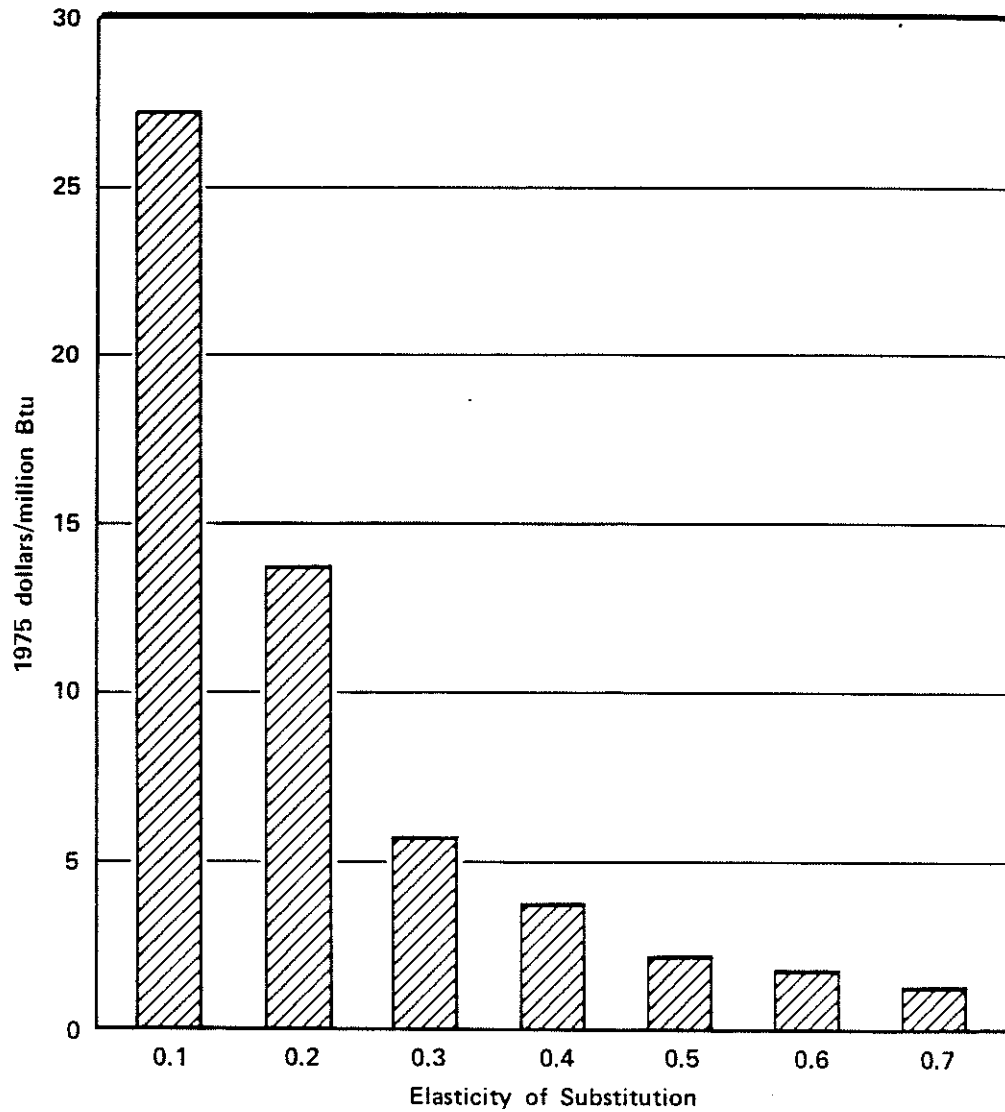
of energy, this tax may be a more appropriate barometer of the importance of energy scarcity. Although the specific tax is determined by the arbitrary assumptions of the reference forecast, the sensitivity to changes in the elasticity of substitution repeats the results of the analysis of GNP. The implicit tax for the 50% energy reduction from the reference forecast is shown in Figure 3. If the elasticity of substitution is as low as 0.1, the necessary tax is \$27.53/million Btu, a tax of over 3400%. But if the elasticity of substitution is as high as 0.7, the tax is reduced to \$1.26/million Btu or 158%.

*Available estimates of the elasticity of substitution suggest some flexibility in the economy.*

What is the proper elasticity of substitution? The estimation of this parameter has been the subject of many studies but there is no definitive resolution of the issue.<sup>4</sup> There are difficulties in comparing definitions, problematical data, and disputes about the relevance of past experience in extrapolations to the future. A consistent interpretation of these studies indicates the elasticity of substitution is between 0.2 and 0.6, although there is evidence for higher and lower values. As we see below, the detailed models which have an explicit representation of the full economy yield values between 0.3 and 0.5 for the elasticity as defined here, in terms of primary energy prices. This indicates that there is substantial but not unlimited flexibility in energy utilization in these models.

*The benefits of substitution may be lost in part if investment is curtailed.*

The estimates in Figure 2 of the impact of energy reductions are based on a simplified, partial analysis of the economy. This shows the potential of substitution between economic inputs to absorb energy input reductions with less than proportionate reductions in economic activity. However, changes in energy input have a further dimension of feedback to the economy. This additional dimension centers on the pattern of capital investment over time. Reductions in energy input lead to changes in the rate of return on capital as well as reductions in the level of total output. Investment, savings, and capital use are altered as a consequence. Over time, these



SOURCE: See Note 2.

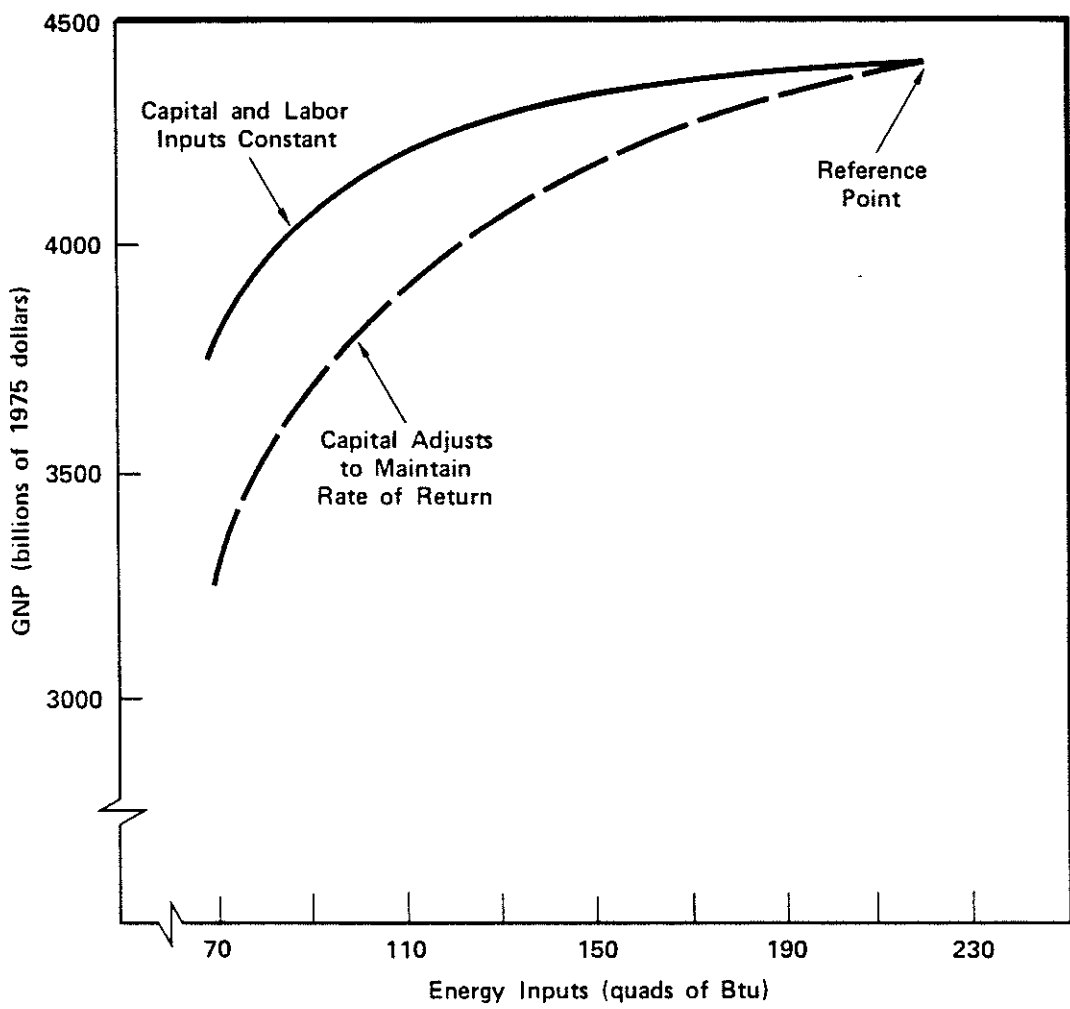
Figure 3 Implicit Tax, Cutting Energy Use in Half by 2010

effects may cumulate into significant changes in the capital stock and, therefore, in the productive capacity of the economy. It is difficult to analyze these complex interactions; in fact the sophisticated models participating in this EMF study are required for this task. As an approximation, however, we can extend the partial analysis to illustrate the magnitude of the economic effects of changes in capital input. For this purpose, expand the beginning framework to include three economic inputs--energy, capital, and labor. Now, instead of holding capital and labor constant as energy input changes, let capital adjust to maintain a constant rate of return. The impact of this new assumption, for the case of an elasticity of substitution of 0.3, is displayed in Figure 4. For a 50% reduction in energy input, there is a 4% reduction in GNP when capital is held constant, but the reduction is 11% of GNP when energy is reduced and capital changes to maintain a constant rate of return. In this case, the capital change effect exceeds the direct effect of the energy reduction.<sup>5</sup> Thus both substitution and capital adjustment processes are important in considering the feedback effects of energy on the economy. When both these processes are taken into account the conclusion remains that while energy reductions do have a substantial economic impact, the GNP reduction is proportionally smaller than the reduction in energy output.

#### THE REAL MODELS

*More detailed models can improve the representation of the substitution potential.*

Several immediate difficulties can be found in the aggregate analysis of the preceding section. First, the aggregation itself may disguise distinctly different behavior in component economic sectors. This behavior is of interest in itself and can be captured only by more detailed models. Second, the aggregate substitution parameter does not provide a description of the new processes and technologies that must be adopted. Again, more disaggregated analysis is necessary to provide the detail to support the credibility of the simple analysis. Third, investment, savings, and capital accumulation might be affected by the price and availability of energy. Here is another reason for the construction of more sophisticated models.



SOURCE: See Note 2.

Figure 4 Economic Impact of Energy Scarcity in the Year 2010 for Alternate Capital Assumptions (Elasticity of Substitution  $\sigma = 0.3$ )

The detail in the participating models covers a wide range.

Increased detail is characteristic of most of the analytical extensions in the models included in the EMF analysis.<sup>6</sup> The most aggregate of these models, developed by Hnyilicza of MIT, organizes production around the inputs of four factors to produce energy and nonenergy outputs. Markets balance supply and demand in each period as the system evolves over time. The parameters of this model have been empirically estimated. It provides, therefore, a first estimate of the potential flexibility of energy utilization. This also serves as a reference for comparing the results of more disaggregate models.

At the next level of detail, found in the models of Hudson-Jorgenson and Kennedy-Niemeyer, the economy is divided into nine sectors with special attention focused on a variety of energy products. A richer array of production and utilization arrangements becomes possible in these models. When aggregated to the level of the beginning analysis, these models may provide a means for representing variable elasticities of substitution.

This detail is pursued further in the PILOT model of Stanford, the Wharton model, and the DRI-Brookhaven system. The range is from the 23 sector economy in PILOT to the 100 sector economy in the DRI-Brookhaven model.

Each of these models is too complex to comprehend in its entirety except by analysis of individual components and the rules for combining these components. This complexity is a cost of credibly representing the flexibility of energy utilization. Computer implementation permits rapid calculation and examination of the models' implications. And the results can be aggregated to the level of the simpler framework. For example, the elasticity of substitution is shown in the simpler framework to be an important summary measure in determining the economic impact of energy system changes. This insight can be applied to the comparison of the detailed models if we identify them in terms of their substitution assumptions.

*The models extend from assumptions of little flexibility to substantial substitution possibilities.*

When viewed from the perspective of energy substitution assumptions, the participating models may be divided into two categories. Two models, the Kennedy-Niemeyer and PILOT systems, employ structures which implicitly assume little flexibility in energy utilization. Later we shall see that their results are consistent with the first discussion of a fixed recipe in the elephant-rabbit stew. The remaining models employ structures which can incorporate substitution between energy and other factors. In addition, the parameters for the major components of these models are estimated empirically and, when aggregated, provide alternate estimates of the elasticity of substitution. We shall see that their aggregate behavior is consistent with the results of the simple framework.

*Six test scenarios were run.*

Six test scenarios were designed for these models. These scenarios are not intended as forecasts. To achieve some consistency, the working group compromised individual judgments as to the most likely futures. The scenarios are designed, instead, to display the feedback links embedded in the models. The details of the scenarios are explained in an appendix.<sup>7</sup> They cover different economic growth assumptions and examine severe reductions in energy availability or increases in energy costs.

*The models assume long run full employment.*

The comparison of the model structures and the design of the test scenarios reveal important assumptions common to all the participating models. Because of their focus on long run considerations, the impacts of temporary unemployment are ignored in all but the Wharton model. The economy is assumed to move quickly to a predetermined full employment growth path. The models concentrate on the evaluation of potential GNP. Hence, the models are not suited to the evaluation of policies which may produce persistent unemployment, nor are they suited to the study of unanticipated energy supply interruptions. These are major areas of policy concern, but beyond the scope of the participating models.

*Standardized population and productivity assumptions determine a common GNP growth pattern.*

The importance of the full employment assumption is illustrated by the fact that all the models require as input the rates of population growth and productivity increase. The rate of population growth virtually determines the growth in the labor force. The rate of productivity increase describes the temporal improvement of technology which expands output for a given level of input factors. If the availability of other factors is not changing, then the growth in productivity plus the growth of employment must determine the growth of the GNP. In the presence of constant factor prices, therefore, the rate of GNP growth is an assumption in the models. A base case scenario standardizes the population and productivity inputs. All the models then produce the same growth path for GNP. The models are designed to examine the feedback from the energy sector to the economy, but they are not intended to provide a reference economic forecast.

#### THE MODEL COMPARISON

Four of the scenarios designed to test the models provide insight into the measure of the interdependence between energy and the economy. In addition to the base case, a high economic growth scenario is constructed by employing higher growth rates for population and productivity. These two alternate economic forecasts then are subjected to a collection of energy constraints designed to severely restrict energy supply, substantially increase energy prices, and produce curtailments of economic output.

*With stable energy costs, increased economic activity produces increased energy demand.*

The comparison between the base case and high growth case provides insight into the structure of the models. The role of flexibility in energy utilization and the impact of energy sector changes on the economy should not be confused with the direct effects of the economy on energy demand. Energy utilization may vary in the presence of changing energy costs. But when energy prices remain nearly stable, it is reasonable to expect economic growth to produce a growth in energy demand. A test of the models in this regard is contained in the comparison of the base case and the high growth case runs. The results confirm that all the models possess this expected property, some by assumption, others through parameters estimated empirically. Figure 5 compares the base and high growth cases in terms of energy input and economic activity for each of the models.



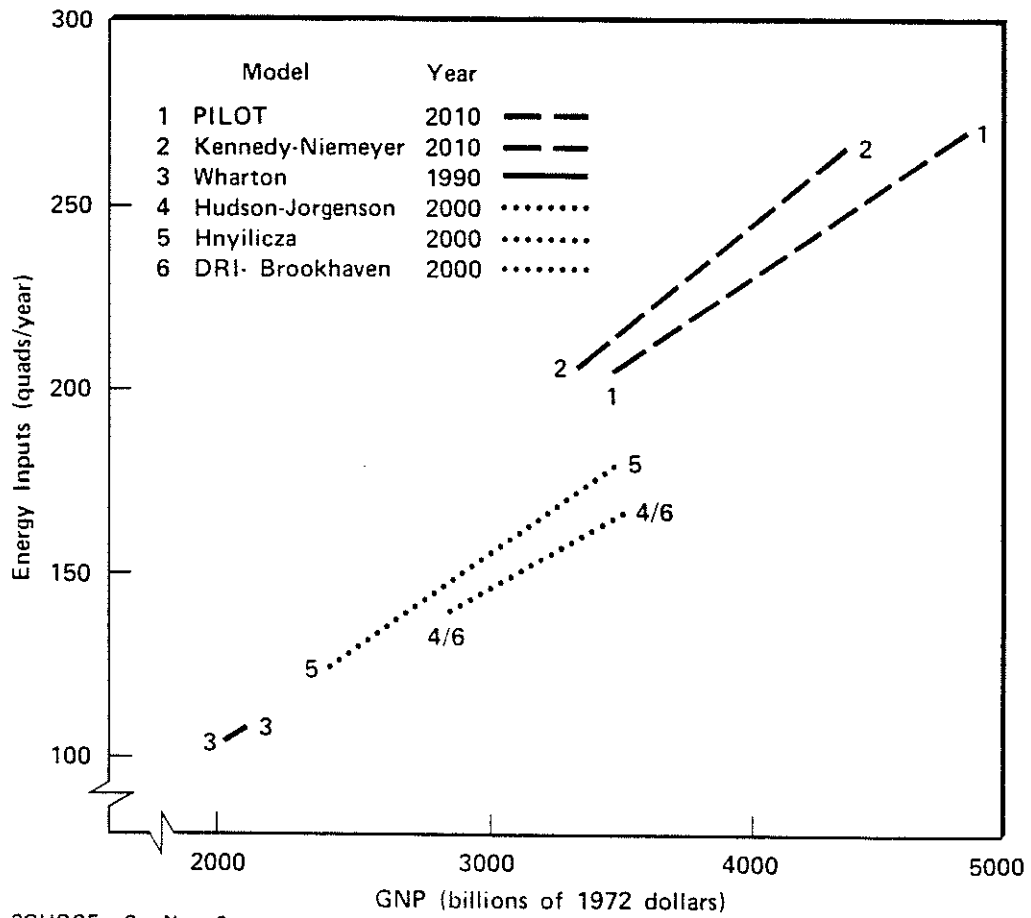


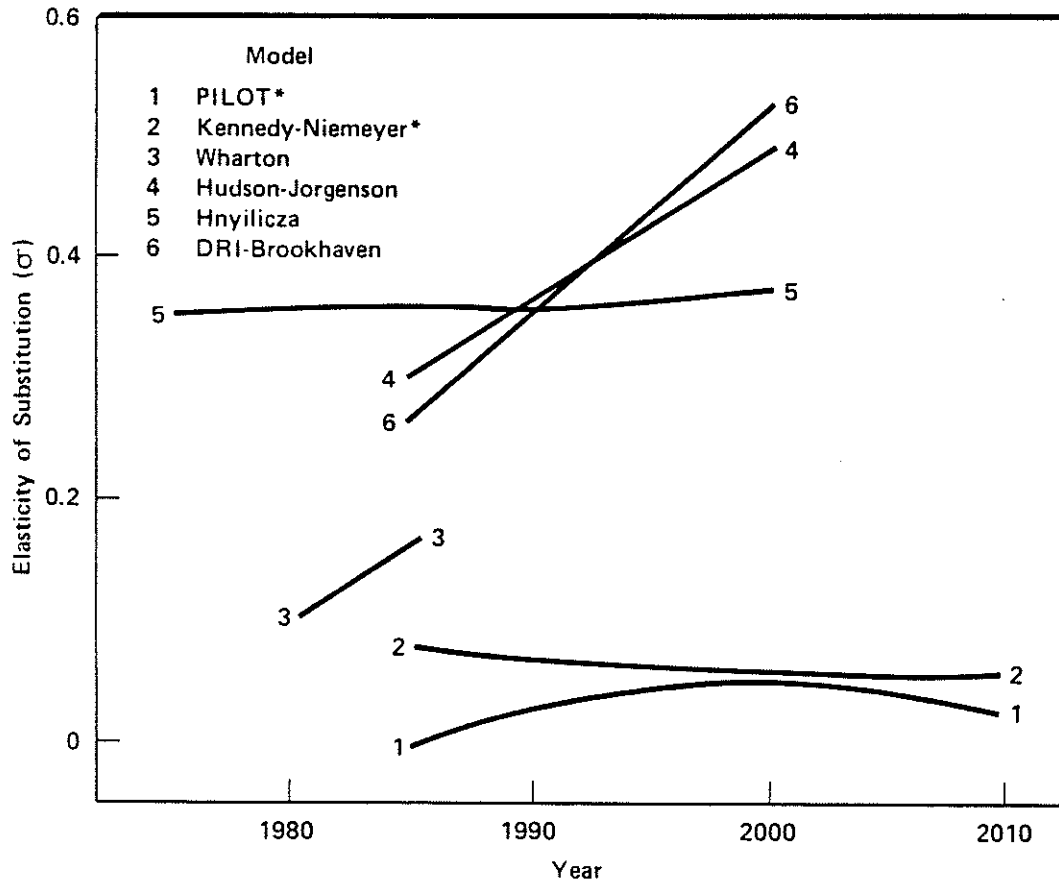
Figure 5 Energy Response to Economic Activity (Energy Requirements Given GNP in the Base and High Growth Cases)

*Increasing energy costs may weaken the link between economic activity and energy demand.*

When all other things are not held equal and energy constraints are imposed, both the utilization of energy and the growth of the economy may be affected. If the potential for energy substitution is low, the imposition of severe energy constraints should produce high energy prices and large reductions in output, maintaining a nearly constant ratio of energy input to economic output. If the potential for energy substitution is high, the energy constraints will have less effect on prices and output, and should produce a marked change in the energy-output ratio.

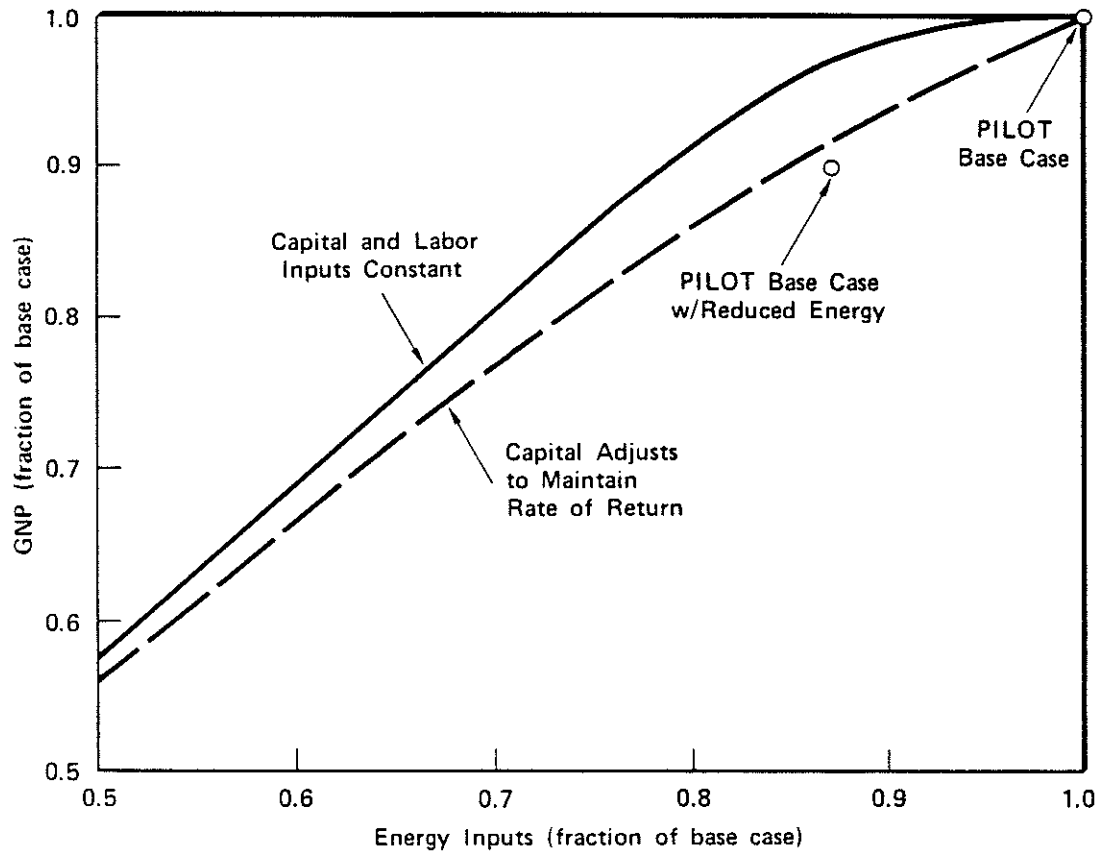
The base case and the high growth scenarios with and without energy constraints, or Btu taxes, provide tests of the feedback effect embedded in the various models. The estimates of the aggregate elasticity of substitution in each model are shown in Figure 6 for the base case. The implicit elasticities in the models need not be constant over time nor for different levels of price changes. In fact, the sophisticated models include many avenues for variation in the substitution potential. But the aggregate elasticity remains as a useful summary index of the models' behavior. These results confirm the earlier classification of the models into those which assume limited substitution and those which employ a structure designed to capture the potential substitution empirically. Both the Kennedy-Niemeyer and the PILOT models, which assume limited substitution, display aggregate elasticities below 0.1 and generally close to zero. The remaining models, which include detailed substitution possibilities, trend toward long run aggregate elasticities between 0.3 and 0.5. From the previous discussion, this range of substitution potential is seen to include substantial but not unlimited flexibility in energy use.

The value of the aggregate analysis in summarizing the results of the detailed models is illustrated in Figures 7 and 8 for models representative of each substitution assumption. Here, the actual results of the models are displayed for the base case and the base case with tax and compared to the prediction that would be obtained from the three factor model with energy, capital, and labor. In Figure 7 the results are



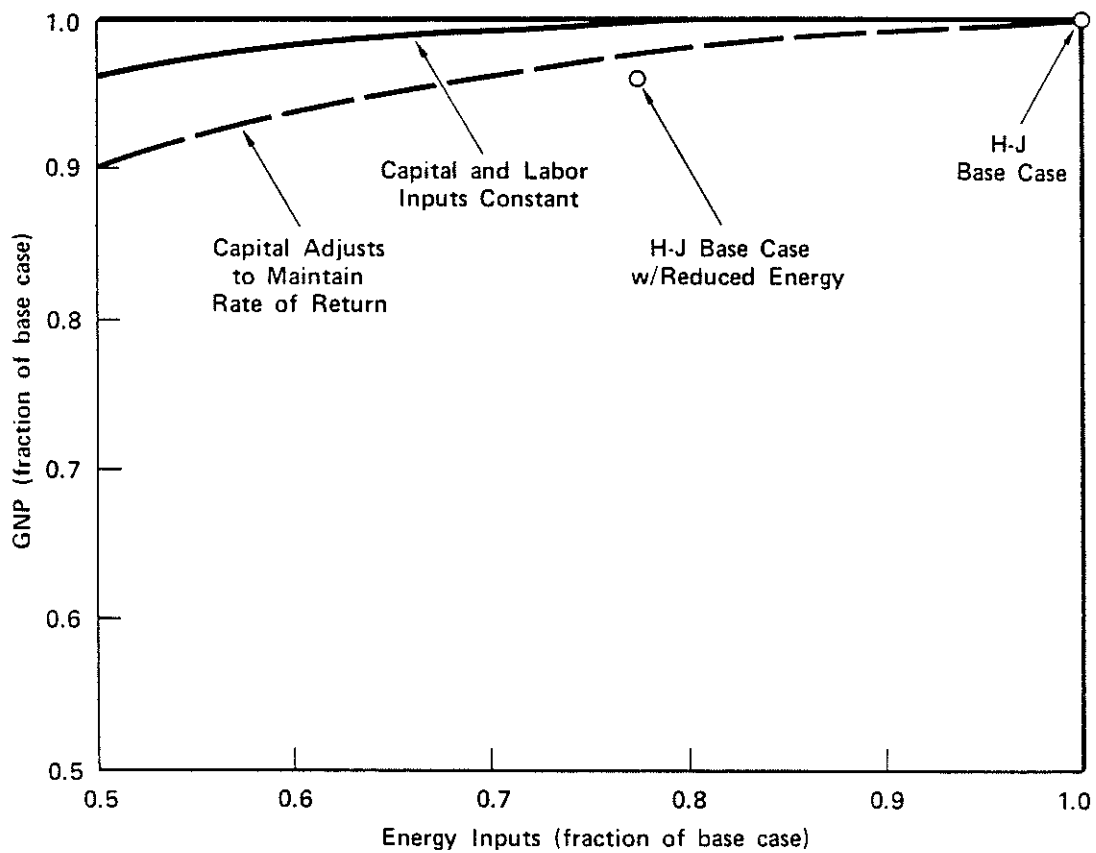
\* Models 1 and 2 have negligible substitution, by assumption.  
 SOURCE: See Note 8.

Figure 6 Aggregate Elasticity of Substitution (Calculated Using the Outputs for the Base Case and the Base Case With Constraints)



SOURCE: See Note 8.

Figure 7 Comparison of PILOT Actual Results in the Year 2010 With the Simple Model of Substitution, Using PILOT's Implied Elasticity of Substitution ( $\sigma = 0.03$ )



SOURCE: See Note 8.

Figure 8 Comparison of Hudson-Jorgenson Actual Results in the Year 2000 With the Simple Model of Substitution, Using Hudson-Jorgenson's Implied Elasticity of Substitution ( $\sigma = 0.49$ )

shown for the PILOT model. Figure 8 depicts the same comparison for the Hudson-Jorgenson system. The simple analysis is not perfect, but it simulates the major portion of the aggregate effect found in the detailed models. It provides a guide for the proper use of the detailed systems by illustrating the central ideas embedded in the structure of the full models. The value share of the energy sector is a small component of the total economy. Small changes in energy input, therefore, have a small impact on aggregate output. For large changes in energy input, the estimate of the economic impact is significantly affected by the estimate of the elasticity of substitution.

*The study has succeeded in identifying a central issue but has left many other issues unattended.*

At this juncture it is useful to recall that our simple measure of economic impact, gross output, is not a complete description of all the effects of changing energy futures or the sole representation of the quality of life. Environmental effects play an important role in the evaluation of any energy option but, given our accounting system, they are excluded from direct consideration. Similarly, the international political implications of alternative energy conditions may be the dominant focus of concern. The economic impact may be overshadowed by national security priorities. Even within the realm of economic measures, important issues such as the distribution of income are submerged in the aggregate analysis. Evaluations of externalities or more detailed characterizations of the economy are essential in the assessment of specific energy options. Hence, the measurement of the aggregate elasticity of substitution does not complete the story. It is the essential first step. It is in the pursuit of complete analysis that the more detailed models establish their value. By exhibiting how individual industries respond to changing energy conditions, it becomes possible to estimate the environmental consequences of new energy options. By segregating demand by fuel type, the import and national security implications become more apparent. It is not the purpose here to examine the role of the detailed models in the study of these issues. Rather, the objective is to isolate the contribution of the models to the assessment of one important issue, the feedback from the energy

sector to the economy. In exploiting the value of simplification, however, we should not neglect the contributions of the more detailed models. Where detail is crucial, a simple analysis does not suffice.

#### IMPLICATIONS OF THE MODEL COMPARISON

*The economy has some flexibility but energy is important.*

The implications of the comparison of models of the aggregate energy-economic interaction are significant. If there is no substitution, reductions in energy use produce corresponding reductions in economic activity. But if the higher estimates of the elasticity of energy demand are accepted, it follows that major changes in energy utilization can be achieved without corresponding changes in total economic activity. Even the recognition of the energy-capital effects embedded in the models does not alter this conclusion. However, we are not freed from difficult tradeoffs. The absolute impacts of the change in economic activity are significant. A given reduction in energy supplies may produce only a 1% reduction in GNP each year, but this can be a large loss in absolute value. It may justify a substantial research investment aimed at developing low cost technologies which can expand energy supply or improve the efficiency of energy utilization.

*With some flexibility, energy sector models are still valid.*

At a more technical level, the aggregate analysis can have important implications for energy modeling. If there is little energy substitution, the feedback effect is significant and energy models must account for this effect in representing the energy system. If the substitution potential is pronounced, the feedback effect is relatively small and separate energy sector models that hold aggregate economic activity constant can be justified. The changes in energy utilization and economic costs can be represented adequately by the first order effects contained in traditional demand curve analyses. This permits important modeling simplifications and expanded detail for the improved description of the operations within the energy system. Of course, the restriction to an energy sector model eliminates the capability of the full economy models to examine changes in the composition of economic activity.

## NOTES

- 1 See, for example, the recent report of the Ford Foundation's Nuclear Energy Policy Study Group, Nuclear Power Issues and Choices, Ballinger Publishing Company, Cambridge, Mass., 1977.
- 2 Hogan, W. W., and Manne, A. S., "Energy-Economic Interactions: The Fable of the Elephant and the Rabbit?", Working Paper EMF 1.3, Energy Modeling Forum, Stanford University, Stanford, Calif., July 1977. Found in Appendix B.
- 3 Sources for Figure 1. The GNP data in 1972 dollars are taken from the Economic Report of the President, 1977. The energy quantity data are from the Bureau of Mines. Primary energy prices are taken as the price of crude oil equivalent from Energy Perspectives, 1975, of the Department of Interior.
- 4 The elasticity of demand is defined here in terms of primary energy prices. This complicates the direct comparison of elasticity estimates from other studies due to definitional and aggregation problems. However, representative estimates for energy demand can be found in: M. L. Baughman and P. L. Joskow, "Energy Consumption and Fuel Choice by Residential and Commercial Consumers in the United States", MIT Energy Laboratory, May 20, 1975; Federal Energy Administration, National Energy Outlook, Appendix C, Feb. 1976; W. D. Nordhaus, "The Demand for Energy: An International Perspective", Cowles Foundation Discussion Paper 405, Yale University, New Haven, Conn., Sept. 1975.
- 5 The economic impacts of the simple model with a constant return on capital are developed for the full range of elasticity assumptions and energy input reductions in Appendix B. The complete dynamic general equilibrium analysis of the sophisticated models is required to analyze fully the capital-energy interactions. As an approximation, however, the ad hoc assumption of a constant rate of return can be viewed as appropriate for the comparison between two steady state balanced growth paths, where the rate of return is constant. This issue is discussed at greater length in Appendix C: W. W. Hogan, "Capital-Energy Complementarity in Aggregate Energy-Economic Analysis", Working Paper EMF 1.10, Energy Modeling Forum, Stanford University, Stanford, Calif., Sept. 1977. Found in Appendix C.
- 6 Hogan, W. W., and Parikh, S. C., "Comparison of Models of Energy and the Economy", Working Paper EMF 1.4, Energy Modeling Forum, Stanford University, Stanford, Calif., May 1977. Found in Appendix D.
- 7 "Driving Variables, Scenario Definitions, and Individual Model Exceptions", Working Paper EMF 1.2, Energy Modeling Forum, Stanford University, Stanford, Calif., June 1977. Found in Appendix F.
- 8 Data from the results of the EMF model comparison, Appendix F.

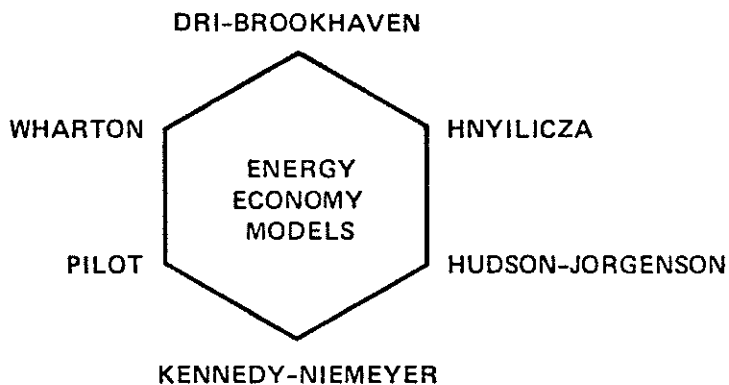


Volume 2

ENERGY AND THE ECONOMY

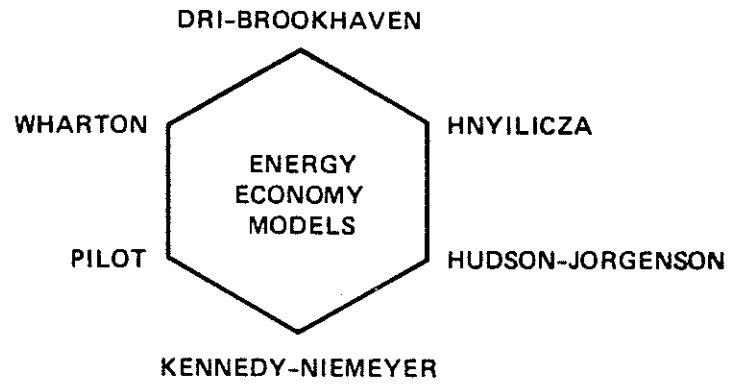
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Appendix A

INTRODUCTION TO EMF SUPPORTING DOCUMENTS



## Appendix A

### INTRODUCTION TO EMF SUPPORTING DOCUMENTS

#### SUMMER WORKSHOP

In recent years, several formal models of energy-economic systems have been in various stages of development and implementation. These models have the potential of providing a great deal of insight into many complex economic and environmental interactions. They could provide better answers to decision makers on a broad range of questions related to energy supply, demand, and distribution. Full realization of this potential, however, requires effective interaction between the decision maker and the model builder.

On July 21-23, 1976 a workshop was held at Stanford University under the auspices of the Electric Power Research Institute and the Stanford Institute for Energy Studies

- to explore interest in a Forum of decision makers and energy modelers operating through open discussion to make effective the use of models of energy-economic systems in the evaluation of energy options for the country,
- to explore ways to create and structure such a Forum panel, and
- to develop suggestions concerning the organizational structure for implementation of the Forum project.

It was hoped that the Energy Modeling Forum (EMF) approach could be developed as a way to promote the needed interaction to make the model methodologies more accessible for use and improvement. The proposed Forum's function, in general, would be:

- to use some of the major energy models to sharpen insights, improve understanding, and explore through open discussion the implications of selected energy decisions and scenarios;
- to disseminate analysis of the impacts of various energy options.
- to provide guidance for the improvement, linkage, and extension of energy models and to establish priorities for new modeling research;
- to identify critical elements of existing models and pinpoint the major strengths and weaknesses.

The provision of a strong user orientation is a central theme in the conceptualization and design of the Forum project. This focus on users was evident in the participation and structure of the three day workshop. Approximately 100 people attended the workshop, providing a broad representation of the model developers and users. Concrete suggestions for the structure and operation of the Forum project were presented, and information concerning the initiation of the Forum project was circulated through the energy model development and using communities. The details of the workshop discussions are reported in "Stanford-EPRI Workshop for Considering a Forum for the Analysis of Energy Options Through the Use of Models" [1].

The Stanford Institute for Energy Studies was selected by EPRI as the headquarters for the implementation of the Forum project, beginning with a six month experimental effort. Following the guidelines and suggestions of the summer workshop, this experimental study would test the viability of the Forum concept and the effectiveness of the organizational design.

#### THE MODELING RESOURCES GROUP

The methods and content of the first EMF study depend heavily on the work of the closely related Modeling Resources Group (MRG). The MRG is a subpart of the Committee on Nuclear and Alternative Energy Systems (CONAES), a large study directed by the National Research Council (NRC) to conduct a detailed analysis of the options available for the evolution of the U.S. energy system through the year 2010. The study is being conducted for ERDA and has a projected completion date in 1977.

The CONAES effort has been implemented through an extensive structure of panels and resource groups with participants from diverse backgrounds and institutions. A center of CONAES activity is the Synthesis panel which has responsibility for the integration of the tradeoff analysis inherent in the alternative energy scenarios. The MRG, chaired by Tjalling Koopmans, is one of the specialized groups reporting to the Synthesis panel. The broad purposes of the MRG are to identify and realize the contribution that formal energy models can play in the completion of the CONAES effort. Many members of the EMF working group have participated in the MRG activities, and we borrowed heavily from its innovations. An understanding of the history of the MRG provides a background for the formulation of the initial EMF study.

The mandate of the CONAES effort is substantially larger than the difficult but more focused tasks of the MRG. The CONAES study is designed to deal with a broad set of questions, exploiting all avenues of analysis and sources of information. The MRG provided input to the total effort while concentrating on the examination of the role of formal models in the analysis of future energy alternatives. The MRG consisted of representatives of several major energy modeling efforts and, bringing together modeling skills and several specific models, has undertaken two general activities. First, the members provided the characteristic advantages of formal modeling to the formulation of many key questions which the study must address. Second, the involvement of several models permitted the comparison of results across models to permit evaluation of the sensitivity of conclusions to changes in model structure.

The MRG proceeded in these activities through several steps. The general structures of the various models are explored through discussions. Lists of key variables and assumptions are established. The central values of these variables are researched or negotiated to produce a consistent set of inputs. Individual and collective variations in these input values are constructed to produce a set of scenarios designed to explore key features of the models. The scenarios are exercised by all models feasible and the results displayed and compared. The output comparisons focus on impact analysis for key policy changes, sensitivity analysis for change in realization of future states of the system, and the comparative explanation of results generated by different model structures. The Forum's methodological debt to the MRG is clear. The EMF adopted MRG procedures, energy sector assumptions, and selected a topic to complement the MRG focus on changes within the energy sector. Despite the addition of direct user involvement, the EMF remains the spiritual relative of the MRG.

#### FIRST EMF STUDY

The experimental period of the Energy Modeling Forum began in September 1976. For its first issue study, the EMF undertook the use of models to study the feedback from the energy sector to the economy. What is the nature and the strength of the link between the energy sector and the rest of the economy? An important topic in its own right, this subject is of particular interest because of the closely related work of the CONAES-MRG [2] or other recent studies, e.g., Ford-Mitre study [3]. The MRG studies examined detailed changes in models of the energy sector, but limited attention to consumer surplus approximations of the feedback

magnitudes. The EMF models, by design, include the full economy and model the energy-economic linkages explicitly. The Ford-Mitre study uses an approach similar to that of the CONAES-MRG, but emphasizes the role of the "value-share" analysis. These issues are discussed in some detail in the various sections of this report. The Forum analysis concludes that a reduction in energy use need not produce a proportional reduction in economic output. This agrees with the main observation of these two related studies. The Forum results disagree, however, in the magnitude of the impact. The Forum results indicate that both the MRG and the Ford-Mitre assessments may underestimate the impact because of a lack of attention to the relationship between capital formation and energy availability. Properly, this detail is found only in the full models of energy and the economy.

Following the principles developed at the summer workshop, a group of interested model users and developers was organized to conduct the comparative study of several energy models in the examination of the link between energy and the economy. As in the MRG, tests of the models would be constructed and the working group would seek to explain the common results or the causes of any model differences. The EMF working group consisted of approximately 30 members from the energy modeling and analysis community (Table A-1). The first meeting was held on October 1-2, 1976 in Washington, D.C. At this meeting the working group familiarized itself with the selected models, agreed upon the assumptions for the driving variables, and defined six scenarios to be run by the modelers.

The working group met for the second time on December 10-11, 1976 in Palo Alto, California. At this meeting the first round of runs from the participating models was reviewed. The working group modified some of the assumptions and recommended a second round of scenario executions. The final results of the computer runs were to be reviewed by a subcommittee chaired by Gordon Corey of Commonwealth Edison. The Corey Subcommittee met on March 21, 1977 in Chicago. It reviewed the final results of the computer runs and developed the draft report of the study.

#### THE ORGANIZATION OF THE REPORT

During this study the participants in the working group developed a framework for comparing and interpreting the results of the models. This structure evolved in response to the attempts to explain apparent differences in the first

Table A-1  
WORKING GROUP MEMBERS AND PARTICIPANTS

<u>NAME</u>	<u>AFFILIATION</u>
Gary B. Ackerman	Commonwealth Edison Company
David J. Behling, Jr.	Brookhaven National Laboratory
John C. Bukovski	Commonwealth Edison Company
Edward G. Cazalet	Decision Focus Inc.
Gordon R. Corey	Commonwealth Edison Company
Brian L. Crissey	National Research Council (CONAES)
George B. Dantzig	Dept. of Operations Research, Stanford University
William P. Drews	EXXON Corporation
Vijaya G. Duggal	Wharton Econometric Forecasting Associates
William F. Finan	Wharton Econometric Forecasting Associates
Dennis R. Fromholzer	Dept. of Engineering-Economic Systems, Stanford University†
Martin Greenberger	Electric Power Research Institute
Esteban Hnyiliczka	Massachusetts Institute of Technology
Kenneth C. Hoffman	Brookhaven National Laboratory
William W. Hogan	Energy Modeling Forum
Edward A. Hudson	Data Resources Inc.
Lionel S. Johns	Office of Technology Assessment, U.S. Congress
Dale W. Jorgenson	Dept. of Economics, Harvard University
Michael Kennedy	Dept. of Economics, University of Texas *
Tjalling C. Koopmans	Cowles Foundation for Research in Economics, Yale University
Lester D. Lave	Dept. of Economics, Carnegie-Mellon University
Robert Litan	Cowles Foundation for Research in Economics, Yale University††
Alan S. Manne	Dept. of Operations Research, Stanford University
William Marcuse	Brookhaven National Laboratory
E. Victor Niemeyer	Center for Energy Studies, University of Texas
David Nissen	Federal Energy Administration
William D. Nordhaus	Cowles Foundation for Research in Economics, Yale University††
Shailendra C. Parikh	Energy Modeling Forum
Bruce A. Pasternack	Booz-Allen-Hamilton, Consultants
Milton Russell	Resources for the Future
Philip K. Verleger, Jr.	Council of Economic Advisers **
Jim Walker	California Energy Commission
John P. Weyant	Energy Center, Harvard University†††
Richard H. Williamson	Energy Research and Development Administration
David O. Wood	Massachusetts Institute of Technology

Current Affiliation

- † ERDA Conservation Planning and Policy
- \* RAND Corporation
- †† Council of Economic Advisers
- \*\* U.S. Department of the Treasury
- ††† Energy Modeling Forum

results of the models. The major conclusions of the study formed in conjunction with the elaboration of this comparative structure. In part, this framework centers on the simplification of the basic principles embedded in the models to highlight the key assumptions dominating the energy-economy interactions. The chief responsibility of the working group here was to isolate these key elements and make them accessible to a wide audience of potential model users. An example of this type of result is the illustration of the central role of substitution assumptions in determining the link between energy and the economy.

The explication of key assumptions is an expected output of the EMF studies. Generally these results are known to the modelers and their discovery is no surprise. An unexpected part of the model comparison, however, was the investigation of certain model characteristics known only to a few of the modelers at the start of the study. The link between capital and energy in determining the long run impact of energy scarcity can be cited in this regard. An apparent benefit of this first study is the stimulation of new model development efforts dealing with some fundamental technical issues, but these more technical matters are not dealt with at length in this report except as they influence the immediate comparison of the models. These are left to the individual modelers, some of whom have undertaken major development efforts, stimulated to a degree by the interaction in the EMF study.

The EMF report concentrates on the first type of result, the illustration and exposition of the underlying structure of the models. The purpose is to improve the understanding of these models and to make them more accessible to potential users. The presentation of these results is organized in two main segments. A general summary of the full study is presented in Volume 1. This summary is intended for wide circulation and, therefore, is written with an effort to minimize the technical details and specialized jargon. Volume 1 captures the most important themes in the model comparisons with an emphasis on the positive contributions of the models. The detailed model results and analytical support for this summary are organized in several appendices of Volume 2 of the report, beginning with this introduction and overview. Some of these appendices are usable as separate papers. The effort to minimize the technical detail is continued.



#### Appendix B (EMF 1.3)

With energy treated as an economic good, the basic structure of the models starts with the small value share of energy in the total economy, the potential for the substitution of other factors of production, and the possible impacts of the link between capital and energy. The importance of these ideas can be illustrated without the detail necessary for a full scale modeling system. The paper, "Energy-Economic Interactions: The Fable of the Elephant and the Rabbit ?", by Hogan and Manne [4] presents this simplified analysis. This framework establishes the structure for the comparison of the results from the detailed models as presented in Volume 1.

#### Appendix C (EMF 1.10)

The link between capital and energy is an important component of the full feedback effect of energy on the economy. The nature of this link is a subject of debate with conflicting evidence available in different studies. This issue is discussed in further detail in the paper, "Capital-Energy Complementarity in Aggregate Energy-Economic Analysis", by Hogan [5]. The proposed resolution of the debate lends support to the simplified analysis presented in Volume 1 of this report.

#### Appendix D (EMF 1.4)

The models included in the EMF study are diverse in terms of structure, intent, level of aggregation, and key problem assumptions. Upon close inspection, however, all the models have certain common features. The paper, "Comparison of Models of Energy and the Economy", by Hogan and Parikh [6] develops a straightforward taxonomy for these models by exploiting the common accounting structure. This includes identification of key model characteristics relevant to the EMF study. This should provide an introduction for potential users of these models.

#### Appendix E (EMF 1.7)

The purpose of the Forum studies is to make models more useful. The strong emphasis is on the positive, to describe the contributions of the models and the key information needed to use them successfully. But the models are far from perfect. In fact, as with all simplifications (including implicit mental models), there is a long list of problems and limitations. In the paper, "Strengths and Limitations of the Models: The EMF Process from a User's Perspective", [7] Walker discusses some of the more important model limitations, concentrating on characteristics which might be imputed to these models but which they do not possess. In

addition, Jim Walker summarizes the value and operation of the EMF study from the perspective of a participating model user.

Appendix F (EMF 1.8) [8]

The conduct of the EMF model tests requires the specification of a large array of input assumptions and the interpretation of an equally large array of output information. These data, the corresponding test scenarios, the model deviations from central assumptions, the selected graphs with commentary, and the full listings of the model results are presented in this lengthy technical appendix.

Appendix G (EMF 1.9) [9]

The documentation of the individual models exists with a high variance on completeness and usability. The working group assembled short summary documentation from each participating modeler. This appendix includes these short model summaries. Lengthier documentation is available in a variety of forms from the EMF, the participating modelers, or publications in the open literature.

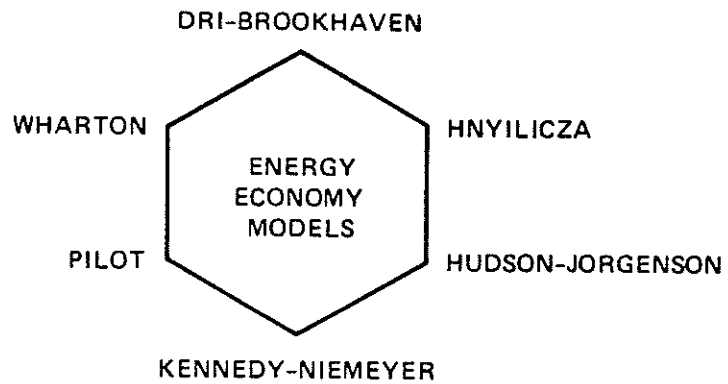
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Appendix B

ENERGY-ECONOMY INTERACTIONS:  
THE FABLE OF THE ELEPHANT AND THE RABBIT ?

This appendix develops a simple framework for representing the interactions between the energy sector and the economy. The results of the detailed EMF models find their primary comparison in this report at the level of the model presented in this appendix.



ENERGY-ECONOMY INTERACTIONS:  
THE FABLE OF THE ELEPHANT AND THE RABBIT ?

by

William W. Hogan and Alan S. Manne

Working Paper

EMF 1.3

July 18, 1977

Energy Modeling Forum  
Institute for Energy Studies  
Stanford University  
Stanford, California 94305

#### ABSTRACT

This paper presents an aggregate analysis of energy-GNP interactions. The results underscore the importance of two parameters: the relative size of the energy sector, and the elasticity of substitution. These appear to be the dominant factors in conservation policy and in energy demand model design.

#### ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors are solely responsible for the views expressed here. They gratefully acknowledge suggestions received from Ernst Berndt, Dale Jorgenson, Tjalling Koopmans, Lester Lave, William Nordhaus, Shailendra Parikh, James Sweeney, David Wood, and members of the CONAES Modeling Resource Group and the Energy Modeling Forum Working Group. The calculations were performed by Dennis Fromholzer.

## Appendix B

### ENERGY-ECONOMY INTERACTIONS: THE FABLE OF THE ELEPHANT AND THE RABBIT ?

#### INTRODUCTION

In most energy policy studies, the energy sector is viewed in isolation from the remainder of the economy, and the analysis is performed without consideration of the broader impacts. Typically, the GNP and other macroeconomic indices are taken as given--as though they were unaffected by the energy sector. This is not fully satisfactory, for there could be two-way interdependence with the remainder of the economy.

As a rough measure of the cost (or benefit) of a given energy policy, it often is sufficient to calculate the impact upon the aggregate consumption or the GNP. The dollar magnitude of this impact may be significant and highly relevant to energy policy. Nonetheless, even a large absolute amount may constitute only a small fraction of the GNP. It is in this sense that there may be virtually one-way linkage--that the GNP growth rate may affect the energy sector but not vice versa. With one-way linkage, there would be no need to couple the energy sector with an economywide analysis. Approximate estimates of economic impacts would be adequate for energy policy evaluations. If it turns out, however, that two-way linkages are significant, we cannot treat the energy sector in isolation but must consider the full interdependence effects.

Before undertaking a complex analysis of the interdependence effects, it would appear useful to make a rough assessment of their magnitude. That is the purpose of this paper. We present a simple model for organizing the central concepts and the parameters that might underlie a more realistic study. This aggregative model provides insights and indicates the possible range of energy policy impacts upon the economy as a whole.



#### THE ELEPHANT AND THE RABBIT ?

For simplicity, we represent the economy in terms of just two inputs--energy and all other items. Note that energy is only a small component of the U.S. economy. As of 1970, the value of primary energy inputs did not exceed 4% of the GNP. At 1970 or even current prices, this is something like an elephant-rabbit stew. If such a recipe contains just one rabbit (the energy sector) and one elephant (the rest of the economy), won't it still taste very much like elephant stew?

If prices had not risen after 1970, it is likely that energy demands would have grown at about the same rate as the GNP. The 4% ratio then would continue into the future. But what if energy costs double, and there is sufficient time for the economy to adapt to this change? A naive estimate of the impact may be obtained by assuming a constant input mix. On this basis, an additional 4% of the GNP must be allocated to cover the costs of energy. Other input-mix options are in fact available, and some would lead to lower costs. Thus, the first doubling of energy costs would produce, at most, a 4% loss in GNP.

Reductions in the physical availability of energy also can be interpreted in terms of higher costs. However, for questions phrased in terms of the physical availability rather than dollar costs, an alternative application of the value share is useful. The elephant-rabbit analogy still is applicable, if there is sufficient time for the economy to respond smoothly to changes in the availability of energy relative to other inputs. The value share of the energy sector determines the incremental effect upon the GNP. If the 4% value share remained constant, this would mean that a 10% reduction in energy inputs would produce only a 0.4% drop in total output. Thus, for small changes in energy availability, there need not be a proportional impact upon the economy as a whole.

For large reductions in the availability of energy, the value share need not remain constant. If the value share rises, the GNP effects may become more pronounced. To evaluate large changes, we must proceed beyond the metaphor of the elephant and the rabbit.

#### SUBSTITUTION

The processes for future production and utilization of energy are not fixed immutably. Insulation, engine efficiency improvements, and "input juggling" in production processes all can alter the energy requirements for a fixed level of output.

Such substitution modifies the economic impacts of changes in the energy system. This flexibility in energy utilization is the next essential element, after the value share of energy, in measuring the magnitude of the energy-economic feedback. It also characterizes the key difference among many energy models. In economists' jargon, different assessments of this flexibility of energy utilization can be phrased as a disagreement over the numerical value of the "elasticity of substitution". This is a measure of the ease or difficulty of replacing energy with other inputs.

The discussion is simplified here by restricting attention to the long run, when energy equipment and processes can be changed substantially. Not that the short run is unimportant, but the character of the problem is different. A sudden shock may create far more serious problems than the gradual long-run pressures of resource exhaustion. Here we focus only on these long-run adjustments.

The elasticity of substitution concept is illustrated in Figure B-1. The point identified as "current input mix" represents one possible combination of the inputs of energy and other factors (capital and labor) used to provide a given level of total output. The lines drawn through this point indicate alternative combinations of inputs that could be used to produce the same level of output. These constant output curves summarize the potential for substitution between energy and other inputs. Except for the explicit assumption that energy and other inputs are substitutes (i.e., that the slopes of these curves are negative), the general shape of these curves might be quite varied. Three alternatives are shown in Figure B-1--with elasticities of substitution equal to zero, one, and infinity.

If the energy-GNP ratio were an immutable constant, this would imply a zero elasticity of substitution. It would mean that total output could not be increased without increases in both energy and nonenergy inputs. This fixed proportions assumption flies in the face of common sense. It is reminiscent of the theories that led the U.S. and its allies to attempt to destroy the German ball bearing industry during World War II, and thereby to knock out the entire German economy.

At the opposite extreme, if all inputs to the economy were completely fungible, there would be an infinite elasticity of substitution. This also flies in the face of common sense. It would mean that machinery could run without energy, or that energy would be useful without machines.

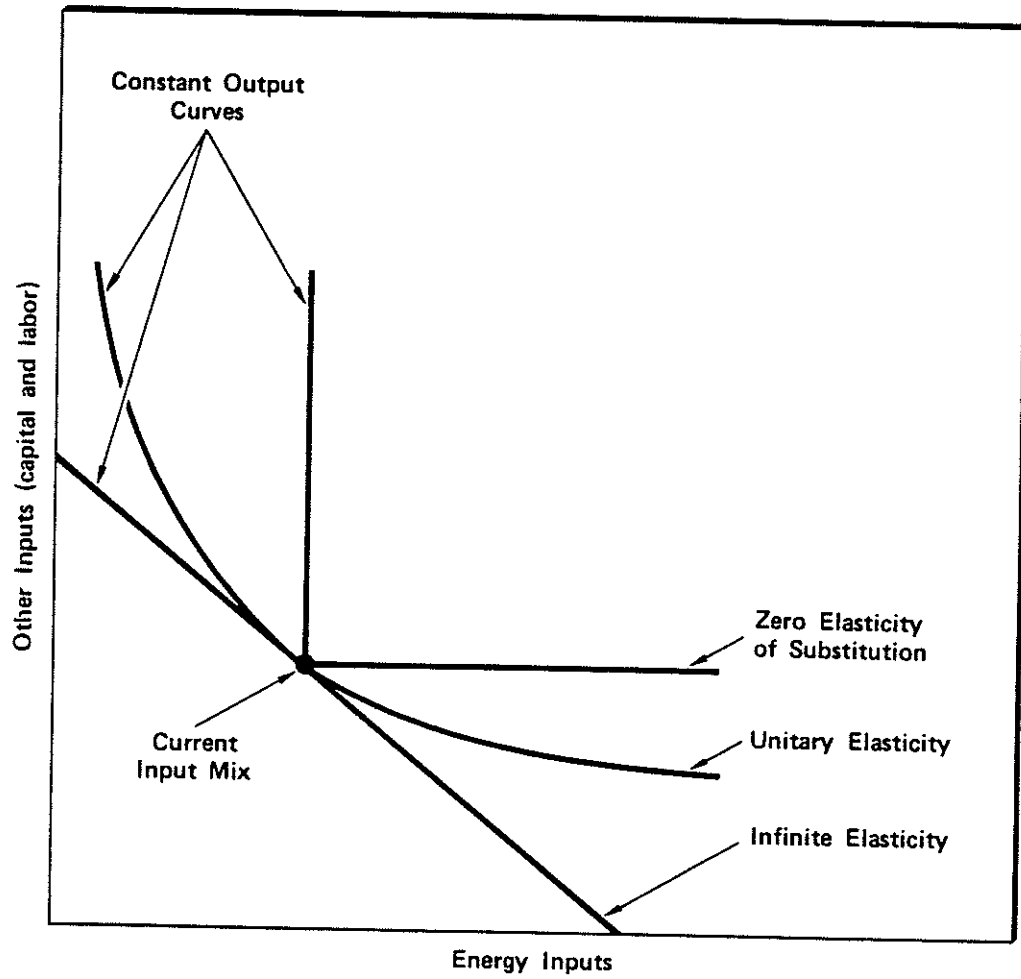


Figure B-1 The Elasticity of Substitution Concept

Still another hypothesis is that the elasticity of substitution is unity. This would imply that as the relative price of energy increased, the optimal value share of energy inputs would still remain constant at, say, 4% of GNP.

The elasticity of substitution need not be either zero or unity or infinity. If we restrict ourselves to a constant elasticity of substitution, we cannot construct a simple model of energy-economy linkages. In examining the implications of this model, however, it is not necessary to rely on altogether arbitrary judgments as to the appropriate elasticity. For this aggregate model, the numerical values of the long run price elasticity of demand and of the long run elasticity of substitution are virtually identical. Therefore, many econometric and engineering studies of the price elasticity of energy demand can be applied directly to the measurement of the elasticity of substitution. Unfortunately, a variety of defects can be found in each empirical study. Unlike the value share of the energy sector, no definitive estimate of the elasticity of demand/substitution is available. The weight of the evidence would suggest that the elasticity lies between 0.2 and 0.6.<sup>†</sup> In presenting the economic impacts of alternate energy availabilities, we encompass this range of elasticities--partly because of the empirical evidence and partly because the results do not vary significantly for elasticities that are either much higher or much lower.

For the present purposes, it is reasonable to assume that energy demand would grow at a rate close to that of the total economy if relative energy prices were to remain constant. A 3% per year growth over 1970 would imply a GNP in 2010 of approximately \$4400 billion (1975 dollars) and a total primary energy input of 220 quads. Suppose that for reasons of resource conservation, environmental protection, or national security, there is a need for reduced energy consumption. Suppose further that there is no reduction in the economic inputs other than energy. One way to achieve a reduction in energy consumption would be through an energy conservation tax with the tax revenues fully redistributed. Other policy measures (e.g., auto efficiency standards) also could achieve much the same goal, but for illustrative purposes we shall simply describe all of these as a Btu tax.

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<sup>†</sup>The elasticity of demand is defined here in terms of primary energy prices. This complicates the direct comparison of elasticity estimates from other studies due to definitional and aggregation problems. However, representative estimates for energy demand can be found in [1, 2, 3].

This tax represents the incremental value of energy at the various consumption levels. Under these assumptions, the feedback issue can be posed through two questions:

- What is the size of the necessary Btu conservation tax?
- What is the resulting impact on GNP?

For alternative values of the elasticity of substitution, the answers to these questions are illustrated in Figure B-2. This graph depicts the GNP that would result at various levels of energy input, ranging from the reference value of 220 quads down to 70 quads, if the inputs of capital and labor are held constant, and if energy costs remain constant. The results are shown for elasticities of substitution between 0.1 and 0.7. The slope at each point indicates the "Btu tax" needed to achieve the specified level of energy consumption. Thus, if the elasticity of substitution is 0.3, a tax of  $\$5.76/10^6$  Btu would be needed to reduce energy consumption from 220 quads to 110 quads. The resulting GNP would be reduced from \$4400 billion to \$4213 billion (4.3%). For convenience, the same information is repeated in tabular form in Table B-1.

According to this simple model, the long run elasticity can have a startling effect. A 50% reduction in energy utilization would produce a 28% reduction in GNP if the elasticity is 0.1, but only a 1% reduction in GNP if the elasticity is 0.7. The taxes required to achieve these reductions display a corresponding variation. Most existing estimates of the price elasticity of demand for primary energy would fall within the range of 0.2 to 0.6. The issue certainly has not been resolved, and there is some evidence for both higher and lower values. It is essential, therefore, that any improved analysis of the energy-economy link provide a careful specification of the elasticity of demand/substitution. Most modeling efforts can be characterized in terms of their treatment of this important concept.

