CASE NO. 06-0033-E-CN
APPALACHIAN POWER COMPANY
d/b/a
AMERICAN ELECTRIC POWER

Application for a Certificate of Public Convenience
And Necessity to construct a 600 MW Integrated
Gasification Combined Cycle Generating Station in Mason County.

DIRECT TESTIMONY

OF

DAVID A. SCHLISSEL

On Behalf of the
CONSUMER ADVOCATE DIVISION
of the
Public Service Commission
of West Virginia

PUBLIC VERSION

DATED: November 19, 2007

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1. Introduction

Q. What is your name, position and business address?

A. My name is David A. Schlissel. I am a Senior Consultant at Synapse Energy Economics, Inc, 22 Pearl Street, Cambridge, MA 02139.

Q. Please describe Synapse Energy Economics.

A. Synapse Energy Economics ("Synapse") is a research and consulting firm specializing in energy and environmental issues, including electric generation, transmission and distribution system reliability, market power, electricity market prices, stranded costs, efficiency, renewable energy, environmental quality, and nuclear power.

Synapse's clients include state consumer advocates, public utilities commission staff, attorneys general, environmental organizations, federal government and utilities. A complete description of Synapse is available at our website, www.synapse-energy.com.

Q. Please summarize your educational background and recent work experience.

A. I graduated from the Massachusetts Institute of Technology in 1968 with a Bachelor of Science Degree in Engineering. In 1969, I received a Master of Science Degree in Engineering from Stanford University. In 1973, I received a Law Degree from Stanford University. In addition, I studied nuclear engineering at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology during the years 1983-1986.

Since 1983 I have been retained by governmental bodies, publicly-owned utilities, and private organizations in 28 states to prepare expert testimony and analyses on engineering and economic issues related to electric utilities. My recent clients have included the New Mexico Public Regulation Commission, the General Staff of the Arkansas Public Service Commission, the Staff of the Arizona Corporation Commission, the U.S. Department of Justice, the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, the Attorneys General of the States of Massachusetts, Michigan, New York, and Rhode Island, the General Electric Company, cities and towns in Connecticut, New York and Virginia, state consumer advocates, and national and local environmental organizations.

I have testified before state regulatory commissions in Arizona, New Jersey, Connecticut, Kansas, Texas, New Mexico, New York, Vermont, North Carolina, South Carolina, Maine, Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, Massachusetts, Missouri, Rhode Island, Wisconsin, Iowa, South Dakota, Georgia, Minnesota, Michigan, Florida and North Dakota and before an Atomic Safety & Licensing Board of the U.S. Nuclear Regulatory Commission.

A copy of my current resume is attached as Exhibit DAS-1.

Q. Have you testified previously before this Commission?

A. Yes. I filed testimony in the case of Appalachian Power Co., Case No. 97-1329-E-CN. This case was settled prior to hearing.

Q. On whose behalf are you testifying in this case?

A. I am testifying on behalf of the Consumer Advocate Division.

Q. What is the purpose of your testimony?

A. Synapse was retained to assist in its evaluation of the Consumer Advocate Division of the Public Service Commission of West Virginia in its review of the application of Appalachian Power Company (“AEP” or “the Company”) for a Certificate of Public Convenience and Necessity to Construct a 600 MW Integrated Gasification Combined Cycle Generating Station. (“the IGCC Project”)

This testimony presents the results of our analyses.

Q. Please summarize your conclusions.

A. My conclusions are as follows:

1. Appalachian Power has not adequately considered the risks associated with building a new coal-fired power plant in analyses of the Project.

2. The most significant uncertainties and risks associated with the proposed Project are the potential for future federal restrictions on CO_2 emissions and further increases in the IGCC Project's construction cost.

3. It is important for Appalachian Power to justify the Project in light of coming federal regulation of greenhouse gas emissions. It would be imprudent for the Company to continue its participation in the Project without considering probable future CO_2 prices in its economic analyses. To reflect the uncertainties and risks, the Company should use a range of possible CO_2 prices.

4. Appalachian Power also should consider a range of possible plant costs in its analyses to reflect the potential for further construction cost increases.

Q. Please explain how you conducted your investigations in this proceeding.

A. I have reviewed the application, testimony and exhibits filed by Appalachian Power in this case. In addition, we have participated in discovery. As part of that work, we have reviewed the information and documents provided by the Company in response to data requests submitted by the Consumer Advocate Division, the Commission Staff and other active parties. We also have reviewed public information related to the issues addressed in Appalachian Power application, testimony and exhibits and in our testimony and exhibits.

2. Appalachian Power Has Not Adequately Considered The Risks Associated With Building A New Coal-Fired Generating Unit Like the Proposed IGCC Project

Q. Why is it important that Appalachian Power consider risk when evaluating the economics of building the proposed IGCC Project?

A. Risk and uncertainty are inherent in all enterprises. But the risks associated with any options or plans need to be balanced against the expected benefits from each such option or plan.

In particular, parties seeking to build new generating facilities and the associated transmission face of a host of major uncertainties, including, for example, the expected cost of the facility, future restrictions on emissions of carbon dioxide, and future fuel prices. The risks and uncertainties associated with each of these factors needs to be considered as part of the economic evaluation of whether to pursue the proposed facility or other alternatives.

Q. Have you seen any evidence that Appalachian Power has adequately considered risks and uncertainties in its evaluations of the proposed Project?

A. No. The economic analyses presented by Company witness Weaver reflect only a single, unreasonably low, estimate of future CO_2 emissions allowance prices. These analyses also do not appear to reflect any assessment of the uncertainty or risks associated with higher project construction costs.

Q. Is it reasonable to expect that Appalachian Power could reflect uncertainty and risk in its economic analyses of whether to pursue the IGCC Project or alternatives?

A. Yes. There are a number of ways that Appalachian Power could have considered uncertainty and risk. The most simple way would have been to perform sensitivity analyses reflecting engineering type bounding in which the key variables would be expected to vary by X% above or below their projected values. In my experience, utilities regularly consider risk in this way.

Q. Have other Companies provided such analyses in their Integrated Resource Plans or in the modeling analyses presented in support of requests to build and operate new generating facilities?

A. Yes. Sensitivity analyses have been used in many resource planning and power plant siting cases in recent years.

Q. What are the most significant fossil plant-specific uncertainties and risks associated with building new coal-fired generating plants?

A. The most significant uncertainties and risks associated with new coal-fired generating plants like the proposed the Project are the potential for future restrictions on CO_2 emissions and the potential for further increases in the project's capital cost. Other potential uncertainties and risks for new coal plants include the potential for fuel supply disruptions that could affect plant operating performance and fuel prices and the potential for increasing stringency of regulations of current criteria pollutants.

Q. Have any proposed coal-fired generating projects been cancelled as a result of concern over increasing construction costs or the potential for federal regulation of greenhouse gas emissions?

A. Yes. A number of coal-fired power plant projects have been cancelled within the past year, in part, because of concern over rising construction costs and climate change. For example:

- Tenaska Energy cancelled plans to build a coal-fired power plant in Nebraska because of rising steel and construction prices. According to the company's general manager of business development:

  "... coal prices have gone up 'dramatically' since Tenaska started planning the project more than a year ago.

  And coal plants are largely built with steel, so there's the cost of the unit that we would build has gone up a lot… At one point in our development, we had some of the steel and equipment at some very attractive prices and that equipment all of a sudden was not available.

  We went immediately trying to buy additional equipment and the pricing was so high, we looked at the price of the power that would be produced because of those higher prices and equipment and it just wouldn't be a prudent business decision to build it."[1]

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[1] Available at www.swtimes.com/articles/2007/07/09/news/news02.prt.

- TXU cancelled 8 of 11 proposed coal-fired power plants, in large part because of concern over global warming and the potential for federal legislation restricting greenhouse gas emissions.[2]
- Westar Energy announced in December 2006 that it was deferring site selection for a new 600 MW coal-fired power plant due to significant increases in the facility's estimated capital cost.
- Tampa Electric just cancelled a proposed integrated gasification combined cycle plant ("IGCC") due to uncertainty related to CO_2 regulations, particularly capture and sequestration issues, and the potential for related project cost increases. According to a press release, "Because of the economic risk of these factors to customers and investors, the company believes it should not proceed with an IGCC project at this time," although it remains steadfast in its support of IGCC as a critical component of future fuel diversity in Florida and the nation.
- Four public power agencies suspended permitting activities for the coal-fired Taylor Energy Center because of growing concerns about greenhouse gas emissions.[3]
- Southern Company and the Orlando Utilities Commission have just cancelled a proposed 300 MW IGCC plant due to the threat of a regulation of greenhouse gas emissions. The partners instead will build a traditional natural gas-fired power plant.[4]

Q. **Have you seen any instance where a participant in a jointly-owned coal-fired power plant project has withdrawn because of concern over increasing construction costs or potential CO_2 emissions costs?**

A. Yes. Great River Energy ("GRE") just withdrew from the proposed Big Stone II coal-fired power plant project in South Dakota. According to GRE, four factors contributed most prominently to the decision to withdraw, including uncertainty about changes in environmental requirements and new technology and that fact that "The cost of Big Stone II has increased due to inflation and project delays."[5]

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2 See www.marketwatch.com/news/story/txu-reversal-coal-plant-emissions.
3 See www.taylorenergycenter.org/s_16asp?n=40.
4 Power Engineering Online, dated November 16, 2007.
5 See ww.greatriverenergy.com/press/news/091707_big_stone_ii.html.

Q. Have any proposed coal-fired generating projects been rejected by state regulatory commissions due to concerns over increasing construction costs or the potential for federal regulation of greenhouse gas emissions?

A. Yes. Just since last December, proposed coal-fired power plant projects have been rejected by the Oregon Public Utility Commission, the Florida Public Service Commission, and the Oklahoma Corporation Commission. The North Carolina Utilities Commission rejected one of the two coal-fired plants proposed by Duke Energy Carolinas for is Cliffside Project.

The decision of the Florida Public Service Commission in denying approval for the 1,960 MW Glades Power Project was based on concern over the uncertainties over plant costs, coal and natural gas prices, and future environmental costs, including carbon allowance costs.[6] In addition, the Oklahoma Corporation Commission has just voted to reject Public Service of Oklahoma's application to build a new coal-fired power plant.[7]

The Minnesota Public Utilities Commission also has refused to approve an agreement under which Xcel Energy would have purchased power from a proposed IGCC facility due to concerns over the uncertainties surrounding the plant's estimated construction and operating costs and operating and financial risks.[8]

Recently, on October 18, 2007, the Kansas Department of Health and Environment rejected an application to build two 700 MW coal-fired units at an existing power plant site. In a prepared statement explaining the basis for this decision, Rod Bremby, Kansas's secretary of health and environment noted that "I believe it would be irresponsible to ignore emerging information about the

6 Order No. PSC-07-0557-FOF-EI, Docket No. 070098-EI, July 2, 2007.
7 Oklahoma Corporation Commission Order I Cause No. 2000700012, September 2007.
8 Order in Docket No. E-6472/M-05-1993, dated August 30, 2007, at pages 16-19.

contribution of carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gases to climate change and the potential harm to our environment and health if we do nothing."[9]

Q. Is it important to evaluate the uncertainties and risks associated with alternatives to the IGCC Project as well?

A. Yes. The risks associated with building natural gas-fired alternatives include potential CO_2 emissions costs, possible capital cost escalation and fuel price uncertainty and volatility.

Renewable alternatives and energy efficiency also have some uncertainties and risks. These include potential capital cost escalation, contract uncertainty and customer participation uncertainty.

3. Appalachian Power Has Not Adequately Considered The Risks Associated With Future Federally Mandated Greenhouse Gas Reductions

Q. Is it prudent to expect that a policy to address climate change will be implemented in the U.S. in a way that should be of concern to coal-dependent utilities in the Midwest?

A. Yes. The prospect of global warming and the resultant widespread climate changes has spurred international efforts to work towards a sustainable level of greenhouse gas emissions. These international efforts are embodied in the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change ("UNFCCC"), a treaty that the U.S. ratified in 1992, along with almost every other country in the world. The Kyoto Protocol, a supplement to the UNFCCC, establishes legally binding limits on the greenhouse gas emissions of industrialized nations and economies in transition.

Despite being the single largest contributor to global emissions of greenhouse gases, the United States remains one of a very few industrialized nations that have

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9 See www.kansascity.com/105/story/323833.html.

not signed the Kyoto Protocol.[10] Nevertheless, individual states, regional groups of states, shareholders and corporations are making serious efforts and taking significant steps towards reducing greenhouse gas emissions in the United States. Efforts to pass federal legislation addressing carbon, though not yet successful, have gained ground in recent years. These developments, combined with the growing scientific understanding of, and evidence of, climate change, mean that establishing federal policy requiring greenhouse gas emission reductions is just a matter of time. The question is not whether the United States will develop a national policy addressing climate change, but when and how. The electric sector will be a key component of any regulatory or legislative approach to reducing greenhouse gas emissions both because of this sector's contribution to national emissions and the comparative ease of regulating large point sources.

There are, of course, important uncertainties with regard to the timing, the emission limits, and many other details of what a carbon policy in the United States will look like.

Q. If there are uncertainties with regard to such important details as timing, emission limits and other details, why should a utility engage in the exercise of forecasting greenhouse gas prices?

A. First of all, utilities are implicitly assuming a value for carbon allowance prices whether they go to the effort of collecting all the relevant information and creating a price forecast, or whether they simply ignore future carbon regulation. In other words, a utility that ignores future carbon regulations is implicitly assuming that the allowance value will be zero. The question is whether it's

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10 As I use the terms "carbon dioxide regulation" and "greenhouse gas regulation" throughout this testimony, there is no difference in meaning. While I believe that the future regulations discussed here will govern emissions of all types of greenhouse gases, not just carbon dioxide ("CO_2"), the discussion in this testimony is chiefly concerned with emissions of carbon dioxide. Therefore, I use the terms "carbon dioxide regulation" and "greenhouse gas regulation" interchangeably. Similarly, the terms "carbon dioxide price," "greenhouse gas price" and "carbon price" are interchangeable.

appropriate to assume zero or some other number. There is uncertainty in any type of utility forecasting and to write off the need to forecast carbon allowance prices because of the uncertainties is not prudent.

For example, there are myriad uncertainties that utility planners have learned to address in planning. These include randomly occurring generating unit outages, load forecast error and demand fluctuations, and fuel price volatility and uncertainty. These various uncertainties can be addressed through techniques such as sensitivity and scenario analyses.

Q. Why would electric utilities, in particular, be concerned about future carbon regulation?

A. Electricity generation is very carbon-intensive. Electric utilities are likely to be one of the first, if not the first, industries subject to carbon regulation because of the relative ease in regulating stationary sources as opposed to mobile sources (automobiles) and because electricity generation represents a significant portion of total U.S. greenhouse gas emissions. A new generating facility may have a book life of twenty to forty years, but in practice, the utility may expect that that asset will have an operating life of 50 years or more. By adding new plants, especially new coal plants, a utility is essentially locking-in a large quantity of carbon dioxide emissions for decades to come. In general, electric utilities are increasingly aware that the fact that we do not currently have federal greenhouse gas regulation is irrelevant to the issue of whether we will in the future, and that new plant investment decisions are extremely sensitive to the expected cost of greenhouse gas regulation throughout the life of the facility.

Q. How does Appalachian Power view the prospects for carbon regulation?

A. As the Company's witnesses testify, AEP anticipates that the momentum in Congress is moving toward a mandatory federal greenhouse gas program that will set targets and timelines for future CO_2 emission reductions.[11]

Q. Do you agree with Appalachian Power assessment of the potential for federal regulation of greenhouse gas emissions?

A. Yes. We at Synapse believe that it is not a question of "if" with regards to federal regulation of greenhouse gas emissions but rather a question of "when." However, we also agree that there are uncertainties as to the design, timing and details of the CO_2 regulations that ultimately will be adopted and implemented.

Q. What mandatory greenhouse gas emissions reductions programs have begun to be examined in the U.S. federal government?

A. To date, the U.S. government has not required greenhouse gas emission reductions. However, a number of legislative initiatives for mandatory emissions reduction proposals have been introduced in Congress. These proposals establish carbon dioxide emission trajectories below the projected business-as-usual emission trajectories, and they generally rely on market-based mechanisms (such as cap and trade programs) for achieving the targets. The proposals also include various provisions to spur technology innovation, as well as details pertaining to offsets, allowance allocation, restrictions on allowance prices and other issues. The federal proposals that would require greenhouse gas emission reductions that had been submitted in the current U.S. Congress are summarized in Table 1 below.[12]

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[11] For example, see the Testimony of Dana E. Waldo, at page 7, lines 15-18, and the Testimony of Michael W. Renchek, at page 6, lines 1-2, and page 9, lines 12-16.

[12] Table 1 is an updated version of Table ES-1 on page 5 of Exhibit DAS-3.

Table 1. Summary of Mandatory Emissions Targets in Proposals Discussed in the current U.S. Congress[13]

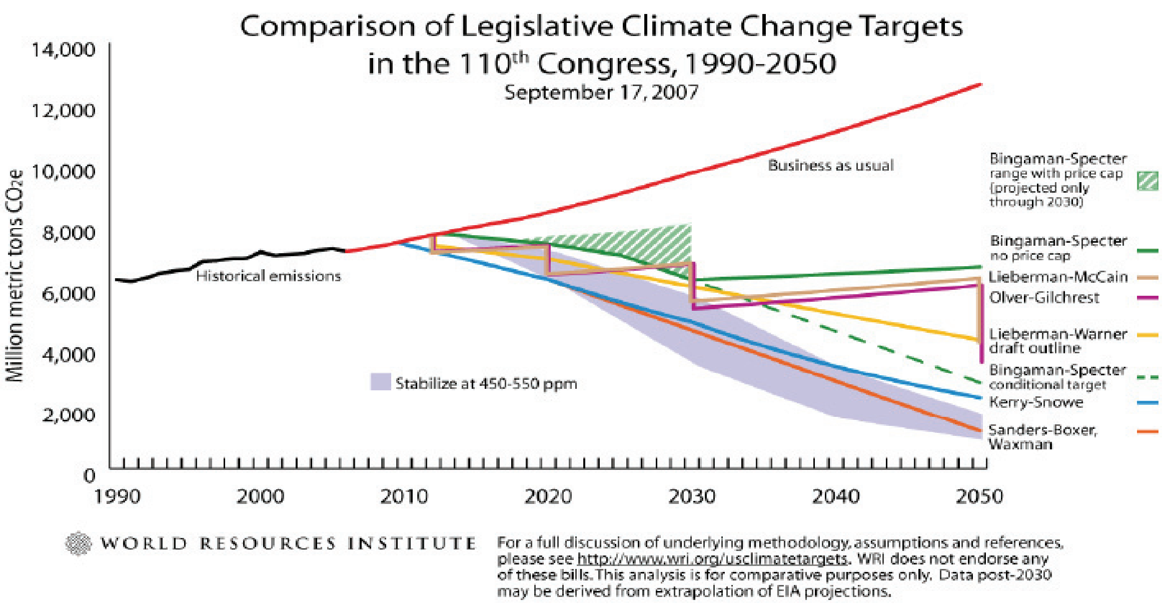
Proposed National Policy	Title or Description	Year Proposed	Emission Targets	Sectors Covered
Feinstein- Carper S.317	Electric Utility Cap & Trade Act	2007	2006 level by 2011, 2001 level by 2015, 1%/year reduction from 2016-2019, 1.5%/year reduction starting in 2020	Electricity sector
Kerry-Snowe	Global Warming Reduction Act	2007	2010 level from 2010-2019, 1990 level from 2020-2029, 2.5%/year reductions from 2020-2029, 3.5%/year reduction from 2030-2050, 65% below 2000 level in 2050	Economy-wide
McCain-Lieberman S.280	Climate Stewardship and Innovation Act	2007	2004 level in 2012, 1990 level in 2020, 20% below 1990 level in 2030, 60% below 1990 level in 2050	Economy-wide
Sanders-Boxer S.309	Global Warming Pollution Reduction Act	2007	2%/year reduction from 2010 to 2020, 1990 level in 2020, 27% below 1990 level in 2030, 53% below 1990 level in 2040, 80% below 1990 level in 2050	Economy-wide
Olver, et al HR 620	Climate Stewardship Act	2007	Cap at 2006 level by 2012, 1%/year reduction from 2013-2020, 3%/year reduction from 2021-2030, 5%/year reduction from 2031-2050, equivalent to 70% below 1990 level by 2050	US national
Bingaman–Specter S.1766	Low Carbon Economy Act	2007	2012 levels in 2012, 2006 levels in 2020, 1990 levels by 2030. President may set further goals ≥60% below 2006 levels by 2050 contingent upon international effort	Economy-wide
Lieberman-Warner S. 2191	America's Climate Security Act	2007	2005 level in 2012, 1990 level in 2020, 65% below 1990 level in 2050	U.S. electric power, transportation, and manufacturing sources.

The emissions levels that would be mandated by the bills that have been introduced in the current Congress are shown in Figure 1 below:

[13] More detailed summaries of the bills that have been introduced in the U.S. Senate in the 110th Congress are presented in Exhibit DAS-2.

Public – Protected Materials Redacted

Figure 1: Emissions Reductions Required under Climate Change Bills in Current US Congress



The shaded area in Figure 1 above represents the 60% to 80% range of emission reductions from current levels that many now believe will be necessary to stabilize atmospheric CO_2 concentrations by the middle of this century.

Q. Is it reasonable to believe that the prospects for passage of federal legislation for the regulation of greenhouse gas emissions have improved as a result of last November's federal elections?

A. Yes. As shown by the number of proposals being introduced in Congress and public statements of support for taking action, there certainly are an increasing numbers of legislators who are inclined to support passage of legislation to regulate the emissions of greenhouse gases.

Nevertheless, my conclusion that significant greenhouse gas regulation in the U.S. is inevitable is not based on the results of any single election or on the fate of any single bill introduced in Congress.

Q. Are individual states also taking actions to reduce greenhouse gas emissions?

A. Yes. A number of states are taking significant actions to reduce greenhouse gas emissions.

For example, Table 2 below lists the emission reduction goals that have been adopted by states in the U.S. Regional action also has been taken in the Northeast and Western regions of the nation.

Table 2: Announced State and Regional Greenhouse Gas Emission Reduction Goals

State	GHG Reduction Goal	Western Climate Initiative member (15% below 2005 levels by 2020)	Regional Greenhouse Gas Initiative member (Cap at current levels 2009-2015, reduce this by 10% by 2019)
Arizona	2000 levels by 2020; 50% below 2000 levels by 2040	yes	
California	2000 levels by 2010; 1990 levels by 2020; 80% below 1990 levels by 2050	yes	
Connecticut	1990 levels by 2010; 10% below 1990 levels by 2020; 75-85% below 2001 levels in the long term		yes
Delaware			yes
Florida	2000 levels by 2017, 1990 levels by 2025, and 80 percent below 1990 levels by 2050		
Hawaii	1990 levels by 2020		
Illinois	1990 levels by 2020; 60% below 1990 levels by 2050		
Maine	1990 levels by 2010; 10% below 1990 levels by 2020; 75-80% below 2003 levels in the long term		yes
Maryland			yes
Massachusetts	1990 levels by 2010; 10% below 1990 levels by 2020; 75-85% below 1990 levels in the long term		yes
Minnesota	15% by 2015, 30% by 2025, 80% by 2050		
New Hampshire	1990 levels by 2010; 10% below 1990 levels by 2020; 75-85% below 2001 levels in the long term		yes
New Jersey	1990 levels by 2020; 80% below 2006 levels by 2050		yes
New Mexico	2000 levels by 2012; 10% below 2000 levels by 2020; 75% below 2000 levels by 2050	yes	
New York	5% below 1990 levels by 2010; 10% below 1990 levels by 2020		yes
Oregon	Stabilize by 2010; 10% below 1990 levels by 2020; 75% below 1990 levels by 2050	yes	
Rhode Island	1990 levels by 2010; 10% below 1990 levels by 2020; 75-80% below 2001 levels in the long term		yes
Utah		yes	
Vermont	1990 levels by 2010; 10% below 1990 levels by 2020; 75-85% below 2001 levels in the long term		yes
Washington	1990 levels by 2020; 25% below 1990 levels by 2035; 50% below 1990 levels by 2050	yes	

Q. Have recent polls indicated that the American people are increasingly in favor of government action to address global warming concerns?

A. Yes. A summer 2006 poll by Zogby International showed that an overwhelming majority of Americans are more convinced that global warming is happening than they were even two years ago. In addition, Americans also are connecting intense weather events like Hurricane Katrina and heat waves to global warming.[14] Indeed, the poll found that 74% of all respondents, including 87% of Democrats, 56% of Republicans and 82% of Independents, believe that we are experiencing the effects of global warming.

The poll also indicated that there is strong support for measures to require major industries to reduce their greenhouse gas emissions to improve the environment without harming the economy – 72% of likely voters agreed such measures should be taken.[15]

Other recent polls reported similar results. For example, a recent Stanford University/Associated Press poll found that 84 percent of Americans believe that global warming is occurring, with 52 percent expecting the world's natural environment to be in worse shape in ten years than it is now.[16] Eighty-four percent of Americans want a great deal or a lot to be done to help the environment during the next year by President Bush, the Congress, American businesses and/or the American public. This represents ninety-two percent of Democrats and seventy-seven percent of Republicans.

At the same time, according to a recent public opinion survey for the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Americans now rank climate change as the country's most pressing environmental problem—a dramatic shift from three

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14 "Americans Link Hurricane Katrina and Heat Wave to Global Warming," Zogby International, August 21, 2006, available at www.zogby.com/news.

15 Id.

16 *The Second Annual "America's Report Card on the Environment" Survey by the Woods Institute for the Environment at Stanford University in collaboration with The Associated Press,* September 25, 2007.

years ago, when they ranked climate change sixth out of 10 environmental concerns.[17] Almost three-quarters of the respondents felt the government should do more to deal with global warming, and individuals were willing to spend their own money to help.

Q. Has Appalachian Power developed any projection of future CO_2 emissions allowance prices?

A. Yes. The Company has developed a

[REDACTED][18]

Q. Is this a reasonable forecast to use for resource planning?

A. No. First, it is too low considering the proposals that are currently under review in Congress. Second, given all of the uncertainties it would be prudent to review a wide range of forecasts, not just a single price trajectory.

Q. Has Synapse developed a carbon price forecast that would assist the Commission in evaluating the proposed the Project?

A. Yes. Synapse's forecast of future carbon dioxide emissions prices are presented in Figure 2 below.

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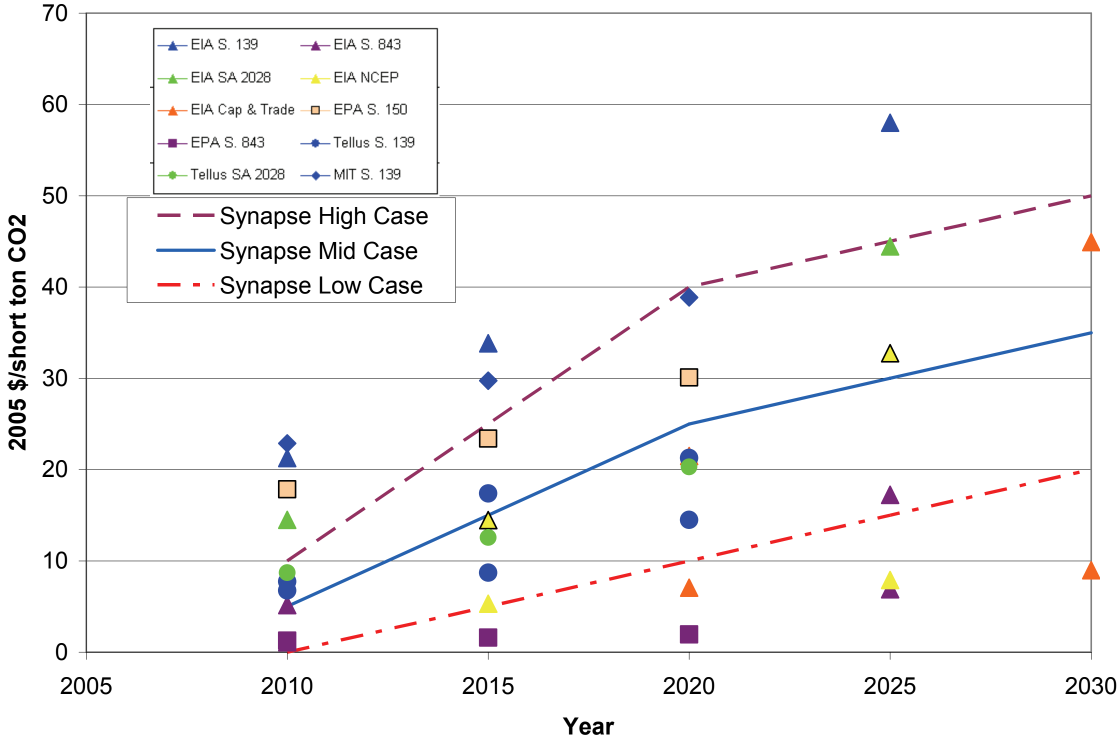
17 *MIT Carbon Sequestration Initiative, 2006 Survey,* http://sequestration.mit.edu/research/survey2006.html

18 Appalachian Power Confidential Response to Question CAD 2-37.

Public – Protected Materials Redacted

Figure 2. Synapse Carbon Dioxide Prices



Q. What is Synapse's carbon price forecast on a levelized basis?

A. Synapse's forecast, levelized[19] over 20 years, 2011 – 2030, is provided in Table 3 below.

Table 3: Synapse's Levelized Carbon Price Forecast (2005$/ton of CO_2)

Low Case	Mid Case	High Case
$8.23	$19.83	$31.43

Q. When were the Synapse CO_2 emission allowance price forecasts shown in Figure 2 developed?

A. The Synapse CO_2 emission allowance price forecasts were developed in the Spring of 2006.

Q. How were these CO_2 price forecasts developed?

A. The basis for the Synapse CO_2 price forecasts is described in detail in Exhibit DAS-3, starting on page 41 of 63.

In general, the price forecasts were based, in part, on the results of economic analyses of individual bills that had been submitted in the 108th and 109th Congresses. We also considered the likely impacts of state, regional and international actions, the potential for offsets and credits, and the likely future trajectories of both emissions constraints and technological program.

Q. Are the Synapse CO_2 price forecasts shown in Figure 2 based on any independent modeling?

A. Yes. Although Synapse did not perform any new modeling to develop our CO_2 price forecasts, our CO_2 price forecasts were based on the results of independent modeling prepared at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology ("MIT"), the Energy Information Administration of the Department of Energy ("EIA"), Tellus, and the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency ("EPA").[20]

Q. Do the triangles, squares, circles and diamond shapes in Figure 2 above reflect the results of all of the scenarios examined in the MIT, EIA, EPA and Tellus analyses upon which Synapse relied?

A. As a general rule, Synapse focused our attention either on the modeler's primary scenario or on the presented high and low scenarios to bracket the range of results.

For example, the blue triangles in Figure 2 represent the results from EIA's modeling of the 2003 McCain Lieberman bill, S.139. Synapse used the results from EIA's primary case which reflected the bill's provisions that allowed: (a) allowance banking; (b) use of up to 15 percent offsets in Phase 1 (2010-2015) and

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[19] A value that is "levelized" is the present value of the total cost converted to equal annual payments. Costs are levelized in real dollars (i.e., adjusted to remove the impact of inflation).

up to 10 percent offsets in Phase II (2016 and later years). The S.139 case also assumed commercial availability of advanced nuclear plants and of geological carbon sequestration technologies in the electric power industry.

Similarly, the blue diamonds in Figure 2 represent the results from MIT's modeling of the same 2003 McCain Lieberman bill, S.139. MIT examined 14 scenarios which considered the impact of factors such as the tightening of the cap in Phase II, allowance banking, availability of outside credits, and assumptions about GDP and emissions growth. Synapse included the results from Scenario 7 which included allowance banking and zero-cost credits, which effectively relaxed the cap by 15% and 10% in Phase I and Phase II, respectively. Synapse selected this scenario as the closest to the S.139 legislative proposal since it assumed that the cap was tightened in a second phase, as in Senate Bill 139.

At the same time, some of the studies only included a single scenario representing the specific features of the legislative proposal being analyzed. For example, SA 2028, the Amended McCain Lieberman bill set the emissions cap at constant 2000 levels and allowed for 15 percent of the carbon emission reductions to be met through offsets from non-covered sectors, carbon sequestration and qualified international sources. EIA presented one scenario in its table for this policy. The results from this scenario are presented in the green triangles in Figure 2.

Q. Do you believe that technological improvements and policy designs will reduce the cost of CO_2 emissions?

A. Yes. Exhibit DAS-3 identifies a number of factors that will affect projected allowance prices. These factors include: the base case emissions forecast; whether there are complimentary policies such as aggressive investments in energy efficiency and renewable energy independent of the emissions allowance market; the policy implementation timeline; the reduction targets in a proposal; program flexibility involving the inclusion of offsets (perhaps international) and

[20] See Table 6.2 on page 42 of 63 of Exhibit DAS-3.

allowance banking; technological progress; and emissions co-benefits.[21] In particular, Synapse anticipates that technological innovation will temper allowance prices in the out years of our forecast.

Q. Could carbon capture and sequestration be a technological innovation that might temper or even put a ceiling on CO_2 emissions allowance prices?

A. Yes.

Q. Have you seen any Company estimates of what it would cost to add carbon capture and sequestration technologies to new coal-fired power plants?

A. Yes. Appalachian Power's response to Staff Request 3.2 provided a revised APCo Exhibit No. MWR-4 which provided the estimated costs of electricity from a number of coal-fired technologies with and without carbon capture and sequestration. AEP estimates that the cost of just capturing the CO_2 emissions from a new ultra supercritical pulverized coal plant would be approximately \$43-\$46/MWh on a levelized basis. The cost of just capturing the CO_2 emissions from an IGCC facility would be \$25-\$26/MWh on a levelized basis. These costs are compatible with the projected Synapse range of CO_2 emissions allowance prices.

Q. Do the Synapse CO_2 price forecasts reflect the potential for the inclusion of domestic offsets and, perhaps, international offsets in U.S. carbon regulation policy?

A. Yes. Even the Synapse high CO_2 price forecast is consistent with, and in some cases lower than, the results of studies that assume the use of some levels of offsets to meet mandated emission limits. For example, as shown in Figure 2 the highest price scenarios in the years 2015, 2020 and 2025 were taken from the EIA and MIT modeling of the original and the amended McCain-Lieberman proposals. Each of the prices for these scenarios shown in Figure 2 reflects the allowed use of offsets.

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[21] Exhibit DAS-3, at pages 46 to 49 of 63.

Q. How do the Synapse CO_2 price forecasts compare to the Company's CO_2 price forecast?

A. The Synapse CO_2 price forecasts and the long-term Appalachian Power CO_2 price forecast provided in response to Question CAD 2-37 are shown in Figure 3 below:

Figure 3: Synapse and Appalachian Power CO_2 Price Forecasts [CONFIDENTIAL]

[CONFIDENTIAL MATERIAL REDACTED]

[22]

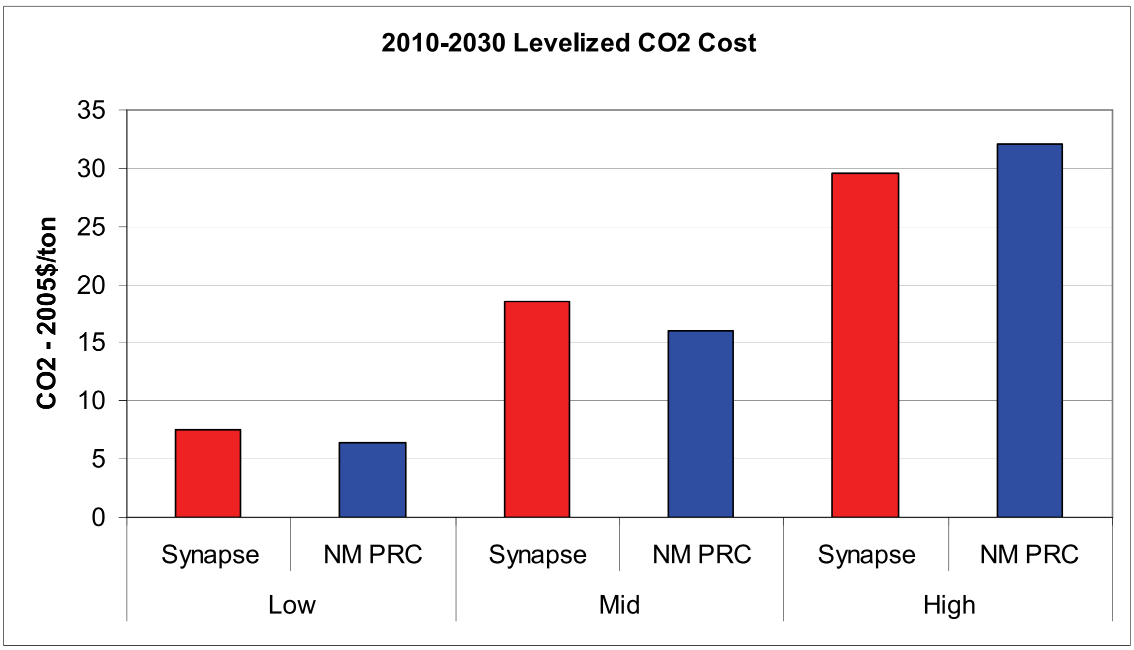
Q. Have you seen any recent independent forecasts of future CO_2 emissions prices that are similar to the Synapse forecast?

A. Yes. The Synapse CO_2 emissions allowance price forecasts compare favorably to recent forecasts of future CO2 prices used in resource planning analyses.

[22] The costs in Figure 3 are in constant 2005 dollars. APCO's projected CO_2 shown on page 17 of this testimony were provided in nominal dollars. To put these costs on the same basis as the Synapse forecasts, we have converted them to 2005 dollars using a 2.5 percent inflation rate.

For example, last June the New Mexico Public Regulation Commission ordered that utilities should consider a range of CO_2 prices in their resource planning.[23] This range runs from \$8 to \$40 per metric ton, beginning in 2010 and increasing at the overall 2.5 percent rate of inflation. Figure 4 below shows that the New Mexico Commission's CO_2 prices are extremely close to the Synapse price forecasts on a levelized basis.

Figure 4: CO_2 Price Scenarios – Synapse & 2007 NM Public Regulation Commission

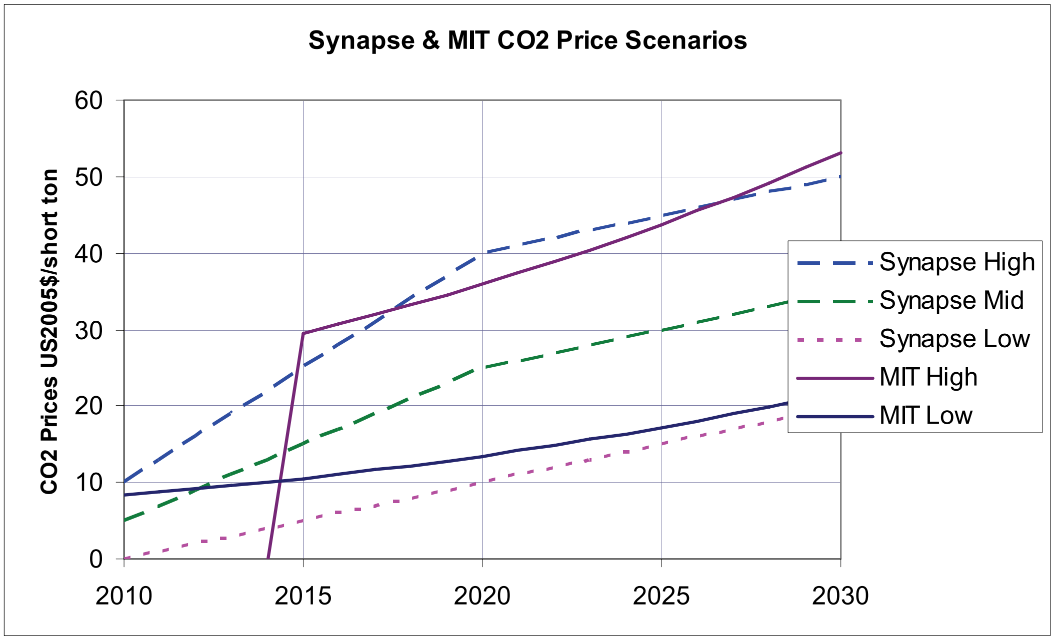


Similarly, the recent MIT study on *The Future of Coal* contained a set of assumptions about high and low future CO_2 emission allowance price. Figure 5 below shows that the CO_2 price trajectories in the MIT study are very close to the high and low Synapse forecasts.

[23] A copy of this Order is included as Exhibit DAS-4.

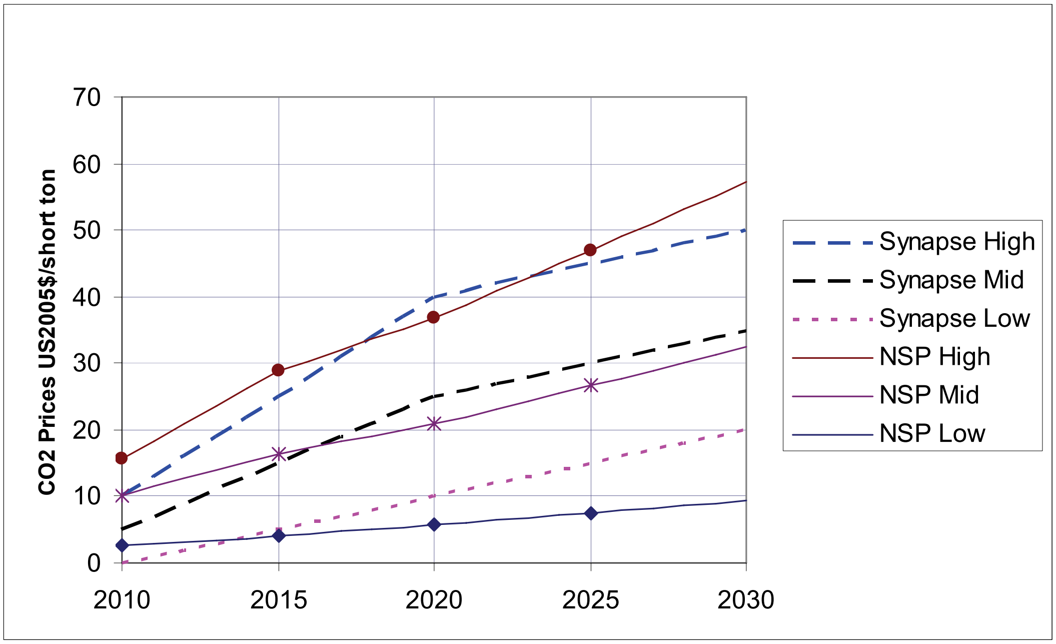
Public – Protected Materials Redacted

Figure 5: CO_2 Price Scenarios – Synapse & MIT March 2007 Future of Coal Study



At the same time, in its recently completed Integrated Resource Planning process, Nova Scotia Power used CO_2 prices that were developed by Natsource. Figure 6 below shows that the CO2 prices used by Nova Scotia Power are very similar to the Synapse price forecasts.

Figure 6: CO_2 Price Scenarios – Synapse & Nova Scotia Power IRP



Q. Do you believe that the Synapse CO_2 price forecasts remain valid despite being based, in part, on analyses from 2003-2005 which examined legislation that was proposed in past Congresses?

A. Yes. Synapse believes it is important for the Commission to rely on the most current information available about future CO_2 emission allowance prices, as long as that information is objective and credible. The analyses upon which Synapse relied when we developed our CO_2 price forecasts were the most recent analyses and technical information available when Synapse developed its CO_2 price forecasts in the Spring of 2006. However, new information shows that our CO_2 prices remain valid even though the original bills that comprised part of the basis for the forecasts expired at the end of the Congress in which they were introduced.

Most importantly, many of the new greenhouse gas regulation bills that have been introduced in Congress are significantly more stringent than the bills that were being considered prior to the spring of 2006. As I will discuss below, the increased stringency of current bills can be expected to lead to higher CO_2

emission allowance prices. The higher forecast natural gas prices that are being forecast today, as compared to the natural gas price forecasts from 2003 or 2004, also can be expected to lead to higher CO_2 emissions allowance prices.

