

# A Literature Survey On Automobile Fuel System Technologies

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*Abstract:* In this study, a survey of research papers on utilization of natural gas-hydrogen mixtures in internal combustion engines is carried out. The study addresses the issue of technological "lock-in" and the possibilities of escape from it. Earlier literature on technological lock-in has tended to focus on interindustry sources of positive feedbacks that are at the core of the technological lock-in phenomena. This study draws attention to the importance of inter-industry sources in contributing to technological lock-in. Several possible avenues of escape from lock-in are discussed: crisis in existing technology, regulation, technological breakthroughs, changes in taste, emergence of niche markets, and new scientific results. The study includes a brief history of the competition among automobile technologies. This literature study will help any researcher to do further research easily by following all papers collected and listed under reference.

Key words: Automobile Fuel; Propulsion System; Gas Hydrogen Mixture; Internal Combustion;

# I. INTRODUCTION

A survey of research papers on utilization of gas-hydrogen mixtures in internal natural combustion engines is carried out. There are a number of key areas surrounding this question, three of which are safety, economics and efficiency and emissions. Each of these issues was examined using the available literature. It can be seen that it is only with emissions that a clear difference appears and then hydrogen shows an advantage over methanol. The study addresses the issue of technological "lock-in" and the possibilities of escape from it. Earlier literature on technological lock-in has tended to focus on inter-industry sources of positive feedbacks that are at the core of the technological lock-in phenomena. This study draws attention to the importance of inter-industry sources in contributing to technological lock-in. Several possible avenues of escape from lock-in are discussed: crisis in existing technology, regulation, technological breakthroughs, changes in taste, emergence of niche markets, and new scientific results. The study includes a brief history of the competition among automobile technologies. Many people worry about the US dependence on imported petroleum, and people in both countries desire a switch from petroleum to a more sustainable fuel. Particular attention is given to strategies that would enhance the prospects that the hydrogen fuel cell car would eventually become the Car of the Future, while pursuing innovations relating to options based on internal combustion engines that would both assist a transition to hydrogen fuel cell cars and provide significant reductions of externality costs in the near term. This literature study will help any researcher to do further research easily by following all papers collected and listed under reference.

#### 1. Atmospheric Chemistry Of Alternate Fuels And Reformulated Gasoline Components (Frank M. Bowman, John H. Seinfeld, 2000)

Recent air quality regulations have mandated the use of reformulated gasoline and alternate fuels in motor vehicles. Reformulated fuels are intended to reduce both ozone-forming volatile organic compound (VOC) emissions and air toxic emissions from vehicles. A method that allows the determination of the individual contributions of a single VOC to the ozone formation in a complex WC/NO, mixture is outlined and applied to eight potential reformulated fuel components. In calculations using a current comprehensive atmospheric chemical reaction mechanism a wide variety of organics are shown to be responsible for ozone production. The incremental relativities of the fuel components, which are defined as the additional amount of ozone formed per amount of organic compound added to a base mixture, include both the direct production of ozone by the oxygenate itself and additional ozone produced by the VOC mixture when the oxygenate is added. The enhancement of ozone production attributable to the organic mixture upon adding the oxygenates is shown to be a result of changes to the organic free radical pool. Most of the fuel oxygenates have relatively low incremental reactivity due to their slow reaction rates and to the formation of relatively unreactive formate and acetate products. The more reactive fuel oxygenates are those containing ethyl groups, which react faster than their counterparts containing only methyl and tetrabutyl groups.



2. Fuel cell system economics: comparing the costs of generating power with stationary and motor vehicle PEM fuel cell systems (Timothy E. Lipman, Jennifer L. Edwards, Daniel M. Kammen, 2002)

