Trade, Leakage, and the Design of a Carbon Tax

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Abstract

Climate policies vary widely across countries, with some countries imposing stringent emissions policies and others doing very little. When climate policies vary across countries, energy-intensive industries have an incentive to relocate to places with few or no emissions restrictions, an effect known as leakage. Relocated industries would continue to pollute but would be operating in a less desirable location. We consider solutions to the leakage problem in a simple setting where one region of the world imposes a climate policy and the rest of the world is passive. We solve the model analytically and also calibrate and simulate the model. We find (1) optimal climate policies tax both the supply of fossil fuels and the demand for fossil fuels; (2) on the demand side, absent administrative costs, optimal policies would tax both the use of fossil fuels in domestic production and the domestic consumption of goods created with fossil fuels, but with the tax rate on production lower due to leakage; (3) taxing only production (on the demand side), however, would be substantially simpler and almost as effective as taxing both production and consumption because it would avoid the need for border adjustments on imports of goods; (4) the effectiveness of the latter strategy depends on a low foreign elasticity of energy supply, which means that forming a taxing coalition to ensure a low foreign elasticity of energy supply can act as a substitute for border adjustments on goods.

Keywords: climate change, carbon taxes, carbon leakage, carbon border adjustments

JEL Codes: F18, H23, Q54

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1 Introduction

If nations adopt different prices on greenhouse gases, industries have an incentive to relocate where carbon prices are low. The result, known as leakage, is an increase in emissions in low-tax countries, undermining the efficacy of climate change policies while at the same time distorting the location of production. Concerns about leakage have been central to the design of carbon policies in the United States, the European Union, and other regions of the world.

The most common response to leakage is to impose what are known as carbon border adjustments or more simply border adjustments. Border adjustments combine taxes on the emissions associated with imports and rebates of prior taxes paid for exports. They shift the tax downstream, for example, from emissions from domestic production to emissions associated with domestic consumption. They are thought to help insulate the tax from leakage because, with border adjustments, the tax would be the same regardless of the location of production. Every carbon tax bill introduced in the current Congress includes border adjustments. The European Union has proposed a version for its cap and trade system. Border adjustments have also been subject to significant study. (For a recent review of the literature, see Böhringer et al (2022).)

Notwithstanding their prominence, it is still not clear whether, or the extent to which, border adjustments are desirable, or whether alternative approaches may be preferable. To answer this question, we consider the design of a carbon tax in a simple setting where one region of the world imposes a carbon policy and the rest of the world does not. The taxing region sets policies to address climate change while taking into account the possibility of leakage. We solve the model to find the optimal choices for the taxing region, constraining those choices to fit with commonly proposed policies.\(^1\) We also calibrate the model and simulate various policies to get a sense of the size of the effects.

We get the following results.

(1) Impose the tax on both the supply and the demand for fossil fuels. The usual result in taxation is that in the absence of avoidance, or evasion, the legal

\(^1\) The approach builds on but simplifies the model in Kortum and Weisbach (2021). The two key differences are (1) this paper restricts the set of policies that the taxing region can impose to those that are similar to existing or proposed policies while Kortum and Weisbach find the unrestricted optimal policy, and (2) because we restrict choices to simpler policies, some details of the model in Kortum and Weisbach (2021) don’t matter here.
incidence of a tax doesn’t alter its economic effects. As a result, in the absence of trade (or if the tax were global), a carbon tax could be imposed entirely upstream on extractors to minimize administrative costs, as suggested by Metcalf and Weisbach (2009). With trade and the possibility of leakage, this result no longer holds.

In particular, carbon taxes are commonly imposed on the use of fossil fuels in production or on the implicit consumption of fossil fuels embodied in goods, but in both cases, on the demand for fossil fuels. Taxes on the demand for fossil fuels lower their global price, inducing an increase in their use or consumption abroad. Taxes on the extraction of fossil fuels, that is, on their supply, by contrast, raise their global price, inducing an increase in extraction abroad. Our first result is that the optimal policy combines taxes on supply and demand, so that these effects offset, allowing the taxing region to control responses in the rest of the world.\(^2\)

Incorporating this principle into the design of carbon taxes involves an almost trivial adjustment to current proposals yet offers potentially enormous gains in terms of the effectiveness of the tax. Many current carbon tax bills impose the tax nominally on extraction. They then impose border adjustments on energy (that is taxes on the imports of fossil fuels and rebate of taxes paid on exports of fossil fuels) at the same tax rate, to shift the tax downstream to domestic production.\(^3\) If the border adjustments on energy were imposed at a lower rate than the nominal extraction tax, a portion of the tax would remain on extraction instead of being shifted downstream. Our simulations here show that this minor

\(^2\)This result was implicit in the seminal paper of Markusen (1974). Contributions by Hoel (1994), Keen and Kotsogiannis (2014), and Balistreri, Kaffine, and Yonezawa (2019) develop the idea in the context of carbon taxes and carbon border adjustments. Nonetheless, it does not appear to have been incorporated into the design of carbon taxes. In fact, we are not aware of any carbon taxes (or cap and trade systems) that incorporate this principle. One possible explanation is that the models in those papers were restrictive. In particular, those papers assumed an economy with extraction and direct consumption of fossil fuels, such as for transportation or residential heating. They did not include a manufacturing or production sector of the economy. Leakage concerns, however, are largely focused on the production of goods. We show that the result applies in a more general economy with production and the possibility of leakage due to shifts in the location of production.

\(^3\)H.R. 2307, The Energy Innovation and Carbon Dividend Act of 2021, is a typical example. It imposes a tax on oil refineries, coal mines, and any entity entering natural gas into the natural gas transmission system. In addition, importers of oil, coal, or natural gas must pay an import tariff, and exporters of these fuels receive a rebate of prior taxes paid. Both the import tariff and the export rebate are at the same rate as the underlying tax.
change has the potential to dramatically improve the effectiveness of the tax in reducing global emissions.

While this hybrid policy—combining a tax on extraction and a demand-side tax—is always desirable, there remains the question of how to impose the demand-side tax. Should it be on production, consumption, or some combination?

(2) Impose demand side taxes on both production and consumption. Our second result is that in the absence of administrative costs, the taxing region should impose the tax both on emissions from domestic production and on emissions associated with domestic consumption. The tax rate on production, however, should be lower than the tax rate on consumption to address concerns about leakage. If leakage is zero, the tax rate on production should equal the tax rate on consumption. If leakage is 100%, the tax rate on production should be zero.

This result answers the widely posed question of whether border adjustments should include export rebates in addition to import tariffs. In particular, to implement this set of taxes, the taxing region starts with a nominal extraction tax and shifts part of it downstream to production by imposing border adjustments on imports and exports of energy (at a lower rate than the nominal extraction tax). To shift the tax further downstream to consumption, the taxing region imposes border taxes on imports of goods at the same rate as the border adjustments on energy. The corresponding rebate on exports of goods, which removes taxes on domestic production for goods sold abroad, is lower than the import tariff, leaving some part of the tax on domestic production. The rebate on export is not typically zero, however, because of the possibility of leakage. We show that the rebate on exports in fact scales linearly with leakage. If leakage were zero there would be no rebate on exports while if leakage were 100 percent there would be a full rebate (i.e., at the same rate as the border adjustment on imports).

(3) Administrative costs may make border adjustments on goods undesirable. Once we include administrative costs it may no longer be desirable to impose taxes on both production and consumption. The key reason is that to impose taxes on emissions associated with domestic consumption, the taxing region must impose border adjustments on imports of goods. As discussed in Kortum and Weisbach (2017), doing so will be complex and expensive. Imposing a tax only on domestic production only requires border adjustments on imports and exports of energy, not goods. These border adjustments are simple to impose. As a result, a tax on extraction and emissions from production is much simpler to impose than
a tax on extraction and emissions associated with consumption.

Our simulations show that a combination of a tax on extraction and production often performs nearly as well as a tax on extraction and consumption. The gains from imposing border adjustments on goods is small. The key reason our simulations differ from those in the prior literature, which show modest but noticeable gains from border adjustments on goods, is that we simulate taxes on production and consumption as hybrid taxes that also include a tax on extraction (point (1) above) while the prior literature does not simulate hybrid systems. If the benefits from imposing border adjustments on goods is small, combining just a tax on extraction and a tax on domestic production may be the best policy.

The key parameter in this comparison is the foreign elasticity of energy supply. If this parameter is low, the combination of an extraction and production tax performs almost as well as taxes that also fall on consumption. If, however, the foreign elasticity of energy supply is high, the simpler combination of an extraction and production tax no longer performs well. In this case, shifting a portion of the tax downstream to consumption, via border adjustments on goods, may be desirable notwithstanding the administrative costs.

(4) Ensure that countries with a high elasticity of energy supply are in the taxing coalition. Building on point (3), one way to improve the effectiveness of the tax without having to impose border adjustments on goods is to ensure that the foreign elasticity of energy supply is low. To do this, the taxing coalition can work to include countries with a high elasticity of energy supply. In effect, this strategy—including countries with a high elasticity of energy supply in the taxing coalition—acts as a substitute for border adjustments.

We develop these results in four parts. Section 2 presents a model where individuals directly consume fossil fuels (for example, for transportation and residential heating), to illustrate the logic of combining taxes on supply and demand. Section 3 introduces trade in goods to allow us to study leakage. It shows that the results from Section 2 carry over to this more realistic setting and shows how the various demand side policies compare to one another. Section 4 provides our numerical simulations. Section 5 discusses the results and concludes.
2 Trade in Energy but Not Goods

We start by reviewing and extending the theory of optimal carbon policy in a two-region world where energy is used directly in consumption, such as for transportation or residential heating, but is not embodied in traded goods. This case provides intuition for why carbon policies should act on both the supply and the demand side of the energy market. The same intuition carries over to the more general case. The setting is similar to Hoel (1994). In Section 3 we introduce traded goods that are produced in either country with energy as an input, which allows us to consider leakage.

2.1 Graphical Intuitions

To develop intuitions, we use a graphical illustration of how domestic taxes affect trade. We assume that there are two regions of the world, Home and Foreign, that extract fossil fuel energy, $Q_e$ and $Q_e^*$, respectively, and directly consume it, $C_e$ and $C_e^*$ (a * indicates Foreign). Home imposes a carbon policy while Foreign is passive.