#### EXTENSIONS OF THE ANALYSIS

The estimate of economic impact is sensitive to simplifying assumptions, one of the most questionable being that changes in energy availability do not affect the pattern of investment and the long run inputs of capital services. The effect of this assumption can be illustrated by extending the initial framework to include three inputs to the economy: energy, capital, and labor. Instead now of holding capital and labor constant as energy changes, let capital adjust to maintain its

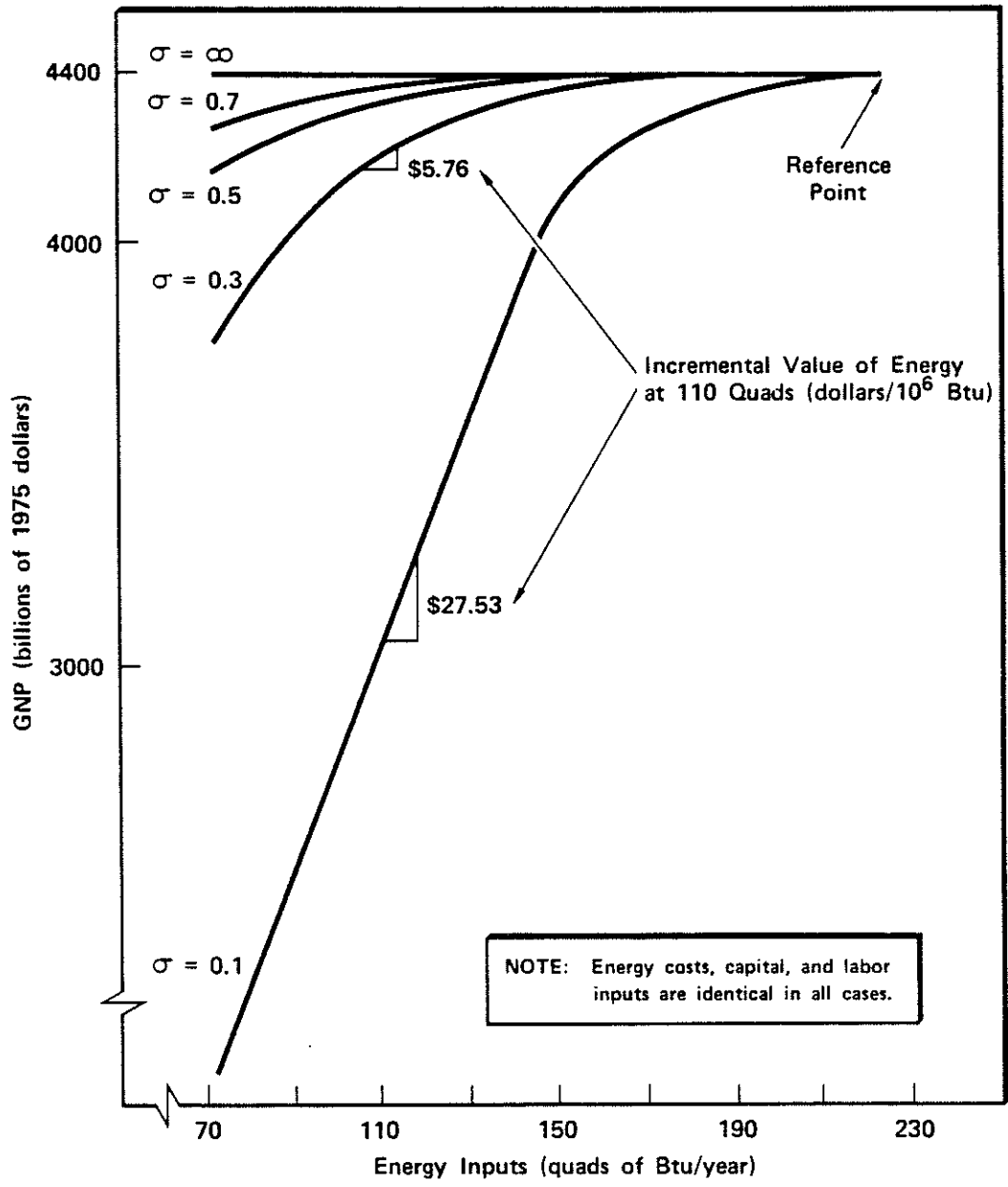


Figure B-2 Economic Impacts of Energy Reductions in the Year 2010 for Various Elasticities of Substitution ( $\sigma$ )

Table B-1

ALTERNATIVE ESTIMATES OF ECONOMIC IMPACT IN THE YEAR 2010  
(with constant energy costs and constant capital and labor inputs)

E = quads of energy in 2010	ELASTICITY OF DEMAND/SUBSTITUTION				
	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.7
	<u>Percent Reduction in GNP</u>				
220	0	0	0	0	0
190	0.6	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.1
160	4.5	1.3	0.8	0.4	0.3
110	27.7	9.2	4.3	1.9	1.2
70	53.8	30.8	14.3	5.2	3.0
	<u>Incremental Value of Energy (\$/10<sup>6</sup> Btu)</u>				
220	0	0	0	0	0
190	2.40	.80	.48	.26	.18
160	10.37	2.69	1.38	.67	.44
110	27.53	13.69	5.76	2.17	1.26
70	29.05	34.52	19.24	5.94	2.99

Note: Developed using base case assumptions and approximations discussed in the Appendix. Throughout, it is assumed that if 220 quads of energy were available, the GNP would be \$4400 billions in 2010 (when expressed at 1975 prices). The cost of energy is in all cases the 1970 price: \$.80 per million Btu. The incremental value represents the excess over this amount.

rate of return.<sup>†</sup> The impact of this change in assumption is displayed in Figure B-3 for an elasticity of 0.3. At an energy input reduction of 50%, the adjustment of capital from a constant input to a constant rate of return increases the economic impact. Instead of 4%, the impact now becomes 11%. The energy tax needed to achieve this reduction in energy use is  $4.33/10^6$  Btu. But the potential for substitution still preserves the basic qualitative results. Reductions in energy input need not produce proportional reductions in total economic output. The economic impact of energy conservation is quite sensitive to the assumptions--either explicit or implicit--on the elasticity of substitution. (See Table B-2.)

Other objections can be raised against this analysis. First, the aggregation may disguise distinctly different behavior in individual sectors. The specific processes for energy substitution are varied and intricate. The morass of detail may be approached gradually by expanding the simple model for improved description of the elasticities through the separate analysis of more representative groupings. Second, the aggregate substitution parameter does not provide an engineering description of the new processes and the technologies that must be adopted. A more disaggregated analysis is needed in order to provide the detail to lend credibility to the simple analysis. A large part of the motivation for the construction of more sophisticated models can be viewed as the need for overcoming these difficulties by improving the aggregate estimate of the elasticity of demand/substitution or by providing a demonstration of energy utilization flexibility at a verifiable level of detail.

#### POLICY AND ANALYTIC IMPLICATIONS

The implications of substitution are significant for the energy-economic interface. If there is no substitution, reductions in energy use produce corresponding reductions in economic activity. But if the higher estimates of the elasticity of energy demand are accepted, it follows that major changes in energy utilization can be achieved without corresponding changes in total economic activity. Even in the latter case, we are not freed from difficult energy policy tradeoffs. The

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<sup>†</sup> Examining the relationship between capital and energy leads to the debate about complementarity versus substitution and the proper measurement of the Allen partial elasticities of substitution. Because of our aggregation to the level of the total economy and our range of elasticities, the resolution of this debate does not affect our qualitative results about the impacts of reduced energy or capital. The conflicting empirical arguments are found in [4, 5, 6]. This debate and the relevance of the assumption of a constant return on capital are discussed at length in [7].



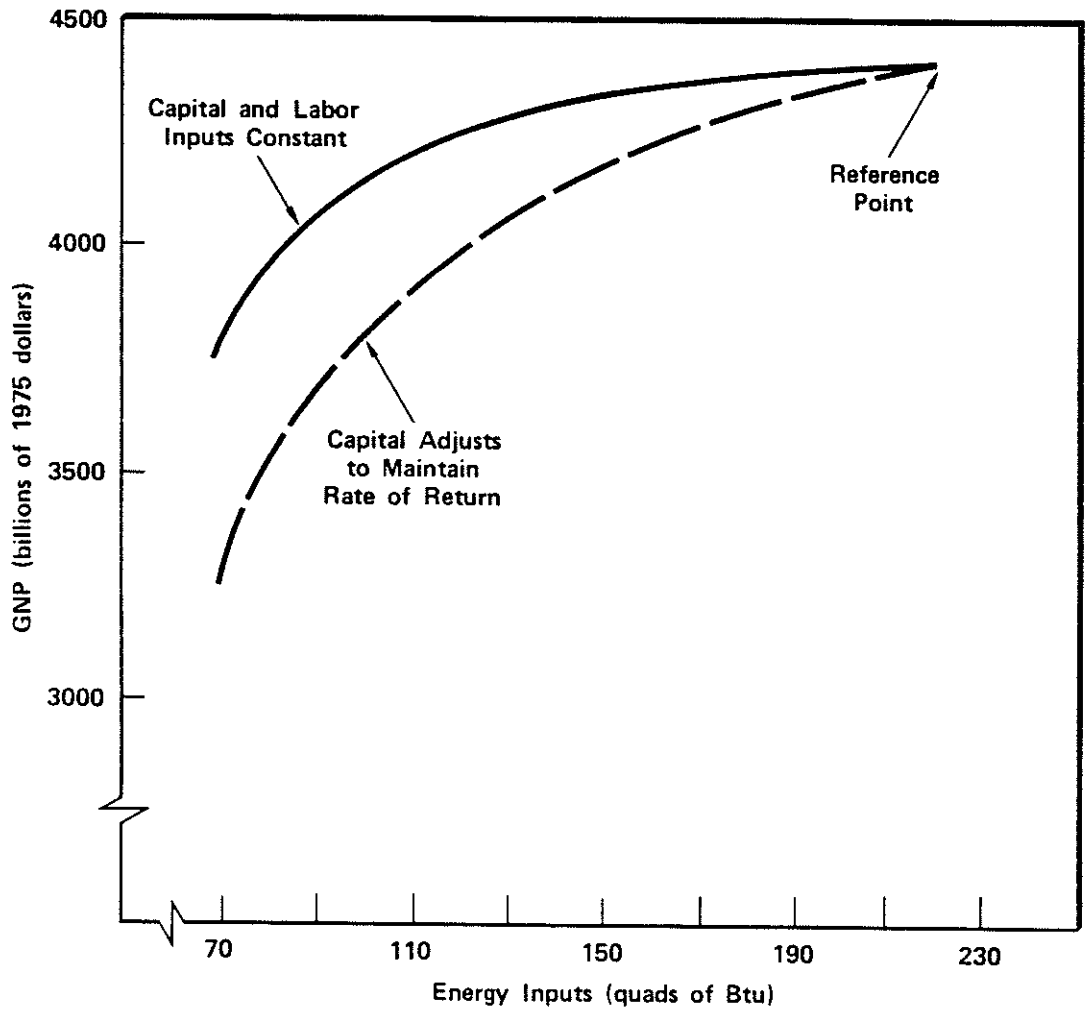


Figure B-3 Economic Impact of Energy Scarcity in the Year 2010 for Alternate Capital Assumptions (Elasticity of Substitution  $\sigma = 0.3$ )

Table B-2

ALTERNATIVE ESTIMATES OF ECONOMIC IMPACT IN THE YEAR 2010  
 (with constant energy costs, constant labor inputs,  
 and a constant rate of return on capital)

E = quads of energy in 2010	<u>ELASTICITY OF DEMAND/SUBSTITUTION</u>				
	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.7
	<u>Percent Reduction in GNP</u>				
220	0	0	0	0	0
190	4.0	2.0	1.4	1.0	1.0
160	12.0	5.7	3.5	2.1	1.8
110	33.4	19.2	11.3	5.5	3.9
70	55.6	39.9	25.8	11.7	7.2
	<u>Incremental Value of Energy (\$/10<sup>6</sup> Btu)</u>				
220	0	0	0	0	0
190	1.41	.67	.42	.24	.17
160	4.26	2.00	1.19	.62	.41
110	11.94	7.41	4.32	1.95	1.18
70	19.63	16.79	11.69	5.06	2.76

Note: Developed using base case assumptions and approximations discussed in the Appendix. Throughout, it is assumed that if 220 quads of energy were available, the GNP would be \$4400 billions in 2010 (when expressed at 1975 prices). The cost of energy is in all cases the 1970 price: \$.80 per million Btu. The incremental value represents the excess over this amount.

absolute impacts of the change in GNP may be significant. A small proportion of a large number still remains a large number. A given reduction in energy supplies may produce only a 1% reduction in GNP each year, but this can be a large loss in dollar terms. If the economy is growing at 3% in real terms, and we discount future consumption at 6%, a 1% reduction in annual GNP corresponds to a present value of nearly half a trillion dollars. Such a figure would justify a substantial research investment aimed at developing low cost technologies which expand energy supply or improve the efficiency of energy utilization.

At a more technical level, the implications for energy modeling may be more conclusive. If there is little energy substitution, the feedback effect is significant, and energy models must account for this effect in representing the energy system. However, if the substitution effects are significant, the feedback effect on the evaluation of the energy system is relatively small. In this case, the energy sector may be analyzed by itself. The changes in energy utilization and economic costs can be represented adequately by the first order effects contained in traditional microeconomic demand curve analyses. This permits important modeling simplifications and expanded detail for the improved description of the energy system.

#### SUMMARY

A simple aggregative model can illustrate some key concepts in determining the economic impacts of energy policies. The small relative size of the energy sector motivates the metaphor of the elephant and the rabbit. It indicates that small changes in energy availability do not produce proportional changes in economic activity. The elasticity of substitution determines the economic impacts for large changes in energy availability. A low elasticity implies significant interactions. Higher elasticities may yield important economic impacts, but these may be represented adequately in an isolated analysis of the energy sector.

## APPENDIX

### INTRODUCTION

The metaphor of the elephant and the rabbit applies to an aggregate view of the economy with a single output and two inputs. If this approximation is accepted and if certain accounting conventions are adopted, it is straightforward to manipulate static comparisons of this model. This appendix records the aggregation and accounting conventions, summarizes the development of the two-factor model, and develops its application. An extension is presented to illustrate the possible relationship between energy and capital inputs.

### ACCOUNTING CONVENTIONS

A basic accounting structure is needed to proceed toward a quantitative analysis of energy-economic interactions. To focus on the essentials, we distinguish initially between only two types of economic inputs--energy, denoted by  $E$  with price  $P_E$ , and all other inputs, denoted by  $R$  with price  $P_R$ . Here, the symbol  $R$  denotes the aggregate economic value of inputs such as capital and labor, assuming that their relative prices do not change significantly. Later we examine one disaggregation of  $R$  into its capital and labor constituents.

With this notation, the economic transactions of Table B-3 summarize the accounting conventions for the production and use of energy and nonenergy goods. Energy is treated as an intermediate product contributing to the ultimate production of goods and services for final demand. This might be the case, for example, if the consumer is viewed as demanding transportation services rather than gasoline. Attention is focused here on the gross output of the nonenergy sector, denoted as  $Y$ . This output is measured in the same units as GNP. As the only consumer good, it is assumed throughout to have a price of 1. From the standard identity relating the value of inputs and outputs, we have

$$Y = P_E E + P_R R \quad (1)$$

and also,

Table B-3  
 INTERINDUSTRY TRANSACTION FLOWS

TO FROM	ENERGY	NONENERGY	FINAL DEMAND
ENERGY	0	$P_E^E$	0
NONENERGY	$P_E^E$	0	GNP
PRIMARY FACTORS	0	$P_R^R$	

$$Y = P_E E + GNP \quad . \quad (2)$$

The heart of the model is the assumed aggregate production function relating gross output (Y) to the inputs of energy (E) and all other factors (R) :

$$Y = F(E,R) \quad . \quad (3)$$

It is assumed that F is a positive, differentiable, concave function exhibiting constant returns to scale. Each of these assumptions is supported by plausible economic intuition.

#### EFFICIENT SOLUTIONS AND THE VALUE SHARE

If producers are making efficient choices, they are, in effect, solving the problem:

$$\text{Max} \quad F(E,R) - P_E E - P_R R \quad . \quad (4)$$

Then for an economically efficient solution, the price of energy must equal its marginal productivity:

$$\frac{\delta F}{\delta E} = P_E \quad . \quad (5)$$

The importance of the relative size of the energy sector can be demonstrated without any additional information about the production function. From (5), it follows that

$$\frac{\delta F}{\delta E} \cdot \frac{E}{Y} = \frac{P_E E}{Y} \quad . \quad (6)$$

The left hand side of (6) is the elasticity of output as the input of E varies, assuming that R is held constant. The right hand side of (6) is the value share of the energy input as a proportion of total output. If  $P_E E/Y = s$ , then a 1% change in the energy input produces an s% change in gross output. If we assume that the value share, s, remains approximately constant over a wide range of E, then

$$\frac{Y}{Y_0} \approx \left( \frac{E}{E_0} \right)^s \quad . \quad (7)$$

Under these conditions, with the 1970 level of  $s = .04$ , a 50% reduction in E would lead to only a 2.7% reduction in Y. Even with  $s = 0.1$ , a 50% reduction in E would produce only a 6.6% reduction in Y.

This observation is the motivation for the fable of the elephant and the rabbit. This analogy would be persuasive if the energy value share did indeed remain constant. Even major changes in energy inputs then could be accommodated over the long run with a small effect on output. But constancy of  $s$  is a strong assumption, and it depends crucially upon the degree of potential substitution between energy and other inputs. If the substitution possibilities are quite limited, then one effect of a change in energy availability is to increase the energy value share. There then could be large impacts upon the economy.

The importance of the elasticity of substitution is a main theme of this paper. (Recall Figure B-2.) The next section of this appendix develops a two-factor model on the basis of different elasticities of substitution, but drops the assumption of a constant value share,  $s$ .

#### ELASTICITY OF SUBSTITUTION

The elasticity of substitution provides a dimensionless index of the relationship between the relative use of the two inputs and their relative marginal productivities. Formally, the elasticity of substitution is defined as:

$$\sigma = - \frac{\delta \ln (E/R)}{\delta \ln \left( \frac{\delta F / \delta E}{\delta F / \delta R} \right)} . \quad (8)$$

A constant elasticity of substitution implies that a given percentage change in the ratio of the two inputs (holding output constant) produces a constant but opposite percentage change in their marginal rate of substitution. This somewhat awkward definition provides the minimal approximation of the substitution potential in any production function with adequate flexibility for analysis of the feedback issue. Excluding three special cases (that is, for  $\sigma \neq 0, 1, \infty$ ), (3) now becomes

$$\frac{Y}{\sigma} = aE^{\frac{\sigma-1}{\sigma}} + bR^{\frac{\sigma-1}{\sigma}} \quad (9)$$

where  $a$  and  $b$  are two constants.

For given prices, the input mix must satisfy the first-order optimality condition in (5) above,

$$\frac{\delta F}{\delta R} = a \left( \frac{Y}{E} \right)^{\frac{1}{\sigma}} = P_E . \quad (10)$$

At constant prices, equation (10) implies that  $E/Y$  will be constant (approximately a constant energy-GNP ratio). For changing prices, however, this ratio will change.

For the present discussion, observe that (10) may be inverted to relate energy use to output and prices,

$$E = Ya^{\sigma} (P_E)^{-\sigma} . \quad (11)$$

Note that the marginal productivity function (11) is the approximate form of many empirical studies of energy demand as a function of output and prices. Now, if  $Y$  is approximately independent of  $E$ , equation (11) implies that the price elasticity of demand for energy remains nearly constant and is virtually identical to the elasticity of substitution. Hence, the more familiar concept of the aggregate price elasticity of energy demand can be used to estimate  $\sigma$ .

The production function in (9) and the demand function in (11) are the center of the aggregate analysis. The importance of the  $\sigma$  parameter is indicated when we interpret (11) in the context of value shares. Analogous to the discussion of the previous section, equation (6) can be restated as,

$$s = \frac{P_E E}{Y} = a^{\sigma} (P_E)^{1-\sigma} . \quad (12)$$

This means that  $s$  (the value share of energy) is a function of the real price of energy. If the elasticity of substitution or demand is 1, the value share is constant. However, if  $\sigma$  is less than 1, an increasing price of energy implies an increasing value share associated with a reduced availability of energy. At small values of  $\sigma$ ,  $s$  increases rapidly, and energy reductions produce large reductions in GNP.

The price elasticity of the demand for energy in equation (11) no longer is constant once we account for the adjustments in output induced by the price changes. At any point, the exact elasticity is  $-\sigma/(1-s)$ . The impact of rising shares is to reduce demand further through the feedback.

#### PRODUCTION FUNCTION ANALYSIS

The production function analysis utilizes the constant elasticity production function and the associated demand curve. Figure B-4 illustrates the relationship between  $Y$ , GNP, and  $P_E$ . Given  $\sigma$  and base estimates of  $Y_0$ ,  $E_0$ ,  $R_0$ , and  $P_{E,0}$ ,



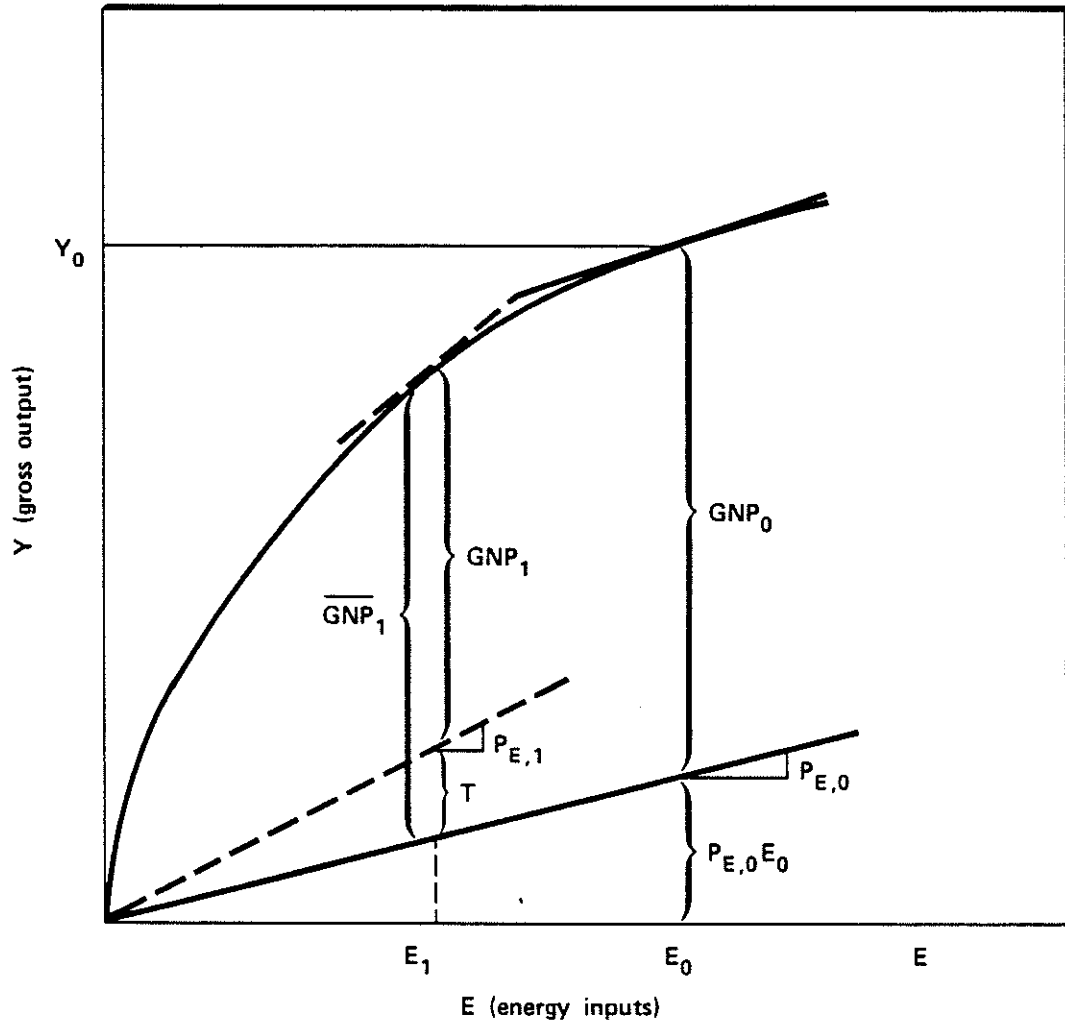


Figure B-4 Output as a Function of Energy Input

equations (9) and (11) determine the parameters  $a$  and  $b$ . Variations in  $E$  then determine variations in  $P_E$ ,  $Y$ , and  $GNP$  with  $R_0$  held constant. In moving from  $E_0$  to  $E_1$ , there is an increase in  $P_E$ , a decrease in  $Y$ , and a larger decrease in  $GNP$ .

If the increase in energy price is a real resource cost (e.g., all energy is imported from OPEC), then the increase in price and decrease in output reduces the  $GNP$  to  $GNP_1$ . However, if the price increase and reduced demand are achieved through a tax, the tax revenue is  $T$ . If this revenue is returned to consumers and transferred to nonenergy uses, the new  $GNP$  or real income level is  $\overline{GNP}_1 = GNP_1 + T$ . The magnitude of each of these changes depends on the curvature of the function as determined by  $\sigma$ , the elasticity of substitution.

To illustrate these calculations, recall from (11) that

$$E_0 = Y_0 a^\sigma (P_{E,0})^{-\sigma} \quad (13)$$

Therefore,

$$a = \left( \frac{E_0}{Y_0} \right)^{1/\sigma} \cdot P_{E,0} \quad (14)$$

From the assumption of constant returns to scale and the accounting conventions, we know that

$$Y = P_R R + P_E E \quad (15)$$

and  $P_{R,0} R_0 = GNP_0$ . By appropriate choice of units, we can define  $R_0 = 1$ . Since  $R_0$  must satisfy optimality condition corresponding to (11), it follows that

$$R_0 = Y_0 b^\sigma (P_{R,0})^{-\sigma} \quad (16)$$

or

$$b = GNP_0 (Y_0)^{-1/\sigma} \quad (17)$$

Given  $a$  and  $b$ , (9) determines  $Y$  for any  $E_1$  with  $R_0 = 1$ . Equation (11) determines the associated price  $P_{E,1}$ , which then yields  $GNP_1$  and  $\overline{GNP}_1$  as in Figure B-4.

In Table B-4, prices and GNP values are presented for different values of energy demand in the year 2010. These results are obtained by assuming that the equilibrium E and GNP would have grown at a 3% annual rate from 1970 to 2010, if energy prices had remained at their 1970 level of \$.80 per million Btu. (This represents the 1970 U.S. wellhead price of crude oil, expressed in terms of the 1975 general price level.)

Table B-4 shows the importance of the elasticity of substitution. If this parameter is as high as 0.5, there is substantial decoupling of energy and the GNP, even at energy consumption levels as low as 110 quads in the year 2010. But if the elasticity of substitution is 0.1, the effects of reduced energy input could be large. A 70 quad scenario would then imply that the growth in real GNP would have to be held to virtually zero over the years 1970 through 2010!

#### ACCOMMODATING CAPITAL AND ENERGY

The analysis of substitution identifies an important element of the energy-economic interaction and illustrates the limits of the analogy of the elephant and rabbit stew. Several other deficiencies can be found in this model. The most serious may be the relationship between changed inputs of energy and the inputs of all other factors. It might be a reasonable first approximation to assume that labor inputs are undiminished by the changed availability of energy, even though their productivity declines. But the same may not be true for capital inputs. Reduced energy inputs will lower the marginal productivity of capital. This, in turn, may depress the rate of saving and the level of investment. This energy induced capital reduction will reduce further the level of output and GNP. Such indirect effects may be the most important component of the economic impact of energy scarcity.<sup>†</sup>

There are several paths to follow in complicating the analysis to accommodate the roles of capital, labor, and energy. Following a popular approach in the literature, we adopt the natural extension of the two-factor production function by assuming that R is a Cobb-Douglas function of the inputs of capital (K) and labor (L) ,

$$R = cK^{\alpha} L^{1-\alpha} , \quad (18)$$

<sup>†</sup>We are indebted particularly to Dale Jorgenson for calling our attention to this issue and for his assistance in developing the argument. See footnote, p. B-9 regarding the closely related issue of energy-capital complementarity.

Table B-4  
 ECONOMIC IMPACTS OF ENERGY REDUCTIONS  
 (with constant energy costs and  
 constant capital and labor inputs)

$\sigma$	E	ENERGY PRICE TO CONSUMERS, INCLUDING Btu TAX $P_E$ (\$/10 <sup>6</sup> Btu)	GNP CHANGE (billions of 1975 dollars) $\overline{\text{GNP}}^\dagger$ (based on Btu tax)
.10	220	.80	0
	190	3.10	-27
	160	11.17	-197
	110	28.33	-1220
	70	29.85	-2366
.20	220	.80	0
	190	1.60	-11
	160	3.49	-59
	110	14.49	-405
	70	35.32	-1351
.30	220	.80	0
	190	1.28	-7
	160	2.18	-33
	110	6.56	-187
	70	20.04	-630
.50	220	.80	0
	190	1.06	-5
	160	1.47	-18
	110	2.97	-82
	70	6.74	-230
.70	220	.80	0
	190	.98	-4
	160	1.24	-12
	110	2.06	-52
	70	3.79	-131

<sup>†</sup>Energy tax induced change in GNP in the year 2010. Base value at 220 quads is \$4400 billions.

where  $\alpha$  is the share of payments to capital and  $1-\alpha$  is the share of payments to labor. This yields a new production function of the form

$$Y = F(K,L,E) = \left[ aE^{\frac{\sigma-1}{\sigma}} + b(cK^{\alpha}L^{1-\alpha})^{\frac{\sigma-1}{\sigma}} \right]^{\frac{\sigma}{\sigma-1}} \quad (19)$$

Given base values of  $K_0$  and  $L_0$  for an assumed  $\alpha$ , the natural extensions of (15) - (17) determine  $b$  and  $c$  by equating the marginal productivities of capital and labor with their respective prices.

If  $K$  and  $L$  are held constant as  $E$  varies, this three-factor model duplicates the analysis of the previous section. As an alternative assumption, however, it may be assumed that  $P_K$ , rather than  $K$ , is held constant and the level of capital input is adjusted as the availability of energy changes. This maintains the return on capital and is a long-run proxy for the adaptation in capital that might be induced by the reduced use of energy. It should represent a lower bound for the level of capital input and an upper bound for the energy-capital induced economic impact.

In Table B-5 we present the relevant GNP and energy price estimates assuming that  $P_K$  is constant. The value of  $\alpha$  is set at 0.35,  $L_0$  is set at 1, and the initial input of capital stock is assumed to be 2.5 times the GNP. Figure B-3 illustrates the same calculations for the alternate capital assumptions, assuming the elasticity of substitution is 0.3. The reductions in capital input produce significant reductions in GNP. For  $\sigma = 0.3$  and  $E = 110$  quads, the reduction in GNP increases from 4% to 11%. The required tax, however, is reduced from \$5.76 to \$4.32. But the qualitative conclusion of the two-factor analysis is preserved. Reductions in energy availability produce less than proportional reductions in GNP. The changes in capital can be important, but the economic impact is most sensitive to the index of flexibility, the elasticity of substitution.

Table B-5

## ECONOMIC IMPACTS OF ENERGY REDUCTIONS

(Production Function Analysis of Btu Tax)  
 (with constant energy costs, constant labor inputs,  
 and a constant rate of return on capital)

$\sigma$	E	ENERGY PRICE TO CONSUMERS, INCLUDING Btu TAX $P_E$ ( $\$/10^6$ Btu)	GNP CHANGE (billions of 1975 dollars) $\overline{\text{GNP}}^\dagger$ (based on Btu tax)
.10	220	.80	0
	190	2.21	-177
	160	5.06	-526
	110	12.74	-1471
	70	20.43	-2447
.20	220	.80	0
	190	1.47	-88
	160	2.80	-251
	110	8.21	-844
	70	17.59	-1755
.30	220	.80	0
	190	1.22	-60
	160	1.99	-155
	110	5.12	-496
	70	12.49	-1136
.50	220	.80	0
	190	1.04	-44
	160	1.42	-91
	110	2.75	-244
	70	5.86	-516
.70	220	.80	0
	190	.97	-43
	160	1.21	-77
	110	1.98	-170
	70	3.56	-316

$^\dagger$  Energy tax induced change in GNP in the year 2010. Base value at 220 quads is \$4400 billions.

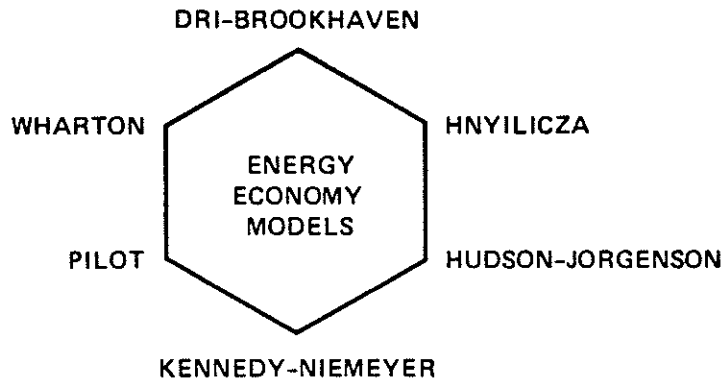
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Appendix C

CAPITAL-ENERGY COMPLEMENTARITY IN AGGREGATE  
ENERGY-ECONOMIC ANALYSIS

The link between capital and energy is an important component of the full feedback effect of energy on the economy. The nature of this link is the subject of debate with conflicting evidence available in different studies. This issue is discussed here with a proposed resolution of the debate that leads to the simplified analysis in Appendix B and Volume 1 of this report.





CAPITAL-ENERGY COMPLEMENTARITY IN AGGREGATE  
ENERGY-ECONOMIC ANALYSIS

by

William W. Hogan

Working Paper

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Energy Modeling Forum  
Institute for Energy Studies  
Stanford University  
Stanford, California 94305

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## Appendix C

### CAPITAL-ENERGY COMPLEMENTARITY IN AGGREGATE ENERGY-ECONOMIC ANALYSIS

"We have arrived at the finding that we human beings do not, on careful examination, turn out to possess any one clear-cut notion of complementarity and substitutability."

--Paul A. Samuelson [1]

#### INTRODUCTION

If capital and energy are substitutes, national policies intended to reduce the demand for energy may increase the demand for new capital investment, creating a need for higher levels of saving but mitigating the economic impact of the lowered energy use. If capital and energy are complements, national policies intended to reduce the demand for energy may reduce the demand for capital, lessening the pressure on savings but magnifying the economic impacts of the lowered energy use.

These simple alternatives seem to characterize a straightforward energy policy analysis issue and a standard problem in economic theory. An empirical or analytical determination of the nature of the link between capital and energy, complementarity or substitutability, should establish the qualitative impacts of future energy policies. The importance of the problem has motivated a number of empirical studies [2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7], but the results of these studies and the discussions they have stimulated indicate that things may not be as simple as they seem. Conflicting estimates have been reported with capital and energy appearing as complements in some analyses [e.g., 2] and substitutes in others [e.g., 4]. Instances of capital and energy substitutability come to mind readily, such as the use of insulation or the introduction of waste heat recovery equipment, but complementarity between capital and energy seems counterintuitive when interpreted in the context of specific engineering examples. This leads frequently to a reluctance to accept models or analyses incorporating complementarity between capital and energy.

The pursuit of this issue is surprisingly difficult, but there is some comfort in Samuelson's observation above drawn from his survey of the development of complementarity in economic demand theory. The confusion is not new nor is it unique to energy applications. The difficulty stems from our usage of terms like complementarity and substitutability without resolving conflicting definitions or interpretations. This is recognized for example in Berndt and Wood [3], where a careful application of concepts is presented to resolve the apparent empirical differences between their earlier complementarity result [2] and the substitutability finding of Griffin and Gregory [4]. The presentation in [3] provides additional tests of the robustness of the complementarity result for U.S. manufacturing and clarifies its interpretation.

Berndt and Wood [3] do not address the extension of their result to an aggregate production function for the full economy. It is the purpose of the present paper to argue that the natural extension, the measurement of the Allen partial elasticity of substitution, is inappropriate for the aggregate production function. This leads to the proposal of an alternative definition of the link between capital and energy induced by changes in energy policy that captures the intuitive concept with the correct policy interpretation. The conclusions of this paper can be summarized as a series of seemingly contradictory statements:

- Capital and energy are substitutes in the intuitive sense implied by the specific engineering examples.
- Capital and energy may be complements in the sense measured by the Allen partial elasticity of substitution.
- The Allen partial elasticity of substitution is not the relevant parameter for the design of aggregate national policies which have a pervasive effect on factor prices.
- For aggregate analysis, capital and energy should be viewed as complements in the sense that higher energy prices or reduced energy use will decrease the demand for capital. This reduced capital input may be the most important component of the economic impact of any energy restrictions.

#### THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The argument in this paper employs the framework of a partial equilibrium analysis of an aggregate production function. The elegant theory of production functions and dual cost functions is collected in Diewert [8]. The essential elements are summarized here for later use.

The relationship between the inputs  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  and the gross output  $Y$  of the economy is assumed to be determined by a production function,  $F$ , defined on the positive orthant to be positive, concave, and homogeneous of degree one, i.e.,

$$Y = F(X);$$

$$F(X) > 0 \text{ for } X > 0, \left( X = (X_1, \dots, X_n) \right);$$

$$F(\lambda X^1 + (1-\lambda)X^2) \geq \lambda F(X^1) + (1-\lambda)F(X^2) \text{ for } \lambda \in [0,1];$$

and

$$F(\alpha X) = \alpha F(X) \text{ for } \alpha \in [0, \infty].$$

If  $P_i$  is the price of  $X_i$  and the producer is in competitive equilibrium, then there exists a corresponding cost function  $C(Y, P)$  that determines the minimum cost of producing output  $Y$  in the presence of prices  $P$ , i.e.,

$$C(Y, P) = \text{Min} \left\{ PX \mid X > 0, F(X) = Y \right\}. \quad (1)$$

The cost function is positive on the positive orthant, concave, and homogeneous of degree one in  $P$ , and homogeneous of degree one in  $Y$ .

If  $F$  exhibits strictly convex isoquants (i.e., diminishing marginal rates of substitution) then the optimal solution to (1) is unique and is represented as

$$X^* = X^*(Y, P). \quad (2)$$

This defines the constant output demand as a function of factor prices. With appropriate differentiability assumptions, Shephard's lemma provides

$$X_i^*(Y, P) = \frac{\delta C(Y, P)}{\delta P_i}. \quad (3)$$

Interpreting the unit cost  $C(1, P)$  as the price of output,  $P_Y$ , then the analogous result applies in terms of the gradient of the production function, equating prices and marginal productivity,

$$F_i = \frac{\delta F(X^*)}{\delta X_i} = P_i / P_Y. \quad (4)$$

These dual relationships are central to the analysis of the production function and in the simulation of a partial equilibrium analysis of the economy. The demand functions (3) are also important in the interpretation of the complementarity and substitutability concepts. The usual formal definitions of these terms employ the partial elasticities of substitution as defined in Allen [9]. Uzawa [10] has shown that this Allen partial elasticity of substitution (A.E.S.) between input factors  $i$  and  $j$  ( $i \neq j$ ), denoted as  $\sigma_{ij}$ , may be written as

$$\sigma_{ij} = C(1,P) \frac{C_{ij}}{C_i C_j}, \quad (5)$$

where

$$C_i = \frac{\delta C(1,P)}{\delta P_i}, \quad C_{ij} = \frac{\delta^2 C(1,P)}{\delta P_i \delta P_j}.$$

According to this definition, factor inputs  $i$  and  $j$  are classified as substitutes or complements according to whether  $\sigma_{ij}$  is positive or negative.

The index  $\sigma_{ij}$  has a certain natural appeal in that it is symmetric,  $\sigma_{ij} = \sigma_{ji}$ , but it lends itself to an immediate interpretation when related to the price elasticity of demand for factors of production. The price elasticity of demand defined as

$$E_{ij} = \frac{\delta \ln X_i^*}{\delta \ln P_j}. \quad (6)$$

Normalizing for the scale of output, it follows from (3) that

$$E_{ij} = s_j \sigma_{ij}, \quad (7)$$

where  $s_j$  is the share of factor payments going to  $j$ ,

$$s_j = \frac{P_j X_j^*}{C(Y,P)}.$$

This price elasticity of demand is not in general symmetric,  $E_{ij} \neq E_{ji}$ , but it has the same sign as the A.E.S. Hence, holding output constant, two input

factors  $i$  and  $j$  are A.E.S. complements if an increase in the price of  $j$  reduces the demand for  $i$  or A.E.S. substitutes if an increase in the price of  $j$  increases the demand for  $i$ .

This definition seems satisfactory enough and appears to be consistent with the intuitive notions of complementarity and substitutability. The A.E.S. is the concept most frequently used and the focus of the major empirical studies cited above. For  $n > 2$ , however, the A.E.S. is not as simple as it appears. The sign of  $\sigma_{ij}$  depends very much on the nature of the production function in terms of factors other than  $X_i$  and  $X_j$ . Semantic confusion arises because complementarity is not a generalization of the concept of perfect complements familiar in two dimensional analysis. More subtle confusions stem from the dependence of the definition of the A.E.S. on changes in one price holding output and all other factor prices constant. It seems worthwhile to develop further an interpretation of the A.E.S.

#### INTERPRETING CAPITAL-ENERGY COMPLEMENTARITY

Samuelson [1] documents the historical difficulty of economic theory in producing an acceptable formal definition of complementarity that preserves intuitive appeal. This confusion is found in specializations of the concepts to the study of capital and energy. A review of the empirical debate can be found in Berndt and Wood [3]. Examples of ambiguous interpretations of A.E.S. complementarity are present in Sonenblum [11] or Chapman [12]. In fact, the presentation by Berndt and Wood [3] seems to be a rare but successful attempt to explain the concepts in a straightforward and self-consistent manner in the context of capital and energy. We present a similar interpretation here that supplements their exposition without invoking translog approximations to the cost function. Convenient for empirical implementation, this translog approximation is not essential to the interpretation of the A.E.S.

The first step is to dispense with one natural source of potential confusion in the use of the terminology. Figure C-1 recalls the familiar definitions of perfect complements and perfect substitutes in a production function with two inputs and one output. If the isoquant for the production function is represented by a-a, then the two inputs  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are often referred to as perfect complements. If the correct isoquant is b-b, however, the two inputs are then referred to as perfect substitutes. It is important to recognize that the A.E.S. definition of complementarity or substitutability is not a natural generalization

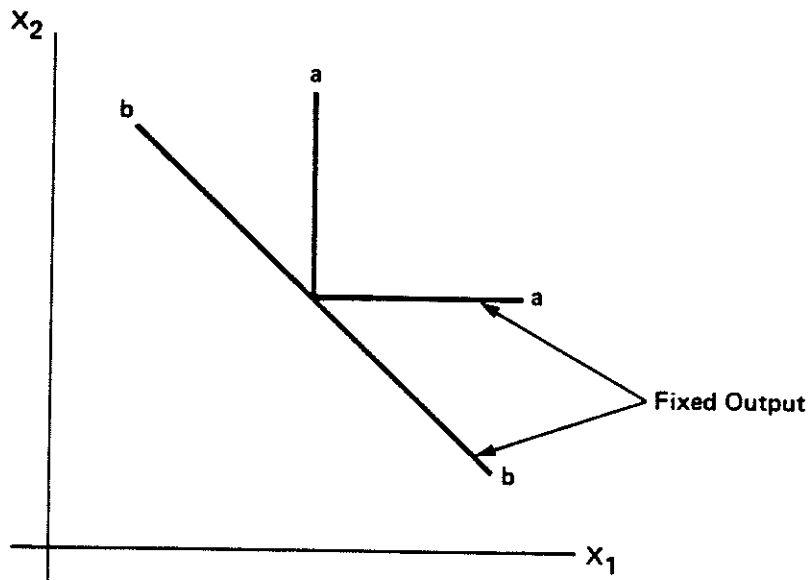


Figure C-1 Traditional Interpretation of Perfect Complements and Perfect Substitutes



of this common usage. In fact when  $n = 2$ , the A.E.S. is always nonnegative and the two goods must be substitutes. For  $n > 2$ , it is not in general possible to determine the sign of the A.E.S. by examining the two dimensional projection of a single isoquant. Recognizing that the A.E.S. refers to a different property of the production function goes a long way toward dispelling the counter-intuitive aura of A.E.S. complementarity.

To see the correct interpretation of the A.E.S., at least a three factor production function is necessary and this presents the opportunity to begin the specialization to the discussion of capital and energy. For simplicity, the aggregate production function for the economy is represented in terms of three inputs: capital, labor, and energy,  $Y = F(K,L,E)$ .<sup>†</sup>

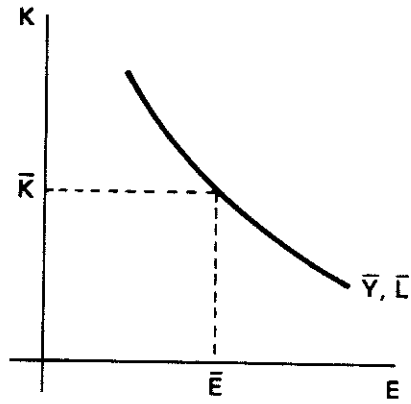
The assumption that  $F$  displays diminishing marginal rates of substitution or has strictly convex isoquants implies that the projections of the isoquants are also strictly convex. This is illustrated in Figure C-2 where the three possible pairs of isoquants are depicted holding output and the input of the third factor constant. Hence, in Figure C-2a if output and labor input are held constant, the locus of all pairs of capital and energy that are possible describes a standard isoquant familiar from the traditional two dimensional example. When output and labor inputs are held constant, capital and energy are seen to be substitutes. This follows directly from the concavity assumptions for the production function. The analogous results in Figures C-2b and C-2c hold for capital and labor or labor and energy. Taken two at a time, the factors always are substitutes on any isoquant.

This two dimensional substitution seems consistent with the engineering examples of insulation or waste heat recovery. To maintain the same level of output in any productive process, holding the inputs of other factors constant, it follows immediately that capital and energy are substitutes. There is no conflict here with engineering intuition. The economic assumptions underlying the aggregate production function conform with the natural intuition about the physical process.

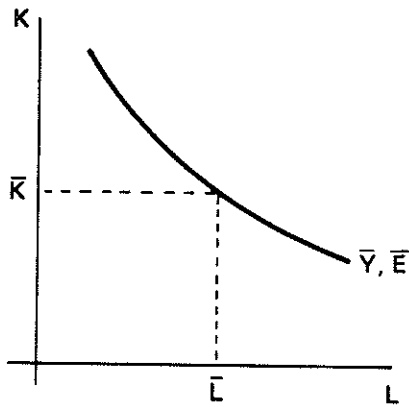
This qualitative characteristic of the production function tells us nothing about the degree of substitution between any two factors. It may be that capital and

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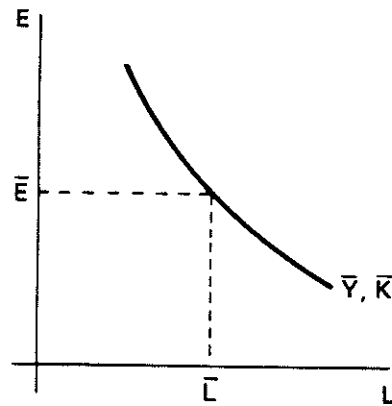
<sup>†</sup> Berndt and Wood represent  $Y = F(K,L,E,M)$  for the manufacturing sector. Which of these is a preferred approximation for the aggregate production function is an empirical question. The conceptual discussion applies equally to both.



(a)



(b)

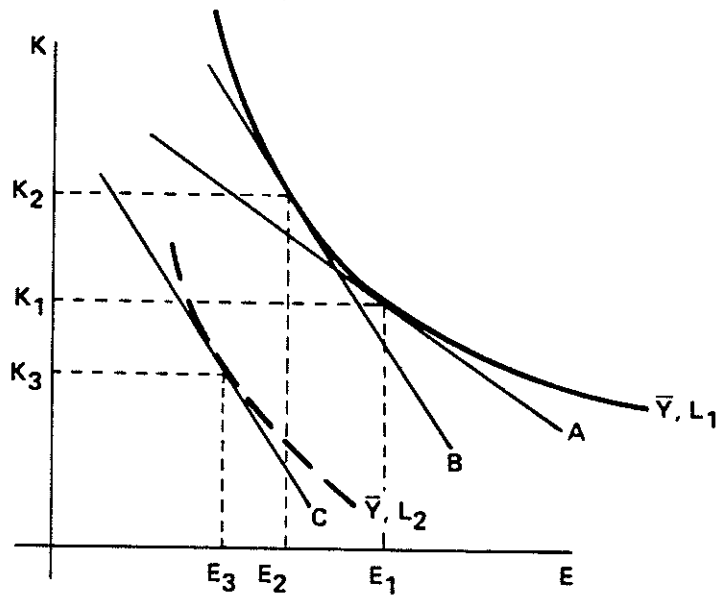


(c)

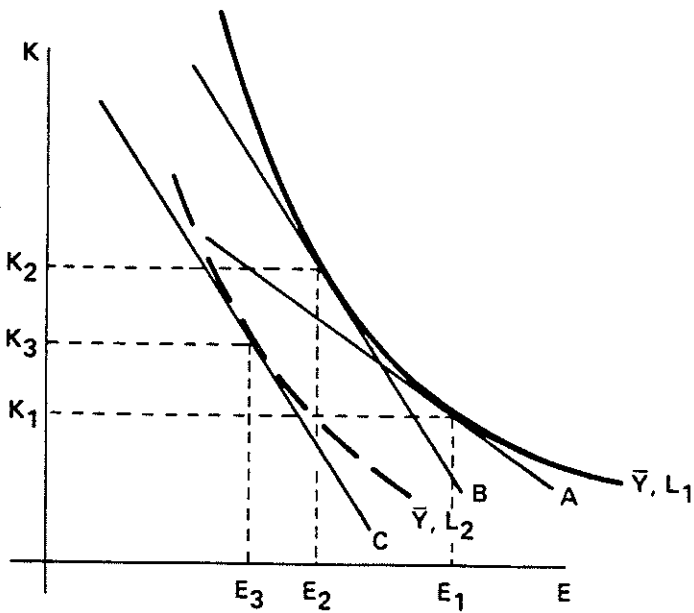
Figure C-2 Two Factor Isoquants Implied by Concave Three Factor Production Function

energy are relatively weak substitutes but energy and labor are very strong substitutes. It is this notion, the degree of relative substitution, that is the key to the interpretation of the A.E.S. Consider, for example, the situation in Figure C-3a, which shows the isoquants for the production function with inputs  $K_1$ ,  $L_1$ , and  $E_1$  producing output  $\bar{Y}$ . The slope of the isoquant at this point is  $-P_E/P_K$ . Now suppose that the price of energy increases slightly, shifting the slope from line A to line B. The movement along the isoquant  $\bar{Y}$ ,  $L_1$  would increase the demand for capital to  $K_2$  and decrease the demand for energy to  $E_2$ . But the rise in the price of energy also causes some shift in the demand for labor--say to level  $L_2$ . This causes a shift in the projection of the capital energy isoquant to the dashed line  $\bar{Y}$ ,  $L_2$ . The cost slope parallel to line B is now line C, tangent to the new isoquant at the point  $K_3$ ,  $E_3$ . This is the final equilibrium point. The energy demand has decreased in the two steps and the movement between isoquants has reduced the demand for capital. In this case the reduction compensates for the increase in capital that occurred while substituting away from energy along the original isoquant. Hence, the final demand for capital is reduced as a result of an increase in the price of energy. This implies a negative cross price elasticity  $E_{KE} < 0$ . It follows from the definitions that the A.E.S. between capital and energy is negative. Capital and energy are A.E.S. complements in Figure C-3a. The opposite situation is depicted in Figure C-3b, where the shift between isoquants reduces capital demand, but not enough to compensate for the substitution between capital and energy. In this case the elasticity of demand for capital with respect to the price of energy is positive and the A.E.S. between capital and energy is positive. Capital and energy are A.E.S. substitutes in Figure C-3b.

It is clear from these examples that the A.E.S. is a measure of the relative substitution between two factors compared with the substitution effects of other input factors. If the substitution between capital and energy is large compared to the substitution between their composite and labor, then capital and energy are seen as A.E.S. substitutes. When the substitution between capital and energy is relatively small compared to the substitution of their composite with labor, then capital and energy are seen as A.E.S. complements. Berndt and Wood [3] have given these two relative components of the total elasticity the names gross substitution effect and scale effect. A movement along the isoquant with higher energy prices is the gross substitution effect with capital always substituting for energy. The movement between isoquants, the scale effect, further reduces the demand for energy and reduces the demand for capital. If this scale



(a)



(b)

Figure C-3 Illustration of A.E.S. Complementarity (a) and Substitutability (b) for Capital and Energy

effect is larger than the gross substitution effect for capital, then capital and energy are net complements or A.E.S. complements. If the scale effect is less than the gross substitution effect, then capital and energy are net substitutes or A.E.S. substitutes. Berndt and Wood [3] present these examples using a translog approximation to a hierarchical version of their production function. As we have seen, this specialization is not required for the conceptual interpretation. However, it does permit a derivation of formulas for the scale and gross substitution effects that can be tested empirically. Berndt and Wood estimate these parameters and conclude that, for capital and energy in their production function for total U.S. manufacturing, the scale effect dominates the gross substitution effect and capital and energy are A.E.S. complements.

This result can be made intuitively appealing in the context of the aggregate  $F(K,L,E)$  production function by imposing what appears to be a restrictive assumption on the form of the relationship. Suppose that the production function is a hierarchical function of the form  $F(K,L,E) = G(H(K,E),L)$ . Here it is assumed that both  $G$  and  $H$  are constant elasticity of substitution production functions. It follows that  $K$  and  $E$  are substitutes in  $H$  with  $H$  and  $L$  being substitutes in  $G$ . This would seem to be so restrictive as to guarantee substitution between  $K$  and  $E$  in  $F$ . It is curious to note, however, that  $K$  and  $E$  can be A.E.S. complements in  $F$ . The A.E.S. between capital and energy,  $\sigma_{KE}$ , is shown by Sato [13] to be

$$\sigma_{KE} = \sigma_G + \frac{1}{s_H} (\sigma_H - \sigma_G),$$

where  $\sigma_H$  and  $\sigma_G$  are the elasticities of substitution in the C.E.S. functions  $H$  and  $G$  respectively, and  $s_H$  is the value share of  $H$  in  $G$ . The first term can be interpreted as the substitution effect and the second term as the scale effect. Hence, after rearranging terms if  $\sigma_G \geq \sigma_H/(1-s_H)$ , then the capital and energy are A.E.S. complements in  $F$ .

A stylized version of the values of the parameters might have  $G$  as a Cobb-Douglas function,  $\sigma_G = 1$ , with the share going to  $H$  equal to 0.26. Hence, if the elasticity of substitution between capital and energy in  $H$  is less than 0.74, then capital and energy are A.E.S. complements in  $F$ . Now the marginal productivity relationship for this specification of  $F$  yields

$$\ln E = C_1 + \sigma_H \ln\left(\frac{Y}{H}\right) + \ln H - \sigma_H \ln(P_E/P_Y).$$

Ignoring the effects of energy on H and Y, therefore,  $-\sigma_H$  is the partial own price elasticity of energy demand. Although the feedback effects on H and Y make this interpretation less than precise, it would seem more likely that  $\sigma_H < .74$  in light of the conventional wisdom about the own price elasticity of the aggregate demand for primary energy [14].

This restrictive functional form is not recommended for empirical investigation. The argument is sufficient, however, to establish the first two propositions presented in the introduction.

The assumption of concavity of F implies that capital and energy are substitutes when viewed in isolation from the rest of the inputs to the productive process. Capital and energy isoquants exhibit the normal substitution relationship consistent with the intuition produced by the engineering examples. And this finding of substitution in the engineering sense is not in conflict with the possibility of a determination that capital and energy are A.E.S. complements in the context of the aggregate production function. This is essentially an empirical question. There seems to be nothing counterintuitive about A.E.S. complementarity. In fact, a plausible case for capital and energy complementarity can be constructed within the context of a seemingly restrictive hierarchical production function which imposes substitution at each level in the hierarchy. From this perspective the possibility of A.E.S. complementarity between capital and energy seems appealing, even likely. In the next section this possibility is examined further leading to a different question: Is A.E.S. complementarity between capital and energy important?

#### RELEVANCE OF A.E.S.

The previous section supports the conceptual possibility of A.E.S. complementarity between capital and energy. A determination that capital and energy are A.E.S. complements would seem to have immediate implications for national energy policy. For example, Berndt and Wood [3] are concerned with the likely energy demand impacts of a general investment tax credit and conclude that such a stimulation of investment would increase energy demand. In a similar vein, the economic effects of a reduction in the use of energy via higher energy prices

are sensitive to the changes in capital investment induced by the higher energy costs. This economic impact is the main concern of the present discussion. The importance of the link between capital and energy in this regard can be demonstrated within an elementary framework.

The approach follows that of Hogan and Manne [15]. The output of nonenergy goods in the economy (Y) is assumed to be determined by the inputs of capital (K), labor (L), and energy (E) to the production function (F),

$$Y = F(K,L,E), \quad (8)$$

where F is a positive, differentiable, concave function exhibiting constant returns to scale and diminishing marginal rates of substitution. This notion carries implicit assumptions about the accounting conventions for the production and use of energy and nonenergy goods. Energy is treated as an intermediate product contributing to the ultimate production of goods and services for final demand. This might be the case if the consumer is viewed as demanding the services of energy, rather than the energy per se, and if all the products and services of the nonenergy sector can be aggregated into a single output index, Y. This output is measured in the same units as the GNP. The standard identities equating the value of input and output yield

$$P_Y Y = P_K K + P_L L + P_E E, \quad (9)$$

and

$$P_Y \text{ GNP} = P_K K + P_L L. \quad (10)$$

The interindustry transactions for this accounting convention are displayed in Table C-1.

Assuming a competitive solution, at any given level of output there must be equality between the price of inputs and their marginal productivities, i.e.,

$$F_K = \frac{\delta F}{\delta K} = P_K / P_Y,$$

$$F_L = \frac{\delta F}{\delta L} = P_L / P_Y, \quad (11)$$

and

$$F_E = \frac{\delta F}{\delta E} = P_E / P_Y.$$

Table C-1

INTERINDUSTRY TRANSACTION FLOWS  
 IMPLICIT IN F(K,L,E) ACCOUNTING

TO FROM	ENERGY	NONENERGY	FINAL DEMAND
ENERGY	0	$P_E$	0
NONENERGY	$P_E$	0	GNP
CAPITAL	0	$P_K$	
LABOR	0	$P_L$	



Finally, the unit cost function dual to (8) gives

$$P_Y = C(1, P_K, P_L, P_E). \quad (12)$$

For any specific form for the production function in (8), this simple partial equilibrium model can be solved for the changes in GNP that are produced by changes in energy use given the related changes in other input factors [15]. The full solution is not necessary, however, to demonstrate the importance of the link between capital and energy. From (11) it follows that

$$\frac{F_K^K}{Y} = \frac{P_K^K}{P_Y Y} = s_K \quad (13)$$

$$\frac{F_E^E}{Y} = \frac{P_E^E}{P_Y Y} = s_E, \quad (14)$$

where  $s_K$  and  $s_E$  are the value shares of capital and energy respectively. The left-hand side of (13) and (14) also are the elasticities of output with respect to the inputs of capital and energy. Adapting to our accounting system the data from Denison [16] for capital and labor shares of GNP and the Bureau of Mines [17] for energy expenditures, we have approximate values of  $s_K = .22$  and  $s_E = .04$  prior to 1960. Changes in capital, therefore, have a greater impact on the gross output than do changes in energy alone.

A reduction in the use of energy by itself will have a relatively small economic impact, determined to first order by energy's small value share. But if the reduced use of energy also produces a reduction in the use of capital, the larger value share of capital applies and the economic impact is magnified. This indirect effect through capital can be the largest component of the economic impact of reduced energy use, e.g., see [15] and [14], but this effect is often ignored in economic impact analyses of energy policy, e.g., [18].<sup>†</sup> A common approach used to sidestep the difficulty is to assume the existence of compensating policy

<sup>†</sup>The published results of Hudson and Jorgenson [5] display slight increases in aggregate capital services for small increases in the price of energy through 1980. However, Jorgenson has indicated privately that more recent executions of a later version of the model produce significant reductions in the capital services that cause the major component of the reduction in GNP.

or serendipitous supply behavior that maintains the capital input. But what if such assumptions do not hold? How does a change in energy use affect the use of capital?

From the policy perspective, the final answers to these questions must be found in the new equilibrium solution for the full economy. A reduction in energy use will reduce output and change both the ability and willingness to save. At the same time, the reduced use of energy will change the demands for capital as an input to the productive process. Even more indirect effects through changes in labor may occur as the system evolves over time. To be complete, an analysis of the link between capital and energy should include the supply and demand effects contained in a general equilibrium system.

This requires the construction and use of a complete growth model with specific energy sectors, as in [5, 6, 19, 20, 21]. Correct in principle, this approach can be complicated to implement and, by itself, difficult to interpret. There is a natural interest in a transparent aggregation that tracks and explains the full equilibrium result.

A number of approaches are available for a simple partial equilibrium model. The choice of inputs (K,L,E) in (8) determines output  $Y$  and the prices in (11). By duality relationships between production and cost functions, the prices and output levels could be specified to determine the demand for input factors. Alternative approaches to the solution can be taken by specifying appropriate combinations of prices and outputs and solving (8) - (12) for the remaining variables. A reduced input of energy implies a higher marginal productivity and, therefore, by (11) a higher equilibrium price. The effect on capital of reduced energy use, therefore, might be determined through an investigation of the change in capital demand induced by a change in energy price, i.e., the elasticity of capital demand with respect to energy price.

This approach through prices seems natural, particularly when the production function is interpreted in the context of a single firm. The firm is a price taker adjusting its demand for inputs in response to changes in the factor prices. A change in the price of energy for a single firm should not affect the price of other inputs. If demand for the firm's output is inelastic, the partial equilibrium result will approximate the general equilibrium solution. Factor demand response to an energy price change, therefore, can be measured along a given isoquant with

other factor prices held constant. This is the constant output price elasticity and, as discussed above, the sign of the response is revealed by the A.E.S. For a single firm, therefore, the A.E.S. is an appropriate and simple measure of the link between capital and energy.

The single firm may observe a change in the price of energy without seeing related changes in the prices of other input factors. The increase in energy prices does increase  $P_Y$ , the price of output for the firm, but this small change for one firm should not affect prices in the full economy. It is reasonable to presume that the real prices of capital and labor remain constant in terms of the goods and services they represent. For a single firm, the suppliers of capital and labor should be willing to provide any level of input at the constant real price. The assumptions implicit in the definition of A.E.S. should be satisfied for a single firm. The aggregation to the full economy, however, alters this situation. At the level of the aggregate production function there is no distinction between  $P_Y$  and the price of output for the full economy. If the energy price increases for the entire economy, then  $P_Y$  increases and the amount of goods and services that can be obtained for  $P_K$  and  $P_L$  declines. Maintaining constant  $P_K$  and  $P_L$  in the presence of an aggregate increase in the price of energy implies a decline in the real price of capital and labor. Certainly this change will affect the aggregate supply of factors as well as the demand. In particular, the assumption of a perfectly elastic supply of labor is no longer applicable. The A.E.S. test, therefore, loses appeal as the proxy for the general equilibrium result when the analysis moves beyond the case of a single firm. Some extension is needed to deal with the aggregate production function. The adaptation suggested in the next section consists of a change in the question presented to the model.

#### A TEST FOR AGGREGATE CAPITAL AND ENERGY

In most long run economic growth models, the supply of labor is exogenous, or at least very inelastic [22, 5, 6, 19, 21]. This seems appropriate in the aggregate analysis, unlike the case for the single firm, and is adopted here. If the supply of labor is fixed, then a change in the use of energy and capital must change the equilibrium price of labor in real terms.

A similar situation exists for capital inputs. Changes in energy input will change the marginal productivity of capital and may affect over time the willingness of the economy to save and invest. The choice of an approximation for this equilibrium behavior of capital supply and demand is problematical. Three alternatives

suggest themselves as convenient simplifications: perfectly inelastic capital supply, a constant savings rate, and perfectly elastic capital supply. The assumption of a perfectly inelastic supply seems implausible without some compensating fiscal policy. In any event it makes the investigation of the link between capital and energy moot and, therefore, is not pursued here. An assumption of a constant savings rate would imply a complementary relationship between capital and energy but a very weak one with little aggregate effect on the equilibrium solution.<sup>†</sup> This is inconsistent with the argument above that the link between capital and energy may be the most important component of energy scarcity. The most plausible approximation, therefore, is continuation of the assumption implicit in the analysis of the individual firm, a perfectly elastic supply of capital at the equilibrium price of capital. But now the real price of capital is interpreted as  $P_K/P_Y$  rather than  $P_K$ . With this assumption, capital inputs adjust to maintain  $F_K$ , the marginal productivity of capital.<sup>††</sup> A change in the use of energy will change the use of capital and, with a fixed supply of labor, produce changes in the real energy price, the real labor price, and the gross output.

This partial equilibrium simulation of (8) - (12) is proposed as the approximation to the general equilibrium solution. It is intended to provide a policy relevant definition of the link between capital and energy applicable to the aggregate

<sup>†</sup> In terms of elasticities, the total change in output induced by a change in energy,  $\hat{\eta}_{Y,E}$ , must satisfy

$$\hat{\eta}_{Y,E} = \eta_{Y,K} \eta_{K,GNP} \eta_{GNP,E} + \eta_{Y,L} \eta_{L,E} + \eta_{Y,E} .$$

By assumption,  $\eta_{L,E} = 0$ . With a fixed savings rate,  $\eta_{K,GNP} = 1$ . It is clear that  $\eta_{GNP,E} \leq \hat{\eta}_{Y,E}$ . Therefore, under these conditions,

$\eta_{Y,E} \leq \eta_{Y,K} \eta_{Y,E} + \eta_{Y,E}$ . But  $\eta_{Y,K} = s_K$  and  $\eta_{Y,E} = s_E$ . Hence,  $\hat{\eta}_{Y,E} \leq s_E/(1-s_K)$ , very close to the situation when there is no link between capital and energy for which  $\hat{\eta}_{Y,E} = s_E$ .