This investigation examines the economics of electricity from proton-exchange producing membrane (PEM) fuel cell systems under various conditions, including the possibility of using fuel cell vehicles (FCVs) to produce power when they are parked at office buildings and residences. The analysis shows that the economics of both stationary fuel cell and FCV-based power vary significantly with variations in key input variables such as the price of natural gas, electricity prices, fuel cell and reformer system costs, and fuel cell system durability levels. The "central case" results show that stationary PEM fuel cell systems can supply electricity for offices and homes in California at a net savings when fuel cell system costs reach about \$6000 for a 5 kW home system (\$1200/kW) and \$175,000 for a 250 kW commercial system (\$700/kW) and assuming somewhat favourable natural gas costs of \$6/GJ at residences and \$4/GJ at commercial buildings. Grid-connected FCVs in commercial settings can also potentially supply electricity at competitive rates, in some cases producing significant annual benefits. Particularly attractive is the combination of net metering along with time of-use electricity rates that allow power to be supplied to the utility grid at the avoided cost of central power plant generation. FCV based power at individual residences does not appear to be as attractive, at least where FCV power can only be used directly or banked with the utility for net metering and not sold in greater quantity, due to the low load levels at these locations that provide a poor match to automotive fuel cell operation, higher natural gas prices than are available at commercial settings, and other factors.

3. Techno-economic analysis of co-fired biomass integrated gasification/combined cycle systems with inclusion of economies of scale (Monica Rodrigues, Andre P.C. Faaij Arnaldo Walter, 2003)

This work focuses on short-term application of biomass integrated gasification/combined cycle (BIG/CC) technology with co-firing of natural gas and biomass derived gas. Co-firing leads to higher efficiency and lower costs of BIG/CC technology. A full technical and economic analysis was carried out by integrating performance modelling from co-fired CC and scale effects over a wide range of capacities (20–300 MW<sub>e</sub>). The gasification technology is directly air-heated and the feedstock is sugar cane residue. Co-firing alleviates the need for de-rating gas turbines, which would reduce efficiency. It also allows combined cycles to be

scaled up beyond the limits imposed by single vessel gasifiers. Mixing of LCV gas and natural gas can greatly improve the cost-effectiveness of power generated by BIG/CC. The cost of electricity (COE) for biomass reaches a minimum with 50% proportion of natural gas in the mixture. For proportions of natural gas higher than 60%, the biomass-based power in a co-firing scheme may become less cost-effective than a BIG/CC. A sensitivity analysis shows that if the energy input consists of 50% biomass, the most sensitive parameters-in decreasing order-are the efficiency, the capital costs of the combined cycle, the gas clean-up equipment and the biomass fuel costs.

#### 4. Escaping Lock-In: The Case Of The Electric Vehicle (Robin Cowan Staffan Hultiěn, 1996)

The study addresses the issue of technological "lock-in" and the possibilities of escape from it. Earlier literature on technological lock-in has tended to focus on inter-industry sources of positive feedbacks that are at the core of the technological lock-in phenomena. This study draws attention to the importance of inter-industry sources in contributing to technological lock-in. Several possible avenues of escape from lock-in are discussed: crisis in existing technology, regulation, technological breakthroughs, changes in taste, emergence of niche markets, and new scientific results. The study includes a brief history of the competition among automobile technologies. The analysis of the current state of the electric vehicle, its technology, and the surrounding supporting industries and infrastructures is relatively pessimistic about a rapid transition away from the internal combustion engine technological lock-in. However, regulation could create enough niche markets so that some self-reinforcing processes would become possible. In this way, the electric vehicle might emerge as a visible part of the automobile market.

#### 5. A Survey of Processes for Producing Hydrogen Fuel from Different Sources for Automotive-Propulsion Fuel Cells (Lee F. Brown, 1996)

Seven common fuels are compared for their utility hvdrogen sources for proton-exchange as membrane fuel cells used in automotive propulsion. Methanol, natural gas, gasoline, diesel fuel, aviation jet fuel, ethanol, and hydrogen are the fuels considered. Except for the steam reforming of methanol and using pure hydrogen, all processes for generating hydrogen from these fuels require temperatures over 1000 K at some point. With the same two exceptions, all processes require watergas shift reactors of significant size. All processes require low-sulphur or zero-sulphur fuels, and this



may add cost to some of them. Fuels produced by steam reforming contain ~70-80% hydrogen, those by partial oxidation ~35-45%. The lower percentages may adversely affect cell performance. Theoretical input energies do not differ markedly among the various processes for generating hydrogen from organic chemical fuels. Pure hydrogen has severe distribution and storage problems. As a result, the steam reforming of methanol is the leading candidate process for onboard generation of hydrogen for automotive propulsion. If methanol unavailability or a high price demands an alternative process, steam reforming appears preferable to partial oxidation for this purpose.