Q. Do the Synapse carbon price forecasts presented in Figures 2 through 6 reflect the emission reduction targets in the bills that have been introduced in the current Congress?

A. No. Synapse developed our price forecasts late last spring and relied upon bills that had been introduced in Congress through that time. The bills that have been introduced in the current US Congress generally would mandate much more substantial reductions in greenhouse gas emissions than the bills that we considered when we developed our carbon price forecasts. Consequently, we believe that our forecasts are conservative but consistent with the climate change legislation that has been introduced in the current Congress.

Q. Have you seen any analyses of the CO_2 prices that would be required to achieve the much deeper reductions in CO_2 emissions that would be mandated under the bills currently under consideration in Congress?

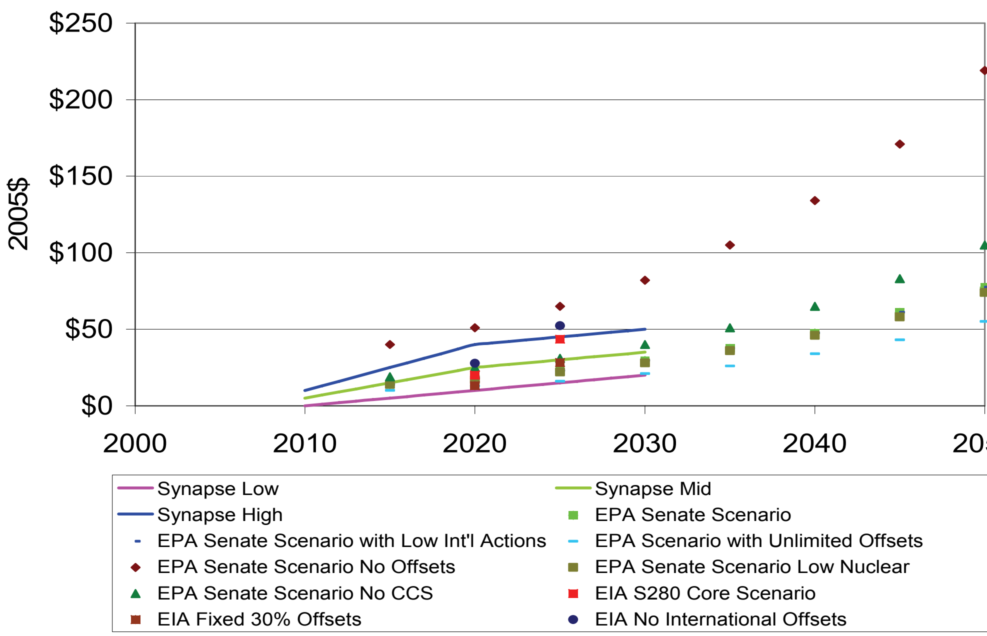
A. Yes. An *Assessment of U.S. Cap-and-Trade Proposals* was recently issued by the MIT Joint Program on the Science and Policy of Global Change. This *Assessment* evaluated the impact of the greenhouse gas regulation bills that are being considered in the current Congress.

Twenty nine scenarios were modeled in the *Assessment*. These scenarios reflected differences in such factors as emission reduction targets (that is, reduce CO_2 emissions 80% from 1990 levels by 2050, reduce CO_2 emissions 50% from 1990 levels by 2050, or stabilize CO_2 emissions at 2008 levels), whether banking of allowances would be allowed, whether international trading of allowances would be allowed, whether only developed countries or the U.S. would pursue greenhouse gas reductions, whether there would be safety valve prices adopted as part of greenhouse gas regulations, and other factors.[24]

In general, the ranges of the projected CO_2 prices in these scenarios were higher than the range of CO_2 prices in the Synapse forecast. For example, twelve of the 29 scenarios modeled by MIT projected higher CO_2 prices in 2020 than the high Synapse forecast. Fourteen of the 29 scenarios (almost half) projected higher CO_2 prices in 2030 than the high Synapse forecast.

Figure 7 below compares the three Core Scenarios in the MIT *Assessment* with the Synapse CO_2 price forecasts.

Figure 7: **CO_2 Price Scenarios – Synapse and Core Scenarios in April 2007 MIT *Assessment of U.S. Cap-and-Trade Proposals***

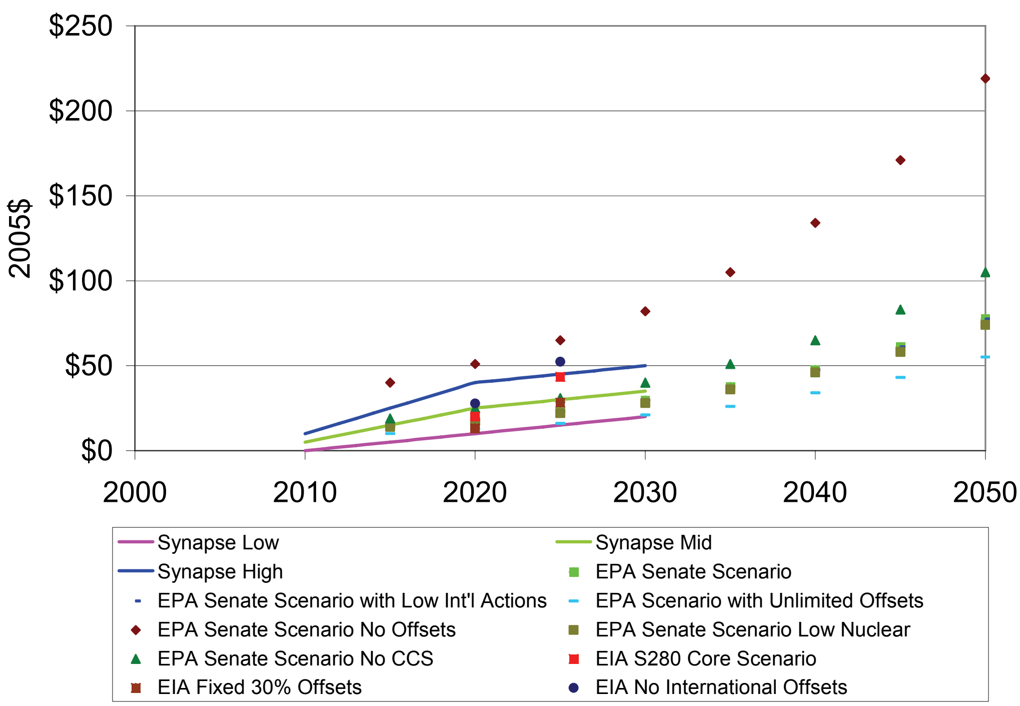


[24] The scenarios examined in the MIT *Assessment of U.S. Cap-and-Trade Proposals* are listed in Exhibit DAS-5.

Q. Have you compared the Synapse CO_2 emissions allowance price forecasts to any other assessments of current bills in Congress?

A. Yes. Both EPA and the Energy Information Agency (EIA) of the Department of Energy have analyzed the impact of the current version of the McCain-Lieberman legislation (Senate Bill 280).[25] Figure 8 below shows that the Synapse CO_2 price forecasts are consistent with the range of scenarios examined in the EPA and EIA assessments:

Figure 8: Synapse CO_2 Price Forecasts and Results of EPA and EIA Assessment of Current McCain Lieberman Legislation



[25] *Energy Market and Economic Impacts of S. 280, the Climate Stewardship and Innovation Act of 2007,* Energy Information Administration, July 2007 and *EPA Analysis of the Climate Stewardship and Innovation Act of 2007, S. 280 in 110th Congress*, July 16, 2007.

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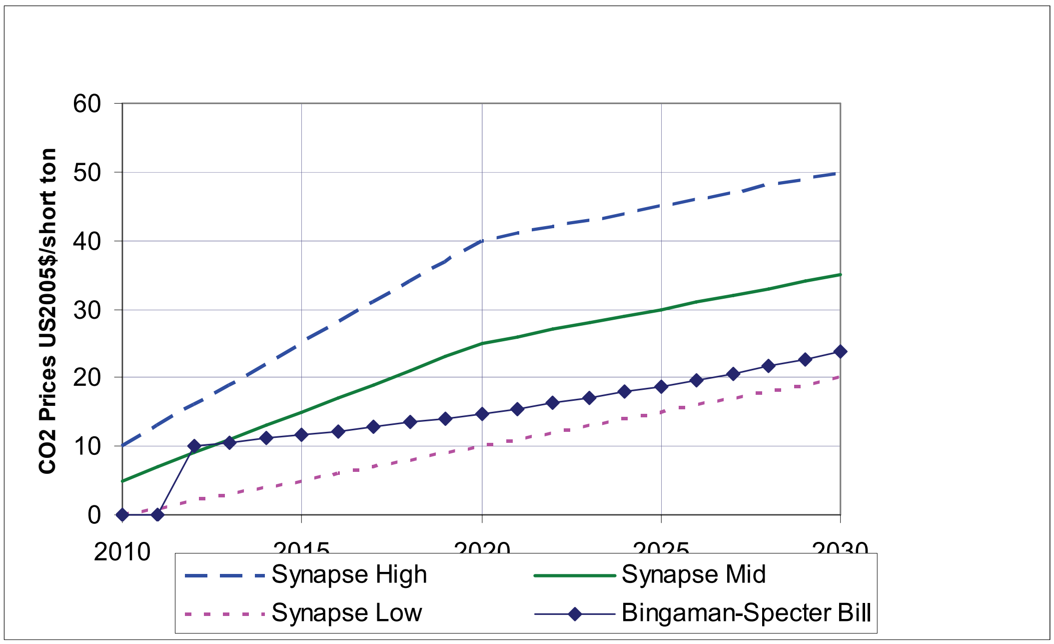
Q. How do the Synapse CO_2 forecasts compare to the safety valve prices in the bill introduced by Senators Bingaman and Specter?

A. As shown in Figure 9 below, the safety valve prices in the legislation introduced by Senators Bingaman and Specter fall between the Synapse mid and low forecasts.

Figure 9: Synapse CO_2 Price Forecasts and Safety Valve Prices in Bingaman-Specter Legislation in 110th Congress



Q. Is it possible that natural gas demand could be higher due to CO_2 emission regulations and, as a result, natural gas prices can be expected to be higher than otherwise would be the case?

A. In general, I agree that federal regulation of CO_2 emissions might lead to somewhat higher natural gas prices. However, the effect is very complicated and will depend on a number of factors such as how much new natural gas generating capacity is built as a result of the higher coal-plant operating costs due to the CO_2 emission allowance prices, how much additional DSM and renewable alternatives become economic and are added to the U.S. system, the levels and prices of any incremental natural gas imports, and changes in the dispatching of the electric system. Thus, it is very difficult to determine, at this time, the amount by which natural gas prices might be raised due to CO_2 emission regulations. Also, it is reasonable to expect that any such increases in natural gas prices could lead to higher CO_2 emissions allowance prices.

Q. What are you recommendations concerning the CO_2 prices that should be used in evaluating Appalachian Power's proposed IGCC Project?

A. Given the uncertainty associated with the legislation that eventually will be passed by Congress, I believe that the wide range of forecasts of CO_2 prices shown in Figure 2 above should be used to evaluate the relative economics of the proposed IGCC Project.

4. Appalachian Power Has Not Adequately Considered The Risk Of Further Increases In The Estimated Cost Of the IGCC Project

Q. What is the currently estimated cost for the IGCC Project?

A. The currently estimated cost of the IGCC Project is $2.23 billion.[26]

Q. Is it reasonable to expect that the actual cost of the IGCC Project will be higher than Appalachian Power now estimates?

A. Yes. The costs of building power plants have soared in recent years as a result of the worldwide demand for power plant design and construction resources and commodities. There is no reason to expect that plant costs will not continue to rise during the years when the detailed engineering, procurement and construction of the Project will be underway. This is especially true given the very early stage of the engineering and procurement for the project.

For example, Duke Energy Carolinas' originally estimated cost for the two unit coal-fired Cliffside Project was approximately $2 billion. In the fall of 2006, Duke announced that the cost of the project had increased by approximately 47 percent ($1 billion). After the project had been downsized because the North

Carolina Utilities Commission refused to granted a permit for two units, Duke announced that the cost of that single unit would be about $1.53 billion, not including financing costs. In late May 2007, Duke announced that the cost of building that single unit had increased by about another 20 percent. As a result, the estimated cost of the one unit that Duke is building at Cliffside is now $1.8 billion exclusive of financing costs. Thus, the single Cliffside unit is now expected to cost almost as much as Duke originally estimated for a two unit plant.

Q. Did Duke explain to the North Carolina Utilities Commission the reasons for the skyrocketing cost of the Cliffside Project?

A. Yes. In testimony filed at the North Carolina Utilities Commission on November 29, 2006, Duke Energy Carolinas emphasized that the competition for resources had had a significant impact on the costs of building new power plants. This testimony was presented to explain the approximate 47 percent ($1 billion) increase in the estimated cost of Duke Energy Carolinas' proposed coal-fired Cliffside Project that the Company announced in October 2006.

For example, Duke Energy Carolinas explained that:

> The costs of new power plants have escalated very rapidly. This effect appears to be broad based affecting many types of power plants to some degree. One key steel price index has doubled over the last twelve months alone. This reflects global trends as steel is traded internationally and there is international competition among power plant suppliers. Higher steel and other input prices broadly affects power plant capital costs. A key driving force is a very large boom in U.S. demand for coal power plants which in turn has resulted from unexpectedly strong U.S. electricity demand growth and high natural gas prices. Most integrated U.S. utilities have decided to pursue coal power plants as a key component of their capacity expansion plan. In addition, many foreign companies are also expected to add large amounts of new coal power plant capacity. This global boom is straining supply. Since coal power plant equipment suppliers and bidders also supply other types of

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[26] Testimony of Dana E. Waldo, at page 8, lines 4-21.

> plants, there is a spill over effect to other types of electric generating plants such as combined cycle plants.[27]

Duke further noted that the actual coal power plant capital costs as reported by plants already under construction exceed government estimates of capital costs by "a wide margin (i.e., 35 to 40 percent). Additionally, current announced power plants appear to face another increase in costs (i.e., approximately 40 percent addition."[28] Thus, according to Duke, new coal-fired power plant capital costs had increased approximately 90 to 100 percent since 2002.

Q. Have other coal-fired plant projects experienced similar cost increases?

A. Yes. A large number of projects have announced significant construction cost increases over the past few years. For example, the cost of Westar's proposed coal-fired plant in Kansas, originally estimated at $1 billion, increased by 20 percent to 40 percent, over just 18 months. This prompted Westar's Chief Executive to warn: "When equipment and construction cost estimates grow by $200 million to $400 million in 18 months, it's necessary to proceed with caution."[29] As a result, the company has suspended site selection for the coal-plant and is considering other options, including building a natural gas plant, to meet growing electricity demand.

The estimated cost of the now-cancelled Taylor Energy Center in Florida increased by 25 percent, $400 million, in just 17 months between November 2005 and March 2007. The estimated cost of the Big Stone II coal-fired power plant project in South Dakota has increased by about 60 percent since the project was first announced. Finally, the estimated cost of the Little Gypsy Repowering

[27] Direct Testimony of Judah Rose for Duke Energy Carolinas, North Carolina Utilities Commission Docket No. E-7, SUB 790, dated November 2006, at page 4, lines 2-14. Mr. Rose's testimony is available on the North Carolina Utilities Commission website.

[28] Ibid, at page 6, lines 5-9, and page 12, lines 11-16.

[29] Available at http://www.westarenergy.com/corp_com/corpcomm.nsf/F6BE1277A768F0E4862572690055581C/$file/122806%20coal%20plant%20final2.pdf.

Project (gas to coal) increased by 55 percent between announcement of the project in April 2007 and the filing of a request for a license to build in July 2007.

Q. What are the sources of the worldwide competition for power plant design and construction resources, commodities and equipment?

A. The worldwide competition is driven mainly by huge demands for power plants in China and India and by a rapidly increasing demand for power plants and power plant pollution control modifications in the United States required to meet SO_2 and NO_x emissions standards. The demand for labor and resource to rebuild the Gulf Coast area after Hurricanes Katrina and Rita hit in 2005 also has contributed to rising costs for construction labor and materials.

Q. Is it commonly accepted that domestic United States and worldwide competition for power plant design and construction resources, commodities and manufacturing have led to these significant increases in power plant construction costs in recent years?

A. Yes. A wide range of energy, construction and financial industry studies have identified the worldwide competition for power plant resources as the driving force for the skyrocketing construction costs.

For example, a June 2007 report by Standard & Poor's, *Increasing Construction Costs Could Hamper U.S. Utilities' Plan to Build New Power Generation*, has noted that:

> As a result of declining reserve margins in some U.S. regions … brought about by a sustained growth of the economy, the domestic power industry is in the midst of an expansion. Standing in the way are capital costs of new generation that have risen substantially over the past three years. Cost pressures have been caused by demands of global infrastructure expansion. In the domestic power industry, cost pressures have arisen from higher demand for pollution control equipment, expansion of the transmission grid, and new generation. While the industry has experienced buildout cycles in the past, what makes the current environment different is the supply-side resource challenges faced by the construction industry. A confluence of resource limitations have contributed,

> which Standard & Poors' Rating Services broadly classifies under the following categories
>
> - Global demand for commodities
> - Material and equipment supply
> - Relative inexperience of new labor force, and
> - Contractor availability
>
> The power industry has seen capital costs for new generation climb by more than 50% in the past three years, with more than 70% of this increase resulting from engineering, procurement and construction (EPC) costs. Continuing demand, both domestic and international, for EPC services will likely keep costs at elevated levels. As a result, it is possible that with declining reserve margins, utilities could end up building generation at a time when labor and materials shortages cause capital costs to rise, well north of $2,500 per kW for supercritical coal plants and approaching $1,000 per kW for combined-cycle gas turbines (CCGT). In a separate yet key point, as capital costs rise, energy efficiency and demand side management already important from a climate change perspective, become even more crucial as any reduction in demand will mean lower requirements for new capacity.[30]

More recently, the president of the Siemens Power Generation Group told the New York Times that "There's real sticker shock out there."[31] He also estimated that in the last 18 months, the price of a coal-fired power plant has risen 25 to 30 percent.

A September 2007 report on *Rising Utility Construction Costs* prepared by the Brattle Group for the EDISON Foundation similarly concluded that:

> Construction costs for electric utility investments have risen sharply over the past several years, due to factors beyond the industry's control. Increased prices for material and manufactured components, rising wages, and a tighter market for construction project management services have contributed to an across-the-

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[30] *Increasing Construction Costs Could Hamper U.S. Utilities' Plans to Build New Power Generation*, Standard & Poor's Rating Services, June 12, 2007, at page 1. A copy of this report is included in Exhibit DAS-6.

[31] "Costs Surge for Building Power Plants, *New York Times*, July 10, 2007.

board increase in the costs of investing in utility infrastructure. These higher costs show no immediate signs of abating.[32]

The report further found that:

- Dramatically increased raw materials prices (e.g., steel, cement) have increased construction cost directly and indirectly through the higher cost of manufactured components common in utility infrastructure projects. These cost increases have primarily been due to high global demand for commodities and manufactured goods, higher production and transportation costs (in part owing to high fuel prices), and a weakening U.S. dollar.
- Increased labor costs are a smaller contributor to increased utility construction costs, although that contribution may rise in the future as large construction projects across the country raise the demand for specialized and skilled labor over current or project supply. There also is a growing backlog of project contracts at large engineering, procurement and construction (EPC) firms, and construction management bids have begun to rise as a result. Although it is not possible to quantify the impact on future project bids by EPC, it is reasonable to assume that bids will become less cost-competitive as new construction projects are added to the queue.
- The price increases experienced over the past several years have affected all electric sector investment costs. In the generation sector, all technologies have experienced substantial cost increases in the past three years, from coal plants to windpower projects…. As a result of these cost increases, the levelized capital cost component of baseload coal and nuclear plants has risen by $20/MWh or more – substantially narrowing coal's overall cost advantages over natural gas-fired combined-cycle plants – and thus limiting some of the cost-reduction benefits expected from expanding the solid-fuel fleet.
- The rapid increases experienced in utility construction costs have raised the price of recently completed infrastructure projects, but the impact has been mitigated somewhat to the extent that construction or materials acquisition preceded the most recent price increases. The impact of rising costs has a more dramatic impact on the estimated cost of proposed utility infrastructure projects, which fully incorporates recent price trends. This has raised significant concerns that the next wave of utility investments may be imperiled by the high cost environment. These rising construction

[32] *Rising Utility Construction Costs: Sources and Impacts*, prepared by The Brattle Group for the EDISON Foundation, September 2007, at page 31. A copy of this report is attached as Exhibit DAS-7.

> costs have also motivated utilities and regulators to more actively pursue energy efficiency and demand response initiatives to reduce the future rate impacts on consumers.[33]

Q. Has AEP recognized this significant escalation in power plant construction costs?

A. Yes. Company witness Renchek discusses the dramatic increases in power plant construction commodities/materials that have been experienced in the past three to four years.[34] However, I have not seen any evidence that AEP has reflected the risks of higher plant construction costs in the economic analyses it has presented to justify its proposal to build the IGCC Project.

Q. Does the proposed Engineering, Procurement and Construction ("EPC") agreement between AEP and GE/Bechtel reflect the significant uncertainties surrounding the ultimate cost of constructing the IGCC Project?

A. Yes. As discussed by AEP witness Jasper, because the market has been extremely volatile in recent years, it is "impossible to get reasonable pricing fixed at this time. GE/Bechtel is unable to fix its equipment pricing, material costs and labor rates in advance."[35] Consequently, "GE/Bechtel and APCo have developed an adjustment mechanism to deal with significant market escalations in large plant construction costs as well as other commodities, that have impacted and are expected to continue to impact large plant."[36] The following categories of equipment, materials and labor costs will be subject to updating all following the issuance of AEP's Notice to Proceed to reflected updated pricing values and vendor quotes:

- Major Equipment and Subcontracts, with a value more than $1 million, will be competitively re-bid at the appropriate time based on the project schedule, and substituted for the pricing obtained from bids for the FEED cost estimate.

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33 Id, at pages 1-3.
34 Testimony of Michael W. Rencheck, at page 17, line 15, to page 18, line 16.
35 Testimony of William M. Jasper, at page 15, lines 18-20.
36 Ibid, at page 16, lines 11-14.

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- Plant Equipment and Subcontracts, with a value less than $1 million, will also be competitively re-bid at the appropriate time based on the project schedule, and substituted for the pricing obtained from bids, or from historical data from the FEED cost estimate.

- Bulk Materials. At the time of actual purchase of bulk materials, actual pricing will be obtained through competitive quotes and used to adjust the unit prices for bulk materials.

- Construction Equipment and Construction and Start-up Materials. At the time of actual purchase of equipment and construction and start-up materials, actual pricing will be obtained through competitive bidding. Gasoline and diesel prices will be adjusted based on prices published by the Department of Energy.

- Craft Labor. Actual corresponding labor rates will be used to recalculate the labor expenses actually incurred on a monthly basis.

- Non-Manual Service Rates. Actual corresponding rates paid for these support staff personnel during the execution of the project will be used to recalculate the costs on an annual basis.

- GE Manufactured and Proprietary Equipment. The mechanism for adjusting the price of GE manufactured and proprietary equipment will be agreed upon prior to executing the EPC Contract.[37]

According to AEP witness Jasper:

> Company witness Renchek discusses in his testimony the rapid escalation of key commodity prices in the EPC industry. **In such a situation, no contractor is willing to assume this risk for a multi-year project.** Even if a contractor was willing to do so, its estimated price for the project would reflect this risk and the resulting price estimate would be much higher.[38] [Emphasis added.]

Q. Is it reasonable to expect that the same factors that have led to rising power plant construction costs also will lead to construction delays?

A. Yes.

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[37] Ibid, at page 17, line 1, to page 18, line 3.
[38] Ibid, at page 16, lines 16-20.

Q. Does the current Project cost estimate include a contingency to reflect possible future cost increases?

A. Yes. The current IGCC Project construction cost estimate includes approximately $250 million of escalation and contingency.[39] This figure is relatively low considering the soaring construction prices being experienced by other power plant projects.

Q. What is the current status of contracting and procurement for the Project?

A. It appears from the Company's testimony that none of the major contracts for the IGCC Project have been let. Thus, the extremely early status of contracting and procurement render the project very susceptible to cost increases and construction delays.

Q. Is it your testimony that Appalachian Power should change its current cost estimate for the Project?

A. Not necessarily. However, in order to evaluate the risks of continuing with the proposed project, Appalachian Power should have prepared sensitivity studies that examined the relative economics of the Project against alternatives assuming that the capital cost of the project is substantially higher than the Company now estimates. For example, in its economic analyses, Appalachian Power should have prepared sensitivity analyses that reflected capital costs 20 percent and 40 percent higher than its current estimated cost for the Project. It is not unreasonable to expect such additional cost increases at the Project in light of the industry-wide experience and the expectation that worldwide demand will continue to be a driving force for rising prices.

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[39] Ibid, at page 16, lines 1-3.

Q. Is it reasonable to expect that these same current market conditions also will lead to increases in the estimated costs of other supply-side alternatives such as natural gas-fired facilities?

A. Yes.

Q. What impact would higher coal-plant capital costs have on the relative economics of energy efficiency as compared to the Project?

A. I have seen no evidence that the same worldwide demand for power plant resources has led to significant increase in the costs of energy efficiency measures. Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that higher coal-plant capital costs increase the relative economics and attractiveness of energy efficiency.

Q. Given the uncertainty of future CO_2 prices and construction costs, and the failure of Appalachian Power to adequately incorporate these risks in its analyses of the IGCC project, is there an appropriate way to protect ratepayers if the proposed IGCC project is approved by the Commission?

A. Yes. If the Commission grants a certificate to construct the IGCC project, the Commission could also impose a cap on allowable construction costs that may be passed on to ratepayers. In essence, this would require the Company to stand by the cost estimates that it has presented to this Commission in this case.

Q. Does this conclude your testimony?

A. Yes.

David A. Schlissel

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SUMMARY

I have worked for thirty years as a consultant and attorney on complex management, engineering, and economic issues, primarily in the field of energy. This work has involved conducting technical investigations, preparing economic analyses, presenting expert testimony, providing support during all phases of regulatory proceedings and litigation, and advising clients during settlement negotiations. I received undergraduate and advanced engineering degrees from the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and Stanford University, respectively, and a law degree from Stanford Law School

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

Electric System Reliability - Evaluated whether new transmission lines and generation facilities were needed to ensure adequate levels of system reliability. Investigated the causes of distribution system outages and inadequate service reliability. Examined the reasonableness of utility system reliability expenditures.

Transmission Line Siting – Examined the need for proposed transmission lines. Analyzed whether proposed transmission lines could be installed underground. Worked with clients to develop alternate routings for proposed lines that would have reduced impacts on the environment and communities.

Power Plant Operations and Economics - Investigated the causes of more than one hundred power plant and system outages, equipment failures, and component degradation, determined whether these problems could have been anticipated and avoided, and assessed liability for repair and replacement costs. Examined power plant operating, maintenance, and capital costs. Analyzed power plant operating data from the NERC Generating Availability Data System (GADS). Evaluated utility plans for and management of the replacement of major power plant components. Assessed the adequacy of power plant quality assurance and maintenance programs. Examined the selection and supervision of contractors and subcontractors.

Power Plant Repowering - Evaluated the environmental, economic and reliability impacts of rebuilding older, inefficient generating facilities with new combined cycle technology.

Power Plant Air Emissions – Investigated whether proposed generating facilities would provide environmental benefits in terms of reduced emissions of NO_x, SO_2 and CO_2. Examined whether new state emission standards would lead to the retirement of existing power plants or otherwise have an adverse impact on electric system reliability.

Power Plant Water Use – Examined power plant repowering as a strategy for reducing water consumption at existing electric generating facilities. Analyzed the impact of converting power plants from once-through to closed-loop systems with cooling towers on plant revenues and electric system reliability. Evaluated the potential impact of the EPA's Proosed Clean Water Act Section 316(b) Rule for Cooling Water Intake Structures at existing power plants.

Nuclear Power - Examined the impact of the nuclear power plant life extensions and power uprates on decommissioning costs and collections policies. Evaluated utility decommissioning cost estimates and cost collection plans. Examined the reasonableness of utility decisions to sell nuclear power assets and evaluated the value received as a result of the auctioning of those plants. Investigated the significance of the increasing ownership of nuclear power plants by multiple tiered holding companies with limited liability company subsidiaries. Investigated the potential safety consequences of nuclear power plant structure, system, and component failures.

Electric Industry Regulation and Markets - Investigated whether new generating facilities that were built for a deregulated subsidiary should be included in the rate base of a regulated utility. Evaluated the reasonableness of proposed utility power purchase agreements with deregulated affiliates. Investigated the prudence of utility power purchases in deregulated markets. Examined whether generating facilities experienced more outages following the transition to a deregulated wholesale market in New England. Evaluated the reasonableness of nuclear and fossil plant sales, auctions, and power purchase agreements. Analyzed the impact of proposed utility mergers on market power. Assessed the reasonableness of contract provisions and terms in proposed power supply agreements.

Economic Analysis - Analyzed the costs and benefits of energy supply options. Examined the economic and system reliability consequences of the early retirement of major electric generating facilities. Evaluated whether new electric generating facilities are used and useful. Quantified replacement power costs and the increased capital and operating costs due to identified instances of mismanagement.

Expert Testimony - Presented the results of management, technical and economic analyses as testimony in more than ninety proceedings before regulatory boards and commissions in twenty three states, before two federal regulatory agencies, and in state and federal court proceedings.

Litigation and Regulatory Support - Participated in all aspects of the development and preparation of case presentations on complex management, technical, and economic issues. Assisted in the preparation and conduct of pre-trial discovery and depositions. Helped identify and prepare expert witnesses. Aided the preparation of pre-hearing petitions and motions and post-hearing briefs and appeals. Assisted counsel in preparing for hearings and oral arguments. Advised counsel during settlement negotiations.

TESTIMONY, AFFIDAVITS, DEPOSITIONS AND COMMENTS

Iowa Utility Board (Docket No. GCU-07-01) – October 2007
Whether Interstate Power & Light Company's adequately considered the risks associated with building a new coal-fired power plant and whether that Company's participation in the proposed Marshalltown plant is prudent.

Virginia State Corporation Commission (Case No. PUE-2007-00066) – November 2007
Whether Dominion Virginia Power's adequately considered the risks associated with building the proposed Wise County coal-fired power plant and whether that Commission should grant a certificate of public convenience and necessity for the plant.

Louisiana Public Service Commission (Docket No. U-30192) – September 2007
The reasonableness of Entergy Louisiana's proposal to repower the Little Gypsy Unit 3 generating facility as a coal-fired power plant.

Arkansas Public Service Commission (Docket No. 06-154-U) – July 2007
The probable economic impact of the Southwestern Electric Power Company's proposed Hempstead coal-fired power plant project.

North Dakota Public Service Commission (Case Nos. PU-06-481 and 482) – May 2007
Whether the participation of Otter Tail Power Company and Montana-Dakota Utilities in the Big Stone II Generating Project is prudent.

Indiana Utility Regulatory Commission (Cause No. 43114) – May 2007
The appropriate carbon dioxide ("CO_2") emissions prices that should be used to analyze the relative economic costs and benefits of Duke Energy Indiana and Vectren Energy Delivery of Indiana's proposed Integrated Gasification Combined Cycle Facility and whether Duke and Vectren have appropriately reflected the capital cost of the proposed facility in their modeling analyses.

Public Service Commission of Wisconsin (Docket No. 6630-EI-113) – March 2007
Whether the proposed sale of the Point Beach Nuclear Plant to FPL Energy Point Beach, LLC, is in the interest of the ratepayers of Wisconsin Electric Power Company.

Florida Public Service Commission (Docket No. 070098-EI) – March 2007
Florida Light & Power Company's need for and the economics of the proposed Glades Power Park.

Michigan Public Service Commission (Case No. 14992-U) – December 2006
The reasonableness of the proposed sale of the Palisades Nuclear Power Plant.

Minnesota Public Utilities Commission (Docket No. CN-05-619) – November 2006
Whether the co-owners of the proposed Big Stone II coal-fired generating plant have appropriately reflected the potential for the regulation of greenhouse gases in their analyses of the facility; and whether the proposed project is a lower cost alternative than renewable options, conservation and load management.

North Carolina Utilities Commission (Docket No. E-7, Sub 790) – September 2006 and January 2007
Duke's need for two new 800 MW coal-fired generating units and the relative economics of adding these facilities as compared to other available options including energy efficiency and renewable technologies.

New Mexico Public Regulatory Commission (Case No. 05-00275-UT) – September 2006
Report to the New Mexico Commission on whether the settlement value of the adjustment for moving the 141 MW Afton combustion turbine merchant plant into rate base is reasonable.

Arizona Corporation Commission (Docket No. E-01345A-0816) – August and September 2006
Whether APS's acquisition of the Sundance Generating Station was prudent and the reasonableness of the amounts that APS requested for fossil plant O&M.

U.S. District Court for the District of Montana (Billings Generation, Inc. vs. Electrical Controls, Inc, et al., CV-04-123-BLG-RFC) – August 2006
Quantification of plaintiff's business losses during an extended power plant outage and plaintiff's business earnings due to the shortening and delay of future plant outages. [Confidential Expert Report]

Deposition in South Dakota Public Utility Commission Case No. EL05-022 – June 14, 2006

South Dakota Public Utility Commission (Case No. EL05-022) – May and June 2006
Whether the co-owners of the proposed Big Stone II coal-fired generating plant have appropriately reflected the potential for the regulation of greenhouse gases in their analyses of the alternatives to the proposed facility; the need and timing for new supply options in the co-owners' service territories; and whether there are alternatives to the proposed facility that are technically feasible and economically cost-effective.

Georgia Public Service Commission (Docket No. 22449-U) – May 2006
Georgia Power Company's request for an accounting order to record early site permitting and construction operating license costs for new nuclear power plants.

California Public Utilities Commission (Dockets Nos. A.05-11-008 and A.05-11-009) – April 2006
The estimated costs for decommissioning the Diablo Canyon, SONGS 2&3 and Palo Verde nuclear power plants and the annual contributions that are needed from ratepayers to assure that adequate funds will be available to decommission these plants at the projected ends of their service lives.

New Jersey Board of Public Utilities (Docket No. EM05020106) – November and December 2005 and March 2006
Joint Testimony with Bob Fagan and Bruce Biewald on the market power implications of the proposed merger between Exelon Corp. and Public Service Enterprise Group.

Virginia State Corporation Commission (Case No. PUE-2005-00018)– November 2005
The siting of a proposed 230 kV transmission line.

Iowa Utility Board (Docket No. SPU-05-15) – September and October 2005
The reasonableness of IPL's proposed sale of the Duane Arnold Energy Center nuclear plant.

New York State Department of Environmental Conservation (DEC #3-3346-00011/00002) – October 2005
The likely profits that Dynegy will earn from the sale of the energy and capacity of the Danskammer Generating Facility if the plant is converted from once-through to closed-cycle cooling with wet towers or to dry cooling.

Arkansas Public Service Commission (Docket 05-042-U) – July and August 2005
Arkansas Electric Cooperative Corporation's proposed purchase of the Wrightsville Power Facility.

Maine Public Utilities Commission (Docket No. 2005-17) – July 2005
Joint testimony with Peter Lanzalotta and Bob Fagan evaluating Eastern Maine Electric Cooperative's request for a CPCN to purchase 15 MW of transmission capacity from New Brunswick Power.

Federal Energy Regulatory Commission (Docket No. EC05-43-0000) – April and May 2005
Joint Affidavit and Supplemental Affidavit with Bruce Biewald on the market power aspects of the proposed merger of Exelon Corporation and Public Service Enterprise Group, Inc.

Maine Public Utilities Commission (Docket No. 2004-538 Phase II) – April 2005
Joint testimony with Peter Lanzalotta and Bob Fagan evaluating Maine Public Service Company's request for a CPCN to purchase 35 MW of transmission capacity from New Brunswick Power.

Maine Public Utilities Commission (Docket No. 2004-771) – March 2005
Analysis of Bangor Hydro-Electric's Petition for a Certificate of Public Convenience and Necessity to construct a 345 kV transmission line

United States District Court for the Southern District of Ohio, Eastern Division (Consolidated Civil Actions Nos. C2-99-1182 and C2-99-1250)
Whether the public release of company documents more than three years old would cause competitive harm to the American Electric Power Company. [Confidential Expert Report]

New Jersey Board of Public Utilities (Docket No. EO03121014) – February 2005
Whether the Board of Public Utilities can halt further collections from Jersey Central Power & Light Company's ratepayers because there already are adequate funds in the company's decommissioning trusts for the Three Mile Island Unit No. 2 Nuclear Plant to allow for the decommissioning of that unit without endangered the public health and safety.

Maine Public Utilities Commission (Docket No. 2004-538) – January and March 2005
Analysis of Maine Public Service Company's request to construct a 138 kV transmission line from Limestone, Maine to the Canadian Border.

California Public Utilities Commission (Application No. AO4-02-026) – December 2004 and January 2005
Southern California Edison's proposed replacement of the steam generators at the San Onofre Unit 2 and Unit 3 nuclear power plants and whether the utility was imprudent for failing to initiate litigation against Combustion Engineering due to defects in the design of and materials used in those steam generators.

United States District Court for the Southern District of Indiana, Indianapolis Division (Civil Action No. IP99-1693) – December 2004
Whether the public release of company documents more than three years old would cause competitive harm to the Cinergy Corporation. [Confidential Expert Report]

California Public Utilities Commission (Application No. AO4-01-009) – August 2004
Pacific Gas & Electric's proposed replacement of the steam generators at the Diablo Canyon nuclear power plant and whether the utility was imprudent for failing to initiate litigation against Westinghouse due to defects in the design of and materials used in those steam generators.

Public Service Commission of Wisconsin (Docket No. 6690-CE-187) – June, July and August 2004
Whether Wisconsin Public Service Corporation's request for approval to build a proposed 515 MW coal-burning generating facility should be granted.

Public Service Commission of Wisconsin (Docket No. 05-EI-136) – May and June 2004
Whether the proposed sale of the Kewaunee Nuclear Power Plant to a subsidiary of an out-of-state holding company is in the public interest.

Connecticut Siting Council (Docket No. 272) – May 2004
Whether there are technically viable alternatives to the proposed 345-kV transmission line between Middletown and Norwalk Connecticut and the length of the line that can be installed underground.

Arizona Corporation Commission (Docket No. E-01345A-03-0437 – February 2004
Whether Arizona Public Service Company should be allowed to acquire and include in rate base five generating units that were built by a deregulated affiliate.

State of Rhode Island Energy Facilities Siting Board (Docket No. SB-2003-1) – February 2004
Whether the cost of undergrounding a relocated 115kV transmission line would be eligible for regional cost socialization.

State of Maine Department of Environmental Protection (Docket No. A-82-75-0-X) – December 2003
The storage of irradiated nuclear fuel in an Independent Spent Fuel Storage Installation (ISFSI) and whether such an installation represents an air pollution control facility.

Rhode Island Public Utility Commission (Docket No. 3564) – December 2003 and January 2004
Whether Narragansett Electric Company should be required to install a relocated 115kV transmission line underground.

New York State Board on Electric Generation Siting and the Environment (Case No. 01-F-1276) – September, October and November 2003
The environmental, economic and system reliability benefits that can reasonably be expected from the proposed 1,100 MW TransGas Energy generating facility in Brooklyn, New York.

Wisconsin Public Service Commission (Case 6690-UR-115209) - September and October 2003
The reasonableness of Wisconsin Public Service Corporation’s decommissioning cost collections for the Kewaunee Nuclear Plant.

Oklahoma Corporation Commission (Cause No. 2003-121) – July 2003
Whether Empire District Electric Company properly reduced its capital costs to reflect the write-off of a portion of the cost of building a new electric generating facility.

Arkansas Public Service Commission (Docket 02-248-U) – May 2003
Entergy's proposed replacement of the steam generators and the reactor vessel head at the ANO Unit 1 Steam Generating Station.

Appellate Tax Board, State of Massachusetts (Docket No C258405-406) – May 2003
The physical nature of electricity and whether electricity is a tangible product or a service.

Maine Public Utilities Commission (Docket 2002-665-U) – April 2003
Analysis of Central Maine Power Company's proposed transmission line for Southern York County and recommendation of alternatives.

Massachusetts Legislature, Joint Committees on Government Regulations and Energy – March 2003
Whether PG&E can decide to permanently retire one or more of the generating units at its Salem Harbor Station if it is not granted an extension beyond October 2004 to reduce the emissions from the Station's three coal-fired units and one oil-fired unit.

New Jersey Board of Public Utilities (Docket No. ER02080614) – January 2003
The prudence of Rockland Electric Company's power purchases during the period August 1, 1999 through July 31, 2002.

New York State Board on Electric Generation Siting and the Environment (Case No. 00-F-1356) – September and October 2002 and January 2003
The need for and the environmental benefits from the proposed 300 MW Kings Park Energy generating facility.

Arizona Corporation Commission (Docket No. E-01345A-01-0822) – March 2002
The reasonableness of Arizona Public Service Company's proposed long-term power purchase agreement with an affiliated company.

New York State Board on Electric Generation Siting and the Environment (Case No. 99-F-1627) – March 2002
Repowering NYPA's existing Poletti Station in Queens, New York.

Connecticut Siting Council (Docket No. 217) – March 2002, November 2002, and January 2003
Whether the proposed 345-kV transmission line between Plumtree and Norwalk substations in Southwestern Connecticut is needed and will produce public benefits.

Vermont Public Service Board (Case No. 6545) – January 2002
Whether the proposed sale of the Vermont Yankee Nuclear Plant to Entergy is in the public interest of the State of Vermont and Vermont ratepayers.

Connecticut Department of Public Utility Control (Docket 99-09-12RE02) – December 2001
The reasonableness of adjustments that Connecticut Light and Power Company seeks to make to the proceeds that it received from the sale of Millstone Nuclear Power Station.

Connecticut Siting Council (Docket No. 208) – October 2001
Whether the proposed cross-sound cable between Connecticut and Long Island is needed and will produce public benefits for Connecticut consumers.

New Jersey Board of Public Utilities (Docket No. EM01050308) - September 2001

The market power implications of the proposed merger between Conectiv and Pepco.

Illinois Commerce Commission Docket No. 01-0423 – August, September, and October 2001
Commonwealth Edison Company's management of its distribution and transmission systems.

New York State Board on Electric Generation Siting and the Environment (Case No. 99-F-1627) - August and September 2001
The environmental benefits from the proposed 500 MW NYPA Astoria generating facility.

New York State Board on Electric Generation Siting and the Environment (Case No. 99-F-1191) - June 2001
The environmental benefits from the proposed 1,000 MW Astoria Energy generating facility.

New Jersey Board of Public Utilities (Docket No. EM00110870) - May 2001
The market power implications of the proposed merger between FirstEnergy and GPU Energy.

Connecticut Department of Public Utility Control (Docket 99-09-12RE01) - November 2000
The proposed sale of Millstone Nuclear Station to Dominion Nuclear, Inc.

Illinois Commerce Commission (Docket 00-0361) - August 2000
The impact of nuclear power plant life extensions on Commonwealth Edison Company's decommissioning costs and collections from ratepayers.

Vermont Public Service Board (Docket 6300) - April 2000
Whether the proposed sale of the Vermont Yankee nuclear plant to AmerGen Vermont is in the public interest.

Massachusetts Department of Telecommunications and Energy (Docket 99-107, Phase II) - April and June 2000
The causes of the May 18, 1999, main transformer fire at the Pilgrim generating station.

Connecticut Department of Public Utility Control (Docket 00-01-11) - March and April 2000
The impact of the proposed merger between Northeast Utilities and Con Edison, Inc. on the reliability of the electric service being provided to Connecticut ratepayers.

Connecticut Department of Public Utility Control (Docket 99-09-12) - January 2000
The reasonableness of Northeast Utilities plan for auctioning the Millstone Nuclear Station.

Connecticut Department of Public Utility Control (Docket 99-08-01) - November 1999
Generation, Transmission, and Distribution system reliability.

Illinois Commerce Commission (Docket 99-0115) - September 1999
Commonwealth Edison Company's decommissioning cost estimate for the Zion Nuclear Station.