<sup>††</sup> The use of a constant  $F_K$  across alternative paths of the equilibrium economy is an ad hoc procedure. It may be motivated as in Burmeister and Dobell [22, pp. 38-43], who discuss the case of monetary forces outside the model maintaining the real rate of interest to produce a constant  $F_K$ , although this presents some difficulties with their simple savings functions. If the long run equilibrium growth paths are also balanced growth paths in an optimal economic growth setting, then the assumption of a constant  $F_K$  applies. (See Appendix.) Ultimately, of course, this simplification and the resulting test depend upon their faithfulness as an approximation for the general equilibrium solution.

production function much as the A.E.S. applies to the analysis for an individual firm. If capital demand moves in the same (opposite) direction as the energy input in this simulation, then capital and energy are defined to be aggregate complements (substitutes).<sup>†</sup>

It is an unfortunate circumstance of terminology that the nature of the link between capital and energy in the sense suggested here is determined by the sign of the partial elasticity of complementarity as found in Sato and Koizumi [23,24], reinforcing the semantic confusion. To mitigate these problems, it is better to follow Samuelson's [25] insight and investigate aggregate complementarity (substitutability) in terms of the second derivatives of the production function,  $F_{ij}$ . The simulation of the model for this test can be performed in two stages as shown in Figure C-4. First, reduce the energy input to some new lower level, say from  $E_1$  to  $E_2$ . Second, adjust the capital input to maintain the real price of capital  $P_K/P_Y$  or, equivalently, the marginal productivity,  $F_K$ . By the concavity assumptions, it follows that  $\delta^2 F / \delta K^2 = F_{KK} < 0$ . If the necessary adjustment of capital is an increase to  $K'_2$ , then it must be that the reduction in energy increased  $F_K$ , implying that  $F_{KE} < 0$ . If the necessary adjustment of capital is a decrease to  $K''_2$ , then it must be that the reduction in energy decreased  $F_K$ , implying that  $F_{KE} > 0$ .

The operational test of the definition of the link between capital and energy, therefore, reduces to the determination of  $F_{KE}$  with positive values implying that reduced capital accompanies reduced energy (aggregate complementarity) and negative values implying that increased capital follows reduced energy (aggregate substitutability).

What is the value of  $F_{KE}$  for the American economy? This is an empirical issue but we might gain some insight by investigating alternative a priori specifications of (8). Consider the case of a hierarchical production function where capital and labor combine in a Cobb-Douglas function which in turn combines with energy in a C.E.S. production function, e.g.,

<sup>†</sup>The use of the terms complementarity and substitutability in this new sense seems as dangerous as it is attractive. Note that the definition requires the third input, labor, to absorb the reduction in real output. The specialization to the case with only two inputs seems vacuous. The extension to more than three inputs requires increasingly heroic assumptions about the adequacy of the approximation to the general equilibrium solution. There has been no attempt to make the test symmetric for policy changes imposed on capital rather than energy.

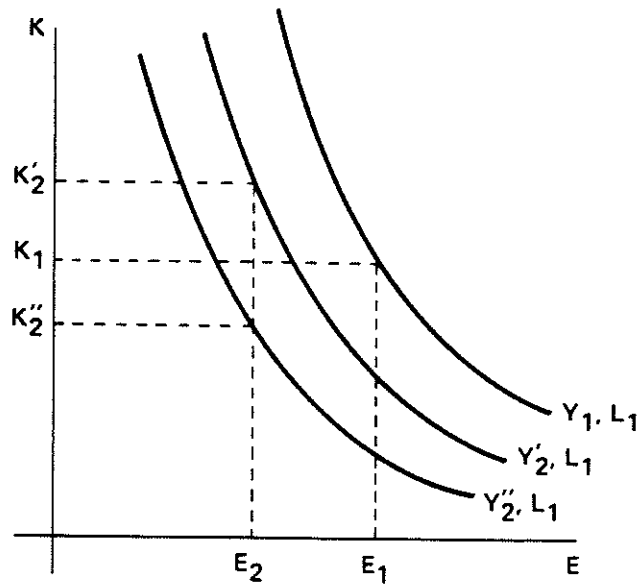


Figure C-4 Capital Adjustments to Energy Reductions to Maintain Constant Rate of Return with Final Labor Input

$$F(K,L,E) = G(H(K,L),E), \quad (15)$$

with

$$G(H,E) = \left[ aH^{(\sigma-1)/\sigma} + bE^{(\sigma-1)/\sigma} \right]^{\sigma/(\sigma-1)},$$

$$H(K,L) = cK^\alpha L^{1-\alpha},$$

and

$$(\sigma > 0; \sigma \neq 1, \infty; \alpha \in (0,1); a,b,c > 0).$$

Sato [13] gives the A.E.S. between capital and energy in this case as  $\sigma_{KE} = \sigma > 0$ . Hence, capital and energy are A.E.S. substitutes. Direct differentiation of (15) yields

$$F_{KE} = \frac{\alpha abH}{GOK} \left( \frac{G^2}{HE} \right)^{1/\sigma}, \quad (16)$$

and, therefore,  $F_{KE} > 0$ . In the simulation test of the aggregate production function, therefore, a reduction in energy always produces a reduction in capital, aggregate complementarity, despite the fact that capital and energy are always A.E.S. substitutes.

To introduce the possibility of A.E.S. complementarity between capital and energy, an alternative hierarchical specification might be

$$F(K,L,E) = H(G(K,E),L), \quad (17)$$

with

$$H(G,L) = cG^\alpha L^{1-\alpha},$$

$$G(K,E) = \left[ aK^{(\sigma-1)/\sigma} + bE^{(\sigma-1)/\sigma} \right]^{\sigma/(\sigma-1)},$$

and

$$(\sigma > 0; \sigma \neq 1, \infty; \alpha \in (0,1); a,b,c > 0).$$

From Sato [13] again, the A.E.S. between capital and energy is now

$$\sigma_{KE} = 1 + \frac{1}{\alpha} (\sigma - 1).$$

Hence, if  $\sigma < 1-\alpha$ , then capital and energy are A.E.S. complements. If  $\sigma > 1-\alpha$ , then capital and energy are A.E.S. substitutes. Differentiate (17) to obtain

$$F_{KE} = (\alpha-1 + \frac{1}{\sigma}) \left[ \frac{\alpha abH}{G^2} \left( \frac{G^2}{EK} \right)^{1/\sigma} \right]. \quad (18)$$

Therefore,  $F_{KE} > 0$  if

$$\sigma < \frac{1}{1-\alpha},$$

but  $F_{KE} < 0$  if

$$\sigma > \frac{1}{1-\alpha}.$$

For this specification of the production function, a finding of A.E.S. complementarity is sufficient but not necessary for aggregate complementarity. Further, only when capital and energy are very strong substitutes does aggregate substitutability occur. For example, if

$$\sigma > \frac{1}{1-\alpha},$$

then

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_{KE} &= 1 + \frac{1}{\alpha}(\sigma-1) \\ &> \frac{2-\alpha}{1-\alpha}, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\alpha$  is the share of payments to capital and energy. The shares in the Berndt and Wood [2] results for U.S. manufacturing, normalized for the  $F(K,L,E)$  formulation, have  $\alpha = .26$ , implying a  $\sigma_{KE} > 2.36$ , far from their empirical finding of  $\sigma_{KE} < 0$ . For the  $F(K,L,E)$  formulation of Griffin and Gregory [4] with OECD data, Berndt and Wood [3] report  $\alpha = .46$ , implying a  $\sigma_{KE} > 2.85$ . This compares poorly with the Griffin and Gregory estimate of  $\sigma_{KE} \approx 1.00$ . If (17) is accepted as a reasonable approximation to the more flexible translog forms used in these empirical studies, and if the results for the manufacturing sector extend to the full economy, then we must conclude that  $\sigma < \frac{1}{1-\alpha}$  and  $F_{KE} > 0$ .

These alternative examples for the production function illustrate the importance of the role of substitution with respect to the third input, labor, as well as indicating that we are unlikely to find  $F_{KE} < 0$ . It cannot occur in (15) and occurs in (17) only for large values of  $\sigma$ .

This completes the arguments for the third and fourth propositions presented in the introduction. For the aggregate production function, the A.E.S. test is not



relevant. The conditions of the A.E.S. interpretation cannot be met in the simulation of the aggregate production function. An alternative definition and test for the link between capital and energy are needed. The proposal here is motivated by an effort to obtain a simple partial equilibrium analysis as an approximation to the correct general equilibrium solution in the presence of restricted energy availability. For this proposed test, the link between capital and energy is determined by  $F_{KE}$  with the probable value for the United States satisfying  $F_{KE} > 0$ . Hence, for the proposed definition of the link between capital and energy it is likely that reduced utilization of energy implies a reduced demand for capital in the aggregate production function. Energy and capital can be viewed in this sense as aggregate complements.

#### CONCLUSION

This paper seeks to clarify some conceptual issues regarding the nature of the link between capital and energy and implications for energy policy. It is demonstrated that the empirical findings of A.E.S. complementarity are not in conflict with the engineering examples of capital-energy substitution. The finding of A.E.S. complementarity is shown to be quite plausible and should not be an a priori reason for dismissing any economic model or policy analysis. But the importance of the A.E.S., positive or negative, is disputed. The conditions assumed for the interpretation of the A.E.S. cannot hold in an application to the aggregate economy. The policy relevant definition of the link between capital and energy should be the changes in the general equilibrium solution for capital induced by change in energy availability. If the assumptions of constant real returns on capital and exogenous labor supply are good approximations across the general equilibrium growth paths, then the link between capital and energy is determined entirely by the technology of the aggregate production function. Although empirical verification is necessary, it is argued that the likely link between capital and energy is one of aggregate complementarity. Restrictions on aggregate energy use should induce reductions in the demand for capital and, therefore, exacerbate the economic impacts of the energy policy. The corresponding effects on energy induced by changes in capital availability have not been addressed.

## Appendix

### CONSTANT RETURNS TO CAPITAL IN OPTIMAL GROWTH MODELS

The key assumption in the proposed definition of the link between capital and energy is that the equilibrium  $F_K$  remains constant across energy scenarios. The adequacy of this approximation remains as an empirical question for descriptive growth models. For optimal growth models, as in [20], the assumption can be investigated analytically. This can provide insight for the optimizing models and may generalize to descriptive models which include optimizing behavioral assumptions. The approach here is a standard application of optimal control theory [26]. Suppose there is a well defined cost function for the energy sector,  $M$ , measuring the real resources consumed in the production of energy level  $E$ . This could be a very general cost function tracking a complicated energy system. Here the cost is assumed to be dependent on the rate of production, cumulative energy production,  $Q$ , and possibly time,  $M(Q,E,t)$ . Then the optimal growth problem might be formulated as

$$\text{Max}_{C,E} \int_0^T e^{-rt} u(C \cdot g) dt \quad (19)$$

$$\dot{K} = F(K,L,E,t) - C - M(Q,E,t) - \delta K$$

$$\dot{Q} = E$$

$$K(0) = K_0$$

$$Q(0) = Q_0$$

where

- u: utility function over consumption
- F: the aggregate production function, indexed over time to account for technological change
- M: energy cost function
- C: consumption
- r: discount rate for utility
- $\delta$ : replacement rate for capital
- K: capital stock
- L: labor input (exogenous)
- E: energy production
- Q: cumulative energy production
- g: an exogenous function of time (e.g.,  $g = 1/L$ ).

All functions are assumed to be continuously differentiable.

The Hamiltonian for this optimal control problem is

$$H = e^{-rt} u(Cg) + \lambda(F(K,L,E,t) - C - M(Q,E,t) - \delta K) + \Theta E. \quad (20)$$

Now, over the optimal trajectory,

$$\frac{\delta H}{\delta C} = e^{-rt} u'(Cg) g - \lambda = 0 \quad (21)$$

and

$$\frac{\delta H}{\delta K} = \lambda(F_K - \delta) = -\dot{\lambda}. \quad (22)$$

The time derivative of (22) yields

$$-re^{-rt} u'(Cg) g + e^{-rt} u''(Cg)(\dot{C}g + C\dot{g}) g + e^{-rt} u'(Cg) \dot{g} - \dot{\lambda} = 0. \quad (23)$$

The combination of (21), (22) and (23) gives

$$F_K = \delta + r - \sigma(Cg) \left( \frac{\dot{C}}{C} + \frac{\dot{g}}{g} \right) - \frac{\dot{g}}{g} \quad (24)$$

where  $\sigma(Cg) = \frac{u''(Cg)}{u'(Cg)} Cg$ , the elasticity of marginal utility.

The assumption of constant  $F_K$  across energy scenarios is equivalent to constant  $F_K$  across different  $M$  in (19). It follows from (24), therefore, that the assumption holds if and only if  $\sigma(Cg) \left( \frac{\dot{C}}{C} + \frac{\dot{g}}{g} \right)$  is constant across different energy scenarios. This could occur, for example, if

- the utility,  $u$ , is linear in its argument, in which case  $\sigma(Cg) = 0$ ; or
- the utility is isoelastic,  $\sigma(Cg) = \sigma$ , and the optimal growth path is a balanced growth path, i.e.,  $\frac{\dot{C}}{C} = \frac{\dot{L}}{L} + \frac{\dot{Z}}{Z}$ , where  $Z$  is an index of labor augmenting technology change. Since  $Z$  and  $L$  are exogenous and, therefore, constant across different realizations of  $M$ , the rate of growth of consumption and, therefore,  $F_K$  are constant across realizations of  $M$ . Of course,  $F_K$  may change over time but this does not affect our assumption.

The existence of a balanced growth path in optimal growth models is a familiar topic and a condition that intuitively seems appealing for simulations across different energy scenarios. Without drastic changes in  $C$ , there is little violence to the model in the use of an isoelastic utility function. It seems plausible, therefore, to conjecture that a constant  $F_K$  across energy scenarios is a good approximation to the equilibrium condition in an optimal growth model, assuming the approximation is applied for a time far enough in the future to eliminate the dominant effects of initial conditions. In this case, the analysis of the model for a given energy scenario reduces to a partial equilibrium problem determined entirely by the characteristics of  $F$ .

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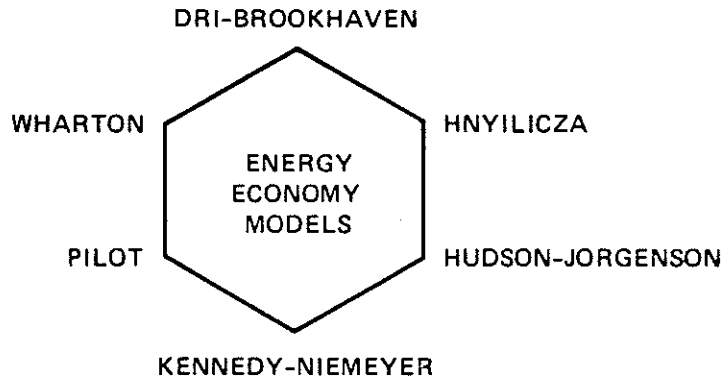
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Appendix D

COMPARISON OF MODELS OF ENERGY AND THE ECONOMY

The six models addressed in the EMF study employ a diversity of methodologies and model detail. These models can be compared in many settings. For the purposes of the EMF study, examining the link between the energy sector and the remainder of the economy, the framework described here classifies the most important assumptions by exploiting the common accounting structure embedded in all six models.



COMPARISON OF MODELS OF ENERGY AND THE ECONOMY

by

W. W. Hogan and S. C. Parikh

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EMF 1.4

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Energy Modeling Forum  
Institute for Energy Studies  
Stanford University  
Stanford, California 94305



Appendix D  
COMPARISON OF MODELS OF ENERGY AND THE ECONOMY

INTRODUCTION

The Energy Modeling Forum seeks to improve the usefulness of formal models as aids for decision making by clarifying and communicating the capabilities of existing models. This investigation is pursued primarily through the evaluation of comparative tests of the models. These tests are constructed to explore and illuminate the basic structure of the participating models. This same structure can be explored through the independent review of the component model equations. The investigation of the equation structure is as basic to any systematic analysis as the review of model performance.

Varying degrees of documentation are available for the participating EMF models and these individual model descriptions are included as a separate part of the report. But the diversity of style and detail presents a challenge if the general character of the models is to be understood. Some simplified presentation, highlighting the key similarities and differences, is needed.

The models represented in the EMF working group address many issues beside the linkage between the energy sector and the remainder of the economy. Further, the conceptual orientations of the models differ and different components of the problem are emphasized. This diversity is valuable for our present study and is essential for the extension of the models to wider studies. When concentrating on the energy-economic feedback, however, a common structure of the models emerges. At the cost of ignoring some important individual model details, this common framework provides a background for designing and interpreting the comparative model tests. The purpose here is to develop this common framework and sketch the participating models in this context.

GENERAL STRUCTURE

The general framework derives from the familiar economic view of the circular flow of products and resources (Figure D-1). The many choices in this economy

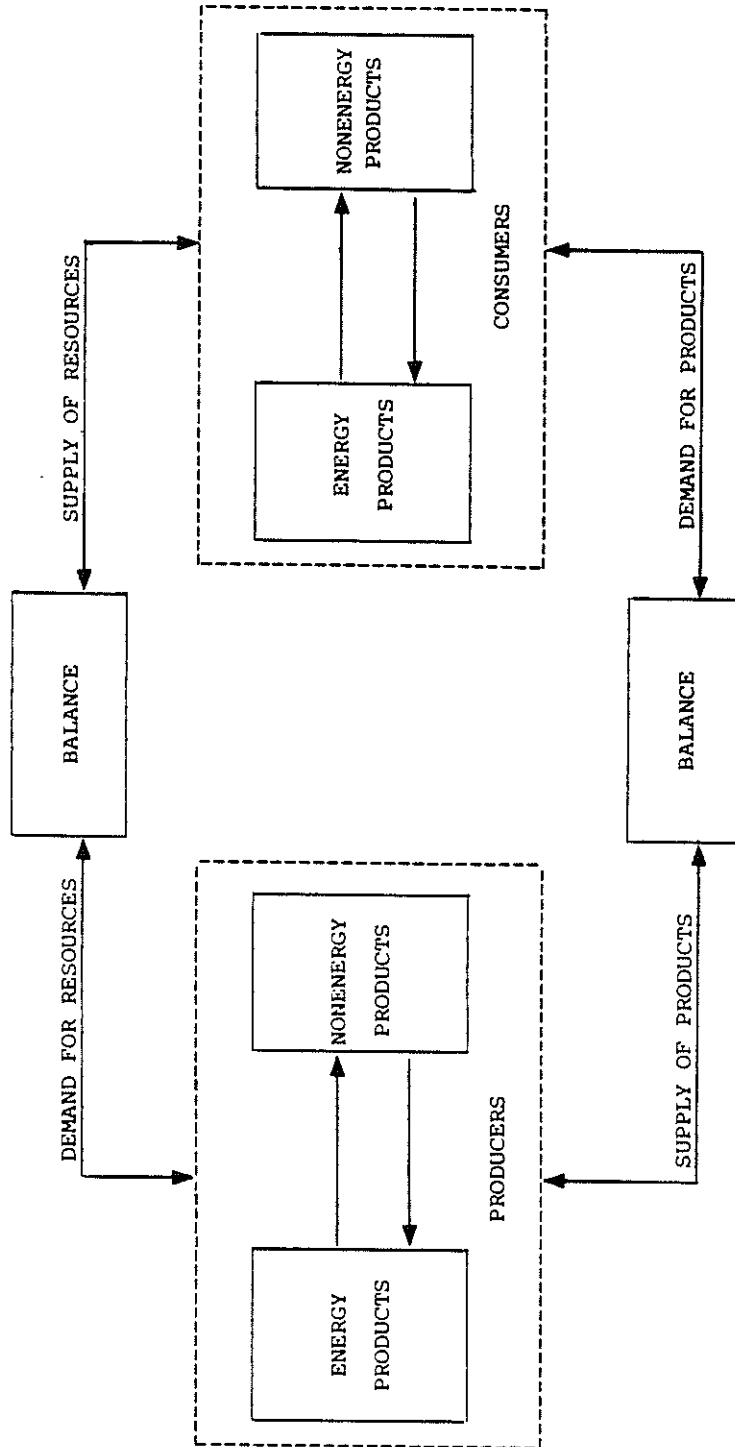


Figure D-1. Flow of Products and Resources

are divided into the decisions made by two representative groups, the producers and the consumers.

The producers utilize the resources of the economy (e.g., capital, labor, and energy) to make products (e.g., gasoline and food). These products can be classified as energy and nonenergy products, each of which is provided directly for consumers or utilized in other production processes. The consumers in turn provide the economic resources to the producers and demand their products. The demands of consumers may be for energy or nonenergy products and there is an interaction between these components.

These dual relationships, the supply and the demand for resources and products, must be appropriately balanced. Each model has some implicit or explicit mechanisms for achieving this balance, and some of the most fundamental model differences can be found in the alternate descriptions of these interfaces. Once obtained, the balanced flow of resources and products is the primary measure of economic activity that can be compared to the level of energy utilization.

For the present discussion, certain features of the producers, consumers, and balancing mechanisms become prominent. These are the modeling characteristics which seem most relevant in explaining the different approaches to the modeling of the energy-economic feedback.

#### Producers

The models uniformly organize the production sector accounting through the use of an interindustry input-output structure. A major source of the demand for energy is the link in the production process where energy is an intermediate good used in the manufacture of other products. But the models differ in several features in the design of the input-output structure and the treatment of energy. These features are the level of aggregation, the degree of substitution, the representation of dynamics, and the incorporation of trends.

Aggregation. All the models distinguish between energy and nonenergy products, but the level of further disaggregation varies from none to a separate representation and accounting for more than 50 industrial groupings. Designed for different purposes, these varying levels of aggregation may provide some insight regarding the aggregate effects of possible changes in the composition of industrial output.

Substitution. A key element in the measurement of the feedback from the energy sector to the economy is the assessment of the flexibility of energy utilization in the production system of the economy. This flexibility can be broadly classified into two components: interfuel substitution and factor substitution. Inclusion of the interfuel substitution permits examination of those interactions where a conversion from one form of energy to another is important. On the other hand, the inclusion of factor substitution permits construction of scenarios depicting switches from energy to other factors of production (labor, capital, and intermediate goods and services).

The manner in which any of these two broad categories of substitutions is incorporated in the model also provides yet another source of model differences. Some substitution characteristics are implicit in the choice of the level of aggregation. Across the components of an aggregate, these implicit substitutions may assume either perfect substitutability or perfect complementarity. For example, in a model containing the aggregate "oil and gas", it is possible to assume either that "oil and gas" can meet any demand for either oil or gas (perfect substitutability) or that "oil and gas" can meet known fixed proportions of demands for oil and gas (perfect complementarity). The actual result may vary with different uses of the same model and may depend on how aggregate quantities are treated when exogenous changes are made. In a complex model where there are different levels of aggregation in different parts of the model, it is important to define the rules of disaggregation. This is seldom done.

The area where great care usually is taken is in describing the explicit substitutions across fuels or factors in the input-output structure. There are three prominent approaches: use of fixed coefficients (assumption of perfect complementarity), use of behavioral relations based on econometric analysis of historical data (econometric representation), and use of engineering descriptions of alternative process technologies (engineering representation). The possibilities for flexibility in the input-output coefficients are an important component of any flexibility in the energy-economy feedback and the source of some of the major differences in the model conceptions and implementations.

Dynamics. All the systems deal with the evolving economy in a dynamic framework, but the underlying dynamic structures differ among the models. Two attributes may be used to describe the differences across models: interaction of variables

and speed of adjustment. The interaction of variables may be myopic, with current decisions determined entirely by current parameter values, or clairvoyant, with current decisions determined simultaneously by all parameter values. The dynamics of a model might permit instantaneous adjustment in variables resulting from exogenous shocks, or the adjustment may be gradual. In all the models, the key variable that forces some gradual adjustment is the stock of capital goods carried from one period to the next.

Trends. All of the models deal with some important exogenous parameters and structural changes through the application of simple trends. In this context, it is possible to define a standard set of variables that determines the long run growth of output in absence of any bottlenecks. This standard set consists of time profiles of population, labor force, and labor productivity.

#### Consumers

The models are less uniform in the accounting structure for final demand, but a similar set of characteristics provides a framework for describing the consuming sectors.

Aggregation. The level of product aggregation in each model consuming sector generally matches the corresponding level of aggregation in the production sector. However, these components of final demand are separated further into different types of consumption activities, investment groupings, classes of government expenditures, and types of net exports. Further, in some models the demands are estimated directly and in others they are derived from more fundamental end use requirements. As in the production sector, the level of detail here may permit examination of the effects of changes in the composition of final demand.

Substitution. A set of substitution characteristics parallel to those defined for producers is found in the structure of final demand. Thus, it is possible to broadly classify the total substitution into two components: interfuel substitution and factor substitution. Also, these substitutions are implicit in the level of aggregation of final demand as well as explicit and modeled through assumption of perfect complementarity, an econometric representation, or an engineering representation.

Dynamics. Classification of the dynamic behavior in the models parallels the classification for the producing sector. Thus, one looks for either myopic or clairvoyant interaction of variables, and instantaneous or gradual adjustment in the profiles of demands for goods and services brought about by changes in their relative scarcities or prices.

Trends. Whether due to government regulation, evolving tastes, or other unspecified factors, all the models recognize the existence of important demand changes that are essentially exogenous to the model structure. For example, the basic MRG assumptions include an eventual 10% reduction in energy demand through non-price-induced conservation, possibly as the result of standards being imposed by the government. Thus, it is possible to define a standard set of exogenous trends in specification of time profiles of exogenous government expenditures and exports, and non-price-induced conservation of energy demand.

#### Balancing Mechanism

The structure of the models' view of the balance between supply and demand is a source of major difference in the systems. All of the models preserve a physical balance in terms of the real flows of products and resources and, for models with explicit markets, a balance of monetary flows is maintained. However, the behavioral balance of the systems is a source of model diversity, of which the most important features can be described in terms of the model objective and treatment of dynamics.

Objective. The models are either positive or normative.

- Positive models postulate the existence of certain behavior on the part of consumers (e.g., maximizing utility) and the producers (e.g., maximizing profits) and assume that these sectors communicate through competitive markets. The primary focus of information exchange in the markets is the distribution of relative prices of the products and resources. For given prices, the behavioral assumptions plus a balancing of incomes yield the corresponding supplies and demands for resources and products. For the positive models, balance is achieved when these quantities and prices are equal. The system is then said to be in a market equilibrium.
- Normative models here start from the same technological description of production and consumption possibilities, but assume that the producing and consuming sectors operate cooperatively to maximize some joint criterion function. The system is in balance when the physical flows match and the production-consumption activities are at levels which maximize the criterion function over the feasible values.

Dynamics. The dynamics of the balancing mechanism cannot be viewed independently. Rather, its nature depends upon the treatment of the dynamics of production and consumption in a particular model. If the implementation of the dynamics of production and consumption is myopic, then the determination of the market equilibrium also is myopic. The positive models participating in the EMF study have followed this approach. However, such myopic characterization is not essential. It is possible to define a market equilibrium in the presence of perfect foresight, and thus have a clairvoyant implementation of the market equilibrium.

The only normative model in the EMF study (PILOT) optimizes the system simultaneously over the full period of study. It is clairvoyant. Hence, the decisions in any period affect and are affected by the decisions in every other period. The model anticipates future resource scarcity and adjusts current consumption and production activities to achieve the total system balance and maximize the overall criterion function.

#### MODEL COMPARISON

The application of the general framework permits a simple characterization of the main features of the alternate models. This section summarizes these model features for each system.

#### Hudson-Jorgenson Model [1, 2]

##### Producers:

Aggregation. The production sector utilizes a nine sector input-output accounting framework with five energy sectors and four nonenergy sectors. Capital and labor are treated as homogeneous quantities along with energy and materials in a production function for each sector. The aggregate energy and material inputs for each sector are further segregated into separate production functions for the five energy inputs and the four material inputs respectively. Hence, there is a hierarchical structure of 27 production functions which combine to provide implicitly the nine production functions in terms of the nine products.

Substitution. Interfuel substitution across the five macroenergy sectors and factor substitution across labor, capital, material, and energy are modeled explicitly using econometric relationships. Intrafactor perfect substitutability among types of capital and among types of labor is implicit in the assumption of homogeneous capital and labor.

Dynamics. The interaction of variables is myopic. Thus, prices and quantities determined in the production process depend only on the current period. The link over time, beyond exogenous trends, is found in the transfer of aggregate capital services. To the extent that

capital services adjust gradually over time, the response of the production sector is gradual. However, the response of the production sector to price changes is instantaneous.

Trends. The model employs trends of the standard set of variables of population and labor productivity.

Consumers:

Aggregation. The nine sector accounting of the production sector is repeated in the final demand categories, which are further separated into consumption, investment, government expenditures, exports, and imports. However, in computing the tradeoffs between consumption and investment, or labor and leisure, the nine sectors are aggregated to one, with rules to insure consistency of values and prices. The disaggregation of quantities is through fixed shares for investment, government, imports, and exports. A series of behavioral relations with nonzero price elasticities is used for the disaggregation of consumption into the nine sectors.

Substitution. Substitution using econometric relationships occurs at the aggregate level between consumption and investment, and between labor and leisure. Given the aggregate values, there is no substitution across the nine sectors for investment goods, government expenditures, exports, or imports. For consumption, however, some substitution across energy and materials is included via econometrically estimated constant elasticity price effects. Also, an econometric representation of inter-fuel substitution is included in the model.

Dynamics. The behavioral relations governing the tradeoffs between aggregate consumption and investment are based on a formulation implying optimization over time. Through simplifying assumptions, this is implemented as a series of myopic calculations. Thus, the determination of consumption also is myopic and depends only on the corresponding prices and quantities in the current period.

Trends. The model assumes the standard set of trends for government expenditures and exports.

Balance:

Objective. The producers and consumers interact in markets where prices and quantities are in equilibrium. Producers demand capital services and labor which are obtained from consumers. Conversely, consumers demand consumption goods and leisure. Hence, capital formation and labor participation are determined endogenously. In each market, equilibrium is determined through the behavioral equations when the supply-demand prices and quantities for all transactions are equal.

Dynamics. The balance is determined sequentially in each period with the available homogeneous capital services operating as the dynamic link. Hence, separately for each period, the model determines a general market equilibrium in all markets.

Hnyilicza Model [3]

This model is closely related to the structure of the Hudson-Jorgenson model but it contains some very significant differences.



### Producers:

Aggregation. There are two producing sectors in this highly aggregated model--energy and nonenergy. Each sector output is a function of five inputs--capital, labor, energy, nonenergy, and imports.

Substitution. Substitution across inputs of factors, energy and nonenergy materials and imports is explicitly modeled using econometric relationships. The cost function describes this substitution across various inputs as a function of prices of inputs as well as levels of output. Intrafactor perfect substitutability is implicit in the assumption of homogeneity implied by the aggregation into one type of labor (energy and nonenergy each) and two types of capital stocks (energy and nonenergy).

Dynamics. Interaction of variables is myopic. The only link over time beyond exogenous trends is found in transfer of capital stock for each of the two sectors. To the extent that capital services adjust gradually over time, the response of the production sector is gradual. However, the response of other inputs for production to price changes is instantaneous.

Trends. The model employs the standard set of variables of population, labor force, and labor productivity. Additionally, capital productivity trend is assumed.

### Consumers:

Aggregation. The two sector accounting of the production sector is repeated. However, nonenergy consumption is disaggregated into consumption goods and capital services.

Substitution. Substitution across energy goods, nonenergy consumption goods, and nonenergy capital services is modeled explicitly through econometric relationships. Perfect interfuel substitution is implicit in the assumption of single energy form. Perfect substitution also is implicit in the components of the other aggregates of nonenergy consumption goods and nonenergy capital services.

Dynamics. Interaction of consumption variables is myopic with instantaneous adjustment of variables to price changes. The main intertemporal link is the relation describing the tradeoff between aggregate consumption and investment.

### Balance:

Objective. Balance between supply and demand of various quantities is achieved through sequential computation of equilibrium for each period.

Dynamics. Sector specific capital stock is the main dynamic link.

### Kennedy-Niemeyer Model [4]

This model also closely resembles the Hudson-Jorgenson accounting framework but utilizes very different behavioral assumptions.

### Producers:

Aggregation. The production sector utilizes a nine sector input-output accounting framework with five energy sectors and four nonenergy sectors. Capital services are identified separately for each sector. There is a production function of each sector which is determined by inputs of capital and labor. A notable characteristic of the production functions for oil and gas concerns inclusion of an efficiency parameter to model resource depletion. Here, for the same level of other inputs, the output of oil (or gas) is a declining function of the cumulative oil (or gas) production.

Substitution. There is substitution between capital and labor for each producing sector, but no other form of substitution is included. In particular, the nine sector input-output coefficients are fixed and energy demand is proportional to output. Intrafactor perfect substitutability is implicit in the assumption of homogeneous labor. Also the components of each of the nine macrosectors are implicitly assumed to be perfect substitutes.

Dynamics. Similar to the Hudson-Jorgenson model, the interaction of variables is myopic. The nonmalleable capital services provide the main dynamic link. Additionally, resource depletion is modeled through changing scale parameters in the production functions.

### Consumers:

Aggregation. As in the Hudson-Jorgenson system, this nine sector accounting of the production sector is repeated in the final demand categories.

Substitution. There is no substitution in the model in terms of final demand or the tradeoff between consumption and investment. Given the aggregate level of GNP, the allocation of output to the sectors and all components of final demand is determined according to fixed shares.

Dynamics. As in the Hudson-Jorgenson model, the determination of aggregate consumption and investment is based on a formulation implying optimization over time. Through simplifying assumptions, the implementation is achieved through a series of myopic calculations.

Trends. The model assumes the standard set of trends for government expenditures and exports.

### Balance:

Objective. Balance between supply and demand of various quantities is achieved through sequential computation of an equilibrium for each period.

Dynamics. Sector specific capital stock and oil and gas production functions that include an efficiency parameter to model depletion provide the intertemporal linkage.

### Wharton Annual Energy Model [5]

The Wharton model is a highly disaggregated system evolving from the large Wharton EFA annual and interindustry system.

### Producers:

Aggregation. The model incorporates 59 industrial output sectors of which eight are energy producing sectors and the remainder produce various nonenergy goods and services. Separate production functions are estimated for each sector using a two level hierarchy in which, for each sector, Cobb-Douglas production function is used to determine value added from inputs of labor and capital services, and a constant elasticity of substitution, multivariable production function to determine aggregate level of intermediate inputs as a function of the vector intermediate inputs, and a final production function assuming perfect complementarity between value added and aggregate intermediate inputs to determine the sectoral output.

Substitution. Interfuel substitution across energy sectors, factor substitution across labor and capital, and substitution across intermediate inputs is modeled through econometric relationships using the mathematical structure outlined above. Intrafactor perfect substitutability is implicit in the assumption of homogeneous capital and labor. No direct substitution between material and factor inputs is included. By changing the mix of sector outputs, however, indirect substitution between materials and other factors is included.

Dynamics. The variable input-output coefficients are determined in the long run by the prices of all factor inputs. However, the adjustment to the long run values is not instantaneous. As implemented, in any period the coefficients depend on current and previous period prices and the rate of adaptation is determined by a separate lag parameter.

Trends. The model employs trends of the standard set of variables of population, labor force, and labor productivity.

### Consumers:

Aggregation. Final demand is decomposed into consumption (14 categories), investment (32 categories), inventories, trade (14 categories), and government (6 categories). Behavioral equations for each of these categories are included in the macroeconomic model. Each category then is disaggregated in turn into the 59 sectors of the interindustry classification through the application of fixed shares.

Substitution. Substitution using econometric relationships occurs in all final demand categories at an appropriate level of aggregation noted above. These substitutions are a major source of potential variability in total energy use across major categories by final demand. Due to the extensive detail, the effect of substitution assumptions implicit in the level of aggregation is minimal.

Dynamics. The consumption equations operate on lagged prices and quantities which replicate a gradual adjustment to long run equilibrium. There is a separate parameter controlling the speed of adjustment for each final demand category weighted by the price and quantity differences in the previous period. No direct consideration of future prices is included.

Trends. A time profile of exogenous aggregate government expenditures is assumed.

Balance:

Objective. Long run equilibrium at full employment is a target for the model subject to the constraints implied by the dynamics of the short and long run adjustments. There is full short run equilibrium in the product markets in terms of prices and quantities. However, there is some uncertainty as to what extent the interindustry demands for capital and labor inputs are balanced with the prices and supply determined in the macroeconomic model of consumption-investment or employment-unemployment.

Dynamics. The model does not consider future prices as relevant to the decisions in any period. Therefore, the solution implementation is sequential, computing a short run equilibrium in each period. Due to the consideration of past prices and quantities, neither full employment nor long run equilibrium is achieved in any period. Rather, these serve as targets which the model approaches gradually.

PILOT Model [6, 7]

The PILOT model is a disaggregated system including a detailed process description of the energy sector. A main distinction compared to the other EMF systems is its normative approach to intertemporal tradeoffs and capacity limitations of the energy sector.

Producers:

Aggregation. The model incorporates 23 industrial sectors of which five deal with energy production. The energy sectors are further disaggregated into explicit process models for approximately 18 energy activities. Depletion of oil, gas, and natural uranium resources is modeled explicitly through engineering relationships describing progressively rising costs as functions of cumulative extraction. Labor input is considered a homogeneous quantity. However, nonhomogeneous capital inputs, represented as capacity measures for each sector, are separated for 18 non-energy sectors and individual energy processes with explicit accounting of intertemporal interactions of the capacity formation.

Substitution. Substitution across energy inputs in the energy sector is modeled using engineering relationships. However assumption of perfect complementarity is made with respect to nonenergy inputs into energy production and all inputs into nonenergy production. Also perfect complementarity across components of each of 23 sectors is implicit in the definition of aggregates.

Dynamics. Interaction of variables is clairvoyant with current decisions determined by parameter values of all time periods. Due to fixed coefficients in the nonenergy production, no adjustment is possible in relative amounts of capital, labor, and material inputs. On the other hand, gradual adjustment in the inputs for energy production occurs in the detailed energy sector through capital requirements, new technology introduction dates, etc. Intertemporal linkage is provided through non-homogeneous capital stocks and remaining energy resources.

Trends. The model employs trends of the standard set of variables of population, labor force, and labor productivity.

Consumers:

Aggregation. The 23 sector classification is repeated for consumption, investment, government expenditures, and net exports. Decisions on consumption are aggregated into a single value of aggregate consumption. The 23 sector composition of aggregate consumption is determined by the level of consumption or income.

Substitution. For a given level of consumption, the model uses a fixed shares system in any period, except for exports. Hence, there is no substitution other than through exports. Independent demand curves for exports are included to produce revenue which is used to balance energy and nonenergy imports. Any combination of exports that can be produced in excess of domestic demands is permitted.

Dynamics. Consumption is not permitted to decline over time. Except for this constraint, choices on the demand side are made taking explicitly into account the temporal availability of supply and production capacity.

Trends. In accordance with EMF scenario definitions, the model assumes eventual 10% reduction in energy demand through non-price-induced conservation.

Balance:

Objective. The distinctive characteristic of PILOT is the objective of determining the maximum cumulative consumption permitted by the physical capacities of the economy. Except for exports, no behavioral relations for conventional market equilibria are postulated. The system is distinctly normative.

Dynamics. The implementation of the maximization is achieved through simultaneous solution of the optimal consumption-investment problem for all periods. Hence future availabilities and decisions are as important as past decisions in determining the balance in any period. The system anticipates resource depletion and factor scarcity, adjusting consumption and investment to permit maximum aggregate growth in the face of these constraints. For this reason, the resulting pattern of investment may be of particular interest.

DRI-Brookhaven Model [8]

The implementation of this linked system is achieved through information transfers for three target years of 1985, 1990, and 2000 between the Hudson-Jorgenson (DRI) model, and the combined Input-Output-BESOM model of the Brookhaven National Laboratory. The Hudson-Jorgenson model described earlier is used as an inter-temporal integrating device with the static I/O-BESOM model providing energy technology detail for the three target years. The information of aggregate energy demands for three target years at five sector detail is transmitted from

the Hudson-Jorgenson model to the I/O-BESOM model. The detailed I/O-BESOM model in turn determines the relative prices, the fuel mix, and the capital requirements for energy taking into account the availability of new energy technologies and interfuel substitution by the producers and the consumers. The implementation of the interfuel substitution is achieved through an eight order disaggregation of the end use categories (such as space heat, process heat, petrochemical feedstocks, motive power, etc.). While the I/O-BESOM model's computer implementation for these target years is independent, separate numerical checks are made to assure intertemporal consistency of energy conversion and end use capacities.

Since the Hudson-Jorgenson subsystem possesses the characteristics of their model described earlier in this paper, they will not be repeated here. We briefly note, however, that the industrial sectors are disaggregated into nine sectors with five sectors for energy production. The labor and capital are treated as homogeneous quantities and the main dynamic link is provided through capital services. The market equilibrium is myopically determined for each period through behavioral equations for production and consumption. The characteristics of I/O-BESOM subsystem are described below.

#### Producers:

Aggregation. The production is further disaggregated into 110 input-output matrix and 30 energy production activities.

Substitution. The substitution across energy processes is considered by the BESOM subsystem. The input-output matrix is a fixed coefficient system, however.

Dynamics. The intertemporal linkage is provided by the Hudson-Jorgenson subsystem.

Trends. The technical coefficients are time trended in I/O-BESOM subsystem.

#### Consumers:

Aggregation. The I/O-BESOM subsystem considers the energy demands in terms of eight end use categories and nonenergy demands in terms of 90 industrial sectors.

Substitution. The I/O-BESOM subsystem considers a full range of substitution possibilities for eight energy end use categories. The non-energy portion of I/O-BESOM is a fixed coefficient system, however.

Dynamics. Provided by the Hudson-Jorgenson subsystem.

Balance:

Objective. The cost minimization objective is used to achieve a supply-demand balance in the energy system consistent with the capacity limitations and the final demands for the nonenergy sectors, and limitations on aggregate levels of pollutant emissions due to energy production.

Dynamics. Provided by the Hudson-Jorgenson subsystem.

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Table D-1  
MODEL COMPARISON

Feature Model	Producers/Consumers				Balance	
	Aggregation	Substitution	Dynamics	Exogenous Trends	Objective	Dynamics
Hudson-Jorgenson 1975-2000	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- 9 sectors with production function hierarchy</li> <li>- Malleable labor and capital</li> <li>- Consumption-investment at one sector level</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Price variable I-O coefficients</li> <li>- Consumption vs investment</li> <li>- Labor vs leisure</li> <li>- Price elastic demand</li> <li>- Varying elasticity of substitution for energy</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Separable given capital services in each period</li> <li>- Future price not considered</li> <li>- Capital accumulation main dynamic link</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Neutral technological change</li> <li>- Population, labor force</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Full employment</li> <li>- Market equilibrium for factors and products</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Instantaneous long run adjustment</li> <li>- Myopic equilibrium</li> <li>- Sequential solution</li> </ul>
Hnyilicza 1975-2010	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- 2 sectors with production hierarchy but nonmalleable capital</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Same as H-J except I-O coefficients depend also on output levels</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Same as H-J</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Factor specific technological change</li> <li>- Population, labor force</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Same as H-J</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Same as H-J</li> </ul>
Kennedy-Niemeyer 1971-2010	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- 9 sectors without production function hierarchy</li> <li>- Separate capital for each sector</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Capital-labor substitution in each sector production function</li> <li>- Fixed coefficients for I-O structure</li> <li>- Fixed shares for consumption</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Same as H-J</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Neutral technological change</li> <li>- Population, labor force</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Same as H-J</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Same as H-J</li> </ul>
Wharton 1975-1990	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- 59 sectors</li> <li>- 14 consumption categories</li> <li>- 32 investment categories</li> <li>- 14 trade categories</li> <li>- 6 government categories</li> <li>- Implicit production function for each sector</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Same as H-J except for constant elasticity of substitution for energy</li> <li>- Work under way to include process models to capture major energy substitutions.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- I-O coefficient determinably current and lagged prices and quantities</li> <li>- Lag determines gradual adjustment to long run equilibrium</li> <li>- Consumption determined by lagged prices and quantities</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Long run full employment target approached by simulation</li> <li>- Market equilibrium for all products and prices</li> <li>- Possible simulation equilibrium for factor requirements and prices (?)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Gradual adjustment to long run equilibrium</li> <li>- Markets consider current and past prices</li> <li>- Sequential solution</li> </ul>	



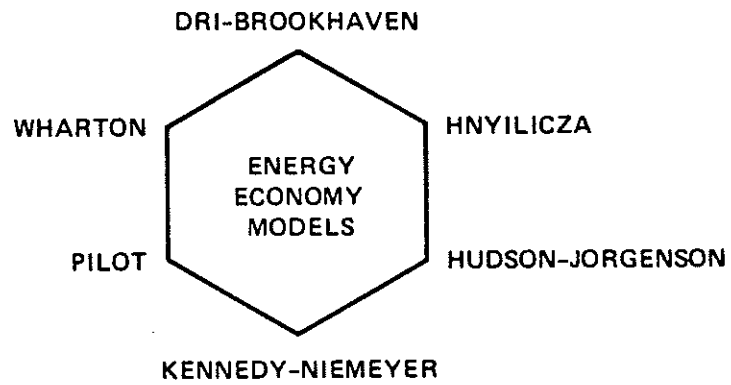
Table D-1  
MODEL COMPARISON (continued)

Feature Model	Producers/Consumers				Balance	
	Aggregation	Substitution	Dynamics	Exogenous Trends	Objective	Dynamics
PILOT 1973-2012	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- 23 interindustry sectors</li> <li>- Disaggregated process models for energy production involving 18 processes</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Substitution in the production of alternate energy forms</li> <li>- Fixed coefficient for energy inputs to production process</li> <li>- Composition of aggregate demand varies with consumption level but not prices</li> <li>- Exports can provide a mix of output changes in the trade balance</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Periods linked via capital formation and capacities</li> <li>- Energy sector explicitly includes resource depletion</li> <li>- Consumption constrained not to drop over time</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Neutral technological change</li> <li>- Population, labor force</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Maximization of aggregate consumption subject to physical constraints</li> <li>- Except for exports, no behavioral links of prices and quantities</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Simultaneous solution of optimization problem. Hence, decisions in each period affect all other periods, past and future.</li> <li>- No discounting is included.</li> </ul>
DRI-Brookhaven 1975-2000	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Same as II-J</li> <li>- 110 interindustry sectors</li> <li>- Disaggregated process models for energy production involving 30 processes</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Same as II-J</li> <li>- Substitution in production of alternate energy forms</li> <li>- Fixed coefficients for non-energy</li> <li>- Interfuel substitution for meeting fixed end use requirements</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Same as II-J</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Neutral technological change</li> <li>- Population, labor force</li> <li>- Time trended technical coefficients</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Same as H-J</li> <li>- Minimization of cost of meeting energy demands subject to pollutant emission constraints</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Same as II-J</li> </ul>
	For 1985, 1990 and 2000					
	All Years					

Appendix E

STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS OF THE MODELS:  
THE EMF PROCESS FROM A USER'S PERSPECTIVE

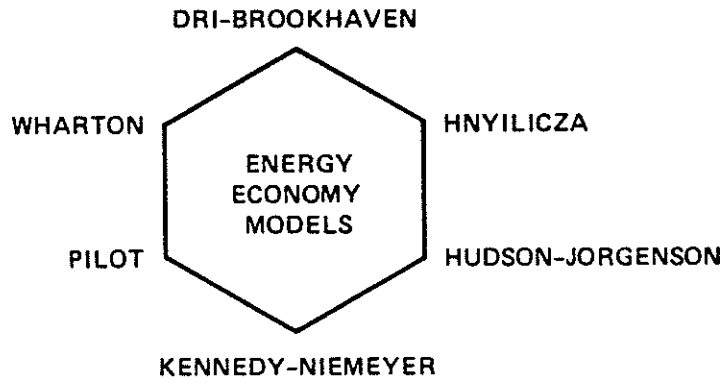
(forthcoming)



Appendix F

SCENARIO IMPLEMENTATIONS FOR THE  
PARTICIPATING EMF MODELS

Section		Page
1	Introduction . . . . .	F-1
2	Driving Variables . . . . .	F-4
3	Scenario Definitions . . . . .	F-12
4	Model Exceptions . . . . .	F-15
5	Summary Graphs . . . . .	F-24
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SCENARIO IMPLEMENTATIONS FOR THE  
PARTICIPATING EMF MODELS

Working Paper

EMF 1.8

May 25, 1977

Energy Modeling Forum  
Institute for Energy Studies  
Stanford University  
Stanford, California 94305

## Appendix F

### SCENARIO IMPLEMENTATIONS FOR THE PARTICIPATING EMF MODELS

#### Section 1

#### INTRODUCTION

This appendix is organized in five parts to present the assumptions defining the EMF scenarios and the results of the models' execution of these scenarios.

The second section contains a description of the driving variables and the record of their numerical values. The participating EMF models were designed originally for many different purposes. All the models can address many issues with varying degrees of approximation. To provide consistency for the analysis of the particular EMF issues, some standardization is necessary. The working group adopted a uniform set of assumptions to use in the execution of the EMF scenarios. Following the usage of the CONAES MRG, the variables determined by these assumptions are referred to as the driving variables. The specification of the driving variables and their numerical values determine the common inputs to the models. But these assumptions do not constitute a forecast, or even a consensus expectation of the future. They simply ensure that the differences in the model results provide information on differences in the models, not variations in input data. The working group explicitly chose to resolve differences in opinion regarding input variables on the basis of convenience rather than on the merits of opposing views. This facilitated the EMF task, but the resulting input assumptions are not warranted as forecasts. In large measure the EMF working group adopted the convenient energy sector assumptions developed by the Modeling Resource Group of the coincident CONAES study. Separate assumptions for the driving variables of the economy are required because of the differences in the issues under investigation. The key economic variables include population, labor force, and labor productivity growth. Individual model deviations from these assumptions are indicated.

The third section of this appendix contains the definition of six scenarios originally designed for the EMF study. These scenarios are not intended to be forecasts. Rather, they are carefully designed perturbations of the base case intended to provide information on the sensitivity of the models' link between energy and the economy. The high growth case stimulates economic activity to illustrate the direct effect of the economy on energy demand. The energy constraint cases reduce energy availability or raise energy prices to measure the embedded substitution in the models. The declining oil import price case provides a symmetric test of the effect of lower energy prices. The case taxing delivered energy was intended to reveal the impacts of imposing energy price increases at different points in the energy system. None of the models, however, executed both scenario five and six and, therefore, the distinction is not maintained and only the fifth scenario is presented.

The fourth section tabulates the exceptions required by the modelers in adapting their systems to the common assumptions. These exceptions arise especially due to the differences in the model structures and levels of aggregation. These exceptions are a useful medium to convey some model differences. For example, the positive equilibrium models did not implement the energy quantity restrictions that are convenient in the normative or optimization models. Rather, the scarcity of energy is simulated by a combination of Btu taxes and income redistribution. The EMF working group attempted to minimize the number of exceptions but some significant differences remained. Generally, these do not affect the central results reported in Volume 1. In the one prominent instance where the result was sensitive, in the measurement of substitution effects in the Hudson-Jorgenson model, an ad hoc correction was used as discussed in the commentaries below.

The plots of some of the key variables and parameters for various model runs follow in the fifth section. This section also includes commentary providing definitions and explanations of the various graphs. The results of six models with five scenarios for a number of years and dozens of parameters produce a forbidding volume of output. All the results are presented later in tabular form, but the most interesting results are compared in the graphs. These graphs display a substantial amount of information in an easily understood format. Once again, however, the reader is cautioned that the results were developed for model comparisons only. The graphs do not constitute an EMF forecast.

The sixth section contains computer printouts of the model results. The EMF working group selected a few key variables that the modelers were asked to report. Each modeler did not report all details available in his model. Generally speaking, the models provided the information on all requested variables. The more aggregated models do not have the full detail, but provide the information at the appropriate level of aggregation.

## Section 2

### DRIVING VARIABLES

The driving variables provide a standard set of assumptions to all participating modelers to permit scenario runs on a common basis. These assumptions are reasonable but do not represent an EMF forecast. They are designed for sake of consistency of intermodel comparisons only.



TABLE F-1

DRIVING VARIABLES	VARIABLE VALUES
1. EMP (1.2)	2.00
	5.71*
	3.28
	2.84
	2.84
	1.80
	3.40

A. ENERGY SECTOR ASSUMPTIONS

SOURCE: MRG. ALL DOLLAR COSTS ARE SPECIFIED PERE IN 1975 DOLLARS. BILL FINAN HAS INDICATED THAT WCST OF THE EMP MODELS OPERATE IN 1972 DOLLARS WHICH WOULD BE SUPERIOR FOR MULTI PRESENTATION. THIS WILL BE ADDRESSED IN A SEPARATE OUTPUT FORMAT DISCUSSION.

1. GROWTH RATE OF REAL GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT (GNP) (3 PER ANNU) THE VALUES INDICATED ARE MRG EASE CASE ASSUMPTIONS. THE EMP MODELS TREAT THIS COMPONENT INDEPENDENTLY. HENCE, THESE DATA ARE PROVIDED FOR INFORMATION ONLY.

1971-75	2.00
1976-80	5.71*
1980-90	3.28
1991-2000	2.84
2001-2010	2.84
2011 AND BEYOND	1.80
AVERAGE FOR 1975-2010	3.40

\* IN ASSESSING THE REASONABLENESS OF THIS RELATIVELY HIGH INITIAL GNP GROWTH RATE PROJECTION, ONE MUST OBSERVE THAT THE AVERAGE ANNUAL GROWTH RATE OVER 1971-80 WOULD BE ONLY 3.6%.

2. CAPITAL COSTS OF ELECTRICITY GENERATING TECHNOLOGIES \$/KWE IN YEAR 2010; ALL CAPITAL COSTS REPORTED AT 65% CAPACITY FACTOR FOR BASE GENERATION; ALL CAPITAL COSTS FOR NUCLEAR REACTORS EXCLUDE THE COSTS OF INITIAL FUEL INVENTORIES. COSTS ARE INTENDED TO INCLUDE INTEREST DURING CONSTRUCTION, INCLUDING SULFUR REMOVAL EQUIPMENT

- A. COAL-FIRED PLANT
- B. LIGHT WATER REACTOR (LWR)
- C. ADVANCED CONVERTER REACTOR (CONVERSION RATIO = 0.82)
- D. FAST BREEDER REACTOR (FBR)
- E. SOLAR PRODUCED ELECTRICITY

\* REACTOR COSTS GIVEN ARE INDICATORS OF COST CHANGES IN OTHER ELEMENTS OF THE NUCLEAR FUEL CYCLE.

52.0
65.0*
715*
81.0*
173.0

3. DIFFERENTIAL TECHNICAL CHANGE IN THE ENERGY SECTOR (% PER ANNUM) OVER THAT IN THE REST OF THE ECONOMY.

4. U.S. OIL AND GAS RESOURCES (10\*\*15 BTU) AT COST OF \$2.00 PER MILLION BTU

172)

5. ADDITIONAL U.S. URANIUM RESOURCES (CUMULATIVE MILLION TONS OF U3O8) RECOVERABLE AT MINIMUM ACCEPTABLE PRICE\* OF LESS THAN:

.....	\$	15	/	LB	1.28
.....	\$	22.50	/	LB	2.05
.....	\$	45	/	LB	3.70
.....	\$	75	/	LB	5.46
.....	\$	120	/	LB	7.80
.....	\$	150	/	LB	9.24
.....	\$	225	/	LB	12.57

\* THIS "MINIMUM ACCEPTABLE PRICE" IS 50% HIGHER THAN THE "FORWARD COST" CONCEPT THAT IS CONVENTIONALLY USED IN ERDA DOCUMENTS.

6. EXTRACTION AND DELIVERY COSTS OF COAL

- ..... \$ / MILLION BTU; 1985 AND BEYOND.
- A. LOW SULFUR COAL
  - 1. FOR UTILITIES (NATIONAL AVERAGE)
  - 2. FOR SYNTHETIC FUELS (MOUNTAIN STATES)
- B. HIGH SULFUR COAL
  - 1. FOR UTILITIES (NATIONAL AVERAGE)
  - 2. FOR SYNTHETIC FUELS (MOUNTAIN STATES)

1.13  
0.58

0.75  
0.48

7. TOTAL AVERAGE DELIVERED COST OF SYNTHETIC FUELS

- ..... \$ / MILLION BTU, AVAILABILITY DEFINED AS PRODUCTION CAPACITY OF .5 X 10\*\*15 BTU / YEAR.
- A. COAL GASIFICATION, AVAILABLE IN 1990
- B. SHALE OIL OR COAL LIQUEFACTION, AVAILABLE IN 1995

3.70  
3.70

8. TOTAL AVERAGE COST OF CLEAN NUCLEAR ALTERNATIVE ENERGY SYSTEMS (AES), (\$ / MILLION BTU)

..... INCLUDES BOTH CONSERVATION AND SUPPLY SYSTEM OPTIONS. E.G. SOLAR HEATING AND COOLING OF BUILDINGS, EIGMASS CONVERSION, IN-SITE SHALE FERTILIZING, LARGE-SCALE PETROLEUM DISCOVERIES, ETC. INCLUDES AS A SAFETY DEVICE TO PREVENT ENERGY SECTORS FROM PROVIDING ERRATIC CUTBACKS. IT CREATES AN EFFECTIVE CEILING ON PRICES, FOR INCORPORATION IN INPUT/OUTPUT FRAMEWORKS. THE ENF AGREE TO TREAT THE AES AS A SOURCE OF DOMESTIC CRUDE OIL OR NATURAL GAS AT ASSUMED PRICES AT THE WELLSHEAD.

5.00

Change  
12/11/76



14. NUCLEAR REACTORIUM CONSTRAINTS (NOT APPLICABLE IN BASE CASE)  
 .....  
 CONSTRUCTION OF ALL PLANTS WHICH ARE NOW MORE THAN 25 %  
 COMPLETE. THESE PLANTS WILL BE COMPLETED IN 1983 AND  
 RETIRED AT THE NORMAL RATE. NO NEW CAPACITY WILL CCME  
 ON LINE AFTER THAT DATE. (DATA FROM HOGAN MEMO 6/14/76)  
 YEAR AND CAPACITY EXPECTED (VALUES IN GW):  
 1983

70.

15.47  
 25.81  
 40.90  
 45.30  
 47.51

15. COAL LIMITS (NOT APPLICABLE IN BASE CASE)  
 .....  
 A LOGISTIC CURVE STARTING IN 1975, WITH 40 QUADS PER YEAR  
 IN 2010 AND ASYMPTOTIC TO 50 QUADS PER YEAR.  
 $Y = 50 / (1 + E^{-(.613 - .068T)})$  QUADS PER YEAR.  
 1975  
 1985  
 2000  
 2010  
 2020

16. SPARE LIMITS (NOT APPLICABLE IN BASE CASE)  
 .....  
 A LOGISTIC CURVE WITH 2 QUADS PER YEAR IN 2000,  
 6 QUADS PER YEAR IN 2010, AND ASYMPTOTIC TO 12 QUADS  
 PER YEAR.  
 $Y = 12 * (1 + E^{-(5.633 - .161T)})$  QUADS PER YEAR.  
 1975  
 1985  
 2000  
 2010  
 2020

0.  
 9.21  
 2.17  
 6.00  
 10.00

17. PRICE CONTROLS  
 .....  
 FOR THE EMF SIMULATIONS, PRICE CONTROLS ON NEW  
 NATURAL GAS AND OIL ARE ASSUMED TO BE REMOVED BY 1979.  
 CHANGE 12/11/76

18. EXCESSIVE NUCLEAR INTRODUCTION  
 .....  
 FOR EMF MODELS REQUIRING EXCESSIVE SPECIFICATION OF  
 THE INTRODUCTION RATE OF NUCLEAR POWER, IT IS ASSUMED  
 THAT 51 % OF NEW CAPACITY IS NUCLEAR.  
 CHANGE 12/11/76

E. ECONOMIC SECTOR ASSUMPTIONS

1. EXCESSIVE COMPONENTS OF FINAL DEMAND  
 GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES PROPORTIONAL TO GNP.  
 EXPORTS PROPORTIONAL TO GNP IN MODELS  
 REQUIRING EXOGENOUS ASSUMPTIONS.

2. POPULATION AND LABOR FORCE

A. CENSUS SERIES II PROJECTIONS.  
 TOTAL POPULATION (IN THOUSANDS) LISTED BELOW BY 5-YEAR PERIOD:

1975	213,451
1980	222,769
1985	234,068
1990	245,875
1995	254,495
2000	262,494
2005	270,377
2010	278,754

B. LABOR FORCE TAKEN FROM THE MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW, JULY 1973  
 FOR DATA UP TO 1990. EXTRAPOLATION THEREAFTER BASED ON  
 LABOR FORCE ASSUMED AT 4% OF THE POPULATION. PROJECTIONS  
 (IN THOUSANDS) LISTED BELOW BY 5-YEAR PERIOD:

1975	54,870
1980	101,900
1985	107,700
1990	112,600
1995	117,100
2000	120,800
2005	124,400
2010	128,200

3. TECHNOLOGICAL CHANGE

A. ALL NON-ENERGY SECTORS  
 LABOR AUGMENTING TECHNICAL PROGRESS SET AT 2% PER YEAR.  
 B. ENERGY SECTORS  
 FOR MODELS WITHOUT PROCESS DETAIL, IMPLIE AGGREGATE  
 TECHNOLOGICAL CHANGE IMPLIED BY MC ASSUMPTIONS AND  
 CONSISTENT WITH THE NON-ENERGY SECTOR CHANGES.

4. INFLATION AND UNEMPLOYMENT  
 SOURCE: WHARTON THROUGH 1985. EXTRAPOLATION OF TRENDS THROUGH 1990; CONSTANT THEREAFTER.  
 A. PER CENT CHANGE (NP DEFLATOR

1976	5.3
1977	6.7
1978	6.2
1979	5.8
1980	4.5
1981	4.1
1982	4.3
1983	3.0
1984	3.2
1985	3.5
1986	3.1
1987	3.1
1988	3.1
1989	4.1
1990	4.6
FFYEND 1990	4.6

B. UNEMPLOYMENT RATE

1976	7.4
1977	6.7
1978	6.4
1979	6.6
1980	6.9
1981	6.5
1982	6.4
1983	6.3
1984	5.8
1985	5.6
1986	5.6
1987	5.2
1988	5.5
1989	4.9
1990	4.3
FFYEND 1990	4.3

5. MONETARY POLICY, TRANSFER PAYMENT, TAX POLICY  
 A. MONETARY POLICY  
 REQUIRED ONLY FOR WHARTON MODEL. TO BE SPECIFIED BY WHARTON AND MADE CONSISTENT WITH INFLATION AND UNEMPLOYMENT ASSUMPTIONS.  
 B. TAX POLICY, TRANSFER PAYMENTS  
 STANDARDIZATION OF INFL ASSUMPTIONS COMPLICATED BY DIVERSITY OF MODEL REPRESENTATIONS OF TAX STRUCTURE. IMPACTS ON RESULTS CAN BE CHARACTERIZED THROUGH EX POST ANALYSIS OF AGGREGATE GOVERNMENT RECEIPTS, EXPENDITURES, AND DEFICITS. THESE SHOULD BE FORWARDED BY THE INDIVIDUAL MODELERS ARE ASKED TO SPECIFY A CONSISTENT NOMINAL CASE.

6. PHYSICAL DEPRECIATION RATES

..... USABLE LIFETIME  
 DEFINITION: ENERGY SECTOR: STANARCIZE AT 30 YEARS.  
 SOURCE: NON-ENERGY SECTOR:  
 A. EQUIPMENT YEARLY DETERIORATION (%)  
 B. PLANT YEARLY DETERIORATION (%)  
 C. HOUSING STOCK ANNUAL DETERIORATION (%)  
 D. AVERAGE DEPRECIATION RATE (%)

14.8  
 5.86  
 2.4  
 5.25

\* USING THE KUH AND SCHMALANSEE DEPRECIATION RATES (A,B,C) WITH THE 1974 COMPOSITION OF FIXED INVESTMENT GIVES AN AVERAGE DEPRECIATION RATE OF 5.45%. USING THE 1968 - 1974 AVERAGE COMPOSITION OF THE CAPITAL STOCK GIVES A FIGURE OF 9.25%. THIS IS ESSENTIALLY DUE TO THE UNDERREPRESENTATION OF RESIDENTIAL STRUCTURES IN THE RECESSION OF 1974. KENNEDY RECOMMENDS USE OF THE 9.25% RATE. (REFERENCE KENNEDY LETTER OF 1/16/76)

7. NON-ENERGY IMPORT/EXPORT PRICE ASSUMPTIONS

..... FOR MODELS REQUIRING EXCELLENCE ASSUMPTIONS, INCREASE NOMINAL PRICE AT RATE OF INFLATION SPECIFIED IN ITEM 4.