#### 6. Harvesting Operations And Energetics Of Tall Grasses For Biomass Energy Production: A Case Study (P. Mislevy, R. C. Fluck, 1993)

The U.S.A. imports about 50% of its energy needs while Florida imports about 85%. Among the renewable energy sources available, biomass appears promising especially in the southeast which includes Florida because of a favourable environment for production and the available methods to convert biomass to energy. Optimal production of biomass requires the identification and management of high yielding persistent perennial cultivars. Elephant grass (Pemtierum purpureum Schum.) and energy cane (Saccrum spontaneum L.) are two tall grasses that meet these requirements. To optimize the supply of convertible biomass, suitable methods of harvesting the crop must be available. The purpose of this research was to study the feasibility and energetics of harvesting, drying, and baling tall grasses with conventional farm machinery. A Mathews rotary scythe and a New Holland 849 Auto Wrap large round baler were determined to provide a practical harvesting system for baled biomass averaging 15-27 Mg ha-'. The rotary scythe can be used for harvesting and fluffing or turning a windrow over to expedite drying. This harvesting system requires about 3 kg diesel fuel Mg-' dry biomass (DB), 25 min of time Mg-' DB, and a cost of about \$10 to 12 Mg-' DB. Energy requirements of harvesting operations would be about 300-375 MJ Mg-' DB, and primary energy requirements for production and harvesting are about 1100-1500 MJ Mg-' DB. For each unit of fossil fuel invested in the total production and harvesting system, 12-15 units would be returned in biomass

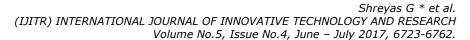
## 7. Hydrogen Production From High-Temperature Steam Electrolysis Using Solar Energy (H. Arashi, H. Naito, H. Miura, 2003)

Fundamental studies of hydrogen production by high-temperature steam electrolysis were made

using solar energy as a heat source. A sintered ZrO  $2 + 8 \mod \%$  Y203 ceramic is used as an electrolyte. Both sides of this electrolyte were coated with platinum porous electrodes on the one side acting as a cathode and on the other as an anode. The electrolytic cell was inserted into a porous zirconia ceramic tube placed at the focal point of a solar concentrator and heated up to 1000~'C by concentrated solar radiation. Water vapor was introduced into a cathodic compartment using argon as a carrier gas. On supplying a direct current to this cell, the gas taken out from the cathodic compartment was analysed by gas chromatography and production of hydrogen was confirmed. The current efficiency in this high-temperature electrolysis was 98%. The electrochemical efficiency reached 71%. Combining our hightemperature electrolyser cell with a solar AMTEC or a solar thermoelectric conversion, hydrogen can be produced only using a solar energy as a primary energy. The overall energy efficiency was estimated as 20 28% for this hydrogen production system. This efficiency is twice that of photovoltaic electrolysis. From this fundamental research, it is concluded that high-temperature steam electrolysis using solar energy as a primary energy source is a promising technique to produce hydrogen cleanly

# 8. Energy Pathway Analysis-A Hydrogen Fuel Cycle Framework For System Studies (J. S. Badin S. Tagore, 1998)

An analytical framework has been developed that can be used to estimate a range of life-cycle costs and impacts that result from the incremental production, storage, transport, and use of different fuels or energy carriers, such as hydrogen, electricity, natural gas, and gasoline. This information is used in a comparative analysis of energy pathways. The pathways provide the U.S. Department of Energy (DOE) with an indication of near-, mid-, and long-term technologies that have the greatest potential for advancement and can meet the cost goals. The methodology and conceptual issues are discussed. Also presented are results for selected pathways from the E3 (Energy, Economics, Emissions) Pathway Analysis Model. This model will be expanded to consider networks of pathways and to be compatible with a linear programming optimization processor. Scenarios and sets of constrains (energy demands, sources, emissions) will be defined so the effects on energy transformation activities included in the solution and on the total optimized system cost can be investigated. This evaluation will be used as a guide to eliminate technically feasible pathways if they are not cost effective or do not meet the threshold requirements for the market acceptance