Connecticut Department of Public Utility Control (Docket 99-03-36) - July 1999
Standard offer rates for Connecticut Light & Power Company.

Connecticut Department of Public Utility Control (Docket 99-03-35) - July 1999
Standard offer rates for United Illuminating Company.

Connecticut Department of Public Utility Control (Docket 99-02-05) - April 1999
Connecticut Light & Power Company stranded costs.

Connecticut Department of Public Utility Control (Docket 99-03-04) - April 1999
United Illuminating Company stranded costs.

Maryland Public Service Commission (Docket 8795) - December 1998
Future operating performance of Delmarva Power Company's nuclear units.

Maryland Public Service Commission (Dockets 8794/8804) - December 1998
Baltimore Gas and Electric Company's proposed replacement of the steam generators at the Calvert Cliffs Nuclear Power Plant. Future performance of nuclear units.

Indiana Utility Regulatory Commission (Docket 38702-FAC-40-S1) - November 1998
Whether the ongoing outages of the two units at the D.C. Cook Nuclear Plant were caused or extended by mismanagement.

Arkansas Public Service Commission (Docket 98-065-U) - October 1998
Entergy's proposed replacement of the steam generators at the ANO Unit 2 Steam Generating Station.

Massachusetts Department of Telecommunications and Energy (Docket 97-120) - October 1998
Western Massachusetts Electric Company's Transition Charge. Whether the extended 1996-1998 outages of the three units at the Millstone Nuclear Station were caused or extended by mismanagement.

Connecticut Department of Public Utility Control (Docket 98-01-02) - September 1998
Nuclear plant operations, operating and capital costs, and system reliability improvement costs.

Illinois Commerce Commission (Docket 97-0015) - May 1998
Whether any of the outages of Commonwealth Edison Company's twelve nuclear units during 1996 were caused or extended by mismanagement. Whether equipment problems, personnel performance weaknesses, and program deficiencies could have been avoided or addressed prior to plant outages. Outage-related fuel and replacement power costs.

Public Service Commission of West Virginia (Case 97-1329-E-CN) - March 1998
The need for a proposed 765 kV transmission line from Wyoming, West Virginia, to Cloverdate, Virginia.

Illinois Commerce Commission (Docket 97-0018) - March 1998
Whether any of the outages of the Clinton Power Station during 1996 were caused or extended by mismanagement.

Connecticut Department of Public Utility Control (Docket 97-05-12) - October 1997
The increased costs resulting from the ongoing outages of the three units at the Millstone Nuclear Station.

New Jersey Board of Public Utilities (Docket ER96030257) - August 1996
Replacement power costs during plant outages.

Illinois Commerce Commission (Docket 95-0119) - February 1996
Whether any of the outages of Commonwealth Edison Company's twelve nuclear units during 1994 were caused or extended by mismanagement. Whether equipment problems, personnel performance weaknesses, and program deficiencies could have been avoided or addressed prior to plant outages. Outage-related fuel and replacement power costs.

Public Utility Commission of Texas (Docket 13170) - December 1994
Whether any of the outages of the River Bend Nuclear Station during the period October 1, 1991, through December 31, 1993, were caused or extended by mismanagement.

Public Utility Commission of Texas (Docket 12820) - October 1994
Operations and maintenance expenses during outages of the South Texas Nuclear Generating Station.

Wisconsin Public Service Commission (Cases 6630-CE-197 and 6630-CE-209) - September and October 1994
The reasonableness of the projected cost and schedule for the replacement of the steam generators at the Point Beach Nuclear Power Plant. The potential impact of plant aging on future operating costs and performance.

Public Utility Commission of Texas (Docket 12700) - June 1994
Whether El Paso Electric Company's share of Palo Verde Unit 3 was needed to ensure adequate levels of system reliability. Whether the Company's investment in Unit 3 could be expected to generate cost savings for ratepayers within a reasonable number of years.

Arizona Corporation Commission (Docket U-1551-93-272) - May and June 1994
Southwest Gas Corporation's plastic and steel pipe repair and replacement programs.

Connecticut Department of Public Utility Control (Docket 92-04-15) - March 1994
Northeast Utilities management of the 1992/1993 replacement of the steam generators at Millstone Unit 2.

Connecticut Department of Public Utility Control (Docket 92-10-03) - August 1993
Whether the 1991 outage of Millstone Unit 3 as a result of the corrosion of safety-related plant piping systems was due to mismanagement.

Public Utility Commission of Texas (Docket 11735) - April and July 1993
Whether any of the outages of the Comanche Peak Unit 1 Nuclear Station during the period August 13, 1990, through June 30, 1992, were caused or extended by mismanagement.

Connecticut Department of Public Utility Control (Docket 91-12-07) - January 1993 and August 1995
Whether the November 6, 1991, pipe rupture at Millstone Unit 2 and the related outages of the Connecticut Yankee and Millstone units were caused or extended by mismanagement. The impact of environmental requirements on power plant design and operation.

Connecticut Department of Public Utility Control (Docket 92-06-05) - September 1992
United Illuminating Company off-system capacity sales. [Confidential Testimony]

Public Utility Commission of Texas (Docket 10894) - August 1992
Whether any of the outages of the River Bend Nuclear Station during the period October 1, 1988, through September 30, 1991, were caused or extended by mismanagement.

Connecticut Department of Public Utility Control (Docket 92-01-05) - August 1992
Whether the July 1991 outage of Millstone Unit 3 due to the fouling of important plant systems by blue mussels was the result of mismanagement.

California Public Utilities Commission (Docket 90-12-018) - November 1991, April 1992, June and July 1993
Whether any of the outages of the three units at the Palo Verde Nuclear Generating Station during 1989 and 1990 were caused or extended by mismanagement. Whether equipment problems, personnel performance weaknesses and program deficiencies could have been avoided or addressed prior to outages. Whether specific plant operating cost and capital expenditures were necessary and prudent.

Public Utility Commission of Texas (Docket 9945) - June 1991
Whether El Paso Electric Company's share of Palo Verde Unit 3 was needed to ensure adequate levels of system reliability. Whether the Company's investment in the unit could be expected to generate cost savings for ratepayers within a reasonable number of years. El Paso Electric Company's management of the planning and licensing of the Arizona Interconnection Project transmission line.

Arizona Corporation Commission (Docket U-1345-90-007) - December 1990 and April 1991
Arizona Public Service Company's management of the planning, construction and operation of the Palo Verde Nuclear Generating Station. The costs resulting from identified instances of mismanagement.

New Jersey Board of Public Utilities (Docket ER89110912J) - July and October 1990
The economic costs and benefits of the early retirement of the Oyster Creek Nuclear Plant. The potential impact of the unit's early retirement on system reliability. The cost and schedule for siting and constructing a replacement natural gas-fired generating plant.

Public Utility Commission of Texas (Docket 9300) - June and July 1990
Texas Utilities management of the design and construction of the Comanche Peak Nuclear Plant. Whether the Company was prudent in repurchasing minority owners' shares of Comanche Peak without examining the costs and benefits of the repurchase for its ratepayers.

Federal Energy Regulatory Commission (Docket EL-88-5-000) - November 1989
Boston Edison's corporate management of the Pilgrim Nuclear Station.

Connecticut Department of Public Utility Control (Docket 89-08-11) - November 1989
United Illuminating Company's off-system capacity sales.

Kansas State Corporation Commission (Case 164,211-U) - April 1989
Whether any of the 127 days of outages of the Wolf Creek generating plant during 1987 and 1988 were the result of mismanagement.

Public Utility Commission of Texas (Docket 8425) - March 1989
Whether Houston Lighting & Power Company's new Limestone Unit 2 generating facility was needed to provide adequate levels of system reliability. Whether the Company's investment in Limestone Unit 2 would provide a net economic benefit for ratepayers.

Illinois Commerce Commission (Dockets 83-0537 and 84-0555) - July 1985 and January 1989
Commonwealth Edison Company's management of quality assurance and quality control activities and the actions of project contractors during construction of the Byron Nuclear Station.

New Mexico Public Service Commission (Case 2146, Part II) - October 1988
The rate consequences of Public Service Company of New Mexico's ownership of Palo Verde Units 1 and 2.

United States District Court for the Eastern District of New York (Case 87-646-JBW) - October 1988
Whether the Long Island Lighting Company withheld important information from the New York State Public Service Commission, the New York State Board on Electric Generating Siting and the Environment, and the U.S. Nuclear Regulatory Commission.

Public Utility Commission of Texas (Docket 6668) - August 1988 and June 1989
Houston Light & Power Company's management of the design and construction of the South Texas Nuclear Project. The impact of safety-related and environmental requirements on plant construction costs and schedule.

Federal Energy Regulatory Commission (Docket ER88-202-000) - June 1988
Whether the turbine generator vibration problems that extended the 1987 outage of the Maine Yankee nuclear plant were caused by mismanagement.

Illinois Commerce Commission (Docket 87-0695) - April 1988
Illinois Power Company's planning for the Clinton Nuclear Station.

North Carolina Utilities Commission (Docket E-2, Sub 537) - February 1988
Carolina Power & Light Company's management of the design and construction of the Harris Nuclear Project. The Company's management of quality assurance and quality control activities. The impact of safety-related and environmental requirements on construction costs and schedule. The cost and schedule consequences of identified instances of mismanagement.

Ohio Public Utilities Commission (Case 87-689-EL-AIR) - October 1987
Whether any of Ohio Edison's share of the Perry Unit 2 generating facility was needed to ensure adequate levels of system reliability. Whether the Company's investment in Perry Unit 1 would produce a net economic benefit for ratepayers.

North Carolina Utilities Commission (Docket E-2, Sub 526) - May 1987
Fuel factor calculations.

New York State Public Service Commission (Case 29484) - May 1987
The planned startup and power ascension testing program for the Nine Mile Point Unit 2 generating facility.

Illinois Commerce Commission (Dockets 86-0043 and 86-0096) - April 1987
The reasonableness of certain terms in a proposed Power Supply Agreement.

Illinois Commerce Commission (Docket 86-0405) - March 1987
The in-service criteria to be used to determine when a new generating facility was capable of providing safe, adequate, reliable and efficient service.

Indiana Public Service Commission (Case 38045) - November 1986
Northern Indiana Public Service Company's planning for the Schaefer Unit 18 generating facility. Whether the capacity from Unit 18 was needed to ensure adequate system reliability. The rate consequences of excess capacity on the Company's system.

Superior Court in Rockingham County, New Hampshire (Case 86E328) - July 1986
The radiation effects of low power testing on the structures, equipment and components in a new nuclear power plant.

New York State Public Service Commission (Case 28124) - April 1986 and May 1987
The terms and provisions in a utility's contract with an equipment supplier. The prudence of the utility's planning for a new generating facility. Expenditures on a canceled generating facility.

Arizona Corporation Commission (Docket U-1345-85) - February 1986
The construction schedule for Palo Verde Unit No. 1. Regulatory and technical factors that would likely affect future plant operating costs.

New York State Public Service Commission (Case 29124) – December 1985 and January 1986
Niagara Mohawk Power Corporation's management of construction of the Nine Mile Point Unit No. 2 nuclear power plant.

New York State Public Service Commission (Case 28252) - October 1985
A performance standard for the Shoreham nuclear power plant.

New York State Public Service Commission (Case 29069) - August 1985
A performance standard for the Nine Mile Point Unit No. 2 nuclear power plant.

Missouri Public Service Commission (Cases ER-85-128 and EO-85-185) - July 1985
The impact of safety-related regulatory requirements and plant aging on power plant operating costs and performance. Regulatory factors and plant-specific design features that will likely affect the future operating costs and performance of the Wolf Creek Nuclear Plant.

Massachusetts Department of Public Utilities (Case 84-152) - January 1985
The impact of safety-related regulatory requirements and plant aging on power plant operating costs and performance. Regulatory factors and plant-specific design features that will likely affect the future operating costs and performance of the Seabrook Nuclear Plant.

Maine Public Utilities Commission (Docket 84-113) - September 1984
The impact of safety-related regulatory requirements and plant aging on power plant operating costs and performance. Regulatory factors and plant-specific design features that will likely affect the future operating costs and performance of the Seabrook Nuclear Plant.

South Carolina Public Service Commission (Case 84-122-E) - August 1984
The repair and replacement strategy adopted by Carolina Power & Light Company in response to pipe cracking at the Brunswick Nuclear Station. Quantification of replacement power costs attributable to identified instances of mismanagement.

Vermont Public Service Board (Case 4865) - May 1984
The repair and replacement strategy adopted by management in response to pipe cracking at the Vermont Yankee nuclear plant.

New York State Public Service Commission (Case 28347) -January 1984
The information that was available to Niagara Mohawk Power Corporation prior to 1982 concerning the potential for cracking in safety-related piping systems at the Nine Mile Point Unit No. 1 nuclear plant.

New York State Public Service Commission (Case 28166) - February 1983 and February 1984
Whether the January 25, 1982, steam generator tube rupture at the Ginna Nuclear Plant was caused by mismanagement.

U.S. Nuclear Regulatory Commission (Case 50-247SP) - May 1983
The economic costs and benefits of the early retirement of the Indian Point nuclear plants.

REPORTS, ARTICLES, AND PRESENTATIONS

The Risks of Building New Nuclear Power Plants, U.S. Senate and House of Representative Briefings, April 20, 2007.

Carbon Dioxide Emissions Costs and Electricity Resource Planning, New Mexico Public Regulation Commission, Case 06-00448-UT, March 28, 2007, with Anna Sommer.

The Risks of Building New Nuclear Power Plants, Presentation to the New York Society of Securities Analysts, June 8, 2006.

Conservation and Renewable Energy Should be the Cornerstone for Meeting Future Natural Gas Needs. Presentation to the Global LNG Summit, June 1, 2004. Presentation given by Cliff Chen.

Comments on natural gas utilities' Phase I Proposals for pre-approved full cost recovery of contracts with liquid natural gas (LNG) suppliers and the costs of interconnecting their systems with LNG facilities. Comments in California Public Utilities Commission Rulemaking 04-01-025. March 23, 2004.

The 2003 Blackout: Solutions that Won't Cost a Fortune, The Electricity Journal, November 2003, with David White, Amy Roschelle, Paul Peterson, Bruce Biewald, and William Steinhurst.

The Impact of Converting the Cooling Systems at Indian Point Units 2 and 3 on Electric System Reliability. An Analysis for Riverkeeper, Inc. November 3, 2003.

The Impact of Converting Indian Point Units 2 and 3 to Closed-Cycle Cooling Systems with Cooling Towers on Energy's Likely Future Earnings. An Analysis for Riverkeeper, Inc. November 3, 2003.

Entergy's Lost Revenues During Outages of Indian Point Units 2 and 3 to Convert to Closed-Cycle Cooling Systems. An Analysis for Riverkeeper, Inc. November 3, 2003.

Power Plant Repowering as a Strategy for Reducing Water Consumption at Existing Electric Generating Facilities. A presentation at the May 2003 Symposium on Cooling Water Intake Technologies to Protect Aquatic Organisms. May 6, 2003.

Financial Insecurity: The Increasing Use of Limited Liability Companies and Multi-tiered Holding Companies to Own Electric Generating Plants. A presentation at the 2002 NASUCA Annual Meeting. November 12, 2002.

Determining the Need for Proposed Overhead Transmission Facilities. A Presentation by David Schlissel and Paul Peterson to the Task Force and Working Group for Connecticut Public Act 02-95. October 17, 2002.

Future PG&E Net Revenues From The Sale of Electricity Generated at its Brayton Point Station. An Analysis for the Attorney General of the State of Rhode Island. October 2, 2002.

PG&E's Net Revenues From The Sale of Electricity Generated at its Brayton Point Station During the Years 1999-2002. An Analysis for the Attorney General of the State of Rhode Island. October 2, 2002.

Financial Insecurity: The Increasing Use of Limited Liability Companies and Multi-Tiered Holding Companies to Own Nuclear Power Plants. A Synapse report for the STAR Foundation and Riverkeeper, Inc., by David Schlissel, Paul Peterson, and Bruce Biewald, August 7, 2002.

Comments on EPA's Proposed Clean Water Act Section 316(b) for Cooling Water Intake Structures at Phase II Existing Facilities, on behalf of Riverkeeper, Inc., by David Schlissel and Geoffrey Keith, August 2002.

The Impact of Retiring the Indian Point Nuclear Power Station on Electric System Reliability. A Synapse Report for Riverkeeper, Inc. and Pace Law School Energy Project. May 7, 2002.

Preliminary Assessment of the Need for the Proposed Plumtree-Norwalk 345-kV Transmission Line. A Synapse Report for the Towns of Bethel, Redding, Weston, and Wilton Connecticut. October 15, 2001.

ISO New England's Generating Unit Availability Study: Where's the Beef? A Presentation at the June 29, 2001 Restructuring Roundtable.

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Room to Breathe: Why the Massachusetts Department of Environmental Protection's Proposed Air Regulations are Compatible with Reliability. A Synapse Report for MASSPIRG and the Clean Water Fund. March 2001.

Generator Outage Increases: A Preliminary Analysis of Outage Trends in the New England Electricity Market, a Synapse Report for the Union of Concerned Scientists, January 7, 2001.

Cost, Grid Reliability Concerns on the Rise Amid Restructuring, with Charlie Harak, Boston Business Journal, August 18-24, 2000.

Report on Indian Point 2 Steam Generator Issues, Schlissel Technical Consulting, Inc., March 10, 2000.

Preliminary Expert Report in Case 96-016613, Cities of Wharton, Pasadena, et al v. Houston Lighting & Power Company, October 28, 1999.

Comments of Schlissel Technical Consulting, Inc. on the Nuclear Regulatory Commission's Draft Policy Statement on Electric Industry Economic Deregulation, February 1997.

Report to the Municipal Electric Utility Association of New York State on the Cost of Decommissioning the Fitzpatrick Nuclear Plant, August 1996.

Report to the Staff of the Arizona Corporation Commission on U.S. West Corporation's telephone cable repair and replacement programs, May, 1996.

Nuclear Power in the Competitive Environment, NRRI Quarterly Bulletin, Vol. 16, No. 3, Fall 1995.

Nuclear Power in the Competitive Environment, presentation at the 18th National Conference of Regulatory Attorneys, Scottsdale, Arizona, May 17, 1995.

The Potential Safety Consequences of Steam Generator Tube Cracking at the Byron and Braidwood Nuclear Stations, a report for the Environmental Law and Policy Center of the Midwest, 1995.

Report to the Public Policy Group Concerning Future Trojan Nuclear Plant Operating Performance and Costs, July 15, 1992.

Report to the New York State Consumer Protection Board on the Costs of the 1991 Refueling Outage of Indian Point 2, December 1991.

Preliminary Report on Excess Capacity Issues to the Public Utility Regulation Board of the City of El Paso, Texas, April 1991.

Nuclear Power Plant Construction Costs, presentation at the November, 1987, Conference of the National Association of State Utility Consumer Advocates.

Comments on the Final Report of the National Electric Reliability Study, a report for the New York State Consumer Protection Board, February 27, 1981.

OTHER SIGNIFICANT INVESTIGATIONS AND LITIGATION SUPPORT WORK

Reviewed the salt deposition mitigation strategy proposed for Reliant Energy’s repowering of its Astoria Generating Station. October 2002 through February 2003.

Assisted the Connecticut Office of Consumer Counsel in reviewing the auction of Connecticut Light & Power Company's power purchase agreements. August and September, 2000.

Assisted the New Jersey Division of the Ratepayer Advocate in evaluating the reasonableness of Atlantic City Electric Company's proposed sale of its fossil generating facilities. June and July, 2000.

Investigated whether the 1996-1998 outages of the three Millstone Nuclear Units were caused or extended by mismanagement. 1997 and 1998. Clients were the Connecticut Office of Consumer Counsel and the Office of the Attorney General of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts.

Investigated whether the 1995-1997 outages of the two units at the Salem Nuclear Station were caused or extended by mismanagement. 1996-1997. Client was the New Jersey Division of the Ratepayer Advocate.

Assisted the Associated Industries of Massachusetts in quantifying the stranded costs associated with utility generating plants in the New England states. May through July, 1996

Investigated whether the December 25, 1993, turbine generator failure and fire at the Fermi 2 generating plant was caused by Detroit Edison Company's mismanagement of fabrication, operation or maintenance. 1995. Client was the Attorney General of the State of Michigan.

Investigated whether the outages of the two units at the South Texas Nuclear Generating Station during the years 1990 through 1994 were caused or extended by mismanagement. Client was the Texas Office of Public Utility Counsel.

Assisted the City Public Service Board of San Antonio, Texas in litigation over Houston Lighting & Power Company's management of operations of the South Texas Nuclear Generating Station.

Investigated whether outages of the Millstone nuclear units during the years 1991 through 1994 were caused or extended by mismanagement. Client was the Office of the Attorney General of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts.

Evaluated the 1994 Decommissioning Cost Estimate for the Maine Yankee Nuclear Plant. Client was the Public Advocate of the State of Maine.

Evaluated the 1994 Decommissioning Cost Estimate for the Seabrook Nuclear Plant. Clients were investment firms that were evaluating whether to purchase the Great Bay Power Company, one of Seabrook's minority owners.

Investigated whether a proposed natural-gas fired generating facility was need to ensure adequate levels of system reliability. Examined the potential impacts of environmental regulations on the unit's expected construction cost and schedule. 1992. Client was the New Jersey Rate Counsel.

Investigated whether Public Service Company of New Mexico management had adequately disclosed to potential investors the risk that it would be unable to market its excess generating capacity. Clients were individual shareholders of Public Service Company of New Mexico.

Investigated whether the Seabrook Nuclear Plant was prudently designed and constructed. 1989. Clients were the Connecticut Office of Consumer Counsel and the Attorney General of the State of Connecticut.

Investigated whether Carolina Power & Light Company had prudently managed the design and construction of the Harris nuclear plant. 1988-1989. Clients were the North Carolina Electric Municipal Power Agency and the City of Fayetteville, North Carolina.

Investigated whether the Grand Gulf nuclear plant had been prudently designed and constructed. 1988. Client was the Arkansas Public Service Commission.

Reviewed the financial incentive program proposed by the New York State Public Service Commission to improve nuclear power plant safety. 1987. Client was the New York State Consumer Protection Board.

Reviewed the construction cost and schedule of the Hope Creek Nuclear Generating Station. 1986-1987. Client was the New Jersey Rate Counsel.

Reviewed the operating performance of the Fort St. Vrain Nuclear Plant. 1985. Client was the Colorado Office of Consumer Counsel.

WORK HISTORY

2000 - Present: Senior Consultant, Synapse Energy Economics, Inc.

1994 - 2000: President, Schlissel Technical Consulting, Inc.

1983 - 1994: Director, Schlissel Engineering Associates

1979 - 1983: Private Legal and Consulting Practice

1975 - 1979: Attorney, New York State Consumer Protection Board

1973 - 1975: Staff Attorney, Georgia Power Project

EDUCATION

1983-1985: Massachusetts Institute of Technology
Special Graduate Student in Nuclear Engineering and Project Management,

1973: Stanford Law School,
Juris Doctor

1969: Stanford University
Master of Science in Astronautical Engineering,

1968: Massachusetts Institute of Technology
Bachelor of Science in Astronautical Engineering,

PROFESSIONAL MEMBERSHIPS

- New York State Bar since 1981
- American Nuclear Society
- National Association of Corrosion Engineers

PEW CENTER ON Global CLIMATE CHANGE

Senate Greenhouse Gas Cap-And-Trade Proposals

Includes Legislation Introduced in the 110th Congress as of August 2, 2007

Bill	Scope of Coverage	2010-2019 Cap	2020-2029 Cap	2030-2050 Cap	Offsets	Allocation	Other Cost Controls	Early Action	Technology and Misc.
ECONOMY-WIDE (MULTI-SECTOR) LEGISLATION									
Lieberman-Warner * Discussion principles – 8/2/2007 * Not yet introduced	All 6 GHGs Economy-wide, "hybrid" – upstream for oil refineries; downstream for electric utilities and large sources	2005 level in 2012	10% below 2005 levels in 2020	30% below 2005 levels by 2030 50% below 2005 levels by 2040 70% below 2005 levels by 2050	15% limit on use of domestic offsets 15% limit on use of international credits	Increasing auction: 24% from 2012-2034, rising to 52% in 2035 Some sector allocations are specified including: 4% to states, 20% to power plants (transitions to zero in 2035), 20% to industry, 10% to electricity load-serving entities	Borrowing up to 15% per company Creates Carbon Market Efficiency Board to allow for borrowing with payback	8% of allowances for early action in 2012, phasing to zero in 2020	Funds and incentives for technology, adaptation and mitigating effects on poor Target subject to periodic NAS review
Bingaman-Specter S. 1766 – 7/11/2007 Low Carbon Economy Act	All 6 GHGs Economy-wide, "hybrid" – upstream for natural gas & petroleum; downstream for coal	2012 level in 2012	2006 levels by 2020	1990 levels by 2030 President may set long-term target ≥60% below 2006 levels by 2050 contingent upon international effort	Provides certain initial categories including bio sequestration and industrial offsets President may implement use of international offsets subject to 10% limit	Increasing auction: 24% from 2012-2017, rising to 53% in 2030 Some sector allocations are specified including: 9% to states, 53% to industry declining 2%/year starting in 2017 5% set-aside of allowances for agricultural	$12/ton CO_2e "technology accelerator payment" (i.e., safety valve) starting in 2012 and increasing 5%/year above inflation Allows banking	From 2012-2020, 1% of allowances allocated to those registering GHG reductions prior to enactment	Bonus allocation for carbon capture and storage Funds and incentives for technology R&D Target subject to 5-year review of new science and actions by other nations
McCain-Lieberman S.280 – 1/12/2007 Climate Stewardship and Innovation Act	All 6 GHGs Economy-wide, "hybrid" – upstream for transportation sector; downstream for electric utilities & large sources	2004 level in 2012	1990 level in 2020	20% below 1990 level in 2030 60% below 1990 level in 2050	30% limit on use of international credits and domestic reduction or sequestration offsets	Administrator determines allocation/auction split; considering consumer impact, competitiveness, etc.	Borrowing for 5-year periods with interest	Credit for reductions before 2012	Funds and incentives for tech R&D, efficiency adaptation, mitigating effects on poor
Sanders-Boxer S.309 – 1/16/2007 Global Warming Pollution Reduction Act	All 6 GHGs Economy-wide, point of regulation not specified	2010 level in 2010 2%/year reduction from 2010-2020	1990 level in 2020	27% below 1990 level in 2030. 53% below 1990 level in 2040 80% below 1990 level in 2050	Includes provision for offsets generated from biological sequestration	Cap and trade permitted but not required. Allocation criteria include transition assistance and consumer impacts	"Technology-indexed stop price" freezes cap if prices high relative to tech options	Not specified	Standards for vehicles, power plants, efficiency, renewables, certain categories of bio sequestration
Kerry-Snowe S.485 – 2/1/2007 Global Warming Reduction Act	All 6 GHGs Economy-wide, point of regulation not specified	2010 level in 2010	1990 level in 2020 2.5%/year reduction from 2020-2029	3.5%/year reduction from 2030-2050. 62% below 1990 level in 2050	Includes provision for offsets generated from biological sequestration	Determined by the President; requires unspecified amount of allowances to be auctioned	Not specified	Goal to "recognize and reward early reductions"	Funds for tech. R&D, consumer impacts, adaptation Standards for vehicles, efficiency, renewables, certain categories of bio sequestration

Senate Greenhouse Gas Cap-And-Trade Proposals

Includes Legislation Introduced in the 110th Congress as of August 2, 2007

Bill	Scope of Coverage	2010-2019 Cap	2020-2029 Cap	2030-2050 Cap	Offsets	Allocation	Other Cost Controls	Early Action	Technology and Misc.
ELECTRICITY SECTOR LEGISLATION									
Feinstein-Carper S.317 – 1/17/2007 Electric Utility Cap and Trade Act	All 6 GHGs Electricity sector, downstream	2006 level in 2011 2001 level in 2015, 1%/year reduction from 2016-2019	1.5%/year reduction starting in 2020 (may be adjusted by Administrator)	1.5%/year reduction starting in 2020 (may be adjusted by Administrator)	Certain categories of bio sequestration and industrial offsets; 5% limit on forest mgmt; 25% limit on intl.	Increasing auction: 15% in 2011; 60% in 2026; 100% in 2036 Output-based allocation to generators	If economic harm, potential for borrowing and/or increased international offsets. Borrowing of offsets	Credit for reductions from 2000-2010, limit 10% of cap	Funds for tech R&D, habitat protection, and adaptation Bills expected on industry, efficiency, fuels, and vehicles
Alexander-Lieberman S.1168 – 4/19/2007 Clean Air Climate Change Act of 2007	4 pollutants – SO_2, NO_x, mercury, and CO_2 Electricity sector	2300 MMT CO_2 (approx. 2006 level) from 2011-2014 2100 MMT CO_2 (approx. 1997 level) from 2015-2019	1800 MMT CO_2 (approx.1990 level) from 2020-2024 1500 MMT CO_2 (approx.17% below 1990 level) from 2025 forward	1500 MMT CO_2 (approx. 17% below 1990 level) indefinitely	System of offsets considering RGGI model rules	75% historical allocation; 25% auction Input-based "benchmarked" allocation to generators.	Auction revenue can offset costs of electricity increases to consumers and affected industries	Bonus allowances to first 30 new or modified coal-fired utilities meeting new performance standards	Standards for new power plants
Carper S. 1177 – 4/20/2007 Clean Air Planning Act of 2007	4 pollutants – SO_2, NO_x, mercury, and CO_2 Electricity Sector	2006 CO_2 level in 2012-2014 2001 CO_2 level in 2015 1%/year reduction CO_2 level from 2016-2019	1.5%/year reduction CO_2 levels starting in 2020	1.5%/year reduction CO_2 levels starting in 2020 (may be adjusted by Administrator to 3% in 2030 & beyond) 25% below 1990 CO_2 level in 2050	Agricultural sequestration allowances	Increasing auction: 18% in 2012; 60% in 2026; 100% in 2036 and beyond Output-based allocation to generators transitioning to 100% auction	Purchase offsets from other sectors of economy; transition assistance to affected workers and communities	From 2012-2025, 3% set-aside of allowances for clean coal Credit for reductions from 2000-2012	Funds and incentives for CCS technology R&D; efficiency adaptation; mitigating effects on communities and wildlife
Sanders S. 1201 – 4/24/2007 Clean Power Act of 2007 * *If Congress has not passed, and the President has not signed, legislation to address 85% of GHG emissions economy-wide by 2012, further 3%/year reduction in CO_2 limits until global GHG emissions reach 450ppm.*	4 pollutants – SO_2, NO_x, mercury, and CO_2 Electricity sector	2300 MMT CO_2 (approx. 2006 level) by 2011 2100 MMT CO_2 (approx. 1997 level) by 2015*	1803 MMT CO_2 (approx. 1990 level) by 2020* 1500 MMT CO_2 (approx. 17% below 1990 level) by 2025*	*Goal is to facilitate the worldwide stabilization of atmospheric concentrations of global warming pollutants at 450ppm CO_2e by 2050**	Includes provision for offsets generated from biological sequestration	Administrator determines; considers consumer and corporate impact, Increasing auction: 50% in 2020; rising annually to 100% by 2035	Consideration of costs and competitiveness concerns in allocation	Credit for low-carbon generation	Standards for power plants, efficiency, renewables, certain categories of bio sequestration Funds for tech R&D, specifically geologic carbon sequestration

Synapse
Energy Economics, Inc.

Climate Change and Power:

Carbon Dioxide Emissions Costs and Electricity Resource Planning

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Executive Summary

The fact of human-induced global climate change as a consequence of our greenhouse gas emissions is now well established, and the only remaining questions among mainstream scientists concern the nature and timing of future disruptions and dislocations and the magnitude of the socio-economic impacts. It is also generally agreed that different CO_2 emissions trajectories will lead to varying levels of environmental, economic, and social costs – which means that the more sharply and the sooner we can reduce emissions, the greater the avoided costs will be.

This report is designed to assist utilities, regulators, consumer advocates and others in projecting the future cost of complying with carbon dioxide regulations in the United States.[1] These cost forecasts are necessary for use in long-term electricity resource planning, in electricity resource economics, and in utility risk management.

We recognize that there is considerable uncertainty inherent in projecting long-term carbon emissions costs, not least of which concerns the timing and form of future emissions regulations in the United States. However, this uncertainty is no reason to ignore this very real component of future production cost. In fact, this type of uncertainty is similar to that of other critical electricity cost drivers such as fossil-fuel prices.

Accounting for Climate Change Regulations in Electricity Planning

The United States contributes more than any other nation, by far, to global greenhouse gas emissions on both a total and a per capita basis. The United States contributes 24 percent of the world CO_2 emissions, but has only 4.6 percent of the population.

Within the United States, the electricity sector is responsible for roughly 39% of CO_2 emissions. Within the electricity industry, roughly 82% of CO_2 emissions come from coal-fired plants, roughly 13% come from gas-fired plants, and roughly 5% come from oil-fired plants.

Because of its contribution to US and worldwide CO_2 emissions, the US electricity industry will clearly need to play a critical role in reducing greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. In addition, the electricity industry is composed of large point sources of emissions, and it is often easier and more cost-effective to control emissions from large sources than multiple small sources. Analyses by the US Energy Information Administration indicate that 65% to 90% of energy-related carbon dioxide emissions reductions are likely to come from the electric sector under a wide range of economy-wide federal policy scenarios.[2]

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[1] This paper does not address the determination of an "externality value" associated with greenhouse gas emissions. The externality value would include societal costs beyond those internalized into market costs through regulation. While this report refers to the ecological and socio-economic impacts of climate change, estimation of the external costs of greenhouse gas emissions is beyond the scope of this analysis.

[2] EIA 2003, page 13; EIA 2004, page 5; EIA 2006, page 19.

In this context, the failure of entities in the electric sector to anticipate the future costs associated with carbon dioxide regulations is short-sighted, economically unjustifiable, and ultimately self-defeating. Long-term resource planning and investment decisions that do not quantify the likely future cost of CO_2 regulations will understate the true cost of future resources, and thus will result in uneconomic, imprudent decisions. Generating companies will naturally attempt to pass these unnecessarily high costs on to electricity ratepayers. Thus, properly accounting for future CO_2 regulations is as much a consumer issue as it is an issue of prudent resource selection.

Some utility planners argue that the cost of complying with future CO_2 regulations involves too much uncertainty, and thus they leave the cost out of the planning process altogether. This approach results in making an implicit assumption that the cost of complying with future CO_2 regulations will be zero. This assumption of zero cost will apply to new generation facilities that may operate for 50 or more years into the future. In this report, we demonstrate that under all reasonable forecasts of the near- to mid-term future, the cost of complying with CO_2 regulations will certainly be greater than zero.

Federal Initiatives to Regulate Greenhouse Gases

The scientific consensus on climate change has spurred efforts around the world to reduce greenhouse gas emissions, many of which are grounded in the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC). The United States is a signatory to this convention, which means that it has agreed to a goal of "stabilization of greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere at a level that would prevent dangerous anthropogenic interference with the climate system." However, the United States has not yet agreed to the legally binding limits on greenhouse gas emissions contained in the Kyoto Protocol, a supplement to the UNFCCC.

Table ES-1. Summary of Federal Mandatory Emission Reduction Legislation

Proposed National Policy	Title or Description	Year Proposed	Emission Targets	Sectors Covered
McCain Lieberman S.139	Climate Stewardship Act	2003	Cap at 2000 levels 2010-2015. Cap at 1990 levels beyond 2015.	Economy-wide, large emitting sources
McCain Lieberman SA 2028	Climate Stewardship Act	2003	Cap at 2000 levels	Economy-wide, large emitting sources
National Commission on Energy Policy (basis for Bingaman-Domenici legislative work)	Greenhouse Gas Intensity Reduction Goals	2005	Reduce GHG intensity by 2.4%/yr 2010-2019 and by 2.8%/yr 2020-2025. Safety-valve on allowance price	Economy-wide, large emitting sources
Sen. Feinstein	Strong Economy and Climate Protection Act	2006	Stabilize emissions through 2010; 0.5% cut per year from 2011-15; 1% cut per year from 2016-2020. Total reduction is 7.25% below current levels.	Economy-wide, large emitting sources
Jeffords S. 150	Multi-pollutant legislation	2005	2.050 billion tons beginning 2010	Existing and new fossil-fuel fired electric generating plants > 15 MW
Carper S. 843	Clean Air Planning Act	2005	2006 levels (2.655 billion tons CO2) starting in 2009, 2001 levels (2.454 billion tons CO2) starting in 2013.	Existing and new fossil-fuel fired, nuclear, and renewable electric generating plants > 25 MW
Rep. Udall - Rep. Petri	Keep America Competitive Global Warming Policy Act	2006	Establishes prospective baseline for greenhouse gas emissions, with safety valve.	Not available

Nonetheless, there have been several important attempts at the federal level to limit the emissions of greenhouse gases in the United States. Table ES-1 presents a summary of federal legislation that has been introduced in recent years. Most of this legislation includes some form of mandatory national limits on the emissions of greenhouse gases, as well as market-based cap and trade mechanisms to assist in meeting those limits.

State and Regional Initiatives to Regulate Greenhouse Gases

Many states across the country have not waited for federal policies, and are developing and implementing climate change-related policies that have a direct bearing on electric resource planning. States, acting individually and through regional coordination, have been the leaders on climate change policies in the United States.

State policies generally fall into the following categories: (a) direct policies that require specific emission reductions from electric generation sources; (b) indirect policies that affect electric sector resource mix such as through promoting low-emission electric sources; (c) legal proceedings; or (d) voluntary programs including educational efforts and energy planning. Table ES-2 presents a summary of types of policies with recent state policies on climate change listed on the right side of the table.

Table ES-2. Summary of Individual State Climate Change Policies

Type of Policy	State Examples
Direct	
• Power plant emission restrictions (e.g. cap or emission rate)	• MA, NH
• New plant emission restrictions	• OR, WA
• State GHG reduction targets	• CT, NJ, ME, MA, CA, NM, NY, OR, WA
• Fuel/generation efficiency	• CA vehicle emissions standards to be adopted by CT, NY, ME, MA, NJ, OR, PA, RI, VT, WA
Indirect (clean energy)	
• Load-based GHG cap	• CA
• GHG in resource planning	• CA, WA, OR, MT, KY
• Renewable portfolio standards	• 22 states and D.C.
• Energy efficiency/renewable charges and funding; energy efficiency programs	• More than half the states
• Net metering, tax incentives	• 41 states
Lawsuits	
• States, environmental groups sue EPA to determine whether greenhouse gases can be regulated under the Clean Air Act	• States include CA, CT, ME, MA, NM, NY, OR, RI, VT, and WI
• States sue individual companies to reduce GHG emissions	• NY, CT, CA, IA, NJ, RI, VT, WI
Climate change action plans	• 28 states, with NC and AZ in progress

Several states require that regulated utilities evaluate costs or risks associated with greenhouse gas emissions regulations in long-range planning or resource procurement. Some of the states require that companies use a specific value, while other states require that companies consider the risk of future regulation in their planning process. Table ES-3 summarizes state requirements for considering greenhouse gas emissions in electricity resource planning.

Table ES-3. Requirements for Consideration of GHG Emissions in Electric Resource Decisions

Program type	State	Description	Date	Source
GHG value in resource planning	CA	PUC requires that regulated utility IRPs include carbon adder of $8/ton CO_2, escalating at 5% per year.	April 1, 2005	CPUC Decision 05-04-024
GHG value in resource planning	WA	Law requiring that cost of risks associated with carbon emissions be included in Integrated Resource Planning for electric and gas utilities	January, 2006	WAC 480-100-238 and 480-90-238
GHG value in resource planning	OR	PUC requires that regulated utility IRPs include analysis of a range of carbon costs	Year 1993	Order 93-695
GHG value in resource planning	NWPCC	Inclusion of carbon tax scenarios in Fifth Power Plan	May, 2006	NWPCC Fifth Energy Plan
GHG value in resource planning	MN	Law requires utilities to use PUC established environmental externalities values in resource planning	January 3, 1997	Order in Docket No. E-999/CI-93-583
GHG in resource planning	MT	IRP statute includes an "Environmental Externality Adjustment Factor" which includes risk due to greenhouse gases. PSC required Northwestern to account for financial risk of carbon dioxide emissions in 2005 IRP.	August 17, 2004	Written Comments Identifying Concerns with NWE's Compliance with A.R.M. 38.5.8209-8229; Sec. 38.5.8219, A.R.M.
GHG in resource planning	KY	KY staff reports on IRP require IRPs to demonstrate that planning adequately reflects impact of future CO_2 restrictions	2003 and 2006	Staff Report On the 2005 Integrated Resource Plan Report of Louisville Gas and Electric Company and Kentucky Utilities Company - Case 2005-00162, February 2006
GHG in resource planning	UT	Commission directs Pacificorp to consider financial risk associated with potential future regulations, including carbon regulation	June 18, 1992	Docket 90-2035-01, and subsequent IRP reviews
GHG in resource planning	MN	Commission directs Xcel to "provide an expansion of CO2 contingency planning to check the extent to which resource mix changes can lower the cost of meeting customer demand under different forms of regulation."	August 29, 2001	Order in Docket No. RP00-787
GHG in CON	MN	Law requires that proposed non-renewable generating facilities consider the risk of environmental regulation over expected useful life of the facility	2005	Minn. Stat. §216B.243 subd. 3(12)

States are not just acting individually; there are several examples of innovative regional policy initiatives. To date, there are regional initiatives including Northeastern and Mid-Atlantic states (CT, DE, MD, ME, NH, NJ, NY, and VT), West Coast states (CA, OR, WA), Southwestern states (NM, AZ), and Midwestern states (IL, IA, MI, MN, OH, WI).

The Northeastern and Mid-Atlantic states recently reached agreement on the creation of the Regional Greenhouse Gas Initiative (RGGI); a multi-year cooperative effort to design a regional cap and trade program covering CO_2 emissions from power plants in the region. The RGGI states have agreed to the following:

- Stabilization of CO_2 emissions from power plants at current levels for the period 2009-2015, followed by a 10 percent reduction below current levels by 2019.
- Allocation of a minimum of 25 percent of allowances for consumer benefit and strategic energy purposes.
- Certain offset provisions that increase flexibility to moderate price impacts.
- Development of complimentary energy policies to improve energy efficiency, decrease the use of higher polluting electricity generation and to maintain economic growth.

Electric Industry Actions to Address Greenhouse Gases

Some CEOs in the electric industry have determined that inaction on climate change issues is not good corporate strategy, and individual electric companies have begun to evaluate the risks associated with future greenhouse gas regulation and take steps to reduce greenhouse gas emissions. Their actions represent increasing initiative in the electric industry to address the threat of climate change and manage risk associated with future carbon constraints.

Recently, eight US-based utility companies have joined forces to create the "Clean Energy Group." This group's mission is to seek "national four-pollutant legislation that would, among other things… stabilize carbon emissions at 2001 levels by 2013."

In addition, leaders of electric companies such as Duke and Exelon have vocalized support for mandatory national carbon regulation. These companies urge a mandatory federal policy, stating that climate change is a pressing issue that must be resolved, that voluntary action is not sufficient, and that companies need regulatory certainty to make appropriate decisions. Even companies that do not advocate federal requirements, anticipate their adoption and urge regulatory certainty. Several companies have established greenhouse gas reduction goals for their company.

Several electric utilities and electric generation companies have incorporated specific forecasts of carbon regulation and costs into their long term planning practices. Table ES-4 illustrates the range of carbon cost values, in \$/ton CO_2, that are currently being used in the industry for both resource planning and modeling of carbon regulation policies.