The left hand panel of Figure 1 shows the conventional supply and demand diagram for a good, here fossil fuel energy, and a tax, $t_e$, imposed on consumers. The interpretation is, equivalently, that the taxing region is the entire world or that there is no trade between the taxing region and the rest of the world (autarky). The tax creates a wedge between the amount consumers pay, $p_e + t_e$, and the amount sellers (here extractors of energy) receive, $p_e$. The equilibrium sets $Q_e = C_e$ given the wedge between extractors and consumers. As is conventional, in autarky it doesn’t matter if the tax is imposed on extractors or consumers because the wedge between the two would be the same regardless.

If there is trade in energy, illustrated by the right hand panel of Figure 1, we can see that this can’t be an equilibrium. If the price of energy goes down from $p_0$ to $p_e$, Foreign extractors would extract less energy while Foreign consumers would demand more, generating a net demand for Home exports, a demand which can’t be met if $Q_e = C_e$.

Figure 2 shows the equilibrium that would arise if Home taxes the consumption of energy and trades with Foreign. The price of energy, $p_e$, would still go down relative to the price without a tax, but it would go down less than it would in autarky. The lower price of energy would induce excess demand, $X_e$, in Foreign
(though less than illustrated in Figure 1), but Home would now have excess supply because $C_e < Q_e$ at the equilibrium price. The price of energy would go down just enough that Home’s excess supply matches Foreign’s excess demand. At that price, global supply, $Q_e + Q_e^*$, equals global demand, $C_e + C_e^*$.

Figure 3 shows the equilibrium if Home instead chooses to tax extractors, imposing a tax of $t_e$ instead of $t_c$ at the same rate. The logic is the same as with the consumption tax except now the price of energy seen by Foreign actors goes up. Foreign consumers demand less energy while Foreign extractors produce more,
resulting in excess supply in Foreign. To be in equilibrium, the price of energy goes up less than it would in autarky, inducing excess demand in Home \((C_e > Q_e)\). In equilibrium, the price of energy adjusts so that Home’s excess demand equals Foreign’s excess supply.

![Diagram](image)

Figure 3: Trade: extraction tax

The question, which we address immediately below, is how Home optimizes in this situation. As we will show, rather than choosing either a pure consumption tax or a pure extraction tax, Home mixes the two, which allows it to better control responses in Foreign.

### 2.2 Basic Model

To formalize the problem illustrated in Section 2.1, continue to assume that there are two regions, Home, which implements a carbon policy, and Foreign, which is passive. Home and Foreign are endowed with labor, \(L\) and \(L^*\). They both extract carbon-based energy and trade it at price \(p_e\). The labor required to extract a quantity of energy \(Q_e\) in Home is \(c(Q_e)\) while to extract \(Q_e^*\) in Foreign requires \(c^*(Q_e^*)\). Both \(c\) and \(c^*\) are strictly increasing and convex functions. A numeraire good, which we call services, is produced one-for-one with labor and is traded at price 1. Consumption of services in the two regions is constrained by the labor available to produce them, \(C_s + C_s^* = L + L^* - c(Q_e) - c^*(Q_e^*)\). Consumption of energy is constrained by global extraction of energy, \(C_e + C_e^* = Q_e + Q_e^* = Q_e^W\).
where we choose units so that global carbon emissions equal global extraction, $E = Q^W_e$.

The welfare functions in the two regions, $U$ and $U^*$, depend on consumption of goods and services as well as global emissions. To keep the analysis transparent we assume they are additively separable:

$$
U = C_s + u(C_e) - \varphi E
$$

$$
U^* = C^*_s + u^*(C^*_e) - \varphi^* E,
$$

where $u$ and $u^*$ are strictly increasing and concave functions. (Appendix A.2 shows that our key result, equation (2) below, holds without the assumption of additive separability.) The global externality that motivates carbon policy is $\varphi^W = \varphi + \varphi^*$. We can think of $\varphi^W$ as the global social cost of carbon.

Foreign’s energy supply curve, $Q^*_e(p_e)$, satisfies $c^*(Q^*_e(p_e)) = p_e$, with slope $Q^*_e > 0$. Foreign’s energy demand curve, $C^*_e(p_e)$, satisfies $u^*(C^*_e(p_e)) = p_e$, with slope $C^*_e < 0$. Thus if $p_e$ increases, Foreign extraction rises and Foreign consumption falls. Home indirectly influences Foreign extraction and consumption by manipulating the global price of energy through its carbon policy. If Home reduces $C_e$ the energy price declines while if it reduces $Q_e$ the energy price rises. This means that we can think of Home as choosing $p_e$ rather than choosing $Q_e$ and $C_e$.

Following Keen and Kotsogiannis (2014), we assume that Home can’t adopt policies that make Foreign worse off. All policies must be Pareto improvements. This approach eliminates terms-of-trade considerations and, in addition, helps motivate the assumption that Foreign remains passive. Within the model, it requires that Home transfer services to keep Foreign welfare at a threshold $\bar{U}^*$. With that transfer Foreign can consume services:

$$
C^*_s(p_e, E) = U^* + \varphi^* E - u^*(C^*_e(p_e)).
$$

The particular value of $\bar{U}^*$ doesn’t matter for the analysis that follows.

Finally, we assume that Home chooses its carbon policy to meet a global emissions goal of $\bar{E}$. Home focuses on global emissions rather than domestic emissions because the harm is the same regardless of the source of emissions. Moreover, focusing on global emissions forces Home’s policy to take leakage into
account, as we will see in the following section.\footnote{In the Paris Agreement, nations set domestic emissions goals rather than global goals, but the joint aim was to produce a global goal. One of the problems with the Paris structure is that it creates an incentive to offshore emissions because doing so makes it easier for a nation to meet its stated emissions goal.}

Home’s optimal policy is the solution to:

$$\max_{p_e} C_s + u(C_e) - \varphi\bar{E},$$

subject to labor market clearing and energy market clearing:

$$C_s = L + L^* - c(\bar{E} - Q_e^*(p_e)) - c^*(Q_e^*(p_e)) - C_s^*(p_e, \bar{E})$$
$$C_e = \bar{E} - C_e^*(p_e).$$

The first-order condition implies:\footnote{Substituting the two constraints into Home’s objective function, along with the expression for $C_s^*(p_e, \bar{E})$, and then differentiating with respect to $p_e$, the first-order condition is:}

$$c'Q_e^{*'} - c'^*Q_e^{*'} + u'^*C_e^{*'} - u'C_e^{*'} = 0.$$  

Applying the competitive-market conditions in Foreign, $c'^* = u'^* = p_e$, the first-order condition reduces to (1).

$$(p_e - c')Q_e^{*'} = (u' - p_e)|C_e^{*'}|. \tag{1}$$

(The absolute value on the slope of Foreign demand makes all terms positive.)

To interpret this equation, define the extraction wedge as the difference between the marginal cost of extracting energy in Foreign and Home, $p_e - c'$, and the consumption wedge as the difference between the marginal value of consuming energy in Home and Foreign, $u' - p_e$. A higher extraction wedge, corresponding to lower $Q_e$, raises the energy price while a higher consumption wedge, corresponding to lower $C_e$, reduces the energy price. Either wedge represents a global inefficiency. The optimal balance is for Home to equate the product of the price response of Foreign extraction and the extraction wedge to the product of the price response of Foreign consumption (in absolute value) and the consumption wedge. In this way Home minimizes the global inefficiency due to its inability to separately set Foreign extraction and consumption. Crucially, both wedges must be positive since Foreign supply is increasing and Foreign demand is decreasing in the energy price.
This condition will be satisfied with a combination of taxes in Home: an extraction tax equal to the extraction wedge and a consumption tax equal to the consumption wedge. Since both wedges are positive so are both taxes: it is optimal for Home to tax both the demand side and the supply side of the energy market. Rearranging equation (1), the relative tax rates satisfy:

\[
\frac{t_e}{t_c} = \frac{|C_e^*|}{Q_e^*}.
\]  

Equation (2) has a standard elasticity-type explanation, which is that Home wants to avoid taxes on highly responsive items. A tax on the demand for energy, \(t_c\), lowers the energy price seen in Foreign, causing Foreign demand to go up. The more responsive Foreign demand is to the price of energy, the lower the tax on domestic consumption. Similarly, a tax on domestic extraction increases the price of energy in Foreign, causing an increase in extraction there. The more responsive Foreign supply is to the price of energy, the lower the tax on domestic extraction. The optimal ratio of the taxes balances these concerns.\(^6\)

If Home chooses \(\bar{E}\) optimally, the sum of the taxes equals the global social cost of carbon: \(t_e + t_c = \varphi W.\) \(^7\) Home’s taxes satisfy the optimality condition for a globally harmonized tax (see Appendix A.1, for example) even though Foreign

\(^6\)Variations on the figures from the previous subsection illustrate the advantage of following this principle in two extreme cases. The first case is a vertical Foreign demand curve (\(|C_e^*| = 0\)), so that Foreign consumption \(C_e^*\) is fixed. Equation (2) implies that a pure consumption tax is optimal in this case. Sure enough, the after-tax price is higher in Figure 2 than in Figure 1, resulting in lower \(C_e\) and hence lower global emissions with trade (under this optimal policy) than in autarky. The second case is a vertical Foreign supply curve (\(Q_e^* = 0\)), so that Foreign extraction \(Q_e^*\) is fixed. Equation (2) implies that a pure extraction tax is optimal in this case. Sure enough, the after-tax price is lower in Figure 3 than in Figure 1, resulting in lower \(Q_e\) and hence lower global emissions with trade (under this optimal policy) than in autarky. It is easy to see that contradicting (2), by applying a pure extraction tax in the first case or a pure consumption tax in the second, would yield smaller reductions in global emissions (even smaller than under autarky.

\(^7\)Substituting the two constraints into Home’s objective function and then differentiating with respect to \(\bar{E}\), the first-order condition is:

\[ -c' - \varphi^* + u' - \phi = (p_e - c') + (u' - p_e) - \varphi W = 0. \]
doesn’t tax carbon. The individual taxes are then:

\[ t_e = \varphi^W \frac{|C_e''|}{Q_e'' + |C_e''|} \]

\[ t_c = \varphi^W \frac{Q_e''}{Q_e'' + |C_e''|} \]

with their sum equal to the global social cost of carbon \( \varphi^W \) and their ratio satisfying (2). The intuitions for these values are the same as for Equation (2). Looking at the expression for \( t_e \), the higher \( Q_e'' \), the lower the value of \( t_e \). Similarly, the higher the value of \( |C_e''| \), the lower the value of \( t_c \). (Appendix B shows how these results change if we replace the Foreign welfare constraint with a trade balance constraint.)