# 9. GHG mitigation in the transport sector (Laurie Michaelis, 1999)

This paper explores the potential for greenhouse gas mitigation in the transport sector to contribute to meeting the objective of the Framework Convention on Climate Change (FCCC). The technical potential for vehicle energy intensity reductions is found to be about 25-50%, but the economic ('no regrets') potential is much smaller. Renewable derived alternative fuels can reduce greenhouse gas emissions per unit of energy used by as much as 80%, but supplies are insufficient to meet current demand except at very high prices. Thus, energy intensity reductions should be the first priority. However, current trends suggest that energy intensity may not fall at all in the coming 30 years. Government policies, including feebates (a system of fuel economy related vehicle taxes and subsidies) and fuel taxes, could help to reduce transport energy intensity and traffic levels but, given available technology, current consumer preferences and lifestyles, policies that would reduce transport GHG emissions below 1990 levels would probably entail net economic costs. Governments pay much attention to developing new technology and this may be sufficient to bring about GHG emission reductions. However, technology might not provide the whole answer, and more research is needed into the possible role of developments in preference and lifestyle.

#### 10. Fuel cells for transport: can the promise be fulfilled? Technical requirements and demands from customers (Thomas Klaiber, 1999)

The paper discusses the technical requirements and the customer demands for vehicles that have an onboard methanol reformer and fuel cells. The research concentrates on the technical developmental risks which include minimizing volume, reducing weight and, at the same time, improving efficiency and system dynamics. Fuel cell powered vehicles with methanol reformers are not only suitable for a niche market but also these vehicles will compete with conventional vehicles. The greatest hindrance will be the price of the fuel cell. A possible progressive development of the number of fuel cell powered vehicles in conjunction with a reduction in costs will he discussed in the paper. When fuel cell vehicles come to the market it is necessary that an infrastructure for the fuel methanol or hydrogen is installed. Therefore, it will only be possible to introduce fuel cell vehicles into special markets, e.g. California. Such a process will need to be subsidized by additional incentives like tax concessions. Today there are many technical risks and unsolved problems relating to production technologies, infrastructure, and costs. Nevertheless, among the alternative power units,

the fuel cell seems to be the only one that might he competitive to the conventional power unit. especially relating to emissions.

## 11. A Life-Cycle Model Of An Automobile (Heather L. Maclean Lester B. Lave)

The environmental and energy implications of a midsized automobile were assessed by performing a life-cycle inventory analysis that emphasized manufacture and use phases. An Economic Input-Output Life-Cycle Analysis model was used that produces a large array of indicators of the effects of a product or service on the economy and the environment. The analysis corroborates two previous studies that used the conventional lifecycle analysis model developed by the Society for Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry (SETAC) (1, 2) and EPA (3). The use phase is more important than the manufacture and disposal phases in terms of energy use and environmental discharges. Automobile service is comparable to the fuel cycle in terms of discharges of toxic substances. In contrast to a Volkswagen study, tailpipe exhaust and evaporative emissions of hydrocarbons (HC)/volatile organic compounds (VOCs), nitrogen oxides (NOJ, and particulate matter are greater than emissions upstream in the fuel cycle. This difference apparently arises from using on-road tailpipe emissions data, rather than emissions data from laboratory tests. The Economic Input-Output model is found useful for quantifying the range of implications of decisions concerning manufacture and use

#### 12. An accident waiting to happen: a spatial approach to proactive pedestrian planning (Robert J. Schneider, Rhonda M. Ryznar Asad J. Khattak, 2002)

There are about 75,000 pedestrian crashes in the United States each year. Approximately 5000 of these crashes are fatal, accounting for 12% of all roadway deaths. On college campuses, pedestrian exposure and crash-risk can be quite high. Therefore, we analysed pedestrian crashes on the campus of the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill (UNC) as a test case for our spatiallyoriented prototype tool that combines perceivedrisk (survey) data with police-reported crash data to obtain a more complete picture of pedestrian crashrisk. We use spatial analysis techniques combined with regression models to understand factors associated with risk. The spatial analysis is based on comparing two distributions, i.e. the locations of perceived-risk with police-reported crash locations. The differences between the two distributions are statistically significant, implying that certain locations on campus are perceived as dangerous, though pedestrian crashes have not yet occurred there, and there are actual locations of policereported crashes that are not perceived to be



dangerous by pedestrians or drivers. Furthermore, we estimate negative binomial regression models to combine pedestrian and automobile exposure with roadway characteristics and spatial/land use information. The models show that high exposure, incomplete sidewalks and high crosswalk density are associated with greater observed and perceived pedestrian crash-risk. Additionally, we found that people perceive a lower risk near university libraries, stadiums, and academic buildings, despite the occurrence of crashes.