8. INITIAL VALUES OF CAPITAL, GOVERNMENT DEBT, FOREIGN DEBT  
 ..... LEFT TO INDIVIDUAL MODELS TO AVOID DIFFICULTY OF ESTABLISHING AN ARBITRARY BASE YEAR. ASSUME STANARC GOVERNMENT DATA USED TO INSURE CONSISTENCY. THE DEFINITIONS AND VALUES SHOULD BE AVAILABLE FOR COMPARISON ACROSS MODELS.

9. TIME FRAME

..... THE TIME FRAME OF SIMULATION WILL VARY BY MODEL. THE LONGER THE PERIOD THE MODEL CAN BE RUN FOR, THE BETTER. AN ARBITRARY CUTOFF OF 2020 CAN BE USED.

\* These results are derived with an error in the choice of weights. This was discovered after the modelers noted exceptions and their own deviations from this assumption. The corrected figure is closer to 5.9%.

### Section 3

#### SCENARIO DEFINITIONS

Through scenarios, the EMF working group implemented a set of carefully designed perturbations from a base case to obtain information on model responses with regard to the link between energy and the economy. The main assumptions of these scenarios are presented here.





6. BASE CASE WITH RTU TAX

..... COMMENTS: BASE CASE WITH THE FOLLOWING EXCEPTIONS } Ultimately combined with Scenario 5.

- A. \$1.1 / MILLION Btu TAX ON ALL DELIVERED ENERGY
- B. EXCEPTING SOLAR ENERGY.
- B. REVENUE RETURNED VIA TAX REDUCTION

THE ENERGY CONSTRAINTS ARE THE COAL, NUCLEAR, AND SHALE LIMITS FROM THE MRG ASSUMPTIONS OVER A PLANNING HORIZON OF 1976 - 2028. THE PURPOSE OF THESE SCENARIOS IS TO SEVERELY RESTRICT SUPPLY, WITHOUT FUEL SUBSTITUTION, AND THEREBY RAISE THE AVERAGE PRICE OF ALL ENERGY. PRICES WISE BY A FACTOR OF 4 OR MORE IN MRG TESTS OF THESE CONSTRAINTS. FOR MODELS WITHOUT A DETAILED SUPPLY SIDE OR A LONG PLANNING HORIZON, THE SCARCITY RENTS WILL NOT BE RECOGNIZED. TO PRESERVE THE INTENT OF THESE SCENARIOS, SOME PROXY FOR THE SCARCITY RENTS MUST BE INCLUDED. THIS PROXY FOR INCREASE IN ENERGY PRICES BY 2010 SHOULD GUIDE THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE ENERGY CONSTRAINT CASES.

## Section 4

### MODEL EXCEPTIONS

All models could not implement all the assumptions as specified by the EMF working group. This section contains the exceptions made by the modelers in implementing the scenarios.

In Table F-3, page F-16, the first column lists the serial number of the assumption or the scenario, the detailed specification of which can be found in Sections 2 or 3. The remaining columns list the exceptions for each model.

#### EXCEPTIONS OF PARTICULAR RELEVANCE TO THE EMF STUDY

The deviations of the particular models from the central assumptions of the EMF study often are matters of convenience and have little impact on the main conclusions of the study. There are some model exceptions, however, which must be recognized if the results are to be interpreted properly. For example, a variety of model limitations or modelers' preferences leads to a lack of uniformity in the magnitude of the energy taxes or energy restrictions which are so central in the evaluation of substitution potential. The only meaningful cross-model comparison in this regard, therefore, is the abstract derivative concept of the elasticity of substitution. While this may be appropriate to the modeler, it is not as meaningful as the percent reduction in GNP for a given reduction in energy, a comparison which can be inferred but has not been tested here. This section summarizes the most important exceptions judged to be of particular relevance to this study.

#### Pilot Model

In contrast to the other models, this system is designed to impose direct restrictions on the supply of energy. But, not using a price oriented market structure, the model cannot impose taxes. This precluded the execution of Scenario 6, which was dropped later in any event. The chief development effort, stimulated by EMF interaction, is the insertion of substitution possibilities in the choices of consumers and producers for energy utilization.

Table F-3: MODEL EXCEPTIONS DRIVING VARIABLES: ASSUMPTIONS A.1-A.6

Assumptions	#1 PILOT	#2 Kennedy-Niemeyer	#3 Wharton	#4,6 Hudson-Jorgenson & DRI-Brookhaven	#5 Hnyilicza
A.1	Did not require.				
A.2		Did not need items C through E; only one nuclear process.	No nuclear sector or solar in the model.	(From BNL)	Not implemented.
A.3			Not applicable.	1971-1985: -0.11% 1985-1990: -0.79% 1990-2000: -1.65%	
A.4	Uses endogenous physical supply curve through finding rate functions.		Not applicable.	Implemented through linkage with Brookhaven-Illinois model.	Not implemented.
A.5		Used constant price of \$30/lb.	No nuclear sector in the model as implemented for EMF.	" "	" "
A.6	Two coal types: Western and Eastern. No further disaggregation in the model as implemented for EMF.	Single coal type.	Single coal type.	" "	" "

DRIVING VARIABLES: ASSUMPTIONS A.7-A.12

Assumptions	#1 PILOT	#2 Kennedy-Niemeyer	#3 Whatton	#4,6 Hudson-Jorgenson & DRI-Brookhaven	#5 Hnyilicza
A.7		No synfuels in the model.	No synfuels in the model.	Implemented through linkage with the Brookhaven-Illinois model.	Not implemented.
A.8			AES not used.	AES not used.	AES not used.
A.9		Did not implement; used fixed consumption ratios.	Did not implement.	Zero.	
A.10	Used zero discount rate to discount future consumption.	Average Real rate of return, relative to 1972 can be read off computer output (9+ goes up at first since domestic oil and gas returns are averaged in; goes down later due to generally worsening of income/capita as a result of higher costs).	Do not require.	Endogenous and estimated implicitly in the model of household behavior.	
A.11	Not implemented by ENF decision.				
A.12		Not implemented.	Not implemented. Beyond the planning horizon of the model.	Implemented through linkage with the Brookhaven-Illinois model.	Not implemented.

DRIVING VARIABLES: ASSUMPTIONS A.13-A.18

Assumptions	#1 PILOT	#2 Kennedy-Niemeyer	#3 Wharton	#4,6 Hudson-Jorgenson & DRI-Brookhaven	#5 Hnyiliczka
A.13		Not implemented but not needed.	Not implemented. Beyond the planning horizon of the model.	Implemented through linkage with the Brookhaven-Illinois model.	Not implemented.
A.14	Not applicable in Base Case.				
A.15	Not applicable in Base Case.				
A.16	Not applicable in Base Case.	No shale.			
A.17	No price controls assumed.	No price controls assumed.	No deviation.	No price controls assumed.	
A.18		Okay (we actually did use this).	No nuclear in the model.	(From BNL.)	Not required.

DRIVING VARIABLES: ASSUMPTIONS B.1-B.6

Assumptions	#1 PILOT	#2 Kennedy-Niemeyer	#3 Wharton	#4,6 Hudson-Jorgenson & DRI-Brookhaven	#5 Hnyilicz
B.1	Government proportional to consumption; Exports are endogenous.		Exports are endogenous.	Government and exports proportional to GNP.	
B.2				Census Series II projections.	
B.3			Did not require.	Aggregate input-to-output productivity increases at 1.15% per year.	
B.4	Did not require.	Did not require	Endogenous treatment of inflation and unemployment.	Inflation, % per year: 1971-1985: 5.14 1985-1990: 3.76 1990-2000: 3.84	
B.5	Did not require.	Did not require.		Did not require.	Did not require.
B.6	Used a depreciation rate of 4.4%.		Used different depreciation rates by sector.	Depreciation of capital: 6.2%	

DRIVING VARIABLES: ASSUMPTIONS B.7-B.9

Assumptions	#1 PILOT	#2 Kennedy-Niemeyer	#3 Wharton	#4,6 Hudson-Jorgenson & DRI-Brookhaven	#5 Hnylicza
B.7	Did not require.	Did not need.	Import prices are exogenous; Export prices are endogenous.	Nonenergy import prices increase at the inflation rate specified in Item B.4.	
B.8		1) Needed to calibrate model. 2)-3) Not needed.		1973 value of (\$ 1958 x 10 <sup>9</sup> ) Capital 1991.2 Net private domestic claims on Gov't 428.2 Net claims on the rest of the world 44.97	
B.9	1973-2012	1971-2010	1975-1990	1975-2000	



SCENARIOS

	#1 PILOT	#2 Kennedy-Niemeyer	#3 Wharton	#4,6 Hudson-Jorgenson & DRI-Brookhaven	#5 Hnylicza
1				The Base Case used was based on macroeconomic developments comparable with the DRI TRENDLINE 876 forecast and on energy developments based on ERDA/BNL forecast No. 4.	
2				Implemented through changed energy import prices.	
3			Implemented through balanced increase in government expenditures and decrease in corporate and personal income tax rates.	Real GNP growth increased by 1% per annum through increased rate of aggregate input-to-output productivity.	
4		} AES included as inputs.	Implemented through higher energy prices by imposition of Btu tax.	Implemented through higher energy prices by imposition of Btu tax.	Implemented through higher energy prices by imposition of Btu tax.
5			" "	Did not run.	" "
6	Did not implement.	Did not implement.			

#### Kennedy-Niemeyer Model

In principle, this model can impose direct restrictions on the amount of energy used. Originally, this seemed equivalent to the imposition of a Btu tax. But, because there is no substitution allowed in the model, the duality between taxes and energy restrictions does not apply. The tax, therefore, produces a small reduction in income and a small reduction in energy demand. A direct restriction in energy use would have a larger impact in this model. In addition, the assumption of a fixed saving rate in the model removes one link in the chain between the availability of energy and capital investment. The fixed savings rate reduces the impact of energy scarcity when compared to the assumption of a fixed rate of return on capital. As this model is intended to show the greatest impact of energy scarcity, the modelers are undertaking modifications to accommodate this new insight.

#### Wharton Model

The complexity of this system evolved to examine a range of shorter run macro-economic issues. The extensions to energy detail were under way at the time of the EMF study and this prevented full implementation of all the scenario detail. In particular, the model was run only through 1990. And large changes in the input variables for higher economic growth or stiff energy taxes could not be accommodated. Large changes in these variables tend to upset the financial and employment components of the model in unexpected degree and the modelers chose not to apply the system outside the range of its design. The relatively small changes produce instability in the estimation of some of the comparative parameters, such as the implicit income elasticity. Without a specific supply sector, the model cannot constrain energy input and produces no estimate of energy imports. These latter characteristics change in the version of the model under development. The chief extension is the further disaggregation of the energy sector and the inclusion of specific process models.

#### Hudson-Jorgenson Model

The restrictions in energy use were implemented with a Btu tax on delivered energy. This is primarily a matter of convenience to maintain compatibility with other applications of this model. There is no reason, in principle, why the model could not impose the tax on primary energy or impose a direct reduction in energy use and solve for the equivalent tax. The model structure and implementation are

compatible with either test, but tax on delivered energy was chosen. This necessitated the ad hoc corrections of results explained in the commentary in Section 5 of this appendix.

#### Hnyilicza Model

The structure and implementation of this model are oriented towards price and tax tests rather than direct restrictions on energy quantities. Therefore the restriction on energy was implemented by imposing a Btu tax. In examining the results, the relatively low price of energy is noted. This feature is explained by the fact that in these implementations the historical rate of technological change in the energy sector is maintained. No depletion effects are included. The real costs of domestic energy, therefore, decline over time as domestic production expands. No imports are needed to meet the growing energy demands and the price of energy equilibrates at the low level predicted by a continuation of the preembargo trend.

#### DRI-Brookhaven Model

The chief role of this model is to improve the energy sector detail while preserving the aggregate substitutions of the Hudson-Jorgenson model. The comments for the latter system apply to this more detailed model as well.

## Section 5

### SUMMARY GRAPHS

The comparison of the results of the many model runs is facilitated by graphical presentation. This section presents these graphs with an associated commentary by way of a limited explanation. The models encompass far more detail than this study is able to use or even understand. The complexities of the individual models preclude the thorough investigation of all possible questions. Hence, there are anomalies in the model results which the working group did not pursue. The focus of the EMF study resolved quickly to the measurement and evaluation of the implicit elasticity of substitution embedded in the models, and most of the effort is devoted to the consistent presentation of this somewhat artificial parameter. The remaining data and model comparisons are included for completeness without any warranty as to their potential use.

The graphs are coded to facilitate the comparison across models. All points are plotted by a numeral to identify the corresponding model. The numerals are assigned as follows:

1. PILOT Model
2. Kennedy-Niemeyer Model
3. Wharton Model
4. Hudson-Jorgenson Model
5. Hnyilicza Model
6. DRI-Brookhaven Model
9. History

#### GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT

Values are reported in billions of constant 1972 dollars. All of the models treat population growth and technological changes as exogenous parameters. In the presence of constant prices, these assumptions virtually determine the growth rate of the GNP. The similarity of results for the GNP, therefore, is not surprising.

In the High Growth scenario, various mechanisms, such as faster population growth, more rapid technological change, or higher employment levels are used to increase economic activity without large changes in energy prices. This High Growth case is used later in summary statistics to estimate the implied per capita income elasticity of energy demand.

# GRØSS NATIONAL PRØDØT

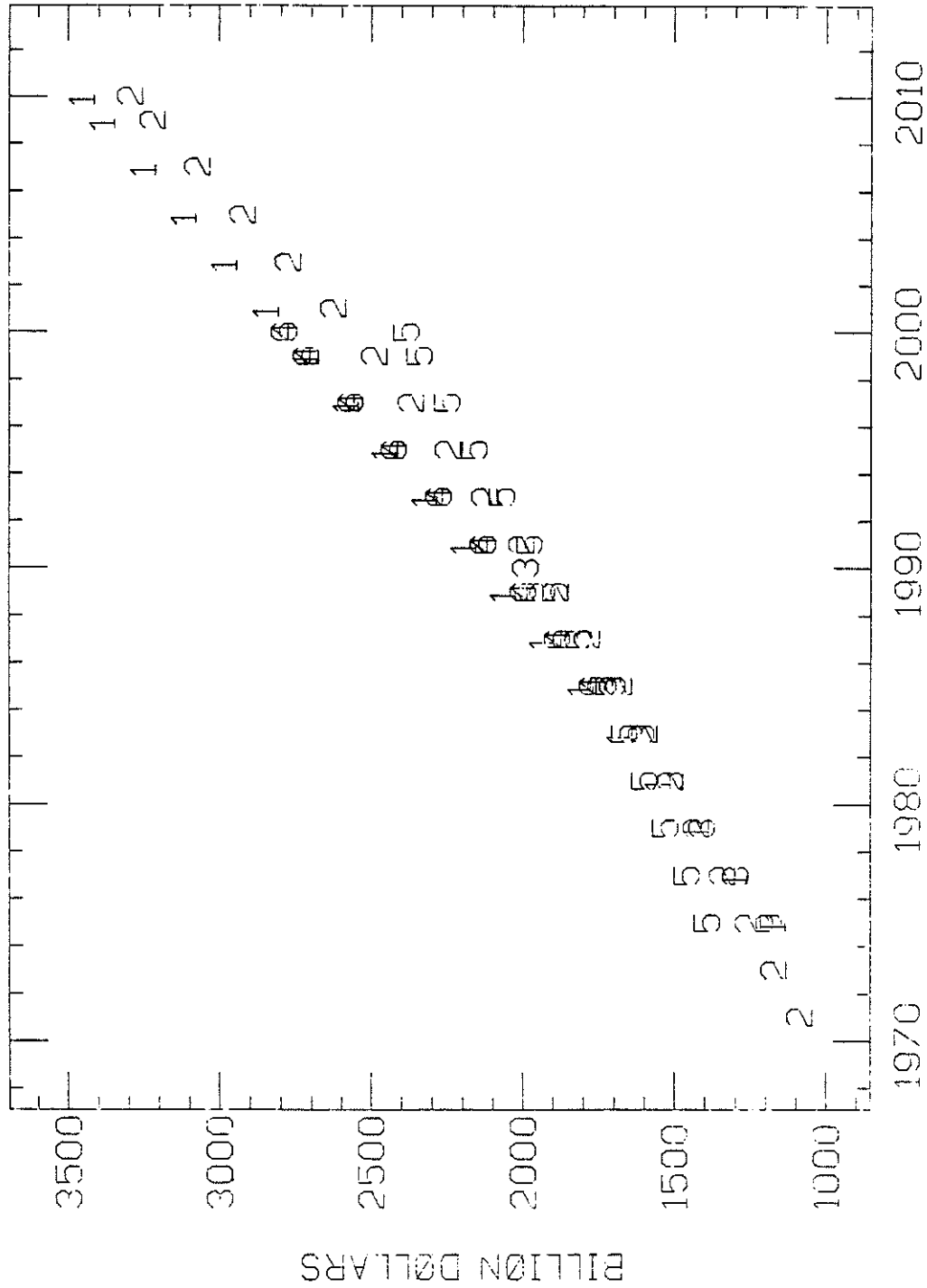


Figure F-1



# GRØSS NATIONAL PRØDØKT

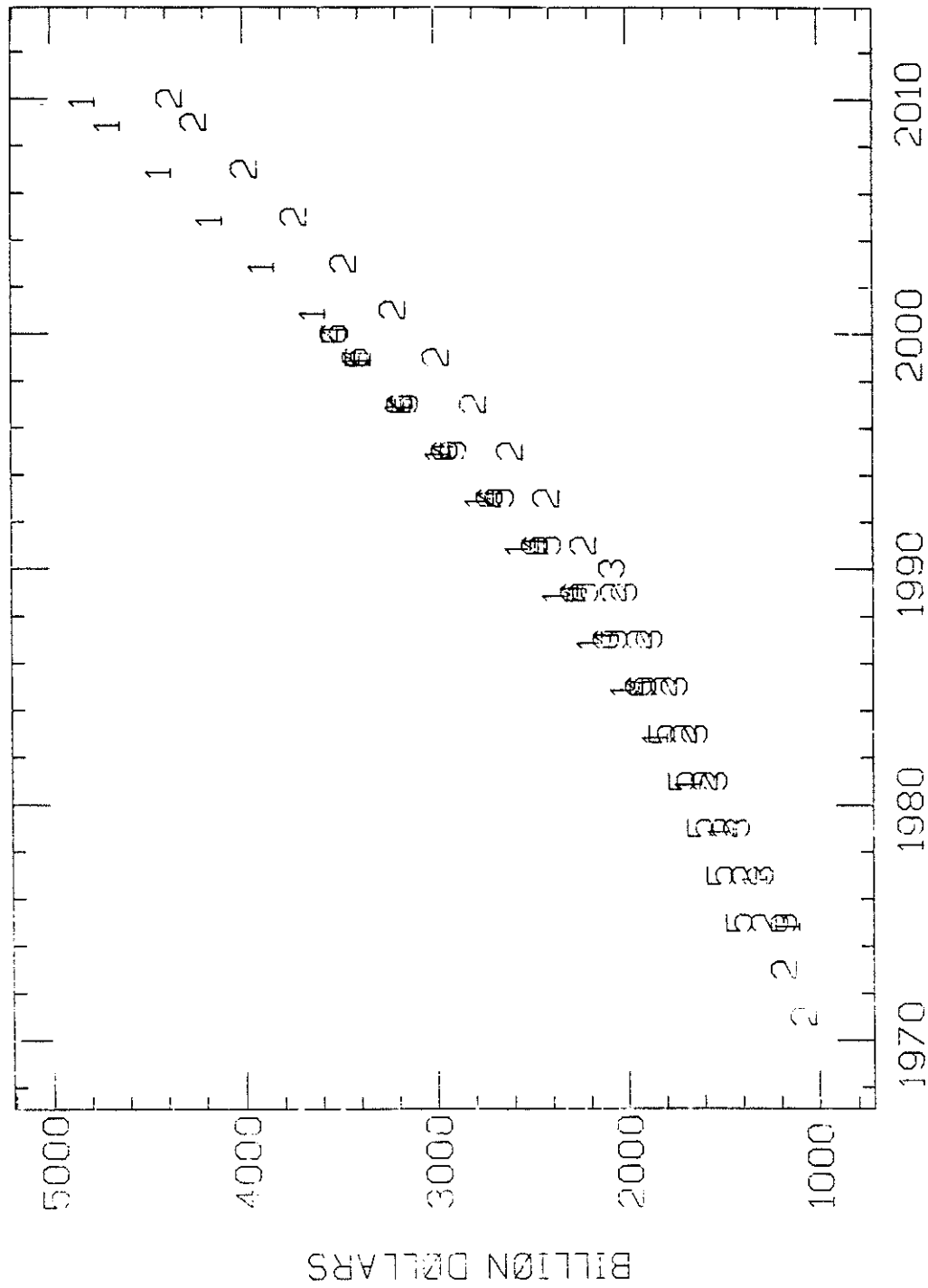


Figure F-3



# GRØSS NATIONAL PRØDØKT

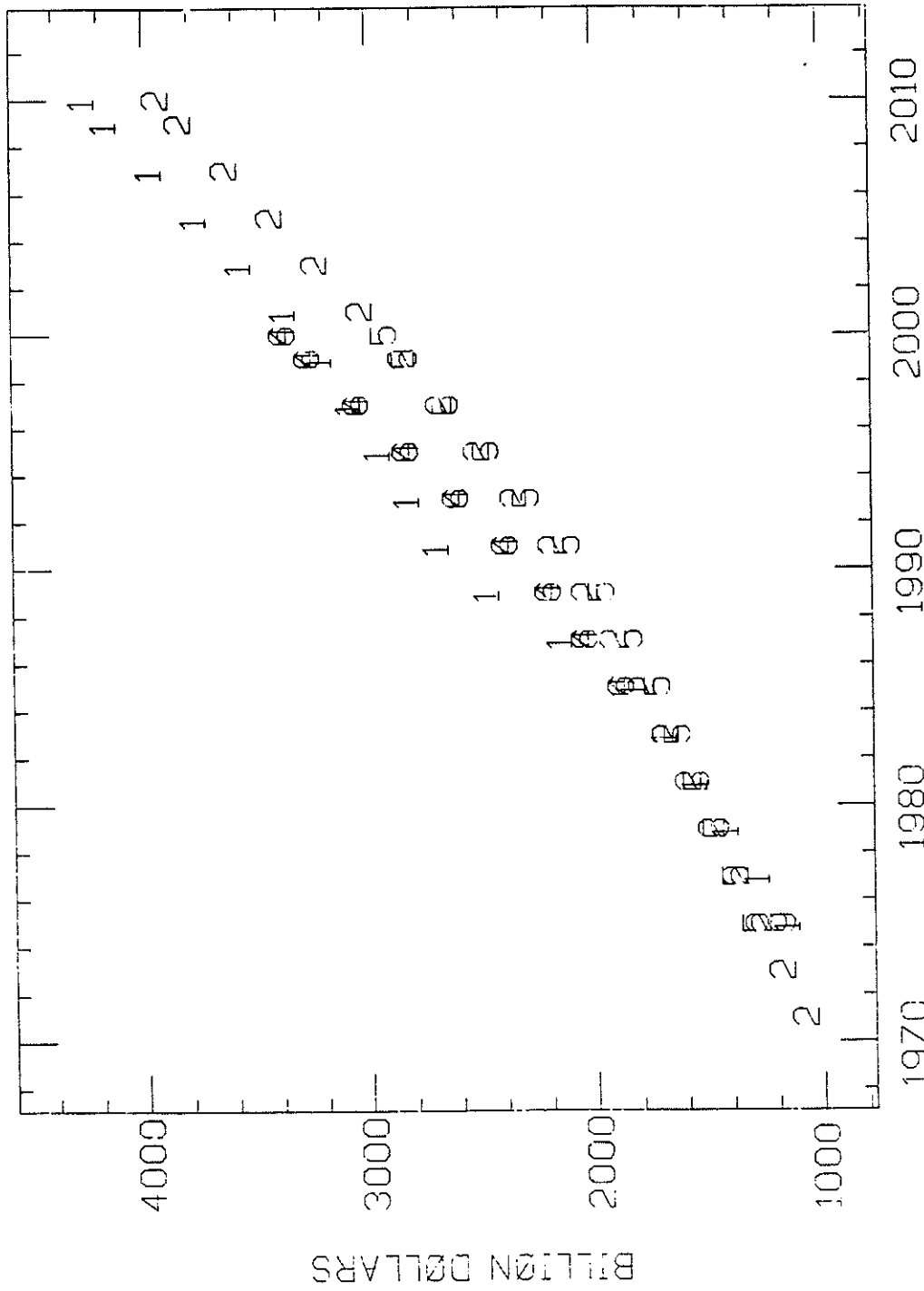
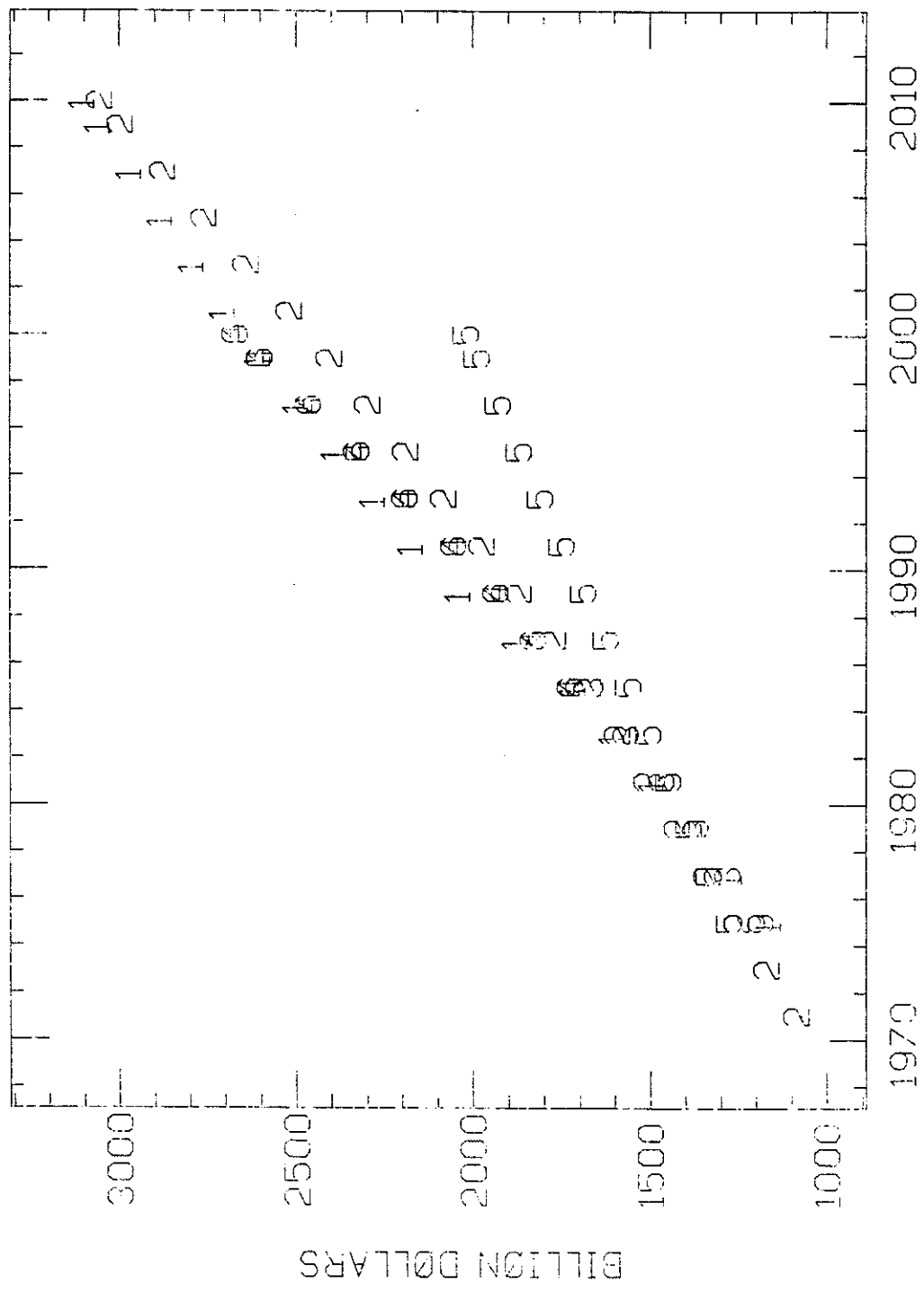


Figure F-4

# GRØSS NATIONAL PRØDØKT



SCENARIO: BASE CASE WITH CØNSTRAINTS

Figure F-5

#### TOTAL QUADS

This is total primary energy input recorded in  $10^{15}$  Btu (quads), following the accounting conventions of the Bureau of Mines. Primary energy input is the most familiar statistic for comparing total energy use, but it has many conceptual deficiencies. For example, the same end use requirements for energy may yield different primary energy inputs, because of different fuel mixes. As a single measure of energy requirements, however, primary energy input is the best available compromise that is widely understood. This measure of energy is used throughout the EMF report and plays a central role in examining the link between energy and the economy.

# TOTAL QUADS

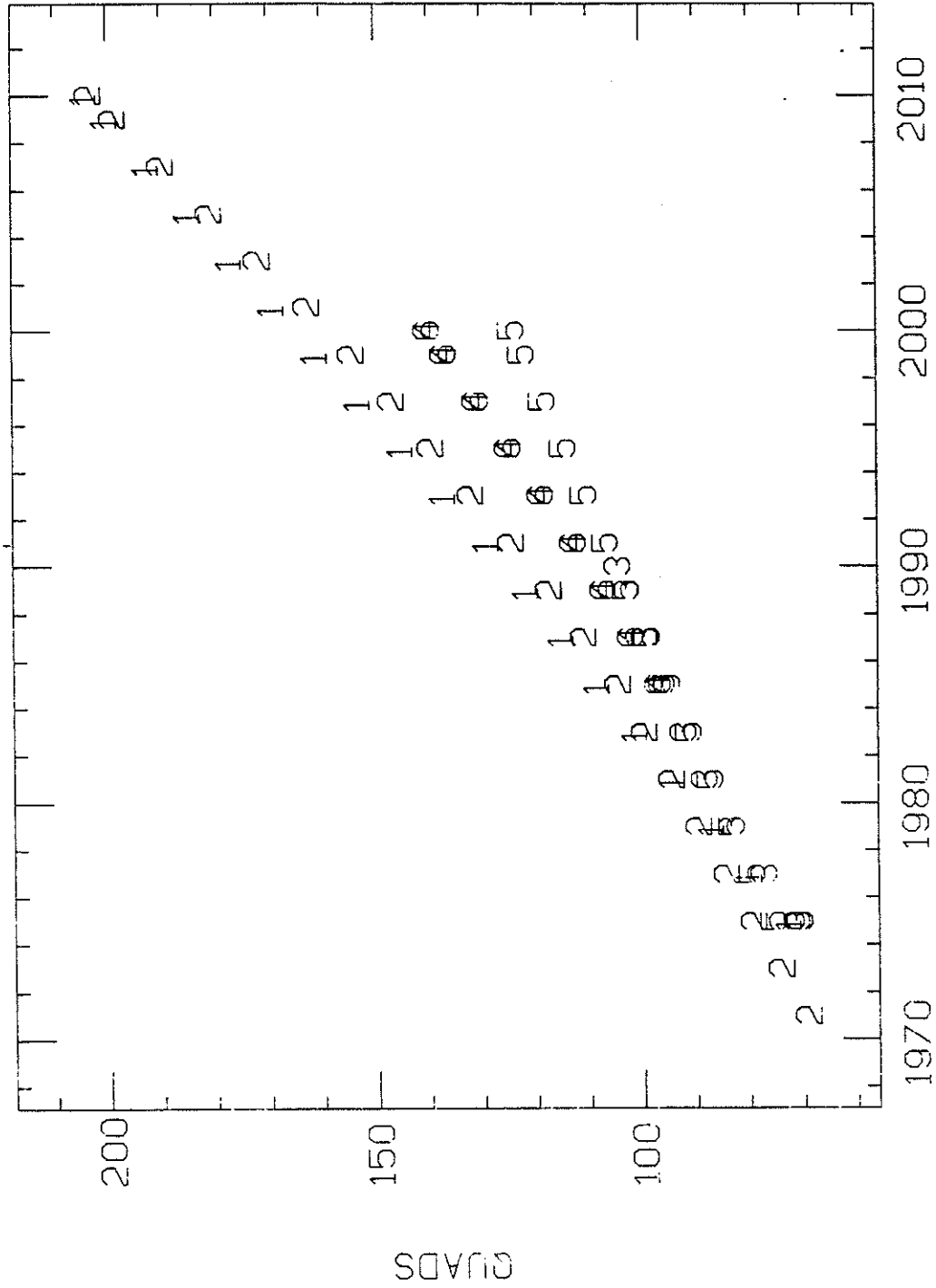


Figure F-6

# TOTAL QUADS

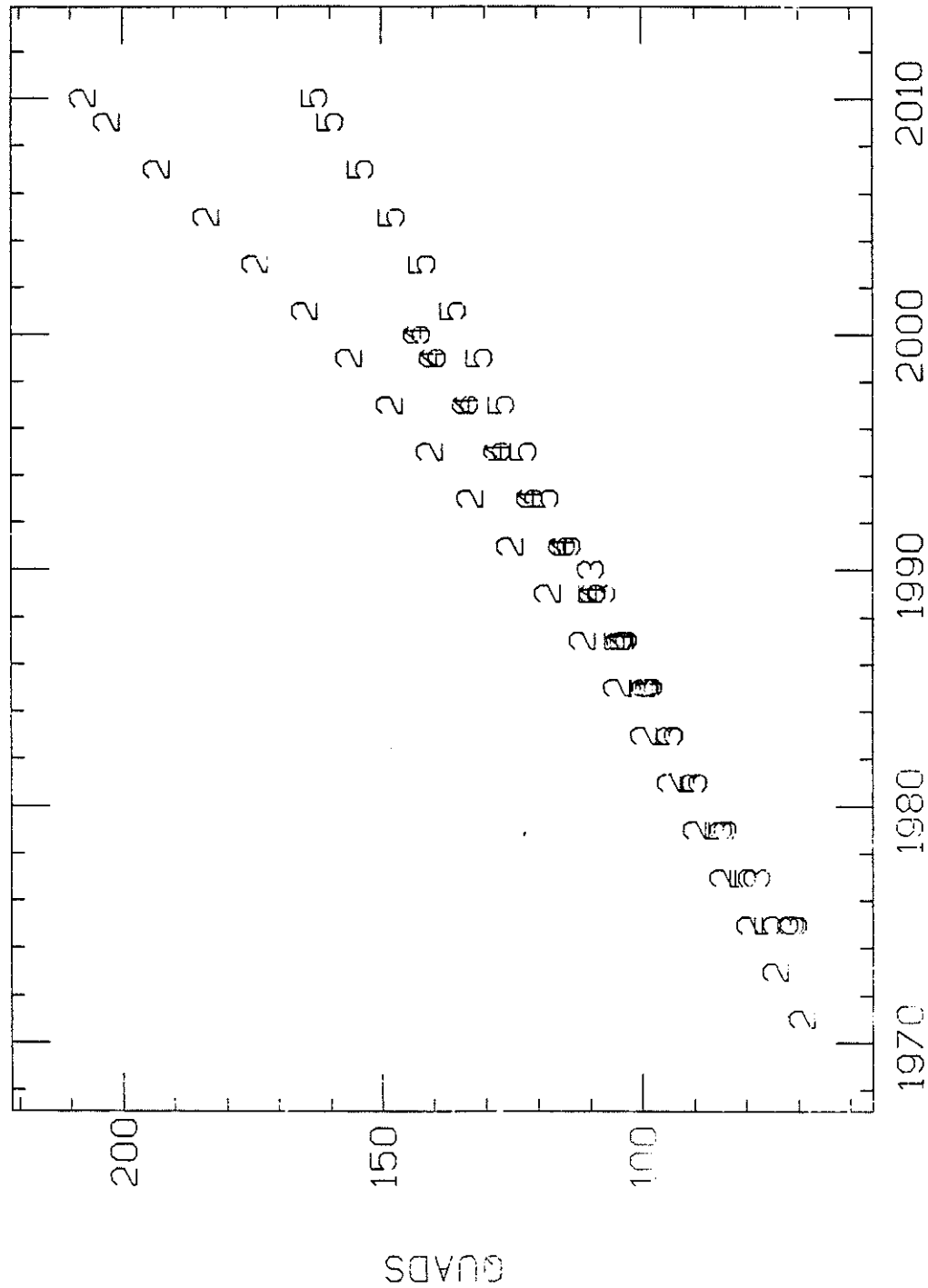
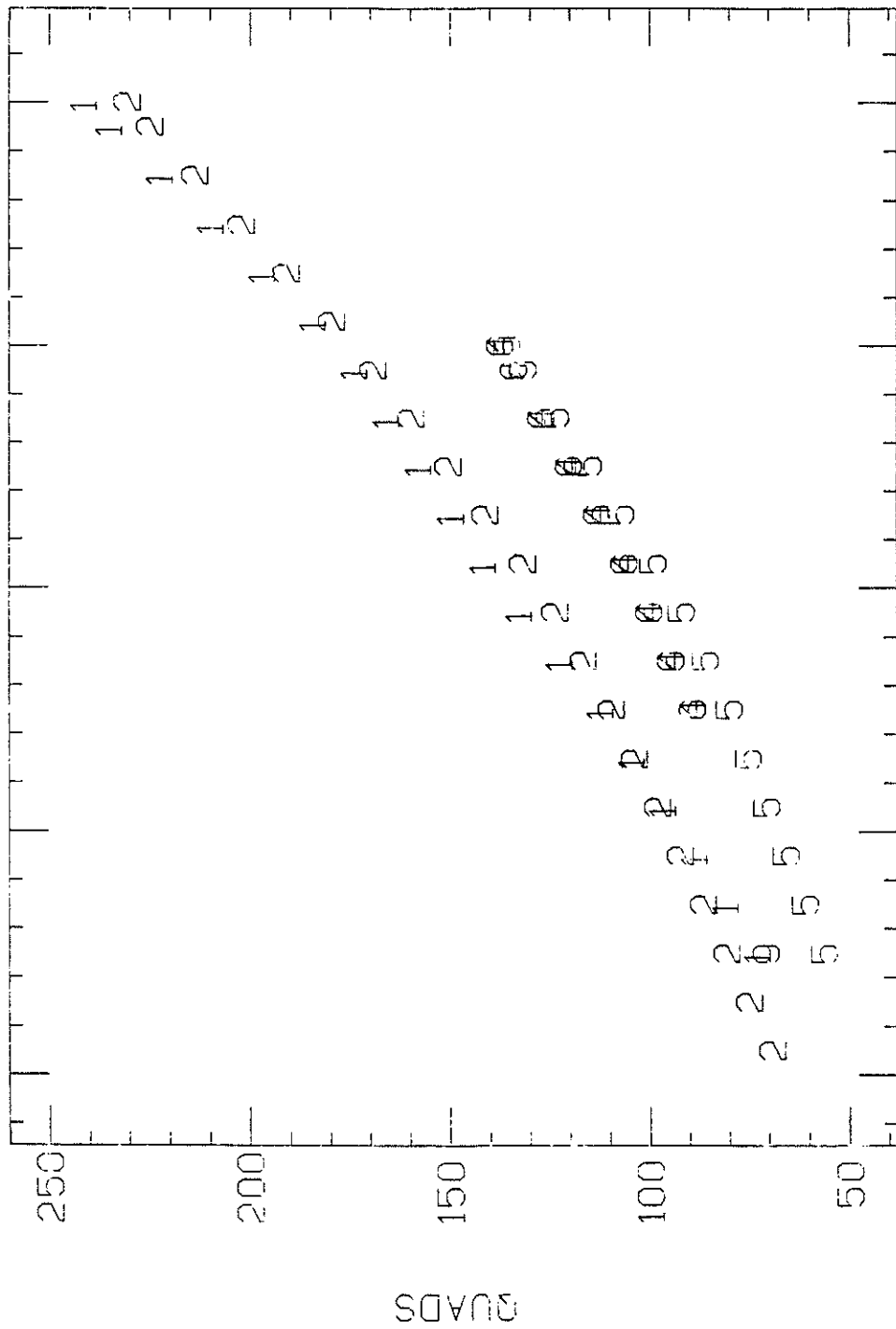


Figure F-7



# TOTAL QUADS

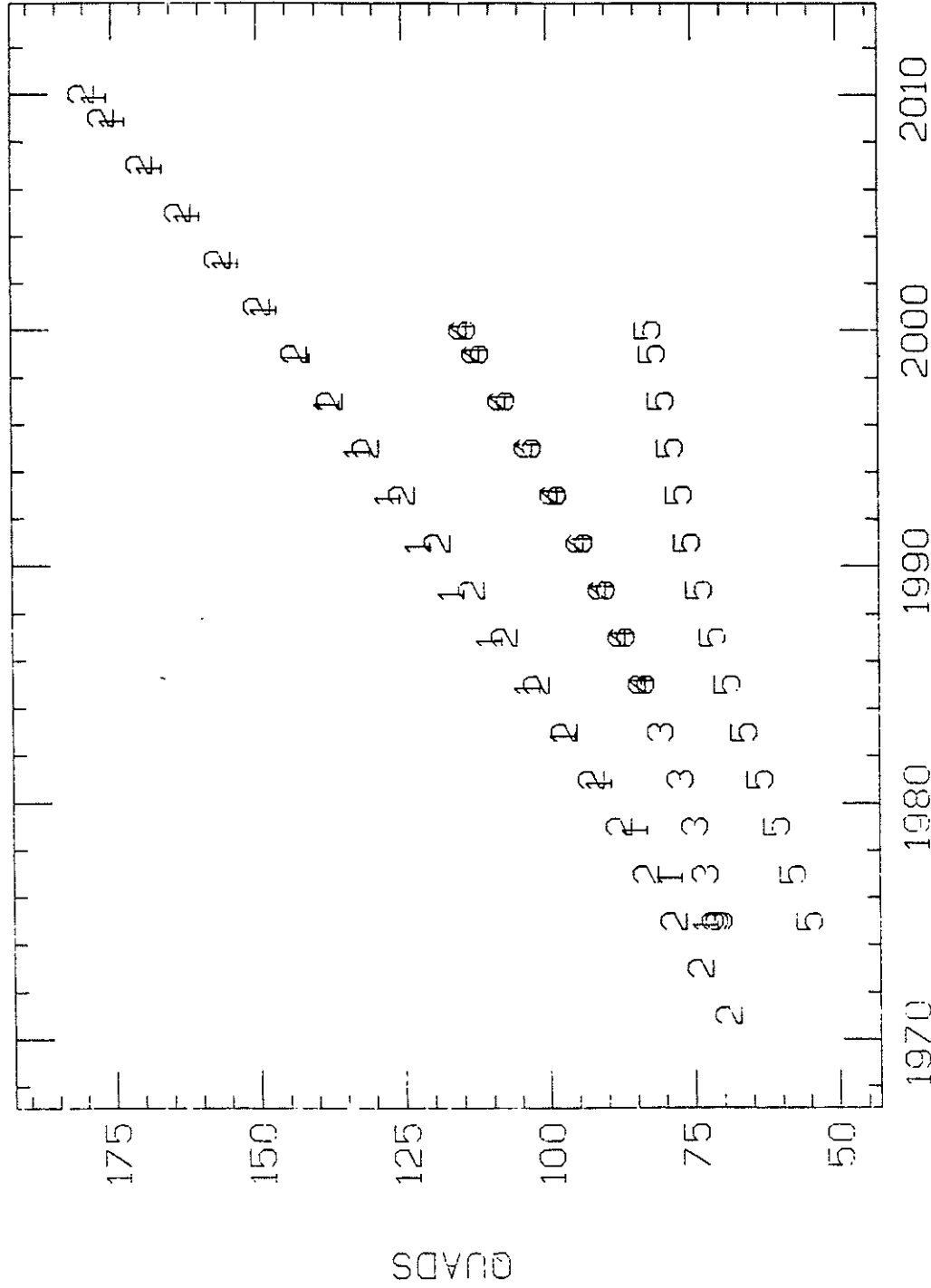


1970 1980 1990 2000 2010

SCENARIO: HIGH GROWTH WITH CONSTRAINTS

Figure F-9

# TOTAL QUADS



SCENARIO: BASE CASE WITH CONSTRAINTS

Figure F-10



#### ENERGY-GNP RATIO

This Energy-GNP ratio is defined as:

$$\frac{\text{TOTAL QUADS}}{\text{GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT}}$$

and is reported in thousand Btu per constant 1972 dollar. It displays one relationship over time between the amount of energy used and the size of the economy, as projected by the various models.

The graph displays the relative difference between the growth rate of the economy and the growth rate of energy. The time path is constant if a one-to-one correspondence is indicated by the models. The time path will decline when the growth rate of energy is less than that of GNP.

The Energy-GNP ratio is indicative of the efficiency of energy use but it is far from the perfect measure. Some limitations of this concept and detailed empirical comparisons of international data are developed in the paper by J. Darmstadter, J. Dunkerley, and J. Alterman, "How Industrial Societies Use Energy: A Comparative Analysis", Resources for the Future Report, Washington, D.C., 1977 [1].

# ENERGY-GNP RATIO

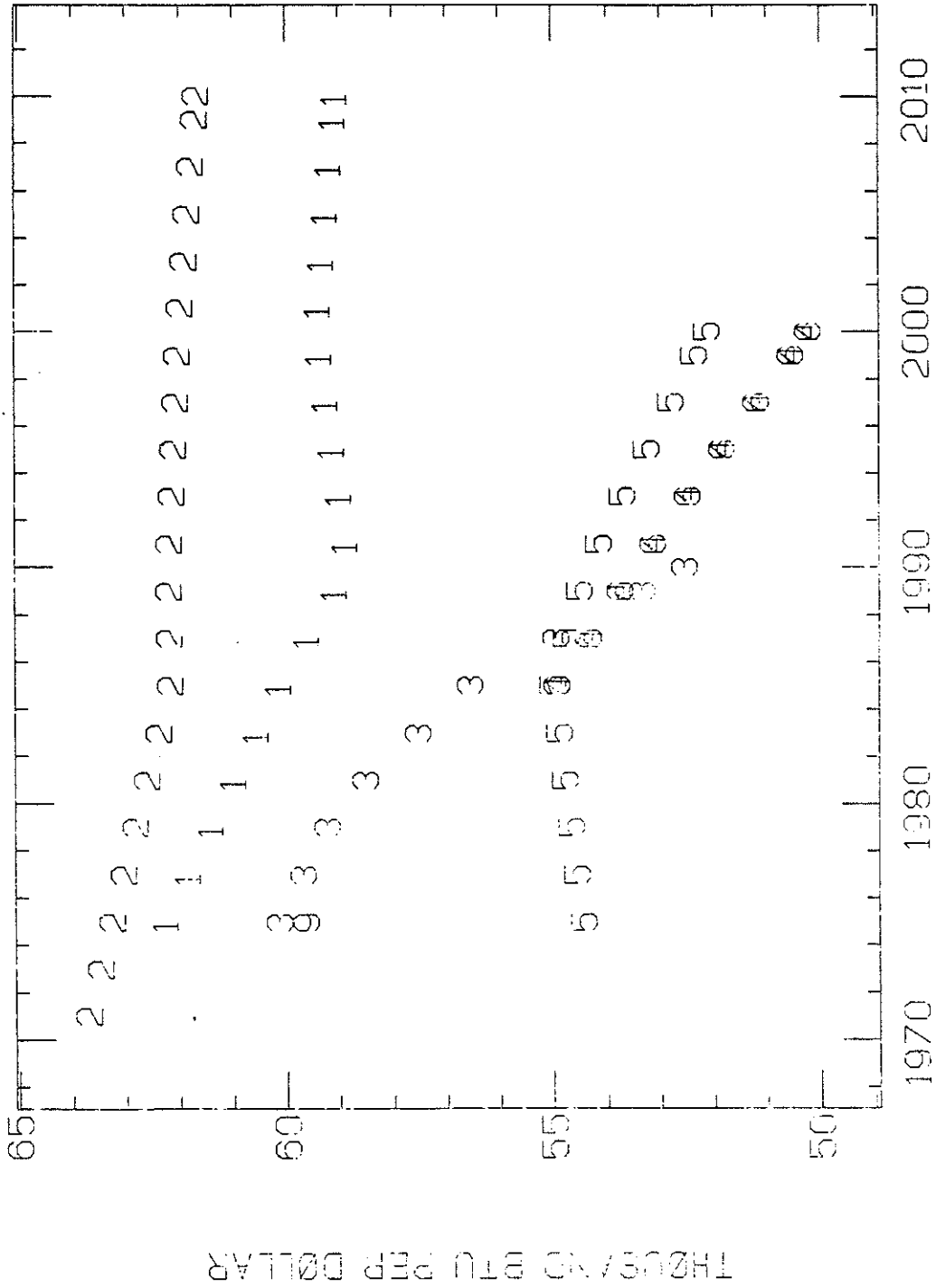


Figure F-11

# ENERGY-GNP RATIO

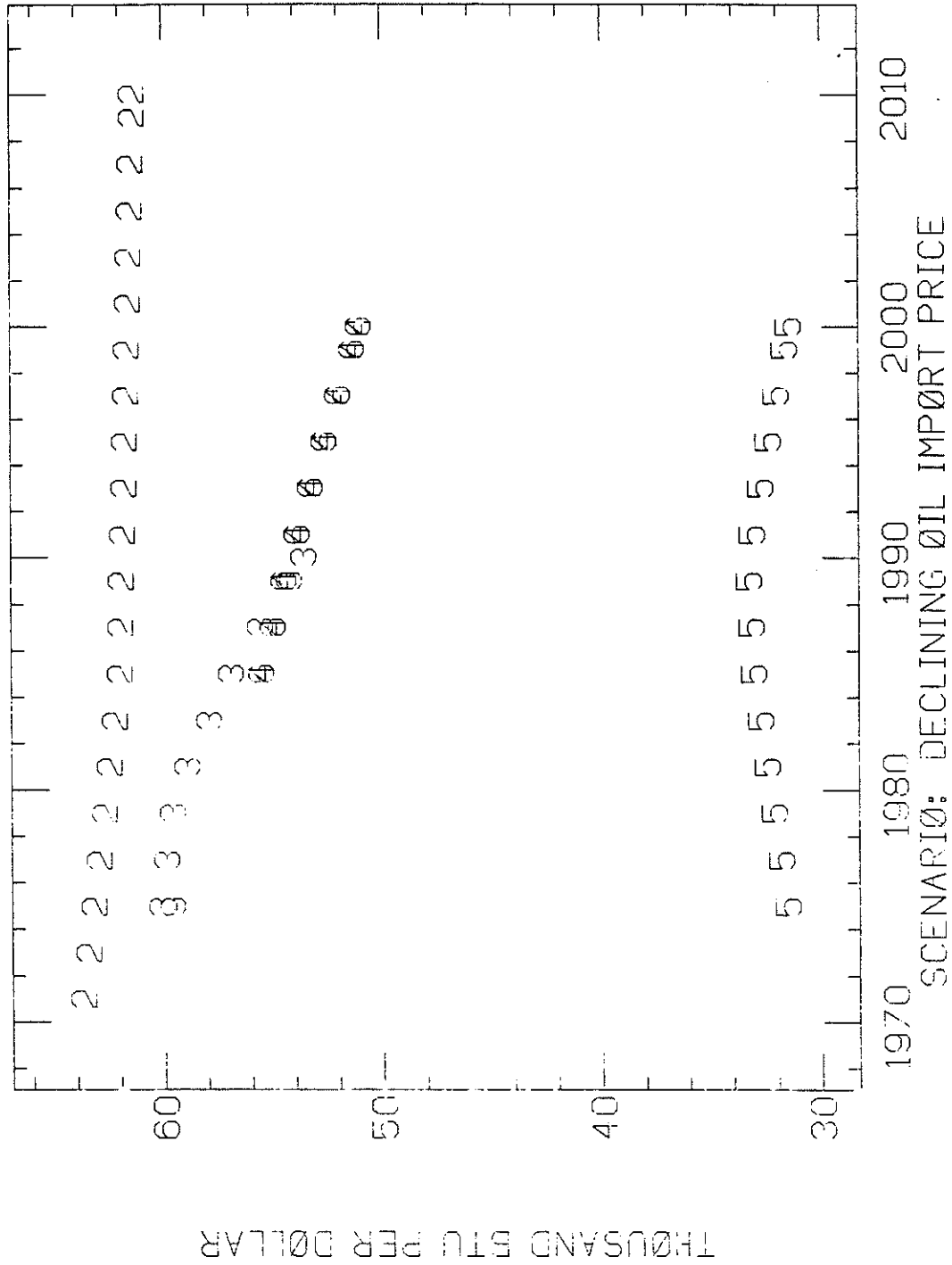


Figure F-12







#### NORMALIZED ENERGY-GNP RATIO

This normalized Energy-GNP ratio is defined as:

$$\frac{\text{ENERGY-GNP RATIO}}{\text{BASE CASE ENERGY-GNP RATIO}}$$

This comparative statistic simplified the evaluation of the changes in the Energy-GNP ratio across scenarios when compared to the Base Case. It demonstrates one measure of the flexibility of the energy-economy feedback relations indicated by the various models in comparisons across scenarios. Constant values near 1.0 indicate a strong tie between changes in the energy sector and changes in the economy. A wider dispersion away from 1.0 indicates a flexible energy-economic relationship.

The results for Hnyilicza's model for the Declining Oil Import Price Case are a sharp deviation from those reported for other models and scenarios. This anomaly has not been explained.

# NORMALIZED ENERGY-GNP RATIO

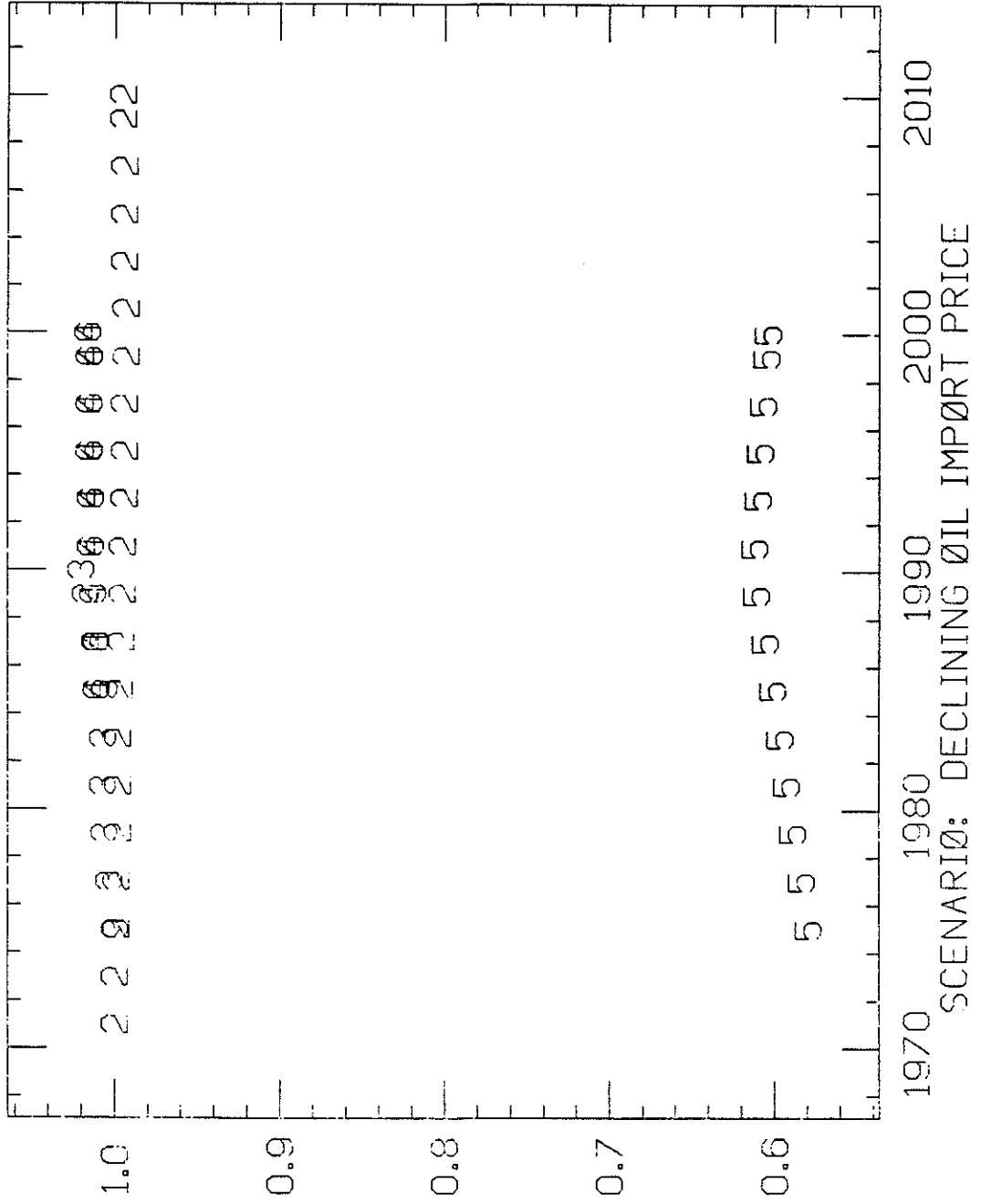
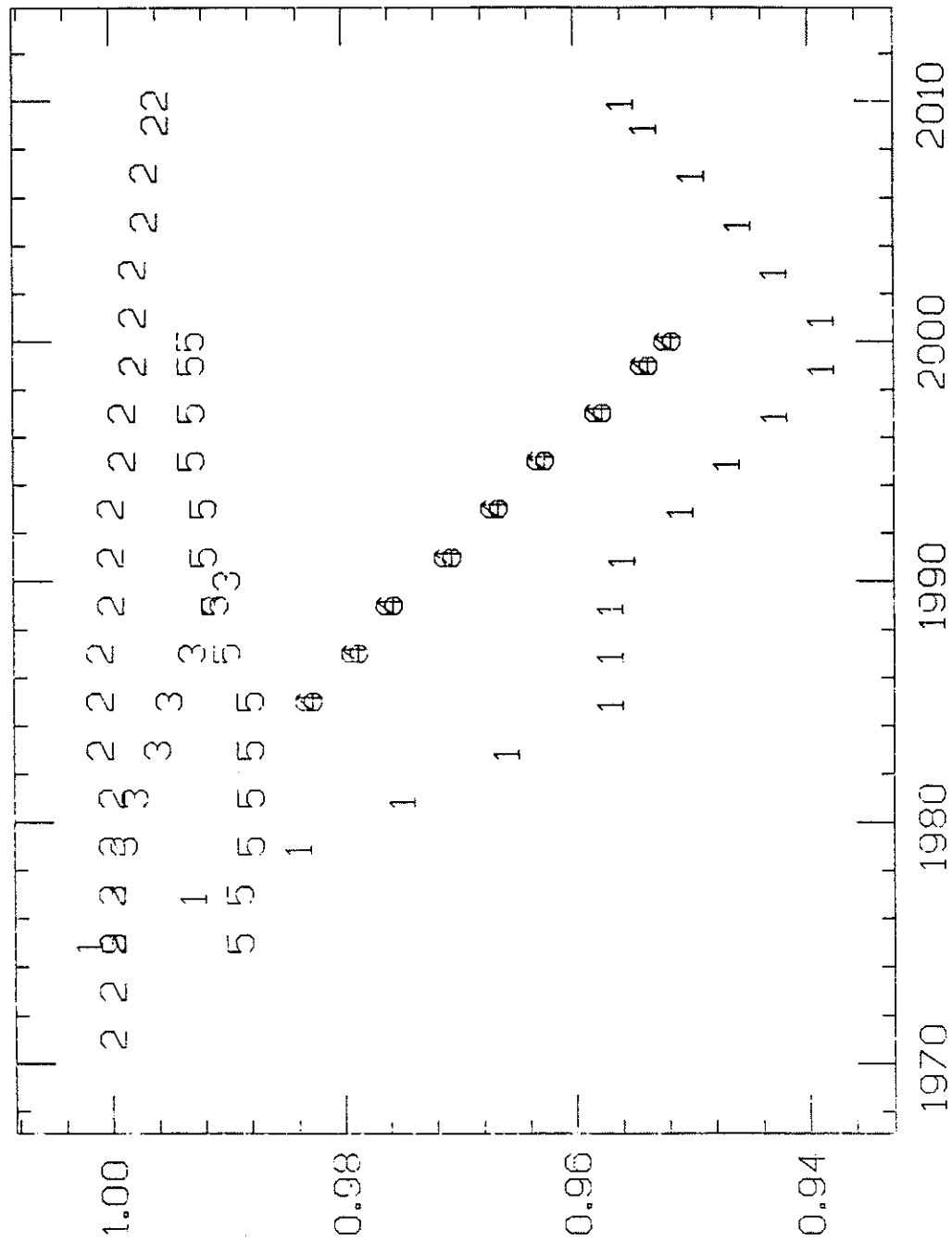


Figure F-16



# NORMALIZED ENERGY-GNP RATIO

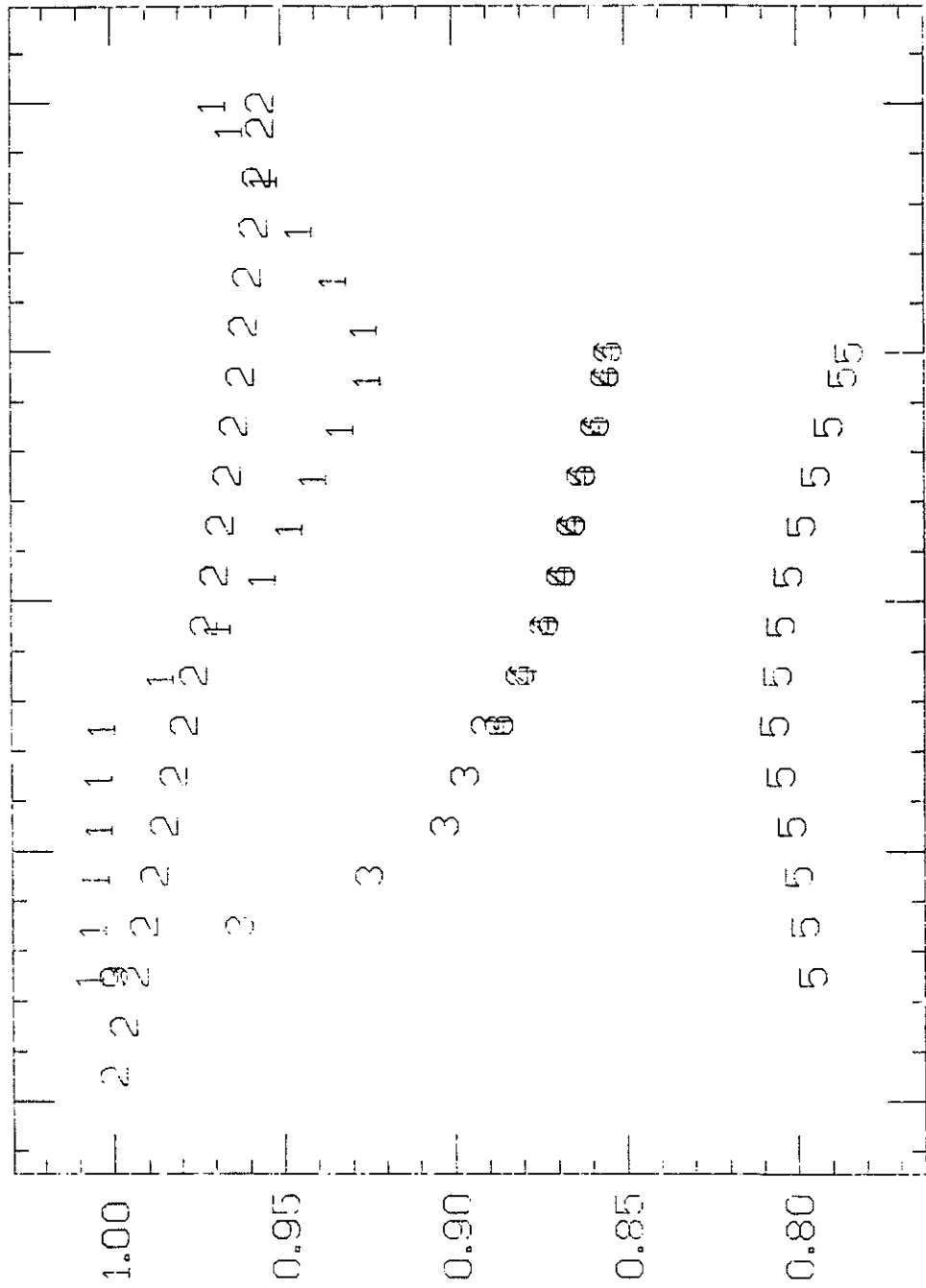


SCENARIO: HIGH GROWTH CASE

Figure F-17



# NORMALIZED ENERGY-GNP RATIO



SCENARIO: BASE CASE WITH CONSTRAINTS

Figure F-19

#### ENERGY IMPORTS

This includes both oil and gas imports and is reported in  $10^{15}$  Btu (quads) per year.