Figure 4 illustrates. Equation (2) requires that the consumption tax multiplied by the slope of Foreign’s demand curve equal the extraction tax multiplied by the slope of Foreign’s supply curve. The height of each rectangle is the tax. The ratio of the widths is equal to the ratio of the slopes of the supply and demand curves, \( Q_e'' \) and \( |C_e'| \) (with \( p_e \) on the \( y \) axis, slopes are read off the \( x \) axis). \(^8\) At the optimum, the mix of \( t_e \) and \( t_c \) is set so that the size of the two rectangles are the same, as shown in Figure 4. Because we have assumed that supply is steeper than demand, i.e. \( Q_e'' < |C_e'| \), the optimal extraction tax in this illustration exceeds the optimal consumption tax.

2.3 Policy Implementation

The taxes described in (2) and (3) are effective taxes. As noted, current carbon tax bills in the United States often begin with a nominal tax \( \tau \) on domestic extraction. They then impose taxes on US energy imports and rebate prior taxes paid on US energy exports, which we call border adjustments on energy and denote by \( \beta_e \).

Border adjustments on energy shift the nominal tax \( \tau \) on extraction downstream. In the present model, with no manufacturing sector, border adjustments on energy shift the tax all the way downstream to consumption. \(^9\)

\(^8\)This is because the widths are the base of the triangles underneath the supply and demand curves, above \( p_e - t_e \), and centered on the intersection of supply and demand.

\(^9\)If we add goods production, as we do in Section 3, border adjustments on energy only shift the tax to producers. As we discuss in Section 3.5, in that case border adjustments on goods are needed to shift the tax to consumption.
Current carbon tax bills set $\beta_e = \tau$ so that they shift the entire tax downstream, setting the effective tax on extraction to zero. The basic model here says that’s not optimal. To get to the optimal policy Home should impose the border adjustments on energy at a lower rate than the underlying extraction tax, i.e. $\beta_e < \tau$. A partial border adjustment shifts only a portion of the tax downstream to consumption. To implement the optimal effective taxes $t_e$ and $t_c$ in (3) Home would impose a nominal extraction tax at rate $\tau = t_e + t_c = \varphi^W$ and border adjustments at rate $\beta_e = t_c$ on energy imports and exports. This strategy of a nominal tax and border adjustments leaves the optimal effective tax on extraction at rate $t_e = \tau - \beta_e$.

2.4 Policy Coordination

Up to this point we have treated the Foreign region as passive. It has no carbon taxes and doesn’t consider introducing any when Home imposes them. We now consider the optimal policy for Home if Foreign already has carbon taxes. We continue to assume that Foreign is strategically passive; it doesn’t adjust its tax rates in response to Home’s policy.

Let $t_e^*$ be Foreign’s extraction tax, $t_c^*$ its consumption tax, and $\mu^*$ the sum of the two. Home’s optimal policy, including its optimal emissions goal, turns out to
be a simple generalization of (3):

\[ t_e = t_e^* + (\varphi W - \mu^*) \frac{|C_e^{**}|}{Q_e^{*} + |C_e^{*}|} \]

\[ t_c = t_c^* + (\varphi W - \mu^*) \frac{Q_c^{*}}{Q_e^{*} + |C_e^{*}|} \]  \hspace{1cm} (4)

Home’s optimal tax rates are like Foreign’s with an adjustment based on the deviation between \( \mu^* \) and the global social cost of carbon. The adjustment is optimally split between Home’s extraction tax and its consumption tax. If it happens that Foreign chooses \( \mu^* = \varphi W \) then Home simply matches the tax rates of Foreign and the global optimum, with harmonized taxes is obtained (as in Appendix A.1).

3 Trade in Energy and Goods

The key concern for unilateral carbon taxes is how those taxes affect the location of production. In particular, a unilateral carbon tax on production might cause production, and the resulting emissions, to shift offshore, an effect known as leakage. The basic model in Part 2, however, had only extraction and consumption of energy. It did not include the use of energy in production of traded goods.

We now extend the model to include production in both regions. The production sector in each region manufactures an array of tradable final goods using carbon-based energy. Goods are produced with varying levels of efficiency in different locations using a combination of labor and energy. They are traded based on Ricardian comparative advantage as in Dornbusch, Fisher, and Samuelson (1977). Taxes on production alter the regions’ comparative advantage, generating leakage.

In Kortum and Weisbach (2021) we derive the optimal carbon policy for

10The first-order condition for Home’s optimal global energy price, from footnote 5, is unchanged. But now the competitive-market conditions in Foreign are \( e^{*'} = p_e - t_e^* \) and \( u^{*'} = p_e + t_e^* \). Combining these results with Home’s competitive-market conditions \( (c' = p_e - t_e \) and \( u' = p_e + t_e) \) gives:

\[ (t_e^* - t_e)Q_e^{*'} + (t_c^* - t_c)C_e^{*'} = 0. \]

The first-order condition for Home’s optimal emissions goal, from footnote 7, is also unchanged so that \( t_e + t_c = \varphi W \) (while \( t_e^* + t_c^* = \mu^* \)). Substituting in these results, the equation above can be solved for \( t_e \) and \( t_c \) as in (4).
Home in this setting, without restricting the choices available to Home. Here, in order to connect directly with current policy proposals, we restrict Home to particular combinations of taxes: (i) the optimal combination of an extraction and consumption tax, (ii) the optimal combination of an extraction and production tax, and (iii) the optimal combination of all three. Many details of our earlier analysis aren’t needed for these simpler policies, so we leave them out. (More of the details are relevant for the numerical illustrations in the next section, as we discuss in Appendix D.)

3.1 Model Structure

The welfare functions from the basic model still hold but with the utility from consuming carbon-based energy replaced by the utility from consuming goods, both domestically produced and imported.\(^{11}\) These goods embody the energy used in their production in either Home or Foreign.

To trace and possibly tax emissions from production and the implicit emissions associated with consumption, we denote the implicit consumption of energy embodied in goods as \(C_e\) with a superscript denoting the source of the good and the location of consumption: \(C^{d}_e\) is energy in goods produced domestically and consumed domestically, \(C^{m}_e\) is energy in goods Home imports, \(C^{x}_e\) is energy in goods Home exports, and \(C^{f}_e\) is energy in goods Foreign both produces and consumes. The total quantity of energy associated with goods consumed in Home is \(C_e = C^{d}_e + C^{m}_e\). Similarly \(C^{*}_e = C^{f}_e + C^{x}_e\). We can also account for all energy used in producing goods in Home, \(G_e = C^{d}_e + C^{x}_e\) and in Foreign \(G^{*}_e = C^{f}_e + C^{m}_e\).

Table 1 shows how these values relate to one another, with rows showing emissions by location of consumption and columns by location of production. Table 1 shows the values for the year 2015 under the assumption that Home is the OECD.\(^{12}\) As we will discuss in Section 4, we use these values to calibrate our model for simulation. Global emissions in 2015 were 32.3 GtCO\(_2\) and of that, the OECD emitted 12.2 GtCO\(_2\). Most of that, 11.3 GtCO\(_2\) was consumed domestically. The OECD imported 2.5 GtCO\(_2\) so that it consumed 13.8 GtCO\(_2\).

\(^{11}\)In this extended model we drop the direct consumption of energy as in the basic model. Including both would be relevant for a more detailed quantification than we provide in Section 4.

\(^{12}\)Table 1 corresponds to Table 5 in Kortum and Weisbach (2021). The source is the Trade Embodied in CO\(_2\) database made available by the OECD (2019).
Table 1: Carbon matrix, OECD, 2015

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Home</th>
<th>Foreign</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Home</td>
<td>$C_d = 11.3$</td>
<td>$C_{me} = 2.5$</td>
<td>$C_e = 13.8$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign</td>
<td>$C_x^e = 0.9$</td>
<td>$C_f^e = 17.6$</td>
<td>$C_e^e = 18.5$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>$G_e = 12.2$</td>
<td>$G_e^e = 20.1$</td>
<td>$C_e^W = 32.3$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extraction</td>
<td>$Q_e = 8.6$</td>
<td>$Q_e^e = 23.7$</td>
<td>$Q_e^W = 32.3$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Units: gigatons of CO$_2$.

In the basic model of Section 2.2 we started with a planner in Home setting quantities (implicitly via its choice of $p_e$ and explicitly via its choice of $E$). Here we directly model a competitive market economy with a policy maker choosing tax rates. In addition to an extraction tax, $t_e$, we will need to consider three demand-side taxes corresponding to the three sources of demand that Home can influence through its taxes: (i) a tax $t_d$ on the energy $C_d^e$ used to produce goods in Home for the domestic market, (ii) a tax $t_m$ on the energy $C_{me}^e$ used to produce the goods Home imports, and (iii) a tax $t_x$ on the energy $C_x^e$ used to produce Home exports. The consumption tax considered in Section 3.2 restricts $t_d = t_m = t_e$ and $t_x = 0$. The production tax considered in Section 3.3 restricts $t_d = t_x = t_p$ and $t_m = 0$. The combination of all three taxes considered in Section 3.4 removes these restrictions, allowing arbitrary combinations of production and consumption taxes.

Note that these taxes are effective taxes. While effective taxes are unique, there are a number of different ways to implement them. In particular, instead of directly imposing the effective taxes, Home could start with a nominal extraction tax and impose border adjustments on imports and exports of energy and of goods. Various combinations of border adjustments produce each of the policies we consider. We defer the discussion of implementation to Section 3.5, and here work with effective taxes.

Because we are working with prices and taxes, it is convenient to use indirect utility functions, which give the maximum welfare that a region can attain given spending and prices. Those prices are the effective cost of the energy embodied in the goods that are consumed. They are given by $p_d^e = p_e + t_d$, $p_m^e = p_e + t_m$. 
\( p^*_e = p_e + t_x \), and \( p^f_e = p_e \). Production and trade in services means wages (and the price of services) are 1 in both regions.

Exploiting the separability assumptions of the basic model, welfare becomes:

\[
U = Y + \tilde{u}(p^d_e, p^m_e) - \varphi E \\
U^* = Y^* + \tilde{u}^*(p^f_e, p^x_e) - \varphi^* E.
\]

The tilde on \( \tilde{u} \) and \( \tilde{u}^* \) distinguishes indirect utility from direct utility \( u \) and \( u^* \) in the basic model. Here \( Y \) and \( Y^* \) represent the levels of spending in Home and Foreign.