Table ES-4. CO_2 Cost Estimates Used in Electricity Resource Plans

Company	CO2 emissions trading assumptions for various years ($2005)
PG&E*	$0-9/ton (start year 2006)
Avista 2003*	$3/ton (start year 2004)
Avista 2005	$7 and $25/ton (2010) $15 and $62/ton (2026 and 2023)
Portland General Electric*	$0-55/ton (start year 2003)
Xcel-PSCCo	$9/ton (start year 2010) escalating at 2.5%/year
Idaho Power*	$0-61/ton (start year 2008)
Pacificorp 2004	$0-55/ton
Northwest Energy 2005	$15 and $41/ton
Northwest Power and Conservation Council	$0-15/ton between 2008 and 2016 $0-31/ton after 2016

**Values for these utilities from Wiser, Ryan, and Bolinger, Mark. "Balancing Cost and Risk: The Treatment of Renewable Energy in Western Utility Resource Plans." Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratories. August 2005. LBNL-58450. Table 7.*
Other values: PacifiCorp, Integrated Resource Plan 2004, pages 62-63; and Idaho Power Company, 2004 Integrated Resource Plan Draft, July 2004, page 59; Avista Integrated Resource Plan 2005, Section 6.3; Northwestern Energy Integrated Resource Plan 2005, Volume 1 p. 62; Northwest Power and Conservation Council, Fifth Power Plan pp. 6-7. Xcel-PSCCo, Comprehensive Settlement submitted to the CO PUC in dockets 04A-214E, 215E and 216E, December 3, 2004. Converted to $2005 using GDP implicit price deflator.

Synapse Forecast of Carbon Dioxide Allowance Prices

This report presents our current forecast of the most likely costs of compliance with future climate change regulations. In making this forecast we review a range of current estimates from a variety of different sources. We review the results of several analyses of federal policy proposals, and a few analyses of the Kyoto Protocol. We also look briefly at carbon markets in the European Union to demonstrate the levels at which carbon dioxide emissions are valued in an active market.

Figure ES-1 presents CO_2 allowance price forecasts from the range of recent studies that we reviewed. All of the studies here are based on the costs associated with complying with potential CO_2 regulations in the United States. The range of these price forecasts reflects the range of policy initiatives that have been proposed in the United States, as well as the diversity of economic models and methodologies used to estimate their price impacts.

Figure ES-1 superimposes the Synapse long term forecasts of CO_2 allowance prices upon the other forecasts gleaned from the literature. In order to help address the uncertainty involved in forecasting CO_2 prices, we present a "base case" forecast as well as a "low case" and a "high case." All three forecasts are based on our review of both regulatory trends and economic models, as outlined in this document.

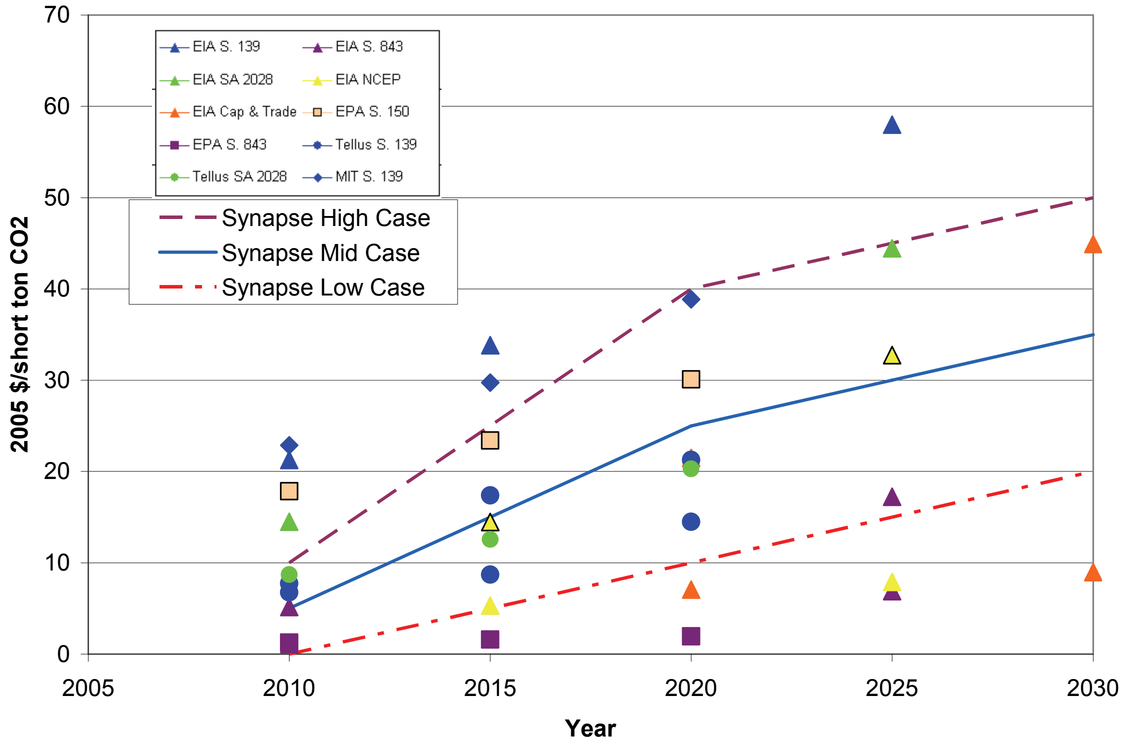

Figure ES-1. Synapse Forecast of Carbon Dioxide Allowance Prices

High, mid and low-case Synapse carbon emissions price forecasts superimposed on policy model forecasts as presented in Figure 6.3.

As with any forecast, our forecast is likely to be revised over time as the form and timing of carbon emission regulations come increasingly into focus. It is our judgment that this range represents a reasonable quantification of what is known today about future carbon emissions costs in the United States. As such, it is appropriate for use in long range resource planning purposes until better information or more clarity become available.

Additional Costs Associated with Greenhouse Gases

This report summarizes current policy initiatives and costs associated with greenhouse gas emissions from the electric sector. It is important to note that the greenhouse gas emission reduction requirements contained in federal legislation proposed to date, and even the targets in the Kyoto Protocol, are relatively modest compared with the range of emissions reductions that are anticipated to be necessary for keeping global warming at a manageable level. Further, we do not attempt to calculate the full cost to society (or to electric utilities) associated with anticipated future climate changes. Even if electric utilities comply with some of the most aggressive regulatory requirements underlying our CO_2 price forecasts presented above, climate change will continue to occur, albeit at a slower pace, and more stringent emissions reductions will be necessary to avoid dangerous changes to the climate system.

The consensus from the international scientific community clearly indicates that in order to stabilize the concentration of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere and to try to keep further global warming trends manageable, greenhouse gas emissions will have to be reduced significantly below those limits underlying our CO_2 price forecasts. The scientific consensus expressed in the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change Report from 2001 is that greenhouse gas emissions would have to decline to a very small fraction of current emissions in order to stabilize greenhouse gas concentrations, and keep global warming in the vicinity of a 2-3 degree centigrade temperature increase. Simply complying with the regulations underlying our CO_2 price forecasts does not eliminate the ecological and socio-economic threat created by CO_2 emissions – it merely mitigates that threat.

In keeping with these findings, the European Union has adopted an objective of keeping global surface temperature increases to 2 degrees centigrade above pre-industrial levels. The EU Environment Council concluded in 2005 that this goal is likely to require emissions reductions of 15-30% below 1990 levels by 2020, and 60-80% below 1990 levels by 2050.

In other words, incorporating a reasonable CO_2 price forecast into electricity resource planning will help address electricity consumer concerns about prudent economic decision-making and direct impacts on future electricity rates, but it does not address all the ecological and socio-economic concerns posed by greenhouse gas emissions. Regulators should consider other policy mechanisms to account for the remaining pervasive impacts associated with greenhouse gas emissions.

1. Introduction

Climate change is not only an "environmental" issue. It is at the confluence of energy and environmental policy, posing challenges to national security, economic prosperity, and national infrastructure. Many states do not require greenhouse gas reductions, nor do we yet have a federal policy requiring greenhouse gas reductions in the United States; thus many policy makers and corporate decision-makers in the electric sector may be tempted to consider climate change policy a hazy future possibility rather than a current factor in resource decisions. However, such a "wait and see" approach is imprudent for resource decisions with horizons of more than a few years. Scientific developments, policy initiatives at the local, state, and federal level, and actions of corporate leaders, all indicate that climate change policy will affect the electric sector – the question is not "whether" but "when," and in what magnitude.

Attention to global warming and its potential environmental, economic, and social impacts has rapidly increased over the past few years, adding to the pressure for comprehensive climate change policy in the United States The April 3, 2006 edition of TIME Magazine reports the results of a new survey conducted by TIME, ABC News and Stanford University which reveals that more than 80 percent of Americans believe global warming is occurring, while nearly 90 percent are worried that warming presents a serious problem for future generations. The poll reveals that 75 percent would like the US government, US businesses, and the American people to take further action on global warming in the next year.[3]

In the past several years, climate change has emerged as a significant financial risk for companies. A 2002 report from the investment community identifies climate change as representing a potential multi-billion dollar risk to a variety of US businesses and industries.[4] Addressing climate change presents particular risk and opportunity to the electric sector. Because the electric sector (and associated emissions) continue to grow, and because controlling emissions from large point sources (such as power plants) is easier, and often cheaper, than small disparate sources (like automobiles), the electric sector is likely to be a prime component of future greenhouse gas regulatory scenarios. The report states that "climate change clearly represents a major strategic issue for the electric utilities industry and is of relevance to the long-term evolution of the industry and possibly the survival of individual companies." Risks to electric companies include the following:

- Cost of reducing greenhouse gas emissions and cost of investment in new, cleaner power production technologies and methods;
- Higher maintenance and repair costs and reliability concerns due to more frequent weather extremes and climatic disturbance; and

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[3] TIME/ABC News/Stanford University Poll, appearing in April 3, 2006 issue of Time Magazine.

[4] Innovest Strategic Value Advisors; "Value at Risk: Climate Change and the Future of Governance;" The Coalition for Environmentally Responsible Economies; April 2002.

- Growing pressure from customers and shareholders to address emissions contributing to climate change.[5]

A subsequent report, "Electric Power, Investors, and Climate Change: A Call to Action," presents the findings of a diverse group of experts from the power sector, environmental and consumer groups, and the investment community.[6] Participants in this dialogue found that greenhouse gas emissions, including carbon dioxide emissions, will be regulated in the United States; the only remaining issue is when and how. Participants also agreed that regulation of greenhouse gases poses financial risks and opportunities for the electric sector. Managing the uncertain policy environment on climate change is identified as "one of a number of significant environmental challenges facing electric company executives and investors in the next few years as well as the decades to come."[7] One of the report's four recommendations is that investors and electric companies come together to quantify and assess the financial risks and opportunities of climate change.

In a 2003 report for the World Wildlife Fund, Innovest Strategic Advisors determined that climate policy is likely to have important consequences for power generation costs, fuel choices, wholesale power prices and the profitability of utilities and other power plant owners.[8] The report found that, even under conservative scenarios, additional costs could exceed 10 percent of 2002 earnings, though there are also significant opportunities. While utilities and non-utility generation owners have many options to deal with the impact of increasing prices on CO_2 emissions, doing nothing is the worst option. The report concludes that a company's profits could even increase with astute resource decisions (including fuel switching or power plant replacement).

Increased CO_2 emissions from fossil-fired power plants will not only increase environmental damages and challenges to socio-economic systems; on an individual company level they will also increase the costs of complying with future regulations – costs that are likely to be passed on to all customers. Power plants built today can generate electricity for as long as 50 years or more into the future.[9]

As illustrated in the table below, factoring costs associated with future regulations of carbon dioxide has an impact on the costs of resources. Resources with higher CO_2 emissions have a higher CO_2 cost per megawatt-hour than those with lower emissions.

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[5] Ibid., pages 45-48.

[6] CERES; "Electric Power, Investors, and Climate Change: A Call to Action;" September 2003.

[7] Ibid., p. 6

[8] Innovest Strategic Value Advisors; "Power Switch: Impacts of Climate Change on the Global Power Sector;" WWF International; November 2003

[9] Biewald et. al.; "A Responsible Electricity Future: An Efficient, Cleaner and Balanced Scenario for the US Electricity System;" prepared for the National Association of State PIRGs; June 11, 2004.

Table I.1. Comparison of CO_2 costs per MWh for Various Resources

Resource	Scrubbed Coal (Bit)	Scrubbed Coal (Sub)	IGCC	Combined Cycle	Source Notes
Size	600	600	550	400	1
CO_2 (lb/MMBtu)	205.45	212.58	205.45	116.97	2, 3
Heat Rate (Btu/kWh)	8844	8844	8309	7196	1
CO_2 Price (2005$/ton)	19.63	19.63	19.63	19.63	4
CO_2 Cost per MWh	$17.83	$18.45	$16.75	$8.26	

1 - From AEO 2006
2 - From EIA's Electric Power Annual 2004, page 76
3 - IGCC emission rate assumed to be the same as the bituminous scrubbed coal rate
4 - From Synapse's carbon emissions price forecast levelized from 2010-2040 at a 7.32% real discount rate

Many trends in this country show increasing pressure for a federal policy requiring greenhouse gas emissions reductions. Given the strong likelihood of future carbon regulation in the United States, the contributions of the power sector to our nation's greenhouse gas emissions, and the long lives of power plants, utilities and non-utility generation owners should include carbon cost in all resource evaluation and planning.

The purpose of this report is to identify a reasonable basis for anticipating the likely cost of future mandated carbon emissions reductions for use in long-term resource planning decisions.[10] Section 2 presents information on US carbon emissions. Section 3 describes recent scientific findings on climate change. Section 4 describes international efforts to address the threat of climate change. Section 5 summarizes various initiatives at the state, regional, and corporate level to address climate change. Finally, section 6 summarizes information that can form the basis for forecasts of carbon allowance prices; and provides a reasonable carbon allowance price forecast for use in resource planning and investment decisions in the electric sector.

2. Growing scientific evidence of climate change

In 2001 the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change issued its Third Assessment Report.[11] The report, prepared by hundreds of scientists worldwide, concluded that the earth is warming, that most of the warming over the past fifty years is attributable to human activities, and that average surface temperature of the earth is likely to increase

[10] This paper focuses on anticipating the cost of future emission reduction requirements. This paper does not address the determination of an "externality value" associated with greenhouse gas emissions. The externality value would include societal costs beyond those internalized into market costs through regulation. While this report refers to the ecological and socio-economic impacts of climate change, estimation of the external costs of greenhouse gas emissions is beyond the scope of this analysis.

[11] Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, *Third Assessment Report*, 2001.

between 1.4 and 5.8 degrees Centigrade during this century, with a wide range of impacts on the natural world and human societies.

Scientists continue to explore the possible impacts associated with temperature increase of different magnitudes. In addition, they are examining a variety of possible scenarios to determine how much the temperature is likely to rise if atmospheric greenhouse gas concentrations are stabilized at certain levels. The consensus in the international scientific community is that greenhouse gas emissions will have to be reduced significantly below current levels. This would correspond to levels much lower than those limits underlying our CO_2 price forecasts. In 2001 the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change reported that greenhouse gas emissions would have to decline to a very small fraction of current emissions in order to keep global warming in the vicinity of a 2-3 degree centigrade temperature increase.[12]

Since 2001 the evidence of climate change, and human contribution to climate change, is even more compelling. In June 2005 the National Science Academies from eleven major nations, including the United States, issued a Joint Statement on a Global Response to Climate Change.[13] Among the conclusions in the statement were that

- Significant global warming is occurring;
- It is likely that most of the warming in recent decades can be attributed to human activities;
- The scientific understanding of climate change is now sufficiently clear to justify nations taking prompt action;
- Action taken now to reduce significantly the build-up of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere will lessen the magnitude and rate of climate change;
- The Joint Academies urge all nations to take prompt action to reduce the causes of climate change, adapt to its impacts and ensure that the issue is included in all relevant national and international strategies.

There is increasing concern in the scientific community that the earth may be more sensitive to global warming than previously thought. Increasing attention is focused on understanding and avoiding dangerous levels of climate change. A 2005 Scientific Symposium on Stabilization of Greenhouse Gases reached the following conclusions:[14]

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[12] IPCC, *Climate Change 2001: Synthesis Report*, Fourth Volume of the IPCC Third Assessment Report. IPCC 2001. Question 6.

[13] *Joint Science Academies' Statement: Global Response to Climate Change*, National Academies of Brazil, Canada, China, France, Germany, India, Italy, Japan, Russia, United Kingdom, and United States, June 7, 2005.

[14] UK Department of Environment, Food, and Rural Affairs, *Avoiding Dangerous Climate Change – Scientific Symposium on Stabilization of Greenhouse Gases, February 1-3, 2005 Exeter, U.K. Report of the International Scientific Steering Committee,* May 2005. http://www.stabilisation2005.com/Steering_Commitee_Report.pdf

- There is greater clarity and reduced uncertainty about the impacts of climate change across a wide range of systems, sectors and societies. In many cases the risks are more serious than previously thought.
- Surveys of the literature suggest increasing damage if the globe warms about 1 to 3^0C above current levels. Serious risk of large scale, irreversible system disruption, such as reversal of the land carbon sink and possible de-stabilisation of the Antarctic ice sheets is more likely above 3^0C.
- Many climate impacts, particularly the most damaging ones, will be associated with an increased frequency or intensity of extreme events (such as heat waves, storms, and droughts).
- Different models suggest that delaying action would require greater action later for the same temperature target and that even a delay of 5 years could be significant. If action to reduce emissions is delayed by 20 years, rates of emission reduction may need to be 3 to 7 times greater to meet the same temperature target.

As scientific evidence of climate change continues to emerge, including unusually high temperatures, increased storm intensity, melting of the polar icecaps and glaciers worldwide, coral bleaching, and sea level rise, pressure will continue to mount for concerted governmental action on climate change.[15]

3. US carbon emissions

The United States contributes more than any other nation, by far, to global greenhouse gas emissions on both a total and a per capita basis. The United States contributes 24 percent of the world CO_2 emissions from fossil fuel consumption, but has only 4.6 percent of the population. According to the International Energy Agency, 80 percent of 2002 global energy-related CO_2 emissions were emitted by 22 countries – from all world regions, 12 of which are OECD countries. These 22 countries also produced 80 percent of the world's 2002 economic output (GDP) and represented 78 percent of the world's Total Primary Energy Supply.[16] Figure 3.1 shows the top twenty carbon dioxide emitters in the world.

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[15] Several websites provide summary information on climate change science including www.ipcc.org www.nrdc.org, www.ucsusa.org, and www.climateark.org.

[16] International Energy Agency, "CO_2 from Fuel Combustion – Fact Sheet," 2005

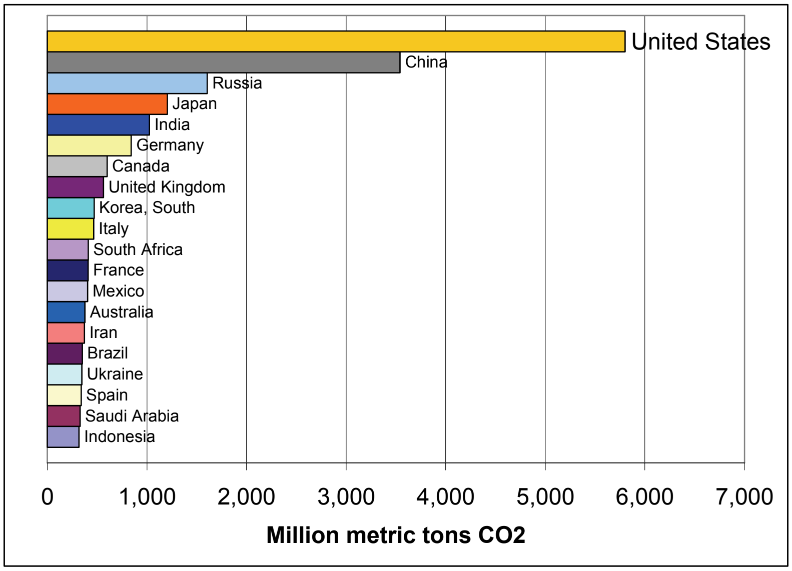

Figure 3.1. Top Worldwide Emitters of Carbon Dioxide in 2003

Source: Data from EIA Table H.1co2 World Carbon Dioxide Emissions from the Consumption and Flaring of Fossil Fuels, 1980-2003, July 11, 2005

Emissions in this country in 2004 were roughly divided among three sectors: transportation (1,934 million metric tons CO_2), electric generation (2,299 million metric tons CO_2), and other (which includes commercial and industrial heat and process applications – 1,673 million metric tons CO_2). These emissions, largely attributable to the burning of fossil fuels, came from combustion of oil (44%), coal (35.4%), and natural gas (20.4%). Figure 3.2 shows emissions from the different sectors, with the electric sector broken out by fuel source.

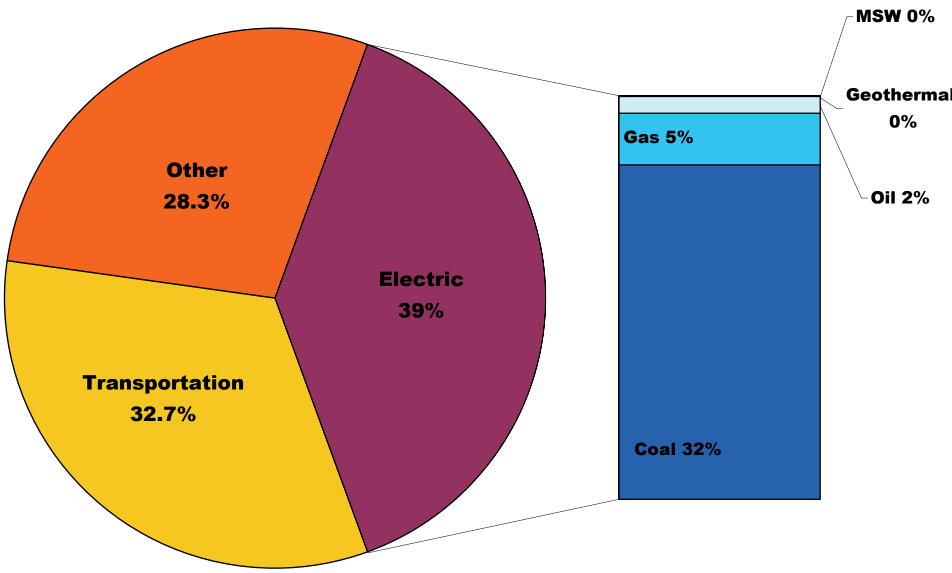

Figure 3.2. US CO_2 Emissions by Sector in 2004
Source: Data from EIA Emissions of Greenhouse Gases in the United States 2004, December 2005

Recent analysis has shown that in 2004, power plant CO_2 emissions were 27 percent higher than they were in 1990.[17] US greenhouse gas emissions per unit of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) fell from 677 metric tons per million 2000 constant dollars of GDP (MTCO2e/$Million GDP) in 2003 to 662 MTCO2e /$Million GDP in 2004, a decline of 2.1 percent.[18] However, while the carbon intensity of the US economy (carbon emissions per unit of GDP) fell by 12 percent between 1991 and 2002, the carbon intensity of the electric power sector held steady.[19] This is because the carbon efficiency gains from the construction of efficient and relatively clean new natural gas plants have been offset by increasing reliance on existing coal plants. Since federal acid rain legislation was enacted in 1990, the average rate at which existing coal plants are operated increased from 61 percent to 72 percent. Power plant CO_2 emissions are concentrated in states along the Ohio River Valley and in the South. Five states – Indiana, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Texas, and West Virginia – are the source of 30 percent of the electric power industry's NO_x and CO_2 emissions, and nearly 40 percent of its SO_2 and mercury emissions.

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[17] EIA, "Emissions of Greenhouse Gases in the United Sates, 2004;" Energy Information Administration; December 2005, xiii

[18] EIA *Emissions of Greenhouse Gases in the United States 2004,* December 2005.

[19] Goodman, Sandra; "Benchmarking Air Emissions of the 100 Largest Electric Generation Owners in the US - 2002;" CERES, Natural Resources Defense Council (NRDC), and Public Service Enterprise Group Incorporated (PSEG); April 2004. An updated "Benchmarking Study" has been released: Goodman, Sandra and Walker, Michael. "Benchmarking Air Emissions of the 100 Largest Electric Generation Owners in the US - 2004." CERES, Natural Resources Defense Council (NRDC), and Public Service Enterprise Group Incorporated (PSEG). April 2006.

4. Governments worldwide have agreed to respond to climate change by reducing greenhouse gas emissions

The prospect of global warming and associated climate change has spurred one of the most comprehensive international treaties on environmental issues.[20] The 1992 United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change has almost worldwide membership; and, as such, is one of the most widely supported of all international environmental agreements.[21] President George H.W. Bush signed the Convention in 1992, and it was ratified by Congress in the same year. In so doing, the United States joined other nations in agreeing that "The Parties should protect the climate system for the benefit of present and future generations of humankind, on the basis of equity and in accordance with their common but differentiated responsibilities and respective capabilities."[22] Industrialized nations, such as the United States, and Economies in Transition, known as Annex I countries in the UNFCCC, agree to adopt climate change policies to reduce their greenhouse gas emissions.[23] Industrialized countries that were members of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) in 1992, called Annex II countries, have the further obligation to assist developing countries with emissions mitigation and climate change adaptation.

Following this historic agreement, most Parties to the UNFCCC adopted the Kyoto Protocol on December 11, 1997. The Kyoto Protocol supplements and strengthens the Convention; the Convention continues as the main focus for intergovernmental action to combat climate change. The Protocol establishes legally-binding targets to limit or reduce greenhouse gas emissions.[24] The Protocol also includes various mechanisms to cut emissions reduction costs. Specific rules have been developed on emissions sinks, joint implementation projects, and clean development mechanisms. The Protocol envisions a long-term process of five-year commitment periods. Negotiations on targets for the second commitment period (2013-2017) are beginning.

The Kyoto targets are shown below, in Table 4.1. Only Parties to the Convention that have also become Parties to the Protocol (i.e. by ratifying, accepting, approving, or acceding to it), are bound by the Protocol's commitments, following its entry into force in

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[20] For comprehensive information on the UNFCC and the Kyoto Protocol, see UNFCC, "Caring for Climate: a guide to the climate change convention and the Kyoto Protocol," issued by the Climate Change Secretariat (UNFCC) Bonn, Germany. 2003. This and other publications are available at the UNFCCC's website: http://unfccc.int/.

[21] The First World Climate Conference was held in 1979. In 1988, the World Meteorological Society and the United Nations Environment Programme created the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change to evaluate scientific information on climate change. Subsequently, in 1992 countries around the world, including the United States, adopted the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change.

[22] From Article 3 of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, 1992.

[23] One of obligations of the United States and other industrialized nations is to a National Report describing actions it is taking to implement the Convention

[24] Greenhouse gases covered by the Protocol are CO_2, CH_4, N_2O, HFCs, PFCs and SF_6.

February 2005.[25] The individual targets for Annex I Parties add up to a total cut in greenhouse-gas emissions of at least 5 percent from 1990 levels in the commitment period 2008-2012.

Only a few industrialized countries have not signed the Kyoto Protocol; these countries include the United States, Australia, and Monaco. Of these, the United States is by far the largest emitter with 36.1 percent of Annex I emissions in 1990; Australia and Monaco were responsible for 2.1 percent and less than 0.1 percent of Annex I emissions, respectively. The United States did not sign the Kyoto protocol, stating concerns over impacts on the US economy and absence of binding emissions targets for countries such as India and China. Many developing countries, including India, China and Brazil have signed the Protocol, but do not yet have emission reduction targets.

In December 2005, the Parties agreed to final adoption of a Kyoto "rulebook" and a two-track approach to consider next steps. These next steps will include negotiation of new binding commitments for Kyoto's developed country parties, and, a nonbinding "dialogue on long-term cooperative action" under the Framework Convention.

Table 4.1. Emission Reduction Targets Under the Kyoto Protocol[26]

Country	**Target**: change in emissions from 1990** levels by 2008/2012
EU-15*, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Estonia, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Monaco, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Switzerland	-8%
United States***	-7%
Canada, Hungary, Japan, Poland	-6%
Croatia	-5%
New Zealand, Russian Federation, Ukraine	0
Norway	+1%
Australia***	+8%
Iceland	+10%

** The EU's 15 member States will redistribute their targets among themselves, as allowed under the Protocol. The EU has already reached agreement on how its targets will be redistributed.*
*** Some Economies In Transition have a baseline other than 1990.*
**** The United States and Australia have indicated their intention not to ratify the Kyoto Protocol.*

As the largest single emitter of greenhouse gas emissions, and as one of the only industrialized nations not to sign the Kyoto Protocol, the United States is under significant international scrutiny; and pressure is building for the United States to take more initiative in addressing the emerging problem of climate change. In 2005 climate change was a priority at the G8 Summit in Gleneagles, with the G8 leaders agreeing to "act with resolve and urgency now" on the issue of climate change.[27] The leaders

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[25] Entry into force required 55 Parties to the Convention to ratify the Protocol, including Annex I Parties accounting for 55 percent of that group's carbon dioxide emissions in 1990. This threshold was reached when Russia ratified the Protocol in November 2004. The Protocol entered into force February 16, 2005.

[26] Background information at: http://unfccc.int/essential_background/kyoto_protocol/items/3145.php

[27] G8 Leaders, *Climate Change, Clean Energy, and Sustainable Development*, Political Statement and Action Plan from the G8 Leaders' Communiqué at the G8 Summit in Gleneagles U.K., 2005. Available

reached agreement that greenhouse gas emissions should slow, peak and reverse, and that the G8 nations must make "substantial cuts" in greenhouse gas emissions. They also reaffirmed their commitment to the UNFCCC and its objective of stabilizing greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere at a level that prevents dangerous anthropogenic interference with the climate system.

The EU has already adopted goals for emissions reductions beyond the Kyoto Protocol. The EU has stated its commitment to limiting global surface temperature increases to 2 degrees centigrade above pre-industrial levels.[28] The EU Environment Council concluded in 2005 that to meet this objective in an equitable manner, developed countries should reduce emissions 15-30% below 1990 levels by 2020, and 60-80% below 1990 levels by 2050. A 2005 report from the European Environment Agency concluded that a 2 degree centigrade temperature increase was likely to require that global emissions increases be limited at 35% above 1990 levels by 2020, with a reduction by 2050 of between 15 and 50% below 1990 levels.[29] The EU has committed to emission reductions of 20-30% below 1990 levels by 2020, and reduction targets for 2050 are still under discussion.[30]

5. Legislators, state governmental agencies, shareholders, and corporations are working to reduce greenhouse gas emissions from the United States

There is currently no mandatory federal program requiring greenhouse gas emission reductions. Nevertheless, various federal legislative proposals are under consideration, and President Bush has acknowledged that humans are contributing to global warming. Meanwhile, state and municipal governments (individually and in cooperation), are leading the development and design of climate policy in the United States. Simultaneously, companies in the electric sector, acting on their own initiative or in compliance with state requirements, are beginning to incorporate future climate change policy as a factor in resource planning and investment decisions.

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at: http://www.g8.gov.uk/servlet/Front?pagename=OpenMarket/Xcelerate/ShowPage&c=Page&cid=1094235520309

[28] Council of the European Union, *Information Note – Brussels March 10, 2005.* http://ue.eu.int/uedocs/cmsUpload/st07242.en05.pdf

[29] European Environment Agency, *Climate Change and a European Low Carbon Energy System,* 2005. EEA Report No 1/2005. ISSN 1725-9177. http://reports.eea.europa.eu/eea_report_2005_1/en/Climate_change-FINAL-web.pdf

[30] Ibid; and European Parliament Press Release "Winning the Battle Against Climate Change" November 17, 2005. http://www.europarl.europa.eu/news/expert/infopress_page/064-2439-320-11-46-911-20051117IPR02438-16-11-2005-2005-false/default_en.htm

5.1 Federal initiatives

With ratification of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change in 1992, the United States agreed to a goal of "stabilization of greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere at a level that would prevent dangerous anthropogenic interference with the climate system."[31] To date, the Federal Government in the United States has not required greenhouse gas emission reductions, and the question of what constitutes a dangerous level of human interference with the climate system remains unresolved. However, legislative initiatives for a mandatory market-based greenhouse gas cap and trade program are under consideration.

To date, the Bush Administration has relied on voluntary action. In July 2005, President Bush changed his public position on causation, acknowledging that the earth is warming and that human actions are contributing to global warming.[32] That summer, the Administration launched a new climate change pact between the United States and five Asian and Pacific nations aimed at stimulating technology development and inducing private investments in low-carbon and carbon-free technologies. The Asia-Pacific Partnership on Clean Development and Climate – signed by Australia, China, India, Japan, South Korea and the United States – brings some of the largest greenhouse gas emitters together; however its reliance on voluntary measures reduces its effectiveness.

The legislative branch has been more active in exploring mandatory greenhouse gas reduction policies. In June 2005, the Senate passed a sense of the Senate resolution recognizing the need to enact a US cap and trade program to slow, stop and reverse the growth of greenhouse gases. [33]

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[31] The UNFCC was signed by President George H. Bush in 1992 and ratified by the Senate in the same year.

[32] "Bush acknowledges human contribution to global warming; calls for post-Kyoto strategy." Greenwire, July 6, 2005.

[33] US Senate, *Sense of the Senate Resolution on Climate Change,* US Senate Resolution 866; June 22, 2005. Available at: http://energy.senate.gov/public/index.cfm?FuseAction=PressReleases.Detail&PressRelease_id=234715&Month=6&Year=2005&Party=0

> Sense of the Senate Resolution – June 2005
>
> It is the sense of the Senate that, before the end of the 109th Congress, Congress should enact a comprehensive and effective national program of mandatory, market-based limits on emissions of greenhouse gases that slow, stop, and reverse the growth of such emissions at a rate and in a manner that
>
> (1) will not significantly harm the United States economy; and
>
> (2) will encourage complementary action by other nations that are major trading partners and key contributors to global emissions.

This Resolution built upon previous areas of agreement in the Senate, and provides a foundation for future agreement on a cap and trade program. On May 10, 2006 the House Appropriations Committee adopted very similar language supporting a mandatory cap on greenhouse gas emissions in a non-binding amendment to a 2007 spending bill.[34]

Several mandatory emissions reduction proposals have been introduced in Congress. These proposals establish emission trajectories below the projected business-as-usual emission trajectories, and they generally rely on market-based mechanisms (such as cap and trade programs) for achieving the targets. The proposals also include various provisions to spur technology innovation, as well as details pertaining to offsets, allowance allocation, restrictions on allowance prices and other issues. Through their consideration of these proposals, legislators are increasingly educated on the complex details of different policy approaches, and they are laying the groundwork for a national mandatory program. Federal proposals that would require greenhouse gas emission reductions are summarized in Table 5.1, below.

[34] "House appropriators OK resolution on need to cap emissions," Greenwire, May 10, 2005.

Table 5.1. Summary of Federal Mandatory Emission Reduction Proposals

Proposed National Policy	Title or Description	Year Proposed	Emission Targets	Sectors Covered
McCain Lieberman S.139	Climate Stewardship Act	2003	Cap at 2000 levels 2010-2015. Cap at 1990 levels beyond 2015.	Economy-wide, large emitting sources
McCain Lieberman SA 2028	Climate Stewardship Act	2003	Cap at 2000 levels	Economy-wide, large emitting sources
National Commission on Energy Policy (basis for Bingaman-Domenici legislative work)	Greenhouse Gas Intensity Reduction Goals	2005	Reduce GHG intensity by 2.4%/yr 2010-2019 and by 2.8%/yr 2020-2025. Safety-valve on allowance price	Economy-wide, large emitting sources
Sen. Feinstein	Strong Economy and Climate Protection Act	2006	Stabilize emissions through 2010; 0.5% cut per year from 2011-15; 1% cut per year from 2016-2020. Total reduction is 7.25% below current levels.	Economy-wide, large emitting sources
Jeffords S. 150	Multi-pollutant legislation	2005	2.050 billion tons beginning 2010	Existing and new fossil-fuel fired electric generating plants >15 MW
Carper S. 843	Clean Air Planning Act	2005	2006 levels (2.655 billion tons CO_2) starting in 2009, 2001 levels (2.454 billion tons CO_2) starting in 2013.	Existing and new fossil-fuel fired, nuclear, and renewable electric generating plants >25 MW
Rep. Udall - Rep. Petri	Keep America Competitive Global Warming Policy Act	2006	Establishes prospective baseline for greenhouse gas emissions, with safety valve.	Not available

Landmark legislation that would regulate carbon, the Climate Stewardship Act (S.139), was introduced by Senators McCain and Lieberman in 2003, and received 43 votes in the Senate. A companion bill was introduced in the House by Congressmen Olver and Gilchrest. As initially proposed, the bill created an economy-wide two-step cap on greenhouse gas emissions. The bill was reintroduced in the 109th Congress on February 10, 2005; the revised Climate Stewardship Act, SA 2028, would create a national cap and trade program to reduce CO_2 to year 2000 emission levels over the period 2010 to 2015. Other legislative initiatives on climate change were also under consideration in the spring of 2005, including a proposal by Senator Jeffords (D-VT) to cap greenhouse gas emissions from the electric sector (S. 150), and an electric sector four-pollutant bill from Senator Carper (D-DE) (S. 843).

In 2006, the Senate appears to be moving beyond the question of whether to regulate greenhouse gas emissions, to working out the details of how to regulate greenhouse gas emissions. Senators Domenici (R-NM) and Bingaman (D-NM) are working on bi-partisan legislation based on the recommendations of the National Commission on Energy Policy (NCEP). The NCEP – a bipartisan group of energy experts from industry, government, labor, academia, and environmental and consumer groups – released a consensus strategy in December 2004 to address major long-term US energy challenges. Their report recommends a mandatory economy-wide tradable permits program to limit GHG. Costs would be capped at $7/metric ton of CO_2 equivalent in 2010 with the cap rising 5 percent annually.[35] The Senators are investigating the details of creating a mandatory economy-wide cap and trade system based on mandatory reductions in greenhouse gas intensity (measured in tons of emissions per dollar of GDP). In the spring of 2006, the Senate Energy and Natural Resources Committee held hearings to develop the details of a proposal.[36] During these hearings many companies in the electric power sector, such as Exelon, Duke Energy, and PNM Resources, expressed support for a mandatory national greenhouse gas cap and trade program.[37]

Two other proposals in early 2006 have added to the detail of the increasingly lively discussion of federal climate change strategies. Senator Feinstein (D-CA) issued a proposal for an economy-wide cap and trade system in order to further spur debate on the issue.[38] Senator Feinstein's proposal would cap emissions and seek reductions at levels largely consistent with the original McCain-Lieberman proposal. The most recent proposal to be added to the discussion is one by Reps. Tom Udall (D-NM) and Tom Petri (R-WI). The proposal includes a market-based trading system with an emissions cap to be established by the EPA about three years after the bill becomes law. The bill includes provisions to spur new research and development by setting aside 25 percent of the trading system's allocations for a new Energy Department technology program, and 10 percent of the plan's emission allowances to the State Department for spending on zero-carbon and low-carbon projects in developing nations. The bill would regulate greenhouse gas emissions at "upstream" sources such as coal mines and oil imports. Also,

[35] National Commission on Energy Policy, *Ending the Energy Stalemate*, December 2004, pages 19-29.

[36] The Senators have issued a white paper, inviting comments on various aspects of a greenhouse gas regulatory system. See, Senator Pete V. Domenici and Senator Jeff Bingaman, "Design Elements of a Mandatory Market-based Greenhouse Gas Regulatory System," issued February 2, 2006.

[37] All of the comments submitted to the Senate Energy and Natural Resources Committee are available at: http://energy.senate.gov/public/index.cfm?FuseAction=IssueItems.View&IssueItem_ID=38

[38] Letter of Senator Feinstein announcing "Strong Economy and Climate Protection Act of 2006," March 20, 2006.

it would establish a "safety valve" initially limiting the price of a ton of carbon dioxide emission to $25.[39]

Figure 5.1 illustrates the anticipated emissions trajectories from the economy-wide proposals - though the most recent proposal in the House is not included due to its lack of a specified emissions cap.

Figure 5.1. Emission Trajectories of Proposed Federal Legislation

Anticipated emissions trajectories from federal proposals for economy-wide greenhouse gas cap and trade proposals (McCain Lieberman S.139 Climate Stewardship Act 2003, McCain-Lieberman SA 2028 Climate Stewardship Act 2005, National Commission on Energy Policy greenhouse gas emissions intensity cap, and Senator Feinstein's Strong Economy and Climate Protection Act). EIA Reference trajectory is a composite of Reference cases in EIA analyses of the above policy proposals.

The emissions trajectories contained in the proposed federal legislation are in fact quite modest compared with emissions reductions that are anticipated to be necessary to achieve stabilization of atmospheric concentrations of greenhouse gases at levels that correspond to temperature increase of about 2 degrees centigrade. Figure 5.2 compares various emission reduction trajectories and goals in relation to a 1990 baseline. US federal proposals, and even Kyoto Protocol reduction targets, are small compared with the current EU emissions reduction target for 2020, and emissions reductions that will ultimately be necessary to cope with global warming.

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[39] Press release, "Udall and Petri introduce legislation to curb global warming," March 29, 2006.

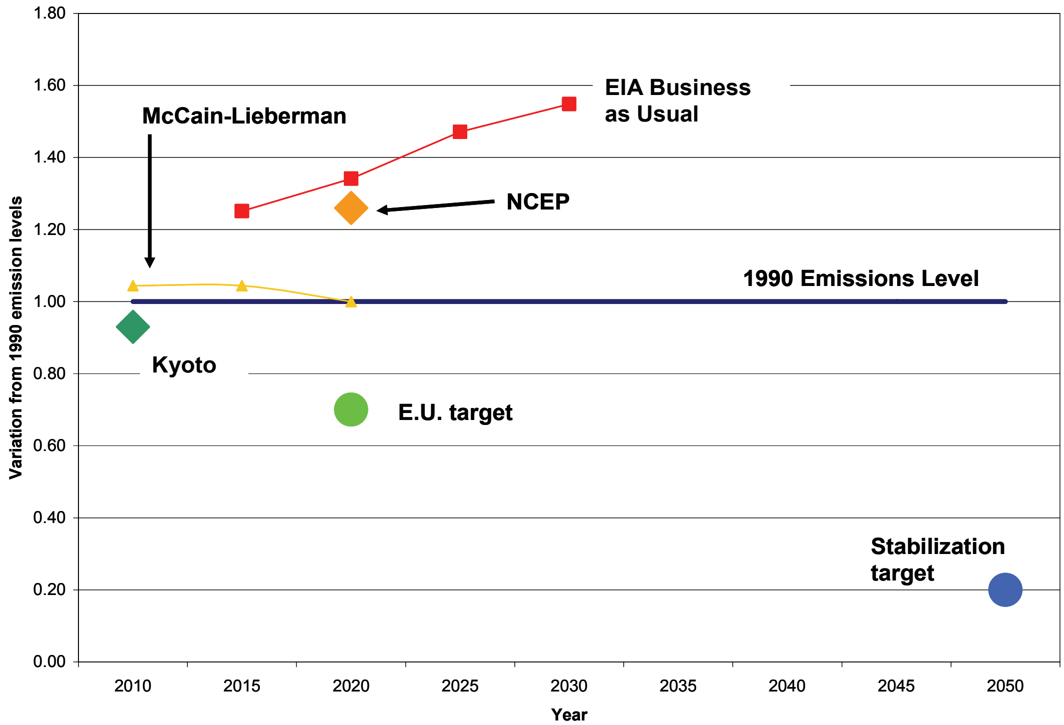

Figure 5.2 Comparison of Emission Reduction Goals

Figure compares emission reduction goals with 1990 as the baseline. Kyoto Protocol target for the United States would have been 7% below 1990 emissions levels. EU target is 20-30% below 1990 emissions levels. Stabilization target represents a reduction of 80% below 1990 levels. While there is no international agreement on the level at which emissions concentrations should be stabilized, and the emissions trajectory to achieve a stabilization target is not determined, reductions of 80% below 1990 levels indicates the magnitude of emissions reductions that are currently anticipated to be necessary.

As illustrated in the above figure, long term emission reduction goals are likely to be much more aggressive than those contained in federal policy proposals to date. Thus it is likely that cost projections will increase as targets become more stringent.

While efforts continue at the federal level, some individual states and regions are adopting their own greenhouse gas mitigation policies. Many corporations are also taking steps, on their own initiative, pursuant to state requirements, or under pressure from shareholder resolutions, in anticipation of mandates to reduce emissions of greenhouse gases. These efforts are described below.

5.2 State and regional policies

Many states across the country have not waited for federal policies and are developing and implementing climate change-related policies that have a direct bearing on resource choices in the electric sector. States, acting individually, and through regional coordination, have been the leaders on climate change policies in the United States. Generally, policies that individual states adopt fall into the following categories: (1) Direct policies that require specific emission reductions from electric generation sources; and (2) Indirect policies that affect electric sector resource mix such as through promoting low-emission electric sources; (3) Legal proceedings; or (4) Voluntary programs including educational efforts and energy planning.