In the Kennedy-Niemeyer model, the value reported for imports includes the amount of AES (alternative energy sources) used. Therefore, the value recorded is higher than the actual imports. As a model without responsiveness to higher prices and a declining domestic production base, the Kennedy-Niemeyer system utilizes a high level of oil and gas imports.

The output from the Wharton model did not include separate reporting of imports.



# ENERGY IMPORTS

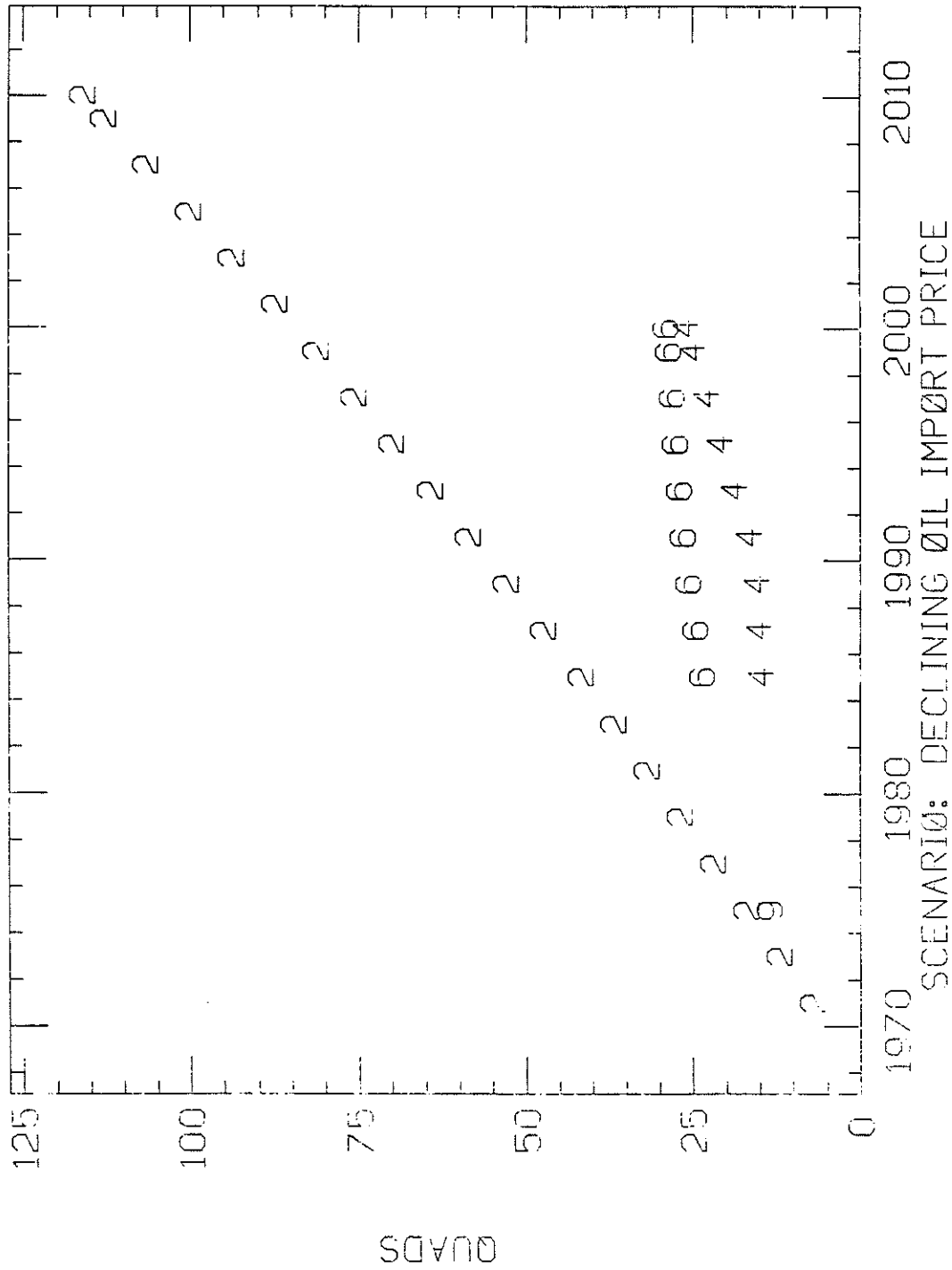


Figure F-21

# ENERGY IMPORTS

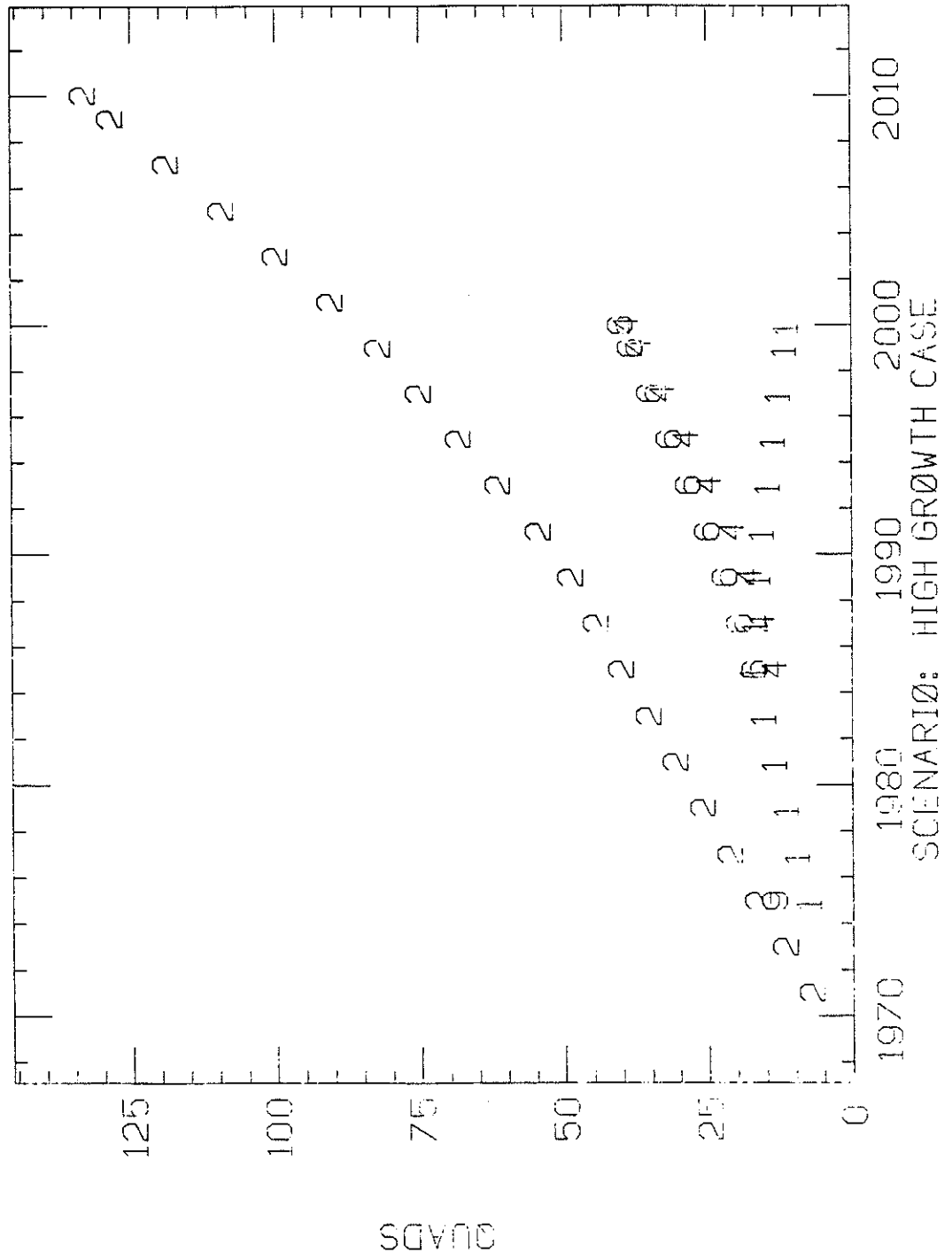
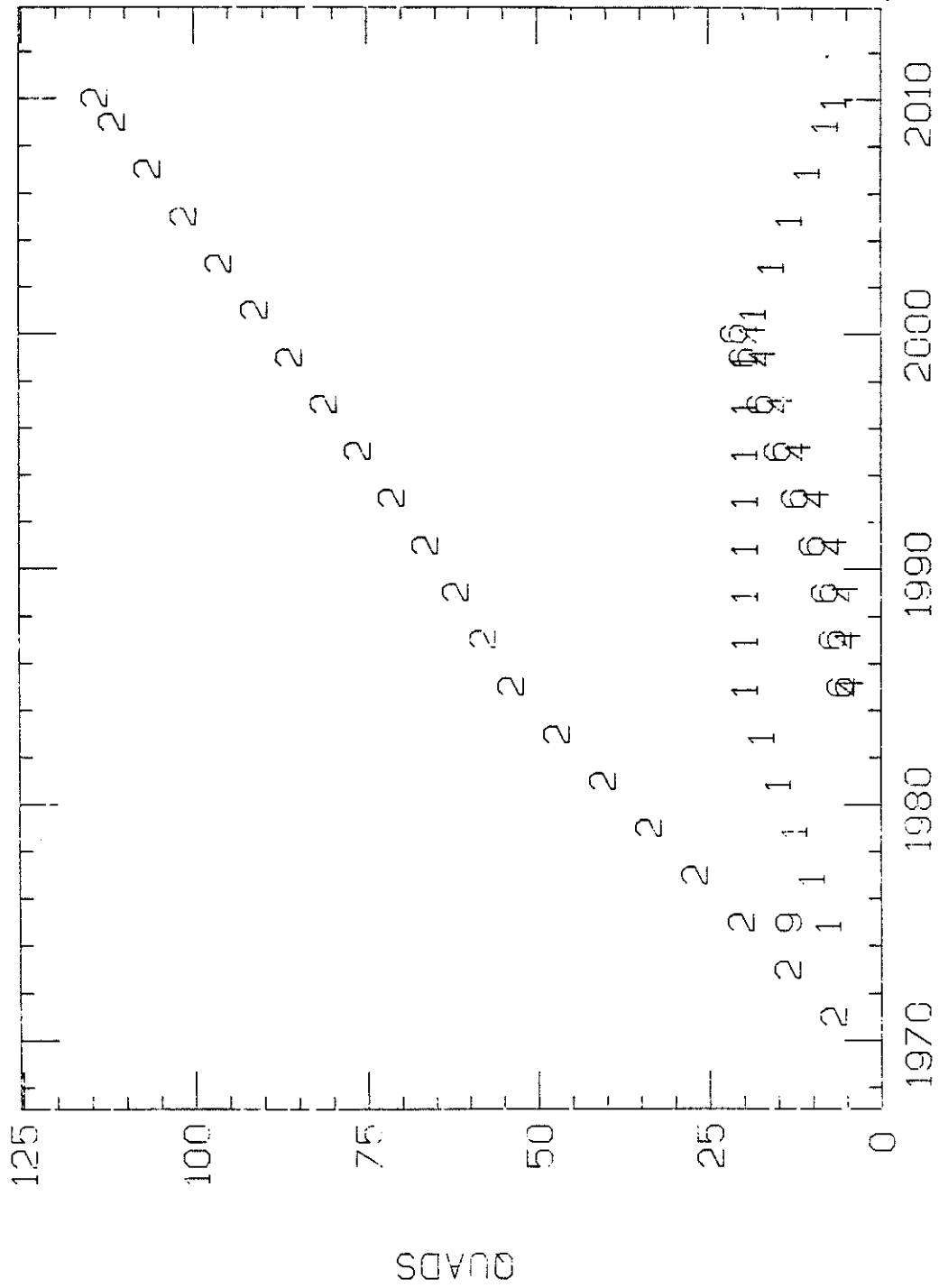


Figure F-22

# ENERGY IMPORTS

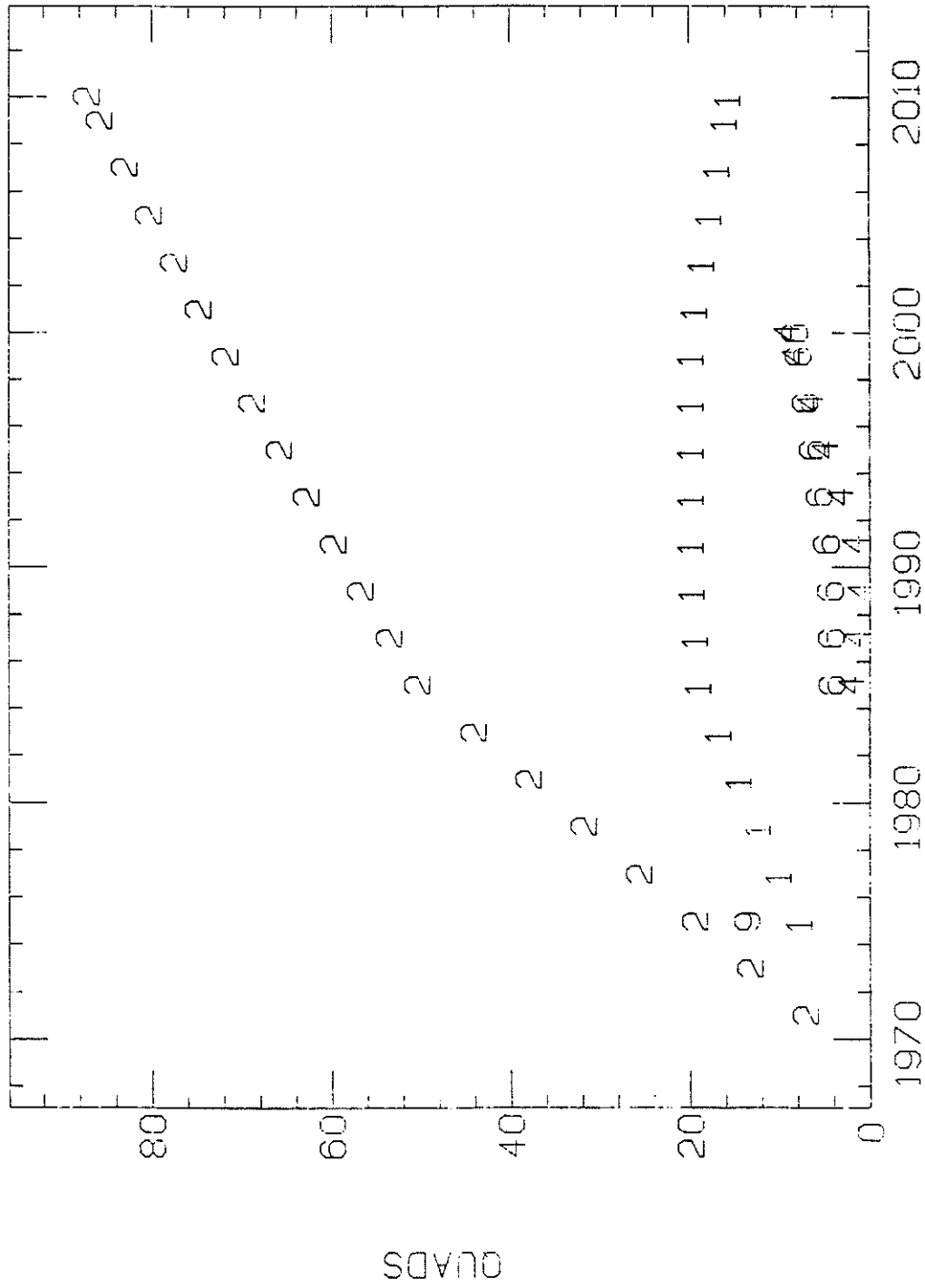


SCENARIO: HIGH GROWTH WITH CONSTRAINTS

Figure F-23



# ENERGY IMPORTS



SCENARIO: BASE CASE WITH CONSTRAINTS

Figure F-24

#### FOSSIL FUEL PRICE

This is a measure of the cost of primary energy inputs. See the attached Technical Memo EMF-TM-77-1.1 for a definition. The key difficulty here is the use of a homogeneous commodity called "primary energy". This is a fiction of the accounting structure, but it is crucial in the simplified comparison of the models. For the EMF purposes, the proper measure of the price is at the earliest point where the energy enters the system before the costs of fungible capital and labor needed to transform that energy are included in the price. Here, the wellhead or mine mouth prices of the component energy products are used to approximate the primary energy price.

In the case of the Wharton model, no fuel prices are reported, but an aggregate energy price index is supplied. The fossil fuel price for this model is based on this index, where the index 1.00 indicates 22¢/million Btu in 1972 dollars.

For the case of the Hnyilicza model, no fuel detail is supplied. A special procedure was used to compute the fossil fuel price from the output of this model. The attached Technical Memo EMF-TM-77-1.3 summarizes these calculations.

SUBJECT: FOSSIL FUEL PRICE  
 AUTHOR: D. R. Fromholzer

EMF TECHNICAL MEMO-77-1.1  
 DATE: 5/6/77

### FOSSIL FUEL PRICE

The fossil fuel price is a rough measure of the average price of primary energy inputs. It is based on the prices and expenditure shares of the primary fuels-- coal, gas, and oil.

Specifically, the fossil fuel price is defined as:

$$\bar{P}_t = k \prod_{i=1}^3 P_t^i \bar{\omega}_i,$$

where  $\bar{P}_t$  = fossil fuel price for time period  $t$ ,

$P_t^i$  = price of fuel  $i$  in period  $t$ ,

$\bar{\omega}_i$  = weights based on expenditure shares. (See exact definition below.)

Also, let

$t = 0$  denote the first year reported by a model,

$t = \ell$  denote the last year reported by a model.

We define  $k$  so that in the first period the fossil fuel price times the quantity of fossil fuels consumed gives the actual expenditure observed. Thus:

$$\bar{P}_0 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^3 P_0^i q_0^i}{\sum_{i=1}^3 q_0^i},$$

where  $q_t^i$  = quantity of fuel  $i$  used in period  $t$ .

Then  $k$  is generated by solving:

$$\log k = \log \bar{P}_0 - \sum_{i=1}^3 \bar{\omega}_i P_0^i.$$

Finally, the weights  $\bar{\omega}_i$  are set to be the average expenditure share for each fuel between the first and last periods reported,

$$\bar{\omega}_i = \frac{1}{2} \frac{P_0^i q_0^i}{\sum_{i=1}^3 P_0^i q_0^i} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{P_\ell^i q_\ell^i}{\sum_{i=1}^3 P_\ell^i q_\ell^i}.$$

SUBJECT: COMPUTING IMPLIED FOSSIL FUEL PRICES  
FROM HNYILICZA'S MODEL

EMF TECHNICAL MEMO-77-1.3

AUTHOR: William W. Hogan

DATE: 3/18/77

The available data from Hnyilicza's model are price indices for delivered energy in the intermediate and consuming sectors. We wish to compute an implied price of primary fossil fuels.

Let:

$P_{Em}^t$  : real price of intermediate energy in '58 dollars from Hnyilicza.

$P_E^t$  : real price of primary fossil energy in '58 dollars.

$\delta_t$  : ratio of delivered energy to primary energy.

$EL_t$  : percent gross energy devoted to production of electricity.

$\alpha_t$  : cost of transporting, converting, and marketing energy.

Then we assume,

$$P_{Em}^t = \alpha_t + P_E^t / \delta_t$$

where

$$\delta_t = 1/3 EL_t + (1-EL_t) .$$

Assuming also that there is technological change in the energy sector of 1.2%/year, then

$$\alpha_t = \alpha_{58} (1 - .012)^{t-58} .$$

Now, from Hnyilicza's model we have

$$P_{Em}^{58} = 1.32$$

$$P_E^{58} = .39$$

$$\delta_{58} = .883 \quad (EL_{58} = .176)$$

and, therefore,

$$\alpha_{58} = .878 .$$

For the purposes of the EMF forecasts we assume

$$EL_{2000} = .4$$

then

$$\delta_{2000} = .73$$

and, therefore,

$$P_E^{2000} = \left( P_{Em}^{2000} - \alpha_{2000} \right) \delta_{2000}$$

$$P_E^{2000} = P_{Em}^{2000} (.73) - .53 (.73).$$

This gives the transformation from Hnyilicza's prices to the implied price of primary fossil energy measured in 1958 \$

$$P_E^{2000} = .73 P_{Em}^{2000} - .39 .$$

The real price of intermediate energy in any year is determined by the intermediate energy index from Hnyilicza's ( $\bar{P}_{Em}^{2000}$ ), the GNP deflator ( $\bar{P}_{GNP}^{2000}$ ) and the value of  $P_{Em}^{58}$  as

$$P_{Em}^{2000} = \bar{P}_{Em}^t \cdot P_{Em}^{58} / \bar{P}_{GNP}^{2000} .$$

Finally the link between Hnyilicza's reported index  $\bar{P}_{Em}^t$  and the real price of primary fossil energy is

$$P_E^{2000} = .96 \bar{P}_{EM}^{2000} / \bar{P}_{GNP}^{2000} - .39.$$

# Fossil Fuel Price

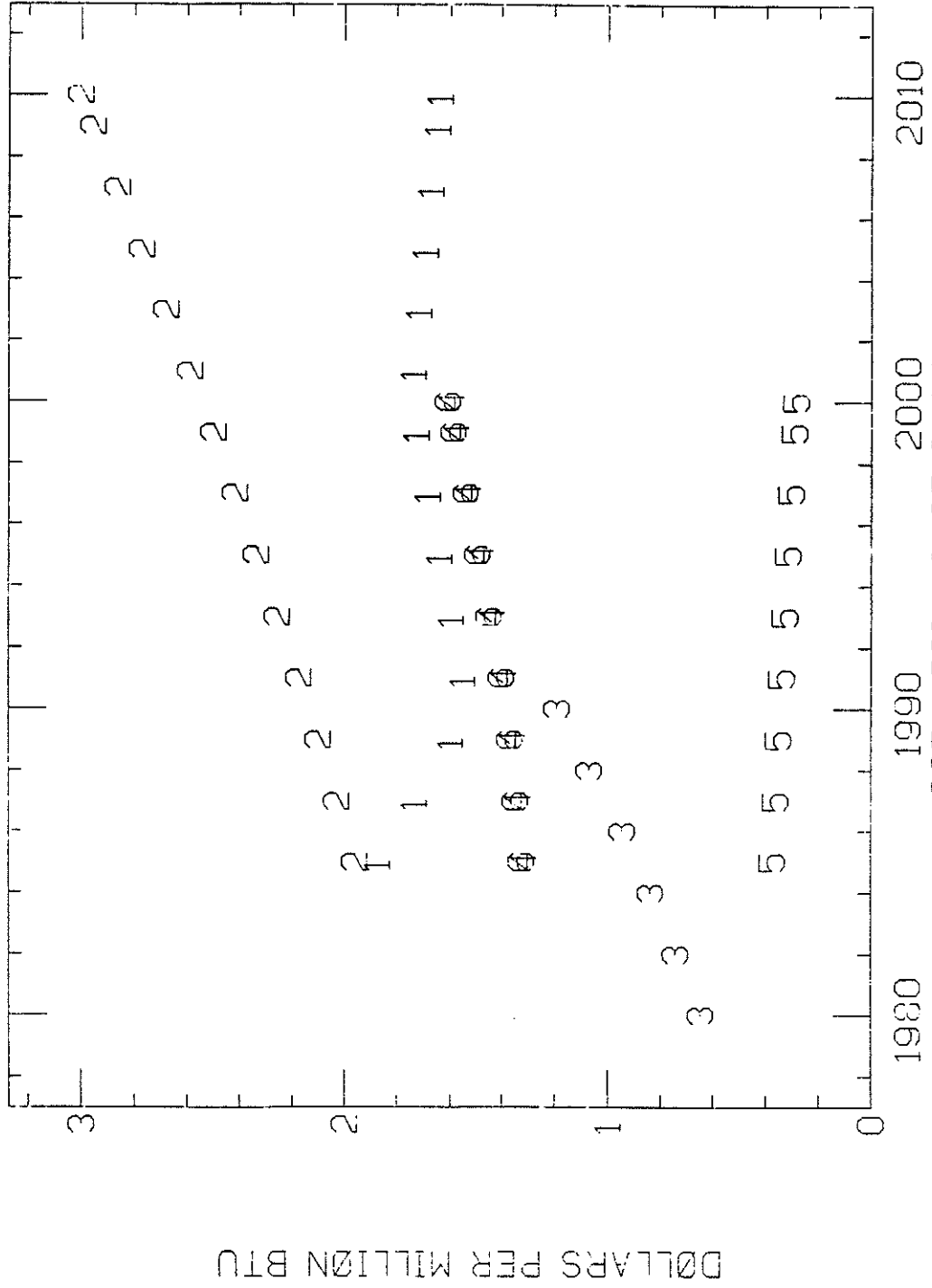


Figure F-25

# FØSSIL FUEL PRICE

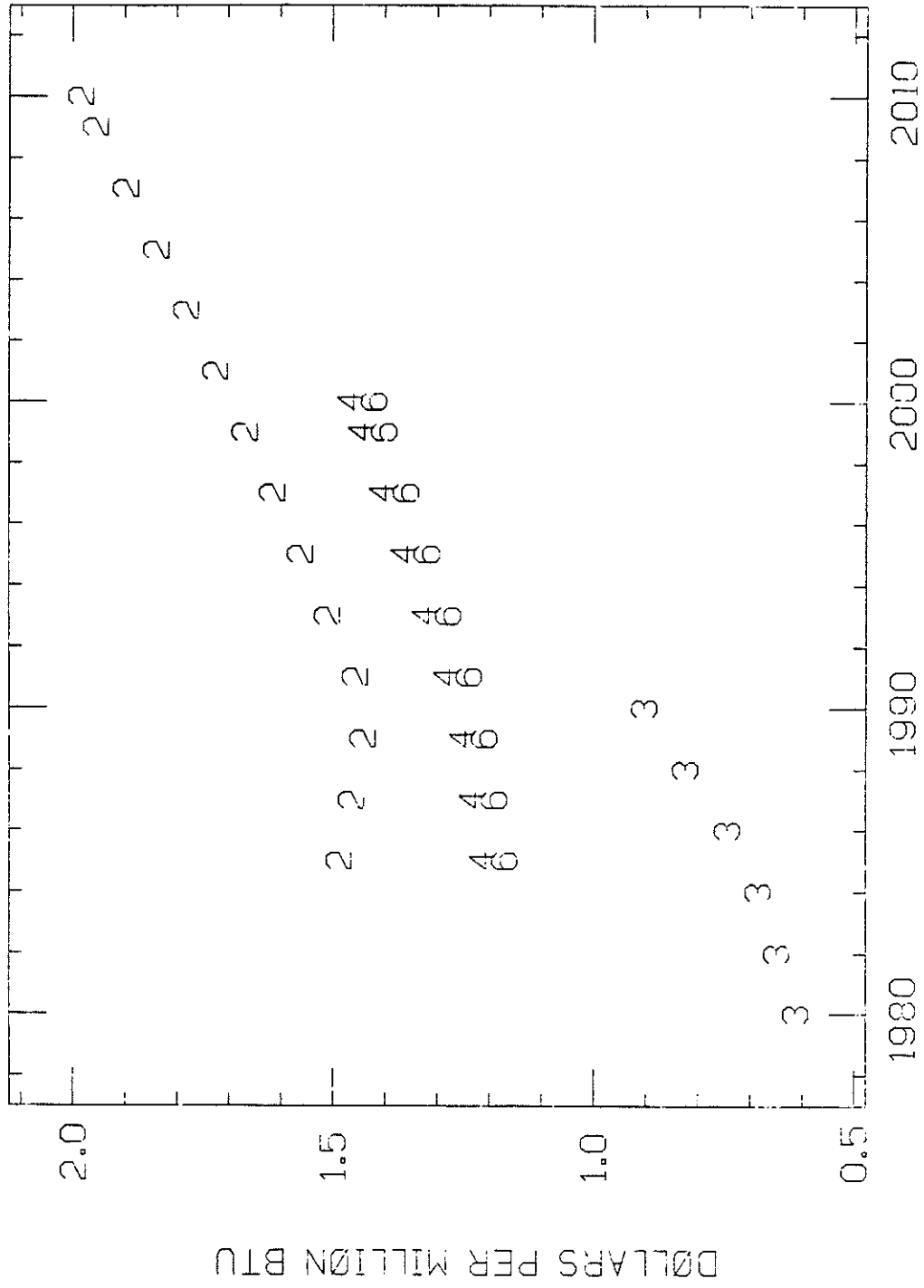
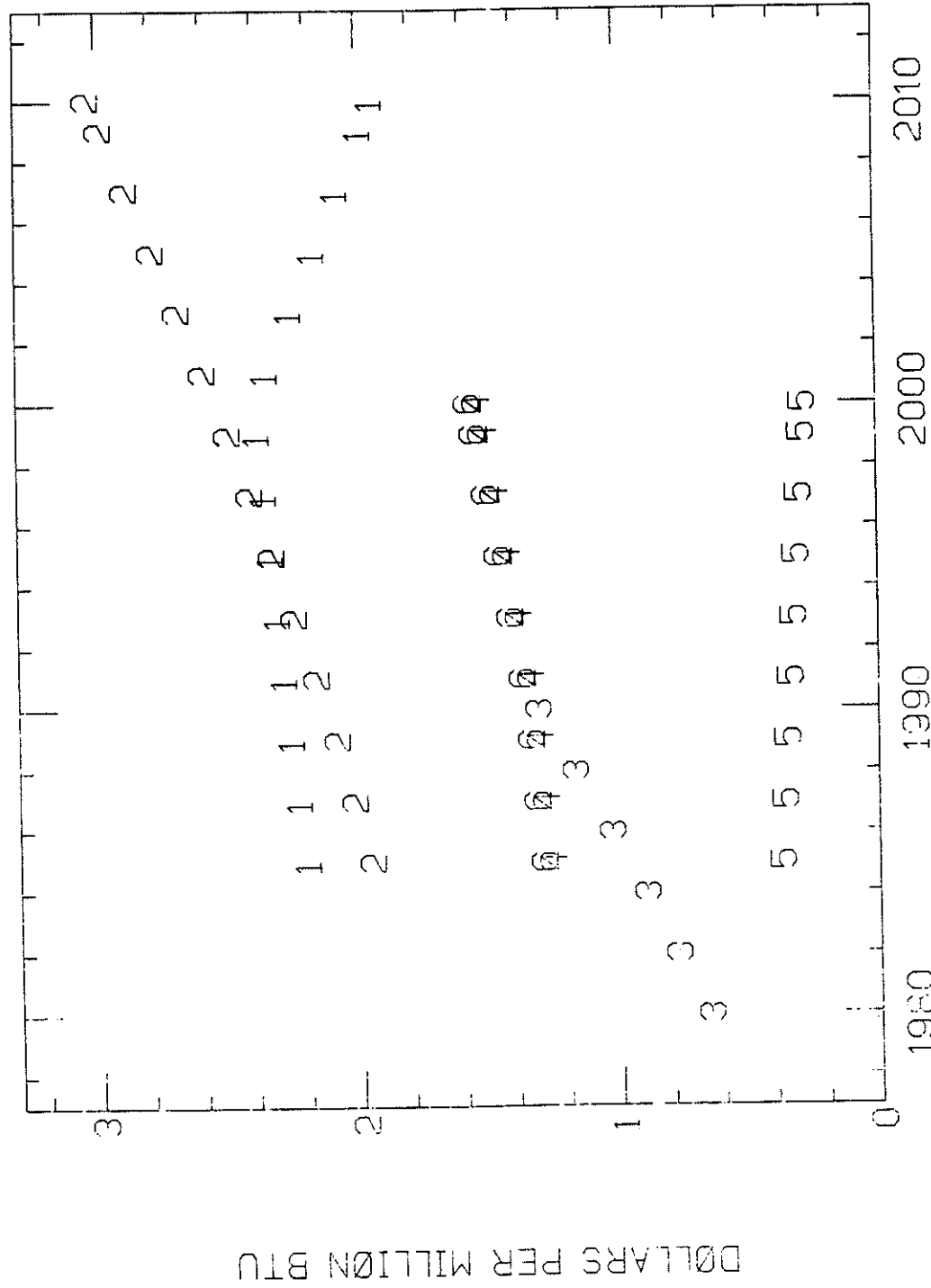


Figure F-26

# Fossil Fuel Price



SCENARIO: HIGH GROWTH CASE

Figure F-27



# FØSSIL FUEL PRICE

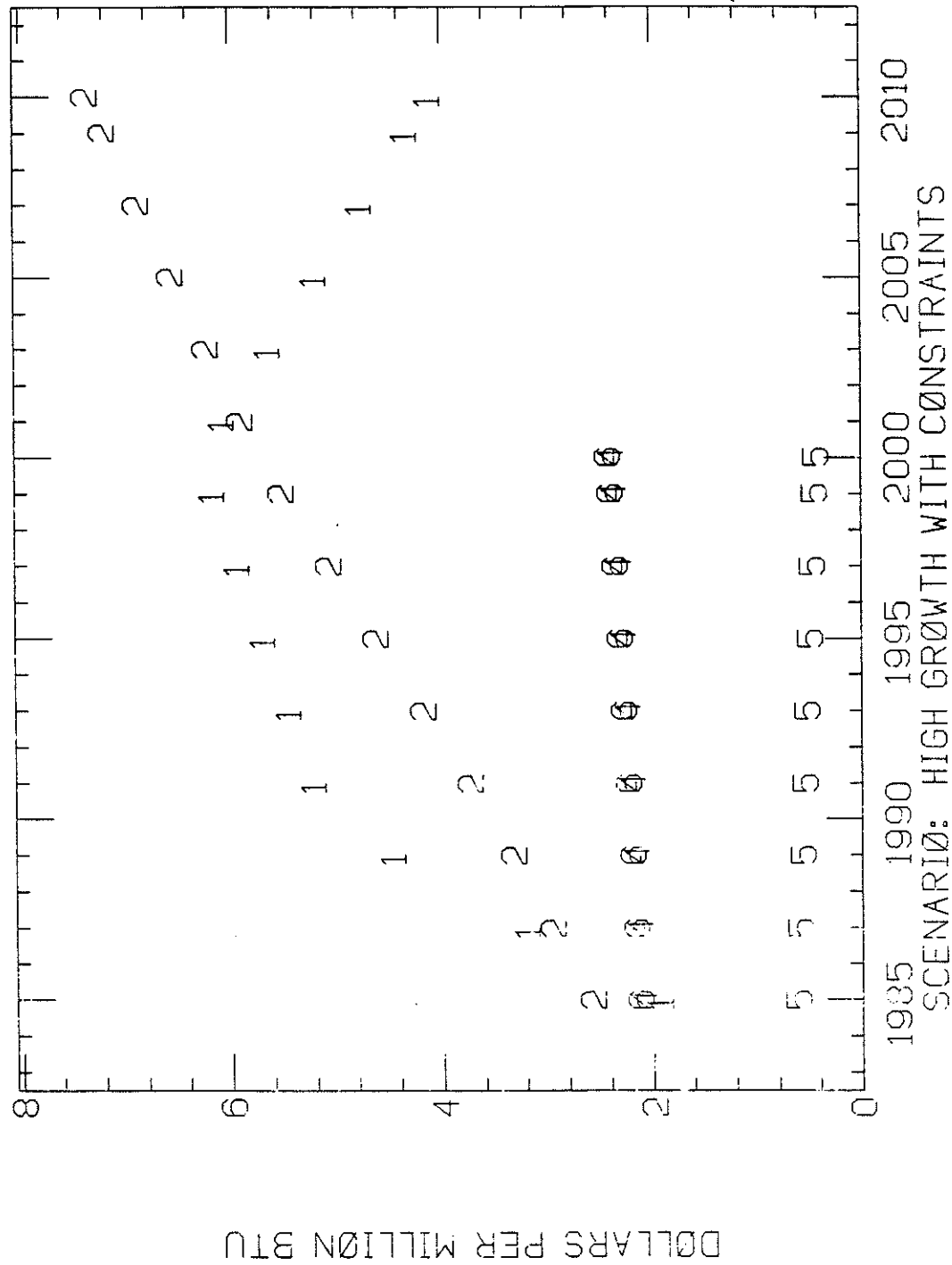


Figure F-28

# Fossil Fuel Price

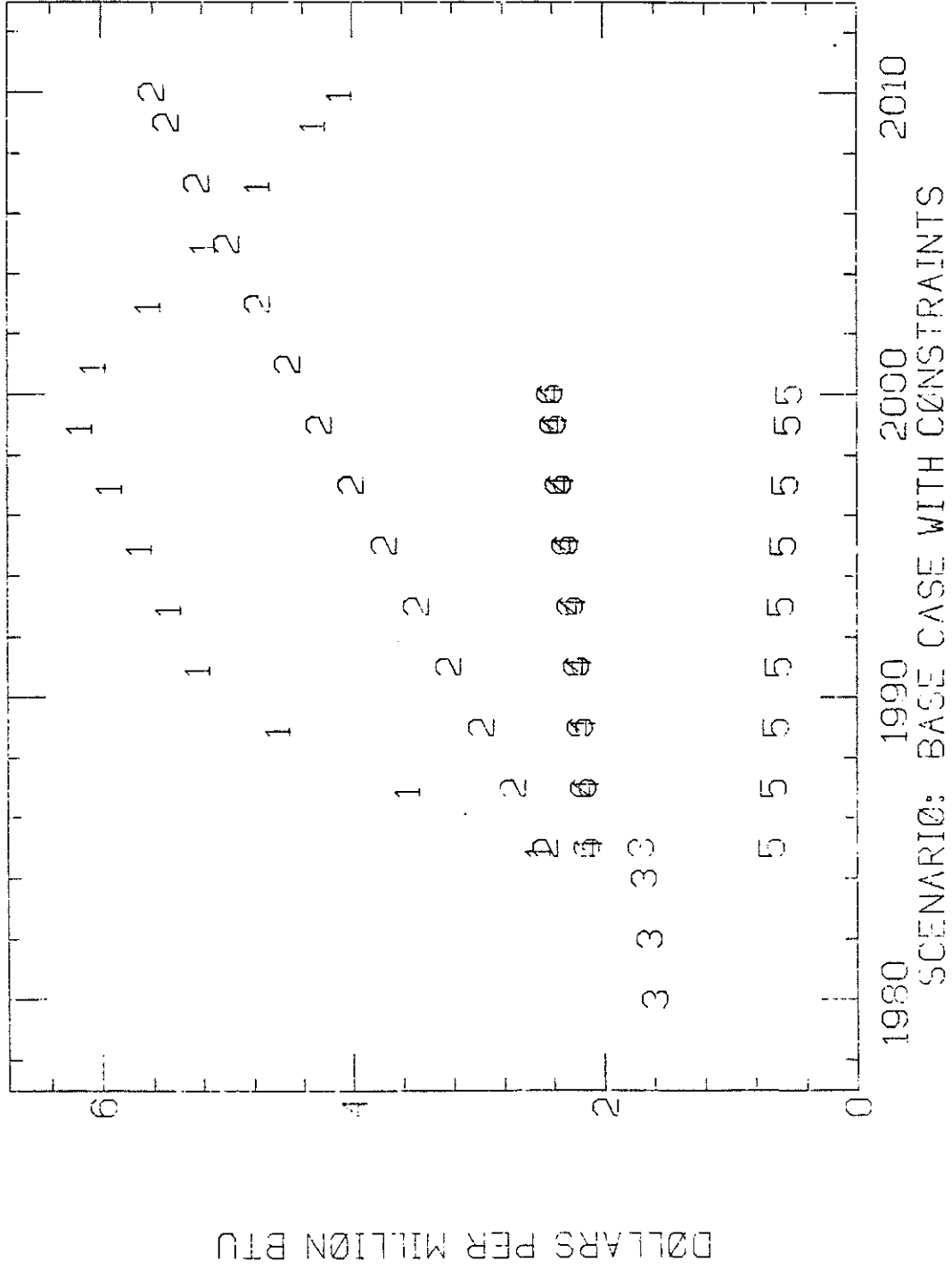


Figure F-29

ENERGY CONSUMPTION PER CAPITA

This is defined as:

$$\frac{\text{TOTAL PRIMARY ENERGY INPUT (in quads)}}{\text{POPULATION (Census Series I or II, depending on the scenario)}}$$

and is reported in million Btu per person. It is a rough measure of how individual energy use is affected by changes in energy availability and the corresponding economic responses. The Base Case uses the Census medium growth (Series II) projections; the High Growth scenario uses the Census high growth (Series I) projections. (See the exceptions noted in Section 4 of this appendix for the Hnyilicza results.)

# ENERGY CONSUMPTION PER CAPITA

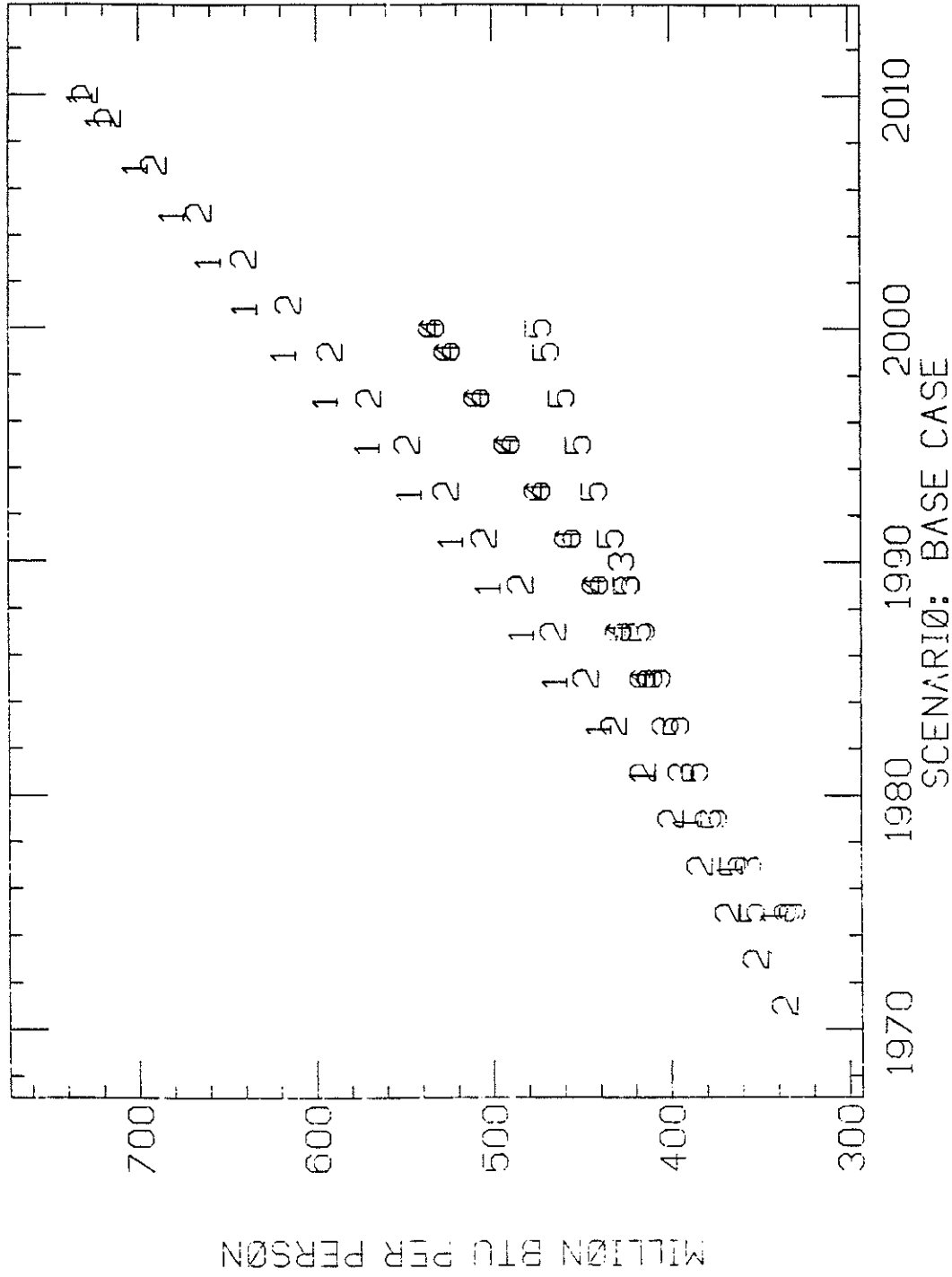
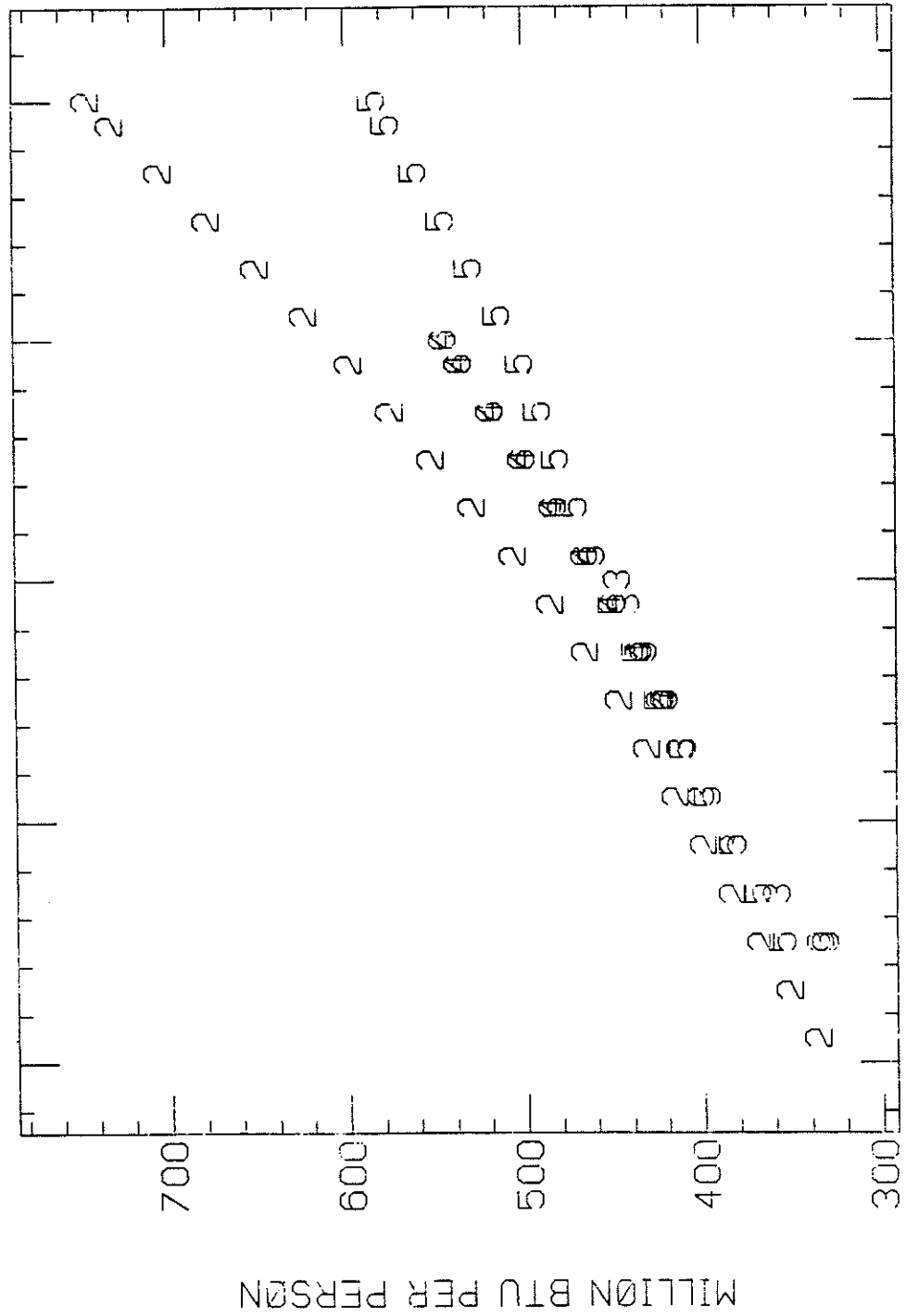


Figure F-30

# ENERGY CONSUMPTION PER CAPITA



SCENARIO: DECLINING OIL IMPORT PRICE

Figure F-31

# ENERGY CONSUMPTION PER CAPITA

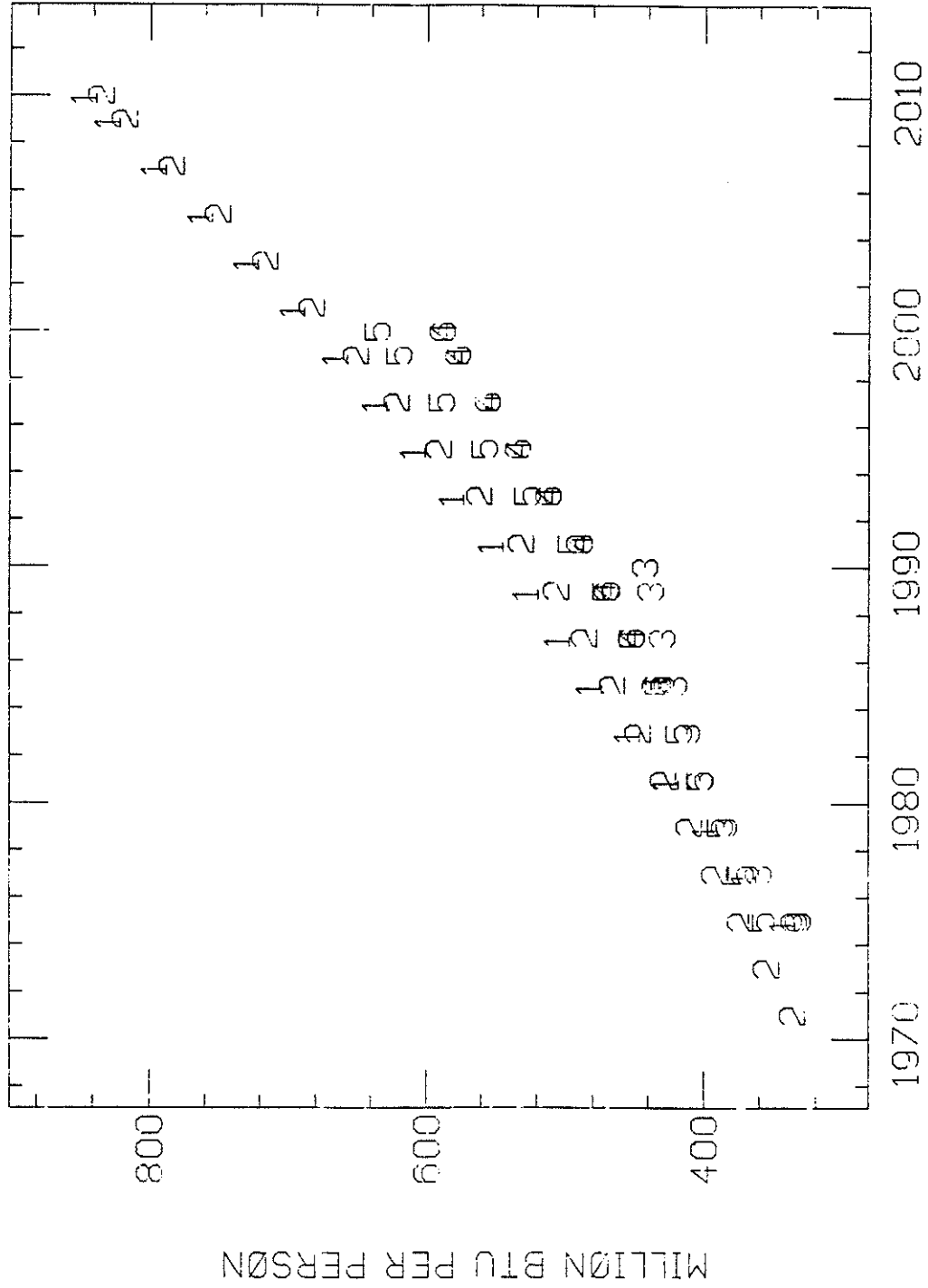
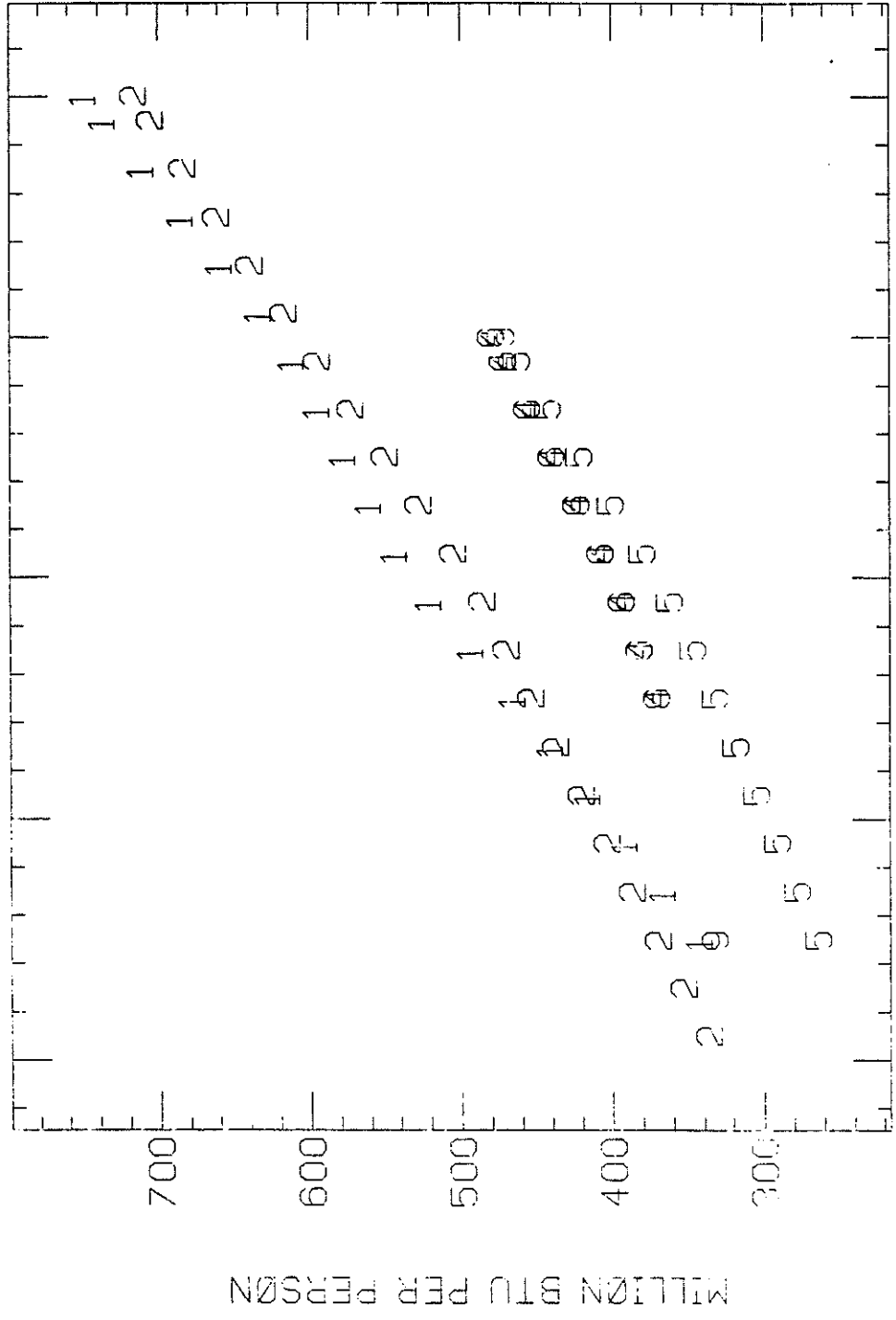


Figure F-32

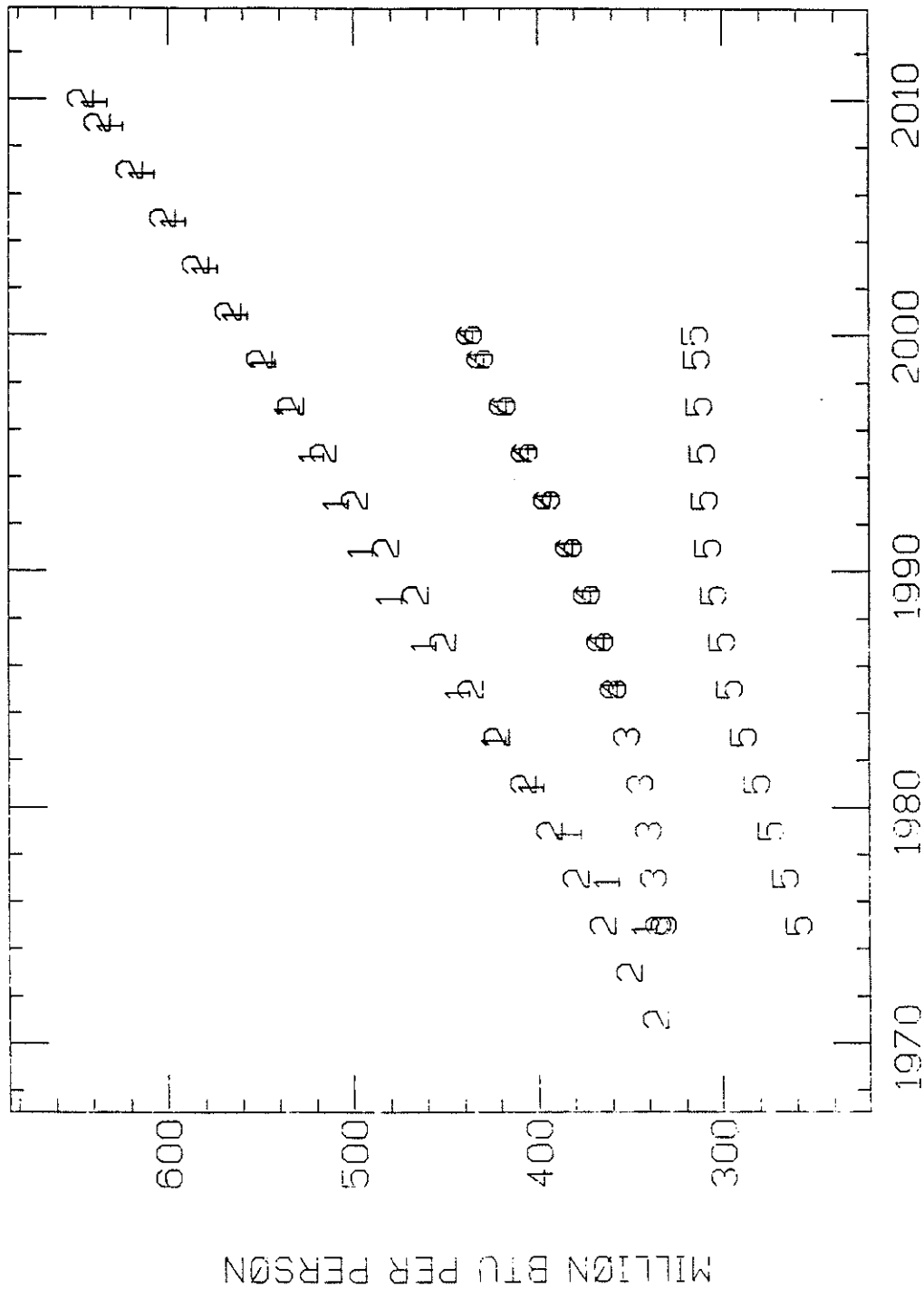
# ENERGY CONSUMPTION PER CAPITA



SCENARIO: HIGH GROWTH WITH CONSTRAINTS

Figure F-33

# ENERGY CONSUMPTION PER CAPITA



SCENARIO: BASE CASE WITH CONSTRAINTS

Figure F-34



ENERGY-GNP RATIO RANGE

This is a cross-scenario measure, defined for each model as:

$$\frac{\text{MAX (Energy-GNP Ratio)} - \text{MIN (Energy-GNP Ratio)}}{\text{Base Case Energy-GNP Ratio}}$$

This statistic is intended to highlight models with large potential variability and flexibility as those with limited changes in energy use and economic activity.

The large range for the results of Hnyilicza are established by Scenario 2, the Declining Oil Import Case. This scenario was not investigated extensively by the group. If this scenario is deleted, the range for Hnyilicza's model is cut in half and his results are closer to those of the other models with similar aggregate elasticities of substitution.



#### GNP EFFECTS OF CONSTRAINTS

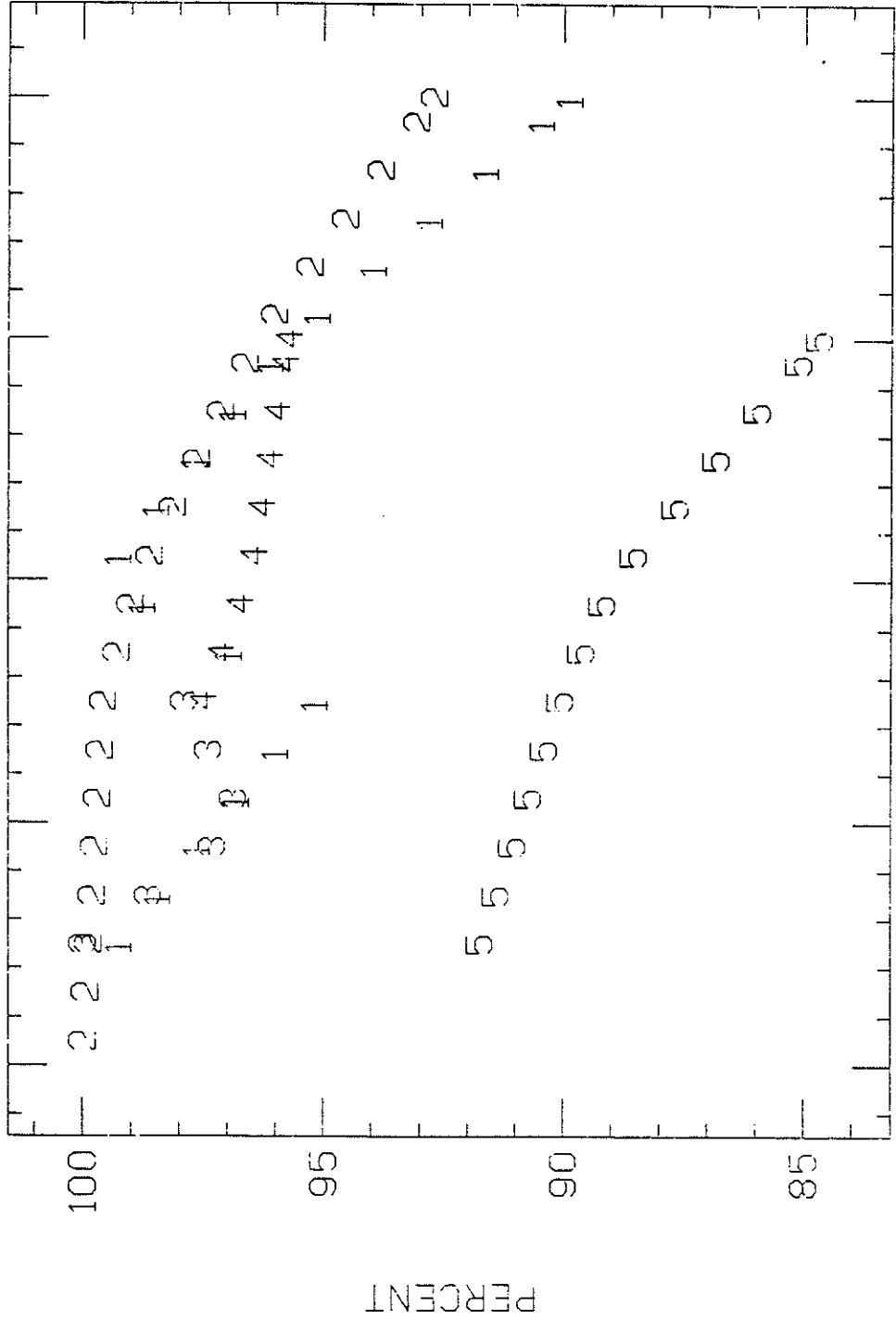
This is reported for both the Base Case and the High Growth Case and is defined as:

- $\frac{\text{GNP (Base Case with Constraints)}}{\text{GNP (Base Case)}}$
- $\frac{\text{GNP (High Growth Case with Constraints)}}{\text{GNP (High Growth Case)}}$

For individual models, the graph displays the relative effects on GNP of energy constraints or higher energy prices. This measure is not as good a cross-model comparison as intended. Unfortunately, the method for implementing the energy constraints varies significantly across models. For example, the use of taxes in the Kennedy-Niemeyer model has little impact because there is no substitution (by assumption) and, therefore, the taxes produce no reduction in energy use and little GNP effect. In contrast, PILOT enforces a direct reduction in energy use with a corresponding reduction in GNP. But with the same energy input, these two models would produce similar results. This deficiency in scenario design was noted after implementation of the tests, and could not be corrected. It indicates, however, that the comparison of elasticities of substitution is the more informative measure of the models' link between energy and the economy.