Spending in each region comes from labor income, rents to the energy sector, tax revenue, and transfers (from Home to Foreign): \( Y = L + R_e + R_t - T \) and \( Y^* = L^* + R^*_e + T \). Because Foreign has no carbon policy it gets no tax revenue. Rents to the energy sector in Home (with an extraction tax \( t_e \)) are \( R_e = (p_e - t_e)Q_e - c(Q_e) \). As in the basic model, we assume that the level of transfers keep Foreign welfare at \( \bar{U}^* \), so \( T = \bar{U}^* + \varphi^* E - \tilde{u}^*(p^f_e, p^x_e) - L^* - R^*_e \).

Substituting these sources of spending into Home welfare, dropping constants, and imposing the global emissions constraint \( \bar{E} \), Home’s objective is to choose taxes that maximize the Lagrangian:

\[
\mathcal{L} = R_e + R^*_e + R_t + \tilde{u}(p^d_e, p^m_e) + \tilde{u}^*(p^f_e, p^x_e) - \varphi^W \bar{E} - \mu(E - \bar{E}),
\]

with Lagrangian multiplier \( \mu \) on the global emissions constraint. (Recall that global emissions equal global extraction, \( E = Q^W_e \).) In solving this maximization problem, the policy maker accounts for how its choice of taxes affects the energy price and quantities of energy supplied and demanded in the global energy market. When there is no ambiguity, we denote the response of any variable \( x \) to the energy price by \( x' = \partial x / \partial p_e \).

### 3.2 Taxing Extraction and Consumption

Our first application of this model is to solve for the optimal combination of an extraction tax \( t_e \) and a consumption tax \( t_c \), requiring \( t_d = t_m = t_c \) and \( t_x = 0 \). Home’s tax revenue is \( R_t = t_e Q_e + t_e C_e \). Under a consumption tax \( p^d_e = p^m_e = p_e + t_c \) for goods consumed in Home and \( p^f_e = p^x_e = p_e \) for goods consumed in Foreign, no matter where they are produced.
Home’s optimal policy is to maximize the Lagrangian $\mathcal{L}$ in (5) by choosing $t_e$ and $t_c$ (the full derivation is in Appendix C.1). Taking first-order conditions, given $\bar{E}$, yields equation (2) from the basic model. Adding trade in goods that embody carbon-based energy doesn’t matter when we limit the policy to consist of an extraction tax and a consumption tax. Home uses both taxes, with the optimal ratio of the two taxes being the relative price sensitivity of implicit energy demand to energy supply in Foreign.

Home’s optimality condition for its emissions goal is $t_e + t_c = \mu = \varphi^W$, delivering (3) from the basic model. While the bottom line here looks like the solution to the basic model, there is a key distinction. In Section 2 we found that the combination of an extraction tax and a consumption tax was optimal. Here that’s not necessarily true since we imposed a carbon policy consisting of only those two taxes (and then found a condition for their optimal magnitudes). In what follows we explore other taxes, and how they might replace or be combined with an extraction and consumption tax.

### 3.3 Taxing Extraction and Production

Suppose that instead of an extraction and consumption tax Home is restricted to an extraction tax and a production tax, $t_p$, requiring $t_d = t_x = t_p$ and $t_m = 0$. Home’s tax revenue is $R_t = t_e Q_e + t_p G_e$. Under a production tax $p_d^e = p_x^e = p_e + t_p$ for goods produced in Home and $p_f^e = p_x^e = p_e$ for goods produced in Foreign, no matter where they are consumed.

While we didn’t need to consider leakage in the combination of an extraction tax and a consumption tax, with a production tax we do. Unlike with a tax on consumption, a tax on Home’s production reduces its comparative advantage, causing a shift in the location of production and hence leakage. Leakage is conventionally defined as the increase in Foreign emissions relative to the decrease in domestic emissions, for a given change in $t_p$:

$$\Lambda = -\frac{\partial G_e^*/\partial t_p}{\partial G_e/\partial t_p} > 0.$$  \hspace{1cm} (6)

Note that there are two sources of leakage captured by $\Lambda$.\textsuperscript{13} Foreign can

\textsuperscript{13}Our use of a Greek letter does not imply that the leakage rate is an invariant constant. It will typically vary with the production tax rate, for example.
increase its use of energy to serve its own consumers: $C^f_e$ might go up relative to $C^x_e$ in response to an increase in $t_p$. In addition, Home can increase its imports from Foreign: $C^m_e$ might go up relative to $C^d_e$ in response to an increase in $t_p$. With only a production tax, Home is subject to both sources of leakage. As we will see, if Home is also able to tax consumption (i.e. taxing imports), it can eliminate the latter source, leaving only the increase in $C^f_e$ relative to $C^x_e$, or what we will call “Foreign leakage.”

Home’s optimal policy is to maximize the Lagrangian $\mathcal{L}$ in (5) by choosing $t_e$ and $t_p$ (the full derivation is in Appendix C.2). Evaluating the first-order conditions yields the analog of equation (2), now for the optimal ratio of an extraction tax to a production tax:

$$\frac{t_e}{t_p} = \frac{|G'^*_e| + \Lambda|G'_e|}{(1 - \Lambda)Q'^*_e}. \tag{7}$$

The energy-price sensitivity of Foreign production, $|G'^*_e|$, tilts the optimum toward an extraction tax in (7), similar to how $|C'^*_e|$ does so in (2). Furthermore, greater leakage, as measured by $\Lambda$, makes it optimal to tax extraction at a higher rate relative to production. The reason is that with more leakage, the production tax becomes less effective in lowering global emissions.

Optimizing over $\bar{E}$ shows that as leakage goes up the (unweighted) sum of the two taxes goes down:

$$t_e + \frac{t_p}{1 - \Lambda} = \mu = \varphi^W. \tag{8}$$

The policy becomes less effective with greater leakage, and Home responds by taxing less. The optimal extraction-production tax loses the feature that the sum of the taxes imposed by Home – here the wedge it creates between the after-tax price paid by its producers and the after-tax price received by its extractors – is equal to the global social cost of carbon, as in the extraction-consumption policy. Leakage limits Home’s ability to tax carbon.

Combining (7) and (8) gives the analog of of (3) for an extraction-production tax:

$$t_e = \varphi^W \frac{|G'^*_e| + \Lambda|G'_e|}{Q'^*_e + |G'^*_e| + \Lambda|G'_e|},$$

$$t_p = \varphi^W \frac{Q'^*_e}{Q'^*_e + |G'^*_e| + \Lambda|G'_e|}. \tag{9}$$

Greater leakage not only tilts taxes toward extraction, it actually raises the
extraction tax rate (while lowering the production tax rate by even more).

3.4 Taxing Extraction, Consumption, and Production

Finally, suppose Home is free to choose \( t_d, t_x, \) and \( t_m \) independently (together with an extraction tax, \( t_e \)).\(^{14}\) The effective cost of energy is \( p_e + t_d \) for Home producers supplying the domestic market, \( p_e + t_m \) for Foreign producers supplying imports to Home, and \( p_e + t_x \) for Home exporters. Home’s tax revenue is \( R_t = t_e Q_e + t_d C_e^d + t_m C_e^m + t_x C_e^x \). Home’s optimal policy is to maximize the Lagrangian \( \mathcal{L} \) in (5) by choosing \( t_e, t_d, t_m, \) and \( t_x \) (the full derivation is in Appendix C.3).

Although Home has the flexibility to tax imports differently than domestically produced goods, the first-order conditions for the relevant tax rates, \( t_m \) and \( t_d \), give us \( t_d = t_m \). These tax rates are thus equivalent to Home’s consumption tax: \( t_d = t_m = t_c \).

Because this policy involves elements of a production tax, in the form of \( t_x \), we need to introduce leakage again. Due to the consumption-tax element that we just derived, however, there is no leakage in serving Home consumers – producers in both Home and Foreign face the same price of energy when selling in Home. If \( t_x > 0 \), however, Foreign producers still have an advantage relative to Home producers when serving Foreign consumers, resulting in Foreign leakage (denoted with a *). Foreign leakage is the increase in Foreign production to serve Foreign consumers relative to the decrease in Home production to serve Foreign consumers, both for a given change in \( t_x \):

\[
\Lambda^* = \frac{\partial C_f}{\partial t_x} > 0. \tag{10}
\]

The first-order conditions for \( t_e, t_c, \) and \( t_x \) yield two tax ratios. The first is the analog of that for the extraction-production policy (7):

\[
t_e = \frac{|C_f'| + \Lambda^* |C_{xx}|}{(1 - \Lambda^*)Q_e'}. \]

\(^{14}\)This freedom still does not allow Home to reach the optimal policy found in Kortum and Weisbach (2021). That policy also includes per-unit export subsidies for exported goods. We ignore that feature of an optimal policy in this paper.
The second is the analog of that for the extraction-consumption policy (2):

\[ \frac{t_e}{t_c} = \frac{|C_e^{f'} + \Lambda^*|C_e^{x'}}{Q_e^{x'}}. \]  

The numerator of (11) is less than $|C_e^{x'}|$ as long as $\Lambda^* < 1$. With Foreign leakage below 100% it is optimal to raise the consumption tax relative to the extraction tax, compared to the case for an extraction-consumption tax (2). The reason is that keeping a tax on Home’s exports, via the production tax, eliminates a reason for relying on the extraction tax to keep the consumption tax low.

Combining the results above, while optimizing over $E$, we get $t_e + t_c = \varphi^W$ and hence the optimal policy:

\[ t_e = \varphi^W \frac{|C_e^{f'} + \Lambda^*|C_e^{x'}}{Q_e^{x'} + |C_e^{f'} + \Lambda^*|C_e^{x'}} \]
\[ t_c = \varphi^W \frac{Q_e^{x'}}{Q_e^{x'} + |C_e^{f'} + \Lambda^*|C_e^{x'}} \]
\[ t_x = (1 - \Lambda^*)t_c. \]  

While we refer to it as an extraction-production-consumption tax, the production component is only present in the tax on exports, $t_x$.