## 13. Supported Pd-perovskite catalyst for CNG engines' exhaust gas treatment (D. Fino, N. Russo, G. Saracco, V. Specchia, 2007)

Perovskite-type oxides of the series La1xAxMn1yByO3 (A 1/4 Sr; B 1/4 Fe or Co) were prepared by solution combustion synthesis and characterized by X-ray diffraction, specific surface analysis, transmission electron microscopy and field emission scanning electron microscopy techniques. Their activity towards the combustion of methane was evaluated in a temperature programmed combustion microreactor. The LaMn0.9Fe0.1O3 catalyst was found to provide the best performance. The half-conversion temperature of methane over the LaMn0.9Fe0.1O3 catalyst was 398 C with a W/F 1/4 0.12 g s/cm3 and a methane feed concentration of 0.4 vol% under oxygen excess. Via temperature programmed oxygen desorption (TPD) analysis as well as catalytic combustion runs, the prevalent activity of the LaMn0.9Fe0.1O3 catalyst could be explained by its higher and increased capability to desorb superficial, weakly chemisorbed oxygen species. Further catalyst development allowed to maximise the catalytic activity of this compound by promoting it with CeO2 (1:1 molar ratio) and with 1 wt% Pd. This promoted catalyst was lined on cordierite monoliths in a g-Al2O3-supported form (catalyst weight percentage: 15 wt%) and then tested in a lab-scale test rig under realistic conditions for compressed natural gas-vehicles' exhaust gas treatment. Half methane conversion was achieved at 340 C (gas high space velocity = 10 000 h<sup>-1</sup>), nearly the same but with a fourfold lower amount of the expensive noble metal than that used in commercial 4wt%Pd-Y-Al2O3 catalysts.

#### 14. Differentiated Regulation: The Case Of Auto Emissions Standards (Howard K. Gruenspecht)

Differentiated regulation occurs when a regulatory authority applies different regulatory criteria across subgroups of a regulated sector. An extreme form of differentiation, grandfathering, fixes the regulatory standard for each regulated unit as of its entry date. Grandfathering plays an important role in economic and social regulatory programs such as

occupational licensure, building codes, and most product safety standards. Other programs, notably the environmental and occupational safety programs of EPA and OSHA, incorporate some retroactive regulation but generally apply tougher standards for newer facilities. Despite the widespread use of differentiated regulatory tools, little attention has been paid to their effect on investment and scrapping decisions in the regulated sector. Neoclassical capital theory suggests that bias against new sources in regulation will reduce investment in new facilities and lengthen the economic lifetime of old ones. Once the effect of differentiation on the composition of the capital stock is taken into account, tighter new source standards may actually be counterproductive, increasing the aggregate level of the regulated externality rather than reducing it. This paper presents an analysis of automotive emissions regulation that explicitly considers the link between regulation and the composition of the vehicle stock. The adoption of more stringent emissions standards for new vehicles is shown to prolong the retention of old, high-emission-rate vehicles in the fleet. For this reason, tighter new source standards actually increase aggregate emissions in the short run. This result is of general as well as specific interest given the widespread use of differentiated regulatory tools incorporating a bias against new sources in many regulatory programs.

#### 15. The nonpecuniary costs of automobile emissions standards (Timothy F. Bresnahan Dennis A. Yao)

An important component of the costs of automotive air-pollution control has been nonpecuniary. a decline in vehicle performance characteristics. This regulatory impact on what the auto industry calls "drivability" has never been quantified, although there is considerable reason to believe that it has been a major component of the costs of some of the auto emissions standards of the last decade. We develop a methodology for econometric assessment of such costs, and apply it to the automobile air pollution standards of 19 72-1981. We find that these costs are important. For the first standards implemented in the 1970s, they exceeded the costs of pollution control equipment installed on the car and the costs of decreased fuel efficiency. Since then, however, advances in compliance technology have allowed increases in automobile quality so that incremental costs of recent standards are much lower than previously believed