The results from Hnyilicza's model are caused by a significant reduction in capital accumulation in the presence of higher energy prices. This model result is discussed in further detail in the explanation of the comparison with the Elephant-Rabbit predictions.

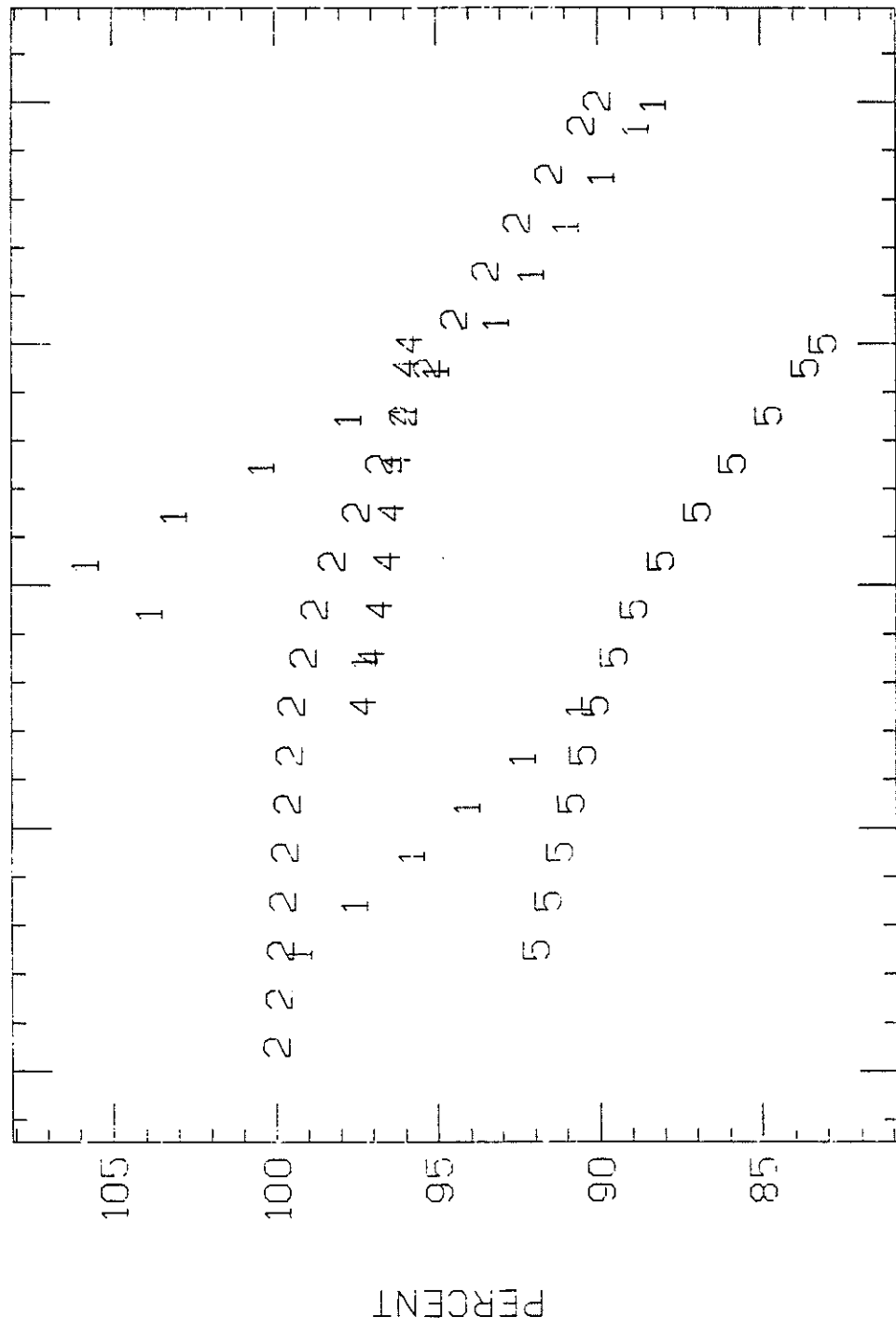
# GNP EFFECTS OF CONSTRAINTS



1970 1980 1990 2000 2010  
 SCENARIO: BASE AND BASE WITH CONSTRAINTS

Figure F-36

# GNP EFFECTS OF CONSTRAINTS



SCENARIO: HIGH GROWTH CASE

Figure F-37

#### ENERGY IMPACTS OF ECONOMIC GROWTH

This comparison plots two points for each model in terms of GNP and energy. The lower point is the result from the Base Case, the upper point is the High Growth scenario. The two points are connected by a linear interpolation.

The purpose of this comparison is to illustrate the effects of the economy on the energy sector. The primary focus of the EMF study is the feedback in the models, i.e., the effect on the economy of changes in energy prices or availability. The central issue is the degree of flexibility exhibited by the economy to substitute other factors of production for the higher priced energy. But this flexibility should not be confused with the direct effects of the economy on energy demand. In the presence of stable energy prices, increases in economic activity should produce corresponding increases in energy demand. Hence, the comparison of the Base Case and High Growth scenarios here should show upward sloping relationship. We see that all the models possess this desirable property and produce similar results.

# ENERGY IMPACTS OF ECONOMIC GROWTH

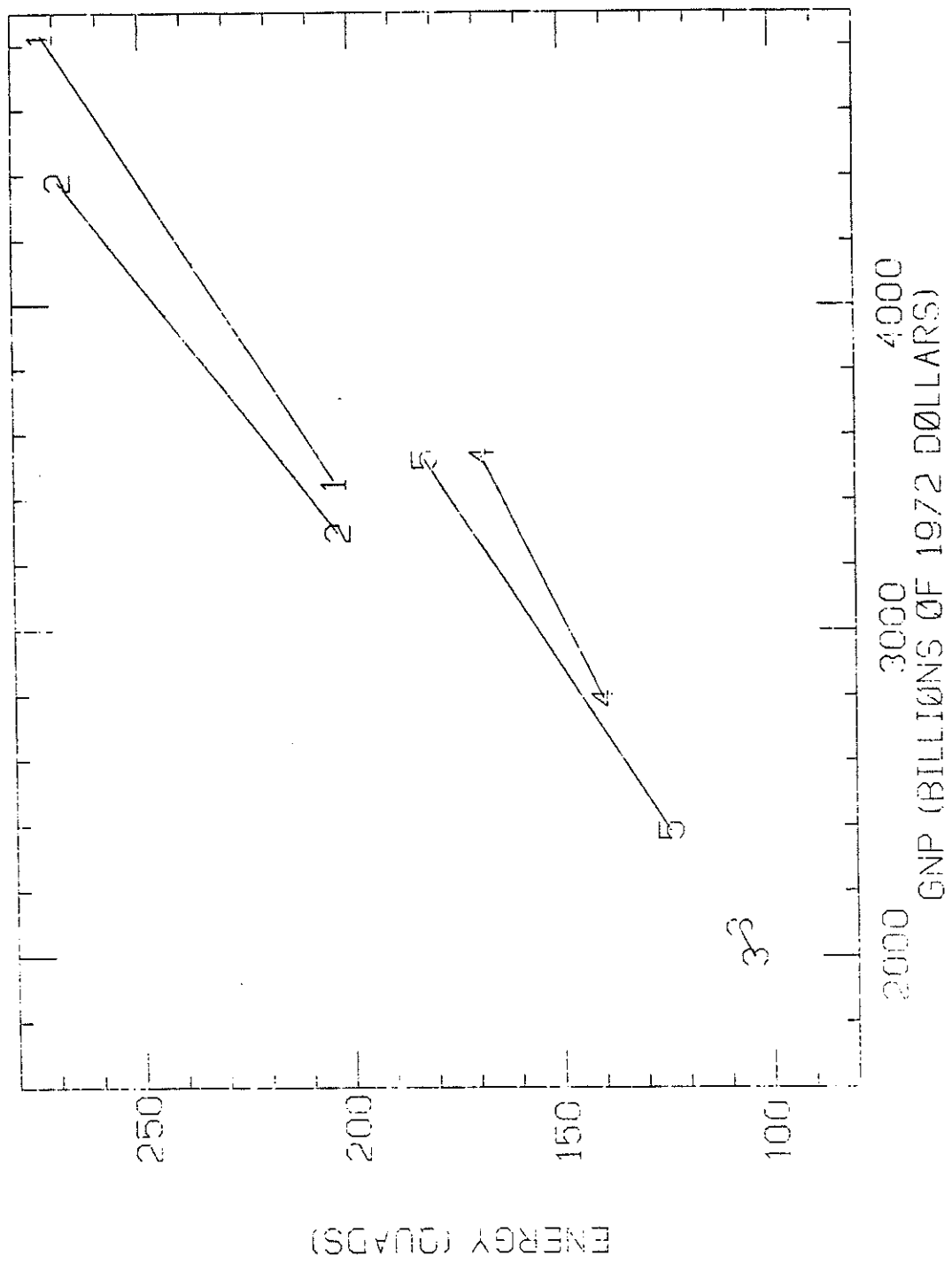


Figure F-38

#### IMPLIED INCOME ELASTICITY

The focus of the EMF comparison is on the economic effects of changed energy availability. This should not be confused with the impact of economic activity on the energy sector. In the presence of constant energy prices, higher levels of economic activity, such as through higher levels of employment, should increase energy demand. All the models share this property as illustrated by the graph on page F-77. One measure of the strength of this link is found in the implied income elasticity per capita and is defined as:

$$\eta = \frac{\delta \ln (\text{Energy per capita})}{\delta \ln (\text{GNP per capita})} .$$

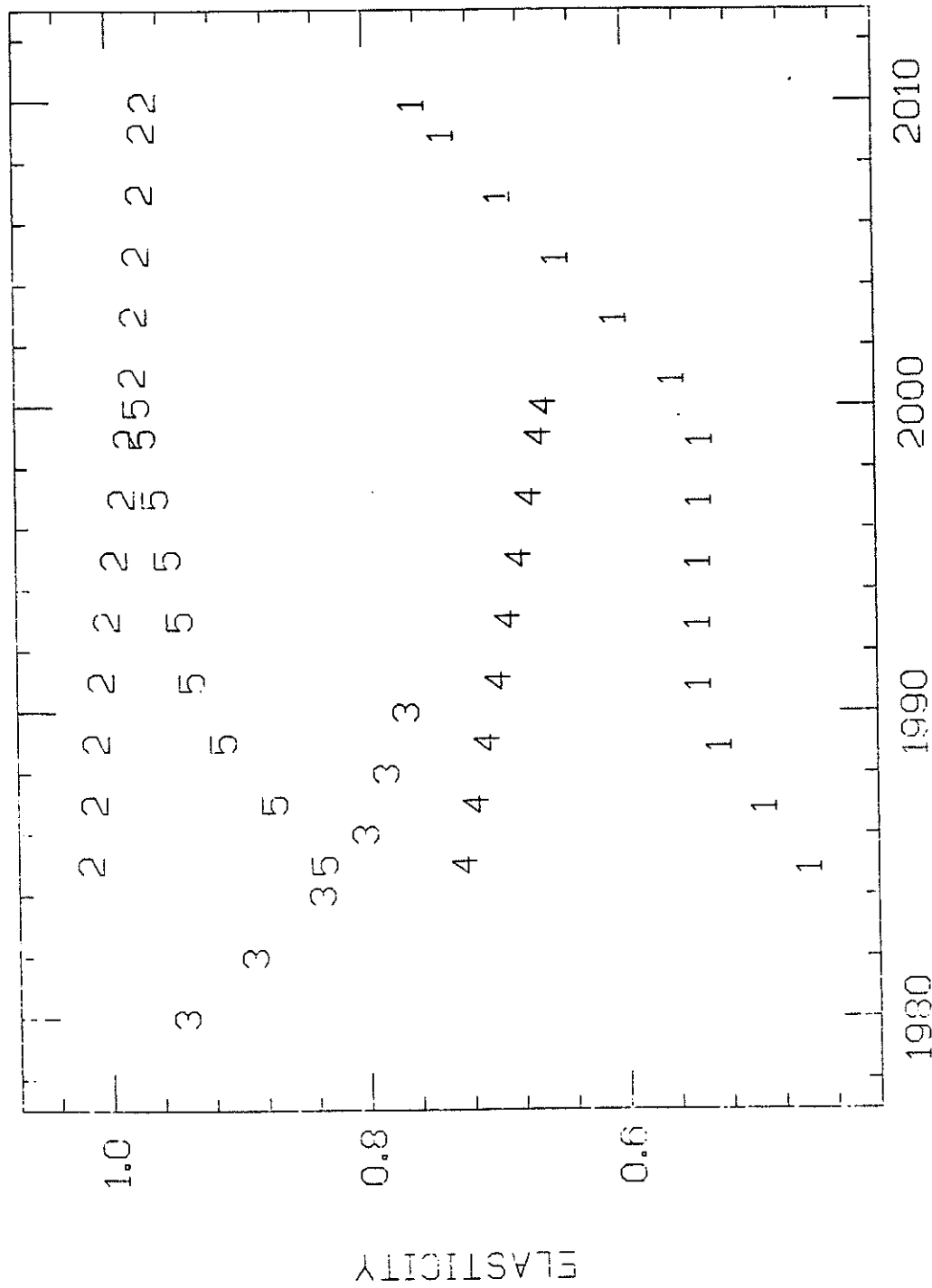
This is measured here by comparing the Base Case and High Growth scenarios for each model.

$$\eta = \frac{\ln (E_2/Pop_2) - \ln (E_1/Pop_1)}{\ln (GNP_2/Pop_2) - \ln (GNP_1/Pop_1)}$$

where     E = Total Energy  
          Pop = Population  
          GNP = Gross National Product  
          1 = Base Case Scenario  
          2 = High Growth Scenario



# IMPLIED INCOME ELASTICITY



SCENARIO: BASE AND HIGH GROWTH

Figure F-39

## ELASTICITY OF SUBSTITUTION

The elasticity of substitution is the most important statistic developed by the EMF for comparison of the different models' link between energy and the economy. The structure of the approximation and the crucial nature of the elasticity of substitution are developed in detail in Appendix B. The simple model found there assumes that the long run total nonenergy output of the economy can be approximated by a constant elasticity of substitution production function with inputs of energy and all other factors. With two explicit assumptions, the data from scenarios 1-5, and 3-4 can be used to estimate the elasticity of substitution embedded in the detailed models participating in the EMF study.

These assumptions are:

- The marginal productivity of energy in the detailed models is approximated by the derivatives of the constant elasticity production function.
- The scenarios with energy constraints or higher energy prices are equivalent to the imposition of a long run primary energy Btu tax that is redistributed to consumers.

With these assumptions, the elasticity of substitution is obtained as:

$$\sigma = - \frac{\ln (E_1 Y_2 / Y_1 E_2)}{\ln (P_1 / P_2)}$$

where

$$Y_1 = P_1 E_1 + GNP_1$$

$$Y_2 = P_1 E_2 + GNP_2$$

E = Total Energy Input

P = Fossil Fuel Price of Energy

Y = Total Output

- 1 = Base Case  
2 = Base Case with Energy Constraints
- 1 = High Growth Case  
2 = High Growth Case with Energy Constraints

In computing the elasticity of substitution for the Hudson-Jorgenson and the DRI-Brookhaven models, an ad hoc correction has been made. These models imposed the higher energy prices by adding a \$1 Btu tax to delivered energy, in particular, to delivered electricity. But our assumptions imply the tax is on the fuels used for electricity. This would make a difference of a factor of 3.0 in the magnitude of the primary energy tax. The ad hoc correction approximates the energy level which would occur if the tax were placed on all primary energy. This increases the long run elasticity estimate from 0.35 to 0.49. The higher figure should be an overestimate of the true elasticity embedded in the models. The details of this correction are found in the attached Technical Memo EMF-TM-77-1.5.

SUBJECT: CORRECTION OF ELASTICITY ESTIMATES IN  
HUDSON-JORGENSON RESULTS  
AUTHOR: William W. Hogan

EMF TECHNICAL MEMO-77-1.5  
DATE: 5/31/77

Notation: Subscripts 1 and 2 refer to the base case and base case with tax; P, the price of energy; E, the primary energy input; x, the portion of the input for nonelectric purposes; and  $y = E - x$ .

Normally, we follow the Elephant-Rabbit paradigm and (assuming all taxes are rebated) define,

$$Y_i = GNP_i + P_1 E_i \quad i = 1, 2.$$

Then,

$$\sigma = -\ln(E_1 Y_2 / Y_1 E_2) / \ln(P_1 / P_2) \quad .$$

This assumes the tax is imposed on primary energy input. But the Hudson-Jorgenson model set the tax on delivered energy. Hence, electricity is overrepresented in E and this biases the calculation of  $\sigma$ .

There are a number of reasonable adjustments to propose to correct for this bias. I recommend the following:

To first order, the GNP should remain constant if the delivered energy remains constant. As we raise the price of delivered electricity (from \$1.00/10<sup>6</sup> Btu tax to \$3.00/10<sup>6</sup> Btu to correct for efficiency) there will be a reduction in electricity demand and an increase in nonelectric demand. If delivered energy remains constant, this produces a 2 quad drop in E for each end use quad shifted. If we further assume that this shift continues until the reductions in x and y are proportionally equal, we have a means for obtaining a corrected estimate of  $\sigma$ .

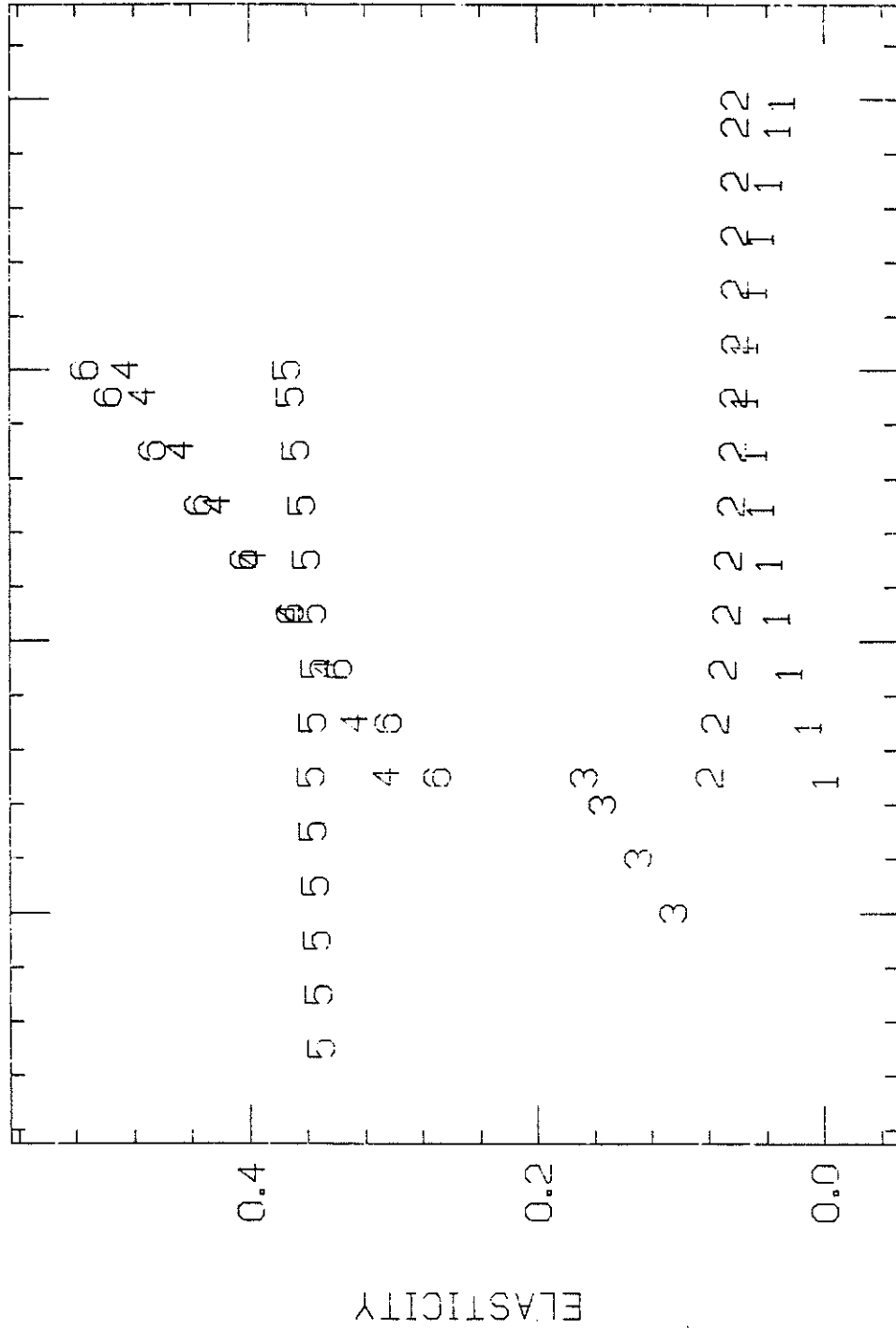
The bias in the resulting calculation of total energy could go either way, but should be small. The bias in the GNP is positive and thereby overstates  $\sigma$ , but I think the error should be small there too.

Hence, for  $x_i, y_i$ , I propose to calculate a shift from electric to nonelectric of  $\Delta$  such that

$$\frac{x_2 + 1/3\Delta}{x_1} = \frac{y_2 - \Delta}{y_1}, \quad \text{therefore} \quad \Delta = \frac{x_1 y_2 - y_1 x_2}{x_1 + 1/3 y_1}$$

Then let  $\hat{E}_2 = E_2 - 2/3\Delta$  and use  $\hat{E}_2$  in the place of  $E_2$  to calculate  $\sigma$ , but with the same assumption on the primary price of energy (where we use the average fossil fuel price).

# ELASTICITY OF SUBSTITUTION



1980 1990 2000 2010  
 SCENARIO: BASE AND BASE WITH CONSTRAINTS

Figure F-40



#### ELEPHANT-RABBIT COMPARISON

The main body of this report and the comparison of the models rely heavily on the highly stylized view of the world found in the simple two factor Elephant-Rabbit model as presented in Appendix B. The appeal of this model is found in its simplicity and the transparent role of the value share and elasticity of substitution in determining the link between the energy sector and the remainder of the economy. The value of the simplification rests in part on the degree of faithfulness in representing the detailed models when examining the same relationship. The detailed models can address many questions, but the simple model can address only one, the link between total energy and the total economy. In these graphs, we compare the results of the Elephant-Rabbit model to those of the detailed systems in addressing the impact of a higher price for all primary energy.

Using the implied elasticity of substitution for each model, the actual reduction of GNP for the Tax Scenario vs the Base Case is shown along with two predictions based on the simple approximation developed in Appendix B.

The upper line in each case is the prediction obtained by assuming that capital and labor remain constant but energy use is reduced. The lower line results from holding labor constant and allowing capital to change so as to hold its marginal productivity constant.

In all cases but one, the experiment with constant marginal productivity of capital produces a good approximation to the aggregate results of detailed models. The one exception is for the comparison of Hnyilicza's output. This anomaly has not been resolved, but one test was conducted to identify the source of the deviation.

The structure of Hnyilicza's model permits control over the accumulation of capital and wealth before implementing the Btu tax. A test scenario with the same capital and wealth inputs as the Base Case but the energy tax in the year 2000 only was conducted. This produced a drop in energy input of 6.1% and GNP of only 3.2%, in closer agreement with the predictions of the simple Elephant-Rabbit model. The apparent failure of the simple model is in capturing the more complex dynamic relations in Hnyilicza's system.

SUBJECT: SPECIAL TAX SCENARIO WITH HNYILICZA'S MODEL      EMF TECHNICAL MEMO-77-1.4  
 AUTHOR: William W. Hogan      DATE: 5/31/77

Hnyilicza's model is the only system with GNP reductions from the Btu tax differing substantially from the aggregate predictions of the simple framework developed in the Elephant-Rabbit model. This anomaly has not been resolved fully, but one special scenario offers some insight as to the possible cause of the difference.

All the Btu tax or energy constraint scenarios assume the tax exists over a number of years, long enough for the full effect of the tax to work through the system. In Hnyilicza's model, all dynamic effects are captured by changes in capital accumulation and wealth, but for a fixed level of capital and wealth input the remainder of the model adjusts to the long run equilibrium each year. This property of the model permits a simple test of the response to energy taxes if all capital investment is held constant. We impose the tax in the target year only. The capital and wealth input is then the same as the base case, and the long run response to the direct changes in energy is revealed.

This special scenario was implemented by Hnyilicza with his model. The results for the year 2000 are shown in Table 1.

Table 1  
 HNYILICZA SPECIAL SCENARIO  
 ECONOMIC IMPACT IN YEAR 2000

	<u>Base Case</u>	<u>Tax in All Years</u>	<u>Tax in 2000 Only</u>
GNP (1958 \$)	1576.00	1335.00	1526.00
Energy Input (Quads)	124.30	82.75	107.30
Price of Primary Energy (\$58/10 <sup>6</sup> Btu)	.19	.36	.29
Capital in Energy Sector (INDEX)	26.15	22.22	26.15
Capital in Nonenergy Sector (INDEX)	34.67	29.80	34.67
Implied Elasticity of Substitution Relative to Base Case		-.37	-.27



These results indicate that the source of the deviation in the actual results versus the simple forecast must be found in the more complex dynamic effects on capital formation. When capital formation is held constant, the aggregate results of Hnyilicza's model conform closely to the prediction of the simpler framework with the appropriate elasticity of substitution.

Further note that when capital is permitted to adjust endogenously, the reduction in capital input matches the reduction in output.

# ELEPHANT-RABBIT COMPARISON

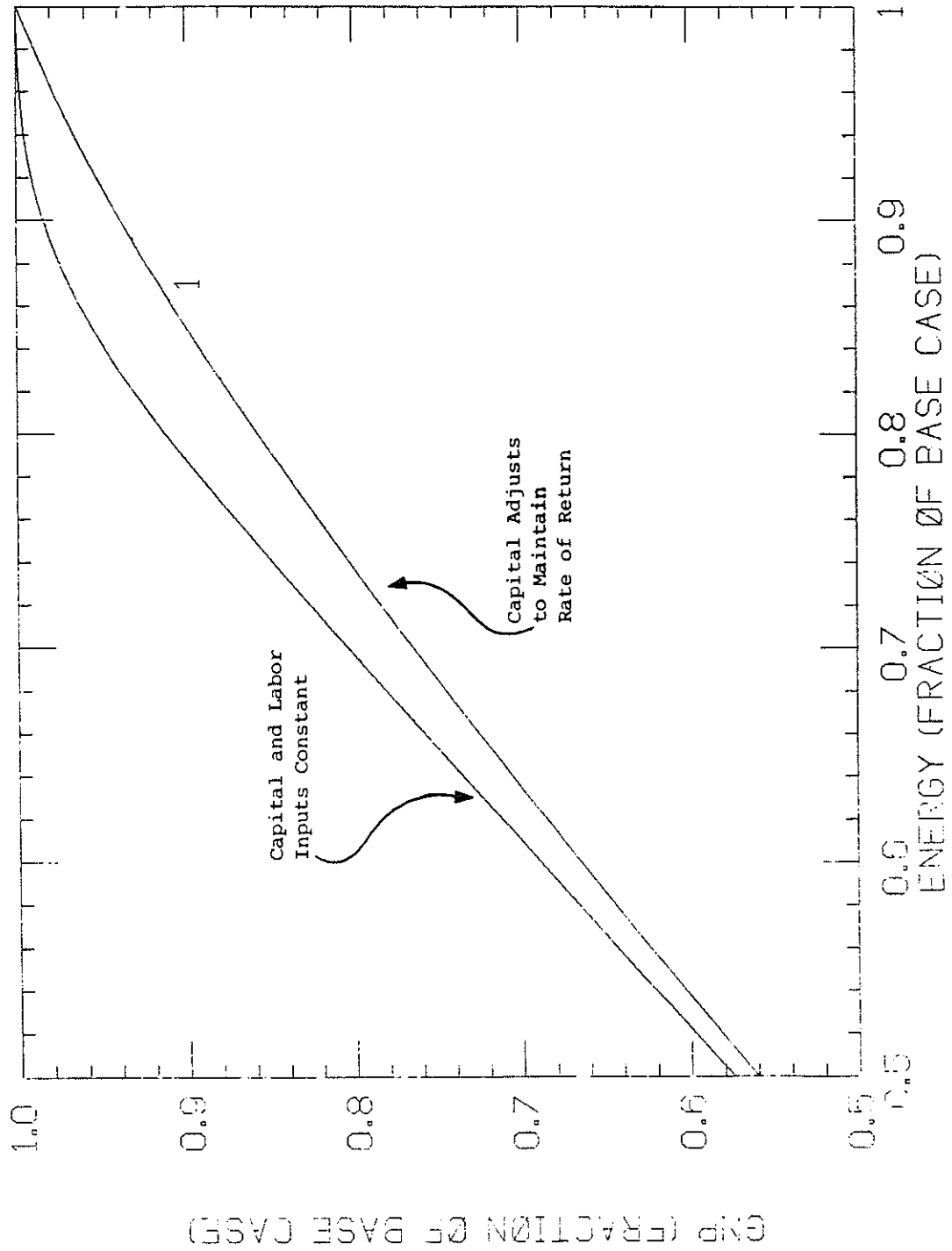


Figure F-42. PILOT MODEL

# ELEPHANT-RABBIT COMPARISON

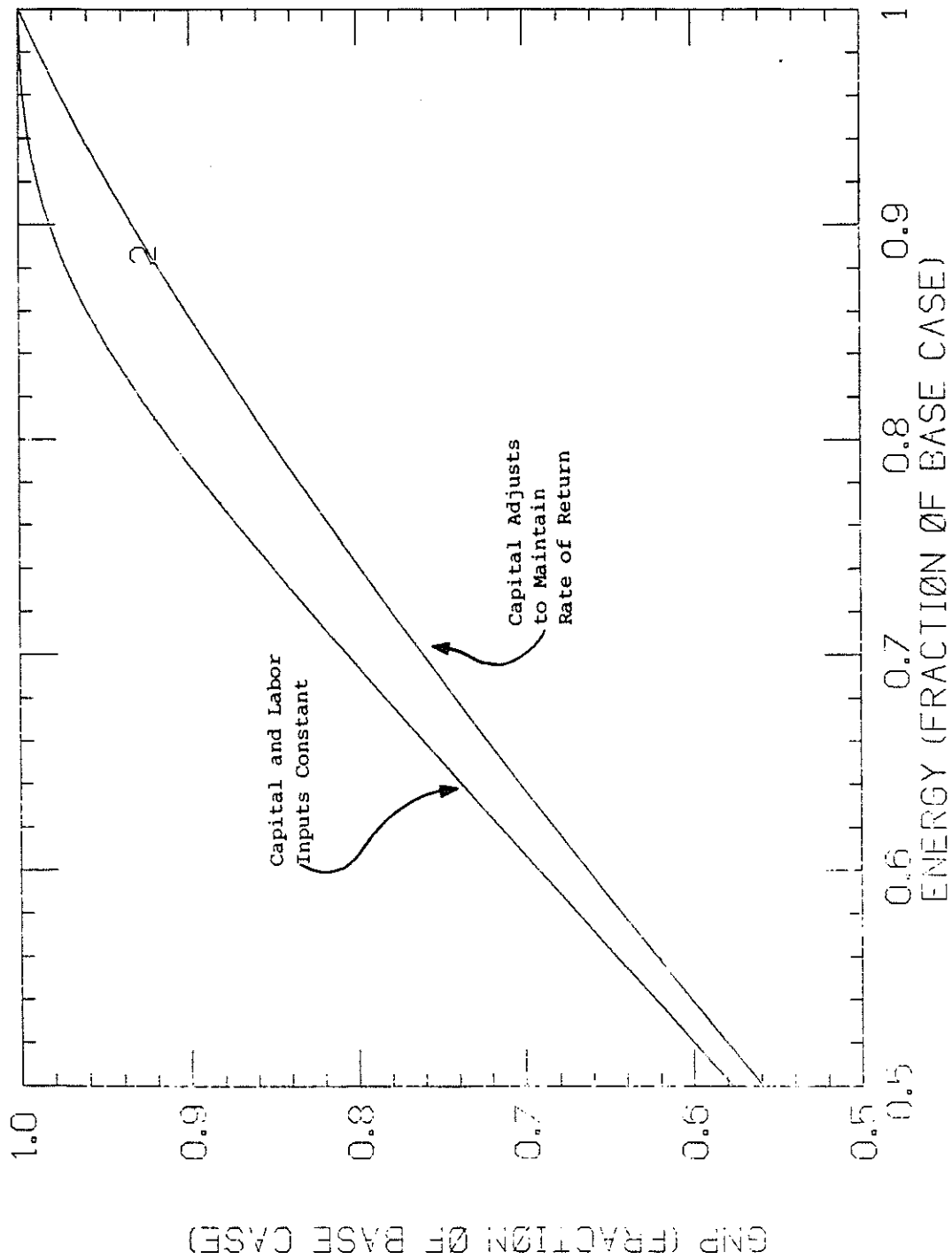


Figure F-43. KENNEDY-NIEMEYER MODEL

# ELEPHANT-RABBIT COMPARISON

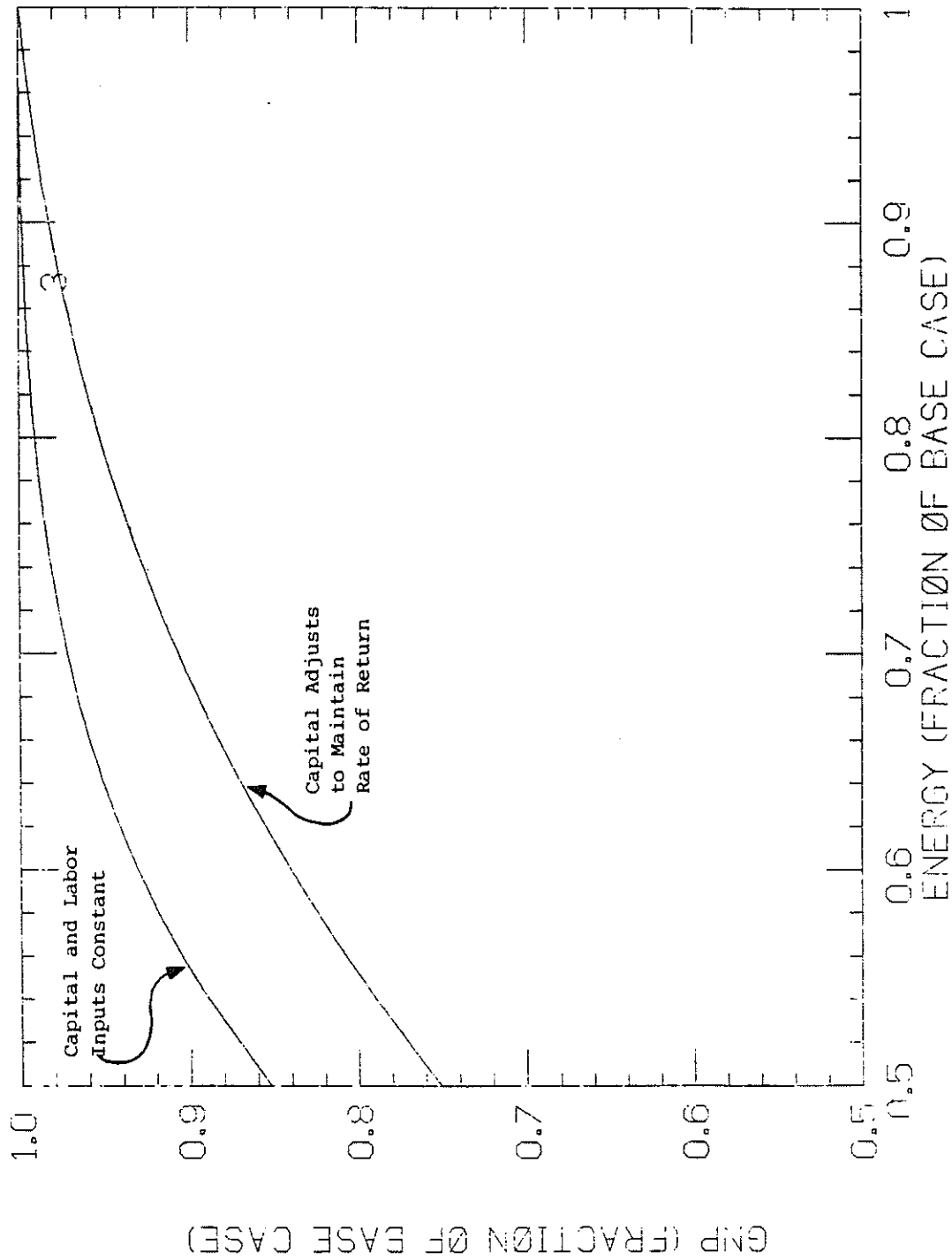


Figure F-44. WHARTON MODEL

# ELEPHANT-RABBIT COMPARISON

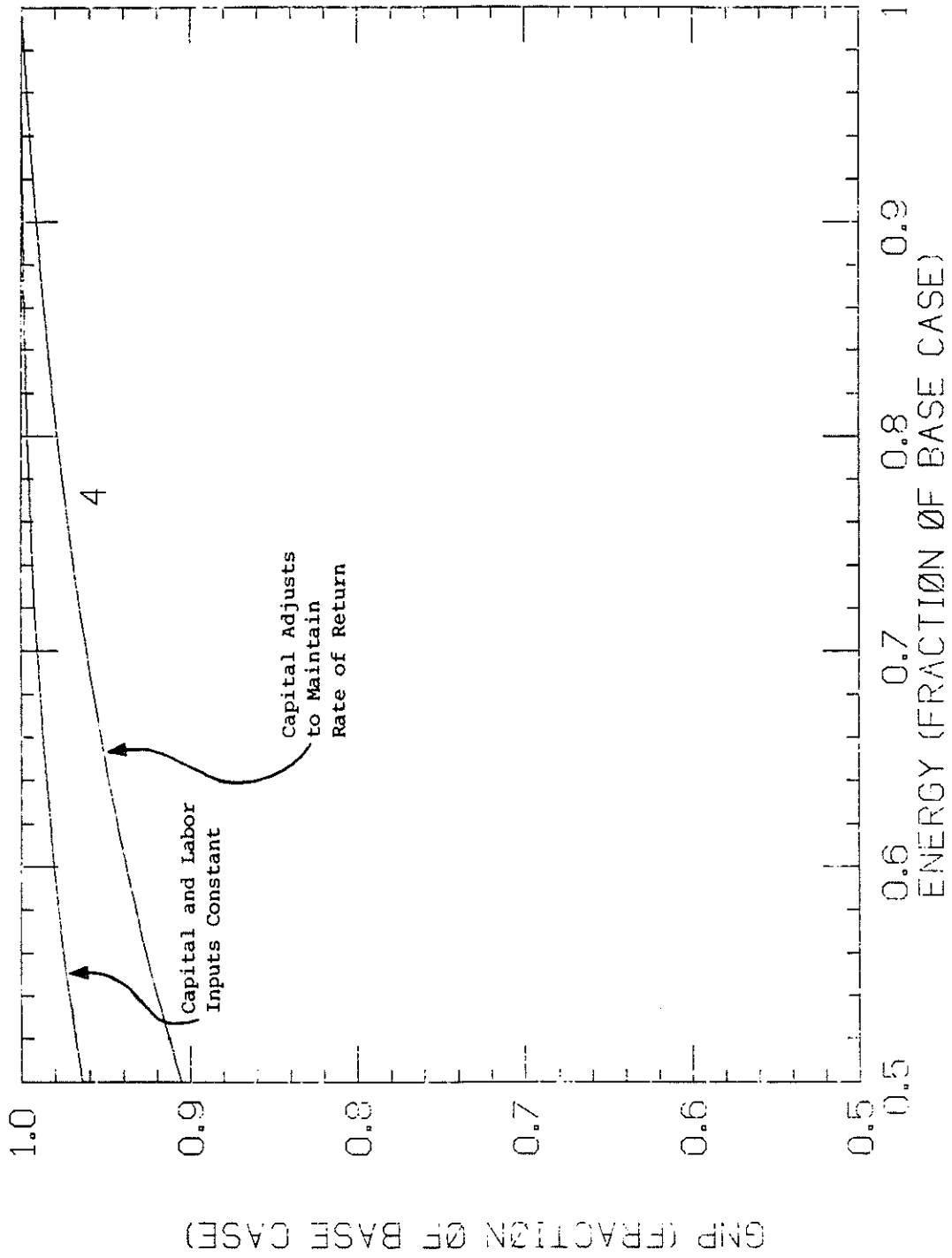


Figure F-45. HUDSON-JORGENSEN MODEL

# ELEPHANT-RABBIT COMPARISON

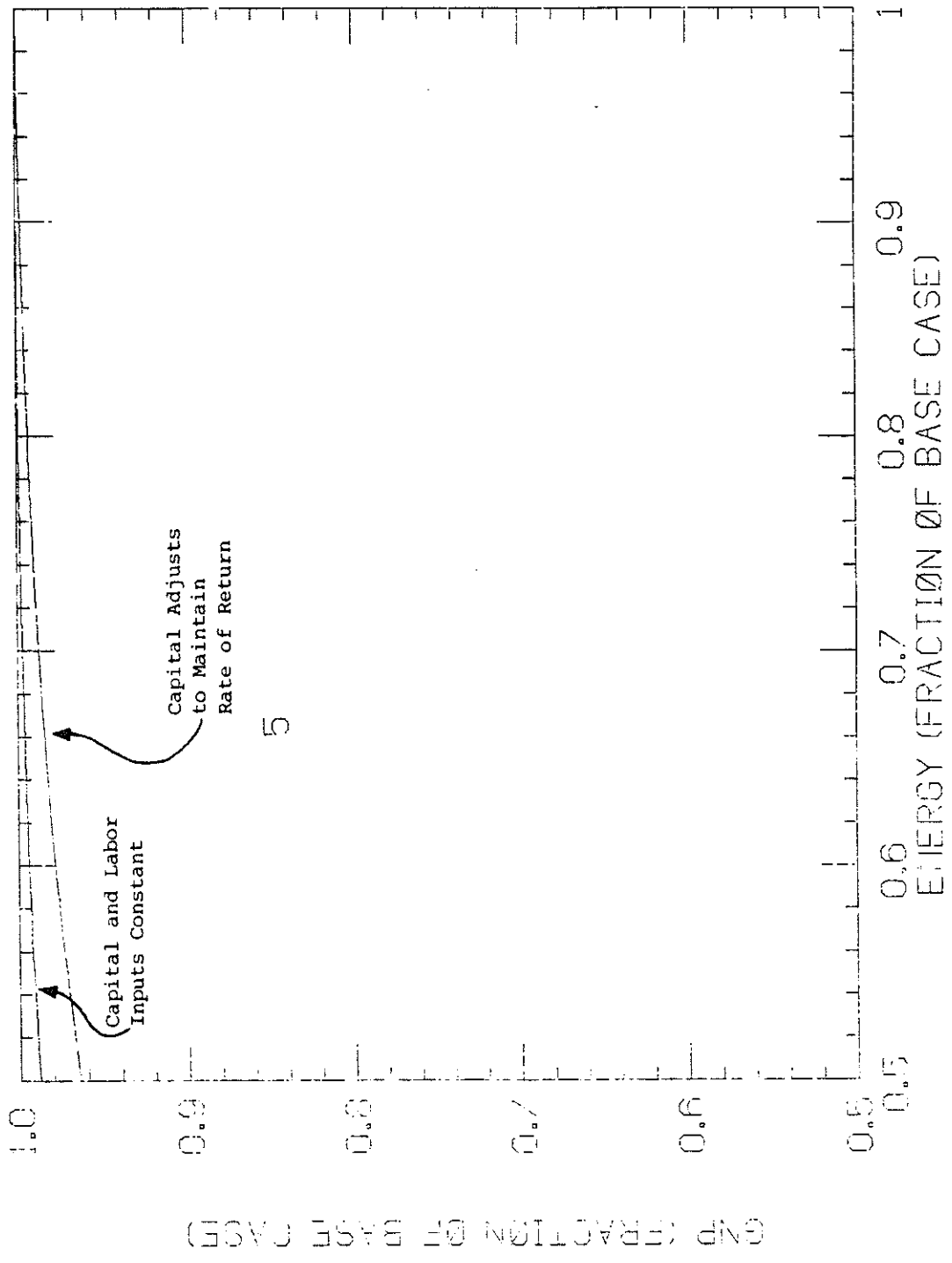


Figure F-46. HNYLICZA MODEL

# ELEPHANT-RABBIT COMPARISON

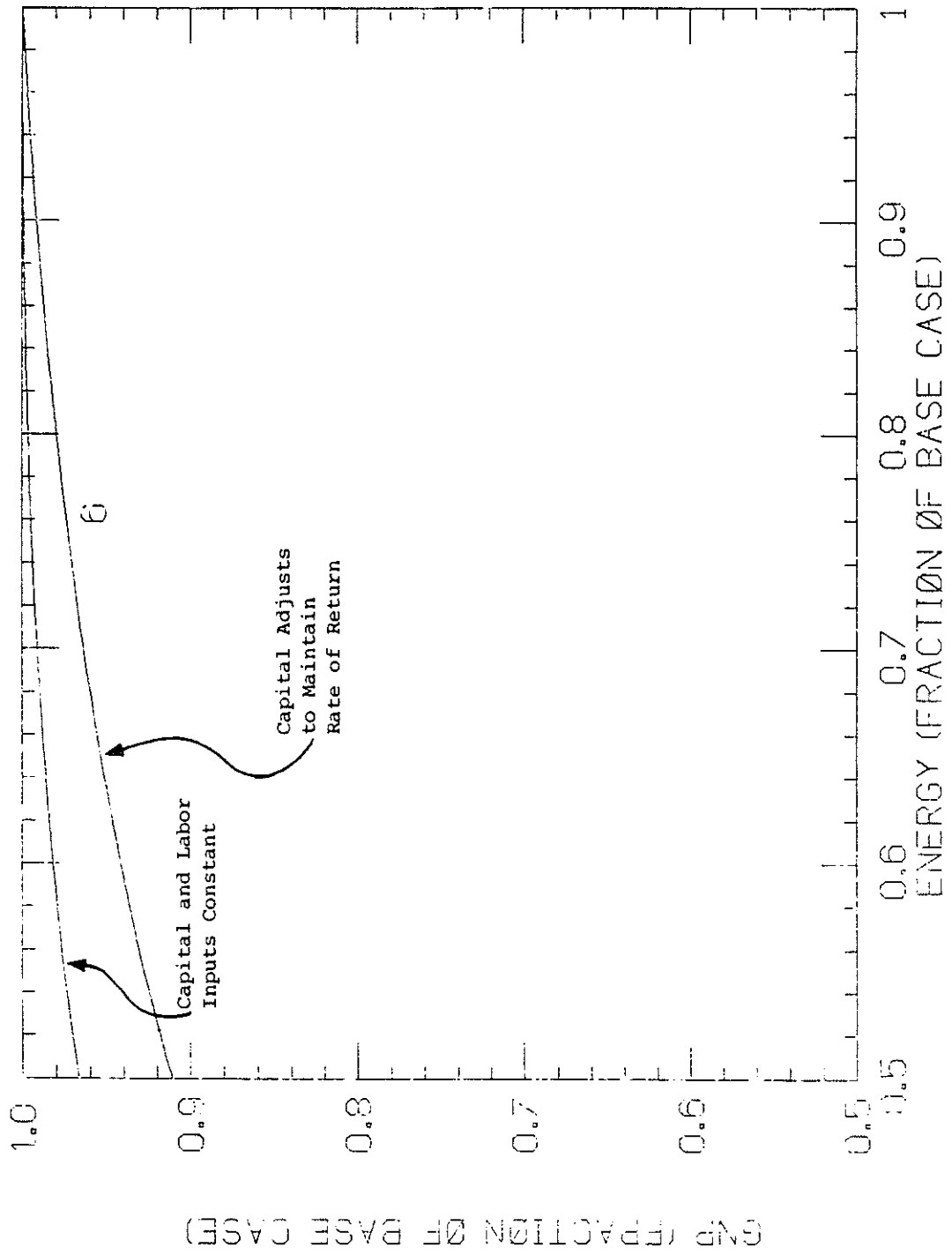


Figure F-47. DRI-BROOKHAVEN MODEL

## Section 6

### COMPUTER PRINTOUTS

This section contains the full results of scenario runs from various models. Modelers were asked to submit information using EMF designed forms for the essential variables. In some cases, differences in definitions or aggregation levels prevent reporting of comparable detail. For these cases, the modelers provided information on the aggregates or close surrogates. Major discrepancies are cited in the footnotes.



MODEL	PLANT	SCENARIO: BASE CASE				1975 ACTUALS	1975*	1985*	1990*	2000*	2010*
		1975 ACTUALS									
MACRO-ECONOMIC ACTIVITY (CONSTANT 1972 \$)	CONSUMPTION	770,300	770,300	1189,900	1355,100	1730,800	2125,400	2520,200	2915,000	3309,800	
	GOVERNMENT DOMESTIC INVESTMENT	129,700	129,700	215,300	255,300	451,500	581,500	711,500	841,500	971,500	
	GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES	129,700	129,700	215,300	255,300	451,500	581,500	711,500	841,500	971,500	
	PRIVATE DOMESTIC INVESTMENT	107,000	107,000	184,000	217,000	382,000	487,000	592,000	707,000	812,000	
	GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES	22,500	22,500	37,000	42,000	72,000	87,000	102,000	117,000	132,000	
	EXPENDITURES	64,100	64,100	106,000	121,000	207,000	252,000	297,000	342,000	387,000	
	GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES	64,100	64,100	106,000	121,000	207,000	252,000	297,000	342,000	387,000	
	EXPENDITURES	57,400	57,400	94,000	107,000	182,000	222,000	262,000	302,000	342,000	
	GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES	1191,700	1191,700	1832,300	2132,300	3456,500	4156,500	4856,500	5556,500	6256,500	
	EXPENDITURES	1191,700	1191,700	1832,300	2132,300	3456,500	4156,500	4856,500	5556,500	6256,500	
MINERALS, FUEL, AND CONSTRUCTION (CONSTANT 1972 \$)	CONSTRUCTION	104,600	104,600	134,600	134,600	134,600	134,600	134,600	134,600	134,600	
	CONSTRUCTION	262,900	262,900	332,900	332,900	332,900	332,900	332,900	332,900	332,900	
	CONSTRUCTION	429,300	429,300	529,300	529,300	529,300	529,300	529,300	529,300	529,300	
	CONSTRUCTION	721,200	721,200	821,200	821,200	821,200	821,200	821,200	821,200	821,200	
	CONSTRUCTION	1139,000	1139,000	1339,000	1339,000	1339,000	1339,000	1339,000	1339,000	1339,000	
	CONSTRUCTION	279,700	279,700	329,700	329,700	329,700	329,700	329,700	329,700	329,700	
	CONSTRUCTION	292,300	292,300	342,300	342,300	342,300	342,300	342,300	342,300	342,300	
	CONSTRUCTION	538,000	538,000	638,000	638,000	638,000	638,000	638,000	638,000	638,000	
	CONSTRUCTION	914,900	914,900	1014,900	1014,900	1014,900	1014,900	1014,900	1014,900	1014,900	
	CONSTRUCTION	2213,200	2213,200	2613,200	2613,200	2613,200	2613,200	2613,200	2613,200	2613,200	
TOTAL DOMESTIC GROSS OUTPUT (CONSTANT 1972 \$)	OUTPUT	1,077	1,077	1,599	1,599	2,121	2,121	2,121	2,121	2,121	
	OUTPUT	1,099	1,099	1,621	1,621	2,143	2,143	2,143	2,143	2,143	
	OUTPUT	0,977	0,977	1,499	1,499	2,021	2,021	2,021	2,021	2,021	
	OUTPUT	5,500	5,500	7,500	7,500	9,500	9,500	9,500	9,500	9,500	
	OUTPUT	13,376	13,376	18,376	18,376	23,376	23,376	23,376	23,376	23,376	
	OUTPUT	19,070	19,070	26,070	26,070	33,070	33,070	33,070	33,070	33,070	
	OUTPUT	18,952	18,952	25,952	25,952	32,952	32,952	32,952	32,952	32,952	
	OUTPUT	3,159	3,159	4,159	4,159	5,159	5,159	5,159	5,159	5,159	
	OUTPUT	17,719	17,719	24,719	24,719	31,719	31,719	31,719	31,719	31,719	
	OUTPUT	71,079	71,079	98,079	98,079	125,079	125,079	125,079	125,079	125,079	
DOMESTIC ENERGY PRODUCTION BY SOURCE NET OF EXPORTS (QUADS)	COAL	13,376	13,376	13,376	13,376	13,376	13,376	13,376	13,376	13,376	
	NATURAL GAS	19,070	19,070	19,070	19,070	19,070	19,070	19,070	19,070	19,070	
	OIL AND NGL	18,952	18,952	18,952	18,952	18,952	18,952	18,952	18,952	18,952	
	NUCLEAR	3,159	3,159	3,159	3,159	3,159	3,159	3,159	3,159	3,159	
	HYDRO	17,719	17,719	17,719	17,719	17,719	17,719	17,719	17,719	17,719	
	SOLAR (ELECTRIC AND HEATING)	71,079	71,079	71,079	71,079	71,079	71,079	71,079	71,079	71,079	
	OTHER (HEATING, OTHER THERMAL, WIND)	13,376	13,376	13,376	13,376	13,376	13,376	13,376	13,376	13,376	
	OTHER (ELECTRIC, WIND, GEOTHERMAL, WAVE)	19,070	19,070	19,070	19,070	19,070	19,070	19,070	19,070	19,070	
	OTHER (ELECTRIC, WIND, GEOTHERMAL, WAVE)	18,952	18,952	18,952	18,952	18,952	18,952	18,952	18,952	18,952	
	OTHER (ELECTRIC, WIND, GEOTHERMAL, WAVE)	3,159	3,159	3,159	3,159	3,159	3,159	3,159	3,159	3,159	
TOTAL ENERGY INPUTS (QUADS)	INPUTS	30,400	30,400	30,400	30,400	30,400	30,400	30,400	30,400	30,400	
	INPUTS	44,500	44,500	44,500	44,500	44,500	44,500	44,500	44,500	44,500	
	INPUTS	9,000	9,000	9,000	9,000	9,000	9,000	9,000	9,000	9,000	
	INPUTS	15,900	15,900	15,900	15,900	15,900	15,900	15,900	15,900	15,900	
	INPUTS	0,630	0,630	0,630	0,630	0,630	0,630	0,630	0,630	0,630	
	INPUTS	0,740	0,740	0,740	0,740	0,740	0,740	0,740	0,740	0,740	
	INPUTS	8,100	8,100	8,100	8,100	8,100	8,100	8,100	8,100	8,100	
	INPUTS	21,220	21,220	21,220	21,220	21,220	21,220	21,220	21,220	21,220	
	INPUTS	1,017	1,017	1,017	1,017	1,017	1,017	1,017	1,017	1,017	
	INPUTS	0,972	0,972	0,972	0,972	0,972	0,972	0,972	0,972	0,972	
TOTAL ELECTRICITY (TKWH)	ELECTRICITY	20,500	20,500	20,500	20,500	20,500	20,500	20,500	20,500	20,500	
	ELECTRICITY	29,500	29,500	29,500	29,500	29,500	29,500	29,500	29,500	29,500	
	ELECTRICITY	152,130	152,130	152,130	152,130	152,130	152,130	152,130	152,130	152,130	
	ELECTRICITY	345,000	345,000	345,000	345,000	345,000	345,000	345,000	345,000	345,000	
	ELECTRICITY	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	
	ELECTRICITY	2,000	2,000	2,000	2,000	2,000	2,000	2,000	2,000	2,000	
	ELECTRICITY	11,610	11,610	11,610	11,610	11,610	11,610	11,610	11,610	11,610	
	ELECTRICITY	18,760	18,760	18,760	18,760	18,760	18,760	18,760	18,760	18,760	
	ELECTRICITY	4,470	4,470	4,470	4,470	4,470	4,470	4,470	4,470	4,470	
	ELECTRICITY	1,750	1,750	1,750	1,750	1,750	1,750	1,750	1,750	1,750	
PRIMARY Fossil FUEL PRICE (1972 \$/MILLION BTU)	PRICE	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	
	PRICE	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	
	PRICE	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	
	PRICE	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	
	PRICE	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	
	PRICE	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	
	PRICE	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	
	PRICE	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	
	PRICE	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	
	PRICE	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	27,073	

FOOTNOTES

- \* VALUES NOT REPORTED FOR THIS MODEL
- \*\* THE PRIMARY Fossil FUEL PRICE IS COMPUTED BASED ON Fossil FUEL PRICES (SEE E.M. - TM-77-1.1)
- 1 NUMBER REPORTED IN NEXT COLUMN IS REPORTED BY PERCENTAGE BREAKDOWNS
- 2 MINERALS FINAL GROSS OUTPUT IS REPORTED BY PERCENTAGE BREAKDOWNS
- 3 ENERGY PRICE IS BASED EITHER ON SHADOW PRICES OR THE PRICE OF ENERGY IN TERMS OF INVESTMENT DOLLARS NEEDED FOR A UNIT OF INVESTMENT UNDER CROSS PRIVATE DOMESTIC INVESTMENT, ENERGY INVESTMENT, OR GNP.



WELLS:	SPARTAN LFA	SCENARIO:	BASE CASE*	1975	ACTUALS	1975	1980	1985	1990	2000
MACROECONOMIC ACTIVITY (CONSTANT 1972 \$)										
CONSUMPTION			770,300			770,300	936,400	1080,300	1230,500	0.0
UNSEE PRIVATE DOMESTIC INVESTMENT			120,000			120,000	215,900	265,400	351,500	0.0
ENERGY			26,000			26,000	34,300	50,600	70,200	0.0
GOVERNMENT			107,000			107,000	101,700	218,400	262,200	0.0
GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES			20,000			20,000	111,200	155,800	192,200	0.0
EXPORTS			90,000			90,000	111,200	155,800	192,200	0.0
IMPORTS			68,100			68,100	102,100	133,100	171,600	0.0
ENERGY			0.0			0.0	10,700	11,100	16,200	0.0
UNSEE NATIONAL PRODUCT			59,400			59,400	51,400	120,600	154,600	0.0
UNSEE NATIONAL PRODUCT (CONSTANT 1972 \$)			1191,700			1191,700	1409,100	1706,700	1954,700	0.0
UNSEE FUEL DEMAND COMPOSITION (CONSTANT 1972 \$)										
AGRICULTURE AND FUEL MINING/CONSTRUCTION			0.0			0.0	129,420	161,920	157,830	0.0
ENERGY INTENSIVE MANUFACTURING			262,500			262,500	55,420	103,920	106,980	0.0
TRANSPORTATION			11,000			11,000	277,180	362,900	422,800	0.0
OTHER			0.0			0.0	573,830	1084,200	1156,320	0.0
RESIDUALS			1136,000			1136,000	1619,600	1645,610	1923,120	0.0
UNSEE FUEL DEMAND (CONSTANT 1972 \$)										
AGRICULTURE AND FUEL MINING/CONSTRUCTION			276,700			276,700	59,600	108,800	123,300	0.0
ENERGY INTENSIVE MANUFACTURING			352,300			352,300	102,800	116,900	135,600	0.0
TRANSPORTATION			534,000			534,000	242,100	291,000	361,100	0.0
OTHER			81,500			81,500	62,500	76,400	95,600	0.0
RESIDUALS			429,200			429,200	600,300	1044,500	1293,400	0.0
TOTAL UNSEE ENERGY GROUPS OUTPUT			2213,200			2213,200	1400,200	1638,200	1912,200	0.0
IMPLICIT OIL PRICE (CONSTANT 1972 DOLLARS CH AS AN INDEX B)			1.273			1.273	1.660	2.045	2.492	0.0
ENERGY PRICE			2.010			2.010	2.490	3.041	3.705	0.0
CAPITAL (FINEST WATE)			1.088			1.088	1.600	2.000	2.400	0.0
LABOR (WAGE RATE)			6.077			6.077	1.740	2.350	3.130	0.0
LABOR (WAGE RATE) (CONSTANT 1972 \$)			6.500			6.500	5.500	5.900	6.900	0.0
DOMESTIC ENERGY PRODUCTION BY SOURCE NET OF EXPORTS (QUADS)										
NATURAL GAS			13,376			13,376	17,200	21,000	24,000	0.0
COAL			19,200			19,200	64,650	70,120	76,040	0.0
NUCLEAR			15,573			15,573				0.0
HYDRO			1.652			1.652				0.0
OTHER (HEAT, WIND)										0.0
SOLAR ELECTRIC										0.0
SOLAR HEATING AND COOLING										0.0
GEOTHERMAL AND GEOPHYSICAL										0.0
ALTERNATIVE ENERGY SYSTEMS			3.159			3.159				0.0
WIND AND WAVE IMPORTS (QUADS)										0.0
TOTAL ENERGY INPUTS (QUADS)			13,715			13,715	86,650	96,550	104,840	0.0
ENERGY GENERATION BY SOURCE										
WIND AND WAVE			30,000			30,000				0.0
COAL			42,200			42,200				0.0
NUCLEAR			15,900			15,900				0.0
HYDRO			0.630			0.630				0.0
OTHER (HEAT, WIND)			0.700			0.700				0.0
SOLAR (HEATING AND COOLING)			5.100			5.100				0.0
WIND (WAVE)			21.220			21.220				0.0
ELECTRICITY (\$/100) kWh										
TOTAL ELECTRICITY (TRKWH)			1.517			1.517				0.0
PRIMARY Fossil FUEL PRICE (1972 \$/MILLION BTU) S			0.972			0.972	0.650	0.887	1.194	0.0

FACTORS

- 1 VALUES NOT REPORTED FOR THIS MODEL
- 2 VALUES ARE REPORTED FOR YEARS 1975, 1980, 1985, AND 1990, RATHER THAN THE USUAL 1975, 1985, 1990, 2000, AND 2010 BREAKDOWN.
- 3 PRICES ARE REPORTED AS INDICES WITH 1972 AS BASE (1.00).
- 4 UNDER DOMESTIC ENERGY PRODUCTION, NATURAL GAS, OIL AND NGL ARE GROUPED
- 5 THE QUANTITY REPORTED FOR OIL AND NATURAL GAS IS TOTAL SUPPLY. IMPORTS HAVE NOT BEEN DEDUCTED FROM THIS TOTAL.
- 6 PRIMARY Fossil FUEL PRICE IS BASED ON THE ENERGY PRICE INDEX WHERE 1.00 = 30.22 / MILLION BTU.