Table 5.2. Summary of Individual State Climate Change Policies

Type of Policy	Examples
Direct	
• Power plant emission restrictions (e.g. cap or emission rate)	• MA, NH
• New plant emission restrictions	• OR, WA
• State GHG reduction targets	• CT, NJ, ME, MA, CA, NM, NY, OR, WA
• Fuel/generation efficiency	• CA vehicle emissions standards to be adopted by CT, NY, ME, MA, NJ, OR, PA, RI, VT, WA
Indirect (clean energy)	
• Load-based GHG cap	• CA
• GHG in resource planning	• CA, WA, OR, MT, KY
• Renewable portfolio standards	• 22 states and D.C.
• Energy efficiency/renewable charges and funding; energy efficiency programs	• More than half the states
• Net metering, tax incentives	• 41 states
Lawsuits	
• States, environmental groups sue EPA to determine whether greenhouse gases can be regulated under the Clean Air Act	• States include CA, CT, ME, MA, NM, NY, OR, RI, VT, and WI
• States sue individual companies to reduce GHG emissions	• NY, CT, CA, IA, NJ, RI, VT, WI
Climate change action plans	• 28 states, with NC and AZ in progress

Several states have adopted direct policies that require specific emission reductions from specific electric sources. Some states have capped carbon dioxide emissions from sources in the state (through rulemaking or legislation), and some restrict emissions from new sources through offset requirements. The California Public Utilities Commission recently stated that it will develop a load-based cap on greenhouse gas emissions in the electric sector. Table 5.3 summarizes these direct policies.

Table 5.3. State Policies Requiring GHG Emission Reductions From Power Plants

Program type	State	Description	Date	Source
Emissions limit	MA	Department of Environmental Protection decision capping GHG emissions, requiring 10 percent reduction from historic baseline	April 1, 2001	310 C.M.R. 7.29
Emissions limit	NH	NH Clean Power Act	May 1, 2002	HB 284
Emissions limit on new plants	OR	Standard for CO_2 emissions from new electricity generating facilities (base-load gas, and non-base load generation)	Updated September 2003	OR Admin. Rules, Ch. 345, Div 24
Emissions limit on new plants	WA	Law requiring new power plants to mitigate emissions or pay for a portion of emissions	March 1, 2004	RCW 80.70.020
Load-based emissions limit	CA	Public Utilities Commission decision stating intent to establish load-based cap on GHG emissions	February 17, 2006	D. 06-02-032 in docket R. 04-04-003

Several states require that integrated utilities or default service suppliers evaluate costs or risks associated with greenhouse gas emissions in long-range planning or resource procurement. Some of the states such as California require that companies use a specific value, while other states require generally that companies consider the risk of future regulation in their planning process. Table 5.4 summarizes state requirements for consideration of greenhouse gas emissions in the planning process.

Table 5.4. Requirements for Consideration of GHG Emissions in Electric Resource Decisions

Program type	State	Description	Date	Source
GHG value in resource planning	CA	PUC requires that regulated utility IRPs include carbon adder of $8/ton CO_2, escalating at 5% per year.	April 1, 2005	CPUC Decision 05-04-024
GHG value in resource planning	WA	Law requiring that cost of risks associated with carbon emissions be included in Integrated Resource Planning for electric and gas utilities	January, 2006	WAC 480-100-238 and 480-90-238
GHG value in resource planning	OR	PUC requires that regulated utility IRPs include analysis of a range of carbon costs	Year 1993	Order 93-695
GHG value in resource planning	NWPCC	Inclusion of carbon tax scenarios in Fifth Power Plan	May, 2006	NWPCC Fifth Energy Plan
GHG value in resource planning	MN	Law requires utilities to use PUC established environmental externalities values in resource planning	January 3, 1997	Order in Docket No. E-999/CI-93-583
GHG in resource planning	MT	IRP statute includes an "Environmental Externality Adjustment Factor" which includes risk due to greenhouse gases. PSC required Northwestern to account for financial risk of carbon dioxide emissions in 2005 IRP.	August 17, 2004	Written Comments Identifying Concerns with NWE's Compliance with A.R.M. 38.5.8209-8229; Sec. 38.5.8219, A.R.M.
GHG in resource planning	KY	KY staff reports on IRP require IRPs to demonstrate that planning adequately reflects impact of future CO_2 restrictions	2003 and 2006	Staff Report On the 2005 Integrated Resource Plan Report of Louisville Gas and Electric Company and Kentucky Utilities Company - Case 2005-00162, February 2006
GHG in resource planning	UT	Commission directs Pacificorp to consider financial risk associated with potential future regulations, including carbon regulation	June 18, 1992	Docket 90-2035-01, and subsequent IRP reviews
GHG in resource planning	MN	Commission directs Xcel to “provide an expansion of CO2 contingency planning to check the extent to which resource mix changes can lower the cost of meeting customer demand under different forms of regulation.”	August 29, 2001	Order in Docket No. RP00-787
GHG in CON	MN	Law requires that proposed non-renewable generating facilities consider the risk of environmental regulation over expected useful life of the facility	2005	Minn. Stat. §216B.243 subd. 3(12)

In June 2005 both California and New Mexico adopted ambitious greenhouse gas emission reduction targets that are consistent with current scientific understanding of the emissions reductions that are likely to be necessary to avoid dangerous human interference with the climate system. In California, an Executive Order directs the state to reduce GHG emissions to 2000 levels by 2010, 1990 levels by 2020, and 80 percent below 1990 levels by 2050. In New Mexico, an Executive Order established statewide goals to reduce New Mexico's total greenhouse gas emissions to 2000 levels by 2012, 10 percent below those levels by 2020, and 75 percent below 2000 levels by 2050. In September 2005 New Mexico also adopted a legally binding agreement to lower emissions through the Chicago Climate Exchange. More broadly, to date at least twenty-eight states have developed Climate Action Plans that include statewide plans for addressing climate change issues. Arizona and North Carolina are in the process of developing such plans.

States are also pursuing other approaches. For example, in November 2005, the governor of Pennsylvania announced a new program to modernize energy infrastructure through replacement of traditional coal technology with advanced coal gasification technology. Energy Deployment for a Growing Economy allows coal plant owners a limited time to continue to operate without updated emissions technology as long as they make a commitment by 2007 to replace older plants with IGCC by 2013.[40] In September of 2005 the North Carolina legislature formed a commission to study and make recommendations on voluntary GHG emissions controls. In October 2005, New Jersey designated carbon dioxide as a pollutant, a necessary step for the state's participation in the Regional Greenhouse Gas Initiative (described below).[41]

Finally, states are pursuing legal proceedings addressing greenhouse gas emissions. Many states have participated in one or several legal proceedings to seek greenhouse gas emission reductions from some of the largest polluting power plants. Some states have also sought a legal determination regarding regulation of greenhouse gases under the Clean Air Act. The most recent case involves 10 states and two cities suing the Environmental Protection Agency to determine whether greenhouse gases can be regulated under the Clean Air Act.[42] The states argue that EPA's recent emissions standards for new sources should include carbon dioxide since carbon dioxide, as a major contributor to global warming, harms public health and welfare, and thus falls within the scope of the Clean Air Act.

While much of the focus to date has been on the electric sector, states are also beginning to address greenhouse gas emissions in other sectors. For example, California has

[40] Press release, "Governor Rendell's New Initiative, 'The Pennsylvania EDGE,' Will Put Commonwealth's Energy Resources to Work to Grow Economy, Clean Environment," November 28, 2005.

[41] Press release, "Codey Takes Crucial Step to Combat Global Warming," October 18, 2005.

[42] The states are CA, CT, ME, MA, NM, NY, OR, RI, VT, and WI. New York City and Washington D.C., as well as the Natural Resources Defense Council, the Sierra Club, and Environmental Defense. New York State Attorney General Eliot Spitzer, "States Sue EPA for Violating Clean Air Act and Failing to Act on Global Warming," press release, April 27, 2006.

adopted emissions standards for vehicles that would restrict carbon dioxide emissions. Ten other states have decided to adopt California's vehicle emissions standards.

States are not just acting individually; there are several examples of innovative regional policy initiatives that range from agreeing to coordinate information (e.g. Southwest governors, and Midwestern legislators) to development of a regional cap and trade program through the Regional Greenhouse Gas Initiative in the Northeast. These regional activities are summarized in Table 5.5, below.

Table 5.5. Regional Climate Change Policy Initiatives

Program type	State	Description	Date	Source
Regional GHG reduction Plan	CT, DE, MD, ME, NH, NJ, NY, VT	Regional Greenhouse Gas Initiative capping GHG emissions in the region and establishing trading program	MOU December 20, 2005, Model Rule February 2006	Memorandum of Understanding and Model Rule
Regional GHG reduction Plan	CA, OR, WA	West Coast Governors' Climate Change Initiative	September 2003, Staff report November 2004	Staff Report to the Governors
Regional GHG coordination	NM, AZ	Southwest Climate Change Initiative	February 28, 2006	Press release
Regional legislative coordination	IL, IA, MI, MN, OH, WI	Legislators from multiple states agree to coordinate regional initiatives limiting global warming pollution	February 7, 2006	Press release
Regional Climate Change Action Plan	New England, Eastern Canada	New England Governors and Eastern Canadian Premiers agreement for comprehensive regional Climate Change Action Plan. Targets are to reduce regional GHG emissions to 1990 levels by 2010, at least 10 percent below 1990 levels by 2020, and long-term reduction consistent with elimination of dangerous threat to climate (75-85 percent below current levels).	August, 2001	Memorandum of Understanding

Seven Northeastern and Mid-Atlantic states (CT, DE, ME, NH, NJ, NY, and VT) reached agreement in December 2005 on the creation of a regional greenhouse gas cap and trade program. The Regional Greenhouse Gas Initiative (RGGI) is a multi-year cooperative effort to design a regional cap and trade program initially covering CO_2 emissions from power plants in the region. Massachusetts and Rhode Island have actively participated in RGGI, but have not yet signed the agreement. Collectively, these states and Massachusetts and Rhode Island (which participated in RGGI negotiations) contribute 9.3 percent of total US CO_2 emissions and together rank as the fifth highest CO_2 emitter in the world. Maryland passed a law in April 2006 requiring participation in RGGI.[43] Pennsylvania, the District of Columbia, the Eastern Canadian Provinces, and New Brunswick are official "observers" in the RGGI process.[44]

The RGGI states have agreed to the following:

- Stabilization of CO_2 emissions from power plants at current levels for the period 2009-2015, followed by a 10 percent reduction below current levels by 2019.
- Allocation of a minimum of 25 percent of allowances for consumer benefit and strategic energy purposes
- Certain offset provisions that increase flexibility to moderate price impacts
- Development of complimentary energy policies to improve energy efficiency, decrease the use of higher polluting electricity generation and to maintain economic growth.[45]

The states released a Model Rule in February 2006. The states must next consider adoption of rules consistent with the Model Rule through their regular legislative and regulatory policies and procedures.

Many cities and towns are also adopting climate change policies. Over 150 cities in the United States have adopted plans and initiatives to reduce emissions of greenhouse gases, setting emissions reduction targets and taking measures within municipal government operations. Climate change was a major issue at the annual US Conference of Mayors convention in June 2005, when the Conference voted unanimously to support a climate protection agreement, which commits cities to the goal of reducing emissions seven percent below 1990 levels by 2012.[46] World-wide, the Cities for Climate Protection Campaign (CCP), begun in 1993, is a global campaign to reduce emissions that cause climate change and air pollution. By 1999, the campaign had engaged more than 350 local governments in this effort, who jointly accounted for approximately seven percent of global greenhouse gas emissions.[47]All of these recent activities contribute to growing pressure within the United States to adopt regulations at a national level to reduce the emissions of greenhouse gases, particularly CO_2. This pressure is likely to increase over time as climate change issues and measures for addressing them become better

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[43] Maryland Senate Bill 154 *Healthy Air Act*, signed April 6, 2006.

[44] Information on this effort is available at www.rggi.org

[45] The MOU states "Each state will maintain and, where feasible, expand energy policies to decrease the use of less efficient or relatively higher polluting generation while maintaining economic growth. These may include such measures as: end-use efficiency programs, demand response programs, distributed generation policies, electricity rate designs, appliance efficiency standards and building codes. Also, each state will maintain and, where feasible, expand programs that encourage development of non-carbon emitting electric generation and related technologies." RGGI MOU, Section 7, December 20, 2005.

[46] the US Mayors Climate Protection Agreement, 2005. Information available at http://www.ci.seattle.wa.us/mayor/climate

[47] Information on the Cities for Climate Protection Campaign, including links to over 150 cities that have adopted greenhouse gas reduction measures, is available at http://www.iclei.org/projserv.htm#ccp

understood by the scientific community, by the public, the private sector, and particularly by elected officials.

5.3 Investor and corporate action

Several electric companies and other corporate leaders have supported the concept of a mandatory greenhouse gas emissions program in the United States. For example, in April 2006, the Chairman of Duke Energy, Paul Anderson, stated:

> From a business perspective, the need for mandatory federal policy in the United States to manage greenhouse gases is both urgent and real. In my view, voluntary actions will not get us where we need to be. Until business leaders know what the rules will be – which actions will be penalized and which will be rewarded – we will be unable to take the significant actions the issue requires.[48]

Similarly, in comments to the Senate Energy and Natural Resources Committee, the vice president of Exelon reiterated the company's support for a federal mandatory carbon policy, stating that "It is critical that we start now. We need the economic and regulatory certainty to invest in a low-carbon energy future."[49] Corporate leaders from other sectors are also increasingly recognizing climate change as a significant policy issue that will affect the economy and individual corporations. For example, leaders from Wal-Mart, GE, Shell, and BP, have all taken public positions supporting the development of mandatory climate change policies.[50]

In a 2004 national survey of electric generating companies in the United States, conducted by PA Consulting Group, about half the respondents believe that Congress will enact mandatory limits on CO_2 emissions within five years, while nearly 60 percent anticipate mandatory limits within the next 10 years. Respondents represented companies that generate roughly 30 percent of US electricity.[51] Similarly, in a 2005 survey of the North American electricity industry, 93% of respondents anticipate increased pressure to take action on global climate change.[52]

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[48] Paul Anderson, Chairman, Duke Energy, "Being (and Staying in Business): Sustainability from a Corporate Leadership Perspective," April 6, 2006 speech to CERES Annual Conference, at: http://www.duke-energy.com/news/mediainfo/viewpoint/PAnderson_CERES.pdf

[49] Elizabeth Moler, Exelon V.P., to the Senate Energy and Natural Resources Committee, April 4, 2006, quoted in Grist, http://www.grist.org/news/muck/2006/04/14/griscom-little/

[50] See, e.g., Raymond Bracy, V.P. for Corporate Affairs, Wal-Mart, Comments to Senate Energy and Natural Resources Committee hearings on the design of CO2 cap-and-trade system, April 4, 2006; David Slump, GE Energy, General Manager, Global Marketing, Comments to Senate Energy and Natural Resources Committee hearings on the design of CO2 cap-and-trade system, April 4, 2006; John Browne, CEO of BP, "Beyond Kyoto," Foreign Affairs, July/August 2004; Shell company website at www.shell.com.

[51] PA Consulting Group, "Environmental Survey 2004" Press release, October 22, 2004.

[52] GF Energy, "GF Energy 2005 Electricity Outlook" January 2005. However, it is interesting to note that climate ranked 11th among issues deemed important to individual companies.

Some investors and corporate leaders have taken steps to manage risk associated with climate change and carbon policy. Investors are gradually becoming aware of the financial risks associated with climate change, and there is a growing body of literature regarding the financial risks to electric companies and others associated with climate change. Many investors are now demanding that companies take seriously the risks associated with carbon emissions. Shareholders have filed a record number of global warming resolutions for 2005 for oil and gas companies, electric power producers, real estate firms, manufacturers, financial institutions, and auto makers.[53] The resolutions request financial risk disclosure and plans to reduce greenhouse gas emissions. Four electric utilities – AEP, Cinergy, TXU and Southern – have all released reports on climate risk following shareholder requests in 2004. In February 2006, four more US electric power companies in Missouri and Wisconsin also agreed to prepare climate risk reports.[54]

State and city treasurers, labor pension fund officials, and foundation leaders have formed the Investor Network on Climate Risk (INCR) which now includes investors controlling $3 trillion in assets. In 2005, the INCR issued "A New Call for Action: Managing Climate Risk and Capturing the Opportunities," which discusses efforts to address climate risk since 2003 and identifies areas for further action. It urges institutional investors, fund managers, companies, and government policymakers to increase their oversight and scrutiny of the investment implications of climate change.[55] A 2004 report cites analysis indicating that carbon constraints affect market value – with modest greenhouse gas controls reducing the market capitalization of many coal-dependent US electric utilities by 5 to 10 percent, while a more stringent reduction target could reduce their market value 10 to 35 percent. [56] The report recommends, as one of the steps that company CEOs should pursue, integrating climate policy in strategic business planning to maximize opportunities and minimize risks.

Institutional investors have formed The Carbon Disclosure Project (CDP), which is a forum for institutional investors to collaborate on climate change issues. Its mission is to inform investors regarding the significant risks and opportunities presented by climate change; and to inform company management regarding the serious concerns of shareholders regarding the impact of these issues on company value. Involvement with the CDP tripled in about two and a half years, from $10 trillion under managements in

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[53] "US Companies Face Record Number of Global Warming Shareholder Resolutions on Wider Range of Business Sectors," CERES press release, February 17, 2005.

[54] "Four Electric Power Companies in Midwest Agree to Disclose Climate Risk," CERES press release February 21, 2006. Companies are Great Plains Energy Inc. in Kansas City, MO, Alliant Energy in Madison, WI, WPS Resources in Green Bay, WI and MGE Energy in Madison, WI.

[55] 2005 Institutional Investor Summit, "A New Call for Action: Managing Climate Risk and Capturing the Opportunities," May 10, 2005. The Final Report from the 2003 Institutional Investors Summit on Climate Risk, November 21, 2003 contains good summary information on risk associated with climate change.

[56] Cogan, Douglas G.; "Investor Guide to Climate Risk: Action Plan and Resource for Plan Sponsors, Fund Managers, and Corporations;" Investor Responsibility Research Center; July 2004 citing Frank Dixon and Martin Whittaker, "Valuing Corporate Environmental Performance: Innovest's Evaluation of the Electric Utilities Industry," New York, 1999.

Nov. 2003 to $31 trillion under management today.[57] The CDP released its third report in September 2005. This report continued the trend in the previous reports of increased participation in the survey, and demonstrated increasing awareness of climate change and of the business risks posed by climate change. CDP traces the escalation in scope and awareness – on behalf of both signatories and respondents – to an increased sense of urgency with respect to climate risk and carbon finance in the global business and investment community.[58]

Findings in the third CDP report included:

- More than 70% of FT500 companies responded to the CDP information request, a jump from 59% in CDP2 and 47% in CDP1.[59]
- More than 90% of the 354 responding FT500 companies flagged climate change as posing commercial risks and/or opportunities to their business.
- 86% reported allocating management responsibility for climate change.
- 80% disclosed emissions data.
- 63% of FT500 companies are taking steps to assess their climate risk and institute strategies to reduce greenhouse gas emissions.[60]

The fourth CDP information request (CDP4) was sent on behalf of 211 institutional investors with significant assets under management to the Chairmen of more than 1900 companies on February 1, 2006, including 300 of the largest electric utilities globally.

The California Public Employees' Retirement System (CalPERS) announced that it will use the influence made possible by its $183 billion portfolio to try to convince companies it invests in to release information on how they address climate change. The CalPERS board of trustees voted unanimously for the environmental initiative, which focuses on the auto and utility sectors in addition to promoting investment in firms with good environmental practices.[61]

Major financial institutions have also begun to incorporate climate change into their corporate policy. For example, Goldman Sachs and JP Morgan support mandatory market-based greenhouse gas reduction policies, and take greenhouse gas emissions into account in their financial analyses. Goldman Sachs was the first global investment bank to adopt a comprehensive environmental policy establishing company greenhouse gas

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[57] See: http://www.cdproject.net/aboutus.asp

[58] Innovest Strategic Value Advisors; "Climate Change and Shareholder Value In 2004," second report of the Carbon Disclosure Project; Innovest Strategic Value Advisors and the Carbon Disclosure Project; May 2004.

[59] FT 500 is the Financial Times' ranking of the top 500 companies ranked globally and by sector based on market capital.

[60] CDP press release, September 14, 2005. Information on the Carbon Disclosure Project, including reports, are available at: http://www.cdproject.net/index.asp.

[61] *Greenwire*, February 16, 2005

reduction targets and supporting a national policy to limit greenhouse gas emissions. [62] JP Morgan, Citigroup, and Bank of America have all adopted lending policies that cover a variety of project impacts including climate change.

Some CEOs in the electric industry have determined that inaction on climate change issues is not good corporate strategy, and individual electric companies have taken steps to reduce greenhouse gas emissions. Their actions represent increasing initiative in the electric industry to address the threat of climate change and manage risk associated with future carbon constraints. Recently, eight US-based utility companies have joined forces to create the "Clean Energy Group." This group's mission is to seek "national four-pollutant legislation that would, among other things… stabilize carbon emissions at 2001 levels by 2013."[63] The President of Duke Energy urges a federal carbon tax, and states that Duke should be a leader on climate change policy.[64] Prior to its merger with Duke, Cinergy Corporation was vocal on its support of mandatory national carbon regulation. Cinergy established a target is to produce 5 percent below 2000 levels by 2010 – 2012. AEP adopted a similar target. FPL Group and PSEG are both aiming to reduce total emissions by 18 percent between 2000 and 2008.[65] A fundamental impediment to action on the part of electric generating companies is the lack of clear, consistent, national guidelines so that companies could pursue emissions reductions without sacrificing competitiveness.

While statements such as these are an important first step, they are only a starting point, and do not, in and of themselves, cause reductions in carbon emissions. It is important to keep in mind the distinction between policy statements and actions consistent with those statements.

6. Anticipating the cost of reducing carbon emissions in the electric sector

Uncertainty about the form of future greenhouse gas reduction policies poses a planning challenge for generation-owning entities in the electric sector, including utilities and non-utility generators. Nevertheless, it is not reasonable or prudent to assume in resource planning that there is no cost or financial risk associated with carbon dioxide emissions, or with other greenhouse gas emissions. There is clear evidence of climate change, federal legislation has been under discussion for the past few years, state and regional regulatory efforts are currently underway, investors are increasingly pushing for companies to address climate change, and the electric sector is likely to constitute one of

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[62] Goldman Sachs Environmental Policy Framework, http://www.gs.com/our_firm/our_culture/corporate_citizenship/environmental_policy_framework/docs/EnvironmentalPolicyFramework.pdf

[63] Jacobson, Sanne, Neil Numark and Paloma Sarria, "Greenhouse Gas Emissions: A Changing US Climate," *Public Utilities Fortnightly*, February 2005.

[64] Paul M. Anderson Letter to Shareholders, March 15, 2005.

[65] Ibid.

the primary elements of any future regulatory plan. Analyses of various economy-wide policies indicate that a majority of emissions reductions will come from the electric sector. In this context and policy climate, utilities and non-utility generators must develop a reasoned assessment of the costs associated with expected emissions reductions requirements. Including this assessment in the evaluation of resource options enables companies to judge the robustness of a plan under a variety of potential circumstances.

This is particularly important in an industry where new capital stock usually has a lifetime of 50 or more years. An analysis of capital cycles in the electric sector finds that "external market conditions are the most significant influence on a firm's decision to invest in or decommission large pieces of physical capital stock.[66] Failure to adequately assess market conditions, including the potential cost increases associated with likely regulation, poses a significant investment risk for utilities. It would be imprudent for any company investing in plants in the electric sector, where capital costs are high and assets are long-lived, to ignore policies that are inevitable in the next five to twenty years. Likewise, it would be short-sighted for a regulatory entity to accept the valuation of carbon emissions at no cost.

Evidence suggests that a utility's overall compliance decisions will be more efficient if based on consideration of several pollutants at once, rather than addressing pollutants separately. For example, in a 1999 study EPA found that pollution control strategies to reduce emissions of nitrogen oxides, sulfur dioxide, carbon dioxide, and mercury are highly inter-related, and that the costs of control strategies are highly interdependent.[67] The study found that the total costs of a coordinated set of actions is less than that of a piecemeal approach, that plant owners will adopt different control strategies if they are aware of multiple pollutant requirements, and that combined SO_2 and carbon emissions reduction options lead to further emissions reductions.[68] Similarly, in one of several studies on multi-pollutant strategies, the Energy Information Administration (EIA) found that using an integrated approach to NO_x, SO_2, and CO_2, is likely to lead to lower total costs than addressing pollutants one at a time.[69] While these studies clearly indicate that federal emissions policies should be comprehensive and address multiple pollutants, they also demonstrate the value of including future carbon costs in current resource planning activities.

There are a variety of sources of information that form a basis for developing a reasonable estimate of the cost of carbon emissions for utility planning purposes. Useful sources include recent market transactions in carbon markets, values that are currently being used in utility planning, and costs estimates based on scenario modeling of proposed federal legislation and the Regional Greenhouse Gas Initiative.

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[66] Lempert, Popper, Resitar and Hart, "Capital Cycles and the Timing of Climate Change Policy." Pew Center on Global Climate Change, October 2002. page

[67] US EPA, *Analysis of Emissions Reduction Options for the Electric Power Industry,* March 1999.

[68] US EPA, *Briefing Report*, March 1999.

[69] EIA, *Analysis of Strategies for Reducing Multiple Emissions from Power Plants: Sulfur Dioxide, Nitrogen Oxides, and Carbon Dioxide*. December 2000.

6.1 International market transactions

Implementation of the Kyoto Protocol has moved forward with great progress in recent years. Countries in the European Union (EU) are now trading carbon in the first international emissions market, the EU Emissions Trading Scheme (ETS), which officially launched on January 1, 2005. This market, however, was operating before that time – Shell and Nuon entered the first trade on the ETS in February 2003. Trading volumes increased steadily throughout 2004 and totaled approximately 8 million tons CO_2 in that year. [70]

Prices for current- and near-term EU allowances (2006-2007) escalated sharply in 2005, rising from roughly $11/ton CO_2 (9 euros/ton-CO_2) in the second half of 2004 and leveling off at about $36/ton CO_2 (28 euros/ton- CO_2) early in 2006. In March 2006, the market price for 2008 allowances hovered at around $32/ton CO_2 (25 euros/ton- CO_2).[71] Lower prices in late April resulted from several countries' announcements that their emissions were lower than anticipated. The EU member states will submit their carbon emission allocation plans for the period 2008-2012 in June. Market activity to date in the EU Emissions trading system illustrates the difficulty of predicting carbon emissions costs, and the financial risk potentially associated with carbon emissions.

With the US decision not to ratify the Kyoto Protocol, US businesses are unable to participate in the international markets, and emissions reductions in the United States have no value in international markets. When the United States does adopt a mandatory greenhouse gas policy, the ability of US businesses and companies to participate in international carbon markets will be affected by the design of the mandatory program. For example, if the mandatory program in the United States includes a safety valve price, it may restrict participation in international markets.[72]

6.2 Values used in electric resource planning

Several companies in the electric sector evaluate the costs and risks associated with carbon emissions in resource planning. Some of them do so at their own initiative, as part of prudent business management, others do so in compliance with state law or regulation.

Some states require companies under their jurisdiction to account for costs and/or risks associated with regulation of greenhouse gas emissions in resource planning. These states include California, Oregon, Washington, Montana, Kentucky (through staff reports), and Utah. Other states, such as Vermont, require that companies take into account environmental costs generally. The Northwest Power and Conservation Council

[70] "What determines the Price of Carbon," Carbon Market Analyst, *Point Carbon*, October 14, 2004.

[71] These prices are from Evolution Express trade data, http://www.evomarkets.com/, accessed on 3/31/06.

[72] See, e.g. Pershing, Jonathan, Comments in Response to Bingaman-Domenici Climate Change White Paper, March 13, 2006. Sandalow, David, Comments in Response to Bingaman-Domenici Climate Change White Paper, The Brookings Institution, March 13, 2006.

includes various carbon scenarios in its Fifth Power Plan. For more information on these requirements, see the section above on state policies.[73]

California has one of the most specific requirements for valuation of carbon in integrated resource planning. The California Public Utilities Commission (PUC) requires companies to include a carbon adder in long-term resource procurement plans. The Commission's decision requires the state's largest electric utilities (Pacific Gas & Electric, Southern California Edison, and San Diego Gas & Electric) to factor the financial risk associated with greenhouse gas emissions into new long-term power plant investments, and long-term resource plans. The Commission initially directed utilities to include a value between \$8–25/ton CO_2 in their submissions, and to justify their selection of a number. [74] In April 2005, the Commission adopted, for use in resource planning and bid evaluation, a CO_2 adder of \$8 per ton of CO_2 in 2004, escalating at 5% per year.[75] The Montana Public Service Commission specifically directed Northwest Energy to evaluate the risks associated with greenhouse gas emissions in its 2005 Integrated Resource Plan (IRP).[76] In 2006 the Oregon Public Utilities Commission (PUC) will be investigating its long-range planning requirements, and will consider whether a specific carbon adder should be required in the base case (Docket UM 1056).

Several electric utilities and electric generation companies have incorporated assumptions about carbon regulation and costs in their long term planning, and have set specific agendas to mitigate shareholder risks associated with future US carbon regulation policy. These utilities cite a variety of reasons for incorporating risk of future carbon regulation as a risk factor in their resource planning and evaluation, including scientific evidence of human-induced climate change, the US electric sector emissions contribution to emissions, and the magnitude of the financial risk of future greenhouse gas regulation.

Some of the companies believe that there is a high likelihood of federal regulation of greenhouse gas emissions within their planning period. For example, Pacificorp states a 50% probability of a CO_2 limit starting in 2010 and a 75% probability starting in 2011. The Northwest Power and Conservation Council models a 67% probability of federal regulation in the twenty-year planning period ending 2025 in its resource plan. Northwest Energy states that CO_2 taxes "are no longer a remote possibility."[77] Table 6.1 illustrates the range of carbon cost values, in \$/ton CO_2, that are currently being used in the industry for both resource planning and modeling of carbon regulation policies.

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[73] For a discussion of the use of carbon values in integrated resource planning see, Wiser, Ryan, and Bolinger, Mark; *Balancing Cost and Risk: The Treatment of Renewable Energy in Western Utility Resource Plans;* Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratories; August 2005. LBNL-58450

[74] California Public Utilities Commission, Decision 04-12-048, December 16, 2004

[75] California Public Utilities Commission, Decision 05-04-024, April 2005.

[76] Montana Public Service Commission, "Written Comments Identifying Concerns with NWE's Compliance with A.R.M. 38.5.8209-8229," August 17, 2004.

[77] Northwest Energy 2005 Electric Default Supply Resource Procurement Plan, December 20, 2005; Volume 1, p. 4.

Table 6.1 CO_2 Costs in Long Term Resource Plans

Company	CO2 emissions trading assumptions for various years ($2005)
PG&E*	$0-9/ton (start year 2006)
Avista 2003*	$3/ton (start year 2004)
Avista 2005	$7 and $25/ton (2010) $15 and $62/ton (2026 and 2023)
Portland General Electric*	$0-55/ton (start year 2003)
Xcel-PSCCo	$9/ton (start year 2010) escalating at 2.5%/year
Idaho Power*	$0-61/ton (start year 2008)
Pacificorp 2004	$0-55/ton
Northwest Energy 2005	$15 and $41/ton
Northwest Power and Conservation Council	$0-15/ton between 2008 and 2016 $0-31/ton after 2016

**Values for these utilities from Wiser, Ryan, and Bolinger, Mark. "Balancing Cost and Risk: The Treatment of Renewable Energy in Western Utility Resource Plans." Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratories. August 2005. LBNL-58450. Table 7.*
Other values: PacifiCorp, Integrated Resource Plan 2003, pages 45-46; and Idaho Power Company, 2004 Integrated Resource Plan Draft, July 2004, page 59; Avista Integrated Resource Plan 2005, Section 6.3; Northwestern Energy Integrated Resource Plan 2005, Volume 1 p. 62; Northwest Power and Conservation Council, Fifth Power Plan pp. 6-7. Xcel-PSCCo, Comprehensive Settlement submitted to the CO PUC in dockets 04A-214E, 215E and 216E, December 3, 2004. Converted to $2005 using GDP implicit price deflator.

These early efforts by utilities have brought consideration of the risks associated with future carbon regulations into the mainstream in resource planning the electric sector.

6.3 Analyses of carbon emissions reduction costs

With the emergence of federal policy proposals in the United States in the past several years, there have been several policy analyses that project the cost of carbon-dioxide equivalent emission allowances under different policy designs. These studies reveal a range of cost estimates. While it is not possible to pinpoint emissions reduction costs given current uncertainties about the goal and design of carbon regulation as well as the inherent uncertainties in any forecast, the studies provide a useful source of information for inclusion in resource decisions. In addition to establishing ranges of cost estimates, the studies give a sense of which factors affect future costs of reducing carbon emissions.

There have been several studies of proposed federal cap and trade programs in the United States. Table 6.2 identifies some of the major recent studies of carbon policy proposals.

Table 6.2. Analyses of US Carbon Policy Proposals

Policy proposal	Analysis
McCain Lieberman – S. 139	EIA 2003, MIT 2003, Tellus 2003
McCain Lieberman – SA 2028	EIA 2004, MIT 2003, Tellus 2004
Greenhouse Gas Intensity Targets	EIA 2005, EIA 2006
Jeffords – S. 150	EPA 2005
Carper 4-P – S. 843	EIA 2003, EPA 2005

Both versions of the McCain and Lieberman proposal (also known as the Climate Stewardship Act) were the subject of analyses by EIA, MIT, and the Tellus Institute. As originally proposed, the McCain Lieberman legislation capped 2010 emissions at 2000 levels, with a reduction in 2016 to 1990 levels. As revised, McCain Lieberman just included the initial cap at 2000 levels without a further restriction. In its analyses, EIA ran several sensitivity cases exploring the impact of technological innovation, gas prices, allowance auction, and flexibility mechanisms (banking and international offsets). [78]

In 2003 researchers at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology also analyzed potential costs of the McCain Lieberman legislation.[79] MIT held emissions for 2010 and beyond at 2000 levels (not modeling the second step of the proposed legislation). Due to constraints of the model, the MIT group studied an economy-wide emissions limit rather than a limit on the energy sector. A first set of scenarios considers the cap tightening in Phase II and banking. A second set of scenarios examines the possible effects of outside credits. And a final set examines the effects of different assumptions about baseline gross domestic product (GDP) and emissions growth.

The Tellus Institute conducted two studies for the Natural Resources Defense Council of the McCain Lieberman proposals (July 2003 and June 2004).[80] In its analysis of the first proposal (S. 139), Tellus relied on a modified version of the National Energy Modeling System that used more optimistic assumptions for energy efficiency and renewable energy technologies based on expert input from colleagues at the ACEEE, the Union of Concerned Scientists, the National Laboratories and elsewhere. Tellus then modeled two policy cases. The "Policy Case" scenario included the provisions of the Climate Stewardship Act (S.139) as well as oil savings measures, a national renewable transportation fuel standard, a national RPS, and emissions standards contained in the Clean Air Planning Act. The "Advanced Policy Case" included the same complimentary energy policies as the "Policy Case" and assumed additional oil savings in the

[78] Energy Information Administration, *Analysis of S. 139, the Climate Stewardship Act of 2003*, EIA June 2003, SR/OIAF/2003-02; Energy Information Administration, *Analysis of Senate Amendment 2028, the Climate Stewardship Act of 2003*, EIA May 2004, SR/OIAF/2004-06

[79] Paltsev, Sergei; Reilly, John M.; Jacoby, Henry D.; Ellerman, A. Denny; Tay, Kok Hou; *Emissions Trading to Reduce Greenhouse Gas Emissions in the United States: the McCain-Lieberman Proposal.* MIT Joint Program on the Science and Policy of Global Change; Report No. 97; June 2003.

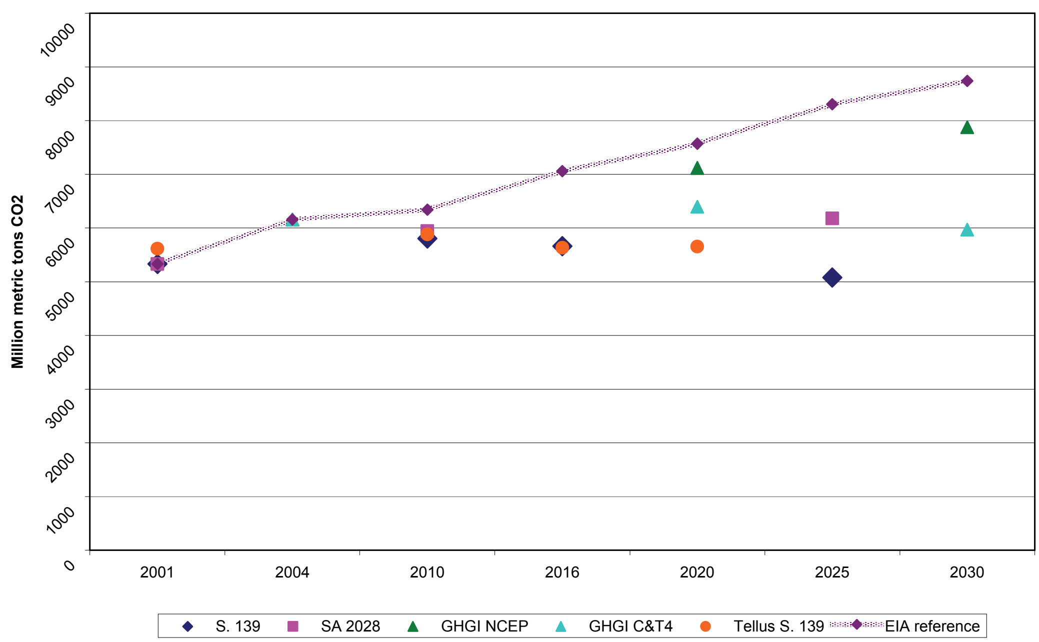
[80] Bailie et al., *Analysis of the Climate Stewardship Act,* July 2003; Bailie and Dougherty, *Analysis of the Climate Stewardship Act Amendment*, Tellus Institute, June, 2004. Available at http://www.tellus.org/energy/publications/McCainLieberman2004.pdf

transportation sector from increase the fuel efficiency of light-duty vehicles (CAFÉ) (25 mpg in 2005, increasing to 45 mpg in 2025).

EIA has also analyzed the effect and cost of greenhouse gas intensity targets as proposed by Senator Bingaman based on the National Commission on Energy Policy, as well as more stringent intensity targets.[81] Some of the scenarios included safety valve prices, and some did not.

In addition to the analysis of economy-wide policy proposals, proposals for GHG emissions restrictions have also been analyzed. Both EIA and the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) analyzed the four-pollutant policy proposed by Senator Carper (S. 843).[82] EPA also analyzed the power sector proposal from Senator Jeffords (S. 150).[83]

Figure 6.1 shows the emissions trajectories that the analyses of economy-wide policies projected for specific policy proposals. The graph does not include projections for policies that would just apply to the electric sector since those are not directly comparable to economy-wide emissions trajectories.



[81] EIA, *Energy Market Impacts of Alternative Greenhouse Gas Intensity Reduction Goals,* March 2006. SR/OIAF/2006-01.

[82] EIA. Analysis of S. 485, the Clear Skies Act of 2003, and S. 843, the Clean Air Planning Act of 2003. EIA Office of Integrated Analysis and Forecasting. SR/OIAF/2003-03. September 2003. US EPA, *Multi-pollutant Legislative Analysis: The Clean Power Act (Jeffords, S. 150 in the 109th)*. US EPA Office of Air and Radiation, October 2005.

[83] US Environmental Protection Agency, *Multi-pollutant Legislative Analysis: The Clean Air Planning Act (Carper, S. 843 in the 108th)*. US EPA Office of Air and Radiation, October 2005.

Figure 6.1. Projected Emissions Trajectories for US Economy-wide Carbon Policy Proposals.

Projected emissions trajectories from EIA and Tellus Institute Analyses of US economy-wide carbon policies. Emissions projections are for "affected sources" under proposed legislation. S. 139 is the EIA analysis of McCain Lieberman Climate Stewardship Act from 2003, SA 2028 is the EIA analysis of McCain Lieberman Climate Stewardship Act as amended in 2005. GHGI NCEP is the EIA analysis of greenhouse gas intensity targets recommended by the National Commission on Energy Policy and endorsed by Senators Bingaman and Domenici, GHGIC&T4 is the most stringent emission reduction target modeled by EIA in its 2006 analysis of greenhouse gas intensity targets, and Tellus S.139 is from the Tellus Institute analysis of S. 139.

Figure 6.2 presents projected carbon allowance costs from the economy-wide and electric sector studies in constant 2005 dollars per ton of carbon dioxide.

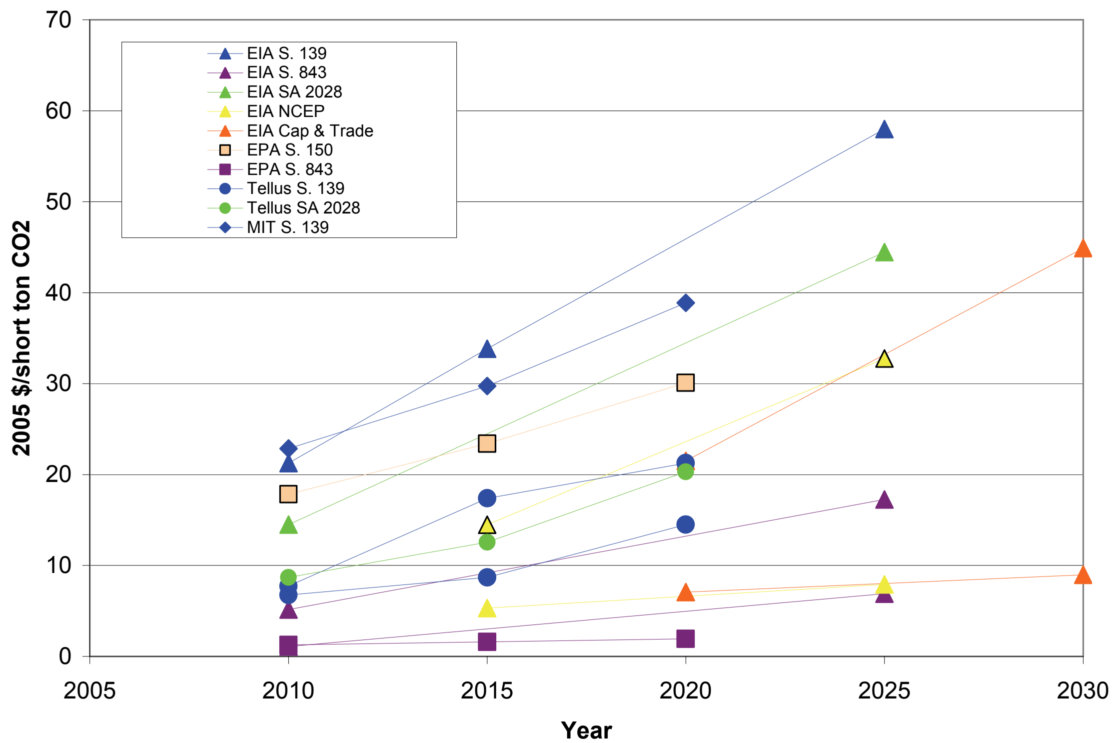


Figure 6.2. Allowance Cost Estimates From Studies of Economy-wide and Electric Sector US Policy Proposals

Carbon emissions price forecasts based on a range of proposed federal carbon regulations. Sources of data include: Triangles – US Energy Information Agency (EIA); Square – US EPA; Circles – Tellus Institute; Diamond – MIT. All values shown have been converted into 2005 dollars per short ton CO2 equivalent. Color-coded policies evaluated include:

***Blue:** S. 139, the McCain-Lieberman Climate Stewardship Act of January 2003. MIT Scenario includes banking and zero-cost credits (effectively relaxing the cap by 15% and 10% in phase I and II, respectively.) The Tellus scenarios are the "Policy" case (higher values) and the "Advanced" case (lower values). Both Tellus cases include complimentary emission reduction policies, with "advance" policy case assuming additional oil savings in the transportation sector from increase the fuel efficiency of light-duty vehicles (CAFÉ).*

***Tan:** S.150, the Clean Power Act of 2005*

***Violet:** S. 843, the Clean Air Planning Act of 2003. Includes international trading of offsets. EIA data include "High Offsets"(lower prices) and "Mid Offsets" (higher prices) cases. EPA data shows effect of tremendous offset flexibility.*

***Bright Green:** SA 2028, the McCain-Lieberman Climate Stewardship Act Amendment of October 2003. This version sets the emissions cap at constant 2000 levels and allows for 15% of the carbon reductions to be met through offsets from non-covered sectors, carbon sequestration and qualified international sources.*

***Yellow:** EIA analysis of the National Commission on Energy Policy (NCEP) policy option recommendations. Lower series has a safety-valve maximum permit price of $6.10 per metric ton CO2 in 2010 rising to $8.50 per metric ton CO2 in 2025, in 2003 dollars. Higher series has no safety value price. Both include a range of complementary policies recommended by NCEP.*

***Orange:** EIA analysis of cap and trade policies based on NCEP, but varying the carbon intensity reduction goals. Lower-priced series (Cap and trade 1) has an intensity reduction of 2.4%/yr from 2010 to 2020 and 2.8%/yr from 2020 to 2030; safety-valve prices are $6.16 in 2010, rising to $9.86 in 2030, in 2004 dollars. Higher-priced series (Cap and trade 4) has intensity reductions of 3% per year and 4% per year for 2010-2020 and 2020-2030, respectively, and safety-valve prices of $30.92 in 2010 rising to $49.47 in 2030, in 2004 dollars.*

The lowest allowance cost results (EPA S. 843, EIA NCEP, and EIA Cap & Trade) correspond to the EPA analysis of a power sector program with very extensive offset use, and to EIA analyses of greenhouse gas intensity targets with allowance safety valve prices. In these analyses, the identified emission reduction target is not achieved because the safety valve is triggered. In EIA GHGI C&T 4, the price is higher because the greenhouse gas intensity target is more stringent, and there is no safety valve. The EIA analysis of S. 843 shows higher cost projections because of the treatment of offsets, which clearly cause a huge range in the projections for this policy. In the EPA analysis, virtually all compliance is from offsets from sources outside of the power sector.