#### 16. Strategic Responses To Automobile Emissions Control: A Game-Theoretic Analysis (Dennis A. Yao, 1987)

This paper examines the dynamics of standardsetting regulation under technological uncertainty and asymmetric information about technological



capability. A two-period model which allows fully strategic action is developed and applied to the regulation of automobile emissions, a situation in which standards have been used to "force" innovation. It is found that the initial level of R&D activity caused by regulation increases with the intrinsic technical capability of industry. This result does not depend on marginal productivities of research that favour high-capability types and implies that a poor-capability industry will not attempt to compensate for its inability to innovate with increased research activity. It is also found that the regulator's ability to induce investment is greater when R&D is likely to be unsuccessful.

#### 17. The Contingent Valuation Debate: Why Economists Should Care (Paul R. Portney)

The contingent valuation method involves the use of sample surveys (questionnaires) to elicit the willingness of respondents to pay for (generally) hypothetical projects or programs. The name of the method refers to the fact that the values revealed by respondents are contingent upon the constructed or simulated market presented in the survey. A spirited (and occasionally mean-spirited) battle over such methods is currently being waged, involving competing factions within the federal government, economists and lawyers representing business and environmental groups, and interested academics as well. At issue is a seemingly quite specific question: should environmental regulations currently under development at both the Department of the Interior and the Department of Commerce sanction the use of the contingent valuation method in estimating the damage done by spills of oil, chemicals, or other substances covered by federal law? More generally, the debate raises broad questions about what economists have to say about the values that individuals place on public or private goods. The two papers that follow this one make cases for and against the use of the contingent valuation method. My aim here is to provide an overview of the technique and the debate surrounding it. I also want to suggest why this debate should matter to economists, both professionally and in their roles as citizens and consumers.

#### 18. Applications Of Environmental Valuation For Determining Externality Costs (H. Scott Matthews Lester B. Lave, 2000)

Analysing the effectiveness of environmental programs and regulations requires comparing the costs and benefits of reducing different pollutants or further abatement. To make useful comparisons, the various benefits from reduced pollution must be translated into dollars. Unfortunately, estimating the dollar value of environmental damages is complicated, controversial, and generally uncertain. Often these estimates have been misused. This paper identifies the need for benefit estimates, shows how they are constructed, and demonstrates how they can be used to improve environmental policy analysis

#### 19. Economic Prescriptions for Environmental Problems: How the Patient Followed the Doctor's Orders (Robert W. Hahn)

One of the dangers with ivory tower theorizing is that it is easy to lose sight of the actual set of problems which need to be solved, and the range of potential solutions. As one who frequently engages in this exercise. I can attest to this fact. In my view. this loss of sight has become increasingly evident in the theoretical structure underlying environmental economics, which often emphasizes elegance at the expense of realism. In this paper, I will argue that both normative and positive theorizing could greatly benefit from a careful examination of the results of recent innovative approaches to environmental management. The particular set of policies examined here involves two tools which have received widespread support from the economics community: marketable permits and emission charges (Pigou, 1932; Dales, 1968; Kneese and Schultze, 1975). Both tools represent ways to induce businesses to search for lower cost methods of achieving environmental standards. They stand in stark contrast to the predominant "command-and-control" approach in which a regulator specifies the technology a firm must use to comply with regulations. Under highly restrictive conditions, it can be shown that both of the economic approaches share the desirable feature that any gains in environmental quality will be obtained at the lowest possible cost (Baumol and Oates, 1975). Until the 1960s, these tools only existed on blackboards and in academic journals, as products of the fertile imaginations of academics. However, some countries have recently begun to explore using these tools as part of a broader strategy for managing environmental problems. This paper chronicles the experience with both marketable permits and emissions charges. It also provides a selective analysis of a variety of applications in Europe and the United States and shows how the actual use of these tools tends to depart from the role which economists have conceived for them.