MODEL: YEAR:	OIL-DESUM	SCENARIO: BASE CASE*	1975 ACTUALS				
			1975	1985	1990	2000	2010
MACROECONOMIC ACTIVITY (CONSTANT 1974 \$) 1			0.0	1149.300	1340.300	1808.100	0.0
CONSUMPTION		770.300	0.0	284.200	302.700	411.300	0.0
CROSS PRIVATE DOMESTIC INVESTMENT		177.800	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES		109.900	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
EXPORTS		261.000	0.0	349.600	408.000	567.000	0.0
IMPORTS		60.000	0.0	19.400	9.000	4.000	0.0
ENERGY		68.100	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
NONENERGY		8.020	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
NONENERGY NATIONAL PRODUCT		1191.700	0.0	1772.000	2060.000	2790.400	0.0
AGRICULTURE, MINING, CONSTRUCTION		104.000	0.0	203.000	228.000	283.000	0.0
ENERGY INTENSIVE MANUFACTURING		162.900	0.0	628.000	720.000	966.000	0.0
ENERGY NONINTENSIVE MANUFACTURING		49.500	0.0	47.000	53.000	68.000	0.0
SERVICES		721.200	0.0	967.000	1140.000	1604.000	0.0
TOTAL ENERGY FINAL DEMAND		1138.000	0.0	1845.000	2150.000	2924.000	0.0
NONENERGY GROSS OUTPUT (CONSTANT 1972 \$)		279.700	0.0	326.000	362.000	451.000	0.0
AGRICULTURE, MINING, CONSTRUCTION		362.300	0.0	1305.000	1514.000	2031.000	0.0
ENERGY INTENSIVE MANUFACTURING		534.000	0.0	129.000	149.000	197.000	0.0
ENERGY NONINTENSIVE MANUFACTURING		81.500	0.0	1356.000	1826.000	2192.000	0.0
SERVICES		315.200	0.0	3318.000	3851.000	4168.000	0.0
TOTAL NONENERGY GROSS OUTPUT		2213.200	0.0	2.222	2.839	4.920	0.0
IMPLICIT PRICE DEFATOR		1.273	0.0	2.272	3.645	5.532	0.0
CAPITAL (INT. RATE)		0.977	0.0	2.390	3.039	4.797	0.0
UNEMPLOYMENT RATE (%)		8.500	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
DOMESTIC ENERGY PRODUCTION BY SOURCE NET OF EXPORTS (QUADS)		13.376	0.0	20.100	25.600	32.440	0.0
NATURAL GAS		19.500	0.0	23.000	27.300	32.310	0.0
OIL AND NGL		19.973	0.0	27.900	32.600	37.000	0.0
COAL		1.652	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.250	0.0
HYDRO (WATER POWER)		0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
BIOMASS (WASTE AND WOOD)		0.0	0.0	0.180	0.450	1.200	0.0
OTHER (WIND, SOLAR)		0.0	0.0	0.100	0.460	1.100	0.0
OTHER (NUCLEAR AND GEOTHERMAL)		3.159	0.0	3.600	4.100	4.300	0.0
OTHER (NUCLEAR AND GEOTHERMAL) SPARE		0.0	0.0	0.300	1.000	3.000	0.0
NUCLEAR ENERGY SYSTEMS		0.0	0.0	12.340	14.850	22.870	0.0
OIL AND GAS IMPORTS (QUADS)		13.719	0.0	47.370	110.140	160.220	0.0
TOTAL ENERGY INPUTS (QUADS)		30.400	0.0	17.000	14.000	6.000	0.0
ELECTRICITY GENERATION BY SOURCE		4.500	0.0	4.600	4.500	3.000	0.0
COAL		4.500	0.0	24.000	30.000	37.000	0.0
NATURAL GAS		15.600	0.0	13.000	11.000	8.500	0.0
HYDRO		0.630	0.0	0.479	0.503	0.558	0.0
BIOMASS (W/MILLION BTU)		0.780	0.0	1.504	1.603	1.776	0.0
OTHER (WIND, SOLAR)		6.160	0.0	10.216	10.711	12.877	0.0
OTHER (NUCLEAR AND GEOTHERMAL)		21.220	0.0	27.959	27.552	26.578	0.0
ELECTRICITY (\$/1000 KWH)		1.517	0.0	2.021	3.001	5.245	0.0
TOTAL ELECTRICITY (TRM)		0.972	0.0	1.328	1.981	3.000	0.0
PRIMARY FOSSIL FUEL PRICE (1972 \$/MILLION BTU) **							

FOOTNOTES

- \* VALUES NOT REPORTED FOR THIS MODEL COMPUTED BASED ON FCSSTL FUEL PRICES
- \*\* THE PRIMARY FOSSIL FUEL PRICE IS COMPUTED BY THE MODEL. (SEE EMP-TM-77-1.1)
- 1 THE NONENERGY SECTOR OUTPUTS REPORTED ARE THE SAME AS IN THE HUDSON-JORGENSEN MODEL. THE ENERGY SECTOR OUTPUTS REPORTED ARE THE SAME AS IN THE HUDSON-JORGENSEN MODEL. THE CHECKED ENERGY SECTOR OUTPUTS OBTAIN GREATER ENERGY SECTOR DETAIL.
- 2 SEE THE FOOTNOTES FOR THE HUDSON-JORGENSEN MODEL.

YEAR:	KENNEDY - NICHOLSON	SCENARIO: DECLINING OIL IMPORT PRICES			
		1975 ACTUALS	1985	1990	2000
MACROECONOMIC ACTIVITY (CONSTANT 1972 \$)					
CONSUMPTION		776,300	1,046,000	1,218,000	1,593,000
LAGGED PRIVATE DOMESTIC INVESTMENT		137,000	249,000	288,000	378,000
GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES		160,700	187,000	272,000	351,000
EXPORTS		261,000	307,000	422,000	559,000
IMPORTS		68,100	143,000	172,000	262,000
ENERGY		3,620	113,000	136,000	191,000
NONENERGY		59,480	52,000	107,000	142,000
GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT (CONSTANT 1972 \$)*		1,191,700	1,652,000	1,963,000	2,601,000
AGRICULTURE, FORESTRY, FISHERY, MINING, CONSTRUCTION		109,000	202,000	234,000	308,000
MANUFACTURING		262,900	581,000	678,000	923,000
ENERGY INTENSIVE MANUFACTURING		49,500	872,000	1,010,000	1,323,000
TRANSPORTATION		1135,000	1,656,000	1,924,000	2,534,000
SERVICES		479,700	204,000	370,000	480,000
TOTAL DOMESTIC FINAL DEMAND		534,000	1,129,000	1,317,000	1,778,000
AGRICULTURE, FORESTRY, FISHERY, MINING, CONSTRUCTION		81,500	941,000	1,075,000	1,404,000
MANUFACTURING		243,200	1,445,000	1,675,000	2,204,000
TRANSPORTATION		1,273	1,210	1,190	1,360
SERVICES		1,008	1,020	1,020	1,260
TOTAL DOMESTIC GROSS OUTPUT		8,570	1,140	1,260	1,580
PHILLIPS IN CONSTANT 1972 DOLLARS OH AS AN INDEX		1.273	1.210	1.190	1.360
IMPLICIT GNP DEFlator		1.008	1.020	1.020	1.260
ENERGY PRICE		0.97	0.980	1.000	1.000
CAPITAL INTEREST RATE		8.570	1.140	1.260	1.580
UNEMPLOYMENT RATE (%)		13.37%	19.11%	22.35%	30.89%
DOMESTIC ENERGY PRODUCTION BY SOURCE NET OF EXPORTS (QUADRILION BTU)		13,370	19,110	22,350	30,890
COAL		15,200	34,500	31,350	28,280
NATURAL GAS		1,832	6,500	7,130	18,750
OIL AND NUC					
HYDRO					
WIND					
SOLAR ELECTRIC					
SOLAR HEATING AND COOLING					
GHEM (HYDRO, GEOTHERMAL, SHALE)					
ALTERNATIVE ENERGY SYSTEMS					
OIL AND GAS IMPORTS (QUADRILION BTU)		3,859	2,580	2,730	2,750
TOTAL ENERGY IMPORTS (QUADRILION BTU)		13,719	7,210	55,870	84,340
COAL AND GAS		11,078	6,540	121,470	180,200
COAL		30,600	17,000	13,000	7,800
NATURAL GAS		44,000	45,000	46,000	47,800
OTHER		5,000	27,000	32,000	39,000
NUCLEAR		15,800	11,000	9,000	7,800
OTHER		0,630	0,690	0,650	0,630
COAL (1975/1000 KWH)		4,700	10,210	5,800	12,270
NATURAL GAS (1975/1000 KWH)		3,720	25,100	25,700	25,800
ELECTRICITY (1975/1000 KWH)		21,220	35,100	35,700	35,800
TOTAL ELECTRICITY (TWH)		1,917	2,482	2,877	3,792
PRIMARY FOSSIL FUEL PRICE (1972 \$/MILLION BTU) **		0.972	1.014	1.430	1.985

FOOTNOTES

- \* VALUES NOT REPORTED FOR THIS MODEL COMPUTED BASED ON FOSSIL FUEL PRICES
- \*\* THE PRIMARY FOSSIL FUEL PRICE IS COMPUTED BY THE MODEL. (SEE LMF-74-77-1-11)
- 1 VALUES ARE REPORTED FOR 1971 INSTEAD OF 1975.
- 2 UNDER NONENERGY FINAL DEMAND COMPOSITION AND GROSS OUTPUT, MANUFACTURING (WITH ENERGY INTENSIVE AND ENERGY NONINTENSIVE) IS REPORTED AS A SINGLE AGGREGATE VALUE. THE VALUE REPORTED FOR SERVICES INCLUDES TRANSPORTATION.
- 3 VALUES ARE REPORTED AS INDICES WITH 1975 AS BASE (1.00).
- 4 UNDER DOMESTIC ENERGY PRODUCTION, ALL NUCLEAR TYPES ARE GROUPED AS ONE CATEGORY: SOLAR ELECTRIC, SOLAR HEATING AND COOLING, AND OTHER ARE REPORTED SEPARATELY.
- 5 OIL AND GAS IMPORTS INCLUDE AES.
- 6 UNDER DOMESTIC PRICES, GAS AND OIL ARE ASSUMED TO HAVE THE SAME PRICES.

MODEL YEAR	WORTHINGTON EPA	SCENARIO: DECLINING OIL IMPORT PRICE <sup>1</sup>	1975 ACTUALS	1980	1985	1990	2000
MACROECONOMIC ACTIVITY (CONSTANT 1972 \$)							
GROUP PRIVATE DOMESTIC INVESTMENT	770,300	770,300	946,300	1,108,500	1,372,000	1,600,000	0.0
ENERGY	137,000	137,000	281,000	375,000	480,000	580,000	0.0
MANUFACTURING EXPENDITURES	24,000	24,000	34,400	53,040	88,000	130,000	0.0
GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES	105,740	109,740	165,040	228,100	287,000	365,200	0.0
EXPORTS	90,600	90,600	302,700	336,400	385,000	450,000	0.0
IMPORTS	68,100	68,100	103,300	158,500	198,400	240,000	0.0
ENERGY	8,640	8,640	12,300	17,300	21,000	25,000	0.0
MANUFACTURING	59,460	59,460	92,400	141,200	177,400	215,000	0.0
TOTAL ENERGY	119,100	119,100	147,700	178,600	202,000	230,000	0.0
NON-ENERGY FINAL DEMAND COMPOSITION (CONSTANT 1972 \$)							
AGRICULTURE, MINING, CONSTRUCTION	104,000	0.0	121,700	138,830	160,850	180,000	0.0
GOVERNMENT	262,000	0.0	95,360	105,840	110,740	115,000	0.0
ENERGY INTENSIVE MANUFACTURING	0.0	0.0	301,570	374,020	462,850	550,000	0.0
NON-ENERGY INTENSIVE MANUFACTURING	45,500	0.0	39,820	50,010	64,550	80,000	0.0
GOVERNMENT	721,250	0.0	879,210	1,025,640	1,195,620	1,380,000	0.0
TOTAL NON-ENERGY FINAL DEMAND	1,130,000	0.0	1,430,270	1,686,760	1,979,900	2,235,000	0.0
NON-ENERGY GROSS OUTPUT (CONSTANT 1972 \$)							
AGRICULTURE, MINING, CONSTRUCTION	479,300	90,300	100,600	113,600	131,600	150,000	0.0
GOVERNMENT	562,300	562,300	1,031,900	1,250,000	1,490,000	1,700,000	0.0
ENERGY INTENSIVE MANUFACTURING	54,000	165,300	264,500	308,500	372,200	440,000	0.0
NON-ENERGY INTENSIVE MANUFACTURING	81,900	46,500	63,000	78,100	98,100	118,000	0.0
GOVERNMENT	935,200	734,200	1,300,000	1,565,900	1,865,900	2,150,000	0.0
TOTAL NON-ENERGY GROSS OUTPUT	2,213,200	1,141,000	1,416,700	1,674,700	1,946,800	2,218,000	0.0
IMPLICIT GNP DEFLATOR (CONSTANT 1972 \$) AS AN INDEX							
IMPLICIT GNP DEFLATOR	1.273	1.273	1.451	2.006	2.493	3.000	0.0
ENERGY PRICE	1.056	2.010	2.731	3.129	4.016	5.000	0.0
LABOR	0.577	1.070	1.450	1.940	2.500	3.000	0.0
CAPITAL (INTEREST RATE)	8.500	8.500	1.750	2.300	2.800	3.000	0.0
DOMESTIC ENERGY PRODUCTION BY SOURCE NET OF EXPORTS (QUADS) <sup>2</sup>							
COAL	13,374	13,600	17,600	23,200	26,800	30,000	0.0
NATURAL GAS	19,200	19,200	19,200	19,200	19,200	19,200	0.0
OIL AND NGL	19,873	53,270	65,563	71,482	78,312	85,000	0.0
OTHER (HYDRO, WIND, SOLAR, GEOTHERMAL, BIOMASS)	1,652	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
TOTAL DOMESTIC ENERGY PRODUCTION	54,100	86,070	102,363	113,882	124,312	134,000	0.0
TOTAL ENERGY IMPORTS (CONSTANT 1972 \$)							
COAL	40,600	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
NATURAL GAS	44,500	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
OIL AND NGL	15,900	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
OTHER (HYDRO, WIND, SOLAR, GEOTHERMAL, BIOMASS)	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
TOTAL ENERGY IMPORTS	61,000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
TOTAL ENERGY SUPPLY (CONSTANT 1972 \$)							
COAL	53,974	13,600	17,600	23,200	26,800	30,000	0.0
NATURAL GAS	19,200	19,200	19,200	19,200	19,200	19,200	0.0
OIL AND NGL	19,873	53,270	65,563	71,482	78,312	85,000	0.0
OTHER (HYDRO, WIND, SOLAR, GEOTHERMAL, BIOMASS)	1,652	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
TOTAL ENERGY SUPPLY	94,699	86,070	102,363	113,882	124,312	134,000	0.0
TOTAL ELECTRICITY (TWH)							
COAL	0.230	0.230	0.230	0.230	0.230	0.230	0.0
NATURAL GAS	0.760	0.760	0.760	0.760	0.760	0.760	0.0
OIL AND NGL	5.000	5.000	5.000	5.000	5.000	5.000	0.0
OTHER (HYDRO, WIND, SOLAR, GEOTHERMAL, BIOMASS)	21.250	21.250	21.250	21.250	21.250	21.250	0.0
TOTAL ELECTRICITY	27.240	27.240	27.240	27.240	27.240	27.240	0.0
PRIMARY FUSSIL FUEL PRICE (1972 \$/MILLION BTU) <sup>3</sup>							
COAL	1.517	0.452	0.614	0.704	0.803	0.900	0.0
NATURAL GAS	0.072	0.072	0.072	0.072	0.072	0.072	0.0
OIL AND NGL	1.517	1.517	1.517	1.517	1.517	1.517	0.0

FLUCTUATES

- 1 VALUES NOT REPORTED FOR THIS MODEL YEAR ARE REPORTED FOR YEARS 1975, 1980, 1985, AND 1990. RATHER THAN THE USUAL 1975, 1980, 1985, 1990, 2000, AND 2010 BREAKDOWN.
- 2 VALUES ARE REPORTED AS INDICES WITH 1972 AS BASE (1.000).
- 3 USUAL DOMESTIC ENERGY PRODUCTION, NATURAL GAS, OIL AND NGL ARE GROUPED TOGETHER AS ONE CATEGORY. TOTAL SUPPLY, IMPORTS HAVE NOT BEEN REPORTED FOR OIL AND GAS SEPARATELY.
- 4 QUANTITY REPORTED FOR OIL AND GAS SEPARATELY.
- 5 QUANTITY REPORTED FOR OIL AND GAS SEPARATELY. OIL AND GAS SEPARATELY. OIL AND GAS SEPARATELY. OIL AND GAS SEPARATELY.



YEAR:	1952-1972 ACTUALS	1972	1975*	1985	1990	2000	2010*
MACROECONOMIC ACTIVITY (CONSTANT 1972 \$)							
GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT	770,300	0.0	1150,800	1350,300	1821,500	0.0	0.0
GROSS PRIVATE DOMESTIC INVESTMENT	137,800	0.0	266,000	305,500	417,100	0.0	0.0
ENERGY	28,500	*	*	*	*	*	*
CAPITAL EXPENDITURES	201,000	0.0	344,600	408,000	567,000	0.0	0.0
IMPORTS	69,100	*	19,000	*	1,000	0.0	0.0
ENERGY	8,620	*	*	*	*	*	*
OTHER	60,480	*	*	*	*	*	*
TOTAL ENERGY	1191,700	0.0	1760,600	2071,000	2807,600	0.0	0.0
MANUFACTURING (CONSTANT 1972 \$)A							
ENERGY INTENSIVE MANUFACTURING	104,000	0.0	203,000	232,000	267,000	0.0	0.0
NON-ENERGY INTENSIVE MANUFACTURING	262,500	0.0	632,000	725,000	977,800	0.0	0.0
AGRICULTURE	721,600	0.0	970,000	1,123,000	1,470,000	0.0	0.0
MINING	1138,000	0.0	1855,000	2168,000	2946,800	0.0	0.0
TOTAL MANUFACTURING (CONSTANT 1972 \$)A	375,700	0.0	329,000	367,000	457,800	0.0	0.0
AGRICULTURE	262,500	0.0	131,000	152,000	204,800	0.0	0.0
MINING	54,100	0.0	130,000	151,000	200,000	0.0	0.0
ENERGY INTENSIVE MANUFACTURING	35,200	0.0	150,000	182,000	245,800	0.0	0.0
NON-ENERGY INTENSIVE MANUFACTURING	2413,200	0.0	3320,000	3867,000	5198,000	0.0	0.0
TOTAL ENERGY	1,677	0.0	2,124	2,715	3,459	0.0	0.0
CONSTANT 1972 DOLLARS OR AS AN INDEX	1,049	0.0	2,222	2,715	3,459	0.0	0.0
DEFLATION RATE (%)	0.577	0.0	2,354	3,056	4,036	0.0	0.0
UNEMPLOYMENT RATE (%)	0.500	0.0	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.0	0.0
GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT BY SOURCE NET OF EXPORTS (QUADRS)5							
TOTAL	13,376	0.0	20,400	25,900	37,500	0.0	0.0
NATURAL GAS	12,679	0.0	19,400	24,200	36,000	0.0	0.0
OIL AND NUC	1,697	0.0	2,000	2,500	3,500	0.0	0.0
OTHER	1,652	0.0	1,800	1,900	2,800	0.0	0.0
ENERGY							
1 OTHER	3,154	0.0	3,800	4,100	4,100	0.0	0.0
2 OTHER	0.200	0.0	0.200	0.200	0.200	0.0	0.0
3 OTHER	0.600	0.0	0.600	0.600	0.600	0.0	0.0
4 OTHER	13,714	0.0	15,000	15,800	26,300	0.0	0.0
5 OTHER	71,076	0.0	98,900	112,300	143,300	0.0	0.0
TOTAL ENERGY	30,603	0.0	42,000	48,000	70,000	0.0	0.0
OIL AND NUC	44,500	0.0	48,000	48,000	50,000	0.0	0.0
OTHER	15,500	0.0	12,000	12,000	13,000	0.0	0.0
DEFLATION RATE (%)	0.930	0.0	0.930	0.930	0.930	0.0	0.0
CONSTANT 1972 \$	8,100	0.0	8,100	8,100	8,100	0.0	0.0
TOTAL ELECTRICITY (TRM)	21,220	0.0	29,234	33,357	43,227	0.0	0.0
PRIMARY FUSSIL FUEL PRICE (1972 \$/MILLION BTU) **	1,517	0.0	1,213	1,213	1,213	0.0	0.0

FOOTNOTES

- VALUES NOT REPORTED FOR THIS MODEL
- THE PRIMARY FUSSIL FUEL PRICE IS REPORTED BASED ON FUSIL FUEL PRICES
- VALUES ARE REPORTED FOR YEARS 1950, 1960, AND 2000 ONLY
- UNDER NON-ENERGY DEMAND COMPOSITION AND GROSS OUTPUT, MANUFACTURING (ENERGY INTENSIVE AND NON-ENERGY INTENSIVE) IS AGGREGATED AS ONE CATEGORY
- PRICES ARE REPORTED AS INDEXES WITH 1972 AS BASE (1.000); THE ENERGY PRICE FOR THE HIGH GROWTH CASE IS REPORTED WITH GROWTH CASE AND THE DEFLATION RATE CASE
- DEFLATION RATE CASE: THE VALUE REPORTED FOR LHA UNDER MANUFACTURING INCLUDES HYDRO, OTHER ELECTRIC SOURCES, AND OTHER
- FOR THE BASE CASE AND DECLINING OIL PRICE CASE, THE FOLLOWING CHANGES HAVE BEEN MADE:
  - THE VALUE REPORTED FOR SOLAR PRODUCTION IS ACTUALLY HYDROPOWER PRODUCTION
  - THE VALUE REPORTED FOR OTHER IS OTHER ELECTRICITY SOURCES
  - THE VALUE REPORTED FOR AES IS ACTUALLY SHALE PRODUCTION

MODEL YEAR	NYNEXICA	SCENARIO: DECLINING OIL IMPORT PRICE, 1975 ACTUALS	1985	1990	2000	2010
MAGNETIC ACTIVITY (CONSTANT 1972 \$)						
CONSUMPTION	770,500	816,000	1,054,600	1,190,500	1,492,600	1,859,400
CHESAPEAKE DOMESTIC INVESTMENT	137,500	566,890	659,400	713,900	872,000	1,152,700
RESEARCH	20,000					
MANPOWER	109,740					
GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES	201,030					
LABOR	90,630					
IMPAIRS	68,100					
ENERGY	8,120					
MANPOWER	57,400					
CONSTANT NATIONAL PRODUCT	1191,700	2410,530	3013,743	3366,788	4230,699	5452,922
NONRENEWABLE DEMAND CORPORATION (CONSTANT 1972 \$)						
AGRICULTURE	104,000					
MANUFACTURING	206,500					
ENERGY SUBSTITUTIVE MANUFACTURING	45,000					
INDUSTRY	721,200					
SERVICES	1170,000					
TOTAL NONRENEWABLE FINAL DEMAND						
NONRENEWABLE OUTPUT (CONSTANT 1972 \$)	279,700					
AGRICULTURE	292,200					
MANUFACTURING	241,500					
ENERGY INTENSIVE MANUFACTURING	545,200					
INDUSTRY	2215,200					
SERVICES						
PRICE INDEX (CONSTANT 1972 DOLLARS OR AS AN INDEX)	1.273	1.011	1.400	1.645	2.239	3.019
ENERGY PRICE	1.698	1.920	2.700	3.410	4.560	6.930
CAPITAL (INTEREST RATE)	8.500	1.890	3.040	3.850	5.300	8.850
DEPRECIATION RATE (%)						
DOMESTIC ENERGY PRODUCTION BY SOURCE NET OF EXPORTS (QUADS)						
COAL	13,376					
NATURAL GAS	14,209					
OIL AND NUC	19,673					
OTHER	1,652					
SOLAR HEATING AND COOLING						
OTHER (HEAT PUMP)						
SOLAR HEATING AND COOLING						
OTHER (HYDRO, GEOTHERMAL, SMALL)						
ALTERNATIVE ENERGY SYSTEMS						
TOTAL ENERGY INPUTS (QUADS)	31,159					
ENERGY INPUTS (QUADS)	71,078	70,120	90,770	112,250	133,310	162,920
ELECTRICITY GENERATION BY SOURCE						
COAL	30,600					
NATURAL GAS	44,500					
NUCLEAR	5,000					
OTHER	15,500					
DOMESTIC PRICES (CONSTANT 1972 \$)						
COAL (\$/MILLION BTU)	0.630					
NATURAL GAS (\$/MCF)	6.180					
OIL (\$/GAL)	8.180					
ELECTRICITY (\$/1000 KWH)	21.220					
TOTAL ELECTRICITY (TERR)	1.917					
PRIMARY FOSSIL FUEL PRICE (1972 \$/MILLION BTU) 2	0.972					

FOOTNOTES  
 1. VALUES NOT NECESSARILY FOR THIS MODEL  
 2. ENERGY PRICE IS IN 1972 \$/MILLION BTU.

MODEL: JRI-BESUM YEAR:	SCENARIO: DECLINING OIL IMPORT PRICE*				
	1975 ACTUALS	1985	1990	2000	2010
MACROECONOMIC ACTIVITY (CONSTANT 1972 \$) 1					
CONSUMPTION	770,500	1150,000	1350,300	1821,500	0.0
GROSS PRIVATE DOMESTIC INVESTMENT	177,000	268,000	305,500	417,100	0.0
ENERGELY	109,700				
GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES	261,000	344,000	409,000	567,000	0.0
EXPORTS	90,600	19,000	7,800	1,900	0.0
IMPORTS	60,100				
ENERGY	8,020				
NUCLEAR	59,480				
GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT	1191,700	1750,400	2071,600	2807,900	0.0
NONENERGY FINAL DEMAND COMPOSITION (CONSTANT 1972 \$)					
AGRICULTURE, MINING, CONSTRUCTION	104,000	205,000	322,000	287,000	0.0
ENERGY INTENSIVE MANUFACTURING	262,900	632,000	725,000	777,000	0.0
ENERGY NONINTENSIVE MANUFACTURING					
TRANSPORTATION	49,000	48,000	55,000	70,000	0.0
TELECOMMUNICATIONS	721,200	970,000	1153,000	1606,000	0.0
TOTAL NONENERGY FINAL DEMAND	1138,000	1855,000	2165,000	3040,000	0.0
NONENERGY GROSS OUTPUT (CONSTANT 1972 \$)	279,700	329,000	367,000	457,000	0.0
AGRICULTURE, MINING, CONSTRUCTION	362,300	1310,000	1521,000	2040,000	0.0
ENERGY INTENSIVE MANUFACTURING	534,000	130,000	151,000	200,000	0.0
ENERGY NONINTENSIVE MANUFACTURING	41,500				
TRANSPORTATION	435,200	1560,000	1829,000	2480,000	0.0
SERVICES	2213,200	3329,000	3867,000	6196,000	0.0
TOTAL NONENERGY GROSS OUTPUT	1,273	2,124	2,715	4,649	0.0
IMPLICIT OMP DEFLATOR	1,098	2,372	2,645	3,532	0.0
GDP PRICE	0,577	2,304	3,056	4,836	0.0
SAVINGS (INTEREST RATE)	6,500				
UNEMPLOYMENT RATE (%)					
JGPELLE ENERGY PRODUCTION BY SOURCE NET OF EXPORTS (QUACS)					
COAL	13,376	20,540	25,810	33,120	0.0
NATURAL GAS	19,200	13,870	12,000	22,830	0.0
OIL AND NGL	194,573	29,520	29,370	28,540	0.0
LWR	1,652	9,000	11,800	23,200	0.0
OTHER (HYDRO, SOLAR, WIND, GEOTHERMAL, BIOMASS)		9,000	0,000	1,250	0.0
TOTAL ENERGY PRODUCTION BY SOURCE	3,159	0,180	0,450	3,200	0.0
OTHER (HYDRO, SOLAR, WIND, GEOTHERMAL, BIOMASS)		0,180	0,460	1,160	0.0
NATURAL GAS		0,180	0,460	1,160	0.0
OIL AND NGL		3,800	4,100	4,300	0.0
LWR		0,300	1,000	0,000	0.0
OTHER (HYDRO, SOLAR, WIND, GEOTHERMAL, BIOMASS)		23,730	26,320	23,100	0.0
ALTERNATIVE ENERGY SYSTEMS	13,715	98,800	112,300	143,300	0.0
TOTAL ENERGY INPUTS (QUACS)	71,078	19,000	14,000	7,000	0.0
ELECTRICITY GENERATION BY SOURCE					
OIL AND GAS	30,600	19,000	14,000	7,000	0.0
COAL	40,500	29,000	31,000	41,000	0.0
NUCLEAR	15,900	12,000	11,000	5,000	0.0
TOTAL ENERGY INPUTS (CONSTANT 1972 \$)	0,600	0,479	0,503	0,558	0.0
COAL (W/MILLION BTU)	0,780	1,564	1,603	1,776	0.0
OIL (B/MBOB)	8,100	8,092	9,132	11,159	0.0
GAS (C/MCF)	21,220	27,788	27,450	26,878	0.0
ELECTRICITY (\$/1000 kWh)					
TOTAL ELECTRICITY (TMMW)	1,517	2,947	3,616	5,232	0.0
PRIMARY FUSSIL FUEL PRICE (1972 \$/MILLION BTU) **	0,577	1,170	1,219	1,421	0.0

FOOTNOTES

- \* VALUES NOT REPORTED FOR THIS MODEL
- \*\* THE PRIMARY FUSSIL FUEL PRICE IS COMPUTED BASED ON FUSSIL FUEL PRICES AND QUANTITIES REPORTED BY THE MODEL. (SEE EMP-78-77-1.1)
- 1 THE NONENERGY SECTOR MODEL REPORTED FUEL THIS YEAR AS IN THE JORGENSEN MODEL. THIS YEAR RUN WITH THESE VALUES TO OBTAIN GREAT ENERGY SECTION OUTPUT.
- 2 SEE THE FOOTNOTES FOR THE JORGENSEN-JORGENSEN MODEL.

MODEL YEAR	PILOT	SCENARIO: HIGH GROWTH CASE	1975	1995	1990	2000	2010
	MACROECONOMIC ACTIVITY (CONSTANT 1972 \$)						
	GROSS PRIVATE DOMESTIC INVESTMENT		770,300	1187,800	1552,700	2110,700	3226,500
	ENERGY		172,800	430,233	575,185	665,000	817,747
	NONENERGY		109,749	372,000	308,400	618,700	471,800
	CAPITAL EXPENDITURES		241,000	409,000	537,200	731,200	1110,000
	ENERGY		91,600	225,000	0.0	0.0	0.0
	NONENERGY		69,400	184,000	0.0	0.0	0.0
	TOTAL INVESTMENT		50,100	385,000	417,000	370,000	370,000
	GROSS FINAL PRODUCT		1176,623	2023,633	2467,029	3700,465	4932,648
	AGRICULTURE, MINING, CONSTRUCTION		5.0	11,500	12,400	13,000	13,000
	MANUFACTURING		109,000	190,000	217,000	270,000	310,000
	TRANSPORTATION		49,800	21,000	21,000	21,000	21,000
	TOTAL NONENERGY FINAL DEMAND		100,000	107,000	107,000	100,000	100,000
	NONENERGY GROSS OUTPUT (CONSTANT 1972 \$)		273,700	515,200	602,400	912,400	1200,000
	AGRICULTURE, MINING, CONSTRUCTION		24,700	21,200	21,200	21,200	21,200
	ENERGY INTENSIVE MANUFACTURING		534,000	1051,900	1172,600	1745,400	2477,100
	ENERGY NONINTENSIVE MANUFACTURING		61,000	130,100	173,900	244,200	333,700
	SERVICES		575,200	1522,100	1331,700	2098,100	3093,000
	TOTAL NONENERGY GROSS OUTPUT		2213,200	3727,500	4539,000	5702,100	8437,100
	TOTAL NONENERGY GROSS OUTPUT		1,627	4,261	3,569	3,151	3,928
	IMPLICIT GOV. DEFERATION		1,083	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	COST OF PHILIPPIAN DEFERATION		6,577	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	LACK OF INTEREST RATE		4,500	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	UNEMPLOYMENT RATE (%)		13.375	32.600	44.400	70.000	90.100
	DOMESTIC ENERGY PRODUCTION BY SOURCE NET OF EXPORTS (QUADS)		10,200	20,170	25,200	22,900	0.100
	NATURAL GAS		1,157.1	31,010	7,890	31,400	12,000
	OIL AND NUC		1,652	4,780	5,310	20,000	30,000
	LNUFIR		0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	OTHER (HYDRO, WIND)		0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SOLAR ELECTRIC AND GEOTHERMAL		3,115	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SOLAR THERMAL AND GEOTHERMAL (SMALL)		1,910	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	ALTERNATIVE ENERGY SYSTEMS		1,714	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	OIL AND GAS (NETS) (QUADS)		71,074	110,780	130,000	102,130	272,000
	TOTAL ENERGY INPUTS (QUADS)		30,400	9,000	0.0	0.0	0.0
	ELECTRICITY GENERATION BY SOURCE		4,500	54,300	57,140	45,440	46,000
	NUCLEAR		0.0	19,900	20,000	10,000	0.0
	OTHER		15,900	12,500	10,770	10,000	0.0
	DOMESTIC PRICES (CONSTANT 1972 \$)		0.670	1,340	1,640	1,070	1,070
	COAL (\$/TON)		0.700	1,470	1,750	1,070	1,070
	OIL (\$/BARREL)		24,300	15,500	17,200	16,700	16,700
	ELECTRICITY (\$/KWH)		21,220	553,075	41,670	21,020	30,010
	TOTAL ELECTRICITY (TWH)		1,917	2,910	3,650	5,250	7,047
	PRIMARY FOSSIL FUEL PRICE (1972 \$/MILLION BTU) **		0.072	2,024	2,024	2,024	2,024

FOOTNOTES

- \* VALUES NOT REPORTED FOR THIS MODEL
- \*\* THE PRIMARY FOSSIL FUEL PRICE IS COMPUTED BASED ON OIL AND GAS FUEL PRICES
- 1 NUMBER REPORTED IN THIS TABLE IS THE VALUE REPORTED BY THE ADDRESS (SEE EMPLOYMENT-1-1)
- 2 NONENERGY FINAL DEMAND COMPOSITION IS REPORTED BY PERCENTAGE OF GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT
- 3 ENERGY PRICE IS BASED ON THE MARKET PRICE FOR THE FUEL TYPE IN TERMS OF INVESTMENT FOR A YEAR NOT INCLUDED UNDER GROSS PRIVATE DOMESTIC INVESTMENT
- 4 INVESTMENT FOR A YEAR IS NOT INCLUDED UNDER GROSS PRIVATE DOMESTIC INVESTMENT

MODEL: YEAR:	ALMONEY - NIEMLYER	SCENARIO: HIGH GROWTH CASE*	ACTUALS			
			1975	1976	1977	1978
MARSHALL PLAN ACTIVITY (CONSTANT 1972 \$)	770,700		1108,000	1299,000	1036,000	2535,000
GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT	137,000		265,000	312,000	448,000	621,000
GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES	28,000		81,000	104,000	172,000	231,000
GOVERNMENT SAVINGS	109,700		156,000	208,000	276,000	390,000
GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES	290,000		392,000	461,000	658,000	919,000
GOVERNMENT SAVINGS	90,000		168,000	208,000	311,000	585,000
GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT	90,000		117,000	140,000	201,000	284,000
GOVERNMENT SAVINGS	8,620		57,000	115,000	169,000	225,000
GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT	54,460		20,000	28,000	41,000	57,000
GOVERNMENT SAVINGS	1131,700		1811,000	2140,000	3090,000	4378,000
GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT	184,000		216,000	255,000	344,000	507,000
GOVERNMENT SAVINGS	202,500		629,000	753,000	1126,000	1658,000
GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT	45,500		926,000	1088,000	1542,000	2137,000
GOVERNMENT SAVINGS	721,200		1771,000	2095,000	3031,000	4302,000
GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT	1138,000		341,000	403,000	581,000	819,000
GOVERNMENT SAVINGS	276,700		1216,000	1454,000	2137,000	3147,000
GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT	292,000		1540,000	1813,000	2552,000	3628,000
GOVERNMENT SAVINGS	91,900		3099,000	3670,000	5330,000	7585,000
GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT	2113,200		1,460	1,560	1,820	2,110
GOVERNMENT SAVINGS	1,273		0,470	0,930	1,030	1,030
GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT	1,648		1,040	1,030	1,030	1,030
GOVERNMENT SAVINGS	0,977		1,190	1,330	1,610	1,990
GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT	0,500		20,540	24,500	35,060	51,710
GOVERNMENT SAVINGS	13,376		46,170	44,420	48,480	53,380
GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT	19,220		1,570	10,350	18,070	27,810
GOVERNMENT SAVINGS	1,652		0,320	0,000	0,000	0,000
GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT	3,159		2,750	2,750	2,780	2,810
GOVERNMENT SAVINGS	13,719		40,340	51,140	87,780	132,180
GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT	71,078		112,850	133,170	181,270	268,900
GOVERNMENT SAVINGS	30,600		17,000	12,000	6,000	3,000
GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT	44,000		45,000	46,000	47,000	48,000
GOVERNMENT SAVINGS	5,000		28,000	33,000	40,000	44,000
GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT	15,500		18,000	9,000	0,000	0,000
GOVERNMENT SAVINGS	0,630		0,340	0,660	0,410	0,590
GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT	0,740		13,690	15,210	16,830	23,120
GOVERNMENT SAVINGS	21,220		25,400	25,900	27,500	27,500
GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT	1,917		1,014	3,117	4,467	9,272
GOVERNMENT SAVINGS	0,572		1,959	2,127	2,686	5,632

ACTIVITIES

- \* VALUES NOT REPORTED FOR THIS MODEL COMPUTED BASED ON FUSSIL FUEL PRICES
- \*\* THE PRIMARY FUSSIL FUEL PRICE IS COMPUTED BY THE MODEL. (SEE EMP-TM-77-1.1)
- 1 VALUES ARE REPORTED AS INDICES WITH 1975 AS BASE (100) AND ARE COMBINED AS ONE CATEGORY.
- 2 UNDER NONENERGY ITEMS, FERTILIZER, CHEMICALS, AND OTHER ARE REPORTED TOGETHER.
- 3 UNDER NONENERGY ITEMS, FERTILIZER, CHEMICALS, AND OTHER ARE REPORTED TOGETHER.
- 4 UNDER NONENERGY ITEMS, FERTILIZER, CHEMICALS, AND OTHER ARE REPORTED TOGETHER.
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MODEL: YEAR:	MARKTUN EFA	SCENARIO: HIGH GROWTH CASE*		1975 ACTUALS		1975		1980		1985		1990		2000	
		MACROECONOMIC ACTIVITY (CONSTANT 1972 \$)	1975 ACTUALS	1975	1980	1985	1990	2000	1975	1980	1985	1990	2000		
		770.300	770.300	770.300	958.200	1114.800	1291.000	1291.000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	CONSUMPTION	137.800	137.800	137.800	157.600	174.000	174.000	174.000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT	168.740	168.740	168.740	190.740	223.540	223.540	223.540	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	ENERGY	168.740	168.740	168.740	190.740	223.540	223.540	223.540	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES	201.000	201.000	201.000	221.000	261.000	261.000	261.000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	IMPUTES	90.630	90.630	90.630	102.000	113.200	113.200	113.200	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	NONENERGY	68.100	68.100	68.100	78.000	86.000	86.000	86.000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	ENERGY	8.620	8.620	8.620	10.000	11.000	11.000	11.000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	NONENERGY	59.480	59.480	59.480	68.000	75.000	75.000	75.000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	ENERGY	1191.700	1191.700	1191.700	1499.900	1756.400	1756.400	1756.400	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SCEN: NATIONAL PRODUCT	104.300	104.300	104.300	124.910	139.860	139.860	139.860	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SCEN: NATIONAL PRODUCT	202.900	202.900	202.900	238.610	275.280	275.280	275.280	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SCEN: NATIONAL PRODUCT	48.500	48.500	48.500	55.000	61.000	61.000	61.000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SCEN: NATIONAL PRODUCT	172.200	172.200	172.200	200.000	223.000	223.000	223.000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SCEN: NATIONAL PRODUCT	1138.000	1138.000	1138.000	1450.740	1694.030	1694.030	1694.030	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SCEN: NATIONAL PRODUCT	275.700	275.700	275.700	302.000	330.000	330.000	330.000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SCEN: NATIONAL PRODUCT	362.300	362.300	362.300	400.000	440.000	440.000	440.000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SCEN: NATIONAL PRODUCT	534.000	534.000	534.000	590.000	650.000	650.000	650.000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SCEN: NATIONAL PRODUCT	81.500	81.500	81.500	90.000	98.000	98.000	98.000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SCEN: NATIONAL PRODUCT	933.200	933.200	933.200	1070.000	1170.000	1170.000	1170.000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SCEN: NATIONAL PRODUCT	2213.200	2213.200	2213.200	2536.900	2884.030	2884.030	2884.030	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SCEN: NATIONAL PRODUCT	1.273	1.273	1.273	1.645	2.077	2.525	2.525	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SCEN: NATIONAL PRODUCT	1.048	1.048	1.048	1.334	1.711	2.144	2.144	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SCEN: NATIONAL PRODUCT	0.577	0.577	0.577	0.740	0.950	1.210	1.210	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SCEN: NATIONAL PRODUCT	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.640	0.830	1.060	1.060	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SCEN: NATIONAL PRODUCT	13.376	13.376	13.376	17.600	21.600	24.000	24.000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SCEN: NATIONAL PRODUCT	15.200	15.200	15.200	19.000	23.000	26.000	26.000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SCEN: NATIONAL PRODUCT	15.973	15.973	15.973	20.000	24.000	28.000	28.000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SCEN: NATIONAL PRODUCT	1.652	1.652	1.652	2.100	2.600	3.100	3.100	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SCEN: NATIONAL PRODUCT	3.150	3.150	3.150	4.000	5.000	6.000	6.000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SCEN: NATIONAL PRODUCT	13.719	13.719	13.719	17.600	21.600	24.000	24.000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SCEN: NATIONAL PRODUCT	71.678	71.678	71.678	88.419	108.477	131.616	131.616	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SCEN: NATIONAL PRODUCT	30.600	30.600	30.600	38.000	47.000	57.000	57.000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SCEN: NATIONAL PRODUCT	48.600	48.600	48.600	60.000	75.000	90.000	90.000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SCEN: NATIONAL PRODUCT	12.900	12.900	12.900	16.000	20.000	24.000	24.000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SCEN: NATIONAL PRODUCT	0.630	0.630	0.630	0.800	1.000	1.200	1.200	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SCEN: NATIONAL PRODUCT	0.740	0.740	0.740	0.900	1.100	1.300	1.300	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SCEN: NATIONAL PRODUCT	8.100	8.100	8.100	10.000	12.000	14.000	14.000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SCEN: NATIONAL PRODUCT	21.220	21.220	21.220	26.000	32.000	39.000	39.000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SCEN: NATIONAL PRODUCT	1.917	1.917	1.917	2.400	3.000	3.600	3.600	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	SCEN: NATIONAL PRODUCT	0.972	0.972	0.972	1.200	1.500	1.800	1.800	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

\* VALUES NOT REPORTED FOR THIS MODEL 1980-1985, AND 1990, RATHER THAN THE  
 1 VALUES ARE REPORTED FOR YEARS 1972, 2000, AND 2010 (SEE ABOVE)  
 2 VALUES ARE REPORTED FOR YEARS 1972, 2000, AND 2010 (SEE ABOVE)  
 3 VALUES ARE REPORTED FOR YEARS 1972, 2000, AND 2010 (SEE ABOVE)  
 4 THE QUANTITY REPORTED FOR OIL AND GAS IS TOTAL SUPPLY. IMPUTES HAVE NOT  
 BEEN DETERMINED SEPARATELY.  
 5 PRIMARY Fossil FUEL PRICE IS BASED ON THE ENERGY PRICE INDEX WHERE  
 1930 = 100.00 / MILLION BTU.

TABLE: INDUSTRY-LEVEL DATA	SCENARIO: HIGH GROWTH CASE*	1975 ACTUAL		1975		1990		2000		2010	
		1975	ACTUAL	1975	1975	1990	1990	2000	2000	2010	2010
MANUFACTURING ACTIVITY (CONSTANT 1972 \$)		770,300		1259,100		1557,100		2324,100		0.0	
GROSS PRIVATE DOMESTIC INVESTMENT		137,800		289,000		356,500		524,400		0.0	
ENERGY		28,000									
NONENERGY		107,740		376,500		453,900		677,600		0.0	
CONSUMPTION CAPABILITIES		261,000		18,400		1,000		4,800		0.0	
FUELS		68,100									
ENERGY		6,620									
NONENERGY		55,480		1944,100		2370,500		3531,000		0.0	
CROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT		104,000		219,000		255,000		342,800		0.0	
FINAL DEMAND		262,500		690,000		831,000		1233,000		0.0	
MINERAL EXTRACTION		49,500		51,000		61,000		66,800		0.0	
ENERGY INTENSIVE MANUFACTURING		1158,000		1095,000		1329,000		1946,800		0.0	
NON-ENERGY INTENSIVE MANUFACTURING		75,200		2023,000		2476,000		3709,800		0.0	
SERVICES		275,700		349,000		403,000		523,000		0.0	
NON-FUEL EXPORT (CONSTANT 1972 \$)**		302,300		1426,000		1740,000		2465,800		0.0	
AGRICULTURE, MINERAL EXTRACTION		534,000		141,300		172,000		230,800		0.0	
ENERGY INTENSIVE MANUFACTURING		931,200		1760,000		2065,000		2999,200		0.0	
NON-ENERGY INTENSIVE MANUFACTURING		2213,200		3610,000		4403,000		6230,800		0.0	
TOTAL NONENERGY GROSS OUTPUT		1,273		2,425		3,221		4,880		0.0	
IMPLICIT GNP DEFLATOR		1,048		2,425		3,221		4,880		0.0	
ENERGY PRICE		6,977		2,711		3,459		6,253		0.0	
CAPITAL INTEREST RATE		8,500									
DEPOSIT ENERGY PRODUCTION BY SOURCE NET OF EXPORTS (QUANTITY)											
COAL		13,370		20,600		31,900		46,700		0.0	
NATURAL GAS		19,200		32,000		50,200		74,200		0.0	
OIL AND NUC		1,652		12,200		20,100		30,500		0.0	
HYDRO											
GEOTHERM											
OTHER (OTHER HIGH)											
SOLAR ELECTRIC											
SOLAR HEATING AND COOLING (SHALE)											
OTHER THERMAL GEOTHERM SYSTEMS											
AND GAS IMPURTS (GWA\$)											
TOTAL ENERGY IMPURTS (GWA\$)		3,154		13,719		18,800		29,200		0.0	
OIL AND GAS		71,078		105,000		123,400		168,800		0.0	
ELECTRICITY GENERATION BY SOURCE											
1 OIL AND GAS		30,400		13,000		12,000		40,800		0.0	
2 COAL		45,000		51,000		42,000		60,800		0.0	
3 NUCLEAR		15,600		34,000		43,000		54,000		0.0	
4 OTHER											
5 WIND											
6 SOLAR											
7 GEOTHERM											
8 HYDRO											
9 OTHER											
TOTAL ELECTRICITY (TMM)		0,000		0,495		0,227		0,598		0.0	
COAL (\$/MHP)		9,100		10,208		10,711		13,477		0.0	
GAS (\$/MHP)		21,220		20,470		27,505		29,784		0.0	
ELECTRICITY (\$/1000 kWh)											
TOTAL ELECTRICITY (TMM)		3,917		3,576		4,051		7,170		0.0	
PRIMARY FUSSIL FUEL PRICE (1972 \$/MILLION BTU) **		6,972		1,285		1,321		1,640		0.0	

FOOTNOTES

- \* VALUES NOT REPORTED FOR THIS MODEL
- \*\* THE PRIMARY FUSSIL FUEL PRICE IS COMPUTED BASED ON FUSSIL FUEL PRICES
- 1 VALUES ARE REPORTED AS CONSTANT 1972 \$
- 2 UNDER NONENERGY WAREHOUSE STOCK AND GROSS OUTPUT, MANUFACTURING (ENERGY INTENSIVE AND NONINTENSIVE) IS AGGREGATED AS ONE CATEGORY.
- 3 VALUES ARE REPORTED AS INDEXES WITH 1972 AS BASE (1.00); THE ENERGY PRICE INDEX IS FOR DELIVERED ENERGY (MONTHLY GAS AND THE PRICE INDEX IS FOR DELIVERED ELECTRICITY (MONTHLY UNDER DOMESTIC PRODUCTION INCLUDES HYDRO, OTHER ELECTRIC SOURCES, AND SHALE).
- 4 FOR THE HIGH GROWTH CASE, THE FOLLOWING CHANGES HAVE BEEN MADE IN REPORTING UNDER DOMESTIC PRODUCTION:
  - A) THE VALUE REPORTED FOR OTHER IS ACTUALLY HYDROGEN PRODUCTION.
  - B) THE VALUE REPORTED FOR OTHER IS OTHER ELECTRICITY SOURCES.
  - C) THE VALUE REPORTED FOR AES IS ACTUALLY SHALE PRODUCTION.

MODEL: INVILICZA	SCENARIO: HIGH GROWTH CASE*					
	1975 ACTUALS	1975	1985	1990	2000	2010
YEAR:						
MACROECONOMIC ACTIVITY (CONSTANT 1972 \$)						
GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT	770,300					
GROSS PRIVATE INVESTMENT	137,630					
ENERGY	169,740					
GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES	201,030					
EXPENDITURES	50,000					
SAVINGS	88,100					
NONENERGY	6,620					
ENERGY	59,480	1422.797	1922.495	2594.884	3521.842	0.0
GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT	1191,700					
ENERGY FINAL DEMAND COMPOSITION (CONSTANT 1972 \$)						
AGRICULTURE, MINING, CONSTRUCTION	104,000					
ENERGY INTENSIVE MANUFACTURING	262,500					
ENERGY ALINTENSIVE MANUFACTURING	45,900					
TRANSPORTATION	721,200					
SERVICES	1136,000					
TOTAL NONENERGY FINAL DEMAND	275,700					
AGRICULTURE, MINING, CONSTRUCTION	382,300					
ENERGY INTENSIVE MANUFACTURING	534,000					
ENERGY ALINTENSIVE MANUFACTURING	61,500					
TRANSPORTATION	935,200					
SERVICES	2413,200					
TOTAL NONENERGY GROSS OUTPUT	1,273	0.498	1.367	1.592	2.087	0.0
PRICES IN CONSTANT 1972 DOLLARS GR AS AN INDEX		0.439	0.378	0.348	0.288	0.0
IMPLICIT UNEMPLOYMENT	1.086					
ENERGY PRICE	0.577					
CAPITAL (INTEREST RATE)	0.500					
LABOR						
UNEMPLOYMENT RATE (%)	13.376					
DOMESTIC ENERGY PRODUCTION BY SOURCE NET OF EXPORTS (QUADS)	19,200					
NATURAL GAS	16,873					
COAL AND NUC	1,652					
LHFR						
LHFR (HIGH RICH)						
LHFR ELECTRIC						
SOLAR HEATING AND COOLING						
SOLAR HEATING AND COOLING (SHALE)						
CITRUS, HYDRO, GEOTHERMALS						
ALL OTHERS						
OIL AND ENERGY IMPORTS (QUADS)	3,159					
TOTAL ENERGY IMPORTS (QUADS)	13,719					
TOTAL ENERGY IMPORTS (QUADS)	71,078			123,800	182,400	0.0
ELECTRICITY GENERATION BY SOURCE		76,600	104,500			
1 OIL AND GAS	30,600					
1 COAL	44,500					
1 NUCLEAR	5,000					
1 LHPH	16,900					
DOMESTIC PRICES (CONSTANT 1972 \$)						
COAL (\$/MILLION BTU)	0.630					
GAS (\$/MCF)	0.780					
OIL (\$/BARREL)	8.160					
ELECTRICITY (\$/1000 kWh)	21.220					
TOTAL ELECTRICITY (TKWH)	1,917					
PRIMARY FOSSIL FUEL PRICE (1972 \$/MILLION BTU) 4	0.439	0.378	0.348	0.288	0.0	

FOOTNOTES  
 \* VALUES NOT REPORTED FOR THIS MODEL  
 1 ENERGY PRICE IS IN 1972 \$/MILLION BTU.



MODEL YEAR	UNI-ECON	SCENARIO: HIGH-GROWTH CASE*	1975	1985	1995	2000	2010
MACROECONOMIC ACTIVITY (CONSTANT 1972 \$)							
GROSS PRIVATE DOMESTIC INVESTMENT	770,400		1,857,130	1,557,100	2,225,100	0.0	
CONSUMPTION	137,800		289,000	350,500	224,400	0.0	
ENERGY	105,740		210,000	260,000	160,000	0.0	
CAPITAL EXPENDITURES	501,000		376,500	453,000	677,000	0.0	
IMPUTES	62,100		19,400	9,000	4,000	0.0	
ENERGY	8,620		2,000	1,000	500	0.0	
NON-ENERGY	1101,700		1,944,100	2,370,500	3,831,000	0.0	
NON-ENERGY FINAL DEMAND (CONSTANT 1972 \$)							
AGRICULTURE, MINING, CONSTRUCTION	104,000		219,000	255,000	342,000	0.0	
ENERGY INTENSIVE MANUFACTURING	262,500		650,000	831,000	1,233,000	0.0	
ENERGY NON-INTENSIVE MANUFACTURING	44,500		51,000	61,000	84,000	0.0	
TRANSPORTATION	71,700		102,500	132,000	204,000	0.0	
TOTAL NON-ENERGY FINAL DEMAND	1138,000		2,025,000	2,476,000	3,709,000	0.0	
NON-ENERGY GROSS OUTPUT (CONSTANT 1972 \$)							
AGRICULTURE, MINING, CONSTRUCTION	279,700		349,000	403,000	523,000	0.0	
ENERGY INTENSIVE MANUFACTURING	382,500		1,426,000	1,740,000	2,469,000	0.0	
ENERGY NON-INTENSIVE MANUFACTURING	534,000		141,000	172,000	230,000	0.0	
TRANSPORTATION	935,200		1,700,000	2,063,000	2,950,000	0.0	
TOTAL NON-ENERGY GROSS OUTPUT	2133,200		3,616,000	4,403,000	6,230,000	0.0	
PRICES IN CONSTANT 1972 DOLLARS UN ADJ INDEX							
IMPLICIT UNP DEFLATOR	1.473		1.261	1.201	1.201	0.0	
ENERGY PRICE	1.045		2.145	3.017	4.325	0.0	
CAPITAL (INTEREST RATE)	0.577		2.711	3.649	5.253	0.0	
UNEMPLOYMENT RATE (%)	8.500						
DOMESTIC ENERGY PRODUCTION BY SOURCE NET OF EXPORTS (QUADS)							
TOTAL	13,370		22,030	30,430	42,310	0.0	
NATURAL GAS	14,500		23,000	28,200	34,400	0.0	
OIL AND NUC	11,852		18,150	12,500	23,500	0.0	
HYDRO	0.0		0.0	0.0	1,750	0.0	
OTHER (HEAT, PITCH)	0.0		0.190	0.450	1,200	0.0	
NUCLEAR ELECTRICITY	0.0		0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
SOLAR HEATING AND COOLING	3,154		3,100	4,100	4,100	0.0	
OTHER (THERMAL, WASTE HEAT, SMALL)	0.0		0.308	1.000	3,250	0.0	
OIL AND GAS IMPORTS (QUADS)	12,714		17,040	23,500	40,170	0.0	
TOTAL ENERGY INPUTS (QUADS)	71,978		105,000	123,400	168,000	0.0	
ELECTRICITY GENERATION BY SOURCE							
OIL AND GAS	30,000		17,000	15,000	5,000	0.0	
NUCLEAR	9,000		46,000	46,000	46,000	0.0	
OTHER	15,500		34,000	39,000	53,000	0.0	
DOMESTIC PRICES (CONSTANT 1972 \$)							
COAL (\$/MILLION BTU)	0.930		0.495	0.527	0.527	0.0	
OIL (\$/MCF)	6.160		10,214	10,711	11,574	0.0	
NATURAL GAS (\$/1000 CU FT)	21,220		24,134	23,890	23,288	0.0	
ELECTRICITY (\$/1000 KWHR)	1.917		1.917	4.029	4.029	0.0	
PRIMARY Fossil FUEL PRICE (\$/MILLION BTU) **	1.917		1.301	1.301	1.301	0.0	

FOOTNOTES

- \* VALUES NOT REPORTED FOR THIS MODEL
- \*\* THE PRIMARY Fossil FUEL PRICE IS COMPUTED BASED ON Fossil FUEL PRICES AND QUANTITIES REPORTED BY THE MODEL. (SEE EMP-TM-77-11)
- † THE NON-ENERGY SECTOR MODEL HAS BEEN RUN IN THE MODEL SINCE 1975 TO OBTAIN ENERGY SECTOR DETAIL. DETAIL OBTAINED FROM THESE VALUES IS OBTAINED FROM THE HOLLAND-JORNSON MODEL.
- ‡ SEE THE FOOTNOTES FOR THE HOLLAND-JORNSON MODEL.



MODEL:	KEMREUY - NUCMEYEN	SCENARIO: HIGH GROWTH WITH CONSTRAINTS*	1975 ACTUALS	1971-1	1985	1990	2000	2010
MACROECONOMIC ACTIVITY (CONSTANT 1972 \$)								
CONSUMPTION	770,300		692,000	1075,000	1243,000	1455,000	2106,000	
GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT	137,800		161,000	260,000	304,000	421,000	557,000	
GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES	162,500		170,000	191,500	200,000	218,000	233,000	
EXPORTS	491,000		234,000	367,000	411,000	445,000	474,000	
IMPORTS	60,600		64,000	200,000	240,000	260,000	292,000	
ENERGY	69,100		69,000	200,000	240,000	260,000	292,000	
NON-ENERGY	8,620		6,000	58,000	117,000	170,000	236,000	
TOTAL NATIONAL PRODUCT (CONSTANT 1972 \$)	1191,700		1050,000	1802,000	2110,000	2938,000	3941,000	
CONSTANT NATIONAL DEMAND (CONSTANT 1972 \$)	104,000		131,000	212,000	247,000	342,000	451,000	
CONSTANT NATIONAL SUPPLY (CONSTANT 1972 \$)	222,500		354,000	652,000	779,000	1132,000	1613,000	
ENERGY INTENSIVE MANUFACTURING								
NON-ENERGY INTENSIVE MANUFACTURING	49,500		573,000	905,000	1046,000	1409,000	1817,000	
TOTAL MANUFACTURE FINAL DEMAND	1138,000		1056,000	1709,000	2072,000	2886,000	3800,000	
MANUFACTURE GROSS OUTPUT (CONSTANT 1972 \$) R	276,700		224,000	336,000	396,000	551,000	736,000	
NON-ENERGY INTENSIVE MANUFACTURE CONSTRUCTION	342,500		692,000	1280,000	1686,000	2143,000	3007,000	
ENERGY INTENSIVE MANUFACTURING	81,500		941,000	1516,000	1763,000	2408,000	3164,000	
TRANSPORTATION	2213,200		1841,000	3104,000	3644,000	5102,000	6907,000	
SERVICES								
TOTAL MANUFACTURE GROSS OUTPUT	1,273		0,670	1,740	2,130	3,150	4,000	
PRICES IN CONSTANT 1972 DOLLARS OR AS AN INDEX	1,000		0,970	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	
IMPLICIT GNP DEFATOR	1,000		0,990	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	
UNEMPLOYMENT RATE (%)	6,500		6,500	6,500	6,500	6,500	6,500	
JURNETIC ENERGY PRODUCTION BY SOURCE NET OF EXPORTS (QUAESY)								
COAL	13,376		13,140	20,630	27,090	43,100	62,120	
NATURAL GAS	19,420		40,170	25,110	27,210	34,890	47,940	
OIL AND NGL	15,273		0,320	7,220	6,230	4,880	3,480	
HYDRO	1,652							
BIOMASS								
WIND (PMPH MION)								
SOLAR HEATING AND COOLING	3,159		2,580	2,740	2,750	2,800	2,830	
LITER (HYDROU, GEOTHERMAL, SMALL)	7,719		7,210	54,100	54,090	80,410	114,310	
ALTERNATIVE ENERGY SYSTEMS	71,078		6,640	109,800	127,380	172,600	230,670	
OIL AND GAS IMPORTS (QUAESY)	30,600		39,000	17,000	12,000	7,800	4,000	
TOTAL ENERGY GROSS OUTPUT	44,500		43,000	45,000	58,000	75,000	85,000	
TOTAL ENERGY GROSS DEMAND	5,000		2,000	28,000	20,000	11,000	6,000	
OIL AND GAS	15,900		16,000	18,000	9,000	7,000	5,000	
COAL	6,530		0,440	1,560	2,710	5,860	6,590	
NATURAL GAS	4,780		3,740	16,510	19,740	27,810	35,700	
OTHER	21,220		17,600	27,800	34,000	64,500	83,100	
TOTAL ELECTRICITY (1000 KWH)	1,917		1,614	2,612	3,040	4,161	5,401	
PRIMARY FUELS FUEL PRICE (1972 \$/MILLION BTU) **	0,972		0,575	2,580	3,513	5,744	7,360	

FOOTNOTES:

- 1. VALUES NOT REPORTED FOR THIS MODEL COMPUTED BASED ON FUELS FUEL PRICES
- 2. THE PRIMARY FUELS FUEL PRICES REPORTED BY THE MODEL \$1 (SEE EMP-TM-77-1-1)
- 3. VALUES ARE REPORTED FOR 1971 INSTEAD OF 1975.
- 4. UNDER NON-ENERGY FINAL DEMAND COMPOSITION AND GROSS OUTPUT, MANUFACTURING IS BOTH ENERGY INTENSIVE AND ENERGY NON-INTENSIVE IS REPORTED AS A SINGLE AGGREGATE VALUE. THE VALUE REPORTED FOR SERVICES INCLUDES TRANSPORTATION.
- 5. UNDER ENERGY PRODUCTION, NATURAL GAS, OIL AND NGL ARE COMBINED AS ONE CATEGORY. ALL NUCLEAR TYPES ARE GROUPED AS ONE CATEGORY. UNDER DOMESTIC ENERGY PRODUCTION, SOLAR HEATING AND COOLING, AND OTHER ARE REPORTED TOGETHER.
- 6. OIL AND GAS IMPORTS INCLUDE AES.
- 7. UNDER DOMESTIC PRICES, GAS AND OIL ARE ASSUMED TO HAVE THE SAME PRICES.

MODEL:	MOORE-JUVENSON	SCENARIO 101 HIGH GROWTH WITH CONSTRAINTS*		1975 ACTUALS	1975	1985	1990	2000	2010
		1975	1975						
MACROECONOMIC ACTIVITY (CONSTANT 1972 \$)									
	CONSUMPTION		770,300	0.0	1217,700	1495,100	1995,100	2315,700	0.0
	GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT		137,800	0.0	277,000	332,000	405,000	485,100	0.0
	GOVERNMENT CURRENT EXPENDITURES		106,740	0.0	376,500	453,900	577,000	677,000	0.0
	GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT		90,200	0.0	19,300	9,000	4,000	4,000	0.0
	GOVERNMENT CURRENT EXPENDITURES		68,100	0.0	0	0	0	0	0.0
	GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT		59,480	0.0	0	0	0	0	0.0
	GOVERNMENT CURRENT EXPENDITURES		1451,700	0.0	1851,500	2291,000	3384,800	4895,000	0.0
	GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT		104,000	0.0	213,000	245,000	295,000	355,000	0.0
	GOVERNMENT CURRENT EXPENDITURES		262,950	0.0	879,000	780,000	1171,800	1630,000	0.0
	GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT		49,000	0.0	49,000	58,000	61,000	61,000	0.0
	GOVERNMENT CURRENT EXPENDITURES		1138,200	0.0	1048,000	1300,000	1951,000	2695,000	0.0
	GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT		478,700	0.0	340,000	390,000	454,000	544,000	0.0
	GOVERNMENT CURRENT EXPENDITURES		582,300	0.0	1381,000	1669,000	2331,000	2951,000	0.0
	GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT		534,000	0.0	136,000	164,000	227,000	2891,000	0.0
	GOVERNMENT CURRENT EXPENDITURES		435,200	0.0	1679,000	2034,000	2891,000	3943,000	0.0
	GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT		2213,250	0.0	3527,000	4258,000	5943,000	8291,000	0.0
	GOVERNMENT CURRENT EXPENDITURES		1,273	0.0	3,159	4,205	7,911	12,000	0.0
	GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT		1,088	0.0	2,552	3,057	4,365	6,430	0.0
	GOVERNMENT CURRENT EXPENDITURES		8,577	0.0	2,669	3,519	4,430	5,430	0.0
	GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT		8,500	0.0	0	0	0	0	0.0
	GOVERNMENT CURRENT EXPENDITURES		13,370	0.0	20,400	25,400	32,400	40,400	0.0
	GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT		10,200	0.0	22,400	24,400	26,400	28,400	0.0
	GOVERNMENT CURRENT EXPENDITURES		16,973	0.0	38,000	40,200	42,400	44,600	0.0
	GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT		1,452	0.0	12,000	10,100	8,200	6,300	0.0
	GOVERNMENT CURRENT EXPENDITURES		0	0.0	0	0	0	0	0.0
	GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT		0	0.0	0	0	0	0	0.0
	GOVERNMENT CURRENT EXPENDITURES		3,159	0.0	0	0	0	0	0.0
	GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT		13,719	0.0	8,700	5,700	3,700	1,700	0.0
	GOVERNMENT CURRENT EXPENDITURES		71,078	0.0	89,500	103,200	117,000	131,000	0.0
	GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT		30,500	0.0	19,000	18,000	17,000	16,000	0.0
	GOVERNMENT CURRENT EXPENDITURES		44,500	0.0	50,000	48,000	46,000	44,000	0.0
	GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT		15,900	0.0	32,000	41,000	51,000	61,000	0.0
	GOVERNMENT CURRENT EXPENDITURES		0,430	0.0	1,281	1,312	1,375	1,438	0.0
	GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT		0,780	0.0	2,371	2,440	2,509	2,578	0.0
	GOVERNMENT CURRENT EXPENDITURES		8,100	0.0	18,540	15,332	12,124	9,000	0.0
	GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT		41,220	0.0	32,141	30,177	28,203	26,246	0.0
	GOVERNMENT CURRENT EXPENDITURES		1,917	0.0	3,485	4,352	5,219	6,086	0.0
	GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT		6,972	0.0	2,101	2,177	2,253	2,329	0.0

\* THE VALUE REPORTED FOR THIS MODEL IS THE VALUE REPORTED FOR THE MODEL WITH CONSTRAINTS. SEE THE MODEL WITH CONSTRAINTS FOR MORE DETAILS.  
 \*\* THE PRIMARY Fossil FUEL PRICE IS CONSTANT WITHIN Fossil FUEL PRICES.  
 1 VALUES ARE REPORTED FOR YEARS 1975, 1980, 1985, AND 2000 ONLY. (SEE EMP-TM-77-1-11)  
 2 UNDER AGREEMENT DEMAND SUPPLY AND GROSS OUTPUT, MANUFACTURING (ENERGY INTENSIVE AND NON-ENERGY INTENSIVE) IS AGGREGATED AS ONE CATEGORY.  
 3 PRICES ARE REPORTED AS INDICES WITH 1972 AS BASE (1.00); THE ENERGY PRICE FOR THE HIGH GROWTH CASE IS CONSTANT WITHIN HIGH GROWTH CASE, AND THE ENERGY PRICE FOR THE CONSTANT GROWTH CASE IS CONSTANT WITHIN CONSTANT GROWTH CASE.  
 4 UNDER AGREEMENT DEMAND SUPPLY, THE VALUE REPORTED FOR LWR UNDER CONSTANT GROWTH CASE INCLUDES HYDRO, OTHER ELECTRIC SOURCES, AND SHALE.  
 5 FOR THE CASE CASE AND GROWTH CASE, THE FOLLOWING CHANGES HAVE BEEN MADE IN THE VALUE REPORTED FOR SOLAR HEATING AND SOLAR HEATING: (1) THE VALUE REPORTED FOR SOLAR HEATING AND SOLAR HEATING IS ACTUALLY HYDROELECTRIC PRODUCTION. (2) THE VALUE REPORTED FOR OTHER IS OTHER ELECTRICITY SOURCES. (3) THE VALUE REPORTED FOR AES IS ACTUALLY SHALE PRODUCTION.