Two restricted versions of this policy are insightful. The first is to simply set $t_x = 0$, ignoring the corresponding first-order condition. The resulting problem is equivalent to taxing only extraction and consumption, as in Section 3.2. It emerges as the optimal here if $\Lambda^* = 1$. If Foreign leakage is 100%, taxing exports doesn’t reduce global emissions so it is best to set $t_x = 0$. The second is to set $t_x = t_e = t_{cp}$. This condition would be optimal if $\Lambda^* = 0$. If there were no Foreign leakage, there would be no reason to lower the tax on exports relative to the tax on domestic consumption.\(^{15}\)

\(^{15}\)This second policy might also arise because of legal or policy constraints. For example, trade law might require exports to be taxed at the same rate as domestic consumption. If it is a constraint, Home would optimize over $t_{cp}$ (a combined consumption-production tax) and $t_e$. To solve the resulting first-order conditions requires introducing yet a third measure of leakage:

\[ \hat{\Lambda}^* = -\frac{\partial C_e^f / \partial t_{cp}}{\partial C_e / \partial t_{cp} + \partial C_e^x / \partial t_{cp}}. \]
3.5 Policy Implementation

In Section 2.3 we noted that if we start with a nominal extraction tax of $\tau$, adding partial border adjustments $0 < \beta_e < \tau$ on the imports and exports of energy shifts a portion of the tax downstream. In the basic model (i.e., without manufacturing) these border adjustments shift $\beta_e$ of the tax all the way downstream to consumers of energy leaving an effective tax $t_e = \tau - \beta_e$ on extraction.

When we add manufacturing and trade in goods, border adjustments on energy shift the tax to producers who use energy to manufacture goods. Home needs additional border adjustments on the imports and exports of goods to shift the tax to the implicit consumption of carbon. Because the extraction-production-consumption policy treats imports and exports of goods differently (that is, $t_p \neq t_e$), Home needs separate border adjustments to implement this policy: a border adjustment on the energy content of imports of goods ($\beta_m$), and a border adjustment on the energy content of exports of goods ($\beta_x$). With these three border adjustments ($\beta_e$, $\beta_m$, and $\beta_x$) and a nominal tax on the extraction of energy, $\tau$, Home can implement any of the three hybrids considered in this paper. Table 2 shows the mapping, specific to each policy, from effective tax rates to the nominal tax on extraction together with border adjustments that achieves the same outcome.

To implement the extraction-production hybrid in expression (9), the first row of Table 2 shows that Home would impose a nominal extraction tax of $\tau = t_e + t_p$ and border adjustments on imports and exports of energy at a lower rate of $\beta_e = t_p$. This shifts $t_p$ downstream to production, leaving $\tau - t_p$ on extraction. Because this border adjustment is only on energy, it would be simple to implement – energy imports and exports are already highly regulated and monitored. It would, moreover, only require a slight rewording of existing legislative proposals, namely reducing the magnitude of the border adjustment on energy from $\tau$ to $\beta_e$ (as well as eliminating any border adjustments on goods found in the legislation).

so that $\tilde{\Lambda}^* < \Lambda^*$. The solution for optimal tax rates is:

$$t_e = \mu \frac{|C_f'| + \tilde{\Lambda}^*|C_e' + C_x'|}{Q_{c'}' + |C_f'| + \tilde{\Lambda}^*|C_e' + C_x'|}$$

$$t_{cp} = \mu \frac{(1 - \tilde{\Lambda}^*)Q_{c'}'}{Q_{c'}' + |C_f'| + \tilde{\Lambda}^*|C_e' + C_x'|}.$$ 

The form of these expressions is familiar from the solution for taxing extraction and production, in Section 3.3.
Table 2: Policy Implementation with Border Adjustments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Taxes on:</th>
<th>( \tau )</th>
<th>( \beta_e )</th>
<th>( \beta_m )</th>
<th>( \beta_x )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>extraction and production</td>
<td>( t_e + t_p &lt; \varphi^W )</td>
<td>( t_p )</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>extraction and consumption</td>
<td>( t_e + t_c = \varphi^W )</td>
<td>( t_c )</td>
<td>( t_c )</td>
<td>( t_c )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>extraction, production, and consumption</td>
<td>( t_e + t_c = \varphi^W )</td>
<td>( t_c )</td>
<td>( t_c )</td>
<td>( t_c - t_x )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( \tau \) is the nominal extraction tax, \( \beta_e \) is the border adjustment on energy, \( \beta_m \) (imports) and \( \beta_x \) (exports) are border adjustments on goods.

To implement the extraction-consumption hybrid in expression (3), Home would impose a nominal extraction tax of \( \tau = t_e + t_c \) and border adjustments on imports of energy at a lower rate of \( \beta_e = t_c \), much like for the extraction-production case. To shift the tax downstream to consumption, however, it would also have to impose border adjustments on imports and exports of goods (\( \beta_m \) and \( \beta_x \) respectively) also at rate \( t_c \). This leaves a tax of \( \tau - t_e \) on extraction, and no tax on production. As we discuss in Kortum and Weisbach (2017), computing accurate border adjustments on goods is expensive and complex because there is no straightforward way to determine the implicit energy content of imports (or even exports). Any resulting border adjustments are likely to be inaccurate. Whether it is desirable to incur these costs to impose border adjustments on goods depends on whether, and if so by how much, the extraction-consumption hybrid outperforms the extraction-production hybrid, an issue we explore in our quantitative illustrations of Section 4.

Finally, to implement the combination of all three taxes (12), Home again imposes a nominal extraction tax of \( \tau = t_e + t_c \). The border adjustment on energy and on imports of goods is \( \beta_e = \beta_m = t_c \). Unlike with the extraction-consumption tax, however, there is an even lower border adjustment on the export of goods, \( \beta_x = t_c - t_x \). That is, to tax exports at an effective rate of \( t_x \) under this implementation, producers of goods would receive an export rebate of \( \beta_x = \Lambda^* t_c \). The tax on production is proportional to Foreign leakage. If \( \Lambda^* \) is zero, there should be no rebate on exports. As Foreign leakage goes up, so does the export rebate. With \( \Lambda^* = 1 \), the rebate on exports of goods would equal the tax on imports of goods. There would be no tax on production, and the combined policy would be an extraction-consumption tax. That is, the value of Foreign leakage,
Λ∗, gives us the answer to the commonly-posed policy question of whether border adjustments should include rebates of prior taxes paid for exports of goods. While implementing this three-way hybrid involves all the difficulties associated with computing the carbon content of goods, it would be no more difficult to administer than the extraction-consumption tax.

4 Quantitative Illustrations

To get a sense of the size of the benefits from the various types of hybrid taxes, we calibrate and simulate the model described in Part 3. Our sufficient-statistic formulas for optimal taxes in Sections 2 and 3 give intuitions, but they do not allow us to compute numerical values or to compare welfare across all policies. To do this, we need to add considerable additional detail, including functional forms for extraction and production, and for the efficiency of production of goods in each region. We follow the approach taken in Kortum and Weisbach (2021). Details can be found there.

We calibrate the business as usual competitive equilibrium of the model to the data on global carbon flows from Table 1. Then, following the approach in Dekle, Eaton, and Kortum (2007), we can compute the effects of various policies relative to this baseline. Calibrating the model this way subsumes transport costs for goods, which Kortum and Weisbach (2021) model as iceberg costs.

In addition to our calibration to the CO₂ matrix, we also need values for several elasticities. As we will discuss, a key parameter is Foreign’s elasticity of energy supply, ε⁺_S = p_e Q_c''/Q_c'. Our baseline value is ε⁺_S = 0.5 but because of uncertainty in this value, we also show simulations for ε⁺_S = 2.16

Our figures show what we call “policy frontiers” for various combinations of taxes. Along the x-axis of the frontier is the cost of the policy, measured as the decline in services consumption as a percent of the business-as-usual level of spending on goods consumption (ignoring the benefits of emissions reductions). The y-axis shows the resulting global emissions reductions as a percent of their business-as-usual level (which with no policy is 32.3 gigatons of CO₂). The frontier for a given policy (when optimized) is traced out by ranging over values of φ^W,

16We also set the share of energy in production equal to 0.15, the Foreign demand elasticity (ε⁺_D = p_e C_c''/C_c') equal to 1, and the trade elasticity equal to 4. More details on the calibration are in Kortum and Weisbach (2021).
so that each point on the line shows the emissions reductions that Home’s policy would achieve for a given social cost of carbon. The red $x$ on each line shows the policy that Home would choose in each case when $\varphi^W = 2$, which means that the global social cost of a unit of carbon is twice the value of energy containing a unit of carbon.

Figure 6 compares the three hybrid policies and the two standard approaches to carbon taxes, a tax on domestic production and that same tax with border adjustments on goods (which shifts it to domestic consumption). As can be seen, with this calibration, all three hybrid policies perform similarly and substantially outperform the two standard approaches. For example, adding an extraction-tax component to a production tax nearly doubles the global emissions reductions the policy would achieve at any given cost.

In this calibration, there is almost no advantage to adding border adjustments on goods. The emissions reductions that are achievable with a simpler tax – the combination of an extraction and production tax – are about the same. Given the complexities of imposing border adjustments on goods, the modest additional emissions reductions are unlikely to be worth the costs.

Figure 6 explores the robustness of these results to Foreign’s energy supply elasticity by setting $\epsilon_5^* = 2$ instead of 0.5. The extraction-production tax now performs less well. The reason is that with a high value of $\epsilon_5^*$, the extraction component of the various hybrid policies, which raise the global energy price, induce a significant positive response by Foreign extractors. The policies must, as a result, rely more on demand-side taxes, and the leakage costs of the production tax therefore play a larger role. In this case, all of the policies that use a consumption tax as the demand-side tax (including a pure consumption tax) outperform the policies that rely on a production tax. Because a demand-side tax on consumption does not cause leakage, policies that impose the demand side tax on consumption are more robust to the value of $\epsilon_5^*$.

Whether the gains from imposing border adjustments on goods (to shift the tax downstream to consumption) are worth the costs depends primarily on (1) the risk of a high value of $\epsilon_5^*$ and (2) the costs of imposing border adjustments on goods.

To explore the role of coalition size, particularly as measured by production, we include China in the taxing region. To do so we recalibrate the model to the
Figure 5: Policy Frontiers of OECD with Low Foreign Elasticity

\[ \varepsilon_S = 0.5, \varepsilon_S^* = 0.5 \]

Figure 6: Policy Frontiers of OECD with High Foreign Elasticity

\[ \varepsilon_S = 0.5, \varepsilon_S^* = 2 \]
values of embodied CO$_2$ shown in Table 3.$^{17}$ The table shows that including China (not included in Table 1) nearly doubles the baseline amount of CO$_2$ emitted in production by the coalition (Home), with a somewhat smaller increase in implicit consumption of CO$_2$.