#### 20. What Can We Learn from the Grand Policy Experiment? Lessons from SO2 Allowance Trading (Robert N. Stavins)

Economists consistently have urged the use of "market-based" or "economic-incentive" instruments-principally pollution taxes and systems of tradeable permits-to address environmental problems, rather than so-called "command-andcontrol" instruments, such as design standards, which require the use of particular technologies, or



performance standards, which prescribe the maximum amount of pollution that individual sources can emit. At least in theory, a welldesigned pollution tax (Pigou, 1920) or tradeable permit system (Crocker, 1966; Dales, 1968; Montgomery, 1972) will minimize the aggregate cost of achieving a given level of environmental protection (Baumol and Oates, 1988), and provide dynamic incentives for the adoption and diffusion of cheaper and better pollution control technologies (Milliman and Prince, 1989). Despite such advantages. market-based environmental instruments have been used far less frequently than command-and-control standards. In particular, while taxes have been imposed on certain products that are linked to pollution, like gasoline and chemicals, this has typically been done as a way of raising revenue, such as with gas taxes to fund highway construction or chemical taxes to fund cleanup of Superfund toxic waste sites, rather than as incentive devices intended to reduce externalities (Barthold, 1994). But over the past 25 years, the political process has gradually become more receptive to market-oriented environmental tools. Beginning in the 1970s, the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) offered states the option of employing variants of tradeable permits for the control of localized air pollutants. Tradeable-permit systems were used in the 1980s to phase leaded gasoline out of themarket and to phase out ozonedepleting chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs). But by far the most ambitious application of these instruments has been for the control of acid rain under Title IV of the Clean Air Act amendments of 1990, which established a sulfur dioxide (SO2) allowance trading program intended to cut nationwide emissions of SO2 by 50 percent below 1980 levels by the year 2000. This essay seeks to identify lessons that can be learned from this grand economically-oriented experiment in environmental policy. Since the SO2 allowance trading program became binding only in 1995, it might seem premature to search for lessons for future policy. This would be true, were one to consider this policy experiment in isolation. But the SO2 allowance trading program did not emerge into a policy vacuum; rather, it is but one step in the evolution of market-based environmental policies. Considered in this context, the time is ripe not only for an interim appraisal, but for reflection on what we have learned. I begin with a brief description of the SO2 allowance trading system and its performance, relying on the accompanying article by Richard Schmalensee and his colleagues to provide details. I then address questions of positive political economy; for example, given the historical command-and-control support for environmental policy instruments, why was allowance trading adopted for acid-rain control in 1990? Subsequently, I consider normative lessons

for the design and implementation of marketoriented environmental policies, and offer some conclusions

#### 21. An Interim Evaluation of Sulfur Dioxide Emissions Trading (Richard Schmalensee, Paul L. Joskow, A. Denny Ellerman, Juan Pablo Montero, Elizabeth M. Bailey)

Title IV of the 1990 Clean Air Act Amendments the first large-scale, long-term established environmental program to rely on tradable emissions permits called "allowances" in this program-to control pollution. This program was designed to cut acid rain by reducing sulfur dioxide (SO2) emissions from electric generating plants to about half their 1980 level, beginning in 1995. It is of interest both as a response to an important environmental issue and as a landmark experiment in environmental policy. This experiment comes at a particularly important time, since emission trading is under serious consideration, with strong U.S. backing, for use to deal with global climate change by curbing emissions of carbon dioxide (CO2). The economic stakes in climate change surpass those in acid rain by several orders of magnitude (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, 1996). This article summarizes the results to date of our ongoing empirical analysis of compliance costs and allowance market performance under the U.S. acid rain program

#### 22. Life-Cycle Assessment= Inventory Guidelines And Principles (B. W. Vigon, D.A. Tolle, B. W. Cornaby, H. C. Latham Battelle, 1993)

This document describes the three components of a life-cycle assessment (inventory analysis, impact analysis, and improvement analysis) as well as scoping activities, presents a brief overview of the development of the life-cycle assessment process, and develops guidelines and principles for implementation of a product life-cycle assessment. The major stages in a life cycle are raw materials acquisition, manufacturing, consumer use/reuse/maintenance, and recycle/ waste management. The basic steps of performing a lifecycle inventory (defining the goals and system boundaries, including scoping; gathering and developing data; presenting and reviewing data; and interpreting and communicating results) are presented along with the general issues to be addressed. The system boundaries, assumptions, and conventions to be addressed in each stage of the inventory are presented. Life-cycle impact analysis and life-cycle improvement analysis will be topics of forthcoming guidance document. This report was submitted by Battelle in fulfilment of Contract No. 68-CO-0003 under the sponsorship of the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. Technical effort leading to this report covers a



period from August 1990 to May 1991. The draft report was completed in September 1991. Following a comment period, this final report was prepared between March and November 1992.