In addition to its recent modeling of US policy proposals, EIA has performed several studies projecting costs associated with compliance with the Kyoto Protocol. In 1998, EIA performed a study analyzing allowance costs associated with six scenarios ranging from emissions in 2010 at 24 percent above 1990 emissions levels, to emissions in 2010 at 7 percent below 1990 emissions levels.[84] In 1999 EIA performed a very similar study, but looked at phasing in carbon prices beginning in 2000 instead of 2005 as in the

[84] EIA, "Impacts of the Kyoto Protocol on US Energy Markets and Economic Activity," October 1998. SR/OIAD/98-03

original study.[85] Carbon dioxide costs projected in these EIA studies of Kyoto targets were generally higher than those projected in the studies of economy-wide legislative proposals due in part to the more stringent emission reduction requirements of the Kyoto Protocol. For example, carbon dioxide allowances for 2010 were projected at $91 per short ton CO_2 ($2005) and $100 per short ton CO_2 ($2005) respectively for targets of seven percent below 1990 emissions levels. While the United States has not ratified the Kyoto Protocol, these studies are informative since they evaluate more stringent emission reduction requirements than those contained in current federal policy proposals. Scientists anticipate that avoiding dangerous climate change will require even steeper reductions than those in the Kyoto Protocol.

The State Working Group of the RGGI in the Northeast engaged ICF Consulting to analyze the impacts of implementing a CO2 cap on the electric sector in the northeastern states. ICF used the IPM model to analyze the program package that the RGGI states ultimately agreed to. ICF's analysis results (in $2004) range from $1-$5/ton CO_2 in 2009 to about $2.50-$12/ton CO_2 in 2024.[86] The lowest CO2 allowance prices are associated with the RGGI program package under the expected emission growth scenario. The costs increase significantly under a high emissions scenario, and increase even more when the high emissions scenario is combined with a national cap and trade program due to the greater demand for allowances in a national program. ICF performed some analysis that included aggressive energy efficiency scenarios and found that those energy efficiency components would reduce the costs of the RGGI program significantly.

In 2003 ICF was retained by the state of Connecticut to model a carbon cap across the 10 northeastern states. The cap is set at 1990 levels in 2010, 5 percent below 1990 levels in 2015, and 10 percent below 1990 levels in 2020. The use of offsets is phased in with entities able to offset 5 percent or their emissions in 2015 and 10 percent in 2020. The CO_2 allowance price, in $US2004, for the 10-state region increases over the forecast period in the policy case, rising from $7/ton in 2010 to $11/ton in 2020.[87]

6.4 Factors that affect projections of carbon cost

Results from a range of studies highlight certain factors that affect projections of future carbon emissions prices. In particular, the studies provide insight into whether the factors increase or decrease expected costs, and to the relationships among different factors. A number of the key assumptions that affect policy cost projections (and indeed policy costs) are discussed in this section, and summarized in Table 6.3.

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[85] EIA, "Analysis of the Impacts of an Early Start for Compliance with the Kyoto Protocol," July 1999. SR/OIAF/99-02.

[86] ICF Consulting presentation of "RGGI Electricity Sector Modeling Results," September 21, 2005. Results of the ICF analysis are available at www.rggi.org

[87] Center for Clean Air Policy, *Connecticut Climate Change Stakeholder Dialogue: Recommendations to the Governors' Steering Committee*, January 2004, p. 3.3-27.

Here we only consider these factors in a qualitative sense, although quantitative meta-analyses do exist.[88] It is important to keep these factors in mind when attempting to compare and survey the range of cost/benefit studies for carbon emissions policies so the varying forecasts can be kept in the proper perspective.

Base case emissions forecast

Developing a business-as-usual case (in the absence of federal carbon emission regulations) is a complex modeling exercise in itself, requiring a wide range of assumptions and projections which are themselves subject to uncertainty. In addition to the question of future economic growth, assumptions must be made about the emissions intensity of that growth. Will growth be primarily in the service sector or in industry? Will technological improvements throughout the economy decrease the carbon emissions per unit of output?

In addition, a significant open question is the future generation mix in the United States. Throughout the 1990s most new generating investments were in natural gas-fired units, which emit much less carbon per unit of output than other fossil fuel sources. Today many utilities are looking at baseload coal due to the increased cost of natural gas, implying much higher emissions per MWh output. Some analysts predict a comeback for nuclear energy, which despite its high cost and unsolved waste disposal and safety issues has extremely low carbon emissions.

A business-as-usual case which included several decades of conventional base load coal, combined with rapid economic expansion, would present an extremely high emissions baseline. This would lead to an elevated projected cost of emissions reduction regardless of the assumed policy mechanism.

Complimentary policies

Complimentary energy policies, such as direct investments in energy efficiency, are a very effective way to reduce the demand for emissions allowances and thereby to lower their market price. A policy scenario which includes aggressive energy efficiency along with carbon emissions limits will result in lower allowances prices than one in which energy efficiency is not directly addressed.[89]

Policy implementation timeline and reduction target

Most "policy" scenarios are structured according to a goal such as achieving "1990 emissions by 2010" meaning that emissions should be decreased to a level in 2010 which

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[88] See, *e.g.*, Carolyn Fischer and Richard D. Morgenstern, *Carbon Abatement Costs: Why the Wide Range of Estimates?* Resources for the Future, September, 2003. http://www.rff.org/Documents/RFF-DP-03-42.pdf

[89] A recent analysis by ACEEE demonstrates the effect of energy efficiency investments in reducing the projected costs of the Regional Greenhouse Gas Initiative. Prindle, Shipley, and Elliott; *Energy Efficiency's Role in a Carbon Cap-and-Trade System: Modeling Results from the Regional Greenhouse Gas Initiative*; American Council for an Energy Efficient Economy, May 2006. Report Number E064.

is no higher than they were in 1990. Both of these policy parameters have strong implications for policy costs, although not necessarily in the intuitive sense. A later implementation date means that there is more time for the electric generating industry to develop and install mitigation technology, but it also means that if they wait to act, they will have to make much more drastic cuts in a short period of time. Models which assume phased-in targets, forcing industry to take early action, may stimulate technological innovations so that later, more aggressive targets can be reached at lower cost.

Program flexibility

The philosophy behind cap and trade regulation is that the rules should specify an overall emissions goal, but the market should find the most efficient way of meeting that goal. For emissions with broad impacts (as opposed to local health impacts) this approach will work best at minimizing cost if maximum flexibility is built into the system. For example, trading should be allowed across as broad as possible a geographical region, so that regions with lower mitigation cost will maximize their mitigation and sell their emission allowances. This need not be restricted to CO_2 but can include other GHGs on an equivalent basis, and indeed can potentially include trading for offsets which reduce atmospheric CO_2 such as reforestation projects. Another form of flexibility is to allow utilities to put emissions allowances "in the bank" to be used at a time when they hold higher value, or to allow international trading as is done in Europe through the Kyoto protocol.

One drawback to programs with higher flexibility is that they are much more complex to administer, monitor, and verify. [90] Emissions reductions must be credited only once, and offsets and trades must be associated with verifiable actions to reduce atmospheric CO_2. A generally accepted standard is the "five-point" test: "at a minimum, eligible offsets shall consist of actions that are real, surplus, verifiable, permanent and enforceable."[91] Still, there is a clear benefit in terms of overall mitigation costs to aim for as much flexibility as possible, especially as it is impossible to predict with certainty what the most cost-effective mitigation strategies will be in the future. Models which assume higher flexibility in all of these areas are likely to predict lower compliance costs for reaching any specified goal.

Technological progress

The rate of improvement in mitigation technology is a crucial assumption in predicting future emissions control costs. This has been an important factor in every major air emissions law, and has resulted, for example, in the pronounced downward trend in allowance prices for SO_2 and NO_x in the years since regulations of those two pollutants were enacted. For CO_2, looming questions include the future feasibility and cost of carbon capture and sequestration, and cost improvements in carbon-free generation

[90] An additional consideration is that greater geographic flexibility reduces potential local co-benefits, discussed below, that can derive from efforts to reduce greenhouse gas emissions.

[91] Massachusetts 310 CMR 7.29.

technologies. Improvements in the efficiency of coal burning technology or in the cost of nuclear power plants may also be a factor.

Reduced emissions co-benefits

Most technologies which reduce carbon emissions also reduce emissions of other criteria pollutants, such as NO_x, SO_2 and mercury. This results in cost savings not only to the generators who no longer need these permits, but also to broader economic benefits in the form of reduced permit costs and consequently lower priced electricity. In addition, there are a number of co-benefits such as improved public health, reduced premature mortality, and cleaner air associated with overall reductions in power plant emissions which have a high economic value to society. Models which include these co-benefits will predict a lower overall cost impact from carbon regulations, as the cost of reducing carbon emissions will be offset by savings in these other areas.

Table 6.3. Factors That Affect Future Carbon Emissions Policy Costs

Assumption	Increases Prices if…	Decreases Prices if…
• **"Base case" emissions forecast**	Assumes high rates of growth in the absence of a policy, strong and sustained economic growth	Lower forecast of business-as-usual" emissions
• **Complimentary policies**	No investments in programs to reduce carbon emissions	Aggressive investments in energy efficiency and renewable energy independent of emissions allowance market
• **Policy implementation timeline**	Delayed and/or sudden program implementation	Early action, phased-in emissions limits.
• **Reduction targets**	Aggressive reduction target, requiring high-cost marginal mitigation strategies	Minimal reduction target, within range of least-cost mitigation strategies
• **Program flexibility**	Minimal flexibility, limited use of trading, banking and offsets	High flexibility, broad trading geographically and among emissions types including various GHGs, allowance banking, inclusion of offsets perhaps including international projects.
• **Technological progress**	Assume only today's technology at today's costs	Assume rapid improvements in mitigation technology and cost reductions
• **Emissions co-benefits**	Ignore emissions co-benefits	Includes savings in reduced emissions of criteria pollutants.

Because of the uncertainties and interrelationships surrounding these factors, forecasting long-range carbon emissions price trajectories is quite complicated and involves significant uncertainty. Of course, this uncertainty is no greater than the uncertainty surrounding other key variables underlying future electricity costs, such as fuel prices, although there are certain characteristics that make carbon emissions price forecasting unique.

One of these is that the forecaster must predict the future political climate. As documented throughout this paper, recent years have seen a dramatic increase in both the documented effects of and the public awareness of global climate change. As these trends continue, it is likely that more aggressive and more expensive emissions policies will be politically feasible. Political events in other areas of the world may be another factor, in that it will be easier to justify aggressive policies in the United States if other nations such as China are also limiting emissions.

Another important consideration is the relationship between early investments and later emissions costs. It is likely that policies which produce high prices early will greatly accelerate technological innovation, which could lead to prices in the following decades which are lower than they would otherwise be. This effect has clearly played a role in NO_x and SO_2 allowance trading prices. However, the effect would be offset to some degree by the tendency for emissions limits to become more restrictive over time, especially if mitigation becomes less costly and the effects of global climate change become increasingly obvious.

6.5 Synapse forecast of carbon dioxide allowance prices

Below we offer an emissions price forecast which the authors judge to represent a reasonable range of likely future CO_2 allowance prices. Because of the factors discussed above and others, it is likely that the actual cost of emissions will not follow a smooth path like those shown here but will exhibit swings between and even outside of our “low” and “high” cases in response to political, technological, market and other factors. Nonetheless, we believe that these represent the most reasonable range to use for planning purposes, given all of the information we have been able to collect and analyze bearing on this important cost component of future electricity generation.

Figure 6.3 shows our price forecasts for the period 2010 through 2030, superimposed upon projections collected from other studies mentioned in this paper.

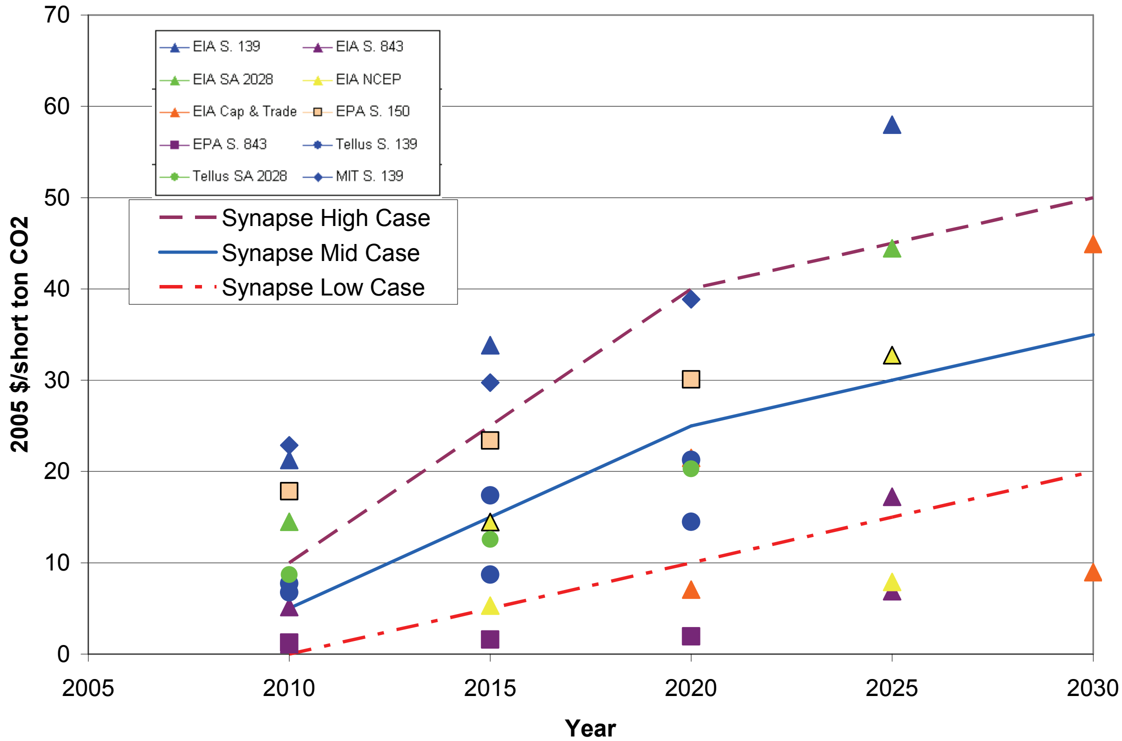

Figure 6.3. Synapse Forecast of Carbon Dioxide Allowance Prices
High, mid and low-case Synapse carbon dioxide emissions price forecasts superimposed on policy model forecasts as presented in Figure 6.2.

In developing our forecast we have reviewed the cost analyses of federal proposals, the Kyoto Protocol, and current electric company use of carbon values in IRP processes, as described earlier in this paper. The highest cost projections from studies of U.S. policy proposals generally reflect a combination of factors including more aggressive emissions reductions, conservative assumptions about complimentary energy policies, and limited or no offsets. For example, some of the highest results come from EIA analysis of the most aggressive emission reductions proposed -- the Climate Stewardship Act, as originally proposed by Senators McCain and Lieberman in 2003. Similarly, the highest cost projection for 2025 is from the EPA analysis of the Carper 4-P bill, S. 843, in a scenario with fairly restricted offset use. The lowest cost projections are from the analysis of the greenhouse gas intensity goal with a safety valve, as proposed by the National Commission on Energy Policy, as well as from an EPA analysis of the Carper 4-P bill, S. 843, with no restrictions on offset use. These highest and lowest cost estimates illustrate the effect of the factors that affect projections of CO_2 emissions costs, as discussed in the previous section.

We believe that the U.S. policies that have been modeled can reasonably be considered to represent the range of U.S. policies that could be adopted in the next several years. However, we do not anticipate the adoption of either the most aggressive or restrictive, or the most lenient and flexible policies illustrated in the range of projections from recent analyses. Thus we consider both the highest and the lowest cost projections from those studies to be outside of our reasonable forecast.

We note that EIA projections of costs to comply with Kyoto Protocol targets were much higher, in the range of \$100/ton CO_2. The higher cost projections associated with the Kyoto Protocol targets, which are somewhat more aggressive than U.S. policy proposals, are consistent with the anticipated effect of a more carbon-constrained future. The EIA analysis also has pessimistic assumptions regarding carbon emission-reducing technologies and complementary policies. The range of values that certain electric companies currently use in their resource planning and evaluation processes largely fall within the high and low cost projections from policy studies. Our forecast of carbon dioxide allowance prices is presented in Table 6.4.

Table 6.4. Synapse forecast of carbon dioxide allowance prices (\$2005/ton CO_2).

	2010	2020	2030	Levelized Value 2011-2030
Synapse Low Case	0	10	20	8.23
Synapse Mid Case	5	25	35	19.83
Synapse High Case	10	40	50	31.43

As illustrated in the table, we have identified what we believe to be a reasonable high, low, and mid case for three time periods: 2010, 2020, and 2030. These high, low, and mid case values for the years in question represent a range of values that are reasonably plausible for use in resource planning. Certainly other price trajectories are possible, indeed likely depending on factors such as level of reduction target, and year of implementation of a policy. We have much greater confidence in the levelized values over the period than we do in any particular annual values or in the specific shape of the price projections.

Using these value ranges, we have plotted cost lines in Figure 6.3 for use in resource analysis. In selecting these values, we have taken into account a variety of factors for the three time periods. While some regions and states may impose carbon emissions costs sooner, or federal legislation may be adopted sooner, our assumption conservatively assumes that implementation of any federal legislative requirements is unlikely before 2010. We project a cost in 2010 of between zero and \$10 per ton of CO_2.

During the decade from 2010 to 2020, we anticipate that a reasonable range of carbon emissions prices reflects the effects of increasing public concern over climate change (this public concern is likely to support increasingly stringent emission reduction requirements) and the reluctance of policymakers to take steps that would increase the cost of compliance (this reluctance could lead to increased emphasis on energy efficiency, modest emission reduction targets, or increased use of offsets). Thus we find the widest uncertainty in our forecasts begins at the end of this decade from \$10 to \$40 per ton of CO_2, depending on the relative strength of these factors.

After 2020, we expect the price of carbon emissions allowances to trend upward toward the marginal mitigation cost of carbon emissions. This number still depends on uncertain factors such as technological innovation and the stringency of carbon caps, but it is likely that the least expensive mitigation options (such as simple energy efficiency and fuel switching) will be exhausted. Our projection for the end of this decade ranges from $20 to $50 per ton of CO_2 emissions.

We think the most likely scenario is that as policymakers commit to taking serious action to reduce carbon emissions, they will choose to enact both cap and trade regimes and a range of complementary energy policies that lead to lower cost scenarios, and that technology innovation will reduce the price of low-carbon technologies, making the most likely scenario closer to (though not equal to) low case scenarios than the high case scenario. The probability of taking this path increases over time, as society learns more about optimal carbon reduction policies.

After 2030, and possibly even earlier, the uncertainty surrounding a forecast of carbon emission prices increases due to interplay of factors such as the level of carbon constraints required, and technological innovation. As discussed in previous sections, scientists anticipate that very significant emission reductions will be necessary, in the range of 80 percent below 1990 emission levels, to achieve stabilization targets that keep global temperature increases to a somewhat manageable level. As such, we believe there is a substantial likelihood that response to climate change impacts will require much more aggressive emission reductions than those contained in U.S. policy proposals, and in the Kyoto Protocol, to date. If the severity and certainty of climate change are such that emissions levels 70-80% below current rates are mandated, this could result in very high marginal emissions reduction costs, though the cost of such deeper cuts has not been quantified on a per ton basis.

On the other hand, we also anticipate a reasonable likelihood that increasing concern over climate change impacts, and the accompanying push for more aggressive emission reductions, will drive technological innovation, which may be anticipated to prevent unlimited cost escalation. For example, with continued technology improvement, coupled with attainment of economies of scale, significant price declines in distributed generation, grid management, and storage technologies, are likely to occur. The combination of such price declines and carbon prices could enable tapping very large supplies of distributed resources, such as solar, low-speed wind and bioenergy resources, as well as the development of new energy efficiency options. The potential development of carbon sequestration strategies, and/or the transition to a renewable energy-based economy may also mitigate continued carbon price escalation.

7. Conclusion

The earth's climate is strongly influenced by concentrations of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere. International scientific consensus, expressed in the Third Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change and in countless peer-reviewed scientific studies and reports, is that the climate system is already being – and will continue to be – disrupted due to anthropogenic emissions of greenhouse gases. Scientists expect increasing atmospheric concentrations of greenhouse gases to cause temperature increases of 1.4 – 5.8 degrees centigrade by 2100, the fastest rate of change since end of the last ice age. Such global warming is expected to cause a wide range of climate impacts including changes in precipitation patterns, increased climate variability, melting of glaciers, ice shelves and permafrost, and rising sea levels. Some of these changes have already been observed and documented in a growing body of scientific literature. All countries will experience social and economic consequences, with disproportionate negative impacts on those countries least able to adapt.

The prospect of global warming and changing climate has spurred international efforts to work towards a sustainable level of greenhouse gas emissions. These international efforts are embodied in the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change. The Kyoto Protocol, a supplement to the UNFCCC, establishes legally binding limits on the greenhouse gas emissions by industrialized nations and by economies in transition.

The United States, which is the single largest contributor to global emissions of greenhouse gases, remains one of a very few industrialized nations that have not signed onto the Kyoto Protocol. Nevertheless, federal legislation seems likely in the next few years, and individual states, regional organizations, corporate shareholders and corporations themselves are making serious efforts and taking significant steps towards reducing greenhouse gas emissions in the United States. Efforts to pass federal legislation addressing carbon emissions, though not yet successful, have gained ground in recent years. And climate change issues have seen an unprecedented level of attention in the United States at all levels of government in the past few years.

These developments, combined with the growing scientific certainty related to climate change, mean that establishing federal policy requiring greenhouse gas emission reductions is just a matter of time. The question is not whether the United States will develop a national policy addressing climate change, but when and how, and how much additional damage will have been incurred by the process of delay. The electric sector will be a key component of any regulatory or legislative approach to reducing greenhouse gas emissions both because of this sector's contribution to national emissions and the comparative ease of controlling emissions from large point sources. While the future costs of compliance are subject to uncertainty, they are real and will be mandatory within the lifetime of electric industry capital stock being planned for and built today.

In this scientific, policy and economic context, it is imprudent for decision-makers in the electric sector to ignore the cost of future carbon emissions reductions or to treat future carbon emissions reductions merely as a sensitivity case. Failure to consider the potential future costs of greenhouse gas emissions under future mandatory emission reductions will result in investments that prove quite uneconomic in the future. Long term resource planning by utility and non-utility owners of electric generation must account for the cost of mitigating greenhouse gas emissions, particularly carbon dioxide. For example, decisions about a company's resource portfolio, including building new power plants, reducing other pollutants or installing pollution controls, avoided costs for efficiency or renewables, and retirement of existing power plants all can be more sophisticated and more efficient with appropriate consideration of future costs of carbon emissions mitigation.

Regulatory uncertainty associated with climate change clearly presents a planning challenge, but this does not justify proceeding as if no costs will be associated with carbon emissions in the future. The challenge, as with any unknown future cost driver, is to forecast a reasonable range of costs based on analysis of the information available. This report identifies many sources of information that can form the basis of reasonable assumptions about the likely costs of meeting future carbon emissions reduction requirements.

Additional Costs Associated with Greenhouse Gases

It is important to note that the greenhouse gas emission reduction requirements contained in federal legislation proposed to date, and even the targets in the Kyoto Protocol, are relatively modest compared with the range of emissions reductions that are anticipated to be necessary for keeping global warming at a manageable level. Further, we do not attempt to calculate the full cost to society (or to electric utilities) associated with anticipated future climate changes. Even if electric utilities comply with some of the most aggressive regulatory requirements underlying our CO_2 price forecasts presented above, climate change will continue to occur, albeit at a slower pace, and more stringent emissions reductions will be necessary to avoid dangerous changes to the climate system.

The consensus from the international scientific community clearly indicates that in order to stabilize the concentration of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere and to try to keep further global warming trends manageable, greenhouse gas emissions will have to be reduced significantly below those limits underlying our CO_2 price forecasts. The scientific consensus expressed in the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change Report from 2001 is that greenhouse gas emissions would have to decline to a very small fraction of current emissions in order to stabilize greenhouse gas concentrations, and keep global warming in the vicinity of a 2-3 degree centigrade temperature increase. Simply complying with the regulations underlying our CO_2 price forecasts does not eliminate the ecological and socio-economic threat created by CO_2 emissions – it merely mitigates that threat.

Incorporating a reasonable CO_2 price forecast into electricity resource planning will help address electricity consumer concerns about prudent economic decision-making and direct impacts on future electricity rates. However, current policy proposals are just a first step in the direction of emissions reductions that are likely to ultimately be necessary. Consequently, electric sector participants should anticipate increasingly stringent regulatory requirements. In addition, anticipating the financial risks associated with greenhouse gas regulation does not address all the ecological and socio-economic concerns posed by greenhouse gas emissions. Regulators should consider other policy mechanisms to account for the remaining pervasive impacts associated with greenhouse gas emissions.

This report is unchanged from the August 31, 2006 version except for the correction of a graphical error.

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BEFORE THE NEW MEXICO PUBLIC REGULATION COMMISSION

NOTICE OF INQUIRY INTO ADOPTION OF STAGED STANDARDIZED CARBON EMISSIONS COSTS	)))))	Case No. 06-00448-UT

ORDER APPROVING RECOMMENDED DECISION AND ADOPTING STANDARDIZED CARBON EMISSIONS COSTS FOR INTEGRATED RESOURCE PLANS

THIS MATTER comes before the New Mexico Public Regulation Commission ("Commission") upon the Recommended Decision issued by Hearing Examiner William J. Herrmann on May 16, 2007. Having considered the Recommended Decision and the record in this case and being fully apprised in the premises,

THE COMMISSION FINDS AND CONCLUDES:

1. The Commission has jurisdiction over the parties and the subject matter of this case.

2. The Recommended Decision is well taken and should be adopted.

3. The Statement of the Case and Discussion contained in the Recommended Decision, attached to this Final Order as Exhibit 1, are incorporated by reference as if fully set forth in this Final Order, and are ADOPTED, APPROVED, and ACCEPTED as Findings and Conclusions of the Commission.

4. As contemplated in the Recommended Decision, the Commission should adopt the standardized prices for carbon emissions set out in the Recommended Decision for utilities to use when filing their Integrated Resource Plans, beginning with their next filing, to be analyzed as an operating cost starting in 2010.

5. The standardized prices for carbon emissions should be escalated as provided by the Recommended Decision, and may be revised as provided in the Recommended Decision.

IT IS THEREFORE ORDERED:

A. The Recommended Decision is ADOPTED, APPROVED, and ACCEPTED in its entirety.

B. The standardized prices for carbon emissions set out in the Recommended Decision for utilities to use when filing their Integrated Resource Plans, beginning with their next filing, are hereby adopted by the Commission, to be analyzed as an operating cost starting in 2010.

C. The standardized prices adopted for carbon emissions shall be escalated at 2.5% per year, starting in 2011.

D. The Commission may revise the standardized prices for carbon emissions as provided in the Recommended Decision, and shall be posted to the Commission's website.

E. This Order is effective immediately.

F. A copy of this Order, including Exhibit 1, shall be served on all persons listed on the attached Certificate of Service.

G. This docket is hereby closed.

Issued under the seal of the Commission at Santa Fe, New Mexico, this 19th day of June 2007.

NEW MEXICO PUBLIC REGULATION COMMISSION

BEN R. LUJAN, CHAIRMAN

JASON MARKS, VICE CHAIRMAN

DAVID W. KING, COMMISSIONER

CAROL K. SLOAN, COMMISSIONER

SANDY JONES, COMMISSIONER

BEFORE THE NEW MEXICO PUBLIC REGULATION COMMISSION

NOTICE OF INQUIRY INTO ADOPTION OF STAGED STANDARDIZED CARBON EMISSIONS COSTS	))))	**Case No. 06-00448-UT**

RECOMMENDED DECISION OF THE HEARING EXAMINER

THIS MATTER comes before William J. Herrmann, Hearing Examiner in this proceeding to issue the following Recommended Decision to the New Mexico Public Regulation Commission ("Commission").

STATEMENT OF THE CASE

On October 31, 2006, the Commission issued a Notice of Inquiry regarding the adoption of staged standardized carbon emissions costs for use by electric utilities in their respective Integrated Resource Plans ("IRP"). The Commission appointed the undersigned as Hearing Examiner to manage a workshop process and to issue a report proposing a staged standardized carbon emissions costs rule if appropriate.

Workshops were held on January 9, 2007, and January 30, 2007. As a result of these workshops, the Hearing Examiner scheduled a workshop to receive outside consultant reports.

On March 28, 2007, a workshop was held for the presentation of three reports on carbon emissions pricing. David Schlissel and Anna Sommer of Synapse presented their report on the appropriate range for CO_2 adders in IRPs; Tom Wilson of EPRI gave a presentation on Co_2 prices in voluntary and mandatory markets and the use of Co_2 prices in economic analysis; and Galen Barbose of LBNL detailed how other utilities accounted for the potential costs of carbon emissions removal in their IRPs.

EXHIBIT
1

On April 12, 2007, Public Service Company of New Mexico ("PNM"), Southwestern Public Service Company ("SPS") and El Paso Electric Company ("EPE") submitted their initial comments on a proposed carbon emissions costs rule. On April 19, 2007, the Coalition for Clean Affordable Energy ("CCAE") filed their comments. A workshop was conducted on April 26, 2007 to discuss these comments.

On April 27, 2007, the Hearing Examiner issued a proposed guideline for the inclusion of standardized cost of carbon emissions in IRPs. Comments on this proposal were submitted by PNM, CCAE and Commission Staff.

DISCUSSION

The active parties participating in this docket propose that the Commission issue an order regarding the cost of carbon emissions in Integrated Resource Plans for electric utilities and not initiate a rulemaking proceeding. With the input of the parties, the Hearing Examiner recommends that the Commission include the following provisions:

1. As contemplated in 17.7.3.9G(2)(c) NMAC, each electric utility will include a standardized cost of carbon emissions calculated in accordance with this order when it files its electric Integrated Resource Plan required by 17.7.3.9 NMAC.

2. With respect to fossil-fuel resources that emit CO_2 gas, electric utilities will use the following standardized prices for carbon emissions when filing their Integrated Resource Plan:

   a. \$8 per metric ton of CO_2 emissions for the utility's low price sensitivity analysis;

   b. \$20 per metric ton of CO_2 emissions for the utility's medium price sensitivity analysis;

c. \$40 per metric ton of CO_2 emissions for the utility's high price sensitivity analysis; and

d. Additionally, an electric utility may propose and utilize other CO_2 emissions prices for the utility's price sensitivity or other approaches that are fair and reasonable and consistent with the overall purpose of 17.7.3 NMAC.

3. The CO_2 prices will be analyzed as an operating cost starting in 2010. The proxy prices required by this order will be used in both the initial economic screening of new resources and in the later dynamic portfolio optimization steps.

4. The standardized cost of carbon emissions will be escalated at 2.5% annually starting in 2011.

5. The standardized prices for carbon emissions set by the Commission at the beginning of an electric utility's IRP Public Advisory process are the prices that will be used for completion of that IRP.

6. The Commission may amend this order as the result of any of the following events:

a. If federal carbon regulations are adopted and the Commission believes that amendment of this order to align with those regulations would be fair and reasonable and consistent with the overall purpose of 17.7.3 NMAC;

b. If the Commission finds that there is a robust market for trading carbon emissions allowances and/or offsets; or

c. If other circumstances change and the Commission believes that amendment of this order to account for the changed circumstances would be fair and reasonable and consistent with the overall purpose of 17.7.3. NMAC.

7. The Commission's designation of standardized high, medium and low per metric ton costs for atomospheric carbon emissions does not create a presumption of reasonableness for any of these standardized costs levels and does not preclude any utility or any participant from proposing any other cost per metric ton figure or any other alternative approach for dealing with such emissions in the IRP process.

I S S U E D at Santa Fe, New Mexico, this 16th day of May, 2007.

NEW MEXICO PUBLIC REGULATION COMMISSION

William J. Herrman

WILLIAM J. HERRMAN
Hearing Examiner

Carbon Dioxide Emission Allowance Prices
Assessment of U.S. Cap-and -Trade Proposals (April 2007)
M.I.T. Joint Program on the Science and Policy of Global Change
(2005$/Ton)

Scenario	2010	2015	2020	2025	2030	2035	2040	2045	2050
Reference Case									
Core Scenario - High	$0.00	$53.17	$64.69	$78.70	$95.76	$116.50	$141.74	$172.45	$209.81
Core Scenario - Mid	$0.00	$40.92	$49.79	$60.58	$73.70	$89.67	$109.10	$132.74	$161.49
Core Scenario - Low	$0.00	$17.72	$21.56	$26.23	$31.92	$38.83	$47.25	$57.48	$69.94
Developed countries only pursue mitigation - High	$0.00	$46.73	$56.85	$69.16	$84.15	$102.38	$124.56	$151.55	$184.38
Developed countries only pursue mitigation - Mid	$0.00	$26.10	$31.78	$38.64	$47.01	$57.19	$69.58	$84.66	$103.00
Developed countries only pursue mitigation - Low	$0.00	$12.41	$15.09	$18.36	$22.34	$27.18	$33.07	$40.24	$48.96
International emissions trading - High	$0.00	$0.02	$0.72	$22.87	$36.53	$109.74	$121.35	$140.77	$155.63
International emissions trading - Mid	$0.00	$0.02	$0.35	$19.39	$31.92	$100.91	$108.51	$123.61	$137.67
International emissions trading - Low	$0.00	$0.01	$0.13	$13.09	$23.09	$77.41	$84.74	$92.96	$101.69
Limited sectoral coverage - High	$0.00	$40.92	$49.79	$60.58	$73.70	$89.67	$109.10	$132.74	$161.49
Limited sectoral coverage - Mid	$0.00	$30.61	$37.25	$45.31	$55.13	$67.08	$81.61	$99.29	$120.80
Limited sectoral coverage - Low	$0.00	$13.70	$16.66	$20.27	$24.66	$30.01	$36.51	$44.42	$54.04
No banking - High	$0.00	$16.60	$47.98	$64.23	$76.60	$119.74	$237.26	$624.73	$2,559.38
No banking - Mid	$0.00	$10.05	$30.25	$53.25	$64.50	$107.92	$121.49	$139.59	$261.76
No banking - Low	$0.00	$6.28	$10.46	$12.09	$26.23	$53.10	$77.31	$92.69	$76.67
No biofuel trading - High	$0.00	$66.70	$81.16	$98.74	$120.13	$146.16	$177.82	$216.22	$263.22
No biofuel trading - Mid	$0.00	$49.30	$59.98	$72.98	$88.79	$108.03	$131.43	$159.91	$194.55
No biofuel trading - Low	$0.00	$17.66	$21.48	$26.14	$31.80	$38.69	$47.08	$52.27	$69.68
Nuclear expansion - High	$0.00	$13.70	$16.66	$20.27	$24.66	$30.01	$36.51	$44.42	$54.04
Nuclear expansion - Mid	$0.00	$40.60	$49.40	$60.10	$73.12	$88.97	$108.24	$131.69	$160.22
Nuclear expansion - Low	$0.00	$50.27	$61.16	$74.41	$90.53	$110.15	$134.01	$163.05	$198.37
Safety Valve: Safety valve price revised in 2030	$0.00	$7.02	$8.97	$11.44	$29.20	$37.26	$47.56	$60.69	$77.46
Safety Valve: US and rest of world pursue mitigation	$0.00	$7.02	$8.97	$11.44	$14.60	$18.64	$23.79	$30.36	$38.75
Safety Valve: US only pursues mitigation	$0.00	$7.02	$8.97	$11.44	$14.60	$18.64	$23.79	$30.36	$38.75
US only pursues mitigation - High	$0.00	$46.40	$56.46	$68.69	$83.57	$101.67	$123.70	$150.50	$183.11
US only pursues mitigation - Mid	$0.00	$20.30	$24.70	$30.05	$36.56	$44.48	$54.12	$65.85	$80.11
US only pursues mitigation - Low	$0.00	$9.99	$21.15	$14.79	$17.99	$21.89	$26.63	$32.40	$39.42
Quadratic Path: 50% below 1990 levels (230 bmt)	$0.00	$35.45	$43.13	$52.47	$63.84	$77.67	$94.50	$114.97	$139.88
Quadratic Path: 80% below 1990 levels (206 bmt)	$0.00	$41.89	$50.87	$62.01	$75.44	$91.79	$111.68	$135.87	$165.31

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RESEARCH

Increasing Construction Costs Could Hamper U.S. Utilities' Plans To Build New Power Generation

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As a result of declining reserve margins in some U.S. regions the U.S. brought about by a sustained growth of the economy, the domestic power industry is in the midst of an expansion. Standing in the way are capital costs of new generation that have risen substantially over the past three years. Cost pressures have been caused by demands of global infrastructure expansion. In the domestic power industry, cost pressures have arisen from higher demand for pollution control equipment, expansion of the transmission grid, and new generation.

While the industry has experienced buildout cycles in the past, what makes the current environment different is the supply-side resource challenges faced by the construction industry. A confluence of resource limitations have contributed, which Standard & Poor's Ratings Services broadly classifies under the following categories:

- Global demand for commodities,
- Material and equipment supply,
- Relative inexperience of new labor force, and
- Contractor availability.

The power industry has seen capital costs for new generation climb by more than 50% in the past three years, with more than 70% of this increase resulting from engineering, procurement, and construction (EPC) costs. Continuing demand, both domestic and international, for EPC services will likely keep costs at elevated levels. As a result, it is possible that with declining reserve margins, utilities could end up building generation at a time when labor and materials shortages cause capital costs to rise, well north of $2,500 per kW for supercritical coal plants and approaching $1,000 per kW for combined-cycle gas turbines (CCGT) (1). In a separate yet key point, as capital costs rise, energy efficiency and demand side management, already important from a climate change perspective, become even more crucial as any reduction in demand will mean lower requirement for new capacity.

Increasing capital costs will affect market participants to varying degrees. For regulated utilities, regulation remains the dominant credit driver. The key credit consideration for utilities with plants under development will be the preapproval of costs in rate base and timeliness of allowed returns as construction progresses. For utilities that choose to accept additional risks posed by nontraditional EPC contracts, agreements for recovery of potential cost increases or self-insurance against contingencies through reserve funds will also be important.

Construction risks of large projects undertaken by unregulated generation affiliates of diversified energy companies may affect the consolidated business risk profile, especially if costs aren't locked in and overages must be recovered from competitive market revenues. Project-financed, single-asset constructions that rely on nonstandard EPC contracts could be challenged to reach investment-grade ratings even if they are fully contracted post-construction.

The Resource Challenge

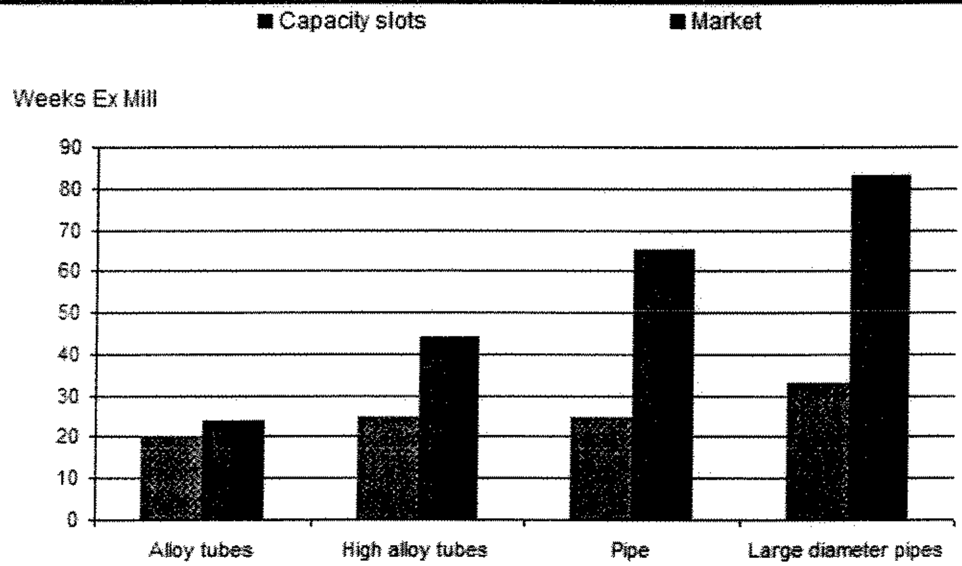
Global demand for commodities

A rapid increase in global demand, predominantly from Asia, has resulted in a sharp increase in prices for commodities important in the power sector. Some industry sources estimate that China's consumption accounted for about 40% of world cement supply and 25% of world steel supply in 2005 (2). A number of construction materials have seen a dramatic price increase in each of the years since the first quarter of 2004, and still remain at elevated levels. Prices of steel--up 50% in first half of 2004 alone--leveled off in 2005 but were on the rise again in 2007, up 20% over December 2005 (3). Copper products (up 60% since December 2005) and cement (up 15% since 2005) are the current drivers for continuing upward price pressures.

Material and equipment supply

In recent years, price competitiveness has encouraged (read: forced) original equipment manufacturers to employ global sourcing for raw material and fabrication needs. But here too the rapid growth in Asia, which is drawing on global supply for raw materials, is resulting in longer lead times and price increases. An example of this rapid growth is China: It went from an exporter of iron ore to being the world's largest importer by 2004 (4). Lead times for materials have increased (see chart) as raw material suppliers and fabrication facilities are taking reservation fees in order to secure availability of material and fabrication slots.

Tube And Pipe Leadtimes*



*As of March 2007. Source: Burns & Roe. Market implies no reservation.
© Standard & Poor's 2007.

Relative inexperience of new labor

While an extreme materials price escalation may have run its course, labor costs are becoming the new driver for industry inflation. The Construction Cost Index (CCI) (4) and the Building Cost Index (BCI) have increased at a compound annual growth rate of 5% and 5.5%, respectively, over the past three years. We learned in discussions with EPC contractors that the cost of labor has nearly doubled since the last round of construction in 2001. This labor cost and supply situation is due to a significant amount of construction experience that has retired and replaced by a new, less experienced work force resulting in reductions in labor productivity. And it could get worse: In the engineering sector, over 45% of labor will be eligible for retirement over the next five years. At the same time, strong global labor construction demand is leading to shortages of skilled labor, especially in the energy sector, which threatens the schedule and in-service dates of projects.