Figures 7 and 8 illustrate the effects of adding China to the taxing coalition. As expected, under all policies, adding China to the taxing coalition dramatically increases the possible global emissions reductions. Once again, the hybrid policies substantially outperform the traditional approaches, indicating that the benefits of the hybrid policies continue even with the larger taxing coalition.$^{18}$

Another effect of adding China to the taxing coalition is that now the extraction-production hybrid is more robust to the value of $\epsilon^*_S$. Since the coalition now represents two-thirds of the CO$_2$ emitted in production, there are fewer opportunities for leakage with China in the taxing coalition ($\Lambda$ declines). As a consequence, the production tax performs relatively better than with the smaller taxing coalition.

We suspect that this result is general, in the sense that the choice of the taxing coalition affects the relative performance of the various taxes. Because the extraction-production tax is so much simpler to implement, a promising strategy is to form a taxing coalition for which this tax performs well. In particular, including countries with a substantial base of production and a high elasticity of energy supply in the taxing coalition is a promising strategy because doing so lowers both

$^{17}$Table 3 corresponds to Table 9 in Kortum and Weisbach (2021). The source is the Trade Embodied in CO$_2$ database made available by the OECD (2019).

$^{18}$At the limit, however, where the taxing coalition is the entire world, all the taxes would perform the same. Therefore, at some point, the simple taxes should perform about as well as the hybrid policies.
Figure 7: Policy Frontiers of OECD plus China with Low Foreign Elasticity

\[ \varepsilon_S = 0.5, \varepsilon^*_S = 0.5 \]

Figure 8: Policy Frontiers of OECD plus China with High Foreign Elasticity

\[ \varepsilon_S = 0.5, \varepsilon^*_S = 2 \]
and $\epsilon^*_S$, allowing the taxing region to use the simpler extraction-production hybrid, thereby avoiding border adjustments on goods.\textsuperscript{19}

5 Discussion and Conclusion

We can summarize our finding as follows:

- When there is trade and the possibility of leakage, carbon taxes should be imposed on both sides of the market, that is, on both the extraction and the use or demand for fossil fuels. There are potentially large gains from this strategy. This point, which was known as early as Markusen (1975) (writing in a related context), appears not to be widely appreciated. It involves a simple change to current proposals, and there seems to be no reason not to pursue this approach to improving the functioning of carbon taxes.

- The relative portion of the tax that should stay on extraction depends on the foreign reaction to the different taxes, as measured by the slope of foreign’s supply and demand curves. The core idea is similar to familiar notions in the design of taxes more generally, which is that we should not impose high taxes on highly responsive items. Here the response (to the resulting change in the global energy price) is measured by the slope of the supply and demand curves for energy in non-taxing regions.

- If we do not take administrative costs into account, the taxing region should tax fossil fuels at all stages of their use as they flow through the economy: extraction, production, and consumption. The production component of the tax, however, is muted by leakage. If leakage were zero, the production tax would be at the same rate as the consumption tax. If leakage is 100%, the production tax should be zero, with the tax in that case falling only on extraction and consumption.

- To implement this policy, the taxing region can impose a nominal tax on extraction, (at the optimum at the global social cost of carbon). It then shifts a portion of the tax downstream to production via border adjustments on energy at a lower rate (with the relative rates on extraction and on

\textsuperscript{19}This strategy, as it relates to the extraction elasticity, has similarities to Harstad (2012).
production determined as just discussed). In addition, the taxing region further shifts the tax to consumption by imposing border adjustments on imports of goods at the same rate as the border adjustments on energy. Finally, to lower the production tax to account for leakage, it rebates a portion of the tax on exports of goods.

- This analysis explains how to set the rebate, if any, on exports of goods, a common problem in carbon tax design. Absent concerns about leakage, there should be no rebate for exports, leaving the tax on domestic production equal to the tax on domestic consumption. With leakage, however, the taxing region should remove part of the tax on exports, and if leakage were 100%, the rebate would be of the entire tax previously paid.

- The administrative costs, however, of imposing a tax on consumption would be high because there is no straightforward way to observe the emissions associated with imports of goods. Moreover, in our baseline simulation, the gains from imposing border adjustments on the imports of goods, relative to the simpler extraction-production combination, are small. As a result, the extraction-production tax may be a superior instrument. It could be implemented simply and accurately by imposing a nominal tax on extraction and border adjustments on the imports and exports of energy at a lower rate.

- This latter conclusion depends on the foreign elasticity of energy supply. Our baseline calibration, which assumed that the taxing region was the OECD and the rest of the world did not impose a tax, set the foreign elasticity of energy supply at 0.5. As this value goes up, the effectiveness of the extraction-production tax goes down relative to combinations that include a consumption tax. The reason is that the extraction tax component becomes less effective when foreign extraction is more sensitive to the price of energy. As a result, the policies have to rely more on demand-side taxes, and the demand-side tax in the extraction-production combination is subject to leakage. The demand-side tax in the extraction-consumption combination (i.e., with border adjustments on goods) is not subject to leakage. Therefore, as the foreign elasticity of energy supply goes up, border adjustments on goods become more desirable.
Finally, one way to make the tax more effective and simpler is to include high elasticity of supply countries in the taxing coalition. This makes the extraction production tax more effective and, therefore, reduces the need to rely on border adjustments for goods. That is, the make-up of the taxing coalition and the design of the tax interact, and a well-chosen taxing coalition may allow a simpler tax system.
References


OECD, Trade in Embodied CO2 Database (TECO2), April 2019.
Appendix: Extensions of the Basic Model

We drop the linearly separable assumption on welfare in this appendix to consider both the global optimum and the unilateral optimum. Welfare in either country is here a general differentiable function of its three arguments, increasing in the first and second, while decreasing in the third:

\[ U = u(C_s, C_e, E) \]
\[ U^* = u^*(C_{s}^*, C_{e}^*, E). \]

The marginal social costs of carbon for Home and Foreign, in terms of the numeraire, are:

\[ \varphi = -\frac{\partial u/\partial E}{\partial u/\partial C_s} = -\frac{u_E}{u_s} \]
\[ \varphi^* = -\frac{\partial u^*/\partial E}{\partial u^*/\partial C_{s}^*} = -\frac{u^*_E}{u_{s}^*}, \]

with \( \varphi^W = \varphi + \varphi^* \).

A.1 Global Optimum

Suppose that Home can dictate a policy for Foreign as long as it transfers services \( T \) to keep Foreign welfare at some threshold, \( \bar{U}^* \). The optimal policy is then the solution to the Lagrangian:

\[
\max_{\{T, C_s^*, C_e^*, Q_e^*\}} u(C_s, C_e, \bar{E}) + \mu \left[ u^*(C_{s}^*, C_{e}^*, \bar{E}) - \bar{U}^* \right],
\]

subject to:

\[
C_s = L - c(\bar{E} - Q_e^*) - T
\]
\[
C_e = \bar{E} - C_{e}^*
\]
\[
C_{s}^* = L^* - c^*(Q_e^*) + T.
\]

The first order conditions are: \( u_s = \mu u_s^* \), \( u_e = \mu u_e^* \), and \( u_s c' = \mu u_s^* c'^* \), which can be distilled down to: \( u_e/u_s = u_{e}^*/u_{s}^* \) and \( c' = c'^* \). These two conditions rule out a wedge between Home and Foreign in the marginal value of energy consumption (in terms of the numeraire) or in the marginal cost of extracting.
energy. But, they admit the possibility of a wedge between the marginal cost of extracting energy and it’s marginal value in either country, \( u_e / u_s - c' = u_e^*/u_s^* - c'' \). The level of this wedge is determined by the first-order condition for the emissions goal, \( \bar{E} \):

\[
u_e / u_s - c' = -(u_E / u_s + u_E^*/u_s^*) = \varphi^W.
\]

There is no need to distinguish between the consumption wedge, \( u_e / u_s - p_e \), and the extraction wedge, \( p_e - c' \).

These conditions will hold in a competitive equilibrium with taxes. With a consumption tax of \( t_c \) consumers equate their marginal rate of substitution between energy and services to \( p_e + t_c \) while with an extraction tax of \( t_e \) extractors equate their marginal extraction costs to \( p_e - t_e \). The first optimality condition says that a consumption tax must be harmonized between Home and Foreign, \( t_c = t_c^* \), while the second says that an extraction tax must be harmonized, \( t_e = t_e^* \). The third condition says that taxes on extraction and consumption must sum to the global externality:

\[
t_c + t_e = \varphi^W.
\]

Conditional on their sum, the allocation of the tax across consumption and extraction is arbitrary. Any combination adding to the marginal global social cost of carbon attains the global optimum.

### A.2 Unilateral Optimum

We now turn to the problem of Section 2, the optimal policy when Home can only indirectly influence Foreign extraction and consumption by choosing the price of energy. We will continue to assume that Home uses transfers \( T \) to keep Foreign welfare above a threshold of \( \bar{U}^* \).

To solve this problem we follow Keen and Kotsogiannis (2014) and employ Foreign’s expenditure function, defined as:

\[
e^*(p_e, \bar{U}^*, \bar{E}) = \min \{ C_s^* + p_e C_e^* | u^*(C_s^*, C_e^*, \bar{E}) = \bar{U}^* \}
\]

Two key properties of the expenditure function are:

\[
e^* = \partial e^*/\partial p_e = C_e^*(p_e, \bar{U}^*, \bar{E})
\]

\[
e_E^* = \partial e^*/\partial \bar{E} = -u_E^*/u_s^*.
\]
Here $C^*_e(p_e, \bar{U}^*, \bar{E})$ is simply Foreign’s compensated demand for energy. Its partial derivative with respect to the global emissions goal is denoted by $C^*_{e,E}$. We treat the slope of this energy demand curve (the partial derivative with respect to the energy price) as strictly negative, $C^*_e < 0$.

Foreign obtains income from labor, $L^*$, and rents from the energy sector, $p_eQ^*_e - c(Q^*_e)$. It also gets transfers, $T$, and net energy exports, $p_eX_e$, from Home.

Foreign absorption, $A^*$, is the sum of income, transfers, and net imports of energy:

$$A^* = L^* + p_eQ^*_e - c(Q^*_e) + T + p_eX_e = L^* + p_eC^*_e - c(Q^*_e) + T.$$  

If Foreign absorption is $A^* = e^*(p_e, \bar{U}^*, \bar{E})$ it can achieve welfare of $\bar{U}^*$ when the energy price is $p_e$ and the global emissions goal is $\bar{E}$. Foreign’s energy supply curve, $Q^*_e(p_e)$, satisfies $c^*(Q^*_e(p_e)) = p_e$. The slope of this energy supply curve is $Q^*_{e'} > 0$.