23. Using Input-Output Analysis to Estimate Economy-wide Discharges (Lester B. Lave, Elisa Cobas-Flore S Chri S T. Hendrickso N, Franci S C. Mcmichael, 1995)

Life-cycle assessment models attempt to quantify the environmental implications of alternative products and processes, tracing pollution discharges and resources use through the chain of producers and consumers. Present life-cycle assessments must draw boundaries that limit consideration to a few producers in the chain from raw materials to a finished product. We show that this limitation considers only a fraction of the environmental discharges associated with a product or process, thereby making current assessments unreliable. We propose an approach that uses economic input-output analysis and pollution discharge data and apply the model to automobiles, refrigerators, and computer purchases, and to a comparison of paper and plastic cups.

24. Toxic Emissions Indices For Green Design And Inventory (Arpad Horvath, Chri S T. Hendrickso N, Lester B. Lave Franci S C. Mcmichael, Tse-Sun G Wu, 1995)

The Toxics Release Inventory (TRI) is the most comprehensive and widely reported information on hazardous discharges to the environment in the United States. Unfortunately, the fledgling nature of the TRI may lead to simplistic interpretations of the results. In particular, TRI summaries typically report total releases of toxic chemicals by weight, implicitly assuming that a discharge of substance A is equivalent to an equal weight discharge of substance B. In contrast, various indices of the toxicity to humans of the chemicals reported in the Inventory indicate that the most harmful are more than 1,000,000 times more toxic than the least harmful. Thus, the simple rankings and time trends of facilities, industries, counties, and states as sources of toxic releases can be misleading because they have neglected relevant toxicological data. We contrast the one-to-one ranking of the TRI data with a ranking based on relative toxicity, using "threshold limit value" (TLV) indices. The weighting scheme presented here is a useful first step for correcting the TRI but is certainly not definitive. Additional study is needed of uncertainties and limitations of this proposed approach. Future applications may be found in green engineering design and manufacturing changes

#### 25. Product Environmental Life-Cycle Assessment Using Input-Output Techniques (Satish Joshi. 1999)

Life-cycle assessment (LCA) facilitates a systems view in environmental evaluation of products, materials, and processes. Life-cycle assessment attempts to quantify environmental burdens over the entire life-cycle of a product from raw material extraction, manufacturing, and use to ultimate disposal. However, current methods for LCA suffer from problems of subjective boundary definition, inflexibility, high cost, data confidentiality, and aggregation. This paper proposes alternative models to conduct quick, cost effective, and yet comprehensive life-cycle assessments. The core of the analytical model consists of the 498 sector economic input-output tables for the U.S. economy augmented with various sector-level environmental impact vectors. The environmental impacts covered include global warming, acidification, energy use, non-renewable ores consumption, eutrophication, conventional pollutant emissions and toxic releases to the environment. Alternative models are proposed for environmental assessment of individual products, processes, and life-cycle stages by selective disaggregation of aggregate inputoutput data or by creation of hypothetical new commodity sectors. To demonstrate the method, a case study comparing the life-cycle environmental performance of steel and plastic automobile fuel tank systems is presented.

#### 26. Economic Input—Output Models For Environmental Life-Cycle Assessment (Chris Hendrickson, Arpad Horvath, Satish Joshi, Lester Lave, 2011)

Process and product models are commonly used for performing life-cycle assessments (LCAs) of the environmental impacts of materials and products through different stages of fabrication, use, and end-of-life options. In this article, we show that these models can be represented as process flow diagrams or as matrices of process interactions. In either representation, the inventory of environmental emissions and resources used is comparable, provided the process models are proportional in nature (any increase in product output produces a corresponding environmental burden). Matrix representations are advantageous if application cost, feedback flow, or speed of analysis is important. They are also useful in conjunction with comprehensive, general equilibrium models in which the system boundary of the problem (e.g., an LCA of a product) being analyzed is on the level of the national economy.



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