MODEL: YEAR:	O&I-BESUM	SCENARIO: HIGH GROWTH WITH CONSTRAINTS*				1975.	1985.	1990.	2000.	2010.
		1975 ACTUALS	1975.	1985.	1990.					
	MACROECONOMIC ACTIVITY (CONSTANT 1972 \$) 1									
	CONSUMPTION	770,300	0.0	1217,700	1495,100	2291,500	3384,500	4214,700	0.0	
	GOVERNMENT INVESTMENT	147,300	0.0	277,900	332,800	468,100	677,900	868,100	0.0	
	SAVING	28,000	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	
	NET ENERGY	105,740	0.0	376,500	453,900	677,900	900,000	1,214,700	0.0	
	GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES	261,050	0.0	19,300	9,000	+	+	+	+	
	EXPORTS	90,000	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	
	IMPORTS	68,100	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	
	ENERGY	8,420	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	
	NONENERGY	36,480	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	
	NET NATIONAL PRODUCT	1191,700	0.0	1891,500	2291,500	3384,500	4214,700	5082,800	0.0	
	NET ENERGY FINAL DEMAND COMPOSITION (CONSTANT 1972 \$)									
	AGRICULTURE/FUEL MINING/CONSTRUCTION	104,000	0.0	213,000	246,000	325,000	417,000	508,000	0.0	
	ENERGY INTENSIVE MANUFACTURING	262,300	0.0	670,000	796,000	1177,000	1577,000	2000,000	0.0	
	ENERGY NONINTENSIVE MANUFACTURING	49,900	0.0	49,000	58,000	81,000	101,000	121,000	0.0	
	TRANSPORTATION	721,200	0.0	1048,000	1300,000	1991,000	2566,000	3165,000	0.0	
	TOTAL ENERGY FINAL DEMAND	1138,000	0.0	1980,000	2400,000	3366,000	4214,700	5082,800	0.0	
	NET ENERGY PRODUCTION (CONSTANT 1972 \$)									
	AGRICULTURE/FUEL MINING/CONSTRUCTION	275,700	0.0	342,000	350,000	494,000	631,000	781,000	0.0	
	ENERGY INTENSIVE MANUFACTURING	302,700	0.0	1381,000	1669,000	2331,000	2991,000	3641,000	0.0	
	ENERGY NONINTENSIVE MANUFACTURING	534,000	0.0	136,300	164,000	227,000	284,000	351,000	0.0	
	TRANSPORTATION	81,500	0.0	1670,000	2036,000	2891,000	3641,000	4491,000	0.0	
	SERVICES	835,200	0.0	3527,000	4259,000	5943,000	7511,000	9243,000	0.0	
	TOTAL NONENERGY GROSS OUTPUT	2213,200	0.0	3527,000	4259,000	5943,000	7511,000	9243,000	0.0	
	PRICES IN CONSTANT 1972 DOLLARS OR AS AN INDEX									
	IMPLICIT GNP DEFLATOR	1.273	0.0	3.159	4.205	5.511	7.011	8.711	0.0	
	ENERGY PRICE	1.058	0.0	2.432	3.057	4.015	5.115	6.415	0.0	
	CAPITAL (INTREST RATE)	0.977	0.0	2.669	3.519	4.519	5.819	7.319	0.0	
	LABOR EMPLOYMENT RATE (%)	8.500	0.0	18,160	25,590	33,620	42,147	50,828	0.0	
	NET NATIONAL PRODUCT	13,376	0.0	23,400	21,400	20,500	20,500	20,500	0.0	
	NATURAL GAS	19,200	0.0	29,700	30,500	30,500	30,500	30,500	0.0	
	COAL	15,973	0.0	15,973	15,973	15,973	15,973	15,973	0.0	
	L&M	1.652	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
	OTHER (ENERGY HIGH)	3.159	0.0	0.190	0.450	0.650	0.850	1.050	0.0	
	SUGAR (CANE AND SUGAR)		0.0	0.180	0.510	0.710	0.910	1.110	0.0	
	OTHER (ENERGY LOW)		0.0	3.800	4.100	4.300	4.500	4.700	0.0	
	ALTERNATIVE ENERGY SYSTEMS		0.0	0.300	1.000	3.000	6.000	10.000	0.0	
	OIL AND GAS INPUTS (QUADS)	13,719	0.0	6,130	8,950	12,152	15,750	19,750	0.0	
	TOTAL ENERGY INPUTS (QUADS)	71,078	0.0	89,500	103,200	137,700	171,700	211,700	0.0	
	ELECTRICITY GENERATION BY SOURCE		0.0							
	1 COAL	30,500	0.0	20,000	13,000	6,000	3,000	1,500	0.0	
	2 OIL	44,200	0.0	43,000	47,000	50,000	53,000	56,000	0.0	
	3 NUCLEAR	9,000	0.0	43,000	47,000	50,000	53,000	56,000	0.0	
	4 HYDRO	15,500	0.0	37,000	40,000	40,000	40,000	40,000	0.0	
	OTHER	0.030	0.0	1,381	1,312	1,375	1,375	1,375	0.0	
	COAL (\$/MILLION BTU)	0.780	0.0	1.373	1.632	1.992	2.412	2.892	0.0	
	OIL (\$/BBL)	8.160	0.0	30,782	30,782	30,782	30,782	30,782	0.0	
	ELECTRICITY (\$/1000 KWH)	21,220	0.0	2,798	3,569	4,419	5,269	6,119	0.0	
	TOTAL ELECTRICITY (TKWH)	1,517	0.0	2,798	3,569	4,419	5,269	6,119	0.0	
	PRIMARY FOSSIL FUEL PRICE (1972 \$/MILLION BTU) **	6.572	0.0	2,127	2,204	2,415	2,615	2,815	0.0	

FOOTNOTES

- \* VALUES NOT REPORTED FOR THIS MODEL
- \*\* THE PRIMARY FOSSIL FUEL PRICE IS COMPUTED BASED ON FOSSIL FUEL PRICES AND QUANTITIES REPORTED BY THE MODELS. (SEE EMP-TM-77-1.1)
- 1 THE NONENERGY SECTOR NUMBERS REPORTED ARE THE SAME AS IN THE HUDSON-JORGENSEN MODEL. FOR QUANTITIES REPORTED IN THE HUDSON-JORGENSEN MODEL, SEE THE FOOTNOTES FOR THE HUDSON-JORGENSEN MODEL.
- 2 SEE THE FOOTNOTES FOR THE HUDSON-JORGENSEN MODEL.

MODEL YEAR:	1975	1975 ACTUALS	1995	1990	2000	2010
MACRO-ECONOMIC ACTIVITY (CONSTANT 1972 \$)	770,300	770,300	1,073,170	1,350,600	1,951,100	2,138,600
CONSUMPTION	137,400	114,402	278,180	304,922	474,517	228,273
GROSS PRIVATE DOMESTIC INVESTMENT	28,000	17,052	28,160	41,222	44,116	25,478
ENERGY	109,740	107,000	251,160	265,700	530,500	702,600
NONENERGY	50,600	261,000	371,500	0,0	0,0	0,0
GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES	68,100	22,500	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0
EXPORTE	59,600	0,0	43,500	50,300	62,700	56,200
ENERGY	59,600	0,0	43,500	50,300	62,700	56,200
NONENERGY	11,070,700	116,000,402	1,722,770	212,5122	2,662,710	310,7578
GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT	1,04,000	0,0	13,300	13,300	12,900	12,400
NONENERGY FINAL DEMAND (CONSTANT 1972 \$)	1,62,900	0,0	10,200	10,000	10,400	10,400
Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing, and Hunting	4,900	0,0	23,200	21,500	23,300	23,800
Manufacturing and Construction	4,900	0,0	53,400	53,200	53,500	52,600
Energy Intensive Manufacturing	113,800	105,000	100,000	100,000	100,000	100,000
Nonenergy Intensive Manufacturing	47,700	379,700	437,000	520,000	719,400	912,400
Services	34,200	1,62,300	540,400	644,700	842,000	1,025,400
Construction	61,900	534,000	658,000	1,014,600	1,493,500	1,856,300
Government	935,200	935,200	1,48,700	1,48,700	1,77,300	231,600
Exports	221,300	221,300	1,350,900	1,474,700	2,014,400	2,720,700
Imports	1,273	6,287	4,919	6,098	6,287	6,287
Capital	1,004	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0
Consumption	8,560	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0
Energy	13,376	14,460	25,800	30,400	40,000	48,800
Nonenergy	19,071	21,050	21,070	24,270	23,990	18,740
Exports	1,652	20,750	24,960	20,700	34,870	18,300
Imports	3,159	2,150	4,140	4,140	4,140	4,140
Electricity	3,159	73,120	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0
Coal	13,719	19,071	19,200	20,000	16,190	17,960
Oil and Gas	71,078	73,120	103,920	120,000	20,300	15,770
Nuclear	30,600	27,620	18,780	20,196	21,760	16,840
Other	44,500	41,920	51,410	54,950	57,640	47,090
Hydro	9,000	12,880	15,600	12,540	5,640	6,930
Geothermal	15,900	17,590	14,120	12,329	10,920	6,140
Solar	0,630	77,410	1,520	5,370	6,740	4,400
Wind	0,240	77,410	1,520	5,370	6,740	4,400
Other	8,160	81,600	17,410	27,300	32,560	21,200
Electricity	21,220	905,430	68,700	73,000	86,110	64,510
Total Electricity (TWh)	1,517	1,520	2,550	3,190	4,150	5,780
Primary Fossil Fuel Price (1972 \$/million BTU)	0,572	71,526	2,531	2,125	6,285	4,105

FOOTNOTES

- 1. VALUES NOT REPORTED FOR THIS MODEL
- 2. THE PRIMARY FOSSIL FUEL PRICE IS COMPUTED BASED ON FUTSIL FUEL PRICES AND QUANTITIES REPORTED BY THE MODELS. (SEE CMR-14-77-1.1)
- 3. NUMBERS REPORTED IN ALL CAPS ARE IN MILLIONS OF DOLLARS UNLESS OTHERWISE INDICATED BY PERCENTAGE BREAKDOWNS
- 4. NONENERGY FINAL DEMAND (CONSTANT 1972 \$) IS REPORTED BY PERCENTAGE BREAKDOWNS
- 5. INVESTMENT FOR ALES IS NOT INCLUDED UNDER GROSS PRIVATE DOMESTIC INVESTMENT, OR GNP.

MODEL YEAR:	KENNEDY - NICHMeyer	SCENARIO: BASE CASE WITH CONSTRAINTS	CONSTRAINTS			
			1972	1973	1974	1975
<b>MACRO-ECONOMIC ACTIVITY (CONSTANT 1972 \$)</b>						
	770,300	692,000	1,009,000	1,134,300	1,366,000	
GROSS INVESTMENT	137,000	161,000	224,000	270,000	321,000	
PRIVATE DOMESTIC INVESTMENT	128,000	159,000	219,000	269,000	310,000	
ENERGY	20,000	23,000	30,000	36,000	43,000	
NON-ENERGY	108,000	136,000	189,000	233,000	267,000	
GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES	90,610	88,000	116,000	134,000	176,000	
IMPORTS	68,110	68,000	91,000	106,000	131,000	
ENERGY	59,480	59,000	81,000	95,000	114,000	
NON-ENERGY	9,130	9,000	10,000	11,000	17,000	
CONSTANT NATIONAL PRODUCT	1,111,700	1,095,000	1,619,000	1,923,000	2,460,000	
NON-ENERGY FINAL DEMAND COMPOSITION (CONSTANT 1972 \$)**						
AGRICULTURE, MINING, CONSTRUCTION	104,000	131,000	198,000	225,000	284,000	
INDUSTRY	462,900	354,000	607,000	710,000	950,000	
TRANSPORTATION	45,500	573,000	843,000	958,000	1,184,000	
SERVICES	113,600	1,058,000	1,843,000	2,189,000	2,819,000	
TOTAL NON-ENERGY FINAL DEMAND	770,000	692,000	1,009,000	1,134,300	1,366,000	
NON-ENERGY GROSS OUTPUT (CONSTANT 1972 \$)**	379,700	204,000	315,000	360,000	459,000	
AGRICULTURE, MINING, CONSTRUCTION	34,300	695,000	1,164,000	1,355,000	1,794,000	
INDUSTRY	81,500	941,000	1,413,000	1,607,000	2,022,000	
TRANSPORTATION	235,200	1,841,000	2,892,000	3,322,000	4,275,000	
TOTAL NON-ENERGY GROSS OUTPUT	221,300	1,841,000	2,892,000	3,322,000	4,275,000	
CONSTANT NATIONAL PRODUCT	1,111,700	1,095,000	1,619,000	1,923,000	2,460,000	
IMPLICIT GNP DEFATOR	1.273	0.670	1.720	2.010	2.700	
ENERGY PRICE	1.089	0.960	1.000	0.970	0.910	
CAPITAL (INTEREST RATE)	0.577	0.980	1.100	1.100	1.320	
WAGE	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	0.500	
UNEMPLOYMENT RATE (%)	13.376	13.140	15.160	24.460	35.550	
DEPRECIATION	15,200	46,170	23,550	25,120	30,830	
NATURAL GAS	19,233	0,320	6,350	5,510	4,100	
OIL AND NOL	1,052	0	0	0	0	
LWR	0	0	0	0	0	
LWRN (MILLION TONS)	0	0	0	0	0	
SOLAR HEATING AND COOLING	0	0	0	0	0	
SOLAR HEATING AND COOLING - SPALLS	3,156	2,589	2,710	2,730	2,760	
CIPN (MILLION GIGAWATT HOURS)	13,719	7,210	50,400	58,350	73,420	
ALTERNATIVE ENERGY SYSTEMS	7,078	69,440	102,230	116,170	146,660	
TOTAL ENERGY INPUTS (QUADS)**	30,600	39,000	48,000	57,000	68,000	
OIL AND GAS	44,500	43,000	45,000	47,000	49,000	
COAL	5,000	2,000	2,000	2,000	2,000	
NUCLEAR	15,900	16,000	11,000	10,000	9,000	
OTHER	0,300	0,300	1,330	1,970	2,930	
TOTAL ENERGY INPUTS (CONSTANT 1972 \$)**	0,760	3,720	10,500	19,690	37,630	
COAL (\$/MCF)	8,160	3,720	16,500	30,600	37,500	
OIL (\$/BBL)	21,220	17,800	26,800	30,600	37,500	
ELECTRICITY (\$/1000 KWH)	1,917	1,914	2,434	2,772	3,057	
PRIMARY Fossil FUEL PRICE (1972 \$/MILLION BTU)**	0,972	0,875	2,472	2,772	3,057	

**FUNCTIONS**

- VALUES NOT REPORTED FOR THIS MODEL COMPUTED BASED ON FOSSIL FUEL PRICES
- IF PRIMARY FOSSIL FUEL PRICES REPORTED BY THE MODEL. (SEE EMP-TM-77-1.11)
- VALUES ARE REPORTED FOR 1971 INSTEAD OF 1975.
- UNDER ADJUSTMENT FINAL DEMAND COMPOSITION AND GROSS OUTPUT, MANUFACTURING (GROSS ENERGY INTENSIVE AND ENERGY NONINTENSIVE) IS REPORTED AS A SINGLE AGGREGATE VALUE. THE VALUE REPORTED FOR SERVICES INCLUDES TRANSPORTATION.
- PRICES ARE REPORTED AS INDICES WITH 1975 AS THE BASE YEAR (100).
- UNDER DOMESTIC ENERGY CATEGORIES ALL NUCLEAR TYPES ARE GROUPED AS ONE CATEGORY. SOLAR HEATING AND COOLING, AND OTHER ARE REPORTED TOGETHER.
- OIL AND GAS IMPORTS INCLUDE RES.
- UNDER DOMESTIC PRICES, GAS AND OIL ARE ASSUMED TO HAVE THE SAME PRICES.



MODEL YEAR	PARTITION	SCENARIO	BASE CASE WITH CONSTRAINTS		1975	1985	1990	1990	2000
			1975 ACTUALS	CONSTRAINTS					
MACROECONOMIC ACTIVITY (CONSTANT 1972 \$)			770,300		770,300	913,100	1073,500	0.0	
CONSUMPTION			137,500		137,500	152,300	173,000	0.0	
ENERGYSAVE			26,060		26,060	28,040	26,010	0.0	
NONENERGY			107,740		107,740	125,250	211,500	0.0	
ENVIRONMENT			361,000		361,000	303,700	338,400	0.0	
TRANSPORTATION			90,000		90,000	107,000	104,100	0.0	
INDUSTRY			6,440		6,440	10,310	12,890	0.0	
RESIDENTIAL			50,400		50,400	58,790	119,510	0.0	
GOVERNMENT			1191,700		1191,700	1418,800	1671,000	0.0	
NONENERGY FINAL DEMAND COMPOSITE (CONSTANT 1972 \$)			104,000		104,000	103,580	109,800	0.0	
AGRICULTURE			282,500		282,500	292,310	303,310	0.0	
MINING			0.0		0.0	28,240	28,240	0.0	
MANUFACTURING			45,300		45,300	48,210	100,210	0.0	
CONSTRUCTION			711,200		711,200	854,210	1002,300	0.0	
TOTAL NONENERGY FINAL DEMAND			1138,000		1138,000	1372,630	1613,440	0.0	
MACROECONOMIC GROSS OUTPUT (CONSTANT 1972 \$)			275,700		275,700	50,200	95,200	0.0	
AGRICULTURE			382,300		382,300	100,000	116,700	0.0	
MINING			534,000		534,000	229,500	292,000	0.0	
MANUFACTURING			91,500		91,500	40,800	103,700	0.0	
CONSTRUCTION			734,500		734,500	160,400	103,700	0.0	
TOTAL GROSS OUTPUT			2433,200		2433,200	1308,400	1803,100	0.0	
PRICE INDEX (1972 DOLLARS AS AN INDEX)			1.873		1.273	1.901	2.409	0.0	
ENERGY PRICE			1.088		2.010	7.125	7.013	0.0	
CAPITAL (INTEREST RATE)			0.977		1.070	1.850	2.540	0.0	
LABOR			0.500		1.250	1.910	2.720	0.0	
UNEMPLOYMENT RATE (%)			13.376		13.600	9.280	12.000	0.0	
DOMESTIC ENERGY PRODUCTION BY SOURCE NET OF EXPORTS (QUADS)			12,079		53,270	61,921	67,384	0.0	
NATURAL GAS			1.652		1.652	1.652	1.652	0.0	
OIL AND NGL			3.155		3.155	3.155	3.155	0.0	
COAL			13.719		13.719	13.719	13.719	0.0	
HYDRO			71.078		71.078	71.078	71.078	0.0	
OTHER			30.630		30.630	30.630	30.630	0.0	
WIND			44,500		44,500	44,500	44,500	0.0	
SOLAR			15,900		15,900	15,900	15,900	0.0	
OTHER (NATURAL GAS)			0.630		0.630	0.630	0.630	0.0	
OTHER (COAL)			0.780		0.780	0.780	0.780	0.0	
OTHER (OIL AND NGL)			8.160		8.160	8.160	8.160	0.0	
OTHER (HYDRO)			211,220		211,220	211,220	211,220	0.0	
OTHER (SOLAR)			1.917		1.917	1.917	1.917	0.0	
OTHER (WIND)			0.972		0.972	0.972	0.972	0.0	
OTHER (SOLAR)			0.652		0.652	0.652	0.652	0.0	

FACTORS

\* VALUES NOT REPORTED FOR THIS MODEL

1 VALUES ARE REPORTED FOR YEARS 1977, 1980, 1985, AND 1970. RATHER THAN THE USUAL 1975, 1980, 1985, AND 2010 BREAKDOWN.

2 VALUES ARE REPORTED AS INDICES WITH 1972 AS BASE (1.00).

3 UNDER DOMESTIC ENERGY PRODUCTION, NATURAL GAS, OIL AND NGL ARE GROUPED TOGETHER AS ONE CATEGORY.

4 THE QUANTITY REPORTED FOR OIL AND GAS IS TOTAL SUPPLY. IMPORTS HAVE NOT BEEN DEDUCTED SEPARATELY.

5 PRIMARY Fossil FUEL PRICE IS BASED ON THE ENERGY PRICE INDEX WHERE 1.00 = \$0.42 / MILLION BTU.

MODEL:	MULSON-JORGENSEN	SCENARIO:	BASE CASE WITH CONSTRAINTS	1975	1985	1990	2000	2010
YEAR:			1975	1975	1985	1990	2000	2010
MAGNETIC ACTIVITY (CONSTANT 1972 \$)			0.0	0.0	110.000	1885.400	1722.400	0.0
CONSUMPTION			0.0	0.0	234.500	286.500	376.500	0.0
UNEMPLOYMENT			0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
DOMESTIC INVESTMENT			0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
ENERGY			0.0	0.0	344.000	408.000	967.000	0.0
CAPITALS			0.0	0.0	19.500	9.100	5.300	0.0
EXPENDITURES			0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
ENERGY			0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
MANUFACTURING			0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
MINING			0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
AGRICULTURE			0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
CONSTRUCTION			0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
OTHER			0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
NET NATIONAL PRODUCT			0.0	0.0	1728.300	1988.700	2671.000	0.0
FINAL DEMAND (CONSTANT 1972 \$)			0.0	0.0	198.000	220.000	267.400	0.0
GOVERNMENT			0.0	0.0	609.000	691.000	913.000	0.0
HOUSEHOLDS			0.0	0.0	46.000	51.000	64.000	0.0
INDUSTRY			0.0	0.0	953.000	1125.000	1557.800	0.0
GOVERNMENT			0.0	0.0	1806.000	2087.000	2801.000	0.0
INDUSTRY			0.0	0.0	318.000	349.000	428.000	0.0
GOVERNMENT			0.0	0.0	124.000	143.000	166.000	0.0
INDUSTRY			0.0	0.0	125.000	143.000	187.000	0.0
GOVERNMENT			0.0	0.0	1832.000	1784.000	2366.800	0.0
INDUSTRY			0.0	0.0	3239.000	3727.000	4916.800	0.0
GOVERNMENT			0.0	0.0	2.839	3.627	6.167	0.0
INDUSTRY			0.0	0.0	2.272	2.648	3.532	0.0
GOVERNMENT			0.0	0.0	2.352	2.914	4.461	0.0
INDUSTRY			0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
GOVERNMENT			0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
INDUSTRY			0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
GOVERNMENT			0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
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GOVERNMENT			0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
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INDUSTRY			0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
GOVERNMENT			0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
INDUSTRY			0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
GOVERNMENT			0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
INDUSTRY			0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
GOVERNMENT			0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
INDUSTRY			0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
GOVERNMENT			0.					





REFERENCE

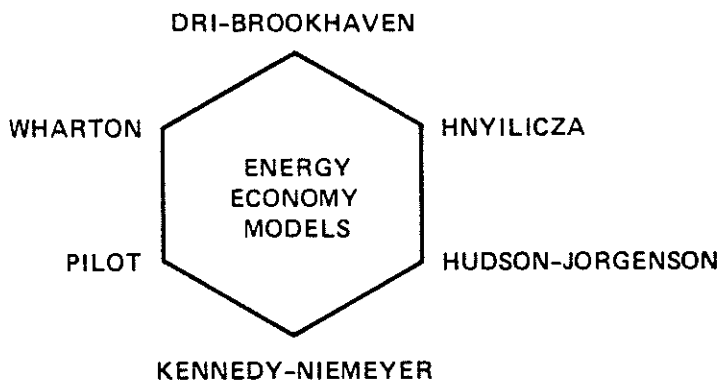
- [1] Darmstadter, J.; Dunkerley, J.; and Alterman, J., "How Industrial Societies Use Energy: A Comparative Analysis", Resources for the Future Report, Washington, D. C., 1977.

Appendix G

ABBREVIATED MODEL DOCUMENTATION

This appendix includes brief descriptions of the individual models participating in the EMF study. The short descriptions were prepared by the modelers or extracted from the longer documentations as available.

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ABBREVIATED MODEL DOCUMENTATION

Working Paper

EMF 1.9

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Energy Modeling Forum  
Institute for Energy Studies  
Stanford University  
Stanford, California 94305

Appendix G  
ABBREVIATED MODEL DOCUMENTATION

Section 1

ABBREVIATED DESCRIPTION OF THE  
STANFORD PILOT MODEL

Prepared by the PILOT Modeling Group

SUMMARY DESCRIPTION OF THE MID-1976 PILOT

Our modeling activity in building the first version of the PILOT model concentrated on the supply side of the energy picture. In particular, this version of PILOT includes modeling of oil and gas exploration and extraction activities as well as the uranium extraction activities in addition to the existing and new fossil energy technologies and the nuclear fuel cycle. To provide the underlying growth setting for the economy, a dynamic input-output system is employed in which the final demand components of consumption, capital formation, imports, and exports are endogenously determined, and the government expenditures are assumed given. The labor force and its productivity growth are also assumed to be given.

The model includes a description in physical terms of the industrial processes of the economy and the demands for consumption, capacity formation, government services, and net exports. The description of the processes that provide useful energy to the economy constitutes the detailed energy submodel. This consists of technological descriptions of the raw energy extraction and the energy conversion processes as well as the energy import and export activities. Four linkages interconnect the energy sector to the rest of the economy: energy demands of the economy, bill of goods needed for energy processing and capacity expansion, total manpower available to all sectors (including energy), and a trade balance constraint which requires equating of total exports to total imports when these items are evaluated in 1967 dollars over each five year period.



The industrial sectors of the economy are represented by a 23 order input-output matrix. The sectors are grouped as follows: 5 energy sectors, 1 agriculture, 1 nonenergy mining, 5 energy intensive manufacturing, 4 energy nonintensive manufacturing, 4 services, and 3 capital formation. For computational efficiency, a modification recently was implemented that also permits construction of the model at a more aggregated 12 sector detail. Here five energy sectors are preserved but nonenergy sectors are aggregated into the following seven sectors: agriculture, mining and construction, energy intensive manufacturing, energy nonintensive manufacturing, transportation, services, and machinery and transportation equipment. Consumption is modeled in terms of consumption patterns of the average consumer. This sector does not have a fixed bill of goods; the consumption vector varies as a function of a parameter representing the total per capita consumption attained.

Capital formation needed for replacement of retired plant and equipment as well as for capacity expansion is endogenously modeled. Capacities for various processes are differentiated from one another. The capital equipment of the nonenergy sectors is depreciated exponentially whereas the energy facility capacities are assumed instead to have fixed physical service lives.

Construction lags are used to specify the time it takes to build new capacity. These construction lags may be varied individually for all 18 nonenergy sectors as well as for all energy facilities.

Exports are treated as final demand items. The imports are considered in two parts, noncompetitive and competitive. The noncompetitive imports are for those goods and services for which no domestic substitutes exist. They are treated as a part of the technology of the consuming industrial sector. On the other hand, competitive imports of goods and services for which domestic substitutes do exist are treated as activities that can augment the domestic production by a desired amount. Finally, the trade balance constraint ties together the amounts of all imports and exports. It requires that the revenues from exports be no lower than the cost of imports when these items are evaluated in 1967 dollars.

The detailed energy sector contains conventional energy technologies, such as oil refineries, coal fired power plants, etc., as well as new technologies of the future, such as coal synthetics, oil shale, plutonium recycle reactors, etc. (Figure G-1).

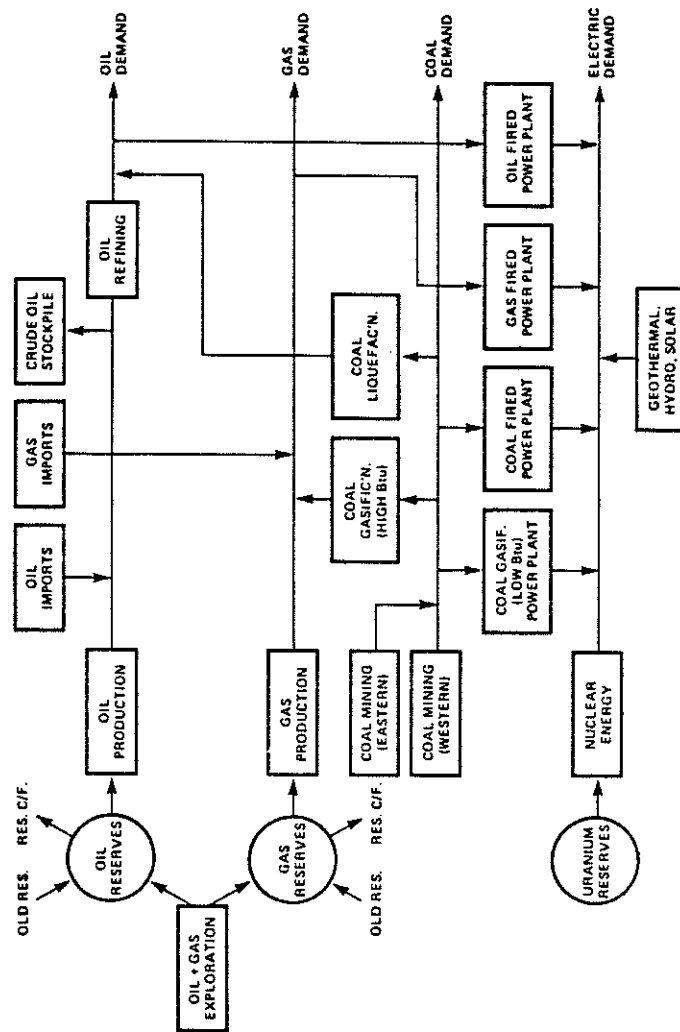


Figure G-1 The Energy Sector of PILOT

As noted earlier, the energy sector also includes a description of the exhaustion process of the three exhaustible energy resources: oil, gas, and uranium. For oil and gas, finding rate functions are used to specify the amount of oil-in-place and gas reserves to be found for a given amount of drilling effort. The level of drilling effort is endogenously determined. The advanced (and expensive) techniques of secondary and tertiary recovery also are defined in the model. For natural uranium, the increasing effort (hence increased cost) to extract it is modeled in terms of the progressively higher amounts of uranium mining and milling capacity needed due to poorer ore quality as more and more uranium is extracted. In both of the above cases, piecewise linear approximations are used to model the nonlinear functions while preserving the linearity of the constraints.

The maximand in the mid-1976 PILOT is the undiscounted sum of the gross national consumption over 40 years, subject to: a "monotonic per capita consumption" constraint, requiring that the average per capita consumption must be nondecreasing over time; an initial condition stating a lower limit on the first period consumption, and a terminal condition stating a lower limit on the amount of capital formation in the last period.

#### DEFICIENCIES IN THE MID-1976 PILOT

In its present form, the model includes: detailed description of the energy technologies, explicit description of the exhaustion processes for oil, gas, and uranium, the dynamics of the capital formation and the resource extraction that explicitly take into account the intertemporal tradeoffs, nonmalleable capital, variable construction lags, endogenous treatment of trade with the rest of the world, and consumption functions that were derived using a procedure that assumes equal absolute additions to income of all income groups and that describes the changing patterns of consumption with the changes in the standard of living as measured by the aggregate level of per capita consumption.

The model also contains a flexibility to experiment with the exogenously specified temporal profiles of consumer fuel mix. This feature makes it possible to examine the effects of the interfuel substitution by consumers, especially in those scenarios where initial optimization indicates wide dispersion in the shadow prices of different fuels. There also is a flexibility in the model to examine the effects of reduced energy demand resulting from the conservation and efficiency measures implemented by the consumers and the industry, either voluntarily or through legislative means.

This version of the model, however, does have some weaknesses. It does not contain explicit modeling of the substitution possibilities on the energy demand side. Thus, the possibilities of switches by the consumers and the industry from the scarce forms of fuels to more abundant forms of fuels, nonenergy materials, labor, or capital are not endogenously considered in the model. The main disadvantages here consist of the necessity of examination of the solution outputs for bottleneck reducing substitutions, and reoptimization with appropriate adjustments in the matrix coefficients. Such reoptimizations, however, could be time consuming and cumbersome.

On the energy supply side, a weakness in the model is an absence of the endogenous descriptions of the requirements for the environmental related hardware, particularly with respect to coal usage. The total coal production, therefore, is essentially exogenous in the model. Also, the 40 year planning horizon of the model is not long enough for certain decisions related to energy. Two examples worthy of mention in this regard are the decisions related to the fast breeder reactor and the central station solar technologies.

#### CURRENT MODEL DEVELOPMENTS

Most of the developments, of course, deal with overcoming the deficiencies just outlined.

- Coal Module--Physical Supply Curve of Delivered Coal  
(factors included: water, environment, changing transportation requirements)
- Longer Planning Horizon--100 Year Model with Variable Time Period Aggregation for Computational Efficiency
- Potential Interfuel and Capital Fuel Substitution Module--Incorporates Efficiency Improvements and Constraints Imposed by Existing Stocks of Utilizing Devices
- Welfare Equilibrium Variant--Comprehensive but More Aggregate Substitution Functions for Consumers and Industry
- Financial Flow Model--To Study Market Imperfections

A coal module is being prepared that takes into account the following considerations related to significant increases in the coal production: water availability constraints, environmental considerations related particularly to high sulfur coal, and shifts as well as increases in transportation requirements related to anticipated increases in the market share of western coal. While it is true that the supply curve of coal at mine mouth is relatively flat, a more

meaningful supply curve is the one for delivered coal that takes into account the above considerations. For details, see [1; Appendix C].

An approach is being developed for extending the planning horizon to 100 years. The main difficulty here is computational, resulting from 20 five year periods. The staircase structure of the PILOT model with 20 steps would take a significantly higher computational time. To overcome this difficulty, a computer program has been developed and is being tested to aggregate the 20 time periods into a smaller number of time periods. A notable feature of this program is that it will allow aggregation in a form that does not require all the time periods to be of equal length. The length of any time period in the aggregation can be any desired multiple of five years. For details, see [1; Appendix H].

A major area of development deals with modeling of the substitutions on the demand side. Two approaches are being pursued here. The first one concerns process analysis based modeling of the limited area of interfuel and capital fuel substitution, the objective of which is to facilitate studies dealing with the determination of potential substitutions by consumers away from the scarce forms of energy that explicitly take into account the fact that the demand in the short run is "locked" into the existing stock of utilizing devices, and either retrofitting or replacement is required to bring forth adjustments. For details, see [1; Appendix G].

The second approach concerns modeling of a much more comprehensive set of substitutions in the consumer and industrial demand but on a highly aggregated scale. Implementation of substitutions is achieved through a hierarchy of pairwise substitutions. "Hierarchical homothetic functions" are used to mathematically express the choice making behavior and technological substitutions. This approach is described in some detail [2].

Finally, some basic research is being conducted in the area of modeling market imperfections. The key idea here is an observation that the shadow prices from linear programming are marginal prices and not reflective of market prices which may be affected in part by institutional factors. The purpose of the Financial Flow Model is to derive an additional set of dual variables which reflects a number of institutional relationships that cannot be captured in the Physical Flow Model. For details, see Avriel and Dantzig [3] and Jackson and Dantzig [1; Appendix J].

## Section 2

### ABBREVIATED DESCRIPTION OF THE KENNEDY-NIEMEYER MODEL

Abstracted from "Energy and Economic Growth"  
Prepared by Michael Kennedy and E. Victor Niemeier [4]

#### SOLUTION OF THE MODEL

A summary of the mathematical conditions for equilibrium in the model and a brief outline of the solution procedure follows.

In each year, there are 10 commodities which are in perfectly inelastic supply. These are the amounts of capital services available to each sector ( $\bar{K}_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, 9$ ) and total labor available ( $\bar{L}$ ). The solution procedure finds a set of prices that has the property that the derived demands for each of these commodities equals their fixed supply. Output prices ( $P_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, 9$ ) and GNP are functions of factor prices ( $r_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, 9$ , and  $w$ ); final net demands are functions of output prices and GNP; gross demands are functions of net demands, and derived demands for capital services and labor are functions of factor prices and gross demands. As a result, derived demands for factor inputs can be reduced to functions of only factor prices in any given year. (This logic follows the outline of a competitive economy given by Arrow and Starrett [5].)

Finding the equilibrium of the model, then, reduces to finding a set of factor prices with the property that the derived demands for factor inputs equals their supply. This is essentially a problem of solving a system of 10 equations for 10 unknowns. We have developed an algorithm for finding the equilibrium factor prices.

The complete set of mathematical relations which must be satisfied by the equilibrium values of the endogenous variables is given below.

MATHEMATICAL DESCRIPTION OF THE MODEL

In each year, the exogenous variables are

$L$ --labor supply

$\bar{K} = (\bar{K}_i, i = 1, \dots, 9)$ --capital stock available for use in sector  $i$

$A$ --a  $9 \times 9$  matrix of intermediate input-output coefficients

$\underline{X}, \underline{M} = (X_i, M_i, i = 1, \dots, 9)$ --exports and imports of the output of each sector

The endogenous variables are

$\underline{r} = (r_i, i = 1, \dots, 9)$ --price of capital services to each sector

$w$ --the wage rate, normalized at unity

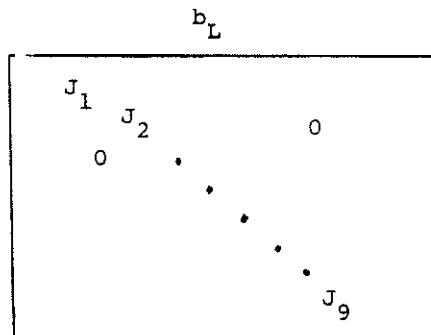
$\underline{p} = (p_i, i = 1, \dots, 9)$ --the price of output of each sector

$\underline{Q} = (Q_i, i = 1, \dots, 9)$ --gross domestic output of each sector

$\underline{C} = (C_i, i = 1, \dots, 9)$ --consumption of the output of each sector

$\underline{G}, \underline{I} = (G_i, I_i, i = 1, \dots, 9)$ --spending by government and by investors on the output of each sector

$B$ --a  $10 \times 9$  matrix, partitioned as



where  $b_L$  is a  $1 \times 9$  vector of direct labor coefficients  
 $J_i, i = 1, \dots, 9$  is the direct capital input coefficient for the  $i$ th sector

The model finds a set of endogenous variables in each year that satisfies these general equilibrium conditions:

$B = B(w, \underline{r})$ --derived from production functions

$Y = wL + r'K$ --an income identity

$P = A'P + B' \begin{pmatrix} w \\ r \end{pmatrix}$

$Q = A_Q + C(p, Y) + G(p, Y) + I(p, Y) + X(p, Y) - M(p, Y)$ --supply equals demand  
on product side

$\left(\frac{L}{K}\right) = B_X$ --supply equals demand on factor side

The next year's capital stocks then are computed as described above.

#### NUMERICAL ASSUMPTIONS

As yet, we have not attempted to estimate the parameters of this model with historical data. Instead, we have made assumptions about the values of the parameters, which are listed below. Where possible, the parameters used were adopted from the Hudson-Jorgenson model (1974) and its underlying data base (1973).

As a result, the simulations we have done are illustrative and have the purpose of indicating the qualitative features of the model. In these simulations, we simply want to see what directions the equilibrium solution is pushed when key exogenous variables, particularly those representing conditions of energy supply, are varied.

The behavior of a system such as this is so complex that analytical expressions of derivatives of endogenous variables with respect to exogenous variables are impossible to derive, so that simulation is the only effective method of learning about it at all. In addition, the numbers we have chosen are meant to represent the U.S. economy. Thus, we feel that the results have some real world relevance, although the reader must judge for himself.



### Section 3

#### ABBREVIATED DESCRIPTION OF THE WHARTON MODEL

Abstracted from "The Structure of the Wharton Annual Energy Model"  
Prepared by Lawrence R. Klein and William F. Finan [6]

#### INTRODUCTION

Wharton Econometric Forecasting Associates (WEFA) has an ongoing long run macro-economic forecasting project. The main tool of this forecasting effort is the Wharton Annual Model. The distinguishing feature of this model is its fully integrated 47 industry sector input-output (I-O) table. A column input modeling algorithm allows I-O technical coefficient change to be endogenized. Coefficient movements are a result of both technical change and price induced substitution among industry inputs.

While the existing Annual Model structure allows a fine degree of industry detail to be modeled, the energy sector (especially primary energy producing industries, such as crude oil production, natural gas production, and coal mining) is not sufficiently detailed. A major objective of the energy modeling effort at WEFA has been to restructure the Annual Model to improve the energy sector detail. Increased detail has been added through two approaches. First, external to the I-O table, energy using and supplying industries have been modeled through the use of what is called "satellite models". Appending satellite models to the macro-model allows energy related industries to be modeled in detail. The second step taken to increase energy detail was to modify the I-O table of the Annual Model. The I-O table was disaggregated to display important energy using and supplying sectors. Work also was initiated to respecify the column input modeling algorithm to improve the model's behavior with respect to the problem of long run interfuel substitution.

#### INTRODUCTION OF I-O INTO THE MACROMODEL STRUCTURE

Table G-1 shows the sectoring in detail. Major energy consuming industries which are particularly important for energy policy studies of interfuel substitution

Table G-1

WHARTON ANNUAL ENERGY MODEL SECTORING <sup>†</sup>

<u>SECTOR NUMBER</u>	
1	Farm, Agricultural Services, Forestry, and Fisheries
2	Metal Mining
3	Coal Mining
4	<u>Crude Petroleum and Natural Gas Liquids</u> *
5	<u>Natural Gas</u> *
6	Nonmetallic Minerals Mining
7	<u>New Construction, Nonfarm residential</u>
8	<u>New Construction, Nonresidential</u>
9	<u>New Construction, Other</u>
10	<u>New Construction, Utilities</u>
11	Food and Beverages
12	Tobacco
13	Textile Mill Products
14	Apparel and Related Products
15	Paper and Allied Products
16	Printing and Publishing
17	<u>Industrial Organic and Inorganic Chemicals</u>
18	<u>Chemicals, Other</u>
19	Petroleum Refining and Related Industries
20	Rubber and Miscellaneous Plastic Products
21	Leather and Leather Products
22	Lumber and Wood Products
23	Furniture and Fixtures
24	<u>Cement</u>
25	<u>Stone, Clay, and Glass Products, Other</u>
26	<u>Iron and Steel</u>
27	<u>Primary Aluminum</u>
28	<u>Primary Nonferrous Metal (excluding Aluminum)</u>
29	Fabricated Metal Products
30	Nonelectrical Machinery
31	Electrical Machinery
32	Ordinance, Other Transportation Equipment
33	Motor Vehicles and Parts
34	<u>Instruments, Related Products, and Miscellaneous Manufacturing</u>
35	Railroads
36	Local, Suburban, Interurban Highway Passenger Transportation
37	Motor Freight Transportation and Warehousing
38	Water Transportation
39	Air Transportation
40	Pipeline Transportation
41	Transportation Services

<sup>†</sup>Underlining denotes changes from existing macromodel table.

\*Exist only as separate sectors along row

WHARTON ANNUAL ENERGY MODEL SECTORING (Continued)

SECTOR NUMBER

42		Communication
43		<u>Electric Utilities</u>
44		<u>Gas Utilities</u>
45		<u>Water and Sanitary Services</u>
46		Wholesale Trade
47		Retail Trade
48		Finance and Insurance
49		Real Estate
50		Services
	(51)	Eliminated R and D †
51	(52)	<u>Federal Electric Utilities</u>
52	(53)	<u>Other Federal Enterprises</u>
53	(54)	<u>Local Government Passenger Transit</u>
54	(55)	<u>State and Local Electric Utilities</u>
55	(56)	<u>Other State and Local Government Enterprises</u>
56	(57)	Imports
	(58)	Business Travel and Entertainment †
	(59)	Office Supplies †
	(60)	Scrap, Used and Secondhand Goods †
57	(61)	Government Industry
58	(62)	Rest of World
59	(63)	Inventory Valuation Adjustment

FINAL DEMAND

A. Consumption

60	(1)	Autos
61	(2)	Furniture and Fixtures
62	(3)	Other Durables
63	(4)	Food and Beverages
64	(5)	Clothing and Shoes
65	(6)	Gasoline and Oil
66	(7)	<u>Other Nondurables, Fuel Oil</u>
67	(8)	<u>Other Nondurables, except Fuel Oil</u>
68	(9)	Housing Services
69	(10)	<u>Household Operating Services, Electricity</u>
70	(11)	<u>Household Operating Services, Gas</u>
71	(12)	<u>Household Operating Services, Other</u>
72	(13)	Transportation Services
73	(14)	Other Services

B. Fixed Investment

74	(1)	Farm
75	(2)	Ore and Nonmetallic Minerals Mining
76	(3)	Coal Mining
77	(4)	Crude Petroleum and Gas Mining
78	(5)	<u>Primary Iron and Steel</u>
79	(6)	<u>Aluminum</u>
80	(7)	<u>Other Primary Nonferrous</u>

†Eliminated from final table

WHARTON ANNUAL ENERGY MODEL SECTORING (Continued)

SECTOR NUMBER

81	(8)	Electrical Machinery
82	(9)	Nonelectrical Machinery
83	(10)	Motor Vehicles
84	(11)	Aircraft, Ordnance, Other Transportation Equipment
85	(12)	<u>Cement</u>
86	(13)	<u>Other Stone, Clay, and Glass</u>
87	(14)	Fabricated Metals
88	(15)	Lumber
89	(16)	Furniture
90	(17)	Instruments and Miscellaneous Manufacturing
91	(18)	Food and Beverage
92	(19)	Textiles
93	(20)	Paper
94	(21)	Chemicals
95	(22)	Petroleum Refining
96	(23)	Rubber
97	(24)	Apparel
98	(25)	Leather
99	(26)	Printing
100	(27)	Transportation
101	(28)	<u>Electric Utilities</u>
102	(29)	<u>Gas, Water Utilities</u>
103	(30)	Communication
104	(31)	Commercial, Other
105	(32)	Tobacco

C. Trade

106	(1)	<u>Exports, 0 + 1</u> <sup>†</sup>
107	(2)	<u>Exports, 2 + 4</u>
108	(3)	<u>Exports, 5 - 9</u>
109	(4)	<u>Exports, Coal, 3</u>
110	(5)	<u>Exports, Other Fuel, 3</u>
111	(6)	<u>Exports, Services</u>
112	(7)	<u>Imports, 0 + 1</u>
113	(8)	<u>Imports, 2 + 4</u>
114	(9)	<u>Imports, 5 - 9</u>
115	(10)	<u>Imports, Crude Oil, 3</u>
116	(11)	<u>Imports, Residual Fuel Oil, 3</u>
117	(12)	<u>Imports, Natural Gas, 3</u>
118	(13)	<u>Imports, Other Fuels, 3</u>
119	(14)	<u>Imports, Services</u>

D. Inventories

120	Inventories *
-----	---------------

<sup>†</sup>SITC Code

\*Inventories are exogenous.

WHARTON ANNUAL ENERGY MODEL SECTORING (Continued)

SECTOR NUMBER

E. Government

121	Federal National Defense
122	Federal Nondefense, Other
123	State and Local Education
124	State and Local Health and Welfare
125	State and Local Safety
126	State and Local, Other

have been disaggregated in the I-O table. The number of final demand categories also was expanded.

At a general level, the energy supplying sectors in the I-O matrix can be grouped into two categories: primary energy producing industries (crude oil production, natural gas production, and coal mining) and secondary energy producing industries (refining, electricity generation, and nuclear fuel processing). WEFA obtained the MacAvoy-Pindyck Natural Gas and Petroleum Exploration Model to model domestic natural gas and petroleum supply. This model, combined with Wharton's Coal Model, provides a detailed complete presentation of the domestic primary energy producing industries. Coal, natural gas, and crude petroleum output exist in the disaggregated input-output table as separate sectors. Thus, the primary energy supply sectors are fully integrated into the I-O table. The secondary energy producing industries are not modeled at a similar level of detail in the present version of the model. These sectors are included in the macromodel I-O table and are handled with the existing macromodel structure. Petroleum refining, electric power generation, and natural gas distribution exist as separate sectors. Future work will expand the detail of the secondary sectors.

Important energy using sectors are included in the I-O table at a highly disaggregated level. For example, cement, iron and steel, and primary aluminum exist as separate sectors. Work also is under way to model key energy using sectors with satellite models and/or process models.

#### ALTERNATIVE APPROACHES TO MODELING COLUMN INPUTS

In the present version of the macromodel, changes in column inputs are modeled by an approach developed by Dr. Ross Preston [7]. Preston has shown that if industries combine least cost intermediate inputs subject to a CES production constraint with given outputs, a linear formulation of the intermediate input demand function can be derived and estimated.

While Preston's approach to modeling column changes was a major improvement over earlier techniques, it was not felt to be completely satisfactory with respect to modeling changes in the composition of energy inputs. For example, a common substitution elasticity is applied to all inputs. Clearly this is an extreme assumption above. One solution is to group column inputs into basic layers with

differing elasticities within and between layers. Wharton also is investigating two other approaches to estimate substitution parameters between pairs of column inputs: the use of satellite models, and statistical cost functions. These approaches will be discussed now.

#### Satellite Models

A satellite model is "one that studies detailed interrelationships of an industrial sector or significant parts of it separate from the macroeconomic system". Satellite systems are constructed to model industry structure, particularly with respect to energy consumption, in a highly detailed manner. This micromodeling approach allows adjustments of the composition of industry inputs to relative price movements, shifts in material availability, or technological change. Since the satellite systems are integrated with the macrosystem, compositional shifts determined in the satellite system affect the main macromodel solution.

#### Modeling Column Input Change with Statistical Cost Function

Professor James M. Griffin, University of Pennsylvania, has proposed a new procedure to model changes in I-O technical coefficients which combines industry process models with statistical cost function estimation [8]. Process models of various industries tend to be of such a large size they cannot be introduced directly in the macromodel despite their explicit description of the technology and ability to elicit the cost minimizing inputs corresponding input-output coefficient for that input. The statistical cost function is estimated from "pseudo data" generated by the process model. "Pseudo data" are generated by solving the industry process model for alternative vectors of relative input prices. Each solution yields the corresponding cost minimizing input levels and total costs. This information becomes the observations in the pseudo data sample which then are used to estimate a statistical cost function. In essence, the statistical cost function serves as a type of reduced form description of the technological structure. A dynamic adjustment process, such as in the layered Hickman-Lau, then is used to model the movement from one long run cost function to another [9].

#### CONCLUSION

The Wharton energy modeling approach is to integrate highly detailed satellite systems with a disaggregated I-O table. Solution of the linked system allows the impact of alternative energy scenarios to modify the composition of industry fuel inputs, and in turn, feed through to the I-O table to the remainder of the model.

#### Section 4

##### ABBREVIATED DESCRIPTION OF THE HUDSON-JORGENSON MODEL (DRI LITM)

Provided by Robert C. Dullien

The DRI Long-term Interindustry Transactions Model (LITM) has been created from the Hudson-Jorgenson Macroeconomic and Interindustry Models for the United States economy [10]. These models have been integrated through a method that allows the rapid inclusion of further submodels as well as the more efficient use of the system for policy analysis purposes. The Interindustry part of the combined model has been revised through the inclusion of production functions for nuclear, hydroelectric, geothermal, solar (utility), and direct solar energy production as well as shale oil production and coal liquefaction and gasification.

The Macroeconomic Model (MM) provides the general characteristics of the economic environment. It consists of behavioral equations fitted with parameters using data for the 1947-1973 period and also of accounting identities. It projects the amount and price of consumption, investment and capital and labor service inputs on a yearly basis. The demand for goods and services by government, the amount of exports net of imports, the supply of labor, the percent of labor unemployed, and the inflation rate for the economy as a whole are exogenous to the MM.

The Interindustry Model (IM), in the LITM framework, provides a means of disaggregating the Macroeconomic Model's projections to a level which is more informative, yet manageable. The economy is divided as shown in Table G-2. Of the 14 producing sectors, 10 relate directly to energy production. Three crude energy carrier extraction processes are modeled and seven energy refining processes.

The two models can be combined in two different ways due to the existence of two different sets of production functions. In Integration Mode 1, the Macroeconomic Model's production function dominates. In this mode, the Macroeconomic Model fully determines the growth path of aggregate inputs and outputs for the economy.



Table G-2

PRODUCING SECTORS OF THE DATA RESOURCES, INC.  
LONG-TERM INTERINDUSTRY TRANSACTIONS MODEL

SECTOR NUMBER

MAJOR PRODUCING SECTORS:

1	Agriculture and Nonfuel Mining
2	Manufacturing, excluding Petroleum Refining
3	Transportation
4	Communication, Trade, and Services
5	Coal
6	Crude Petroleum
7	Crude Natural Gas
8	Refined Petroleum and Substitutes
9	Electricity
10	Refined Natural Gas and Substitutes

HYDROELECTRIC, NUCLEAR, AND UNCONVENTIONAL ENERGY  
PRODUCTION SECTORS:

11	Nuclear Energy
12	Hydroelectric
13	Geothermal
14	Solar Electric
15	Shale Oil
16	Coal Liquefaction
17	Coal Gasification
18	Solar Direct

The Interindustry Model then is calibrated to agree with the Macroeconomic Model's aggregate results. This type of integration is useful for establishing long term projections from scratch and studying the effects of certain Federal tax or other macroeconomic policies.

In Integration Mode 2, the production functions endogenously determined in the Interindustry Model dominate. The Macroeconomic Model is reduced to keeping track of the supply of labor and capital and the determination of consumption and investment demand. This mode allows the analysis of the effects of policies or assumptions that relate to one or more sectors of the IM.

The two models are integrated using a framework which allows the user to select any of a number of available equations and variables for inclusion in the simultaneous equation system. If one sees the need to endogenize a formerly exogenous parameter, one may do so by adding an equation to the already existing system. Or one may add a whole set of equations that, in fact, comprise a whole other model. The effect of the existence of this framework is that models can be integrated with ease and that additional equality constraints can be added without doing any computer programming. It thus makes the use of the LITM more efficient for policy analysis purposes.

## Section 5

### ABBREVIATED DESCRIPTION OF THE HNYILICZA MODEL

Abstracted from  
"A Long-Term Macroeconomic Energy Model: An Overview"  
by Esteban Hnyilicza [11]

Our primary objective in the development of our macroeconomic model has been the formulation of an integrated and consistent framework of analysis that would relate the market mechanisms for energy products, nonenergy products, and primary factors of production to the fundamental process underlying the determination of economic growth: the link between current capital formation and future production.

The underlying theoretical basis for our macroeconomic energy model is the neo-classical theory of general equilibrium. There are three basic constituents of the general equilibrium problem:

- Producer Behavior. Given some specification of technologically feasible combinations of inputs and outputs, producers attempt to acquire factor services and produce goods in such a way as to maximize their flow of profit.
- Consumer Behavior. Given some representation of consumer preferences, households attempt to offer factor services and purchase goods in such a way as to attain a maximum level of utility flow.
- Market Adjustment Process. Given the demand and supply functions resulting from the characterization of producer and consumer behavior, market forces determine an adjustment process toward a set of prices for goods and factor services that clear all goods and factor markets.

Our macroeconomic model has been formulated within this basic structure, incorporating fully endogenous treatment of the production and household sectors. The role of each individual decision unit in the overall system can be established in a straightforward way. Households acting as price takers develop decisions attempting to arrive at preferred positions subject to expenditure constraints and given price data; producers acting as price takers develop decisions attempting to achieve maximum profit subject to technological constraints and given price data. Analysis of these decisions yields results describing the manner in

which individual decisions are affected by changes in price data taken as given. Processes of market adjustment then alter prices until the foregoing decisions are mutually consistent and markets clear.

The other two major components of the model are the government and foreign sectors. The government sector has its revenue generated by the tax structure and the tax bases but its expenditure is largely exogenous. Demand for imports is generated as part of the system of derived factor demands in the production sector but the rest of the foreign trade sector is exogenous to the model.

The structure of production in our model incorporates two production sectors corresponding to energy and nonenergy products, respectively. The model includes five markets for products, two markets for capital services, and one market for labor services. The products are supplied by the energy and nonenergy sectors and used by all sectors; factors are supplied by the household sector and used by the two production sectors. The rate of capital accumulation and the rate of increase of wealth also are determined within the model and, together with the rate of technological progress, establish the dynamic evolution of the system. Identities that relate the income and expenditure flows across the various product categories and balance equations that summarize the conditions for market equilibrium complete the structure of the model.

The formulation of our model falls within the tradition of general equilibrium models because we assume that the supply and demand schedules for each good and service determine all prices and quantities transacted within a simultaneous process of market equilibration. Our formulation is neoclassical because we postulate that the behavioral characteristics of the basic decision units can be described in terms of maximizing behavior in the presence of appropriate constraints.

## Section 6

### ABBREVIATED DESCRIPTION OF THE DRI-BROOKHAVEN MODEL

Abstracted from "A Combined Linear Programming and Econometric Systems Analysis of the Relation Between Energy, Growth, and the Economy"  
Prepared by David J. Behling, Jr. and Robert C. Dullien [12]

#### INTEGRATION SCHEME BETWEEN BNL AND DRI MODELS

First, the flows from the DRI Combined Model to the BNL Combined Model will be described. The DRI Model is used to estimate:

- aggregate final demands for insertion into the BNL I-O Model (final demand disaggregates are based on BNL forecasts [13]);
- an aggregate interindustry input-output flow matrix, which is used to estimate aggregate input-output coefficients in the BNL Input-Output Model (disaggregates are based on BNL forecasts [13]);
- nonenergy prices, which are used to estimate the nonenergy cost components of energy conversion processes, for insertion in the objective function of the BNL LP Model;
- energy demand price elasticities, (obtained by simulation of the combined DRI Model) which are used to estimate changes in functional energy requirements in the BNL I-O Model.

The integration procedure incorporates the reverse flows from the BNL to the DRI models, as follows:

- DRI annual energy production, export and import rates are controlled to BNL estimated values.
- The BNL estimated fuel mix specification for the electric utility sector is inserted in the DRI Interindustry Model.
- The DRI aggregate capital and labor requirements are adjusted for BNL determined incremental capital and labor requirements associated with new energy technologies.
- The DRI energy prices are adjusted for BNL estimated energy scarcity values (shadow prices).

The general effect of these linkage relationships is to constrain the general equilibrium solution values to energy values determined by the BNL Combined Model.

The BNL Model, in turn, is driven by DRI estimated aggregates along with the DRI pattern of energy demand, overridden in some cases by engineering based forecasts of new energy technologies. (For example, consumer demand for gasoline in the BNL I-O Model is based on DRI estimated income and price elasticities, adjusted in some cases for the possible introduction of electric cars, and/or FEA guidelines for automobile fuel efficiency.)

#### SOLUTION PROCEDURES FOR INTEGRATED MODEL SCHEMES

The general research program to integrate the BNL and DRI Models is a two-fold policy and theoretical research effort. Existing models and integration procedures are being used for policy analysis, while at the same time model linkage equations, data definition consistency checks, and solution procedures for future policy analysis are being developed. For current policy applications to date, only the quantity structure of all the models have been integrated, and even with respect to quantities, the iterative solution procedures which have been utilized have not been iterated to full convergence.

The current state of the model integration effort is described in detail in [14]. In this effort, complete consistency of final demand estimates and energy quantities were obtained, but some discrepancies between models in energy allocation by sectors remained.

For future policy analysis, Dale Jorgenson and Ed Hudson of DRI have developed a scheme to fully integrate both the pricing and output structures of all models. The general nature of this integration scheme will be published in subsequent papers. Preliminary testing of this procedure has been programmed and convergent solutions were reached. However, the following two general problems remain. First, the BNL data set is not fully consistent in a definitional sense with that of the DRI Model due to such problems as inconsistent dollar to Btu conversion factors, and differing treatments of secondary product flows. Second, the BNL LP Model generates step functions relating shadow prices to energy quantities, while the DRI Combined Model incorporates only continuous functions. As a result, energy price feedback relations from the BNL to the DRI Model generate either very large or zero changes in the DRI Model solutions. Additional work to smooth out the LP generated step functions is thus required.

In addition, David Behling is developing an independent integration scheme which utilizes energy price elasticity data specified with respect to the functional

use of energy (space heating, water heating, etc.) as well as with respect to type of energy form (oil, electricity, etc.) and purchasing industry (steel, aluminum, paper, etc.). This scheme is still in the development stage.

While the nature of the eventual linkage and computer relations between the DRI Combined Model and the BNL Combined Model still is under investigation, much work has been done in aligning the DRI Combined Model for BNL estimated quantity values. The mechanism which performs the alignment of endogenous results with exogenous target values for the DRI models is a generalized version of the linear Newton's method algorithm. There is significant flexibility in the selection of variables for this scheme. Available state and control variables are catalogued in the computer program manual. The user can select the set of state variables which will be adjusted through a user-selected set of control variables until they match a user-specified set of target values. The algorithm is highly efficient. The user is able to keep the amount of computation to the bare minimum by specifying, as input, which off-diagonal elements of the Jacobian need to be computed.

The alignment of the BNL Combined Model for DRI determined magnitudes involves only the adjustment of parameters exogenous to the BNL Combined Model. Currently this adjustment is done manually.

#### USE OF INTEGRATED SCHEME IN POLICY ANALYSIS TO DATE

This model integration scheme has been used to estimate the income, output, employment, price, and oil and gas import displacement effects of alternative combinations of energy research and development and energy taxation policies. The results of this study are contained in [14]. Currently the same preliminary version of the integrated scheme also is being used to generate forecasts of energy production and consumption levels from 1985 to 2000, using the FEA \$13 per imported barrel of oil reference scenario as the 1985 starting point [15]. Parametric solutions also are being estimated on the basis of alternative policy specifications as to imported oil prices (and/or tariffs or quotas) and levels and mixes of new energy technology availabilities.

#### FUTURE ANTICIPATED RESEARCH EFFORTS

Besides reconciling the data bases of the various BNL and DRI Models and developing and implementing fully consistent and efficient solution schemes to integrate both the price and output structures of the individual models, several additional

research efforts are anticipated. At present, all models included in the integration scheme are defined with respect to national averages. However, an interregional version of the BNL linear programming allocation model currently is being developed at BNL. When completed, this interregional model will be incorporated into the integration scheme, permitting regional estimates of energy production, transportation, and consumption activities.

Currently several energy sector supply models are being tied to the DRI Inter-industry Model [16]. These supply models also will be used to generate price, supply relationships which, in turn, will be tied to the Brookhaven LP Model. At present, domestic energy supply amounts are specified either completely exogenously or are determined on the basis of exogenously specified supply price elasticities. Prices, in turn, are estimated either on the basis of expected average costs of production plus endogenously determined incremental scarcity values or on the basis of exogenously determined import prices. More explicit treatment of supply relationships will permit more detailed analysis of government policies affecting supply relationships (e.g., the effect of energy profit taxes and expected drilling or mining rates).

A dynamic version of the Brookhaven LP Model also is being developed by William Marcuse and Lawrence Bodin of BNL [17]. When completed, this model will be used to estimate optimal scarcity values of domestic energy resources and capacities over time. Scarcity values estimated in static versions of the LP Model then will be checked against corresponding scarcity values obtained in the dynamic model so as to incorporate into the integration framework the influence of possible future energy resource scarcities on present resource prices.

Research on estimating possible future microrelationships between energy prices, energy research and development expenditures on energy utilizing processes, and energy consumption levels also is being initiated at BNL. At present, only macrorelationships between industrial output, energy consumption, and energy prices are incorporated in the integrated framework along with the interfuel substitution possibilities for meeting functional energy requirements.



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