Contractor availability

Only a few contractors can absorb the risk of major construction projects. Sponsors are seeing more single bidder projects and an overall reduction in the number of bidders for projects.

Contract provisions are changing

The supply-side issues are causing a change in contract provisions offered by the construction industry. EPC contracts with guaranteed prices that shield utilities from cost overruns are now either very expensive, contain clauses that one can drive a truck through, or simply aren't offered. Simultaneously, we have seen the advent of risk-sharing mechanisms such as multi-prime contracting (EPCM), which distributes construction risk between contractor and sponsor but lowers installed cost.

To be clear though, the record of construction over the past few years when contractors got hit with performance penalties is another reason that contract provisions have changed. Still, the supply issues have allowed contractors the upper hand. We have increasingly seen the use of adjustment clauses as contractors respond to material price escalations, including:

- Material escalation clauses that track the actual variation of prices from bid amounts,
- The use of indices to adjust prices, commonly CCI (which assigns a higher weighting to labor costs) and also the Materials Cost Index,
- An escalation allowance line item in contracts that serves as a cap for the contractor to recover unanticipated cost increases,
- The use of surcharges typically to limit fuel-only escalations, and
- The re-emergence of cost-based plus contracting.

Extent Of Cost Increase

We assessed the magnitude of cost increases by comparing coal projects under construction during 2003 to 2006. Table 1 lists some coal-fired generation projects currently under development:

Table 1

Coal Plants Under Construction

Power plant	Location	Primary owner	Size (MW)	Type of unit	EPC contract	Year EPC contracted	Broke ground	Expected completion	Project cost ($ per kW)
Council Bluffs Unit 4	Iowa	MidAmerican Energy Co.	790	Super-critical	Fixed	2002	2003	2007	1,816
Elm Road	Wisconsin	Wisconsin Energy Corp.	1,230	Super-critical	Fixed	2002/2003	2004	2009/2010	1,781
Weston 4	Wisconsin	WPS Resources Corp.	500	Super-critical	Multi-prime	2002/2003	2004	2008	1,560
Nebraska City 2	Nebraska	Omaha Public Power District	653	Sub critical	Fixed	2004	2005	2009	1,600
Iatan Unit 2	Missouri	Kansas City Power & Light Co.	850	Super-critical	Multi-prime	December 2005	2006	2010	1,965
Plum Point	Arkansas	Plum Point Energy Associates	663	Sub-critical	Fixed	2005	2006	2010	2,150
LongView	Pennsylvania	LongView Power LLC	695	Super-critical	Multi	2006	2007	2010	2,600

Sub and supercritical technologies result in minor differences to capital cost. Adjustments were made to AFUDC/funded interest to make the comparison relevant. Some projects also have modest other costs such as coal cars or transmission connects. AFUDC--Allowance for funds used during construction. EPC--Engineering, procurement, and construction.

The sample is small but the trend is evident. Broadly, capital costs have risen, from about $1,700 per kW in 2003-2004 to about $2,500 per kW by year-end 2006. The increase was sharp from 2005 to 2006. A key comparison is between Nebraska City #2 (NC#2) and the Plum Point Project as these two allow us to control all other cost variables--they are of similar size and have a fixed priced EPC that is contracted with the same construction consortium (we recognize that the existing site gives NC#2 some advantages). The important distinction is that the construction contracting was a year apart. Capital costs for Plum Point were almost 35% higher. The fixed price EPC component for Plum Point was almost 40% higher, increasing to nearly $1,325 per kW compared with $960 per kW for NC#2. For the Longview project, which completed construction contract negotiations a year after Plum Point, the EPC contract price is a further 30% higher at about $1,700 per kW.

New combined-cycle plants have similar issues

We had informal discussions with some EPC contractors to determine the effect on new combined-cycle plants (see table 2). The theme is similar. Labor costs have nearly doubled since the last construction cycle, from about 25% to nearly 40% of total project cost. Other factors included higher costs of commodities like copper, steel, and cement, somewhat offset by reductions in turbine costs. The range of about $745 to $785 per kW is about 20% to 25% higher than costs in 2002. The high range is about 60% higher than price in 2002.

Table 2

Combined-Cycle Plant Cost Comparison*

($ per kW)	EPC 1	EPC 2 low range	EPC 3	Average	EPC 1 high range	EPC 2 High Range
EPC cost	630	615	650	632	870	760
Soft cost¶	160	125	195	160	220	225
Total	790	740	845	792	1090	985

*Costs estimated by three different EPC contractors. Estimates are identified as EPC 1, EPC 2, and EPC 3. ¶Soft costs include water supply, finance, legal, IDC, and natural gas pipe connects. EPC--Engineering, procurement, and construction.

Still, these units have shorter construction lead times and can be carried on utilities' balance sheets without significant credit impact. Together with potential future costs relating to climate change, we could see the cancellation of some coal-fired construction projects and a shift in favor of natural gas fired units. However, supply, longer-term prices, and volatility of natural gas will remain concerns.

Credit Implications For Industry Participants

Because the electric industry is entering a period of sustained building after a prolonged absence, companies are again highly dependent on regulatory decisions for full recovery of these growing costs. There has also been a shift in this round of heavy construction to predominantly rate-based recovery as regulated utilities undertake many large projects. However, regulators are dealing with cost pressures from a variety of other factors, such as expiring frozen/capped periods, fuel cost recovery, distribution related base rate requests, and extensive spending related to environmental emissions control. After the relatively calm period of transition/rate freeze agreements between 1996 and 2005, the sheer volume of rate cases facing regulators will pose a challenge. Balancing competing priorities of maintaining reliability and avoiding rate shocks will be an unenviable job, and some rate-case orders may result in regulatory deferrals or even pressure the full recoverability of rate-based plants, which could weaken some utilities' credit quality.

Recognizing the need for new power, some states are enacting laws that allow utilities to seek regulatory decisions that effectively preapprove the costs of new generation facilities. Rulemaking clarity is also being provided by specifying the rate-making principles that commissions will apply when that new generation can be placed in the utility's rate base. House Bill 577 in Iowa, Senate Bill 79 in Wisconsin, Senate Bill 1416 in Virginia, and House Bill 1910 in Oklahoma are examples of such efforts. While the laws in Wisconsin, Oklahoma, and Virginia remain untested, MidAmerican Energy Co. used Iowa's HF 577 to seek preapproval of its 60.67% ownership interest in the Council Bluffs facility. Pursuant to rate settlements in Iowa, MidAmerican Energy will be permitted to include in its rate base the Iowa portion of up to $682.5 million in construction costs and earn a 12.29% return on equity once the 790 MW plant is completed. Costs exceeding this cap would be recoverable if determined to have been prudently incurred.

Credit implications for regulated utilities should be fairly straight forward. As long as the utility in the process of building a large project has access to protective safeguards like regulatory preapproval for construction, timely recovery on capital work in progress, and other cost-recovery mechanisms, it can meaningfully mitigate the large risks posed by construction projects. Still, these utilities will have to manage overall risks during the construction process to avoid cost overruns. For example, despite their approved fixed-price EPC construction for the Elm Road project, Wisconsin Energy Corp. and Madison Gas & Electric Co. will have to absorb cost escalations from more stringent environmental requirements if overall cost overruns exceed 5% of the approved capital cost.

Regulated utilities that forego the protection of a fixed EPC will increase their exposure to construction risk from material cost increases, scheduling delays, and performance issues. In such cases, we look for regulatory pre-agreements that lessen the risk of disallowance or restricted reserves that mitigate the risk of overruns. Some utilities also address risk by partaking in large projects through joint ownership interest. Utilities have also used a combination of these strategies. The Iaton 2 project is a good example of a EPCM approach that is structured to protect its owners' credit quality. The project has five owners, but two owners, Kansas City Power & Light Co. and Empire District Electric Co., are allowed to accelerate plant-related amortization expense in rate proceedings occurring before the in-service date, and the project has nearly 12.5% of project costs in contingency reserves.

Unregulated generation companies can't recover any of their capital investment through regulated means and must rely on market prices to recover these investments. The current environment of increasing prices has pressured the economics of merchant generation. While capacity markets can provide visibility into market-based revenues in some areas, they have not developed enough to provide the certainty needed to support generation projects with long lead times. However, the capacity clearing price of PJM's first reliability pricing model auction for the eastern Mid-Atlantic Area Council subregion is close to the price that can support new CCGT capital costs. However, it's too early to tell whether this will drive significant unregulated construction activity. We do expect some unregulated generation affiliates of diversified utilities to consider self-build options for CCGTs to lower installed cost. Implications for credit quality will depend on the relative magnitude of construction risk and the presence of mitigating factors like contingency reserves.

Regions with strong demand and depleting reserve margins will see some project finance-based debt issuances. The 695 MW Longview project is a good example of a recently rated merchant project finance transaction. However, in that case, merchant risks dominated the credit--quality considerations. Plum Point is an example of a fully contracted coal-fired plant with a fixed-price EPC currently under construction. The project has investment-grade characteristics supported by 16.5% of the EPC contract price in contingency reserve and contingent equity during construction.

Notes

(1) We exclude nuclear from this discussion as investments in nuclear units may only be in the medium to long term, and potentially at over $4,000 per kW.

(2) John Gallagher and Frank Briggs, Construction Briefings, December 2006, Thomas West.

(3) U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics.

(4) The Financial Times, Jan. 27, 2004.

(5) Engineering News-Record, a unit of McGraw-Hill Companies. Both the CCI and BCI indexes have labor as the major component at 80% and 64%, respectively.

Other Sources

- "Construction Contract Provisions: Credit Considerations For Utilities That Are Building Owned Generation" published on RatingsDirect on March 30, 2005.
- "Regulatory Support Is Key For U.S. Utilities Building New Coal-Fired Power Plants" published on RatingsDirect on Nov. 3, 2006.

Rising Utility Construction Costs:

Sources and Impacts

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The Brattle Group

Prepared for:

The EDISON FOUNDATION

SEPTEMBER 2007

The Edison Foundation is a nonprofit organization dedicated to bringing the benefits of electricity to families, businesses, and industries worldwide.

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Introduction and Executive Summary

In *Why Are Electricity Prices Increasing? An Industry-Wide Perspective* (June 2006), *The Brattle Group* identified fuel and purchased-power cost increases as the primary driver of the electricity rate increases that consumers currently are facing. That report also noted that utilities are once again entering an infrastructure expansion phase, with significant investments in new baseload generating capacity, expansion of the bulk transmission system, distribution system enhancements, and new environmental controls. The report concluded that the industry could make the needed investments cost-effectively under a generally supportive rate environment.

The rate increase pressures arising from elevated fuel and purchased power prices continue. However, another major cost driver that was not explored in the previous work also will impact electric rates, namely, the substantial increases in the costs of building utility infrastructure projects. Some of the factors underlying these construction cost trends are straightforward—such as sharp increases in materials cost—while others are complex, and sometimes less transparent in their impact. Moreover, the recent rise in many utility construction cost components follows roughly a decade of relatively stable (or even declining) real construction costs, adding to the "sticker shock" that utilities experience when obtaining cost estimates or bids and that state public utility commissions experience during the process of reviewing applications for approvals to proceed with construction. While the full rate impact associated with construction cost increases will not be seen by customers until infrastructure projects are completed, the issue of rising construction costs currently affects industry investment plans and presents new challenges to regulators.

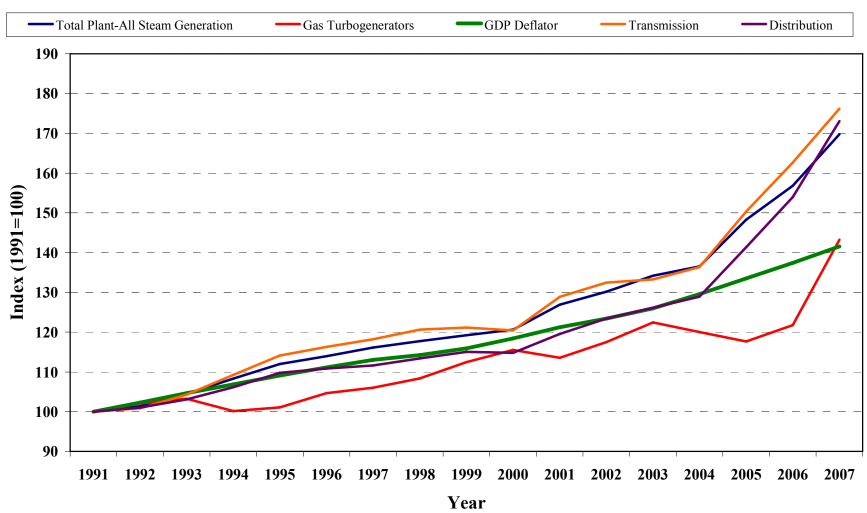
The purpose of this study is to a) document recent increases in the construction cost of utility infrastructure (generation, transmission, and distribution), b) identify the underlying causes of these increases, and c) explain how these increased costs will translate into higher rates that consumers might face as a result of required infrastructure investment. This report also provides a reference for utilities, regulators and the public to understand the issues related to recent construction cost increases. In summary, we find the following:

- Dramatically increased raw materials prices (*e.g.,* steel, cement) have increased construction cost directly and indirectly through the higher cost of manufactured components common in utility infrastructure projects. These cost increases have primarily been due to high global demand for commodities and manufactured goods, higher production and transportation costs (in part owing to high fuel prices), and a weakening U.S. dollar.
- Increased labor costs are a smaller contributor to increased utility construction costs, although that contribution may rise in the future as large construction projects across the country raise the demand for specialized and skilled labor over current or projected supply. There also is a growing backlog of

project contracts at large engineering, procurement and construction (EPC) firms, and construction management bids have begun to rise as a result. Although it is not possible to quantify the impact on future project bids by EPC firms, it is reasonable to assume that bids will become less cost-competitive as new construction projects are added to the queue.

- The price increases experienced over the past several years have affected all electric sector investment costs. In the generation sector, all technologies have experienced substantial cost increases in the past three years, from coal plants to windpower projects. Large proposed transmission projects have undergone cost revisions, and distribution system equipment costs have been rising rapidly. This is seen in Figure ES-1, which shows recent price trends in generation, transmission and distribution infrastructure costs based on the Handy-Whitman Index© data series, compared with the general price level as measured by the gross domestic product (GDP) deflator over the same time period.[1] As shown in Figure ES-1, infrastructure costs were relatively stable during the 1990s, but have experienced substantial price increases in the past several years. Between January 2004 and January 2007, the costs of steam-generation plant, transmission projects and distribution equipment rose by 25 percent to 35 percent (compared to an 8 percent increase in the GDP deflator). For example, the cost of gas turbines, which was fairly steady in the early part of the decade, increased by 17 percent during the year 2006 alone. As a result of these cost increases, the levelized capital cost component of baseload coal and nuclear plants has risen by $20/MWh or more—substantially narrowing coal's overall cost advantages over natural gas-fired combined-cycle plants—and thus limiting some of the cost-reduction benefits expected from expanding the solid-fuel fleet.

Figure ES-1
National Average Utility Infrastructure Cost Indices



Sources: The Handy-Whitman© Bulletin, No. 165 and the U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis.
Simple average of all regional construction and equipment cost indexes for the specified components.

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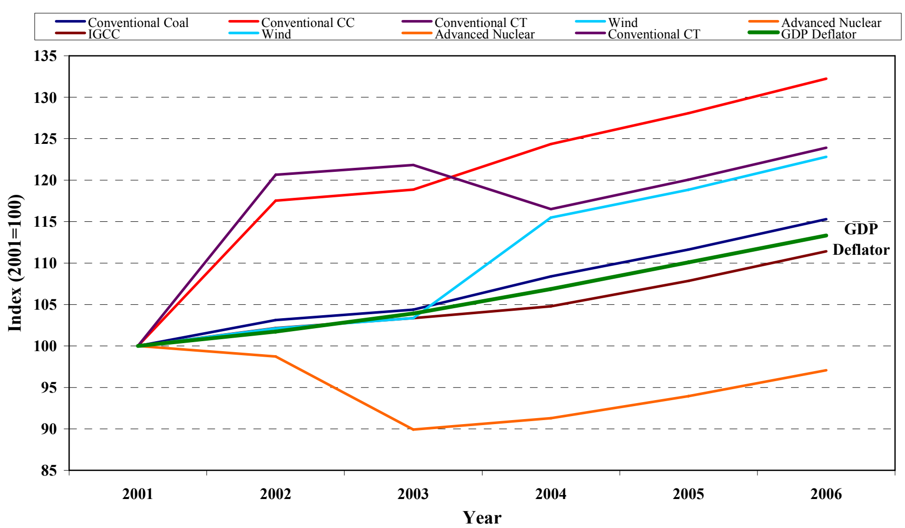
[1] The GDP deflator measures the cost of goods and services purchased by households, industry and government, and as such is a broader price index than the Consumer Price Index (CPI) or Producer Price Index (PPI), which track the costs of goods and services purchased by households and industry, respectively.

- The rapid increases experienced in utility construction costs have raised the price of recently completed infrastructure projects, but the impact has been mitigated somewhat to the extent that construction or materials acquisition preceded the most recent price increases. The impact of rising costs has a more dramatic impact on the estimated cost of proposed utility infrastructure projects, which fully incorporates recent price trends. This has raised significant concerns that the next wave of utility investments may be imperiled by the high cost environment. These rising construction costs have also motivated utilities and regulators to more actively pursue energy efficiency and demand response initiatives in order to reduce the future rate impacts on consumers.
- Despite the overwhelming evidence that construction costs have risen and will be elevated for some time, these increased costs are largely absent from the capital costs specified in the Energy Information Administration's (EIA's) 2007 *Annual Energy Outlook* (AEO). The AEO generation capital cost assumptions since 2001 are shown in Figure ES-2. Since 2004, capital costs of all technologies are assumed to grow at the general price level—a pattern that contradicts the market evidence presented in this report. The growing divergence between the AEO data assumptions and recent cost escalation is now so substantial that the AEO data need to be adjusted to reflect recent cost increases to provide reliable indicators of current or future capital costs.

Figure ES-2
EIA Generation Construction Cost Estimates



Sources: Data collected from the U.S. Energy Information Administration, *Assumptions to the Annual Energy Outlook 2002 to 2007* and from the U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis.

Projected Investment Needs and Recent Infrastructure Cost Increases

Current and Projected U.S. Investment in Electricity Infrastructure

The electric power industry is a very capital-intensive industry. The total value of generation, transmission and distribution infrastructure for regulated electric utilities is roughly $440 billion (property in service, net of accumulated depreciation and amortization), and capital expenditures are expected to exceed $70 billion in 2007.[2] Although the industry as a whole is always investing in capital, the rate of capital expenditures was relatively stable during the 1990s and began to rise near the turn of the century. As shown in *Why Are Electricity Prices Increasing? An Industry-Wide Perspective* (June 2006), utilities anticipate substantial increases in generation, transmission and distribution investment levels over the next two decades. Moreover, the significant need for new electricity infrastructure is a world-wide phenomenon: According to the *World Energy Investment Outlook 2006*, investments by power-sector companies throughout the world will total about $11 trillion dollars by 2030.[3]

Generation

As of December 31, 2005, there were 988 gigawatts (GW) of electric generating capacity in service in the U.S., with the majority of this capacity owned by electric utilities. Close to 400 GW of this total, or 39 percent, consists of natural gas-fired capacity, with coal-based capacity comprising 32 percent, or slightly more than 300 GW, of the U.S. electric generation fleet. Nuclear and hydroelectric plants comprise approximately 10 percent of the electric generation fleet. Approximately 49 percent of energy production is provided by coal plants, with 19 percent provided by nuclear plants. Natural gas-fired plants, which tend to operate as intermediate or peaking plants, also provided about 19 percent of U.S. energy production in 2006.

The need for installed generating capacity is highly correlated with load growth and projected growth in peak demand. According to EIA's most recent projections, U.S. electricity sales are expected to grow at an annual rate of about 1.4 percent through 2030. According to the North American Electric Reliability Corporation (NERC), U.S. non-coincident peak demand is expected to grow by 19 percent (141 GW) from 2006 to 2015. According to EIA, utilities will need to build 258 GW of new generating capacity by 2030 to meet the

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[2] Net property in service figure as of December 31, 2006, derived from Federal Energy Regulatory Commission (FERC) Form 1 data compiled by the Edison Electric Institute (EEI). Gross property is roughly $730 billion, with about $290 billion already depreciated and/or amortized. Annual capital expenditure estimate is derived from a sample of 10K reports surveyed by EEI.

[3] Richard Stavros. "Power Plant Development: Raising the Stakes." *Public Utilities Fortnightly*, May 2007, pp. 36-42.

projected growth in electricity demand and to replace old, inefficient plants that will be retired. EIA further projects that coal-based capacity, that is more capital intensive than natural gas-fired capacity which dominated new capacity additions over the last 15 years, will account for about 54 percent of total capacity additions from 2006 to 2030. Natural gas-fired plants comprise 36 percent of the projected capacity additions in *AEO 2007*. EIA projects that the remaining 10 percent of capacity additions will be provided by renewable generators (6 percent) and nuclear power plants (4 percent). Renewable generators and nuclear power plants, similar to coal-based plants, are capital-intensive technologies with relatively high construction costs but low operating costs.

High-Voltage Transmission

The U.S. and Canadian electric transmission grid includes more than 200,000 miles of high voltage (230 kV and higher) transmission lines that ultimately serve more than 300 million customers. This system was built over the past 100 years, primarily by vertically integrated utilities that generated and transmitted electricity locally for the benefit of their native load customers. Today, 134 control areas or balancing authorities manage electricity operations for local areas and coordinate reliability through the eight regional reliability councils of NERC.

After a long period of decline, transmission investment began a significant upward trend starting in the year 2000. Since the beginning of 2000, the industry has invested more than $37.8 billion in the nation's transmission system. In 2006 alone, investor-owned electric utilities and stand-alone transmission companies invested an historic $6.9 billion in the nation's grid, while the Edison Electric Institute (EEI) estimates that utility transmission investments will increase to $8.0 billion during 2007. A recent EEI survey shows that its members plan to invest $31.5 billion in the transmission system from 2006 to 2009, a nearly 60-percent increase over the amount invested from 2002 to 2005. These increased investments in transmission are prompted in part by the larger scale of base load generation additions that will occur farther from load centers, creating a need for larger and more costly transmission projects than those built over the past 20 years. In addition, new government policies and industry structures will contribute to greater transmission investment. In many parts of the country, transmission planning has been formally regionalized, and power markets create greater price transparency that highlights the value of transmission expansion in some instances.

NERC projects that 12,873 miles of new transmission will be added by 2015, an increase of 6.1 percent in the total miles of installed extra high-voltage (EHV) transmission lines (230 kV and above) in North America over the 2006 to 2015 period. NERC notes that this expansion lags demand growth and expansion of generating resources in most areas. However, NERC's figures do not include several major new transmission projects proposed in the PJM Interconnection LLC, such as the major new lines proposed by American Electric Power, Allegheny Power, and Pepco.

Distribution

While transmission systems move bulk power across wide areas, distribution systems deliver lower-voltage power to retail customers. The distribution system includes poles, as well as metering, billing, and other related infrastructure and software associated with retail sales and customer care functions. Continual investment in distribution facilities is needed, first and foremost, to keep pace with growth in customer demand. In real terms, investment began to increase in the mid-1990s, preceding the corresponding boom in generation. This steady climb in investment in distribution assets shows no sign of diminishing. The need to replace an aging infrastructure, coupled with increased population growth and demand for power quality and customer service, is continuing to motivate utilities to improve their ultimate delivery system to customers.

Continued customer load growth will require continued expansion in distribution system capacity. In 2006, utilities invested about $17.3 billion in upgrading and expanding distribution systems, a 32-percent increase over the investment levels incurred in 2004. EEI projects that distribution investment during 2007 will again exceed $17.0 billion. While much of the recent increase in distribution investment reflects expanding physical infrastructure, a substantial portion of the increased dollar investment reflects the increased input costs of materials and labor to meet current distribution infrastructure needs.

Construction Costs for Recently Completed Generation

The majority of recently constructed plants have been either natural gas-fired or wind power plants. Both have displayed increasing real costs for several years. Since the 1990s, most of the new generating capacity built in the U.S. has been natural gas-fired capacity, either natural gas-fired combined-cycle units or natural gas-fired combustion turbines. Combustion turbine prices recently rose sharply after years of real price decreases, while significant increases in the cost of installed natural gas combined-cycle combustion capacity have emerged during the past several years.

Using commercially available databases and other sources, such as financial reports, press releases and government documents, *The Brattle Group* collected data on the installation cost of natural gas-fired combined-cycle generating plants built in the U.S. during the last major construction cycle, defined as generating plants brought into service between 2000 and 2006. We estimated that the average real construction cost of all natural gas-fired combined-cycle units brought online between 2000 and 2006 was approximately $550/kilowatt (kW) (in 2006 dollars), with a range of costs between $400/kW to approximately $1,000/kW. Statistical analysis confirmed that real installation cost was influenced by plant size, the turbine technology, the NERC region in which the plant was located, and the commercial online date. Notably, we found a positive and statistically significant relationship between a plant's construction cost and its online date, meaning that, everything else equal, the later a plant was brought online, the higher its real installation cost.[4] Figure 1 shows the average yearly installation cost, in *nominal* dollars, as predicted by the regression analysis.[5] This figure shows that the average installation cost of combined-cycle units increased gradually from 2000 to 2003, followed by a fairly significant increase in 2004 and a very significant escalation—more than $300/kW—in 2006. This provides vivid evidence of the recent sharp increase in plant construction costs.

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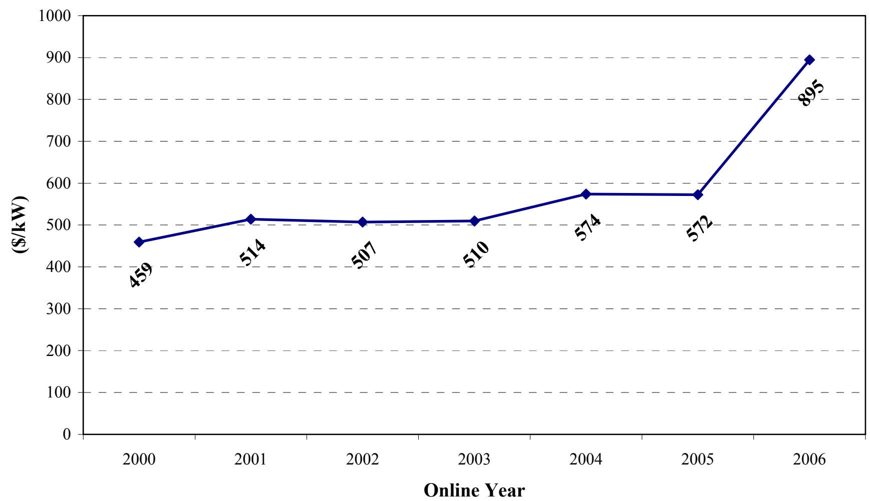
[4] To be precise, we used a "dummy" variable to represent each year in the analysis. The year-specific dummy variables were statistically significant and uniformly positive; *i.e.*, they had an upward impact on installation cost.

[5] The nominal form regression results are discussed here to facilitate comparison with the GDP deflator measure used to compare other price trends in other figures in this report.

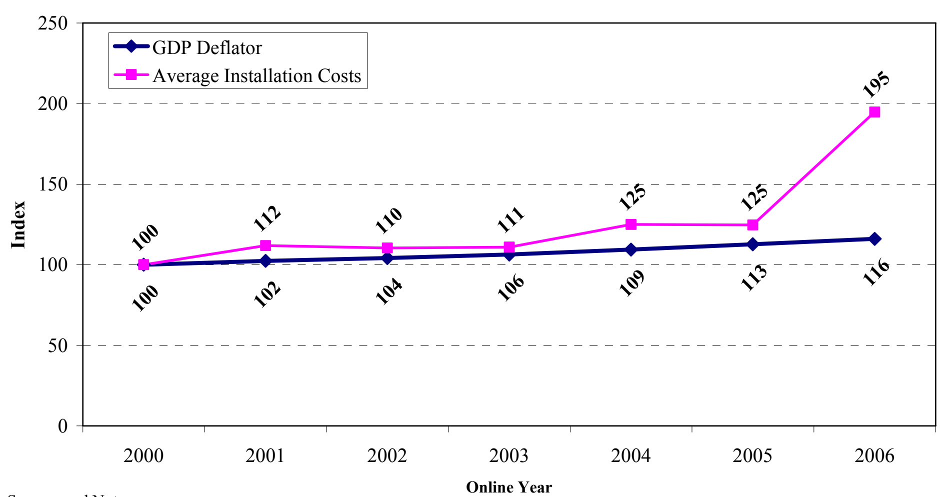
Figure 1
Multi-Variable Regression Estimation:
Average Nominal Installation Costs Based on Online Year ($/kW)



Sources and Notes:
* Data on summer capacity, total installation cost , turbine technology, commercial online date, and zip code for the period 2000-2006 were collected from commercially available databases and other sources such as company websites and 10k reports.

Figure 2 compares the trend in plant installation costs to the GDP deflator, using 2000 as the base year. Over the period of 2000 to 2006, the cumulative increase in the general price level was 16 percent while the cumulative increase in the installation cost of new combined-cycle units was almost 95 percent, with much of this increase occurring in 2006.

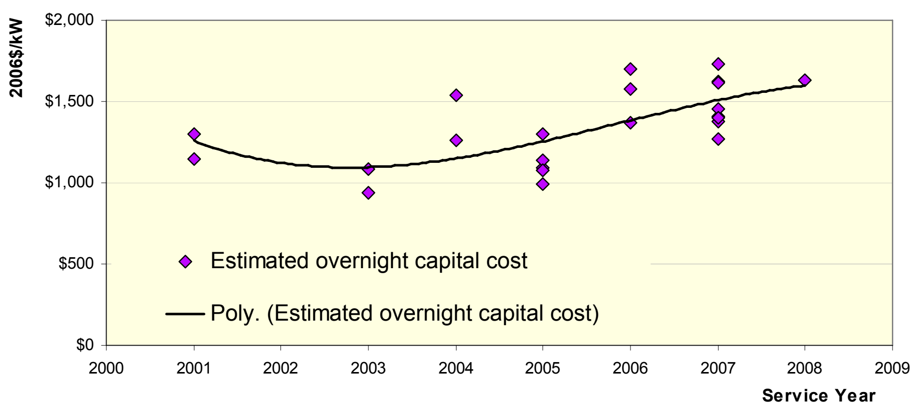
Figure 2
Multi-Variable Regression Estimation:
Average Nominal Installation Costs Based on Online Year (Index Year 2000 = 100)



Sources and Notes:
* Data on summer capacity, total installation cost , turbine technology, commercial online date, and zip code for the period 2000-2006 were collected from commercially available databases and other sources such as company websites and 10k reports.
** GDP Deflator data were collected from the U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis.

Another major class of generation development during this decade has been wind generation, the costs of which have also increased in recent years. The Northwest Power and Conservation Council (NPCC), a regional planning council that prepares long-term electric resource plans for the Pacific Northwest, issued its most recent review of the cost of wind power in July 2006.[6] The Council found that the cost of new wind projects rose substantially in real terms in the last two years, and was much higher than that assumed in its most recent resource plan. Specifically, the Council found that the levelized lifecycle cost of power for new wind projects rose 50 to 70 percent, with higher construction costs being the principal contributor to this increased cost. According to the Council, the construction cost of wind projects, in real dollars, has increased from about $1150/kW to $1300-$1700/kW in the past few years, with an unweighted average capital cost of wind projects in 2006 at $1,485/kW. Factors contributing to the increase in wind power costs include a weakening dollar, escalation of commodity and energy costs, and increased demand for wind power under renewable portfolio standards established by a growing number of states. The Council notes that commodities used in the manufacture and installation of wind turbines and ancillary equipment, including cement, copper, steel and resin have experienced significant cost increases in recent years. Figure 3 shows real construction costs of wind projects by actual or projected in-service date.

Figure 3
Wind Power Project Capital Costs



Source: The Northwest Power and Conservation Council, "Biennial Review of the Cost of Windpower" July 13, 2006.

These observations were confirmed recently in a May 2007 report by the U.S. Department of Energy (DOE), which found that prices for wind turbines (the primary cost component of installed wind capacity) rose by more than $400/kW between 2002 and 2006, a nearly 60-percent increase.[7] Figure 4 is reproduced from the DOE report (Figure 21) and shows the significant upward trend in turbine prices since 2001.

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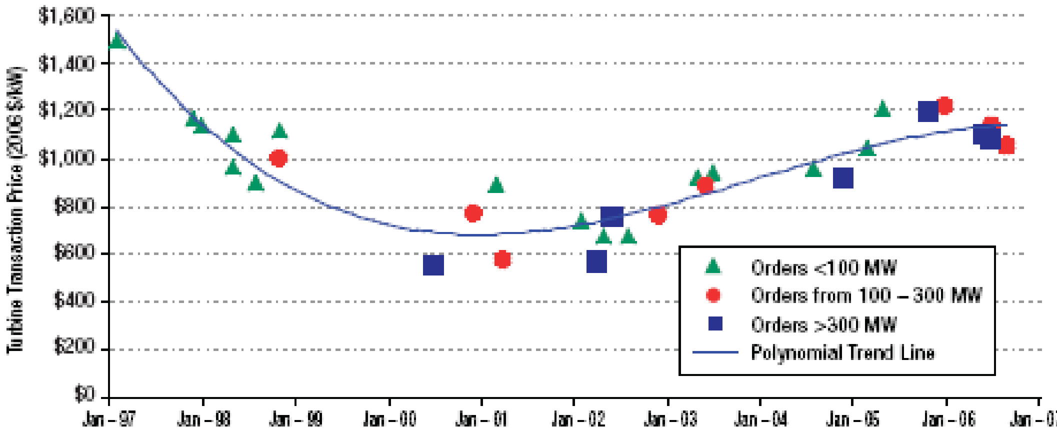
[6] The NPCC planning studies and analyses cover the following four states: Washington, Oregon, Idaho, and Montana. See "Biennial Review of the Cost of Windpower" July 13, 2006, at www.bpa.gov/Energy/N/projects/post2006conservation/doc/Windpower_Cost_Review.doc. This study provides many reasons for windpower cost increases.

[7] See U.S. Department of Energy, *Annual Report on U.S. Wind Power Installation, Cost and Performance Trends: 2006* Figure 21, page 16.

Figure 4
Wind Turbine Prices 1997 - 2007



Source: Berkeley Lab database.

Rising Projected Construction Costs: Examples and Case Studies

Although recently completed gas-fired and wind-powered capacity has shown steady real cost increases in recent years, the most dramatic cost escalation figures arise from *proposed* utility investments, which fully reflect the recent, sharply rising prices of various components of construction and installation costs. The most visible of these are generation proposals, although several transmission proposals also have undergone substantial upward cost revisions. Distribution-level investments are smaller and less discrete ("lumpy") and thus are not subject to similar ongoing public scrutiny on a project-by-project basis.

Coal-Based Power Plants

Evidence of the significant increase in the construction cost of coal-based power plants can be found in recent applications filed by utilities, such as Duke Energy and Otter Tail Power Company, seeking regulatory approval to build such plants. Otter Tail Power Company leads a consortium of seven Midwestern utilities that are seeking to build a 630-MW coal-based generating unit (Big Stone II) on the site of the existing Big Stone Plant near Milbank, South Dakota. In addition, the developers of Big Stone II seek to build a new high-voltage transmission line to deliver power from Big Stone II and from other sources, including possibly wind and other renewable forms of energy. Initial cost estimates for the power plant were about $1 billion, with an additional $200 million for the transmission line project. However, these cost estimates increased dramatically, largely due to higher costs for construction materials and labor.[8] Based on the most recent design refinements, the project, including transmission, is expected to cost $1.6 billion.

[8] Other factors contributing to the cost increase include design changes made by project participants to increase output and improve the unit's efficiency. For example, the voltage of the proposed transmission line was increased from 230 kV to 345 kV to accommodate more generation.

In June 2006, Duke submitted a filing with the North Carolina Utilities Commission (NCUC) seeking a certificate of public convenience and necessity for the construction of two 800 MW coal-based generating units at the site of the existing Cliffside Steam Station. In its initial application, Duke relied on a May 2005 preliminary cost estimate showing that the two units would cost approximately $2 billion to build. Five months later, Duke submitted a second filing with a significantly revised cost estimate. In its second filing, Duke estimated that the two units would cost approximately $3 billion to build, a 50 percent cost increase. The North Carolina Utilities Commission approved the construction of one 800 MW unit at Cliffside but disapproved the other unit, primarily on the basis that Duke had not made a showing that it needed the capacity to serve projected native load demands. Duke's latest projected cost for building one 800 MW unit at Cliffside is approximately $1.8 billion, or about $2,250/kW. When financing costs, or allowance for funds used during construction (AFUDC), are included, the total cost is estimated to be $2.4 billion (or about $3,000/kW).

Rising construction costs have also led utilities to reconsider expansion plans prior to regulatory actions. In December 2006, Westar Energy announced that it was deferring the consideration of a new 600 MW coal-based generation facility due to significant increases in the estimated construction costs, which increased from $1.0 billion to about $1.4 billion since the plant was first announced in May 2005.

Increased construction costs are also affecting proposed demonstration projects. For example, DOE announced earlier this year that the projected cost for one of its most prominent clean coal demonstration project, FutureGen, had nearly doubled.[9] FutureGen is a clean coal demonstration project being pursued by a public-private partnership involving DOE and an alliance of industrial coal producers and electric utilities. FutureGen is an experimental advanced Integrated Gasification Combined Cycle (IGCC) coal plant project that will aim for near zero emissions of sulfur dioxide (SO_2), nitrogen oxides (NOx), mercury, particulates and carbon dioxide (CO_2). Its initial cost was estimated at $950 million. But after re-evaluating the price of construction materials and labor and adjusting for inflation over time, DOE's Office of Fossil Energy announced that the project's price had increased to $1.7 billion.

Transmission Projects

NSTAR, the electric distribution company that serves the Boston metropolitan area, recently built two 345 kV lines from a switching station in Stoughton, Massachusetts, to substations in the Hyde Park section of Boston and to South Boston, respectively. In an August 2004 filing before ISO New England Inc. (ISO-NE), NSTAR indicated that the project would cost $234.2 million. In March 2007, NSTAR informed ISO-NE that estimated project costs had increased by $57.7 million, or almost 25 percent, for a revised total project cost of $292 million. NSTAR stated that the increase is driven by increases in both construction and material costs, with construction bids coming in 24 percent higher than initially estimated. NSTAR further explained that there have been dramatic increases in material costs, with copper costs increasing by 160 percent, core steel by 70 percent, flow-fill concrete by 45 percent, and dielectric fluid (used for cable cooling) by 66 percent.

[9] U.S. Department of Energy, April 10, 2007, press release available at http://www.fossil.energy.gov/news/techlines/2007/07019-DOE_Signs_FutureGen_Agreement.html
.

Another aspect of transmission projects is land requirements, and in many areas of the country land prices have increased substantially in the past few years. In March 2007, the California Public Utilities Commission (CPUC) approved construction of the Southern California Edison (SCE) Company's proposed 25.6-mile, 500 kV transmission line between SCE's existing Antelope and Pardee Substations. SCE initially estimated a cost of $80.3 million for the Antelope-Pardee 500 kV line. However, the company subsequently revised its estimate by updating the anticipated cost of acquiring a right-of-way, reflecting a rise in California's real estate prices. The increased land acquisition costs increased the total estimate for the project to $92.5 million, increasing the estimated costs to more than $3.5 million per mile.

Distribution Equipment

Although most individual distribution projects are small relative to the more visible and public generation and transmission projects, costs have been rising in this sector as well. This is most readily seen in Handy-Whitman Index© price series relating to distribution equipment and components. Several important categories of distribution equipment have experienced sharp price increases over the past three years. For example, the prices of line transformers and pad transformers have increased by 68 percent and 79 percent, respectively, between January 2004 and January 2007, with increases during 2006 alone of 28 percent and 23 percent.[10] The cost of overhead conductors and devices increased over the past three years by 34 percent, and the cost of station equipment rose by 38 percent. These are in contrast to the overall price increases (measured by the GDP deflator) of roughly 8 percent over the past three years.

[10] Handy-Whitman© Bulletin No. 165, average increase of six U.S. regions. Used with permission.

Factors Spurring Rising Construction Costs

Broadly speaking, there are four primary sources of the increase in construction costs: (1) material input costs, including the cost of raw physical inputs, such as steel and cement as well as increased costs of components manufactured from these inputs (*e.g*., transformers, turbines, pumps); (2) shop and fabrication capacity for manufactured components (relative to current demand); (3) the cost of construction field labor, both unskilled and craft labor; and (4) the market for large construction project management, *i.e.*, the queuing and bidding for projects. This section will discuss each of these factors.

Material Input Costs

Utility construction projects involve large quantities of steel, aluminum and copper (and components manufactured from these metals) as well as cement for foundations, footings and structures. All of these commodities have experienced substantial recent price increases, due to increased domestic and global demands as well as increased energy costs in mineral extraction, processing and transportation. In addition, since many of these materials are traded globally, the recent performance of the U.S. dollar will impact the domestic costs (see box on page 14).

Metals

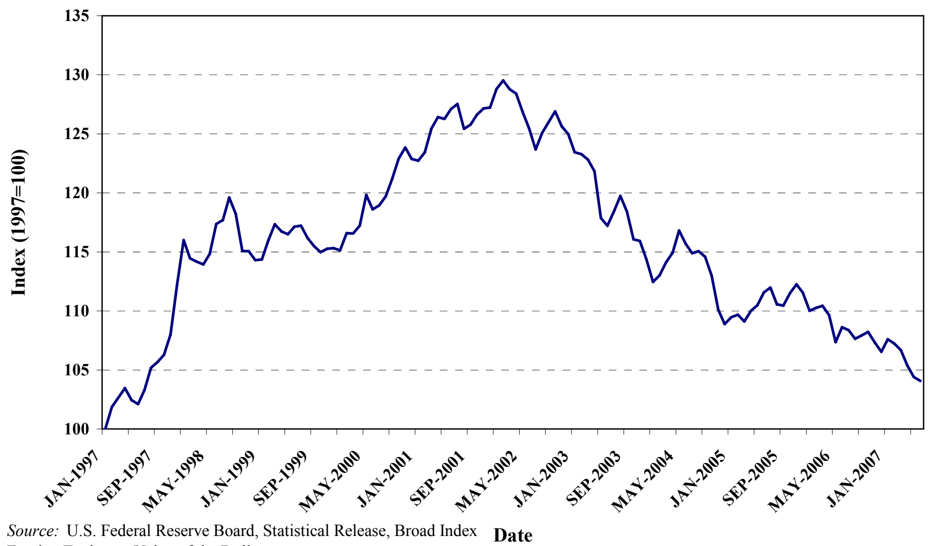
After being relatively stable for many years (and even declining in real terms), the price of various metals, including steel, copper and aluminum, has increased significantly in the last few years. These increases are primarily the result of high global demand and increased production costs (including the impact of high energy prices). A weakening U.S. dollar has also contributed to high domestic prices for imported metals and various component products.

Figure 5 shows price indices for primary inputs into steel production (iron and steel scrap, and iron ore) since 1997. The price of both inputs fell in real terms during the late 1990s, but rose sharply after 2002. Compared to the 20-percent increase in the general inflation rate (GDP deflator) between 1997 and 2006, iron ore prices rose 75 percent and iron and steel scrap prices rose nearly 120 percent. The increase over the last few years was especially sharp—between 2003 and 2006, prices for iron ore rose 60 percent and iron and scrap steel rose 150 percent.