Home’s optimal policy is then the solution to the Lagrangian:

$$\max_{\{T, p_e\}} u(C_s, C_e, \bar{E}) + \mu \left[ L^* + p_eC^*_e - c(Q^*_e) + T - e^*(p_e, \bar{U}^*, \bar{E}) \right],$$

subject to:

$$Q^*_e = Q^*_e(p_e)$$
$$C^*_e = C^*_e(p_e, \bar{U}^*, \bar{E})$$
$$C_s = L - c(\bar{E} - Q^*_e(p_e)) - T$$
$$C_e = \bar{E} - C^*_e(p_e, \bar{U}^*, \bar{E}).$$

Here, to control outcomes in Foreign, we maximize over $p_e$ whereas in the first-best problem we maximized separately over $C^*_e$ and $Q^*_e$.

The first-order conditions are:

$$u_s = \mu$$
$$u_s c'Q^*_{e'} - u_eC^*_{e'} = \mu \left( -C^*_e - p_eC^*_{e'} + c^*Q^*_{e'} + e^* \right).$$

Applying $e^* = C^*_e$ and $e^* = p_e$ they reduce to:

$$(p_e - c')Q^*_{e'} = (u_e/u_s - p_e)|C^*_{e'}|. $$
Since $u_e/u_s$ has the same interpretation as $u'$ in Section 2, this result shows that equation (1) in the paper is robust to welfare being non-separable in it’s arguments.

The first-order condition for the emissions goal is:

$$-u_sc' + u_e - u_eC_{e,E}^* + u_E = \mu \left( -p_eC_{e,E}^* + e_E^* \right)$$

and hence the overall wedge is:

$$u_e/u_s - c' = (u_e/u_s - p_e)C_{e,E}^* + \varphi^W.$$

This conditions looks like that for the global optimum, but with an additional term. Suppose $C_{e,E}^* > 0$ so that Foreign’s compensated demand for energy is increasing in $E$.\footnote{For example, if Foreign welfare is $u^*(C_s^*, C_e^*, \bar{E}) = (C_s^*)^{\gamma} (C_e^*)^{1-\gamma} (\bar{E})^{-\phi}$ then its compensated demand for energy is:

$$C_e^*(p_e, \bar{U}^*, \bar{E}) = ((1-\gamma)/\gamma)^{\gamma} p_e^{-\gamma} (\bar{E})^{\phi} \bar{U}^*,$$

and $C_{e,E}^* = \phi C_e^*/\bar{E} > 0$. If instead Foreign welfare is linearly separable, $u^*(C_s^*, C_e^*, \bar{E}) = C_s + u^*(C_e^*) - \varphi \bar{E}$ (with $u'' > 0$ and $u''' < 0$), then its compensated demand for energy depends only on the energy price and $C_{e,E}^* = 0$.}

This term gives an added reason for Home to lower emissions, as doing so shifts energy consumption away from Foreign. Such a shift is beneficial because the value of energy consumption is higher in Home then in Foreign, $u_e/u_s > p_e$, as dictated by the second condition. For linearly separable Foreign welfare $C_{e,W}^* = 0$ and this first condition collapses to the corresponding condition for the global optimum.

Solving for the individual taxes:

$$t_c = \varphi^W \frac{Q_e^*}{Q_e^* + |C_e^{*'}| - C_{e,E}^* Q_e^{*'}}$$

$$t_e = \varphi^W \frac{|C_e^{*'}|}{Q_e^* + |C_e^{*'}| - C_{e,E}^* Q_e^{*'}}.$$

These expressions are the same as (3) in the paper except that each has an additional term $C_{e,E}^* Q_e^{*'}$ in the denominator.


B Appendix: Trade Balance

Imposing trade balance, $C_s - Q_s = p_e(Q_e - C_e) = p_e X_e$, while removing the constraint that Home maintain Foreign welfare $\bar{U}^*$, the planner’s problem in Section 2 is unchanged except the first constraint becomes:

$$C_s = L - c(\bar{E} - Q_e^*(p_e)) + p_e(C_e^*(p_e) - Q_e^*(p_e)).$$

The first-order condition for $p_e$ gives:

$$(p_e - c')Q_e'' - X_e = (u' - p_e)|C_e''|$$

It follows that:

$$t_e = (|C_e''| t_c + X_e) / Q_e''.$$

If Home is a net exporter of energy it improves it terms of trade by relying more on the extraction tax rather than the consumption tax.

The first-order condition for the emissions goal is $u' - c' = \varphi$, which implies

$$t_e + t_c = \varphi.$$

When Home is not forced to choose a Pareto improving policy, it ignores the social cost of carbon in Foreign, $\varphi^*$. Combining results, we get the analog of (3):

$$t_e = \frac{\varphi |C_e''| + X_e}{Q_e'' + |C_e''|}$$

$$t_c = \frac{\varphi Q_e'' - X_e}{Q_e'' + |C_e''|}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (13)

The two differences are that $\varphi$ replaces $\varphi^W$ and that positive net exports of energy from Home tilt the policy towards an extraction tax and away from a consumption tax.

C Appendix: Trade in Energy and Goods

Here we provide derivations of the optimality conditions in Section 3.
### C.1 Taxing Extraction and Consumption

Home’s optimal policy is to maximize the Lagrangian $\mathcal{L}$ in (5) by choosing $t_e$ and $t_c$. To simplify the first order conditions we exploit various envelope conditions. Roy’s identity gives

$$\frac{\partial \tilde{u}}{\partial p_e} = \frac{\partial \tilde{u}^*}{\partial t_e} = -C_e$$

and

$$\frac{\partial \tilde{u}^*}{\partial p_e} = -C_e^*.$$  

Hotelling’s lemma implies

$$\frac{\partial R_e}{\partial p_e} = \frac{\partial R_e^*}{\partial t_e} = Q_e$$

and

$$\frac{\partial R_e^*}{\partial p_e} = Q_e^*.$$  

The derivatives of Home’s tax revenue are

$$\frac{\partial R_t}{\partial p_e} = t_c \frac{\partial C_e}{\partial p_e}, \frac{\partial R_t}{\partial t_c} = C_e + t_c \frac{\partial C_e}{\partial t_c},$$

and

$$\frac{\partial R_t}{\partial t_e} = Q_e + t_e \frac{\partial Q_e}{\partial t_e}.$$  

Applying these results, the first order conditions collapse to:

$$t_e \frac{\partial Q_e}{\partial t_e} + t_e Q'_e \frac{dp_e}{dt_e} + t_c C'_e \frac{dp_e}{dt_e} = \mu \left( \frac{\partial Q_e}{\partial t_e} + Q'_e \frac{dp_e}{dt_e} \right)$$

and

$$t_c \frac{\partial C_e}{\partial t_c} + t_c C'_e \frac{dp_e}{dt_c} + t_e Q'_e \frac{dp_e}{dt_e} = \mu Q'_e \frac{dp_e}{dt_e}.$$  

The market-clearing conditions for energy imply:

$$\frac{dp_e}{dt_e} = \left( \frac{-1}{Q'_e - C'_e} \right) \frac{\partial Q_e}{\partial t_e}$$

and

$$\frac{dp_e}{dt_c} = \left( \frac{1}{Q'_e - C'_e} \right) \frac{\partial C_e}{\partial t_c}.$$  

Substituting these price derivatives into the first-order conditions, canceling $\frac{\partial Q_e}{\partial t_e}$ from the first, and canceling $\frac{\partial C_e}{\partial t_c}$ from the second, we end up with:

$$t_e \left( C'_e - Q'_e \right) + t_c C'_e = \mu C'_e$$

and

$$t_c \left( Q'_e - C'_e \right) + t_e Q'_e = \mu Q'_e.$$  

The results shown in the paper follow immediately.

### C.2 Taxing Extraction and Production

Home’s optimal policy is to maximize the Lagrangian $\mathcal{L}$ in (5) by choosing $t_e$ and $t_p$. 

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The first order conditions can be reduced to:

\[ t_e \frac{\partial Q_e}{\partial t_e} + t_e Q_e' \frac{dp_e}{dt_e} + t_p G_e' \frac{dp_e}{dt_p} = \mu \left( \frac{\partial Q_e}{\partial t_e} + Q_e W \frac{dp_e}{dt_e} \right) \]

\[ t_p \frac{\partial G_e}{\partial t_p} + t_p G_e' \frac{dp_e}{dt_p} + t_e Q_e' \frac{dp_e}{dt_p} = \mu Q_e W \frac{dp_e}{dt_p}, \]

while the market-clearing conditions for energy imply:

\[ dp_e = \left( \frac{-1}{Q_e W' - G_e W'} \right) \frac{\partial Q_e}{\partial t_e} \]

\[ dp_e = \left( \frac{1}{Q_e W' - G_e W'} \right) \frac{\partial G_e W}{\partial t_p}. \]

To simplify the first-order conditions we need to apply the formula for leakage (6) to get \( \frac{\partial G_e}{\partial t_p} = \left( \frac{\partial G_e W}{\partial t_p} \right) / (1 - \Lambda) \). Substituting the market-clearing conditions into the first order conditions, canceling \( \frac{\partial Q_e}{\partial t_e} \) from the first, and using the leakage expression to cancel \( \frac{\partial G_e W}{\partial t_p} \) from the second, we get:

\[ t_e \left( G_e W' - Q_e W' \right) + t_e Q_e' + t_p G_e' = \mu G_e W' \]

\[ \frac{t_p}{1 - \Lambda} \left( Q_e W' - G_e W' \right) + t_p G_e' + t_e Q_e' = \mu Q_e W'. \]

Subtracting the second equation above from the first:

\[ t_e + \frac{t_p}{1 - \Lambda} = \mu. \]

Substituting this value of \( \mu \) back into the first equation we get the analog of (2).

### C.3 Taxing Extraction, Consumption, and Production

Home's optimal policy is to maximize the Lagrangian \( L \) in (5) by choosing \( t_e, t_d, t_m, \) and \( t_x \).