Exchange Rates

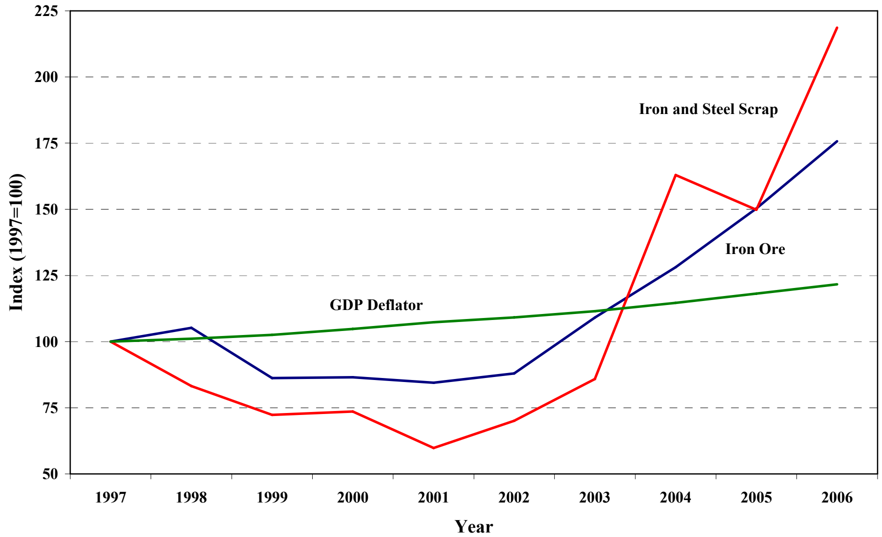
Many of the raw materials involved in utility construction projects (e.g., steel, copper, cement), as well as many major manufactured components of utility infrastructure investments, are globally traded. This means that prices in the U.S. are also affected by exchange rate fluctuations, which have been adverse to the dollar in recent years. The chart below shows trade-weighted exchange rates from 1997. Although the dollar appreciated against other currencies between 1997 and 2001, the graph also clearly shows a substantial erosion of the dollar since the beginning of 2002, losing roughly 20 percent of its value against other major trading partners' currencies. This has had a substantial impact on U.S. material and manufactured component prices, as will be reflected in many of the graphs that follow.

Nominal Broad Dollar Index



Source: U.S. Federal Reserve Board, Statistical Release, Broad Index Foreign Exchange Value of the Dollar.

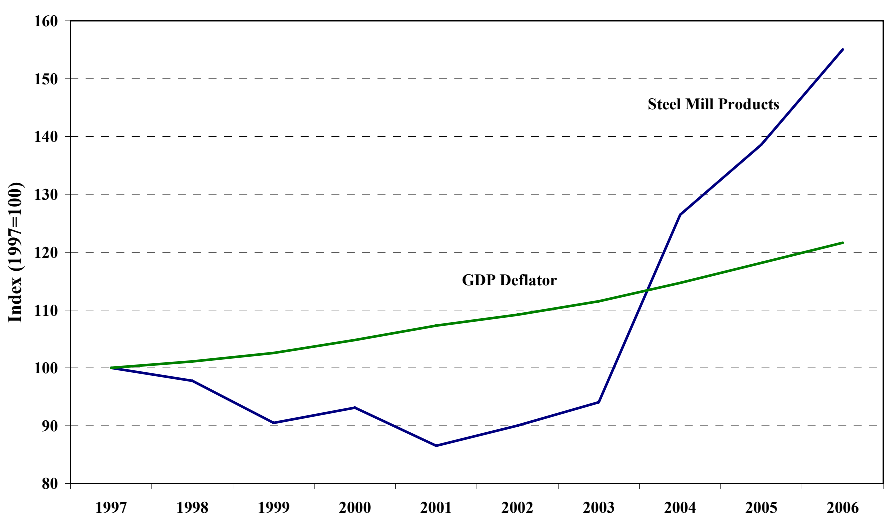
Figure 5
Inputs to Iron and Steel Production Cost Indices



Sources: U.S. Geological Survey, Mineral Commodity Summaries, and the U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis.

The increase in input prices has been reflected in steel mill product prices. Figure 6 compares the trend in steel mill product prices to the general inflation rate (using the GDP deflator) over the past 10 years. Figure 6 shows that the price of steel has increased about 60 percent since 2003.

Figure 6
Steel Mill Products Price Index



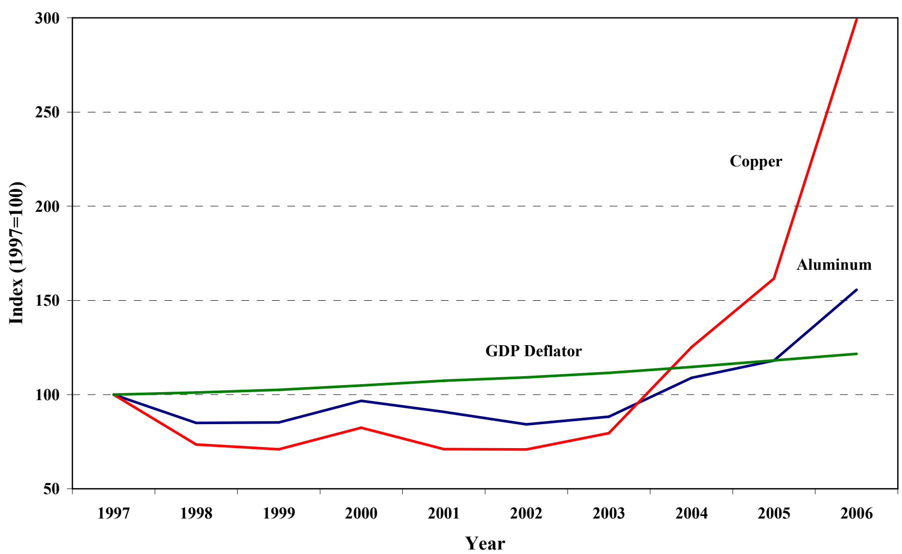
Sources: U.S. Geological Survey, Mineral Commodity Summaries, and the U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis.

Various sources point to the rapid growth of steel production and demand in China as a primary cause of the increases in both steel prices and the prices of steelmaking inputs.[11] China has become both the world's largest steelmaker and steel consumer. In addition, some analysts contend that steel companies have achieved greater pricing power, partly due to ongoing consolidation of the industry, and note that recently increased demand for steel has been driven largely by products used in energy and heavy industry, such as plate and structural steels.

From the perspective of the steel industry, the substantial and at least semi-permanent rise in the price of steel has been justified by the rapid rise in the price of many steelmaking inputs, such as steel scrap, iron ore, coking coal, and natural gas. Today's steel prices remain at historically elevated levels and, based on the underlying causes for high prices described, it appears that iron and steel costs are likely to remain at these high levels at least for the near future.

Other metals important for utility infrastructure display similar price patterns: declining real prices over the first five years or so of the previous 10 years, followed by sharp increases in the last few years. Figure 7 shows that aluminum prices doubled between 2003 and 2006, while copper prices nearly quadrupled over the same period.

Figure 7
Aluminum and Copper Price Indices

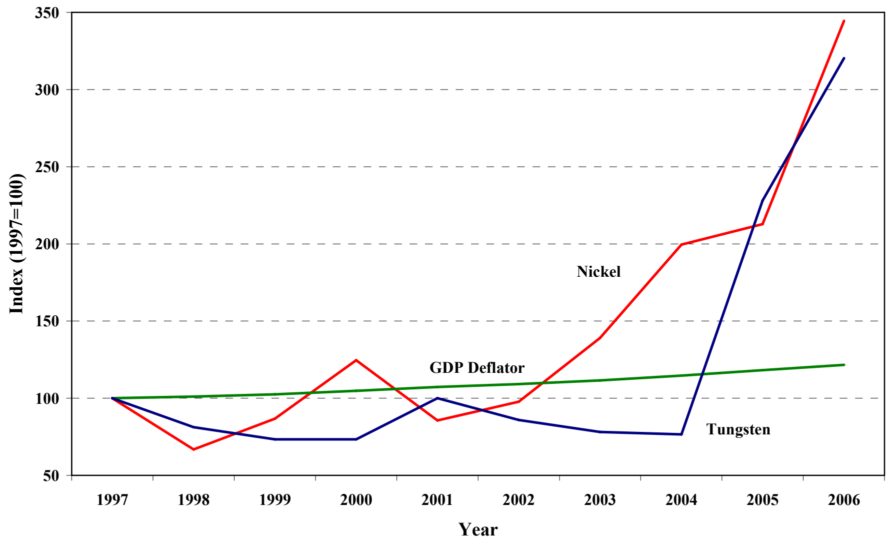


Sources: U.S. Geological Survey, Mineral Commodity Summaries, and the U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis.

[11] See, for example, *Steel: Price and Policy Issues*, CRS Report to Congress, Congressional Research Service, August 31, 2006.

These price increases were also evident in metals that contribute to important steel alloys used broadly in electrical infrastructure, such as nickel and tungsten. The prices of these display similar patterns, as shown in Figure 8.

Figure 8
Nickel and Tungsten Price Indices

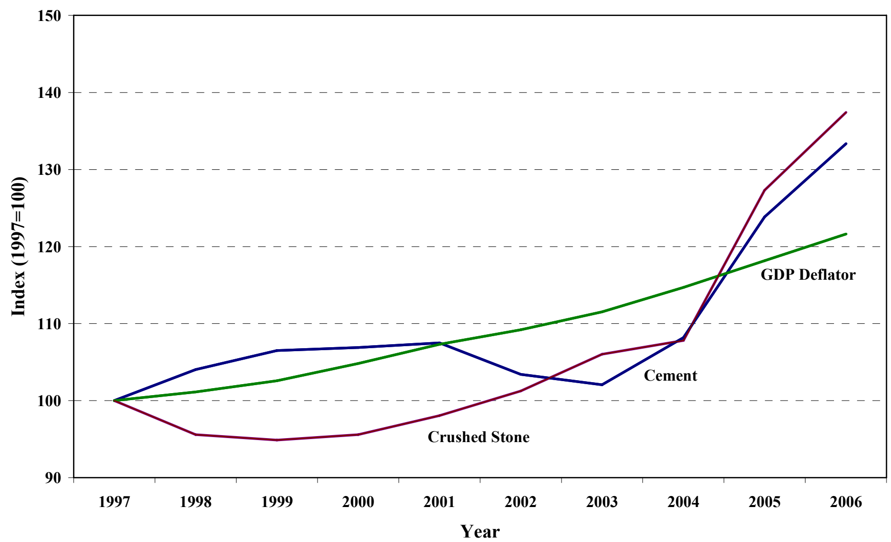


Sources: U.S. Geological Survey, Mineral Commodity Summaries, and the U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis.

Cement, Concrete, Stone and Gravel

Large infrastructure projects require huge amounts of cement as well as basic stone materials. The price of cement has also risen substantially in the past few years, for the same reasons cited above for metals. Cement is an energy-intensive commodity that is traded on international markets, and recent price patterns resemble those displayed for metals. In utility construction, cement is often combined with stone and other aggregates for concrete (often reinforced with steel), and there are other site uses for sand, gravel and stone. These materials have also undergone significant price increases, primarily as a result of increased energy costs in extraction and transportation. Figure 9 shows recent price increases for cement and crushed stone. Prices for these materials have increased about 30 percent between 2004 and 2006.

Figure 9
Cement and Crushed Stone Price Indices



Sources: U.S. Geological Survey, Mineral Commodity Summaries, and the U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis.

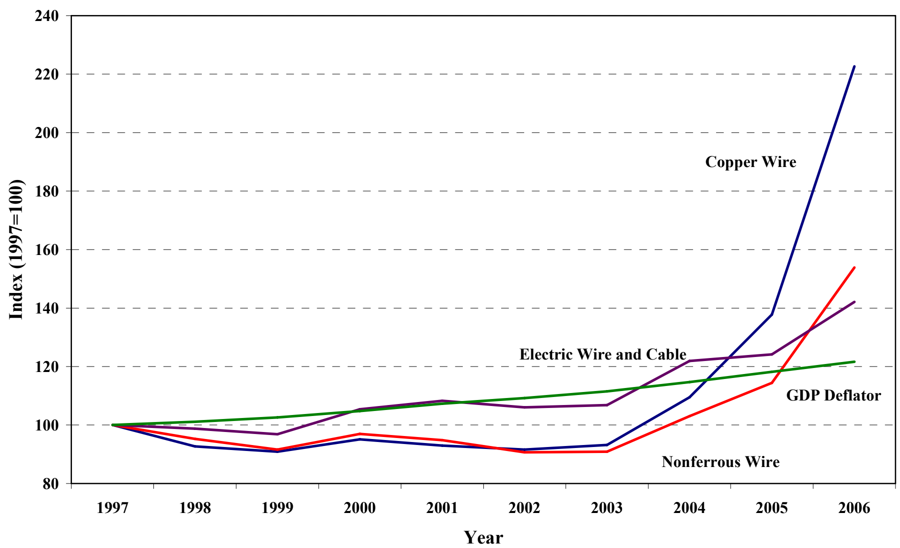
Manufactured Products for Utility Infrastructure

Although large utility construction projects consume substantial amounts of unassembled or semi-finished metal products (*e.g.*, reinforcing bars for concrete, structural steel), many of the components such as conductors, transformers and other equipment are manufactured elsewhere and shipped to the construction site. Available price indices for these components display similar patterns of recent sharp price increases.

Figure 10 shows the increased prices experienced in wire products compared to the inflation rate, according to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), highlighting the impact of underlying metal price increases.

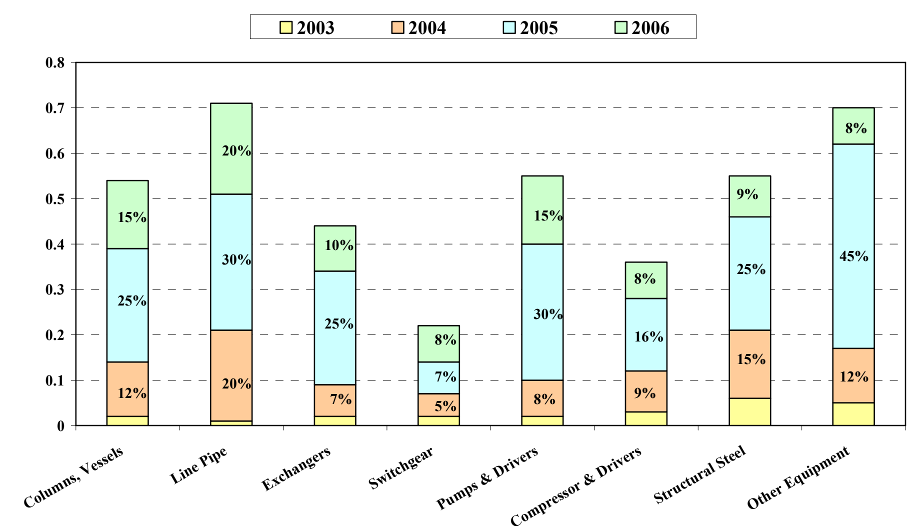
Manufactured components of generating facilities—large pressure vessels, condensers, pumps, valves—have also increased sharply since 2004. Figure 11 shows the yearly increases experienced in key component prices since 2003.

Figure 10
Electric Wire and Cable Price Indices



Sources: The U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics and the U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis.

Figure 11
Equipment Price Increases

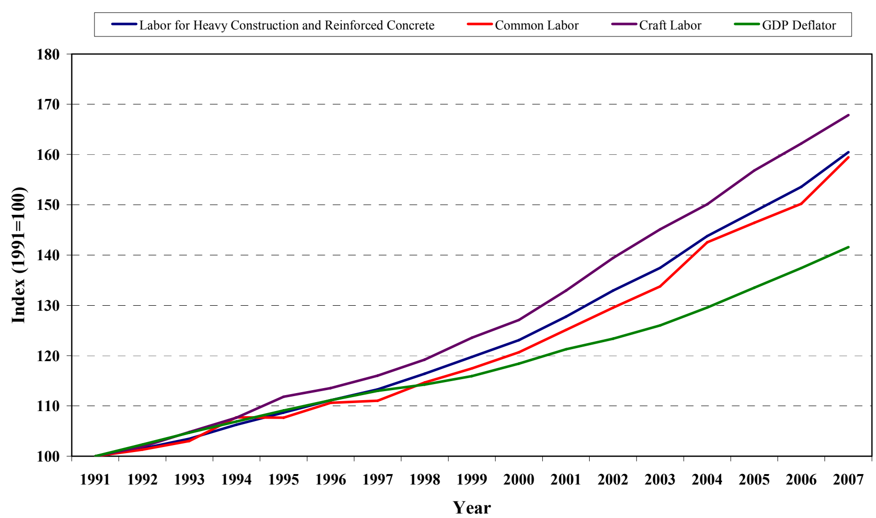


Source: "Who, What, Where, How" presentation by John Siegel, Bechtel Power Corp. Delivered at the conference entitled *Next Generation of Generation* (Dewey Ballantine LLP), May 4, 2006.

Labor Costs

A significant component of utility construction costs is labor—both unskilled (common) labor as well as craft labor such as pipefitters and electricians. Labor costs have also increased at rates higher than the general inflation rate, although more steadily since 1997, and recent increases have been less dramatic than for commodities. Figure 12 shows a composite national labor cost index based on simple averages of the regional Handy-Whitman Index© for common and craft labor. Between January 2001 and January 2007, the general inflation rate (measured by the GDP deflator) increased about 15 percent. During the same period, the cost of craft labor and heavy construction labor increased about 26 percent, while common labor increased 27 percent, or almost twice the rate of general inflation.[12] While less severe than commodity cost increases, increased labor costs contributed to the overall construction cost increases because of their substantial share in overall utility infrastructure construction costs.

Figure 12
National Average Labor Costs Index



Sources: The Handy-Whitman© Bulletin, No. 165, and the U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis.
Simple average of all regional labor cost indices for the specified types of labor.

Although labor costs have not risen dramatically in recent years, there is growing concern about an emerging gap between demand and supply of skilled construction labor—especially if the anticipated boom in utility construction materializes. In 2002, the Construction Users Roundtable (CURT), surveyed its members and found that recruitment, education, and retention of craft workers continue to be critical issues for the industry.[13] The average age of the current construction skilled workforce is rising rapidly, and high attrition rates in construction are compounding the problem. The industry has always had high attrition at the entry-level positions, but now many workers in the 35-40 year-old age group are leaving the industry for a variety of reasons. The latest projections indicate that, because of attrition and anticipated growth, the construction

[12] These figures represent a simple average of six regional indices, however, local and regional labor markets can vary substantially from these national averages.

[13] *Confronting the Skilled Construction Workforce Shortage*. The Construction Users Roundtable, WP-401, June 2004, p. 1.

industry must recruit 200,000 to 250,000 new craft workers per year to meet future needs. However, both demographics and a poor industry image are working against the construction industry as it tries to address this need.[14]

There also could be a growing gap between the demand and supply of electrical lineworkers who maintain the electric grid and who perform much of the labor for transmission and distribution investments. These workers erect poles and transmission towers and install or repair cables or wires used to carry electricity from power plants to customers. According to a DOE report, demand for such workers is expected to outpace supply over the next decade.[15] The DOE analysis indicates a significant forecasted shortage in the availability of qualified candidates by as many as 10,000 lineworkers, or nearly 20 percent of the current workforce. As of 2005, lineworkers earned a mean hourly wage of $25/hour, or $52,300 per year. The forecast supply shortage will place upward pressure on the wages earned by lineworkers.[16]

Shop and Fabrication Capacity

Many of the components of utility projects—including large components like turbines, condensers, and transformers—are manufactured, often as special orders to coincide with particular construction projects. Because many of these components are not held in large inventories, the overall capacity of their manufacturers can influence the prices obtained and the length of time between order and delivery. The price increases of major manufactured components were shown in Figure 11. While equipment and component prices obviously reflect underlying material costs, some of the price increases of manufactured components and the delivery lags are due to manufacturing capacity constraints that are not readily overcome in the near term.

As shown in Figure 13 and Figure 14, recent orders have largely eliminated spare shop capacity, and delivery times for major manufactured components have risen. These constraints are adding to price increases and are difficult to overcome with imported components because of the lower value of the dollar in recent years.

The increased delivery times can affect utility construction costs through completion delays that increase the cost of financing a project. In general, utilities commit substantial funds during the construction phase of a project that have to be financed either through debt or equity, called "allowance for fund used during construction" (AFUDC). All else held equal, the longer the time from the initiation through completion of a project, the higher is the financing costs of the investment and the ultimate costs passed through to ratepayers.

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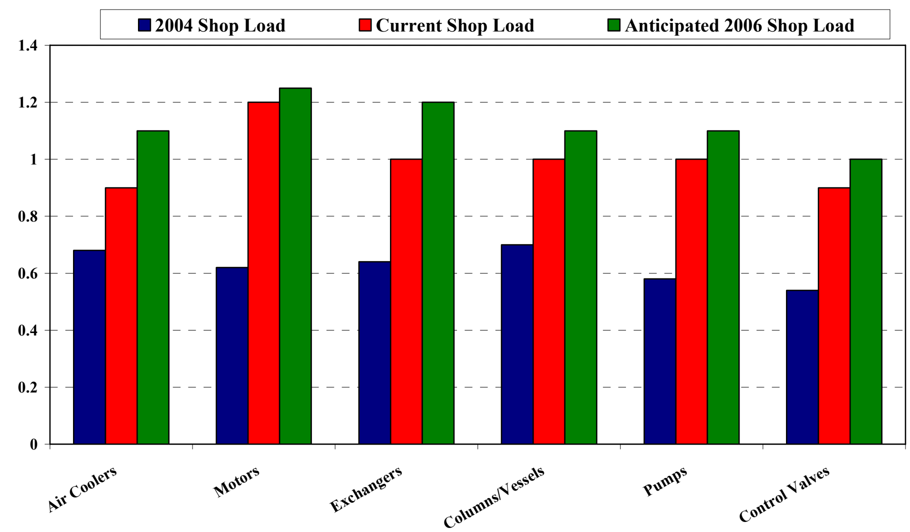
[14] *Id.*, p. 1.

[15] *Workforce Trends in the Electric Utility Industry: A Report to the United States Congress Pursuant to Section 1101 of the Energy Policy Act of 2005*. U.S. Department of Energy, August 2006, p. xi.

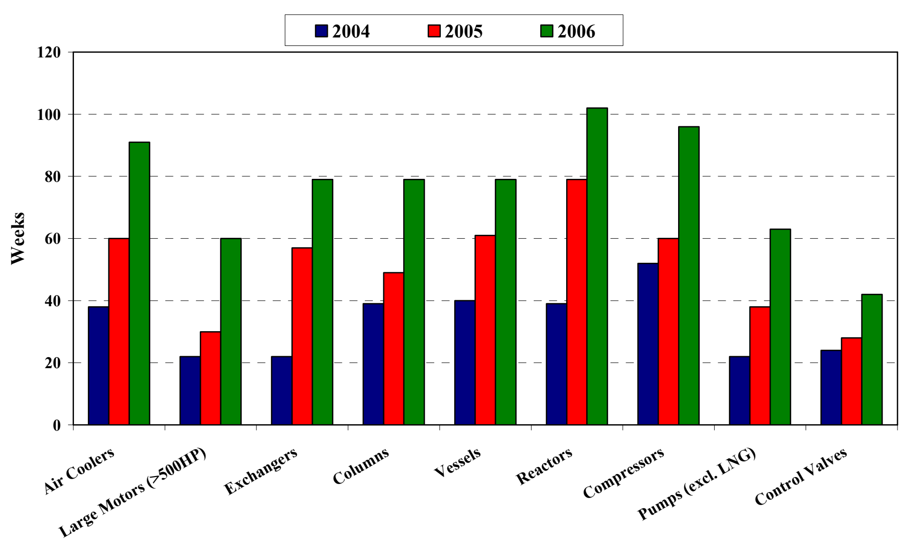
[16] *Id.*, p. 5.

Figure 13
Shop Capacity



Source: "Who, What, Where, How" presentation by John Siegel, Bechtel Power Corp. Delivered at the conference entitled *Next Generation of Generation* (Dewey Ballantine LLP), May 4, 2006.

Figure 14
Delivery Schedules

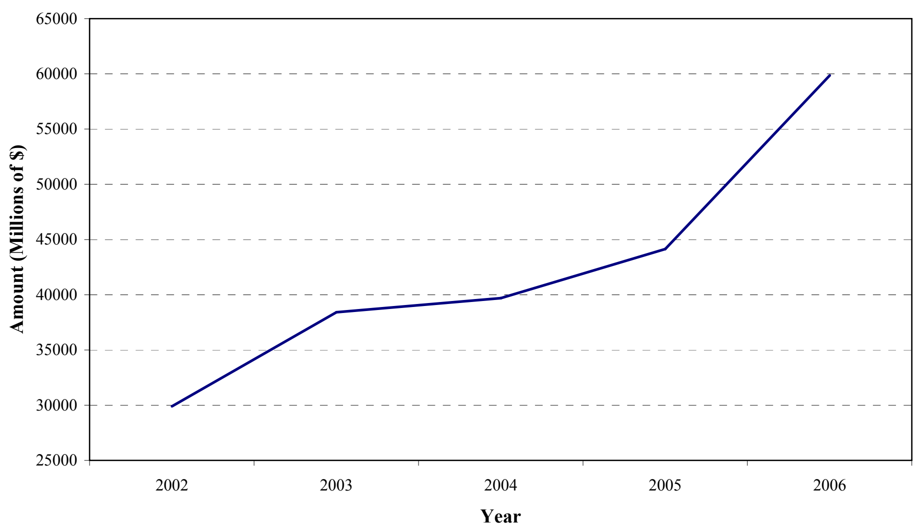


Source: "Who, What, Where, How" presentation by John Siegel, Bechtel Power Corp. Delivered at the conference entitled *Next Generation of Generation* (Dewey Ballantine LLP), May 4, 2006.

Engineering, Procurement and Construction (EPC) Market Conditions

Increased worldwide demand for new generating and other electric infrastructure projects, particularly in China, has been cited as a significant reason for the recent escalation in the construction cost of new power plants. This suggests that major Engineering, Procurement and Construction (EPC) firms should have a growing backlog of utility infrastructure projects in the pipeline. While we were unable to obtain specific information from the major EPC firms on their worldwide backlog of electric utility infrastructure projects (*i.e.*, the number of electric utility projects compared with other infrastructure projects such as roads, port facilities and water infrastructure, in their respective pipelines), we examined their financial statements, which specify the financial value associated with their backlog of infrastructure projects. Figure 15 shows the cumulative annual financial value associated with the backlog of infrastructure projects at the following four major EPC firms; Fluor Corporation, Bechtel Corporation, The Shaw Group Inc., and Tyco International Ltd. Figure 15 shows that the annual backlog of infrastructure projects rose sharply between 2005 and 2006, from $4.1 billion to $5.6 billion, an increase of 37 percent. This significant increase in the annual backlog of infrastructure projects at EPC firms is consistent with the data showing an increased worldwide demand for infrastructure projects in general and also utility generation, transmission, and distribution projects.

Figure 15
Annual Backlog at Major EPC Firms



Data are compiled from the Annual Reports of Fluor Corporation, Bechtel Corporation, The Shaw Group Inc., and Tyco International Ltd. For Bechtel, the data represent new booked work, as backlog is not reported.

The growth in construction project backlogs likely will dampen the competitiveness of EPC bids for future projects, at least until the EPC industry is able to expand capacity to manage and execute greater volumes of projects. This observation does not imply that this market is generally uncompetitive—rather it reflects the limited ability of EPC firms with near-term capacity constraints to service an upswing in new project development associated with a boom period in infrastructure construction cycles. Such constraints, combined with a rapidly filling (or full) queue for project management services, limit incentives to bid aggressively on new projects.

Although difficult to quantify, this lack of spare capacity in the EPC market will undoubtedly have an upward price pressure on new bids for EPC services and contracts. A recent filing by Oklahoma Gas & Electric Company (OG&E) seeking approval of the Red Rock plant (a 950 MW coal unit) provides a demonstration of this effect. In January 2007, OG&E testimony indicated that their February 3, 2006, cost estimate of nearly $1,700/kW had been revised to more than $1,900/kW by September 29, 2006, a 12-percent increase in just nine months. More than half of the increase (6.6 percent) was ascribed to change in market conditions which "reflect higher materials costs (steel and concrete), escalation in major equipment costs, and a significant tightening of the market for EPC contractor services (as there are relatively few qualified firms that serve the power plant development market)."[17] In the detailed cost table, OG&E indicated that the estimate for EPC services had increased by more than 50 percent during the nine month period (from $223/kW to $340/kW).

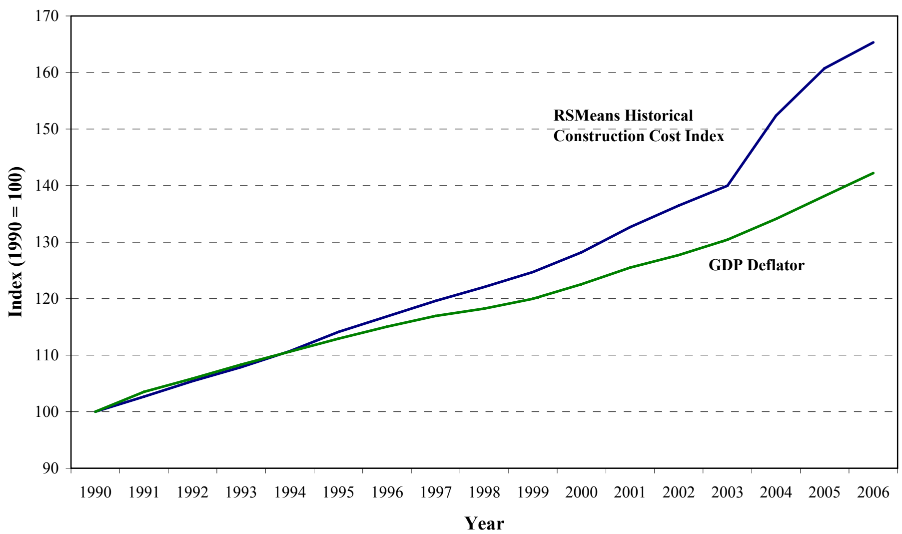
Summary Construction Cost Indices

Several sources publish summary construction cost indices that reflect composite costs for various construction projects. Although changes in these indices depend on the actual cost weights assumed *e.g.*, labor, materials, manufactured components, they provide useful summary measures for large infrastructure project construction costs.

The RSMeans Construction Cost Index provides a general construction cost index, which reflects primarily building construction (as opposed to utility projects). This index also reflects many of the same cost drivers as large utility construction projects such as steel, cement and labor. Figure 16 shows the changes in the RSMeans Construction Cost index since 1990 relative to the general inflation rate. While the index rose slightly higher than the GDP deflator beginning in the mid 1990s, it shows a pronounced increase between 2003 and 2006 when it rose by 18 percent compared to the 9 percent increase in general inflation.

[17] Testimony of Jesse B. Langston before the Corporation Commission of the State of Oklahoma, Cause No. PUD 200700012, January 17, 2007, page 27 and Exhibit JBL-9.

Figure 16
RSMeans Historical Construction Cost Index



Source: RSMeans, Heavy Construction Cost Data, 20th Annual Edition, 2006.

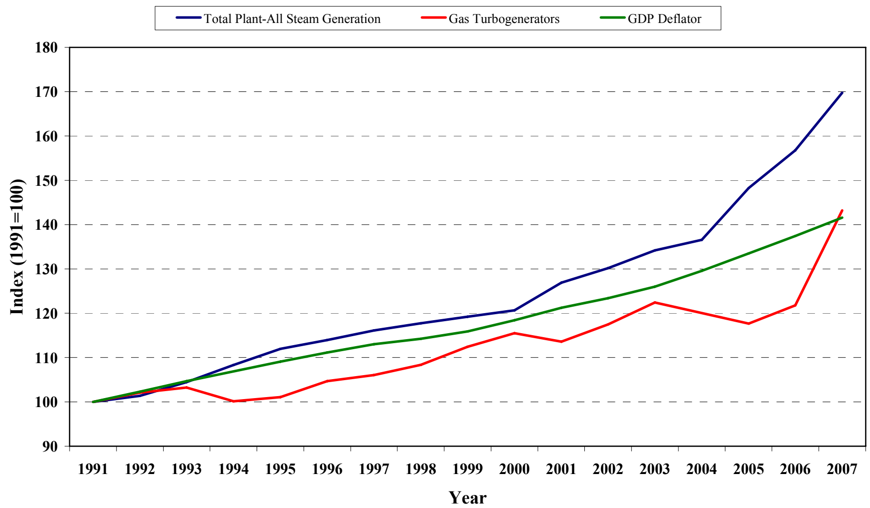
The Handy-Whitman Index© publishes detailed indices of utility construction costs for six regions, broken down by detailed component costs in many cases. Figures 17 through 19 show the evolution of several of the broad aggregate indices since 1991 compared with the general inflation index (GDP deflator).[18] The index numbers displayed on the graphs are for January 1 of each year displayed.

Figure 17 displays two indices for generation costs: a weighted average of coal steam plant construction costs (boilers, generators, piping, etc.) and a stand-alone cost index for gas combustion turbines.

As seen on Figure 17, steam generation construction costs tracked the general inflation rate fairly well through the 1990s, began to rise modestly in 2001, and increased significantly since 2004. Between January 1, 2004, and January 1, 2007, the cost of constructing steam generating units increased by 25 percent—more than triple the rate of inflation over the same time period. The cost of gas turbogenerators (combustion turbines), on the other hand, actually fell between 2003 and 2005. However, during 2006, the cost of a new combustion turbine increased by nearly 18 percent—roughly 10 times the rate of general inflation.

[18] Used with permission. See Handy-Whitman© Bulletin, No. 165 for detailed data breakouts and regional values for six regions: Pacific, Plateau, South Central, North Central, South Atlantic and North Atlantic. The Figures shown reflect simple averages of the six regions.

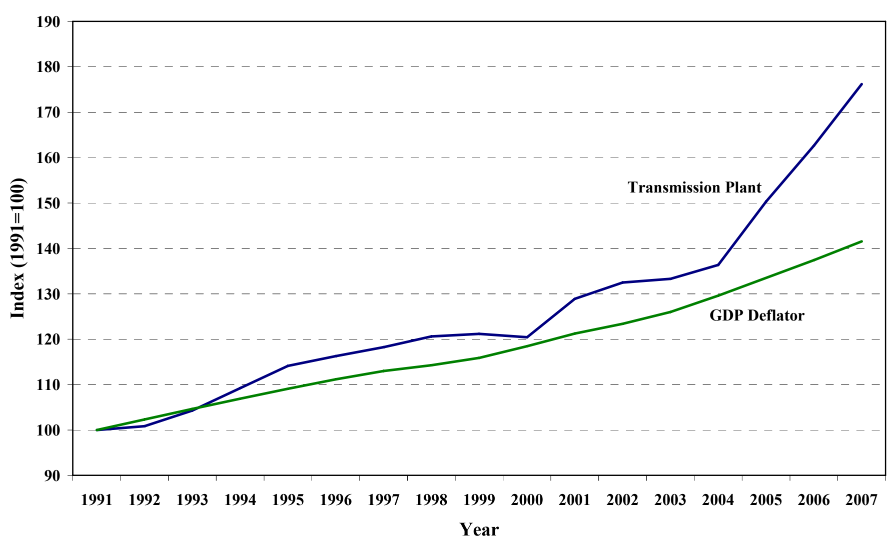
Figure 17
National Average Generation Cost Index



Sources: The Handy-Whitman© Bulletin, No. 165 and the U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis.
Simple average of all regional construction and equipment cost indices for the specified components.

Figure 18 displays the increased cost of transmission investment, which reflects such items as towers, poles, station equipment, conductors and conduit. The cost of transmission plant investments rose at about the rate of inflation between 1991 and 2000, increased in 2001, and then showed an especially sharp increase between 2004 and 2007, rising almost 30 percent or nearly four times the annual inflation rate over that period.

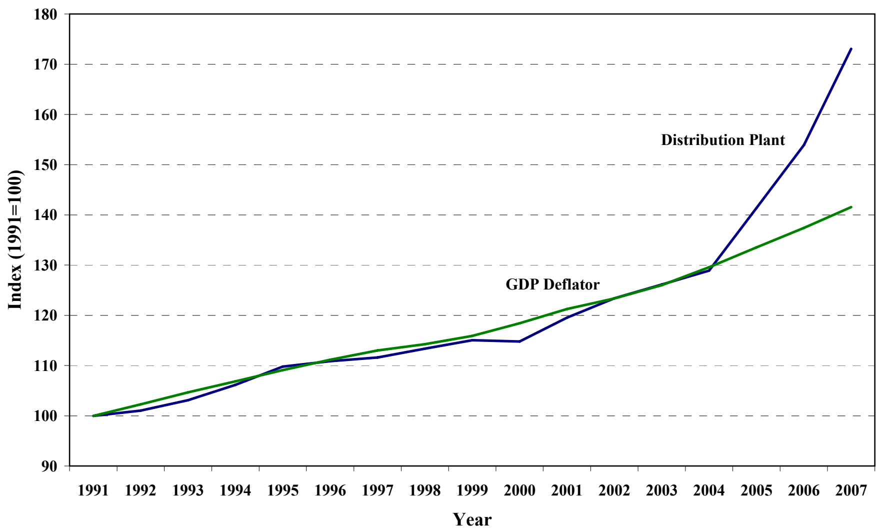
Figure 18
National Average Transmission Cost Index



Sources: The Handy-Whitman© Bulletin, No. 165, and the U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis.
Simple average of all regional transmission cost indices.

Figure 19 shows distribution plant costs, which include poles, conductors, conduit, transformers and meters. Overall distribution plant costs tracked the general inflation rate very closely between 1991 and 2003. However, it then increased 34 percent between January 2004 and January 2007, a rate that exceeded four times the rate of general inflation.

Figure 19
National Average Distribution Cost Index



Sources: The Handy-Whitman© Bulletin, No. 165, and the U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis.
Simple average of all regional distribution cost indices.

Comparison with Energy Information Administration Power Plant Cost Estimates

Every year, EIA prepares a long-term forecast of energy prices, production, and consumption (for electricity and the other major energy sectors), which is documented in the *Annual Energy Outlook* (AEO). A companion publication, *Assumptions to the Annual Energy Outlook*, itemizes the assumptions (*e.g*., fuel prices, economic growth, environmental regulation) underlying EIA's annual long-term forecast. Included in the latter document are estimates of the "overnight" capital cost of new generating units *(i.e.,* the capital cost exclusive of financing costs). These cost estimates influence the type of new generating capacity projected to be built during the 25-year time horizon modeled in the AEO.

The EIA capital cost assumptions are generic estimates that do not take into account the site-specific characteristics that can affect construction costs significantly.[19] While EIA's estimates do not necessarily provide an accurate estimate of the cost of building a power plant at a specific location, they should, in theory, provide a good "ballpark" estimate of the relative construction cost of different generation

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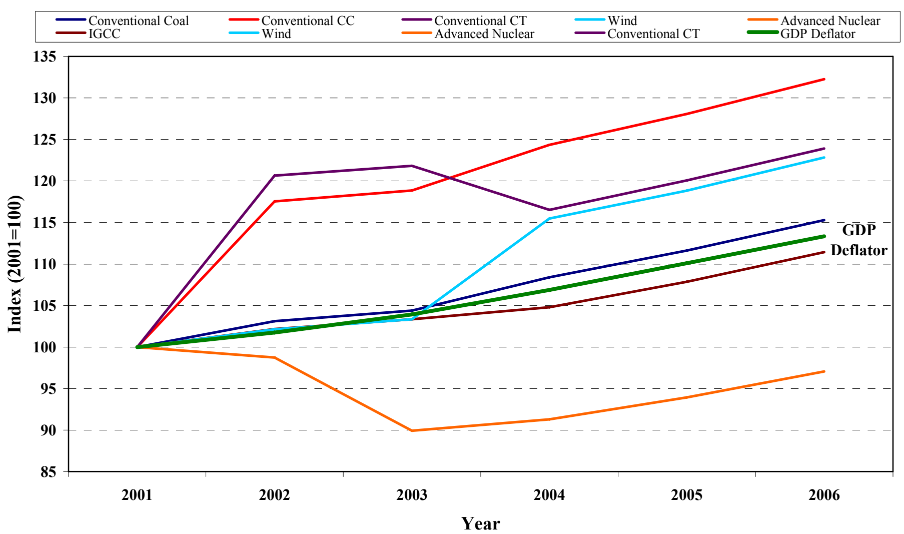
[19] EIA does incorporate regional multipliers to reflect minor variations in construction costs based on labor conditions.

technologies at any given time. In addition, since they are prepared annually, these estimates also should provide insight into construction cost trends over time.

The EIA plant cost estimates are widely used by industry analysts, consultants, academics, and policymakers. These numbers frequently are cited in regulatory proceedings, sometimes as a yardstick by which to measure a utility's projected or incurred capital costs for a generating plant. Given this, it is important that EIA's numbers provide a reasonable estimate of plant costs and incorporate both technological and other market trends that significantly affect these costs.

We reviewed EIA's estimate of overnight plant costs for the six-year period 2001 to 2006. Figure 20 shows EIA's estimates of the construction cost of six generation technologies—combined-cycle gas-fired plants, combustion turbines (CTs), pulverized coal, nuclear, IGCC, and wind—over the period 2001 to 2006 and compares these projections to the general inflation rate (GDP deflator). These six technologies, generally speaking, have been the ones most commonly built or given serious consideration in utility resource plans over the last few years. Thus, we can compare the data and case studies discussed above to EIA's cost estimates.

Figure 20
EIA Generation Construction Cost Estimates



Sources: Data collected from the Energy Information Administration, *Assumptions to the Annual Energy Outlook 2002 to 2007* and from the U.S. Bureau of Economic Analysis.

The general pattern in Figure 20 shows a dramatic change in several technology costs between 2001 and 2004 followed by a stable period of growth until 2006. The two exceptions to this are conventional coal and IGCC, which increase by a near constant rate each year close to the rate of inflation throughout the period. The data show conventional CC and conventional CT experiencing a sharp increase between 2001 and 2002. After this increase, conventional CC levels off and proceeds to increase at a pace near inflation, while conventional CT actually drops significantly before 2004 when it too levels near the rate of inflation. The pattern seen with nuclear technology is near to the opposite. It falls dramatically until about 2003 and then increases at the same rate as the GDP deflator. Lastly, wind moves close to inflation until 2004 when it experiences a one-time jump and then flattens off through 2006.

These patterns of cost estimates over time contradict the data and findings of this report. Almost every other generation construction cost element has shown price changes at or near the rate of inflation throughout the early part of this decade with a dramatic change in only the last few years. EIA appears to have reconsidered several technology cost estimates (or revised the benchmark technology type) in isolation between 2001 and 2004, without a systematic update of others. Meanwhile, during the period that overall construction costs were rising well above the general inflation rate, EIA has not revised its estimated capital cost figures to reflect this trend.

EIA's estimates of plant costs do not adequately reflect the recent increase in plant construction costs that has occurred in the last few years. Indeed, EIA itself acknowledges that its estimated construction costs do not reflect short-term changes in the price of commodities such as steel, cement and concrete.[20] While one would expect some lag in the EIA data, it is troubling that its most recent estimates continue to show the construction cost of conventional power plants increasing only at the general rate of inflation. Empirical evidence shows that the construction cost of generating plants—both fossil-fired and renewable—is escalating at a rate well above the GDP deflator. Even the most recent EIA data fail to reflect important market impacts that are driving plant construction costs, and thus do not provide a reliable measure of current or expected construction costs.

[20] *Annual Energy Outlook 2007*, U.S. Energy Information Administration, p. 36.

Conclusion

Construction costs for electric utility investments have risen sharply over the past several years, due to factors beyond the industry's control. Increased prices for material and manufactured components, rising wages, and a tighter market for construction project management services have contributed to an across-the-board increase in the costs of investing in utility infrastructure. These higher costs show no immediate signs of abating.

Despite these higher costs, utilities will continue to invest in baseload generation, environmental controls, transmission projects and distribution system expansion. However, rising construction costs will put additional upward pressure on retail rates over time, and may alter the pace and composition of investments going forward. The overall impact on the industry and on customers, however, will be borne out in various ways, depending on how utilities, markets and regulators respond to these cost increases. In the long run, customers ultimately will pay for higher construction costs—either directly in rates for completed assets of regulated companies, less directly in the form of higher energy prices needed to attract new generating capacity in organized markets and in higher transmission tariffs, or indirectly when rising construction costs defer investments and delay expected benefits such as enhanced reliability and lower, more stable long-term electricity prices.