The first order conditions for \( t_d \) and \( t_m \) are:

\[ t_d \frac{\partial C_e}{\partial t_d} + \left( t_d C_e + t_m C_e + t_x C_e + t_e Q_c' \right) \frac{dp_e}{dt_d} = \varphi W Q_e W \frac{dp_e}{dt_d} \]

\[ t_m \frac{\partial C_e}{\partial t_m} + \left( t_d C_e + t_m C_e + t_x C_e + t_e Q_c' \right) \frac{dp_e}{dt_m} = \varphi W Q_e W \frac{dp_e}{dt_m}. \]
Substituting in the corresponding market clearing conditions:

\[
\frac{dp_e}{dt_d} = \frac{\partial C^d_e/\partial t_d}{Q^W_e - C^W_e}, \\
\frac{dp_e}{dt_m} = \frac{\partial C^m_e/\partial t_m}{Q^W_e - C^W_e},
\]

the first-order conditions reduce to \( t_d = t_m \). Hence, it is optimal to tax energy embodied in Home’s consumption at the same rate, \( t_e = t_d = t_m \), whether the goods are produced domestically or imported. Applying this condition, we can add \( C^d_e \) and \( C^m_e \) to form a single first-order condition for \( t_e \).

To handle the remaining three first-order conditions we need to apply the formula for Foreign leakage (10) to get \( \frac{\partial C^*_e}{\partial t_x} = (\partial C^*_e/\partial t_x)/(1 - \Lambda^*) \). The first order conditions for \( t_e, t_c, \) and \( t_x \) can now be reduced to:

\[
\begin{align*}
t_e \frac{\partial Q_e}{\partial t_e} + (t_e Q'_e + t_c C'_e + t_x C^*_{xe}) \frac{dp_e}{dt_e} &= \mu \left( \frac{\partial Q_e}{\partial t_e} + Q^W_e \frac{dp_e}{dt_e} \right), \\
t_c \frac{\partial C_e}{\partial t_c} + (t_c C'_e + t_x C^*_{xe} + t_e Q'_e) \frac{dp_e}{dt_c} &= \mu Q^W_e \frac{dp_e}{dt_c}, \\
t_x \frac{\partial C^*_{xe}}{\partial t_x} + (t_x C^*_{xe} + t_c C'_e + t_e Q'_e) \frac{dp_e}{dt_x} &= \mu Q^W_e \frac{dp_e}{dt_x},
\end{align*}
\]

with associated market-clearing conditions:

\[
\begin{align*}
\frac{dp_e}{dt_e} &= \left( \frac{-1}{Q^W_e - C^W_e} \right) \frac{\partial Q_e}{\partial t_e}, \\
\frac{dp_e}{dt_c} &= \left( \frac{1}{Q^W_e - C^W_e} \right) \frac{\partial C_e}{\partial t_c}, \\
\frac{dp_e}{dt_x} &= \left( \frac{1}{Q^W_e - C^W_e} \right) \frac{\partial C^*_{xe}}{\partial t_x}.
\end{align*}
\]

Substituting each market-clearing condition into its corresponding first order condition, canceling \( \partial Q_e/\partial t_e \) from the first, canceling \( \partial C_e/\partial t_c \) from the second,
and using (10) to eliminate $\partial C^*_e/\partial t_x$ from the third, we get:

\[
\begin{align*}
&\quad t_e \left( C_e^{W'} - Q_e^{W'} \right) + (t_e Q'_e + t_e C'_e + t_x C^{\alpha'}_e) = \mu C_e^{W'} \\
&\quad t_c \left( Q_e^{W'} - C_e^{W'} \right) + (t_e Q'_e + t_e C'_e + t_x C^{\alpha'}_e) = \mu Q_e^{W'} \\
&\quad \frac{t_x}{1 - \Lambda^*} \left( Q_e^{W'} - C_e^{W'} \right) + (t_e Q'_e + t_e C'_e + t_x C^{\alpha'}_e) = \mu Q_e^{W'}.
\end{align*}
\]

Subtracting the third from the first, much like for the extraction-production tax, gives:

\[
t_e + \frac{t_x}{1 - \Lambda^*} = \mu.
\]

Substituting in this value of $\mu$ and subtracting the second from the first, we get:

\[
t_x = (1 - \Lambda^*) t_e,
\]

so that we have $t_e + t_x = \mu$ as in the extraction-consumption case. Substituting both of these results back into the first we get the analog of (2), which is now:

\[
\frac{t_e}{t_c} = \frac{|C^{\alpha'}_e| + \Lambda^* |C^{\alpha'}_e|}{Q_e^{W'}}.
\]

### D Appendix: Model Details

Here we demonstrate how our results hold in the setting of Kortum and Weisbach (2021), which explicitly follows the Dornbusch, Fisher, and Samuelson (1977) Ricardian model of trade with a unit continuum of goods. The relative efficiency of producing good $j \in [0, 1]$ in Home is $a^*_j/a_j = F(j)$, where $a_j$ is Home’s total input requirement and $a^*_j$ is Foreign’s. The function $F$ is assumed to be continuous and strictly decreasing in $j$.

Producers combine inputs of labor and energy in a constant-returns-to-scale production function to produce any good in any region. The wage is 1 and the relevant after-tax energy price is some value $p$. The associated unit cost function for Home producers to supply good $j$ is

\[
f_j(p) = a_j f(p).
\]
By Shepard's lemma, the unit energy requirement is:

\[ e_j = a_j f'(p). \]

The same holds for Foreign producers, with \( a_j \) replaced by \( a^*_j \), taking account of the energy price they face.

We will consider goods produced for the Home market, but the argument will carry over in an obvious way to the Foreign market. Suppose we allow for a tax \( t_d \) on energy embodied in domestic production and a tax \( t_m \) on energy embodied in imports. The after-tax prices of energy are therefore \( p^d_e = p_e + t_d \) and \( p^m_e = p_e + t_m \). At these after-tax prices, Home producers can supply good \( j \) at cost \( a_j f(p^d_e) \) while the cost to Foreign producers is \( \tau^* a^*_j f(p^m_e) \). Here \( \tau^* \) is an iceberg trade cost.

Home consumers will purchase \( j \) from the cheapest supplier. Thus they buy goods \( j \in [0, \bar{j}_m] \) from domestic producers and goods \( j \in (\bar{j}_m, 1] \) from Foreign producers. The threshold satisfies:

\[ F(\bar{j}_m) = \frac{1}{\tau^*} \frac{f(p^d_e)}{f(p^m_e)}, \]

making Home consumers indifferent about where they buy good \( \bar{j}_m \) (since it costs the same from either source). Thus consumers in Home, buying from the low-cost supplier, face prices:

\[ p_j = a_j f(p^d_e) \quad j \leq \bar{j}_m \]
\[ p_j = \tau^* a^*_j f(p^m_e) \quad j \geq \bar{j}_m. \]

Welfare of a representative consumer in Home is:

\[ U = C_s + \frac{\sigma}{\sigma - 1} \eta^{1/\sigma} \left( C_g^{(\sigma - 1)/\sigma} - 1 \right) - \varphi E, \]

where \( E \) is global carbon emissions and \( C_g \) is a CES index of the consumption of individual goods:

\[ C_g = \left( \int_0^1 c_j^{(\sigma - 1)/\sigma} dj \right)^{\sigma/(\sigma - 1)}. \]

Facing prices \( p_j \), the utility maximizing consumption of good \( j \) is:

\[ c_j = \eta p_j^{-\sigma}. \]
The price index $p_g$ associated with $C_g$ is:

$$p_g = \left( \int_0^1 p_j^{1-\sigma} dj \right)^{\frac{1}{1-\sigma}}.$$

We can express it as a function of the after-tax prices of energy in Home and Foreign:

$$p_g(p^d_e, p^m_e) = \left( \int_0^{\bar{\gamma}_m} (a_j f(p^d_e))^{1-\sigma} dj + \int_{\bar{\gamma}_m}^1 \left( \tau^* a_j^* f(p^m_e) \right)^{1-\sigma} dj \right)^{\frac{1}{1-\sigma}}.$$

While the threshold $\bar{\gamma}_m$ is also a function of these after-tax prices of energy, by the envelope theorem that doesn’t matter for the derivatives (the cost of sourcing the threshold good from Home or Foreign producers is the same). For example:

$$\frac{\partial p_g}{\partial p^d_e} = \frac{1}{1-\sigma} p_g \left\{ \int_0^{\bar{\gamma}_m} (1-\sigma) p_j^{-\sigma} a_j f'(p^d_e) dj \right. \\
+ \left. \left( (a_{jm} f(p^d_e))^{1-\sigma} - (\tau^* a_j^* f(p^m_e))^{1-\sigma} \right) \bar{\gamma}_m \right\} \\
= p_g \int_0^{\bar{\gamma}_m} p_j^{-\sigma} a_j f'(p^d_e) dj.$$

In Section 3 we express Home welfare in terms of indirect utility:

$$U = Y + \tilde{u} - \varphi Q_e^W.$$

We therefore have:

$$\tilde{u} = \frac{\eta}{\sigma - 1} p_g^{(\sigma-1)} - \frac{\eta^{1/\sigma} \sigma}{\sigma - 1}.$$

We can therefore treat $\tilde{u}$ as a function of the after-tax prices of energy in Home and Foreign:

$$\tilde{u} = \tilde{u}(p^d_e, p^m_e) = \frac{\eta}{\sigma - 1} p_g(p^d_e, p^m_e)^{(\sigma-1)} - \frac{\eta^{1/\sigma} \sigma}{\sigma - 1}.$$

(15)
By expressing Home welfare this way, Roy’s identity implies:

\[
\frac{\partial U}{\partial p_e^d} = -C_e^d
\]
\[
\frac{\partial U}{\partial p_e^m} = -C_e^m.
\]

It follows that:

\[
\frac{\partial U}{\partial t_d} = -C_e^d
\]
\[
\frac{\partial U}{\partial p_m} = -C_e^m
\]
\[
\frac{\partial U}{\partial p_e} = -C_e^d - C_e^m = -C_e.
\]

We employ these results in the paper.

To confirm that such results are applicable despite the extensive margin of trade, we can differentiate (15) to get:

\[
\frac{\partial \tilde{u}}{\partial p_e^d} = -\eta p_g^{-\sigma} \frac{\partial p_g}{\partial p_e^d}
\]
\[
= - \int_0^{\tilde{g}} a_j f'(p_e^d) \eta p_j^{-\sigma} dj
\]
\[
= - \int_0^{\tilde{g}} e_j c_j dj = -C_e^d.
\]

Roy’s identity clearly applies to this setting.

A similar derivation would apply to Foreign welfare.